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Electrochimica Acta

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Structural and photoelectrochemical investigation of boron-modified nanostructured tungsten trioxide films

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a r t i c l e i n f o

Article history: Received 21 January 2013 Received in revised form 28 March 2013 Accepted 17 April 2013 Available online 29 April 2013

Keywords: Tungsten trioxide Photoanode Water splitting Boron doping Photoelectrochemistry

A B S T R A C T

We report a modification of nanostructured WO₃ films by doping with boron. The films were obtained by a direct one-step sol–gel route involving tungstic acid/polyethelene glycol precursor. Raman spectroscopy and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) showed that the incorporation of boron results in the retention of a substantial amount of water and/or hydroxyl groups in the WO₃ lattice and at the surface of nanoparticles occurring despite high temperature (550 $°C$) annealing of the films. Another consequence of boron doping is the largely increased roughness factor revealed by atomic force microscopy (AFM) imaging. Both kinds of films are highly porous and consist of partly sintered particles with sizes in the range of tens of nanometers. The photoelectrochemical (PEC) studies performed under simulated solar AM 1.5 illumination showed significantly enhanced water oxidation photocurrents for B-WO₃ photoanodes, by about 25% higher than those for the undoped $WO₃$ films of similar thickness. The low extent of recombination of photogenerated charges was confirmed by incident photon-to-current conversion efficiencies (IPCEs) reaching 70% in the region of visible wavelengths at 420 nm. The improved PEC properties were attributed to the increased surface hydroxylation of B-WO₃ nanoparticles favoring water photo-oxidation reaction and to the larger surface area of the film exposed to the electrolyte.

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1. Introduction

Photoelectrochemistry provides a means to store solar energy through converting water to oxygen and hydrogen [\[1\].](#page--1-0) Most of the recent research on H_2 production via photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting has focused on the use of n-type semiconductor metal oxide materials employed as photoanodes [\[1,2\].](#page--1-0) Following the first report by Fujishima and Honda of photo-oxidation of water on a rutile titanium dioxide (TiO₂) photoanode illuminated with ultraviolet (UV) light [\[3\],](#page--1-0) initiated an extensive search of photoelectrode materials that are able to capture a substantial part of the visible spectrum. Early investigations involving a variety of inorganic semiconductors showed that the only materials able actually to split water whilst avoiding photocorrosion are metal oxides [\[4\].](#page--1-0) Besides investigations of $TiO₂$ doped with a variety of elements [\[2\],](#page--1-0) the recent work centered on hematite (α -Fe $_2$ O $_3$) [\[5\]](#page--1-0) and tungsten trioxide (WO₃) [\[6\]](#page--1-0) thin-film photoanodes with band gaps of 2.1 eV, respectively, 2.5 eV. Since any among these

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materials having photoaction spectra covering visible wavelengths can perform unassisted water splitting, due to the position of the conduction band edges more positive than the $H₂$ evolution potential, continuing efforts are devoted to minimize the bias voltage required to perform visible light-driven photo-oxidation of water. Recently, unassisted solar production of H_2 has been demonstrated in a dual-absorber tandem device combining a semitransparent $WO₃$ photoanode and the latest version of the dye-sensitized solar cell (DSSC) providing a ca 1V bias voltage to the photoelectrolyzer [\[7\].](#page--1-0) In such a tandem device, the $WO₃$ photoanode, deposited on the conductive glass substrate, absorbs the near-UV and blue-green portions of the solar spectrum and the DSS photovoltaic cell, placed behind the photoelectrolyzer, captures longer wavelengths transmitted by the $WO₃$ film.

Efforts toward implementation of the solar water splitting include also the search of the low-cost, effective in terms of the energy payback, preparation methods of photoelectrode materials. This is illustrated by a recent use of solution-based colloidal synthesis approach, instead of chemical vapour deposition method, which offers better PEC performance, to form thin layer α -Fe $_{2}$ O $_{3}$ photoanodes [\[8\].](#page--1-0)

In this paper, we report a modification with boron of nanostructured $WO₃$ films formed using simple, one-step, sol-gel

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^{0013-4686/\$} – see front matter © 2013 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.electacta.2013.04.107](dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.electacta.2013.04.107)

method. The structure, surface composition and photoelectrochemical properties of WO₃ and B(III)-WO₃ films were studied. The $B(III)$ -modified WO₃ photoanodes exhibit enhanced by about 25% water oxidation photocurrents which attain 2.15 mA/cm² at 1.23 V versus reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE), under standard solar conditions (AM 1.5). The incorporation of boron is found to increase roughness factor of the films and to induce retention of a significant amount of water and/or hydroxyl⁻ groups within the WO₃ structure, which are both proposed as contributing to the enhanced PEC performance. The increased hydroxylation, which is combined with excellent crystallinity of the B-WO₃ films, offers also attractive prospects for the application of this material in nanocomposite electrocatalysts for oxidation of alcohols [\[9\].](#page--1-0)

2. Experimental

Nanostructured $WO₃$ films having thickness of approximately $1.2 \mu m$ were formed using a sol–gel method described in detail elsewhere [\[10,11\].](#page--1-0) Briefly, the employed precursor consisted of (poly)tungstic acid, freshly prepared by elution of a solution of $Na₂WO₄$ through the cation exchange column, and of an organic complexing agent (acting also as porogen), low molecular weight polyethylene glycol (PEG) 300. The $WO₃/PEG$ ratio was 0.5 w/w. Boric acid (H₃BO₃) was a source of boron added to the precursor to obtain 10 at.%, respectively, 20 at.% B/W ratios. Fluorine-doped $SnO₂$ (FTO) conductive glass (Pilkington Glass, resistance 8–10 Ω /square) was used as a substrate. The FTO samples were first cleaned with acetone and then sonicated in deionized water for several hours. Some drops of the colloidal precursor were spread on the FTO substrate using doctor-blade technique, dried in air at 100 \degree C and, subsequently, samples were annealed in flowing oxygen at 550 \degree C for 30 min. The thickness of single WO₃ layers was $0.35-0.45$ μ m; thicker films were formed by consecutive applications of the precursor, each followed by the annealing.

Raman spectra were acquired in the backscattering configuration with a Labram HR800 (Horiba Jobin Yvon) confocal microscope system equipped with a Peltier-cooled CCD detector (1024×256) pixel), using a 150 mW diode pumped, frequency doubled Nd:YAG laser (532 nm). The confocal pinhole size was set to 200 μ m and the holographic grating with 600 grooves/mm was used. The instrument was calibrated using a 520 cm−¹ Raman signal of a silicon wafer. All Raman spectra were obtained using a $100\times$ magnification Olympus objective. Deconvolution of the overlapping signals was conducted using the LabSpec5 software, assuming Gaussian shape of the Raman bands.

The X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were taken on a PHI 5700 Physical Electronics spectrometer. Monochromatized X-ray Al (K α) radiation of 1486 eV was used. The spectra were recorded with 23.50 eV pass energy, 0.100 eV step and 100 ms dwell time. The total energy resolution was about 0.35 eV. The measurements were performed in a vacuum of 10^{-10} Torr. Depth profiling was realized by sputtering with Ar⁺ ions of 2 keV energy. The focused ion beam was scanned over the area 2.5 mm \times 2.5 mm, whereas the analysis area had the diameter of 0.8 mm and was situated in the center of the created crater. The sputter rate was in the 1–2 nm/min rate. The X PS measurements were performed with the ion beam switched off.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of deposited films and powder samples were measured on a PhilipsX'Pert diffractometer using Cu K α 1 radiation passed through a curved graphite monochromator. The patterns were recorded in the interval 15–140◦, with the step of 0.02◦. The crystal lattice, space group, cell parameters and site occupancies of the analyzed samples were evaluated from the corresponding XRD patterns, fitted and refined with a DBWS 9707 program.

A Veeco Nanoscope V atomic force microscope equipped with a (di) MultiMode V scanner was used for topography imaging. Tapping mode AFM (TM AFM) was applied as less destructive toward the sample surface. Cantilevers with a spring constant of 42 N m−¹ and resonance frequency range 311–380 kHz (manufacturer data), tuned prior to further measurement, were employed. The Nanoscope 7.30 software was used for topography visualization and cross-sectional profiling. The roughness parameter was calculated with aid of the NanoScope II software version 7.20. It is calculated as the difference between the image's three-dimensional surface area (this value is the sum of the area of all of the triangles formed by three adjacent data points) and two-dimensional projected surface area. The analysis was performed over the entire image.

A Teflon electrochemical cell with a quartz window, platinum foil counter electrode (separated from the photoanode by a Nafion membrane) and an Ag/AgCl/Cl[−] reference electrode was used for all photoelectrochemical studies. The photoanode (with the exposed surface area of 0.28 cm²) was illuminated from the side of the WO₃ film/solution interface. Photocurrent action spectra (i.e., incident photon-to-current conversion efficiencies plotted against excitation wavelength) were obtained by illuminating the sample with the light of a 500Wxenon lamp (Ushio UXL-502HSO), setin an Oriel model 66021 housing, passing through a Multispec 257 monochromator (Oriel) with a bandwidth of 4 nm. The absolute intensity of the incident light from the monochromator was measured with a model 730A radiometer/photometer (Optronic Laboratories). The photocurrent–voltage characteristics were recorded by scanning the potential of the WO₃ photoanode at 10 mVs⁻¹ under simulated AM 1.5 solar irradiation provided by an Oriel 150W solar simulator fitted with a Schott 113 filter and a neutral density filter. The applied electrode potential versus Ag/AgCl/Cl− was converted to be reported versus the RHE at pH 2.

3. Results and discussion

The preparation of nanostructured $WO₃$ films relies on the sol–gel method involving a mixture of tungstic acid and polyethylene glycol (PEG). Deposition of the precursor on the FTO substrate followed by annealing in flowing oxygen at ca 550 $°C$ produces well crystallized WO₃ with monoclinic structure (m -WO₃). In fact, Raman spectra taken for both the boron (III)-modified and undoped films exhibit a series of features typical of m -WO₃ (Fig. 1). In particular, the strong bands lying around 715 and 805 cm⁻¹ and weaker close to 270 and 325 cm⁻¹, corresponding, respectively, to the

Fig. 1. Raman spectra, illustrating changes in the structure of tungsten trioxide induced by the addition of boron. The spectra, taken at λ_{exc} = 532 nm, correspond to B-modified (at 10 and 20 at.%) and undoped ca 1.2 μ m thick WO₃ films annealed at 550 ◦C. The amount of boron added to the precursor and the assignments of different Raman modes are indicated in the legend. (For interpretation of the references to spectra in figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

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