

## PHOTOCATALYSIS USING SEMICONDUCTOR NANOCLUSTERS

J.P. Wilcoxon, and T.R. Thurston

Organization 1152, Sandia National Labs, Albuquerque, NM 87185-1421, jpwilco@sandia.gov

## ABSTRACT

We report on experiments using nanosize MoS<sub>2</sub> to photo-oxidize organic pollutants in water using visible light as the energy source. We have demonstrated that we can vary the redox potentials and absorbance characteristics of these small semiconductors by adjusting their size, and our studies of the photooxidation of organic molecules have revealed that the rate of oxidation increases with increasing bandgap (i.e. more positive valence band and more negative conduction band potentials). Because these photocatalysis reactions can be performed with the nanoclusters fully dispersed and stable in solution, liquid chromatography can be used to determine both the intermediate reaction products and the state of the nanoclusters during the reaction. We have demonstrated that the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters remain unchanged during the photooxidation process by this technique. We also report on studies of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> powder.

## INTRODUCTION

In addition to their large specific surface areas, nanoclusters often have unusual surface morphologies and bonding arrangements which can make them effective catalysts. We are interested in materials which are both photostable and absorb in the visible range to use as photo-oxidation catalysts to remove organic pollutants from aqueous systems. The concomitant photostability and absorbance requirements eliminate most previously investigated materials such as TiO<sub>2</sub> and CdS. Fortunately, through advances in the synthesis of nanocluster materials we have available several new materials including the photostable transition metal dichalcogenides such as MoS<sub>2</sub>.

## EXPERIMENT

Our nanoclusters are made by inverse micelle synthesis which results in nearly monodisperse, nanocrystalline clusters.[1,2] Surface modification in solution is used to purify and extract the clusters into a water-miscible solvent, acetonitrile and, following evaporation of this volatile solvent, the clusters are redissolved in water. Further purification of the nanoclusters using high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and/or dialysis allows the nanoclusters to be characterized and used as catalysts.[3] We give three examples of photocatalysis using these dispersed clusters; the photo-oxidation of the organic pollutants phenol and pentachlorophenol (PCP) in water using nanoclusters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and an example of their use in organic solution for the oxidation of an alkyl chloride in acetonitrile. We have studied MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters with light absorbance edges from 700 nm (d=8 nm) to 450 nm (d=3.0 nm) and have found that the optimum photo-oxidation performance for phenol oxidation occurs for a size of d~4.5 nm. These nanoclusters have an absorbance edge of ~550 nm, or a bandgap of ~2.2 eV (compared to the bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> value of 1.2 eV). For the other two examples, the optimal size appears to be d~3.0 nm.

We have recently reported on the photo-oxidation of phenol, and details of the experimental apparatus and chemical analysis technique(s) are described in ref [4]. In that work we reported that, when combined with TiO<sub>2</sub> as a support material, we could successfully oxidize phenol using only visible light (>450 nm) using d=8 nm MoS<sub>2</sub> with an absorbance onset of ~700 nm or d=4.5 nm clusters with an edge at 550 nm. For phenol oxidation using nanosize MoS<sub>2</sub> deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> powder [4] we took advantage of charge carrier transfer between the nanoclusters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and the TiO<sub>2</sub> powder to increase the photo-oxidation capability of the latter material. It is also possible to modify MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters by deposition of metals such as Pt and Ru but our experiments to date demonstrate such deposition *decreases* the photo-oxidation capacity of the semi-conductors.

## **DISCLAIMER**

This report was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States Government. Neither the United States Government nor any agency thereof, nor any of their employees, make any warranty, express or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States Government or any agency thereof. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States Government or any agency thereof.

## **DISCLAIMER**

**Portions of this document may be illegible  
in electronic image products. Images are  
produced from the best available original  
document.**

In recent work on the photo-oxidation of pentachlorophenol (PCP), described here for the first time, we have designed a custom photochemical reactor which has o-ring sealed access ports for introduction of controlled atmospheres and/or sampling of the liquid and/or gas phase(s) for analysis by HPLC or GC/MS. The former is used to quantitate the amount of PCP as a function of light exposure while the latter is used to identify the type of intermediate breakdown products of the photo-oxidation. The reactor is illuminated from above through a flat suprasil window by a collimated Xe arc lamp with a known spectral output. One or more optical filters are used to restrict the range of incident wavelengths. Typically we used a long-pass filter which only passes light with  $\lambda > 400$  and an IR short-pass filter which passes light with  $\lambda < 700$  nm. The photocatalyst with PCP in water is stirred rapidly by magnetic means. To determine the relative efficiencies of various nanocluster materials as photocatalysts we compare to the best available powder material,  $\text{TiO}_2$  DeGussa P-25. We also use bulk  $\text{CdS}$  powder for experiments where  $\lambda > 400$  nm since  $\text{TiO}_2$  has no light absorbance or catalytic activity under these conditions.

## RESULTS

To illustrate the photo-oxidation process and our method of chemical analysis we show in Figure 1 an HPLC chromatogram taken with an in-line UV-visible detector. The chromatogram was obtained on a commercial HP 1040 HPLC system with three in-line detectors; a photo-diode array (PDA), a refractive index detector (RI), and a fluorescence detector (FL). The column used was a Hewlett-Packard, ODS-type, reverse phase c18 terminated silica column and the mobile phase was acetonitrile. We monitor the PDA detector output at the absorbance peaks of the organic molecule of interest. For example, in the case of PCP we monitor at 225 nm, 250 nm, and 325 nm, the principal absorbance peaks of PCP, to follow the destruction of this substance with irradiation time. In the case of the alkyl chloride of figure 1 we monitor at 250 nm. The RI detector can be used to detect non-absorbing chemicals. The FL allows sensitivities to aromatic molecules (e.g. phenol) in the ppb range without pre-concentration of the analyte, while the PDA array with a suitably chosen detection wavelength has sensitivities of 0.01 - 0.1 ppm. For the FL detector we excite at 250 nm and detect fluorescence at 320 nm. By calibration with a set of known organic standards and integration of the elution peak area(s) we obtain the concentration of the organic pollutant as a function of irradiation time.

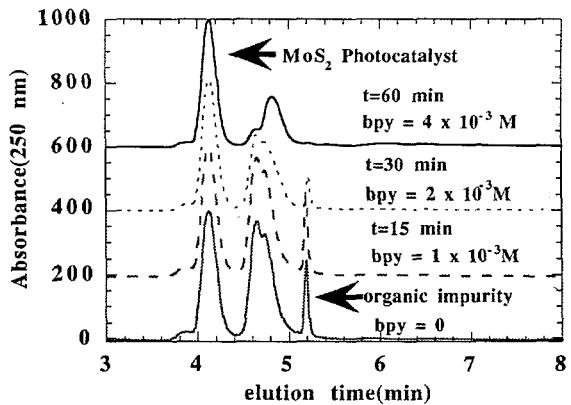


Figure 1. The photo-oxidation of an alkyl chloride impurity using room light illumination and  $d=3.0$  nm  $\text{MoS}_2$  dispersed nanoclusters is followed by HPLC using the 250 nm absorbance from a PDA detector.

In the data of figure 1 we show the photo-oxidation of an alkyl chloride using only fluorescent room lights and nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  with  $d=3.0$  nm. For solubility reasons, the experiment was performed in acetonitrile, a water miscible, chemically inert solvent. We use a sacrificial electron acceptor molecule, bipyridine, (bpy) to have a complete redox reaction. (In all other experiments in water the dissolved oxygen itself functions as an electron acceptor) Previous work has shown that the ability of bipyridine to accept photo-electrons from nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  depends on

the nanocluster size, being most rapid for the smallest  $d=3.0$  nm clusters with the widest bandgap.[5] We have previously shown by time-resolved fluorescence that the rate of electron transfer (E.T.) for a fixed size cluster depends on the redox potential of the substrate organic molecule-as expected, more difficult-to-reduce molecules slow down the E.T. process. In the present reaction too, we found the kinetics to be most rapid with the  $d=3.0$  nm clusters despite the fact that these clusters only begin absorbing light at around 450 nm. Furthermore, the most easily oxidized organic (the alkyl chloide) disappears first, followed by the other organic contaminants (eluting between 4.5 and 5 minutes in the above figure).

In the experiment of figure 1, the alkyl chloride which is identified as eluting in  $t=5.18$  minutes in figure 1, is oxidized by the  $\text{MoS}_2$  holes which are created using only visible room lights. This reaction at the nanocluster concentration of only  $\sim 0.1$  mg/ml  $\text{MoS}_2$  is remarkably rapid, completely eliminating this impurity in less than 1 hr. All other organic impurities, eluting near  $t=4.7$  minutes in figure 1 disappear after about 3 hrs. We determine the  $\text{MoS}_2$  concentration in the purified nanoclusters in water by x-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF) vs. known Mo standards. By this method we have found the Mo:S atomic ratio to be  $\sim 1:2.5$ , showing the presence of excess sulfur, probably on the surface of the clusters. Other organic impurities, also separated and observed in the chromatogram of figure 1, but not identified by GC/MS, are later oxidized by the nanoclusters after the alkyl chloride is destroyed.

Under our chromatography conditions, the nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  clusters elute completely from the column and are separated from the organic components of the mixture. The peak eluting at  $t=4.1$  minutes can be identified as the clusters from the complete absorbance profile obtained by the PDA during the run. The structured absorbance profile of the  $t=4.1$  min elution peak is shown before and after complete oxidation of all the organics in figure 2 and is characteristic of monodisperse nanocrystalline semiconductors. Its electronic features and their relationship to the bulk has been elucidated previously.[6] An important aspect of being able to separate the inorganic nanosize photocatalyst from the chemical reactants and products is the ability to ascertain that no chemical changes or degradation of the nanoclusters occurs during the reaction (i.e. it functions as a true catalyst). This has not been possible with previous work involving slurries of aggregated powders-but is a critical issue.

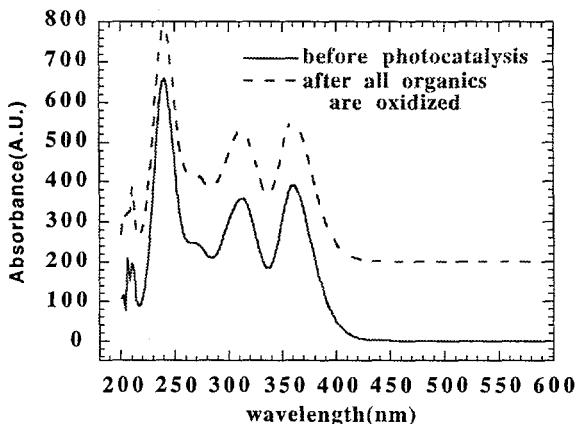


Figure 2. The absorbance profile of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanocluster peak eluting at  $t=4.1$  minutes in figure 1, is shown before and after all organics are photo-oxidized.

Using the methodology outlined above one can also study the photo-oxidation of phenol in water using only nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  and visible light. In this case no sacrificial electron acceptor is required. In this experiment the light was supplied by a 200 W Xe arc lamp with a long pass filter which allows only light  $>450$  nm to irradiate the photochemical reactor. Figure 3 shows the phenol concentration as a function of time under these very demanding conditions compared to performing the same oxidation using Degussa P-25 (the most active photocatalyst currently available) at the concentration of 1 mg/ml. Keeping in mind the low concentration of 0.1 mg/ml of nanoclusters in solution this degradation of phenol is impressive. We found that only the  $d=4.5$  nm clusters with an absorbance edge near 550 nm were able to degrade the phenol under these

irradiation conditions, while the  $d=8.0$  nm clusters didn't have a positive enough valence band potential (because of reduced quantum confinement effects).

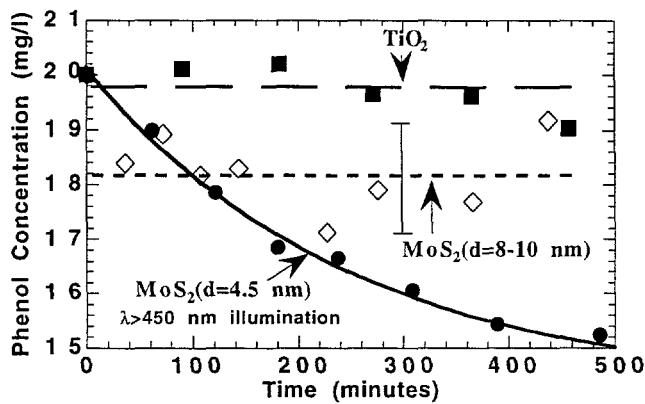


Figure 3. Rate of disappearance of phenol in water as a function of irradiation time using a Xe lamp with a 450 nm long-pass filter for three photo-catalysts.

It is also possible to combine nanosize MoS<sub>2</sub> with other semiconductors such as TiO<sub>2</sub> to improve the combined photo-oxidation activity. As an example of this synergism consider figure 4 where a very small deposition of MoS<sub>2</sub> clusters onto TiO<sub>2</sub> has a significant improvement on its activity. Here we illuminated at 360 nm with a 10 W spectraline lamp to take advantage of both the MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> absorbances. It is interesting to note in this figure that addition of too large an amount of MoS<sub>2</sub> actually reduced the TiO<sub>2</sub> activity, perhaps by blocking key phenol binding sites on the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice. The idea of achieving improved photo-charge separation by combining two semiconductors with different band gaps may be applicable to nanosize semiconductors deposited onto bulk materials such as Degussa TiO<sub>2</sub>, just as it is used in solar voltaic devices. We feel that improvements in the physical contact between the two semiconductors may substantially improve on the results of figure 4. In these initial experiments, the nanoclusters were simply deposited by precipitation from solution onto the TiO<sub>2</sub> powder with no subsequent thermal treatment to improve chemical interaction between the materials. Since the ability to transfer charge between lattice sites depends exponentially on the spatial distance between them, increased bonding by thermal treatment may further improve on the results of figure 4. Experiments to this end are currently in progress.

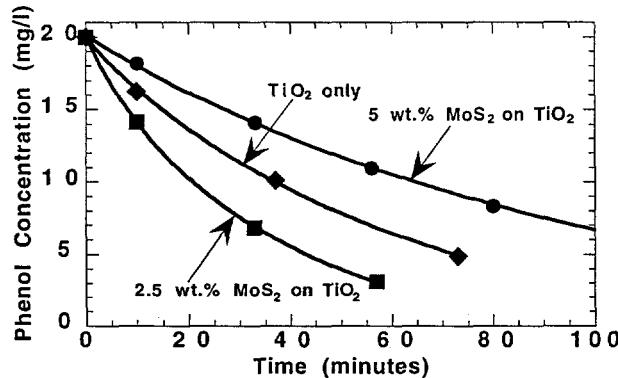


Figure 4. The rate of disappearance of phenol in water as a function of loading of nanosize MoS<sub>2</sub> is shown vs. irradiance time.

Many of the typical pollutants found in aqueous environments are chlorinated aromatics. A typical example is pentachlorophenol, (PCP), a wood preservative. This robust molecule is very long-lived under normal sunlight conditions as it has no absorbance above 350 nm, so we were interested in studying its photo-oxidation using only visible light and our nanosize MoS<sub>2</sub> clusters.

An experimental difficulty arises when comparing our new inorganic nanoclusters to typical photocatalysts such as TiO<sub>2</sub> since we don't expect nor observe any photo-oxidation activity if a

long-pass, 400 nm filter is used with our Xe arc lamp to mimic the solar spectrum. So we make a comparison of our nanoclusters to a visible light absorbing material, CdS, in the form of a macroscopic powder slurry. CdS begins absorbing at around 530 nm so its absorbance characteristics are quite similar to those of our  $d=4.5$  nm  $\text{MoS}_2$  clusters. Of course, it would never be practical to use CdS as a photo-oxidation catalyst because of toxicity concerns due to Cd ion release upon photodegradation!

Figure 5 shows the observed photo-oxidation kinetics of PCP obtained by monitoring the absorbance of the 250 nm absorbance peak of PCP using our PDA detector. A control with no catalyst, a CdS powder slurry at 0.1 mg/ml, and two different sized  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanocluster dispersions are shown in this figure. We also monitor the absorbance peaks of PCP at 225 and 325 nm, but because of the presence of chlorine on the aromatic ring are unable to utilize the very sensitive FL detector as we did in the phenol oxidation experiments (i.e. the fluorescence is quenched by the chlorine). Never the less, we can monitor the PCP abundance starting at the initial concentration of 10 ppm (near its solubility limit in water) to approximately 0.01 ppm, with no special pre-concentration methods. As can be observed in this figure, no photo-oxidation takes place with no catalyst (or with Degussa  $\text{TiO}_2$  for that matter, not shown), while CdS has some photo-oxidation ability. Both samples of  $\text{MoS}_2$ , though at lower concentrations than the CdS, have a significantly improved photo-oxidation capability. (The concentration of the nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  in the water was obtained directly by XRF)

It is important to note that intermediate, aromatic photooxidation products of the breakdown of PCP are observed for all the catalysts shown in figure 5 within the time scale shown. However, these intermediates are themselves photooxidized completely to  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCl}$  on a reasonable time scale (i.e. < 1 day) and a pristine HPLC chromatogram showing only the nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  is observed as in figure 1. A longer paper addressing these details will be published.

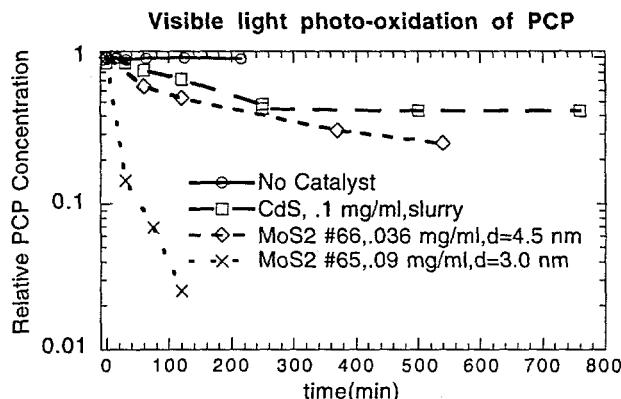


Figure 5. The rate of photo-oxidation of PCP is shown as function of visible light irradiation time for four conditions. The plot is semi-logarithmic.

## CONCLUSIONS

In photo-oxidation experiments with an alkyl chloride the smallest  $d=3.0$  nm  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanoclusters have the fastest rate of organic destruction though they absorb less of the available spectrum than larger  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanoclusters. Further, we showed that even when restricting the light irradiance to  $>450$  nm, a significant rate of phenol photo-oxidation could be achieved with nanosize  $\text{MoS}_2$  with a size of  $d=4.5$  nm and an absorbance onset of  $\sim 550$  nm. In PCP photo-oxidation studies we demonstrated that  $d=3.0$  nm  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanoclusters irradiated only with the visible light output of a Xe arc lamp photo-oxidize PCP faster than the best available UV photo-oxidation catalyst Degussa P-25  $\text{TiO}_2$  using the entire UV and visible light output from the same lamp!

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the US Department of Energy under contract DE-AC04-AL8500. Sandia is a multiprogram laboratory operated by Sandia Corporation, a Lockheed-Martin Company, for the US Department of Energy.

## REFERENCES

- [1] J.P. Wilcoxon, P. Newcomer and G.A. Samara, *J. Appl. Phys.*, **81**, 7934, (1997)
- [2] J.P. Wilcoxon, T.R. Thurston, and J.E. Martin, *Nanostructured Materials*, (1998).
- [3] J.P. Wilcoxon and S.A. Craft, in *NanoStructured Materials*, Vol 9, pp. 85-88, 1997, Elesvier Science Ltd.
- [4] T.R. Thurston and J.P. Wilcoxon, *J. Phys. Chem.*, accepted, 1998.
- [5] F. Parsapour, D.F. Kelley, S. Craft, and J.P. Wilcoxon, *J. Chem. Phys.*, **104**, 1, (1996).
- [6] J.P. Wilcoxon and G.A. Samara, **51**, 7299, *Physical Rev B, Rapid Comm.* (1995).