

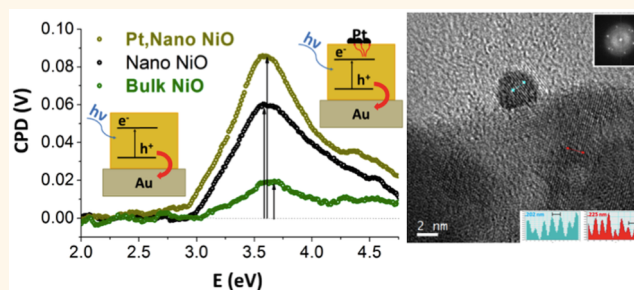
Nickel Oxide Particles Catalyze Photochemical Hydrogen Evolution from Water—Nanoscaling Promotes P-Type Character and Minority Carrier Extraction

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ABSTRACT Nickel(II) oxide (NiO) is an important wide gap p-type semiconductor used as a hole transport material for dye sensitized solar cells and as a water oxidation electrocatalyst. Here we demonstrate that nanocrystals of the material have increased p-type character and improved photocatalytic activity for hydrogen evolution from water in the presence of methanol as sacrificial electron donor. NiO nanocrystals were synthesized by hydrolysis of Ni(II) nitrate under hydrothermal conditions followed by calcination in air. The crystals have the rock salt structure type and adopt a plate-like morphology (50–90 nm × 10–15 nm). Diffuse reflectance absorbance spectra indicate a band gap of 3.45 eV, similar to bulk NiO.

Photoelectrochemical measurements were performed at neutral pH with methylviologen as electron acceptor, revealing photo-onset potentials (Fermi energies) of 0.2 and 0.05 eV (NHE) for nanoscale and bulk NiO, respectively. Nano-NiO and NiO-Pt composites obtained by photodeposition of H₂PtCl₆ catalyze hydrogen evolution from aqueous methanol at rates of 0.8 and 4.5 μmol H₂ h⁻¹, respectively, compared to 0.5 and 2.1 μmol H₂ h⁻¹ for bulk-NiO and NiO-Pt (20 mg of catalyst, 300 W Xe lamp). Surface photovoltage spectroscopy of NiO and NiO–Pt films on Au substrates indicate a metal Pt–NiO junction with 30 mV photovoltage that promotes carrier separation. The increased photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical performance of nano-NiO is due to improved minority carrier extraction and increased p-type character, as deduced from Mott–Schottky plots, optical absorbance, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy data.



KEYWORDS: photocatalysis · p-type metal oxide · nanoscale junction · surface photovoltage spectroscopy · photocorrosion

Photoelectrochemical and photocatalytic water splitting have attracted significant attention as methods for generating carbon free fuels from solar energy.^{1–3} Many photocatalysts have been reported to evolve hydrogen from water in the presence of a sacrificial reagent, but stable visible-light responsive photocatalysts for overall water splitting are still very rare.^{4–6} In tandem or z-scheme photocatalysts, water splitting is achieved by the combined photoaction of photocathode and photoanode materials that are connected in series.^{7–10} However, visible light

responsive p-type metal oxide photocatalysts and photoelectrodes are still uncommon.^{11–17} In terms of its structure and composition, nickel oxide (NiO) is one of the simplest p-type metal oxides.¹⁸ Its wide band gap precludes it from visible light absorption, but it is a popular hole transport material in dye sensitized solar cells,^{19–21} and in thin film photovoltaics.²² It also has been used as a cocatalyst in water splitting photocatalysts.^{6,23–27} Sometimes the function of NiO is not clear;²⁸ it has been interpreted as a proton-reduction electrocatalyst,^{29–32} as a water oxidation electrocatalyst,^{33,34} or as a photocathode.^{35,36}

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Indeed, under UV illumination, NiO films perform as photocathodes for hydrogen evolution from water, in the presence of a mild cathodic bias.^{17,37} Even though suspended NiO particles are photocatalytic for methylene blue and rhodamine B degradation,^{36,38,39} photocatalytic hydrogen evolution has not yet been demonstrated with suspended NiO particles. In order to test such a function we have conducted here a systematic study on the photocatalytic properties of bulk and nanoscale NiO particles. We find that under UV illumination, NiO particles are photocatalytic for hydrogen evolution from aqueous methanol solution, especially after the addition of a Pt cocatalyst. The activity is enhanced in NiO nanocrystals because of improved minority carrier collection and enhanced p-type character. This follows from photoelectrochemical and photovoltage measurements on thin films of the material. Overall, these results establish nanoscaling as a way to modify the carrier concentration in NiO and they provide the first demonstration of NiO as an UV-active photocatalyst for hydrogen evolution from water, in the presence of methanol as an electron source. The analysis also sheds new light on photochemical charge separation at nanoscale interfaces, as relevant to excitonic solar energy conversion devices.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

NiO nanoparticles for this study were synthesized by calcination of nickel hydroxide particles as described earlier by Zhang *et al.*⁴⁰ According to XRD, NiO is phase pure and crystallizes in the cubic NaCl structure type (Figure 1). On the basis of the peak broadening the nanocrystal thickness dimension can be calculated as 6.7 ± 0.7 nm using the Scherrer equation. According to TEM, bulk NiO particles (Figure 2E) are $0.5\text{--}1.0\ \mu\text{m}$ and show an irregular morphology. The synthesized NiO nanocrystals, on the other hand, exist as thin plates with diameters ranging from 50 to 90 nm and thicknesses of 10–15 nm, about twice the diameter obtained from X-ray diffraction. This suggests that the NiO nanocrystals are not single crystals, despite the well-ordered crystal planes observed in HRTEM. The optical properties of NiO depend strongly on the crystal size. While bulk-NiO powder is green, the nanocrystals appear black (Figure 3). Diffuse reflectance spectra are shown in Figure 3. The spectrum for bulk-NiO is characterized by several d–d transitions of the Ni^{2+} ion in an octahedral O environment.^{41,42} The corresponding bands at 1.75 eV and at 2.75–2.95 eV and the absence of absorption at 1.75–2.75 eV are responsible for the green color of the material. In nano-NiO this absorption range is covered by a broad tail that is due to Ni^{3+} states and leads to a black appearance of the material.⁴¹ Indeed, Ni_2O_3 is black.⁴³ Band gap (E_g) values for nano- and bulk-NiO were determined by extrapolation of the linear region of each constructed

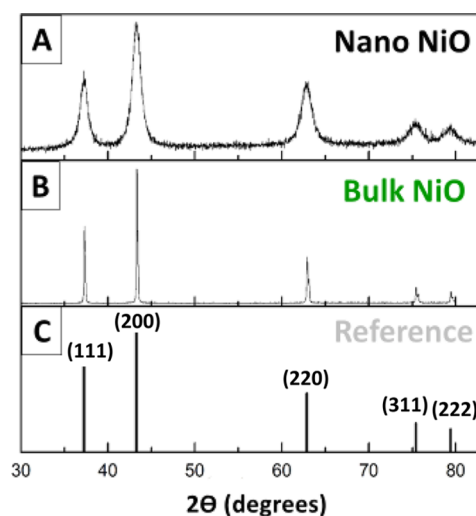


Figure 1. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns of NiO nanocrystals (A), bulk NiO (B), and NiO reference pattern (C) (JCPDS No. 71–1179).

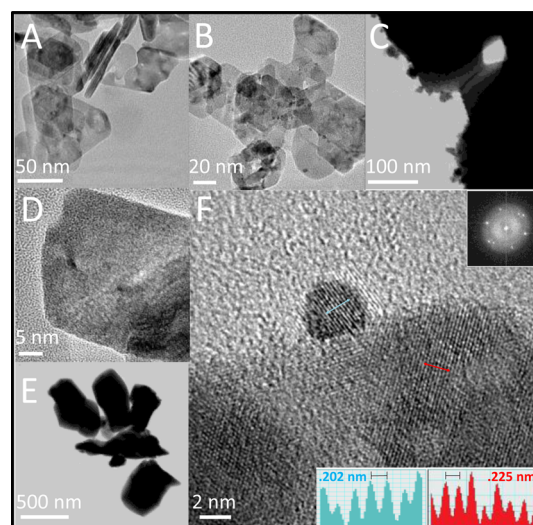


Figure 2. HRTEM images of nano NiO (A,D), Bulk NiO (E), Pt-Nano NiO (B) and Pt-Bulk NiO (C). Lattice spacings of nano NiO along the [111] direction (0.225 nm) and Pt nano NiO along the [110] direction (0.202 nm) are shown in the inset of panel (F).

Tauc plot (Figure 3C,D). For nano-NiO this analysis yields a band gap of 3.45 eV close to the literature value of 3.5 eV for NiO.⁴¹ For bulk-NiO the Tauc analysis is not clear because of the additional 2.5–3.25 eV absorption bands. As mentioned above, previous studies support a photoelectrical and photocatalytic function in NiO.^{35,37–39} To determine if NiO is able to photocatalytically evolve hydrogen, 20 mg of the NiO catalysts were irradiated under full spectrum from a Xe lamp in an aqueous solution of 20% methanol.

Formation of H_2 was observed in all irradiation experiments, and rates were stable over 6 h (Figure 4). Nano-NiO is more active ($0.8\ \mu\text{mol H}_2\ \text{h}^{-1}$) than bulk-NiO ($0.5\ \mu\text{mol H}_2\ \text{h}^{-1}$), which may be attributed to improved carrier transport to the surface, as observed before for $\text{HfCa}_2\text{Nb}_3\text{O}_{10}$ ^{44,45} and Fe_2O_3 .⁴⁶

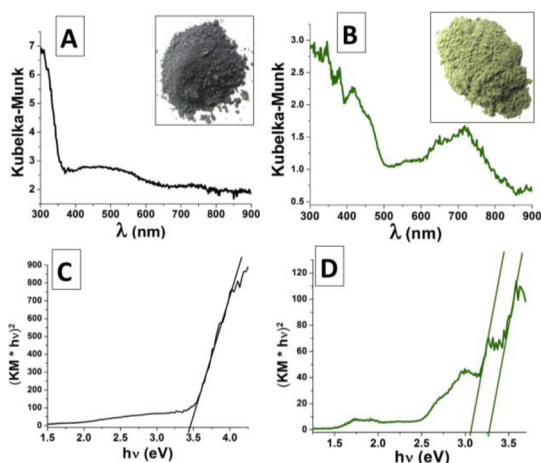


Figure 3. Diffuse reflectance spectra (A,B) and direct-transition Tauc plots (C,D) for nano- and bulk-NiO, respectively. Insets: Photographs of NiO.

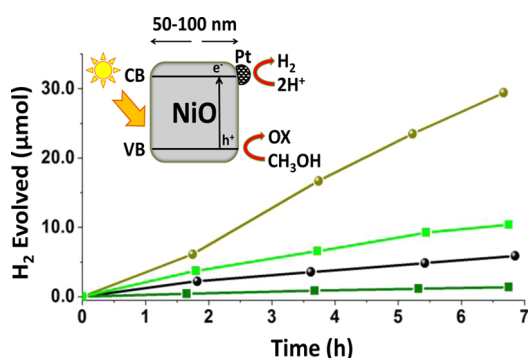


Figure 4. Hydrogen evolution from Pt nano-NiO [brown circle], Pt-bulk NiO [light green square], nano-NiO [black circle], bulk-NiO [dark green square] in 75 mL of 20% (vol) aqueous methanol at pH = 7 under full spectrum irradiation. Catalyst amount: 20 mg, light intensity at flask: 80 mW cm⁻².

An increase in hydrogen evolution occurs after photochemical platination of NiO with H₂PtCl₆ (see Experimental Section). Platination leads to 2–5 nm Pt nanocrystals on the surface of nano-NiO (Figure 2BF). For bulk NiO, the Pt crystals are slightly larger (10–20 nm, Figure 2C). Platinated nano-NiO evolves 4.5 μmol H₂ h⁻¹, which corresponds to a quantum efficiency of less than 0.1%. However, turnover numbers for nano-NiO and platinated nano-NiO were 0.53 and 1.05 at 62 h, respectively (Figure S1), supporting a catalytic function. Bulk-NiO/Pt is less active, with a rate of 2.1 μmol H₂ h⁻¹.

In order to determine the cause for the enhanced photocatalytic activity of nano-NiO, electrochemical measurements were conducted on thin films of the materials. Figure 5 shows photoelectrochemical scans under full spectrum illumination (Xe lamp, 40 mW cm⁻²) and in the presence of methylviologen dichloride (MVCl₂) as a sacrificial electron acceptor. Both materials produce cathodic photocurrents at potentials negative of 0.0 V (vs NHE) that can be attributed to MV²⁺ reduction. The nano-NiO photoelectrode exhibited

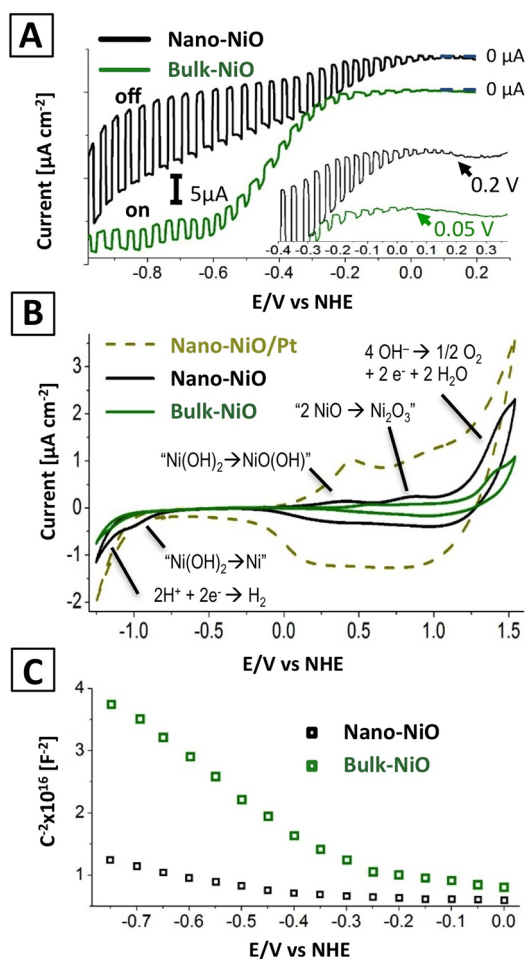


Figure 5. Chopped light photocurrent scans (A) for nano-NiO and bulk-NiO in 0.1 M KCl at pH = 7 with 0.001 M MVCl₂. Inset shows onset of photocurrent. Electrochemical dark scans (B) of nano-NiO, bulk-NiO, Pt:nano-NiO in 0.1 M KCl at pH = 7. (C) Mott–Schottky plots of NiO films in 0.1 M KCl at pH = 7.

significantly higher photocurrent (5–8 μA cm⁻²) compared to bulk NiO (1–3 μA cm⁻²) demonstrating its enhanced ability to transfer minority charge carriers (electrons) to MV²⁺. This is a direct result of the smaller particle size of nano-NiO and its increased interfacial area with the liquid phase.

To investigate the stability of the NiO films, electrochemical scans were conducted in 0.1 M KCl solution at pH = 7 (Figure 4B). Only small dark currents are observed for bulk-NiO, which appears stable over the entire potential range between –1.0 and +1.3 V. The cathodic feature at $E_{app} < -1.0$ V is due to the water reduction, as confirmed by the evolution of H₂ bubbles at the working electrode. This current is increased in Pt-modified NiO films, because of the lower proton reduction overpotential of Pt. Thermodynamically, H₂ is able to reduce NiO to nickel metal, but the reaction is slow at ambient temperature.^{47,48} The dark current at +1.3 V can be attributed to water oxidation, based on the comparison with literature values.^{33,37,49,50}

Additional cathodic and anodic redox features are observed for nano-NiO and nano-NiO/Pt that can be attributed to the reduction and oxidation of Ni^{2+} ion. For nano-NiO the dark currents are stronger because of the increased solid–liquid interface. Platination of NiO amplifies the current because the introduction of the metallic particles increases the electronic conductance of the films. The small cathodic feature at -0.9 to -1.1 V for nano-NiO has been previously associated with the reduction of $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ to Ni metal.⁵¹

The anodic feature at $+0.3$ V (NHE) has been attributed to the oxidation of surface $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ to $\text{NiO}(\text{OH})$.⁵¹ A second anodic feature follows at $E > +0.75$ V, which has been previously assigned to the oxidation of NiO to Ni_2O_3 .⁵² Finally, at $E > +1.25$ V water oxidation to oxygen occurs. Overall, the larger surface area of nano-NiO reduces the electrochemical stability of the material, compared to bulk-NiO. This limits its photocatalytic function to a narrow window between -0.9 and $+0.3$ V (vs NHE). Indeed, under mild reducing bias ($E_{\text{app}} = -0.3$ V vs NHE) nano-NiO supports a relatively stable cathodic photocurrent over a period of 80 min, as shown in Figure S2. For bulk-NiO the photocurrent is about half, due to the lower charge carrier density in bulk-NiO and due to the lower surface area. To further investigate the reason for the enhanced photoreponse of nano-NiO, Mott–Schottky plots for bulk and nano NiO films were recorded in 0.1 KCl solution (Figure 4D). For both materials, linear plots with a negative slope confirm p-type character. On the basis of the ratio of the inverse slopes of the plots, the hole carrier density of nano-NiO is approximately four times higher than for bulk-NiO. However, because of the nanostructured morphology of the films no quantitative analysis of the doping levels and of the flatband potentials is possible. A better estimate of the Fermi energies E_F is obtained from the photocurrent onset potential of the cathodic current. In the presence of the fast electron acceptor MV^{2+} , the photocurrent onset gives the quasi Fermi level (E_{Fh}) of the majority carriers in a material.^{53–55} The data in the inset of Figure 4A yields $E_{\text{Fh}} = +0.20$ for nano-NiO and $E_{\text{Fh}} = +0.05$ V for the bulk material. These values are slightly more negative than the $+0.4$ V flat band potential measured at pH 7 for an amorphous NiO film deposited electrochemically from $\text{NiSO}_4/\text{glycine}$ solution,¹⁸ but they compare well to the 4.6 eV NiO work function from photoemission spectra.⁵⁶ The more oxidizing E_F value for nano-NiO indicates a stronger p-type character in the nanomaterial, in line with the results of the Mott–Schottky analysis. Using the Nernst equation, the 0.15 V E_F difference between bulk and nano-NiO corresponds to a ~ 350 times higher hole concentration in nano-NiO. To verify this assessment, XPS spectra were recorded for both NiO particle sizes (Figure S3). The spectra reveal that one-half of the Ni is in the +3

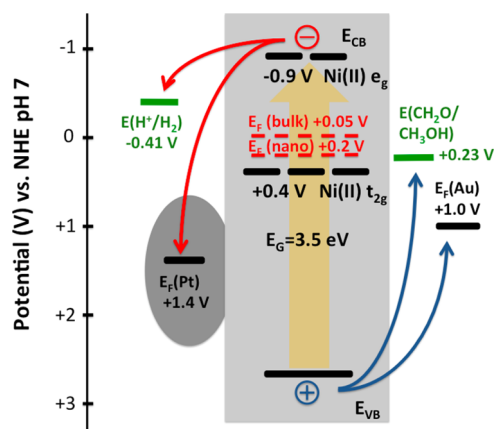


Figure 6. Energy diagram of nano-NiO on the electrochemical scale. Positions of Ni^{2+} e_g and t_{2g} orbitals are taken from the electrochemical reduction (-0.9 V) and oxidation ($+0.4$ V) potentials in Figure 5B. The valence band edge is constructed from E_{CB} and the optical band gap (3.5 eV). Work functions⁶⁶ and the methanol oxidation potential⁶⁷ are from the literature.

oxidation state and the other half in the +2 oxidation state. Interestingly, for the bulk NiO particles the same $\text{Ni}^{3+/2+}$ ratio is found. This is because 10 keV XPS beam probes only 0.37 nm of the particle surface layer, but not the particle core of bulk-NiO. The surface Ni^{3+} content in NiO has been revealed by earlier XPS studies to be a result of oxygen chemisorption.^{57–59} This and the electrochemical and optical studies confirm that the higher Ni^{3+} concentration in nano-NiO is a direct result of the smaller size of the crystals and their increased surface area, which can be estimated as 11 times that of the bulk, based on the relative particle sizes and shapes. The improved photocurrent of the nano-NiO films is due to the higher surface area and the increased majority carrier concentration. The higher carrier concentration raises the electric conductivity and reduces the Ohmic potential drop across the film. The relationship between conductivity and photocurrent is well established for many metal oxides, including $n\text{-WO}_3$,⁶⁰ $n\text{-BiVO}_4$,^{61,62} $n\text{-SrTiO}_3$,⁶³ and $n\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$.⁶⁴ The higher surface area and the smaller particle size reduce the minority carrier diffusion distance and enables faster electron injection into the redox couple in the liquid phase. This effect is analogous to that observed for nanoscale forms of WO_3 ,⁶⁰ $n\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$,⁴⁶ $n\text{-BiVO}_4$,⁶⁵ and other inorganic light absorbers with short minority carrier diffusion length.

The electrochemical and optical data in Figures 3 and 5 can be used to construct the energy diagram in Figure 6. The scheme is consistent with the literature^{41,42} and reveals that the NiO conduction band is sufficiently negative for proton reduction at pH = 7. Bulk- and nano-NiO are similar in terms of the energetics, except for a slightly more oxidizing quasi Fermi level in the nanomaterial, as explained above. The position of the Fermi level near the conduction band

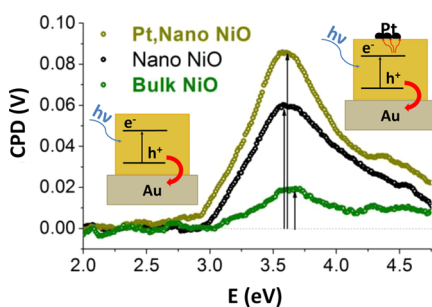


Figure 7. Surface photovoltage spectra of nano- and bulk-NiO films on gold substrate in a vacuum (2×10^{-4} mbar) and with light power density of ~ 0.1 mW/cm $^{-2}$.

edge is unusual for a p-type material. It arises from the localization of some of the holes in Ni^{2+} t_{2g} orbitals, near the mid of the gap.

To further analyze the kinetics of charge separation in illuminated NiO particles, surface photovoltage spectra (SPS) were recorded for the various samples. In SPS, a Kelvin probe measures light-induced changes in the contact potential difference (CPD) as a function of the energy of incoming photons. SPS has been previously used as an effective technique for probing photochemical charge transfer at nanostructured interfaces.^{68–73} Figure 7 shows SPS spectra for particle films of NiO on a gold substrate. For nano- and bulk-NiO a positive photovoltage signal appears at photon energies >3.1 eV. This energy is below the optically determined band gap of 3.5 eV, which shows that subgap states, likely at the particle surfaces, contribute to the photovoltage. The positive sign of the voltage is due to majority (hole) carrier injection into the Au substrate, as shown in the inset of Figure 7. This confirms p-type character for NiO, despite the negative Fermi level in Figure 7. The photovoltage increases with photon energy to reach a maximum value at 3.6 eV, near the optical band gap, and then decreases to nearly zero due to the finite light absorption depth of the material. While bulk-NiO yields a maximum ΔCPD of 19 mV, nano-NiO yields 60 mV. In light of the similar Fermi levels and band gaps of both materials, this photovoltage boost is attributed to improved electron trapping in surface states in nano-NiO.

The addition of the Pt cocatalyst raises the photovoltage maximum to 87 mV. This is due to minority carrier (electron) injection into the Pt nanoparticles (see inset). Minority carrier injection is favored by the large Pt workfunction and by the close proximity of

Pt and NiO particles which promotes transfer of short-lived carriers. The ~ 30 mV voltage increase can be interpreted as the Pt-NiO junction potential. This shows that the effect of Pt on photocatalytic hydrogen evolution not only consists in reducing the proton reduction overpotential, but also in increasing the electron–hole separation in the photocatalyst. But overall, photovoltages in the Pt-NiO-Au system fall short of the values predicted by thermodynamics. According to Figure 6, the built-in voltage of the Au-NiO contact (for hole injection) is +1.6 V and that of the Pt-NiO contact (or electron injection) is +2.3 V. The former voltage is limited by the low hole mobility in NiO,²¹ and the latter voltage by competitive hole injection. The low intensity of the illumination source (0.1 mW cm $^{-2}$) plays a lesser role as we have previously obtained large photovoltages for $\text{HfCa}_2\text{Nb}_3\text{O}_{10}$ under similar illumination conditions.⁷¹

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we have provided the first demonstration of suspended NiO particles as UV-responsive photocatalyst for H_2 evolution from aqueous methanol. It was also shown that nano-NiO is catalytically and photoelectrochemically more active than bulk-NiO, because of improved minority carrier extraction across the larger surface. Importantly, nano-NiO was found to have an increased p-type character, based on electrochemical and photo-onset measurements, and based on the black color of the material. The increased p-character of nano-NiO is due to surface Ni^{3+} states resulting from the chemisorption of oxygen. Because the surface of nano-NiO is larger than that of bulk-NiO, its Ni^{3+} content is increased. This shows that nanoscaling can affect the carrier concentration in metal oxides. Furthermore, we showed that added Pt nanoparticles improve the photocatalytic activity of NiO. This occurs not only because Pt lowers the proton reduction overpotential but also because it increases electron hole separation at the NiO-Pt interface. The small Pt-NiO junction potential of 30 mV is due to competitive hole (majority carrier) injection. Overall, the function of NiO as a photocatalyst is fundamentally limited by its electrochemical instability outside of the -0.9 V to $+0.3$ V (vs NHE) potential window, and by its large band gap that precludes sunlight absorption. These results are relevant to the understanding of NiO-containing photocatalysts³³ and to the electronic properties of nanoscale metal oxides and junctions.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Nanosize NiO was synthesized according to the literature⁴⁰ by dissolving 0.75 g of $\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ (Acros Organics, $>99\%$ pure) in 30 mL of pure water (resistivity >18 M Ω) before adjusting the solution to pH 12 with 5 M KOH (Fisher Scientific, $>99\%$ pure) and stirring for 1 h to form green solid $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$. This mixture was then heated at 160 $^\circ\text{C}$ in a high-pressure stainless steel autoclave

for 8 h and washed by centrifugation in pure water and absolute ethanol separately. A light green $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ solid was obtained in 70% yield and converted to a light black NiO by heating at 500 $^\circ\text{C}$ in a tube furnace for 3 h in air. Bulk NiO particles (99.99% pure) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich CAS 1313–99–1.

Platinum was deposited onto the nano-NiO and bulk-NiO particles by irradiating the 50 mg in a solution of 0.5 mL of

H₂PtCl₆ (1.0 mg/mL, >99.9% pure, Sigma-Aldrich CAS 16921–30–5) in 100 mL of water (1 wt % Pt) and 10% (vol) methanol for 2 h under illumination from a 300 W Xe arc lamp. Platinated powders were washed repeatedly in pure water then dried under a vacuum.

Powder X-ray diffraction spectroscopy was performed at standard temperatures using a Scintag XRD and a monochromatic wavelength of $\lambda = 0.154$ nm with 2 mm tube slit divergence. A quartz dish served as the sample holder.

High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were taken using a JEOL 2500SE at 200 kV accelerating potential. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were taken using a Philips CM12 at 120 kV. Samples were prepared by submerging carbon-coated Cu grids in aqueous suspensions of NiO particles followed by rinsing with water and drying at room temperature.

UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra were recorded on solid films using a Thermo Scientific Evolution 220 Spectrometer equipped with an integrating sphere. The reflectance data were converted with the Kubelka–Munk function [$f(R) = (1 - R)^2 / (2R)$] to correct for light loss due to scattering.

The rates of photochemical H₂ evolution were determined by irradiating 20 mg of NiO catalyst dispersed in a 20% (vol) aqueous methanol solution and analyzing the gas evolved using a gas chromatograph (Varian 3800). Irradiations were performed in a quartz flask using a 300 W Xe arc lamp with a measured power output of 500 mW cm⁻² ($\lambda = 280$ –660 nm) at the flask. Output in ultraviolet region ($\lambda = 260$ –350 nm) was approximately 80 mW cm⁻². For long-duration H₂ evolution experiments (S1) an increased light intensity was used (150 mW cm⁻², $\lambda = 260$ –350 nm) along with a higher concentration of sacrificial reagent (MeOH).

For electrochemical measurements, NiO electrodes were prepared by drop casting NiO powders on F:SnO₂ (FTO) substrates and annealing at 350 °C for 1 h. The NiO working electrode was connected in a 3-electrode configuration with a Pt counter electrode and a saturated calomel reference electrode (SCE). Aqueous electrolyte solution (0.1 M K₂SO₄, pH 7) was added to the cell and bubbled with N₂ gas to remove all dissolved oxygen prior to scanning. Methyl viologen dichloride hydrate (98% pure, Sigma-Aldrich CAS 75365–73–0) was used in photocurrent onset scans (Xe lamp, 40 mW cm⁻²) to ensure fast reaction kinetics at the electrode surface. Electrochemical impedance/capacitance measurements were performed in 0.1 M KCl (pH 7) at a frequency of 4×10^4 Hz. The cell was calibrated with the redox potential of K₄[Fe(CN)₆] at +0.358 V vs NHE.

Surface photovoltage spectroscopy (SPS) measurements were performed with a vibrating gold Kelvin probe (Delta PHI Besocke) mounted inside a vacuum chamber equipped with quartz window. Data were collected while films were illuminated under a vacuum (2×10^{-4} mBar) with monochromatic light. The CPD spectra were corrected for drift effects by subtracting dark scan data.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting Information Available: Photocurrent scans, long-term irradiation and XPS data. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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