

# Cobalt-Modified Porous Single-Crystalline LaTiO<sub>2</sub>N for Highly Efficient Water Oxidation under Visible Light

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## S Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Highly efficient water oxidation utilizing visible photons of up to 600 nm is a crucial step in artificial photosynthesis. Here we present a highly active photocatalyst for visible-light-driven water oxidation, consisting of single-crystalline meso- and macroporous LaTiO<sub>2</sub>N (LTON) with a band gap of 2.1 eV, and earth-abundant cobalt oxide (CoO<sub>x</sub>) as a cocatalyst. The optimized CoO<sub>x</sub>/LTON had a high quantum efficiency of 27.1 ± 2.6% at 440 nm, which substantially exceeds the values reported for previous particulate photocatalysts with a 600-nm absorption edge.

Water oxidation involving a four-electron transfer is a critically challenging step in artificial photosynthesis for solar fuel production, i.e., water splitting into hydrogen and oxygen, or the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to methanol or hydrocarbons.<sup>1</sup> So far, light-driven water oxidation has attracted significant attention in both homogeneous and heterogeneous systems, but the lack of molecular catalysts for the homogeneous process has limited its progress.<sup>2</sup> Comparatively, heterogeneous photocatalysts are more plentiful, and both photoelectrochemical<sup>3</sup> and photocatalytic<sup>4</sup> systems have been demonstrated. Since the powder-based photocatalytic methods only require a water pool containing photocatalyst powders, their simplicity and scalability provide an opportunity for solar energy storage on a terrestrial scale.<sup>4d</sup>

To efficiently store solar energy as chemical energy, a photocatalytic system requires not only the capability to harvest visible photons, which are the main component of the solar spectrum, but also a high quantum efficiency. As discussed in our previous report,<sup>5</sup> a photocatalyst with visible light absorption above 600 nm and a quantum efficiency of ~30% is required for practical application. However, this is presently a distant target. Narrowing the band gap of a photocatalyst increases its absorption of visible light but decreases the driving force for redox reactions. As a consequence, visible-light-driven

water splitting generally has low quantum efficiencies for water reduction and oxidation compared to those of oxide photocatalysts with relatively large band gaps (>3 eV). This is a more serious concern in water oxidation than in water reduction in terms of kinetics, because water oxidation involves a complicated four-electron process. To date, reproducible visible-light-responsive materials for overall water splitting are very limited,<sup>6</sup> and there remains a need to improve the efficiency of 600-nm-responsive semiconductor materials, even for half-reactions. Accordingly, efforts to improve the quantum efficiencies of water splitting, especially water oxidation, are very important and necessary to achieve overall water splitting under ≤600 nm light irradiation.

The quantum efficiencies for water splitting in a powder photocatalytic system are primarily affected by the structures of the photocatalyst and cocatalyst.<sup>4a</sup> Generally, the structure of a photocatalyst determines the generation and transfer of carriers (electrons and holes) to the photocatalyst surface. Photocatalyst features such as high crystallinity, low defect density, short charge-transfer distance, large surface area, and special morphology usually enhance the photocatalytic performance.<sup>4a,7</sup> On the other hand, the cocatalyst plays a crucial role in promoting the separation of electrons and holes and provides active sites for H<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> evolution.<sup>4a,5</sup> So far, various noble metals have been reported to act as effective cocatalysts for water reduction, while RuO<sub>2</sub> and IrO<sub>2</sub> have shown comparatively better performance as cocatalysts for water oxidation. Thus, comprehensive consideration of various factors involving a photocatalyst and a cocatalyst is the key to developing a photocatalytic material with a high quantum efficiency for water splitting. It is also important that the photocatalytic system uses cheap, earth-abundant metals in order to produce solar fuel on a large scale.<sup>8</sup>

The oxynitride LaTiO<sub>2</sub>N (LTON) is an n-type semiconductor material with a perovskite structure and a band

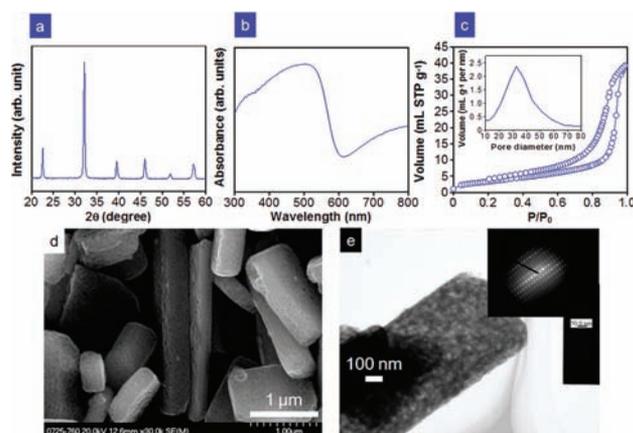
Received: February 21, 2012

Published: May 8, 2012

gap of 2.1 eV ( $\sim 600$  nm absorption edge). For solar water splitting, LTON not only has favorable energy band positions but also is composed of relatively cheap elements. Using this material, visible-light-driven water splitting for  $H_2$  or  $O_2$  production in the presence of sacrificial reagents has been demonstrated to be theoretically and experimentally feasible in our previous work.<sup>9</sup> Although a quantum efficiency of  $\sim 5\%$  for water oxidation has been achieved using  $IrO_2$ -loaded LTON,<sup>9a</sup> the efficiency must be further improved, and the precious cocatalyst  $IrO_2$  should be replaced with a more earth-abundant metal species.

Here, we show that the low quantum efficiency of visible-light-driven water oxidation on LTON can be addressed by suitably modifying both the photocatalyst and cocatalyst components. Oxide precursors ( $La_2Ti_2O_7$ ) prepared by a flux method and the polymerized complex (PC) method were subjected to heat treatment under a flow of  $NH_3$  at 1223 K. The as-nitrated powders are referred to as FX-LTON and PC-LTON, respectively. Cobalt oxide ( $CoO_x$ ) was deposited on LTON samples as a cocatalyst for water oxidation by an impregnation method from aqueous  $Co(NO_3)_2$  solution, followed by  $NH_3$  treatment at 973 K and calcination at 473 K in air. The preparation details are described in the Supporting Information.

Figure 1 displays various characterization results of the as-prepared FX-LTON sample. Single-phase well-crystallized



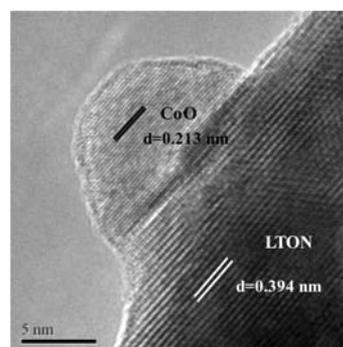
**Figure 1.** Various characterizations of an FX-LTON sample: (a) XRD patterns; (b) UV-vis spectra; (c) adsorption-desorption isotherms and pore size distribution (inset); (d) SEM image; (e) HR-TEM image and SAED patterns (inset).

LTON particles with a visible absorption band of  $\sim 600$  nm were indicated from the XRD patterns and UV-vis spectrum shown in panels a and b of Figure 1, respectively. The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of the sample given in Figure 1c were typical type-IV adsorption isotherms for a porous material, indicating the existence of a pore structure. The capillary condensation step in the adsorption branch was observed at relatively high pressure, indicating a large pore diameter. The specific surface area determined by nitrogen adsorption at 77 K was  $\sim 16$   $m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$ . The pore size distribution (inset in Figure 1c) determined from the corresponding desorption branch using the BJH method was very broad, ranging from 10 to 80 nm, indicating existence of both mesoporous and macroporous structures. The mean pore size was 28.3 nm.

The mesoporous and macroporous architectures were confirmed by the SEM and HR-TEM images shown in panels d and e of Figures 1, respectively. In Figure 1d, well-dispersed brick-like LTON particles with a porous structure were clearly observed, and the surface of the particles was mostly smooth, with a few of them carrying attached nanoparticles. Selected-area electron diffraction (SAED, see inset in Figure 1e) and HR-TEM images (Figure 1e) taken from a single particle further demonstrated that the as-obtained LTON particle was a single-crystalline porous material. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first example of a quaternary oxynitride with both mesoporous and macroporous architectures.

The morphology and structure of the FX-LTON sample were obviously different from those of PC-LTON synthesized from an amorphous oxide precursor. The X-ray diffraction peaks of the oxide precursors in Figure S1A are distinct, but a single phase of LTON particles was observed in both as-nitrated oxynitrides (Figure S1B). Comparatively, the relative diffraction intensities of the FX-LTON sample were slightly higher than those of PC-LTON, demonstrating better crystallinity. Aggregated nanoparticles without pore structures (see Figure S2) were mainly observed in the PC-LTON sample, unlike the brick-like pore structure of the FX-LTON sample. As seen in Figure S3, both samples had similar absorption edges of  $\sim 600$  nm, but the FX-LTON sample had a lower absorption background, which indicates a lower density of defects derived from  $Ti^{3+}$  species formed.

For use in photocatalytic water oxidation, cobalt species were deposited onto the as-prepared LTON samples by a simple impregnation method from an aqueous  $Co(NO_3)_2$  solution, followed by heat-treatment with  $NH_3$ . The cobalt species deposited on the surface of the FX-LTON sample was analyzed by XPS. As shown in Figure S4, the resulting  $Co\ 2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$  peaks, located at 781.1 and 796.8 eV, respectively, were in good agreement with the positions of both  $Co(II)$  and  $Co(III)$  reported in the literature,<sup>10</sup> and the satellite peak at 787.7 eV is a characteristic feature of  $Co^{2+}$  ions. The existence of cobalt oxide on the surface of the FX-LTON sample was further confirmed by the HR-TEM micrograph shown in Figure 2, in



**Figure 2.** HR-TEM image of a  $CoO_x$ /FX-LTON sample.

which the (200) crystal face of  $CoO$  nanoparticles 5 nm in size can be judged according to the lattice spacing of the fringes ( $d = 0.213$  nm). As seen in Figure S5, aggregated cobalt oxide nanoparticles were also observed, with the lattice spacing of the fringes ( $d = 0.165$ , 0.202, and 0.213 nm) that correspond to the (422) and (400) crystal faces of  $Co_3O_4$  and the (200) face of  $CoO$ , respectively. Since the deposited cobalt oxide species

contained both Co(II) and Co(III), they are referred to as  $\text{CoO}_x$  hereafter for simplicity.

The water oxidation performance of a  $\text{CoO}_x$ -modified FX-LTON sample under visible light irradiation was examined in the presence of silver nitrate as an electron acceptor. The reproducibility of the rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution was within  $\sim 10\%$  under the same reaction conditions. First, the cobalt loading was optimized. As shown in Figure S6, the rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution on the  $\text{CoO}_x$ /FX-LTON catalysts was strongly dependent on the cobalt loading, and the promotional effect of deposited  $\text{CoO}_x$  was clearly demonstrated. Without loading, the FX-LTON sample showed a moderate rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution ( $\sim 25 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ), while a cobalt loading of only 0.01 wt% on FX-LTON led to an  $\sim 8$ -fold enhancement in activity. With increasing cobalt deposition, the rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution on  $\text{CoO}_x$ /FX-LTON was further enhanced, reaching a maximum value of  $\sim 736 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  at a cobalt loading of 2 wt%. The optimal rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution was  $\sim 30$  times that of the original sample without cobalt deposition. The pH value of the solution after photocatalytic reaction was slightly decreased from 8.5 to  $\sim 8.0$  because of the oxidation of  $\text{OH}^-$  in water, similar to previous observation.<sup>9b</sup>

Table 1 further compares the visible-light-driven catalytic performance of water oxidation on several LTON samples with

**Table 1. Influence of Cocatalysts on the  $\text{O}_2$  Evolution of FX-LTON and PC-LTON Photocatalysts<sup>a</sup>**

entry	catalyst (specific surface area)	cocatalyst	$\text{O}_2$ evolution rate/ $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$
1	FX-LTON ( $16 \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	none	25
2		none <sup>b</sup>	15
3		2 wt% $\text{CoO}_x$	736
4		2 wt% $\text{IrO}_2$	170
5	PC-LTON ( $15 \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	2 wt% $\text{CoO}_x$	489
6		2 wt% $\text{IrO}_2$	146
7		none	24

<sup>a</sup>Reaction conditions: catalyst, 0.2 g (0.2 g of  $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3$  as a buffer); reactant solution, aqueous silver nitrate solution (0.05 M, 200 mL); light source, xenon lamp (300 W) with cutoff filter; reaction vessel, top-irradiation type; 1 h irradiation. <sup>b</sup>The FX-LTON catalyst was treated under  $\text{NH}_3$  flow at 973 K for 1 h and postcalcination at 473 K in air for 1 h, but without cocatalyst deposition.

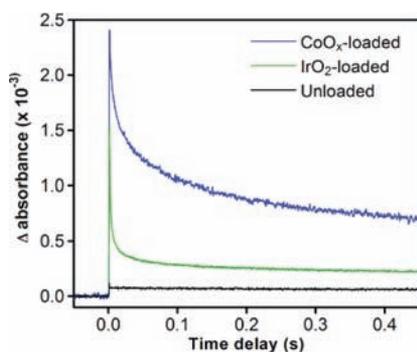
different cocatalysts. For the FX-LTON catalyst (entries 1–4), cocatalyst loading obviously enhanced the rate of oxygen evolution to different extents, and  $\text{CoO}_x$  was found to be the most efficient.  $\text{IrO}_2$ , which is well known as one of the most efficient water oxidation cocatalysts, also resulted in a marked enhancement in the water oxidation activity of LTON samples. However,  $\text{IrO}_2$  was not as effective as  $\text{CoO}_x$ , regardless of the LTON preparation method, even though the loading amount of  $\text{IrO}_2$  was optimized. Furthermore, FX-LTON gave a higher performance than PC-LTON, regardless of the cocatalyst employed (entries 3–6). This higher activity of FX-LTON can be attributed at least in part to the single-crystalline texture with mesoporous and microporous architecture inside the LTON particles. Compared to the PC-LTON sample, the well-crystallized porous FX-LTON photocatalyst not only provided more active surface area but also had a lower defect density, which would inhibit recombination of photogenerated carriers. In addition, one control experiment demonstrated that thermal treatment of LTON with  $\text{NH}_3$  alone (without cobalt coating)

did not promote photocatalytic activity of water oxidation (entry 2), clearly demonstrating that the enhancement of activity is attributed to the deposited  $\text{CoO}_x$  nanoparticles.

Figure S7 shows detailed time courses of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution on the  $\text{CoO}_x$ -modified LTON samples under visible irradiation ( $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$ ). No reaction took place in the dark, and gas evolution began with the onset of irradiation. The rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution decreased with increasing reaction time because of the decrease in  $\text{Ag}^+$  concentration and because more and more of the LTON surface became covered with metallic Ag deposits generated by the reduction of  $\text{Ag}^+$ , hindering light absorption and decreasing the number of active sites available for reaction. This is a typical behavior observed in photocatalytic water oxidation.<sup>9</sup> The apparent quantum efficiency in the initial 15 min of irradiation was  $27.1 \pm 2.6\%$  at 440 nm, which is 5–6 times higher than that reported previously using  $\text{IrO}_2$ /PC-LTON<sup>9a</sup> and is by far the highest value reported for a particulate photocatalyst with a 600-nm-class absorption band. A low level of  $\text{N}_2$  evolution ( $\sim 2$ – $8 \mu\text{mol}$ ) was detected in the initial stage of the reaction (first 1–2 h) for all of the present samples. This is attributed to the oxidation of  $\text{N}^{3-}$  species near the LTON surface to  $\text{N}_2$ , as has been observed for other (oxy)nitride photocatalysts.<sup>4a,9</sup> However, the production of  $\text{N}_2$  is completely suppressed as the reaction progresses, indicative of the stability of the material. Recently, a very high quantum yield of photochemical  $\text{O}_2$  evolution ( $\sim 90\%$  at 420–440 nm) was reported for  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ .<sup>11</sup> However, this material only works under irradiation by light with wavelengths shorter than 530 nm. More importantly, the material undergoes self-reductive decomposition under band gap irradiation, producing  $\text{O}_2$  from water along with the deposition of Ag on the surface. In contrast to these inherent drawbacks of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , LTON with a 600-nm absorption edge acts as a stable photocatalyst for water oxidation without any noticeable change in its structure, as we confirmed in our previous study.<sup>9a</sup> Such a high quantum efficiency had not been previously achieved using a photocatalyst capable of absorbing visible photons of up to 600 nm.

To further investigate this unusual enhancement, several experiments were performed. The effect of  $\text{CoO}_x$ -loading of LTON on its water oxidation performance was investigated by a photoelectrochemical technique, since LTON is an n-type semiconductor.<sup>9</sup> As shown in Figure S8, a  $\text{CoO}_x$ -modified electrode generated a much higher anodic photocurrent upon visible light irradiation than an unmodified LTON electrode, with a more negative photocurrent onset potential. This indicates that  $\text{CoO}_x$  on LTON does indeed promote water oxidation.

To investigate the lifetime of photogenerated carriers in the modified LTON samples, time-resolved infrared absorption (TR-IR) measurements were conducted. As shown in Figure 3, the deposition of both  $\text{CoO}_x$  and  $\text{IrO}_2$  can obviously enhance the lifetime of excited electrons with respect to the original FX-LTON, while the deposited  $\text{CoO}_x$  prolonged the lifetime of the carriers even more significantly to a time scale of 1 s. Therefore, both  $\text{CoO}_x$  and  $\text{IrO}_2$  play roles in separating the photogenerated electrons and holes, and the better separation of carriers with  $\text{CoO}_x$  modification explains the higher photocatalytic performance than with  $\text{IrO}_2$  modification. Accordingly, the high quantum efficiency of water oxidation can be attributed to both the morphological character of FX-LTON and efficient charge separation followed by water oxidation catalysis by the deposited  $\text{CoO}_x$  nanoparticles.



**Figure 3.** Decay of photogenerated electrons on FX-LTON with and without cocatalysts: (a) FX-LTON; (b) IrO<sub>2</sub>/FX-LTON; and (c) CoO<sub>x</sub>/FX-LTON. A 355 nm UV pulse at 1 mJ was irradiated on the catalysts, and the transient absorption was observed at 2000 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

In conclusion, CoO<sub>x</sub>-modified LaTiO<sub>2</sub>N with both single-crystalline mesoporous and macroporous architectures was shown to achieve high water oxidation performance under visible light irradiation. The significantly enhanced quantum efficiency can be attributed to improvements in both the photocatalyst and cocatalyst components. The observed remarkable promotion of water oxidation can be seen as the first glimmer of a new dawn in overall water splitting on 600-nm-responsive materials.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### 📄 Supporting Information

Experimental details and other characterization data of photocatalysts. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Specially Promoted Research (No. 23000009) of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) of Japan, and Advanced Low Carbon Technology Research and Development Program (ALCA) of the JST. Acknowledgements are also extended to “100 talents program” of DICP, CAS, and the A3 Foresight Program among Japan, Korea, and China. K.M. thanks the Nippon Sheet Glass Foundation for Materials Science and Engineering for funding support. The authors thank Dr. D. Lu (Tokyo Institute of Technology) for measurement of TEM images.

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