

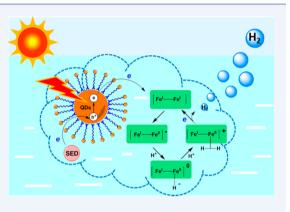
# Enhancement of the Efficiency of Photocatalytic Reduction of Protons to Hydrogen via Molecular Assembly

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**CONSPECTUS:** One of the best solutions for meeting future energy demands is the conversion of water into hydrogen fuel using solar energy. The splitting of water into molecular hydrogen  $(H_2)$  and oxygen  $(O_2)$  using light involves two half-reactions: the oxidation of water to  $O_2$  and the reduction of protons to  $H_2$ . To take advantage of the full range of the solar spectrum, researchers have extensively investigated artificial photosynthesis systems consisting of two photosensitizers and two catalysts with a Z-configuration: one photosensitizer-catalyst pair for  $H_2$  evolution and the other for  $O_2$  evolution.

This type of complete artificial photosynthesis system is difficult to build and optimize; therefore, researchers typically study the reductive halfreaction and the oxidative half-reaction separately. To study the two halfreactions, researchers use a sacrificial electron donor to provide electrons for the reductive half-reaction, and a sacrificial electron acceptor to



capture electrons for the oxidative half-reaction. After optimization, they can eliminate the added donors and acceptors as the two half reactions are coupled to a complete photocatalytic water spitting system.

Most photocatalytic systems for the  $H_2$  evolution half-reaction consist of a photosensitizer, a catalyst, and a sacrificial electron donor. To promote photoinduced electron transfer and photocatalytic  $H_2$  production, these three components should be assembled together in a controlled manner. Researchers have struggled to design a photocatalytic system for  $H_2$  evolution that uses earth-abundant materials and is both efficient and durable.

This Account reviews advances our laboratory has made in the development of new systems for photocatalytic H evolution that uses earth-abundant materials and is both efficient and durable. We used organometallic complexes and quantum-confined semiconductor nanocrystals (QDs) as photosensitizers, and [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics and inorganic transition metal salts as catalysts to construct photocatalytic systems with sacrificial electron donors. Covalently linked Re(I) complex-[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic dyads and ferrocene-Re(I) complex-[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic triads could photocatalyze H<sub>2</sub> production in organic solutions, but these photocatalytic systems tended to decompose. We also constructed several assemblies of CdTe and CdSe QDs as photosensitizers with [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics as catalysts. These assemblies produced H<sub>2</sub> in aqueous solutions photocatalytically and efficiently, with turnover numbers (TONs) up to tens of thousands. Assemblies of 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA)-capped CdTe QDs with Co<sup>2+</sup> ions formed Co<sub>h</sub>-CdTe hollow nanospheres, and MPA capped-CdSe QDs with Ni<sup>+</sup> ions produced Ni<sub>h</sub>-CdSe/CdS core/ shell hybrids in situ in aqueous solutions upon irradiation. The resulting photocatalytic systems proved robust for H<sub>2</sub> evolution. These systems showed excellent activity and impressive durability in the photocatalytic reaction, suggesting that they can serve as a valuable part of an overall water splitting system.

### INTRODUCTION

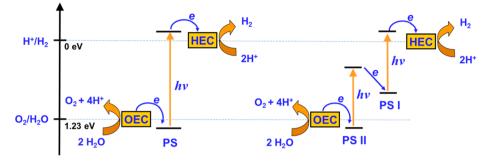
The dominating energy at present comes from burning fossil fuels that were produced in the earth through natural photosynthesis in the past 2.5 billion years. The global annual energy consumption is approaching about 14 TW in the present time and will reach 20 TW by 2030. This consumed energy requires one million years for the earth to accumulate in the form of fossil fuels.<sup>1,2</sup> Thus, the fossil fuels are not a sustainable resource, and we must break our reliance on them. Furthermore, the heavy use of fossil fuels leads to large pollution problems and fast growing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Obviously, development of renewable, nonpolluting, sustainable energy resources is vital. In this context, solar power is among the most

promising alternatives. The sun provides more energy to the earth in an hour than the world consumes in a year.

Conversion of solar energy into chemical fuel, particularly solar driven splitting of water into molecular hydrogen  $(H_2)$  and oxygen  $(O_2)$ , represents one of the important approaches to the use of solar energy, since  $H_2$  is an ideal solar fuel with its high specific enthalpy of combustion and benign combustion product (water).<sup>1-4</sup> As a redox reaction, water splitting can be divided into two half-reactions: the oxidation of water to  $O_2$ 

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**Received:** March 31, 2014 **Published:** May 29, 2014 Scheme 1. Schematic Representation for Photocatalytic Water Splitting with One (left) and Two Photosensitizers (right)



and the reduction of protons to H2. Inspired by natural photosynthesis, many systems have been developed that involve photosensitizer(s) (PS) to capture solar photons and produce charge-separated species (Scheme 1).<sup>5-8</sup> The positive charges thus generated are coupled to a catalyst (O2 evolution catalyst, OEC) to oxidize water into O2 and protons, and the electrons are transferred to another catalyst (H<sub>2</sub> evolution catalyst, HEC) to reduce protons into H<sub>2</sub>. The overall energetic requirement at pH 0 is 1.23 eV to produce one mole of H<sub>2</sub> from one mole of water, which corresponds to the energy of one molar of photons with wavelength at ca. 800 nm. However, the excited-state energy levels of the photosensitizer have to match the redox potentials of water. The energy level of the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of the PS has to be above the water reduction potential level, and that of the highest occupied orbital (HOMO) should be below the water oxidation potential. Evidently, it is easy to make a photosensitizer with low excitation energy (thereby absorbing visible light), but it is very difficult to design a system with single photosensitizer that can absorb visible light and its exited-state energy levels also can match the redox potentials of water. To overcome this problem, one can utilize two photosensitizers (PS I and PS II) with a Z-scheme configuration as shown in Scheme 1 (right), that is, one as the photosensitizer for  $H_2$ evolution and the other for O<sub>2</sub> evolution.<sup>8</sup> In such a system, shuttling one electron from the oxidative side of the system to the reductive side requires two photons; that is, PS II and PS I each absorbs one photon. This system closely mimics natural photosynthesis. In the two photosensitizer concept, one only requires the LUMO level of PS I above water reduction potential, and the HOMO level of PS II below water oxidation potential. Thus, it is easy to find two such photosensitizers that utilize visible light to drive each half-reaction. Because of the complexity in building and optimizing such a complete artificial photosynthesis system, it is common to divide this system into reductive half-reaction and oxidative half-reaction and to study them separately. When studying the reductive half-reaction, a sacrificial electron donor is used to provide electrons.<sup>9-16</sup> Similarly, in the study of the oxidative half-reaction, a sacrificial electron acceptor is used to capture electrons.<sup>17</sup> After optimization, the two half-reactions can be coupled with each other to constitute an overall water splitting system without use of any sacrificial electron donor and acceptor.

Light-driven water splitting processes require the transfer of multiple electrons, that is, reduction of two protons into  $H_2$  needs PS I to transfer two electrons to the HEC, while for oxidation of water the OEC has to accumulate four positive charges. On the other hand, a single photon absorption event results in the excitation and transfer of only one electron. Both the oxidative and the reductive half-reactions are kinetically

demanding processes. For example, in the reductive halfreaction, following accepting one electron the HEC produces an intermediator that may undergo charge recombination and/ or decomposition. For efficient proton reduction, the second photoinduced electron transfer step to the HEC intermediator must occur on the time scale of the intermediator lifetime. The approach to promoting the electron transfer is to assemble the photosensitizer, the catalyst, and/or the sacrificial electron donor into a supramolecular system, thereby affecting their relative orientations, distances, and electron coupling. Ideally, the component molecules should be assembled in a controlled manner, as in the assembly of the photosynthesis apparatus.

There have been a large number of publications on the subject of converting solar energy into chemical fuel, particularly the reductive half-reaction in the artificial photosynthesis by using various photosensitizers and catalysts since the past years.<sup>9–16</sup> This account is mainly limited to the recent progress of our laboratory in photocatalytic reduction of protons to hydrogen.<sup>18–29</sup>

### COMPONENTS OF THE PHOTOCATALYTIC SYSTEM FOR PROTON REDUCTION

To perform the reductive half-reaction of the light-driven water splitting, photocatalytic systems typically consist of a catalyst (Cat), a photosensitizer (PS), and a sacrificial electron donor (SED). In the interest of long-term sustainability, an ideal photocatalytic system should be one where both the catalyst and the photosensitizer are composed exclusively of earth-abundant elements and the resulting composition exhibits long-term stability and high efficiency for H<sub>2</sub> production. With the great efforts of multiple disciplines, significant progress has been achieved over the last 5 years in the design and synthesis of the new components and in the study of their combination into robust systems.<sup>9–29</sup>

#### Photosensitizer

The photosensitizer in the photocatalytic reduction of proton functions as light absorber and electron deliverer to the catalyst. Ideal photosensitizers should have large extinction coefficient over a broad spectral range, long excited state lifetime, and superior photostability. Various photosensitizers involving organic and organometallic chromophores as well as quantum-confined semiconductor nanocrystals (QDs) have been developed.<sup>9–16,18–29</sup> For most organic chromophores with few exceptions, their excited states undergo reductive quenching thus resulting in unstable radical anions that easily decompose. The commonly used organometallic chromophores are Pt, Pd, Ru, Ir, or Rh complexes, which consist of precious metals and have complicated structures. QDs have many characteristics that are ideal for light-harvesting and

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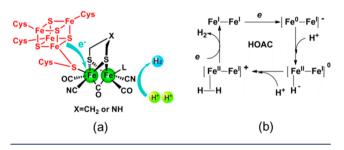
electron delivery. Compared with organic and organometallic chromophores, these QDs offer unique size-dependent absorption properties, large absorption cross sections over a broad spectral range, long exciton lifetimes, and superior photostability. QDs can simultaneously absorb multiple photons, or continuously absorb multiple photons even after electrons or holes are accumulated, thus enabling the coupling of single-photon/electron events with multiple-electron redox reactions necessary for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production. The surface of QDs can be readily modified for specific functional targets and/or reaction environments, therefore can form molecular assemblies with the catalysts and/or SED. These characteristics make QDs superb candidates for photocatalytic generation of hydrogen.

### Catalyst

The catalyst for the reductive half-reaction in artificial photosynthesis accepts electrons from the excited state photosensitizer (oxidative quenching) or from the photosensitizer radical anion generated from reductive quenching by SED, and catalyzes protons into H<sub>2</sub>. While metallic colloidal Pt or Pt-complexes show excellent activity for H<sub>2</sub> production, they are scarce and expensive.<sup>16,29</sup> Catalysts relying on noble-metal-free materials are therefore desirable. In this regard, complexes of cobalt, nickel, and iron have been found to function as catalysts for H<sub>2</sub> generation. For example, the complexes of Co having diglyoxime-type ligands exhibited significant activity for making H<sub>2</sub>. The functionalized cobaloxime may stepwisely accept two electrons from the excited state of photosensitizer,<sup>12,13,25</sup> resulting in the desired Co<sup>I</sup> species that reduces two protons into H<sub>2</sub>. Similarly, the assemblies from Ni<sup>II</sup> salt and 2-mecaptoethanol or its derivatives also can efficiently catalyze proton reduction.<sup>9-11,26</sup>

The most extensively investigated catalysts for proton reduction are [FeFe] hydrogenase ([FeFe]- $H_2ase$ ) and its mimics.<sup>14,15,18–24,27,28</sup> Scheme 2a shows the structure of

Scheme 2. Active Site of Natural [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase (a) and Plausible Mechanism for Proton Reduction (b)



[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase active center revealed by X-ray crystallographic analysis.<sup>30</sup> The Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub> subunit serves as the catalyst center for proton reduction, and the Fe<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub> cluster-mediates transfer electron to the active site. The turnover frequency (TOF) for the catalyzing proton reduction can reach up to 6000–9000 s<sup>-1</sup> under mild conditions. Inspired by the ideal characteristics of

Scheme 3. Oxidation of Ascorbic Acid

the natural [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase, a variety of its mimics have been developed.<sup>14,15,18–24,27,28</sup> The two step electron transfer processes for reduction of protons to H<sub>2</sub> by use [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics as catalyst are shown in Scheme 2b.<sup>30</sup> It should be noted that [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase and its mimics catalyze proton reduction in a way different from platinum catalysts.<sup>31</sup> Typically platinum catalysts add one electron to each proton making two neutral hydrogen atoms that then join together to produce H<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, in the catalysis of [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase and its mimics, two electrons on the same proton forming a negatively charged hydride that then reacts with a proton to make molecular hydrogen.

### Sacrificial Electron Donor

The SED provides electrons for the reductive half-reaction of the artificial photosynthesis. The frequently used SED involve tertiary amines, alcohols, and ascorbic acid (H<sub>2</sub>A). Generally, SED undergo decomposition following one electron oxidation, and such degradation produces proton(s). Thus, SED is not only the source of electrons but also the source of protons. For example, each molecule of H<sub>2</sub>A can provide two electrons and two protons as described in Scheme 3.

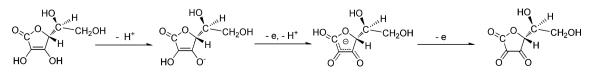
### PHOTOCATALYTIC HYDROGEN EVOLUTION BY DYADS AND TRIADS BASED ON ORGANOMETALLIC COMPLEXES AND [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase MIMICS IN ORGANIC OR MIXED ORGANIC-AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS

As mentioned above, in an efficient photocatalytic proton reduction system, the components should be organized in space to have specific orientation and distance for fast electron transfer and for preventing the yielded charge separation state from recombination. One approach to organizing the component molecules is to covalently link the photosensitizer and catalyst into a dyad or triad.

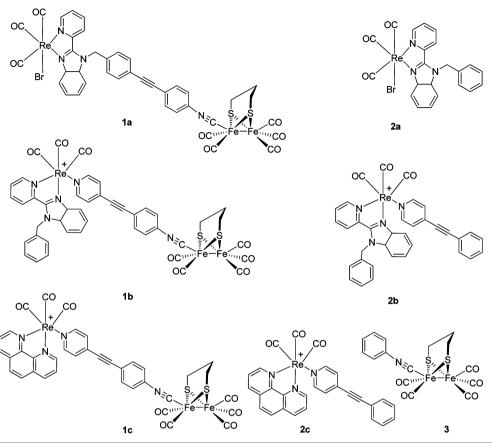
### Re(I) Complex-[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimic Dyads (PS-Cat)<sup>18,19</sup>

We synthesized three dyads 1a-1c shown in Scheme 4. Rhenium(I) complexes were selected as the photosensitizer, and the typical active site model of [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase, [ $\mu$ -S<sub>2</sub>(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub>]Fe<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>5</sub>CN, was used as the catalyst. We expected that, in these dyads, the linear, rigid, and conjugated bridge would satisfy the precise control over the spatial separation between the photosensitizer and the catalyst to achieve efficient intramolecular electron transfer from the excited state sensitizer to the catalytic site, and to avoid the fast back electron transfer in their charge separated state.

The photocatalytic  $H_2$  evolution was carried out in degassed solutions of the dyads in  $CH_3CN/CH_3OH/H_2O$  mixture.  $CH_3OH$  served as SED and the source of proton. A great amount of  $H_2$  was detected, although the  $H_2$  evolution was not yet a catalytic light-driven reaction. The yield of  $H_2$  production for **1a** was slightly lower than those of **1b** and **1c**. We also investigated the  $H_2$  production with **3** as the catalyst, and **2a**– **2c** (Scheme 4) as the photosensitizer under the identical



Scheme 4. Dyads of Re(I) Complex-[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimic for Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> Production and Their Reference Compounds



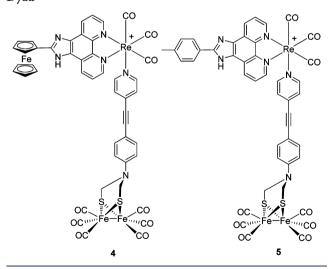
conditions. Such intermolecular multicomponent systems only yielded small amount of  $H_2$ .

The luminescence characteristic of <sup>3</sup>MLCT state of the Re(I) complex in **2a** was slightly quenched by **3**. However, the luminescence of the Re(I) complex in **1a** was 20% quenched by the intramolecular catalyst. More strikingly, the luminescence of **1b** and **1c** was completely quenched by the corresponding intramolecular catalyst. Upon laser excitation with 355 nm light, **1a–1c** displayed intense absorption of  $[Fe^1Fe^0]$  species.<sup>32</sup> The luminescence quenching and the  $[Fe^1Fe^0]$  formation evidenced the electron transfer from the excited photosensitizer to the catalyst site  $[Fe^1Fe^1]$ , yielding the charge separation state PS<sup>++</sup>-Cat<sup>-+</sup> that further reacted with SED and protons and underwent the second electron transfer process to complete the catalytic cycle (Scheme 2b).

## Ferrocene-Re(I) Complex-[FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimic Triad (D-PS-Cat)<sup>19,20,34</sup>

We made a rigid triad 4 by using a ferrocene as a potential electron donor, a Re(I) complex as a photosensitizer, and a [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic as a catalyst (Scheme 5). The excited state of the Re(I) chromophore in 4 could be quenched with unity quantum efficiency either by the ferrocene or by the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic.<sup>20</sup> We also synthesized dyad 5 as a reference of 4, and performed a comparative study. Upon laser excitation, both 4 and 5 show strong transient absorption of [Fe<sup>1</sup>Fe<sup>0</sup>] species,<sup>32</sup> suggesting formation of D<sup>+•</sup>-Ps-Cat<sup>-•</sup> in 4 and Ps<sup>+•</sup>-Cat<sup>-•</sup> in 5. Irradiation of the degassed solution of 4 or 5 in CH<sub>3</sub>CN with Hantzsch 1,4-dihydropyidine as the SED and proton source resulted in H<sub>2</sub> evolution.<sup>33</sup> The turnover number (TON) reached 34 for 5 and 47 for 4. Indeed, assembly of an electron donor into the dyad to build up a multistep photoinduced

Scheme 5. Triad of Ferrocene-Re(I) Complex-[FeFe]- $H_2$ ase Mimic for Photocatalytic  $H_2$  Production and Its Reference Dvad



electron transfer chain is a promising strategy for efficient  $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{2}}$  evolution.

### PHOTOCATALYTIC HYDROGEN EVOLUTION BY MOLECULAR ASSEMBLIES WITH QDs AS PHOTOSENSITIZER AND [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase MIMICS AS CATALYST IN AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS

As previously mentioned, compared with traditional organic or organometallic photosensitizers, nanocrystal quantum dots

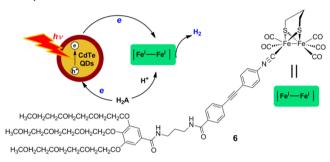
### Accounts of Chemical Research

have superior properties for photocatalytic proton reduction. As reaction medium, water is an ideal solvent owing to its environment benign, low cost, and allowance of good proton mobility. We have developed several photocatalytic systems for photon reduction by using QDs as photosensitizer, [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase mimics as catalyst in aqueous solutions.

Photocatalytic Assembly Constituted with CdTe QDs and Water-Soluble [FeFe]-H\_2ase  $Mimic^{21}$ 

We constructed a catalyst (6) for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution (Scheme 6), where three hydrophilic ether chains were linked

Scheme 6. Photocatalytic System with MPA-CdTe QDs as Photosensitizer and a Water-Soluble [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimic as Catalyst



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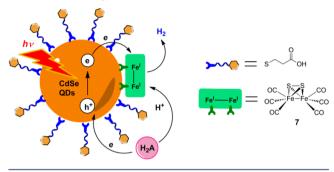
to the active site of the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic so as to make the catalyst water-soluble. CdTe QDs stabilized by 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA-CdTe) was selected as the photosensitizer. In view of the rich surface binding properties and high surfaceto-volume ratio, MPA-CdTe was expected to combine the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic 6 to make a molecular assembly. In aqueous solution with H<sub>2</sub>A as the proton source and SED, we were able to achieve H<sub>2</sub> production with TON of up to 505. The photoinduced electron transfer from MPA-CdTe to the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic was confirmed by the luminescence quenching and time-resolved experiments. The luminescence intensity of MPA-CdTe QDs was dramatically quenched by 6, while the luminescence lifetime did not change. The static quenching of the luminescence further supports the proposal that the QDs and the catalyst form assembly, thereby the intraassembly electron transfer from excited QDs to the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic is efficient. Flash photolysis of the aqueous solution of the QDs with 6 immediately gave characteristic transient absorption of [Fe1Fe0] species. All the observations evidenced the oxidative quenching of the excited state of the MPA-CdTe QDs by 6. We found that the excited MPA-CdTe also underwent reductive quenching by SED H<sub>2</sub>A. However, under the experiment conditions the quenching rate was smaller by two orders in magnitude than that of the oxidative quenching. Thus, the oxidative quenching by catalyst 6 dominated the electron transfer processes. The [Fe<sup>1</sup>Fe<sup>0</sup>] species could further react with a proton. The formed hole remaining in the MPA-CdTe subsequently accepted an electron from H<sub>2</sub>A, regenerating the photosensitizer.

## Interface-Directed Assembly of a Simple Precursor of [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimics on the Surface of CdSe $QDs^{22}$

The surface affinity of water-soluble QDs could allow for the interaction of the sulfur atoms in a water-insoluble [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase mimic in aqueous solution by interface-directed surface

binding. Thus, we utilized the  $[FeFe]-H_2$ ase mimic,  $Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$  (7), as the catalyst and MPA-CdSe QDs as the photosensitizer to make water-soluble CdSe/Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>6</sub> assembly for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution (Scheme 7). This

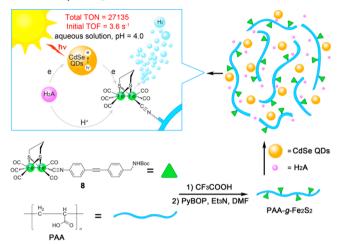
Scheme 7. Interface-Directed Assembly of  $CdSe/Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$ and its H<sub>2</sub> Photogeneration



assembly was produced at the interface of the MPA-CdSe QDs aqueous solution and the 7 dichloromethane solution. On average each QD contained one-third of  $Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$ . The photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution was performed in the aqueous solution of the assembly in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>A. This system was able to produce H<sub>2</sub> with a TON of 8781 based on  $Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$  and an initial TOF of 596 h<sup>-1</sup> in the first 4 h. The high efficient hydrogen evolution was obviously attributed to the fast electron transfer from the excited MPA-CdSe QDs to catalyst unit 7 owing to their intimate contact in the assembly. Indeed, the luminescence of the CdSe QDs was quenched dramatically upon binding  $Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$ . Flash photolysis of the MPA-CdSe QDs resulted in exciton bleaching. In the absence of  $Fe_2S_2(CO)_{6t}$  the characteristic bleaching of CdSe QDs at 440 nm is long-lived. For the  $CdSe/Fe_2S_2(CO)_6$  assembly, this bleaching underwent fast and complete recovery. In the later case, after the bleaching recovery, the transient absorption spectrum is consistent with the characteristic absorption of the [Fe<sup>1</sup>Fe<sup>0</sup>] species.

## Photocatalytic Assembly with Poly(acrylic acid)-Based [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase Mimic As Catalyst and MPA-CdSe QDs as Photosensitizer<sup>23</sup>

The carboxyl groups in poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) chain provide modification sites for functionalization. Hence, we anchored [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic (8) on the polymer chain to make grafted polymer PAA-g-Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub> as water-soluble catalyst (Scheme 8). With MPA-CdSe QDs as the photosensitizer, H<sub>2</sub>A as the proton source and SED, we constructed the first set of polymer-based [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production. It has been established<sup>34</sup> that the carboxyl groups of PAA can coordinate the cadmium ions on the surface of the CdSe (or CdTe) QDs. In our case, the grafted polymer PAA-g-Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub> chain might also wrap round the QD nanoparticles by coordination between the carboxyl groups of the polymer and cadmium ions of CdSe QDs to form photosensitizer-catalyst assembly. This will narrow the distance between the photosensitizer and the grafted catalyst, thus promoting the photoinduced electron transfer from the QDs to the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic and the photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production. This system showed exceptional TON of 27000 (based on the  $[Fe^1Fe^1]$  unit), and quantum yield (QY) up to 5% for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution. The efficient photoinduced electron transfer was supported by the emission quenching

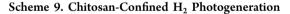


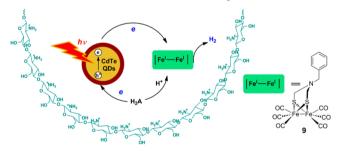
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and flash photolysis experiments. The emission of the MPA-CdSe QDs in aqueous solution was quenched with efficiency up to 81% by PAA-g-Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>. The solution of MPA-CdSe QDs and PAA-g-Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub> gave the transient absorption of the  $[Fe^1Fe^0]$  species after excitation by laser light. This  $[Fe^1Fe^0]$  species was quenched by adjusting the pH due to the formation of the protonated  $[Fe^1Fe^{II} \cdot H^-]$  species in acidic solution.

Chitosan-Confined [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase Mimic and CdTe QDs<sup>24</sup>

Chitosan contains a significant amount of primary amines and hydroxyl groups. When the amines are protonated, chitosan bears a polycationic character. In view of the hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions, chitosan might incorporate [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics, as in the case of [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase buried deeply within the protein matrix in nature. Hence, we selected the structurally simplest [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimic **9** (Scheme 9) as the





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catalyst, MPA-CdTe QDs as the photosensitizer, and  $H_2A$  as the proton source and SED to construct a photocatalytic system for  $H_2$  production. The MPA-stabilized CdTe QDs have negatively charged surface, and can interact with cationic chitosan. Therefore, chitosan, 9, and MPA-CdTe QDs would form the assembly. The strong interaction and close contact between the photosensitizer and the catalyst in the assembly would enhance the efficiency of the photoinduced electron transfer and the photocatalytic  $H_2$  production. We carried out the hydrogen evolution with this photocatalytic system containing chitosan (1.0 g L<sup>-1</sup>) in methanol/water (1:3, v/v) at pH 4.5. This assembly was capable of producing H<sub>2</sub> with TON up to  $5.28 \times 10^4$  under visible light irradiation. The catalytic stability was enhanced from 8 to 60 h, and the catalytic activity is over  $4.16 \times 10^3$ -fold higher than that of the same system without chitosan.

The catalyst confined in the chitosan environment in the present artificial photosynthesis is reminiscent of the  $[Fe_2S_2]$  subcluster of natural [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase buried in heterogeneous protein matrix. The excellent performance of the present system suggests that the environment surrounding the catalytic center plays a crucial role on the photocatalytic  $H_2$  production. Thus, to create an active  $H_2$  evolution system based on artificial [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase, one should need to mimic not only the structure of the active center but also the biological environment surrounding the center in the natural [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase.

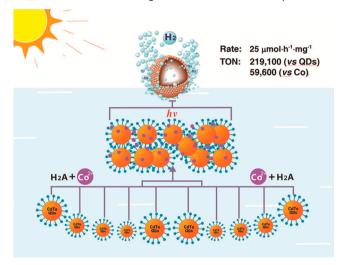
### ASSEMBLY WITH QDs AS PHOTOSENSITIZER AND TRANSITION METAL SALT AS CATALYST FOR PHOTOCATALYTIC HYDROGEN EVOLUTION IN AQUEOUS SOLUTION

The organic frameworks of the  $[FeFe]-H_2$ ase and its mimic are readily degraded by light irradiation, oxidative, or other chemical processes that greatly limit their working lifetime. In the present section, we used inorganic transition metal salts as the catalyst and MPA-CdTe or MPA-CdSe QDs as photosensitizer to construct efficient, durable, and earth-abundant artificial photocatalytic systems for H<sub>2</sub> evolution in aqueous solutions. Such photocatalytic systems can work at least 100 h without noticeable decrease in efficiency.

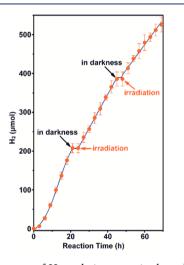
### Hollow Nanospheres Formed in Situ Around Hydrogen Bubbles from CdTe and Inorganic Cobalt Salt<sup>25</sup>

Although cobalt-based molecular catalyst have emerged in the past few years as one of the most versatile non-notable catalysts coupled with photosensitizers for H<sub>2</sub> evolution,<sup>15</sup> direct incorporation of inorganic cobalt salts into the photocatalytic system is scarcely reported. We used cobalt chloride as catalyst, MPA-CdTe QDs as photosensitizer, and H<sub>2</sub>A as the source of proton and SED to construct a robust photocatalytic system for H<sub>2</sub> evolution (Scheme 10). Upon irradiation of this photocatalytic system in aqueous solution with visible light, the H<sub>2</sub> production rate was almost linear even after 21 h in addition to a subtle induction period at the very early stage (Figure 1). When the light was turned off, the H<sub>2</sub> evolution immediately stopped. After rerunning the experiment, the activity was maintained without a noticeable decrease in the second as well as the subsequent runs. The system was able to produce H<sub>2</sub> with TON of ca.  $2.2 \times 10^5$  or  $6.0 \times 10^4$  with respect to the MPA-CdTe QDs or cobalt ions after 70 h irradiation.

During irradiation, the photocatalytic solution became turbid and formed precipitate. Examination of the precipitates revealed that the system produced hollow-structured nanospheres in situ in the induction period of the early stage irradiation. Upon irradiation of the photocatalytic solution, the photogenerated holes on CdTe QDs were capable of oxidizing MPA on the QDs, yielding CdS on the surface of the CdTe QDs. The negative surface dangling bonds ( $Te^{2-}$ ,  $S^{2-}$ ) of the QDs would interact with positively charged  $Co^{2+}$  ions to form  $Co_h$ -CdTe QD photocatalyst in situ.<sup>25,35</sup> Such photocatalyst could generate H<sub>2</sub> bubbles upon irradiation. Driven by the minimization of the interface energy and further photodecomposition of the stabilizing agent MPA, the Co<sub>h</sub>-CdTe Scheme 10. Schematic Representation of the Formation of Co<sub>h</sub>-CdTe Hollow Nanosphere and Its Photocatalysis



Reproduced from ref 25 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry.



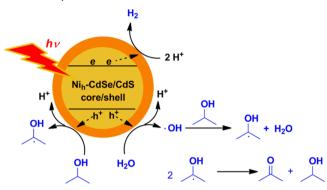
**Figure 1.** Time course of H<sub>2</sub> evolution at optimal condition: CoCl<sub>2</sub>·  $6H_2O$  (2.1 ×  $10^{-4}$  M), MPA-CdTe QDs (2.4 ×  $10^{-7}$  M), and H<sub>2</sub>A (1.14 ×  $10^{-1}$  M) in water under visible light irradiation. Reproduced from ref 25 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry.

QDs would aggregate and were organized around the gasliquid interface of the H<sub>2</sub> bubbles to form hollow-structured nanospheres of Coh-CdTe QDs. The diameter of the hollow nanospheres was in the range of 10-20 nm and the shell thickness was 3-6 nm. This shell thickness corresponded to monolayer to bilayer CdTe QDs (the diameter is 3.4 nm). The number of Coh-CdTe QDs in one hollow nanosphere was calculated to be 95-286. The content of Co ions in the hollow nanospheres was identified to be 0.13% (wt %). The intimate interaction between the photosensitizer and the catalyst would promote photoinduced electron transfer and photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production. Indeed, the luminescence of the CdTe QDs was efficiently quenched by the cobalt ions. Compared with the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics, the inorganic metal salt as catalyst establishes a new paradigm for creating H<sub>2</sub> production photocatalysts.

### $\rm Ni_h-CdSe/CdS$ Core/Shell Photocatalyst Formed in Situ from MPA-CdSe QDs and Nickel Salt^{26}

We also used MPA-CdSe QDs as photosensitizer,  $NiCl_2$  as catalyst, and 2-propanol as proton source and SED to make photocatalytic system for  $H_2$  evolution (Scheme 11).

Scheme 11. Schematic Representation of the Mechanism for Photocatalytic  $H_2$  Evolution by Ni<sub>h</sub>-CdSe/CdS Core/Shell Photocatalyst



Irradiation of this photocatalytic system in 2-propanol-water (1:1 v/v) solution resulted in efficient H<sub>2</sub> evolution. With 10 h irradiation, the TON value reached 15 340 per CdSe QD and 18 000 with respect to nickel ion. The internal quantum vield with the irradiation light of 410 nm was up to 11.2%. Consecutive irradiation cycles showed that the reproducibility of the photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution was excellent. Examinations suggested that during irradiation the stabilizing agent (MPA) underwent oxidation to sulfide ions  $(S^{2-})$  by the photoinduced hole on CdSe QDs, and a CdS ultrathin shell was formed in situ on the surface of CdSe core. Nickel ions would bind to the hanging bond (S<sup>2-</sup>) on the QD surface to produce Ni<sub>h</sub>-CdSe/ CdS core/shell architecture. The diameter of the Ni<sub>h</sub>-CdSe/ CdS core/shell QDs was ca. 2.6 nm, and the thickness of the CdS shell was 0.35 nm, corresponding to one monolayer of CdS. The amount of nickel on the surface of the QDs was 0.5 wt %. Formation of such an assembly would enhance the photoinduced electron transfer from the QDs to nickel ions. Excitation of MPA-CdSe QDs at 406 nm resulted in typical emission of the QDs. For the Ni<sub>h</sub>-CdSe/CdS core/shell, this emission was remarkably quenched. Upon laser-pulsed at 410 nm, the Ni<sub>b</sub>-CdSe/CdS core/shell displayed a bleaching at 430 nm with shorter lifetime than that of MPA-CdSe QDs. The faster recovery of the exciton bleaching in the presence of Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions suggested fast electron transfer from excited MPA-CdSe QDs to the Ni<sup>2+</sup> active sites.

### CONCLUSION

The design of an artificial photosynthesis system that can split water and is earth-abundant, efficient, and durable remains a fundamental challenge. Because of the complexity in building and optimizing such a complete water splitting system, it is common to divide the system into reductive and oxidative halfreactions for study. We have designed a variety of photosensitizers, catalysts, and sacrificial electron donors, and assembled them together for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution. QDs as photosensitizer show superb performance over organic dyes and organometallic complexes in the photocatalytic proton reduction. Both [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase mimics and inorganic transition metal salts as catalyst may form assemblies with QDs

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that can efficiently photocatalyze  $H_2$  evolution in the presence of a SED in aqueous solutions. Particularly, the assemblies of MPA-CdTe QDs (or MPA-CdSe QDs) as inorganic cobalt (or nickel) salts in aqueous solutions are able to photocatalytically produce  $H_2$  with exceptional activity and impressive durability under visible light irradiation, suggesting that these assemblies can serve as a valuable part in overall water splitting system. The study on photocatalytic  $O_2$  evolution has not yet received great achievements as the  $H_2$  evolution counterpart. The challenge for the next decade lies in designing robust photocatalytic systems for oxidizing water and coupling the reductive and oxidative half-reactions to constitute complete artificial photosynthetic water splitting systems for solar energy to chemical energy conversion.

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