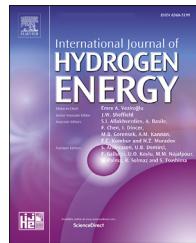




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Functionalized carbon dots on TiO₂ for perovskite photovoltaics and stable photoanodes for water splitting

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Fluorescent carbon dots (CDs) are synthesized bottom-up and modified chemically.
- Nitrogen-CDs increase the open circuit voltage in perovskite solar cells.
- Butyl-CDs improve the water splitting photocurrent of TiO₂ films by 125%.
- The CD/TiO₂ anodes are stable and show an extended light absorption range.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 19 November 2019

Received in revised form

6 February 2020

Accepted 4 March 2020

Available online 1 April 2020

ABSTRACT

Various types of fluorescent carbon nanoparticles, often called carbon dots (CDs), are synthesized by different polycondensation methods: microwave irradiation, hydrothermal conditions or solution chemistry at ambient temperature with subsequent chemical functionalization. The CDs are deposited on TiO₂ films to be probed as electron transport layers in perovskite photovoltaics and the anode for photoelectrochemical water splitting. Nitrogen CDs, which do not contain oxygen, lead to an increase of around 50 mV in the open circuit voltage of perovskite solar cells. All the CD types produce an improved photocurrent in water splitting, particularly CDs that are functionalized with thiol groups and butyl chains. It is demonstrated that the modified electrode is stable under continuous operation. Other electrochemical characteristics of the electrode, such as the voltammogram shape, onset potentials and open circuit potentials, remain nearly unchanged upon the deposition of CDs. Only the incident photon to current conversion efficiency improves clearly, extending the absorption range by around 20 nm towards longer wavelengths. This study provides new data about mechanisms and electrode arrangements for improving the performance of n-type semiconductors in photovoltaic cells and photoelectrochemical hydrogen production.

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Keywords:

Titanium dioxide

Carbon nanoparticle

Solar energy

Renewable hydrogen

Sustainability

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2020.03.077>

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Introduction

Titanium dioxide has been widely studied in advanced oxidation processes, photovoltaics and electrochemical water splitting [1–4]. In particular, TiO₂ films have been utilized as electron transport layers in dye-sensitized and perovskite solar cells [2,4,5]. Similar layered configurations, in which TiO₂ behaves as the active phase, are typical in photoelectrochemical (PEC) water oxidation. Intense research efforts are being devoted to improve the performance of these systems [5–7].

The efficiency of TiO₂ photoanodes in electrochemical water splitting has been improved by many strategies, including metal nanoparticle deposition, cationic and anionic doping, and sensitization [1,8]. Currently applied ideas include the development of ordered porosity and core-shell structures [9–12], TiO₂ functionalization and hydrogenation [9,13], the control of phase junctions [10,14], cheap metal alloys as co-catalysts [15–17], plasmonic effects [18], and the design of tandem ensembles and cascade charge transfer pathways [19–21], among others. In addition, mixtures with carbon materials such as carbon nanotubes [22–25] and graphene [26–29] have been tried. More recently, it has been observed that carbon dots (CDs) on TiO₂ can lead to positive effects in reactions of photoassisted hydrogen generation. The family of CDs includes many types of fluorescent nanoparticles that are synthesized either by top-down methods, typically from graphite, or bottom-up processes from simple organics such as short chain acids and amines. Many of the CD forms have graphene structures in their cores, and are usually called graphene quantum dots. Some others do not present conjugated carbon chains, and are sometimes called polymer dots. The photoluminescence properties of CDs are determined by the synthesis method and can be tuned by functionalization with chemical groups that induce charge transfer effects [30].

In the literature, CDs for PEC water splitting have been mostly prepared by electrochemical etching of graphite [31–35] or by hydrothermal synthesis from organic compounds such as ascorbic acid [36], trinitropyrene [37], citric acid [38–40], ethylenediamine [41] and glucose/dicyandiamine [42]. Typically, the CD/TiO₂ composite is treated under hydrothermal conditions to improve the interaction between CDs and nanostructured TiO₂. Alternatively, the CD/TiO₂ photoanode can be prepared by immersion or electrochemical impregnation of the TiO₂ layer in the CD solution [33–35,39,40,43]. The PEC hydrogen generation with CD/TiO₂ photocatalysts has been performed in neutral (e.g. 0.5 M Na₂SO₄) or alkaline (1 M KOH) electrolytes. Therefore, previous works indicate that CDs improve the TiO₂ activity on PEC water splitting (Table 1). However, the large number of CD structures and possible electrode configurations suggest that other suitable combinations are still to be found.

It is apparent that both charge transport in the composite solid phase and reactions taking place in the solid-electrolyte interphase are complex and difficult to elucidate. Typically, the proposed mechanisms for the improvement of photocatalytic water splitting on CD/TiO₂ electrodes include sensitization, a fast electron transfer, effects of CD fluorescence and others. Several works have evidenced sensitization from

CDs to TiO₂ under visible light, with fast transfer of excited electrons from the LUMO level of the CD to the conduction band of TiO₂ [31,32,34,36,39–41,43,51]. This mechanism for water splitting operates in other CD/semiconductor electrodes such as CD/Fe₂O₃ [52], CD/ZnO [53] and CD/WO₃ [54]. However, electron transfer from TiO₂ to the CD seems to be also possible, particularly under UV irradiation [32,36]. Other research works more specifically remark the CD effect of improving charge separation efficiency and decreasing the electron transport resistance [33,37,44].

Even though CDs can be prepared by a number of techniques and protocols, all of them have a greatly rich surface chemistry with a variety of functional groups containing oxygen, nitrogen and sulfur. Similarly to other carbon materials, nitrogen and sulfur doping in CDs has been related to the activity as co-catalyst in the cathode for electrochemical hydrogen evolution [55]. In addition, it has been reported that amino groups can active mechanisms of electron transfer to CDs during the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution [56]. In TiO₂ photoanodes, the role of the nitrogen doping level in hydrothermally synthesized CDs has been evidenced on both the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution and PEC water splitting [47,49,57]. A positive effect may also result from the co-sensitization of TiO₂ with CDs and Eosin Y dye [48]. However, the functionalization of CDs with specific chemical groups has been seldom explored for photocatalytic and PEC applications, in particular for hydrogen generation and water splitting. Also, problems with the long term stability of CDs have been detected by several authors [41], which need to be considered for practical application.

A novelty in the present work is the direct comparison of CDs that were prepared by different polycondensation and chemical functionalization methods, resulting in various structures and compositions. Polycondensation reactions were performed under microwave irradiation, hydrothermal conditions or by room-temperature solution chemistry with a coupling agent. Furthermore, CDs were functionalized with different chemical groups on their surface through the reaction with nucleophilic amines. The CDs were deposited on TiO₂ electrodes, which were used both in perovskite solar cells and as photoanodes for PEC water splitting. A substantial increase in the photocurrent of PEC water splitting was measured on the photoanode that was modified with chemically functionalized CDs. It was confirmed that the system is stable under continuous PEC operation. The PEC measurements, as well as the comparison with photovoltaic results, indicate that the improvement in the water oxidation efficiency takes place through a sensitization mechanism, in which both the TiO₂ and CDs act as semiconductors, while all the excited photoelectrons flow through TiO₂ to the collector.

Experimental

Synthesis of CDs

Three types of carbon nanoparticles, here labelled as MW-CDs, HS-CDs and But-CDs, are formed by polycondensation between citric acid and ethylenediamine and thus have a common basic polymeric structural unit (Fig. 1a). The MW-

Table 1 – Review of literature on PEC water splitting by CD/TiO₂ under full spectrum simulated solar light, indicating the achieved photocurrent density (J_{ph} , mA·cm⁻²), the improvement with respect to the electrode without CDs, and the PEC measurement medium.

Photocatalyst ^a	CD synthesis (precursor)	J_{ph}	Improvement	Medium	Ref.
CQD/TiO ₂ NT	Electrochemical (graphite)	1.0	x 4	0.25 M Na ₂ S, 0.35 M Na ₂ SO ₃	[31]
CQD/TiO ₂	Electrochemical (graphite)	1.2	x 4.8	0.25 M Na ₂ S, 0.35 M Na ₂ SO ₃	[39]
CD/TNRA	Autoclave (citric acid, ethylenediamine)	0.35	x 1.2	0.01 M Na ₂ S, 0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄ ,	[41]
CQD/P25	Electrochemical (graphite)	0.5	x 2.5	1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[32]
CD/TiO ₂ NW	Autoclave (ascorbic acid)	$0.24 \cdot 10^{-3}$	x 3	—	[36]
CD/TiO ₂	Hydrothermal (citric acid, tridecanediamine)	0.4	x 2	1 M KOH	[43]
CD/TiO ₂ NT	Autoclave (spinach)	$3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$	x 2.3	—	[44]
GQD/TiO ₂ NW	Oxidative chemical (graphite)	0.18	x 1.5	0.5 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[45]
GQD/TiO ₂	Oxidative chemical (graphite)	1.7	x 2.1	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[46]
GQD/(001)TiO ₂	Autoclave (trinitropyrene)	$0.9 \cdot 10^{-3}$	x 2.2	0.5 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[37]
NHCS/TiO ₂	Chemical vapor deposition (toluene, acetonitrile)	0.15	x 2.4	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄	[47]
CD/TiO ₂ NT	Electrochemical (graphite)	0.37	x 1.2	1 M KOH	[33]
CD/TiO ₂ NP	Electrochemical (graphite)	0.04	x 1.3	1 M KOH	[33]
CD/Eosin TiO ₂ NT	Electrochemical (graphite)	0.49	x 1.5	TEOA, 0.5 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[48]
NCQD/P25	Autoclave (ammonium citrate, ethylenediamine)	0.89	x 4	1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	[49]
CQD/TiO ₂ NR	Hydrothermal (citric acid)	2.51	x 1.9–4	0.1 M NaOH	[40]
CQD/H-TNRA	Autoclave (ascorbic acid)	3	x 1.5–6	1 M KOH	[50]

^a Abbreviations: CQD = carbon quantum dot; NT = nanotube; TNRA = TiO₂ nanorod arrays; P25 = Aerioxide® P25 TiO₂; NW = nanowire; GQD = graphene quantum dot; NHCS = nitrogen doped hollow carbon sphere; NP = nanoparticle; NCQD = nitrogen doped CQD; NR = nanorod.

CDs are synthetized in a microwave system (CEM Discover SP reactor working in the open-batch modality) at a controlled temperature, while HS-CDs and But-CDs are synthetized in solution at room temperature, employing a coupling agent. Another important difference concerns the functionalization

type: MW-CDs are synthesized only with citric acid and ethylenediamine and the resulting polymer structure resembles the one in Fig. 1b, where the functional groups are carboxylic acids, amines and alcohols [58]. In the synthesis of HS-CDs and But-CDs, one more step, which is a final addition of a nucleophilic amine, produces an additional functionalization. Specifically, the carboxylic acids of CDs react with the added amine, namely cysteamine for HS-CDs and butyl amine for But-CDs. Therefore, carboxylic acids are partially consumed and a new functional group is attached on the polymer structure, i.e. butyl-in But-CDs and thiol in HS-CDs [59]. In addition, primary amines from ethylenediamine and alcohols are still present. A hydrothermal process was used for the synthesis of a fourth type of CDs, which is named o-PDA-CDs. The structure of o-PDA-CDs is completely different, since the only reagent is o-phenylenediamine. Most probably, the amine group reacts with the aromatic ring, resulting in a completely conjugated polyaromatic structure, while the other CDs are non-conjugated.

For MW-CDs, citric acid monohydrate (2.0 g, 9.5 mmol) was dissolved in ultrapure water (16 mL). Upon the addition of ethylenediamine (0.64 mL, 9.5 mmol), the solution was heated through microwave irradiation. The mixture was irradiated to keep the temperature at 140 °C for 6 min and then the irradiation was stopped, yielding a yellow, transparent, solid product that was highly soluble in water. The product was dissolved in ultrapure water and dialyzed against ultrapure water (MWCO = 0.5–1.0 KDa, 3 days, twice a day). Dry MW-CDs were obtained by freeze-drying with a mass yield of 22 wt%.

For But-CDs, 300 mg of anhydrous citric acid (1.6 mmol, 1 equiv.) was dissolved in 4.0 ml of DMF. The solution was cooled in an ice bath and 0.73 ml of diisopropyl carbodiimide (DIC, 3 equiv.) was added. Subsequently, 105 µl of ethylenediamine (1 equiv.) in 4 ml of water was added and the mixture was stirred for 10 min at room temperature, while it

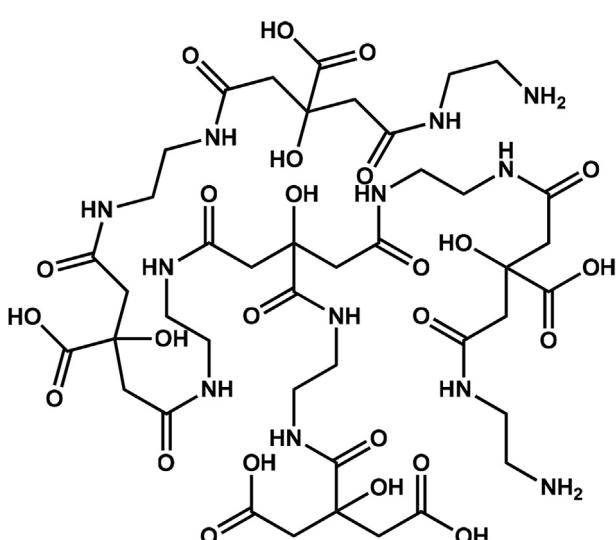


Fig. 1 – Top) chemical structure of a linear polymer that results from the polycondensation between citric acid and ethylenediamine; bottom) model structure of the polymer MW-CDs.

changed its color from slightly yellow to orange. Afterwards, 0.62 ml of n-butylamine (4 equiv.) in 4 ml of water was poured into the mixture, and it was stirred for 1 h. The crude was diluted in ultrapure water, filtrated on paper filter and washed with ethyl acetate for 2 times and dichloromethane for 2 times. Finally, the water phase was adjusted to pH = 7 with a diluted HCl solution and dialyzed against ultrapure water (MWCO = 0.5–1.0 KDa, 4 days, twice a day). After filtration on a 0.22 µm pore-size filter, water was removed by freeze-drying, obtaining 250 mg of product.

For HS-CDs, the procedure was nearly identical to that for the preparation of But-CDs. Instead of the addition of n-butylamine, 480 mg of cysteamine (4 equiv.) was added. The crude was not washed with dichloromethane, but just 3 times with ethyl acetate. After filtration and freeze-drying, 160 mg of product was obtained.

For o-PDA-CDs, o-phenylenediamine (0.8 g) was dissolved in water (8 mL) and treated in an autoclave at 200 °C for 4 h. Purification was performed by filtration through 3 µm and 0.22 µm filters. The remaining water was removed by vacuum drying. The solid was dispersed again in THF and dried.

Electrode preparation

Fluorinated tin oxide (FTO) substrates (Nippon Sheet Glass. 10 Ω/sq) were etched with Zn powder and 4 M HCl. Next, they were cleaned with Hellmanex®, acetone and ethanol, respectively for 15 min, inside an ultrasonic bath, and they were immediately blown with dry air. The compact TiO₂ (c-TiO₂) solution was prepared with titanium diisopropoxide bis(acetylacetone): acetylacetone: ethanol at 0.6: 0.4: 9 vol ratio and it was sprayed onto FTO substrates at 450 °C. The mesoporous TiO₂ (m-TiO₂) paste was prepared mixing a commercial titanium paste (Dyesol, now Greatcell) with ethanol at 1:6 wt ratio; it was spin-coated onto the c-TiO₂ layer at 5000 rpm for 20 s and then it was dried at 80 °C for 5 min. The CD suspension (500 µL) was spin-coated onto FTO/c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ substrates at 3000 rpm for 30 s, and then it was annealed at 450 °C on a hot plate in air for 30 min.

Characterization techniques

Elemental analysis (O, C, H, N, S) was performed in a Thermo Flash 1112 analyzer. Fourier-transform infrared (IR) spectroscopy was performed in a Bruker Vertex 70 spectrometer, on powder samples that were pressed into pellets with KBr. UV/Vis absorption spectra were recorded in a Shimadzu UV-2401 PC spectrophotometer. Photoluminescence excitation and emission spectra were recorded in a Horiba Jobin Yvon Fluoromax-P. All the spectra were recorded at room temperature using a 10 mm path-length quartz cuvette.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed in a SEM-EDX Hitachi S-3400 N provided with a Si EDX analyser Röntec XFlash. High resolution images were taken in a MERLIN™ Carl Zeiss FESEM microscope. Micro-Raman spectra were obtained by means of a HORIBA Jobin Yvon Raman spectrometer HR 800UV. The spectra were acquired with a green laser at 532 nm under the 50x objective. X-ray photo-electron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were acquired with an ESCAPlus spectrometer using the Al anode. Contact

angle measurements were carried out by the sessile drop method in an Attension Optical Tensiometer by Biolin Scientific.

Perovskite solar cell fabrication and assessment

The quadruple cation halide perovskite Rb_{0.05}Cs_{0.05}MA_{0.15}FA_{0.75}Pb_{1.05}(I_{0.89}Br_{0.11})₃ was prepared by mixing PbI₂ (1.5 M), PbBr₂ (1.5 M), CsI (1.5 M), RbI (1.5 M), MAI and MABr in DMF:DMSO mixed solvent (4:1). The perovskite spin coating process was carried out at 2000 rpm for 10 s, and then 6000 rpm for 30s in a dry air glove box. During the second step of spin coating, 100 µL of chlorobenzene was injected at 15s before ending. Samples were annealed at 100 °C for 1 h on a hot plate for crystallization. The hole transporting layer was prepared by dissolving 0.12 g of spiro-OMeTAD in 1130 µL of chlorobenzene and then doping with 47.3 µL of TBP and 23.5 µL of TFSI (1.8 M in acetonitrile). The spin coating was conducted at 4000 rpm for 20 s. The finished devices were placed inside a dry air box for 12 h to fully oxidize the spiro-OMeTAD. Finally, 80 nm of Au was deposited as the back electrode by thermal evaporation.

The solar cells were measured using a 450 W Xenon light source (Oriel) equipped with an arc lamp housing (Newport, Model 66902, 50–500 W). The light intensity was calibrated with a Si photodiode equipped with an infrared cutoff filter (KG3, Schott), and was recorded during each measurement. The I–V curves were measured using a digital source meter (Keithley 2400) with a voltage scan rate of 10 mV/s and an active area of 0.16 cm². All the measurements were conducted in air at room temperature.

PEC water splitting

The PEC measurements were performed in a three electrode cell provided with a quartz window, using an AUTOLAB PGSTAT302 N. A graphite rod purchased from CYMIT Quimica was used as the counter electrode. Illumination was carried out using a 150 W Xe arc lamp by LOT-Oriel GmbH (irradiation power of 300 mW cm⁻²), which simulates the solar spectrum in the ultraviolet and visible regions.

A reference electrode of Hg/HgO, 0.1 M KOH ($E^\circ = 0.165$ V vs. SHE) was utilized for the experiments. A nitrogen purge was utilized to avoid interferences of the oxygen reduction reaction. Experiments were performed in 0.1 M NaOH. Three electrochemical tests were performed: cyclic voltammetry (CV), potentiostatic photocurrent and open circuit potential measurements.

For cyclic voltammetry, the scan rate was of 20 mV s⁻¹. Several cycles were performed to detect the possible presence of irreversible phenomena. As a general observation, no changes were observed in CV after the fourth cycle and thus it is the one presented here. For voltammetry under irradiation, light was applied continuously during the whole cycle.

For photocurrent measurements under potentiostatic conditions, a bias potential of -0.037 V (vs. Hg/HgO, 0.1 M KOH) at pH 13 was applied, which respectively corresponds to the maximum voltage values in the cyclic voltammogram. Intermittent irradiation and dark periods of 15 s were applied during 5 min. Stability chronoamperograms were recorded at

–0.280 V. For the open circuit potential measurements at zero current, the cell was allowed to stabilize under dark conditions, and then the electrode was illuminated for 45 s. The photopotential (V_{ph}) was calculated as the difference between illumination and dark voltages.

Incident photon to current efficiency (IPCE) was measured under identical conditions to potentiostatic photocurrent experiments using a LOT Oriel monochromator (MSH-300).

Results and discussion

Characterization of CDs

The elemental analysis of the CDs is presented in Fig. 2a. The MW-CD nanoparticles contain approximately 45 wt% of carbon, as well as oxygen and nitrogen as heteroatoms. The HS-CDs show a certain quantity of sulfur, corresponding to thiol groups, together with a decrease in the oxygen with respect to MW-CDs. The But-CDs show an increase in the carbon ratio and a decrease in the oxygen, which support the success of

the preparation by functionalization of MW-CDs with butyl chains. The o-PDA-CDs are mostly composed by carbon, nitrogen and hydrogen, but does not contain oxygen.

The IR spectra are presented in Fig. 2b. The signals confirm the expected functional groups for the different CD types [60]. The MW-CDs show clear features related to alcohol/phenol at around 3400, 3260 and 1440–1390 cm^{-1} , C=O stretching of carboxylic acids at 1700 cm^{-1} , vibrational modes I and II of amides at 1650 and 1560 cm^{-1} , and other oxygen and nitrogen groups in the range of 1190–1000 cm^{-1} . The HS-CDs show features similar to the MW-CDs, while differing in the intensity of the carboxylic acid stretching, which is strongly reduced as a consequence of the thiol functionalization. The But-CDs present the features of oxygen and nitrogen groups too; however, methylene bands in the range of 2970–2870 cm^{-1} are particularly relevant, and signals at 1200–1000 cm^{-1} are weak, which is consistent with the presence of butyl chains instead of certain oxygen groups.

The complete structural characterization of CDs that are synthesized by polycondensation reactions has been discussed previously [58,61]. The generic structure of polymer

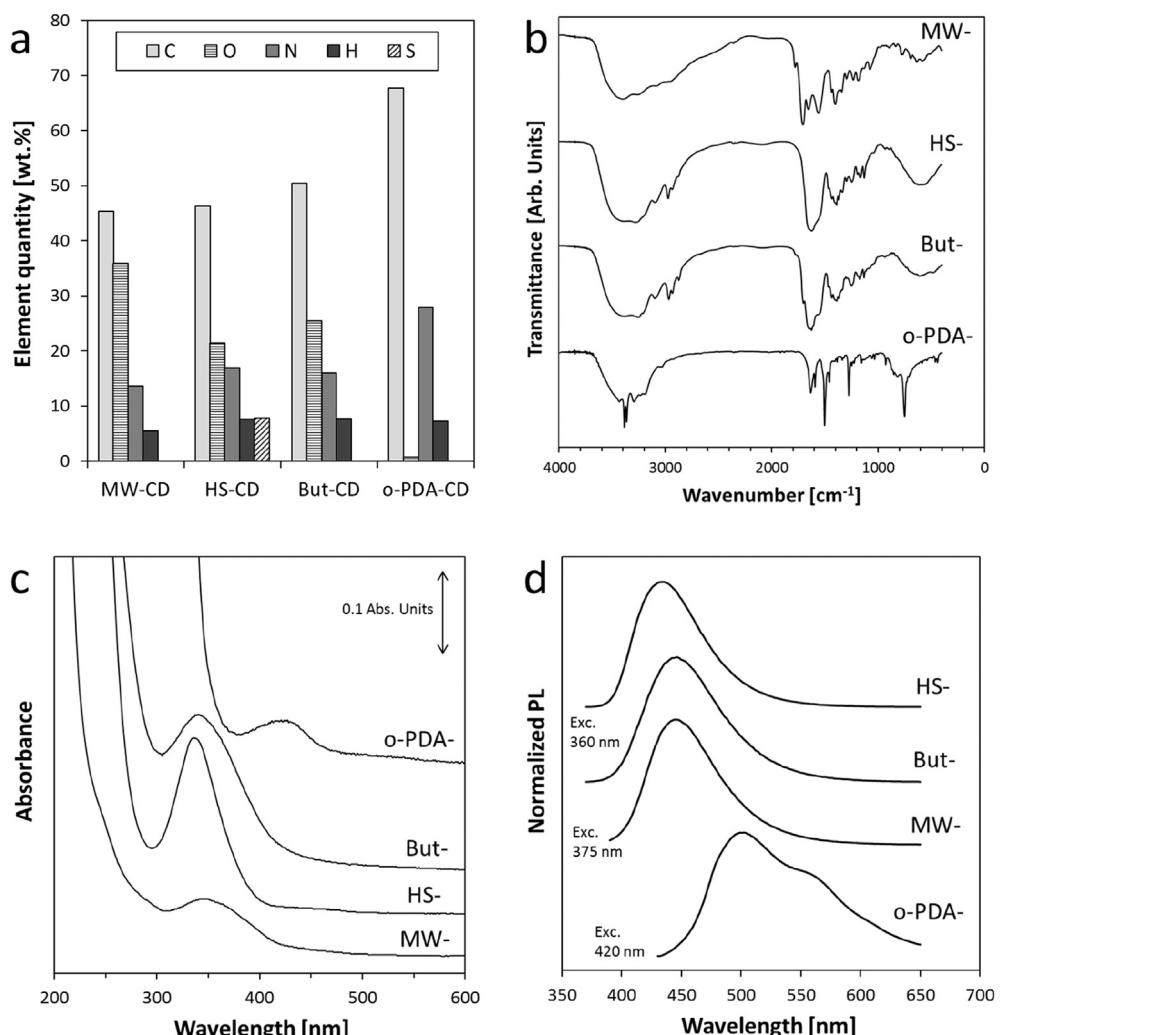


Fig. 2 – Characterization of the different CD types: a) elemental analysis, b) IR spectra, c) UV–Vis absorbance spectra, and d) PL emission spectra.

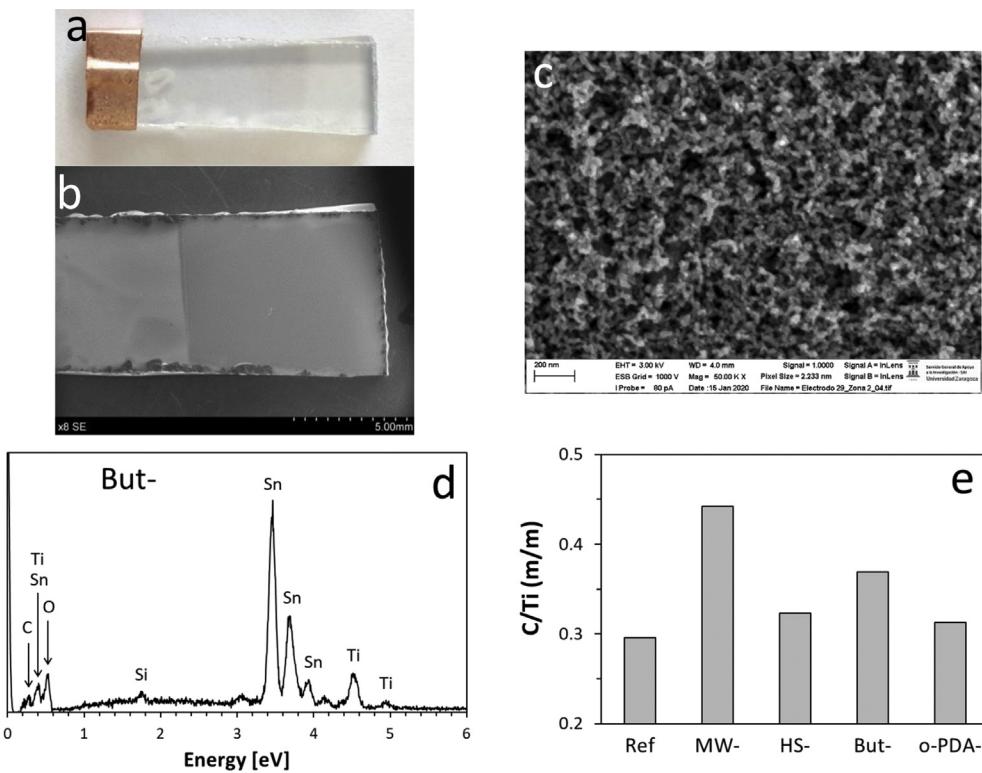


Fig. 3 – Characterization of c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + CD electrodes by SEM-EDX: a) picture of the electrode, b) image of the electrode by SEM, c) high resolution SEM image, d) EDX spectrum, and e) C/Ti mass ratio of the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and electrodes with different types of CDs.

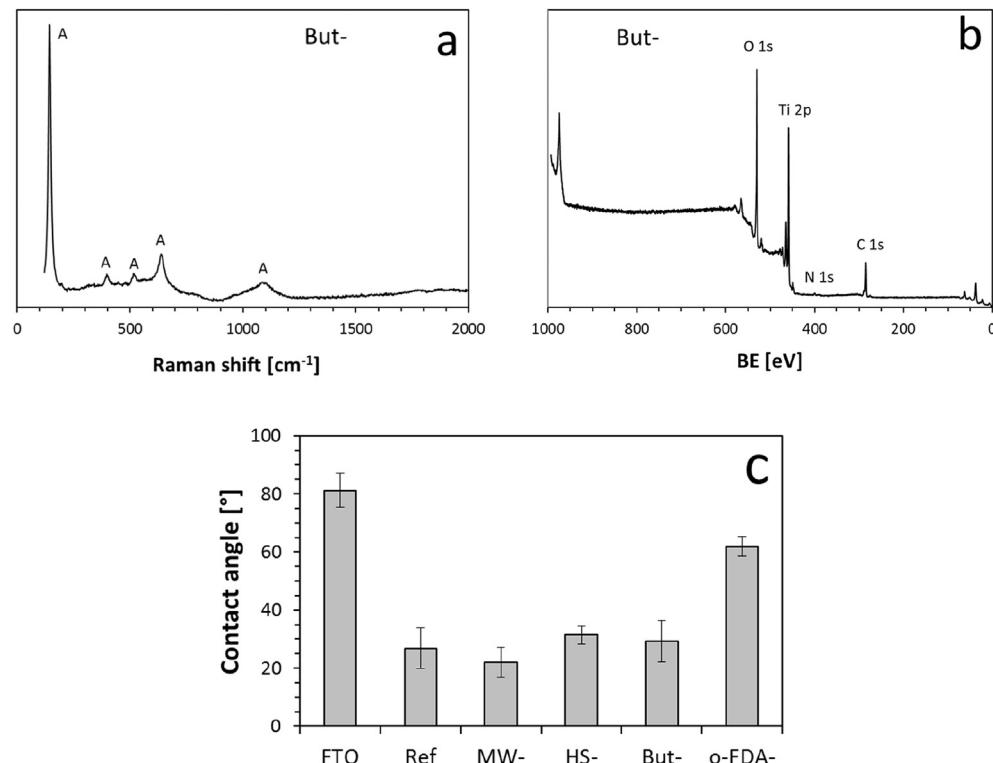


Fig. 4 – Characterization of c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + CD electrodes: a) Raman, b) XPS, and c) static contact angle measurements with pure water on the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and electrodes with different types of CDs.

CDs, as it is depicted in Fig. 1, does not include carbon double bonds, and thus they do not contain graphene structures. The structural origin of fluorescence emission in polymer CDs has been considered in previous works [58,61]. Optical properties of CDs are presented in Fig. 2c (absorbance) and 2d (fluorescence). Spectra of MW-, HS- and But-CDs show intense light absorption in the UV region ($\lambda < 300$ nm) and an additional maximum at around 350 nm. In o-PDA-CDs, the intense continuous absorption extends to 350 nm, while the additional maximum shifts to around 420 nm. Emission spectra of MW-, HS- and But-CDs show maxima at 446, 434 and 446 nm respectively. The emission band of o-PDA-CDs has two clear contributions with maxima at 499 and around 560 nm.

Electrode characterization

The characterization of c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + CD electrodes was performed by SEM-EDX (Fig. 3), Raman spectroscopy, XPS and contact angle measurements (Fig. 4). The EDX analysis covers an electrode area in the range of a mm², thus being well representative of the electrode composition. The analysis depth reaches the Sn from the FTO substrate. The reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrode contains adventitious carbon, while all the electrodes with CDs present increased quantities of carbon in its composition. High resolution SEM images reveal the

mesoporous structure of the electrode surface, which is given by the aggregation of TiO₂ crystals. Raman spectra indicate that TiO₂ on the electrodes is mostly in the anatase phase, while it might contain only very small quantities of rutile. The phase composition of TiO₂ does not suffer changes upon the addition of CDs. Similarly, the XPS analysis does not detect substantial changes in the chemical environment of titanium with the deposition of CDs. Contact angle measurements with pure water reveal an increase in the hydrophobic character of the TiO₂ surface after the deposition of o-PDA-CDs; the other functionalized CDs do not induce changes with respect to the reference TiO₂ electrode.

Perovskite solar cells

Fig. 5 presents a configuration schematic and the results of perovskite solar cells. The perovskite active material was infiltrated on the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + CD region, according to the schematic in Fig. 5. Typical IV plots were obtained and the characteristic cell parameters were calculated. The results are in good agreement with previous works under similar cell configurations [62,63]. Statistically, the photoconversion efficiency (PCE) is kept with the deposition of CDs on the TiO₂ electrode, and remains around 17% (Fig. 5d). Similarly, other characteristic parameters remain nearly unchanged

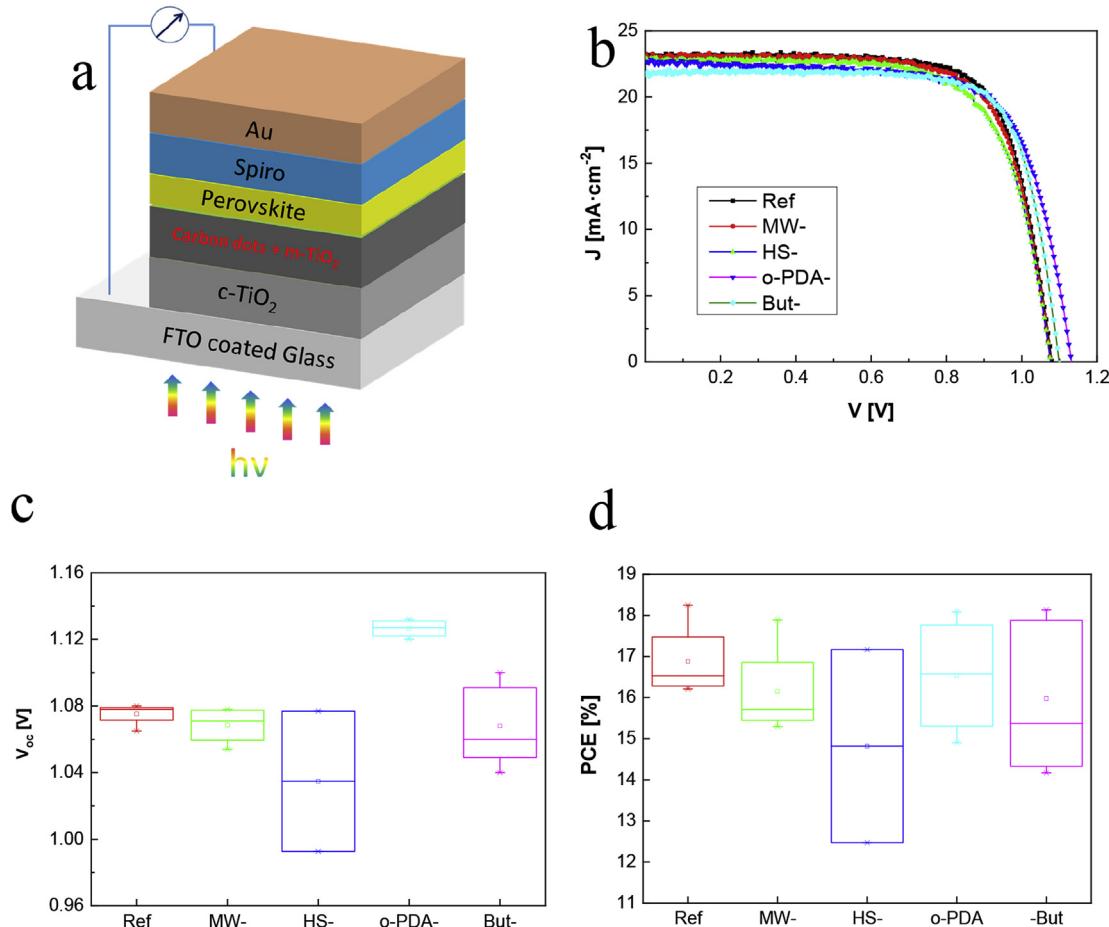


Fig. 5 – Schematic configuration and characterization of perovskite solar cells: a) schematic explaining the cell layer components; b) IV curves; c) V_{oc} ; and d) PCE statistics for the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and electrodes bearing different functionalized CDs (four solar cells for each type were measured).

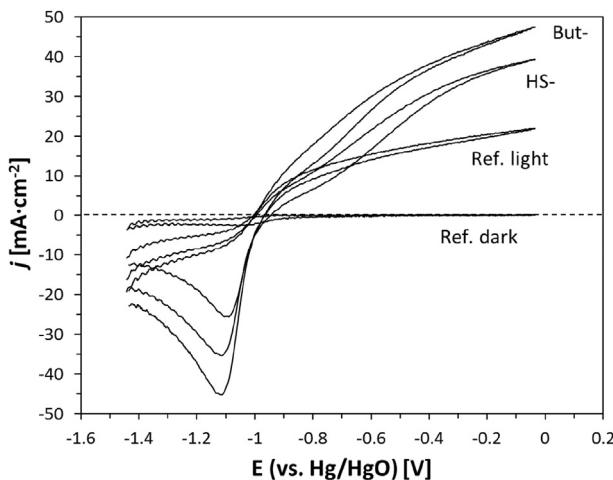


Fig. 6 – CV analysis of the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrode (dark and light conditions) and electrodes bearing HS- and But-CDs under irradiation.

($J_{SC} \sim 22 \text{ mA/cm}^2$; FF $\sim 0.7\%$). Interestingly, the open circuit voltage (V_{OC}) experiences a substantial increase with the deposition of o-PDA-CDs. This change in V_{OC} has to be associated to differential characteristics of o-PDA-CDs. First of all, their composition and structure are different from the other CDs, in particular the high nitrogen ratio and the absence of oxygen. As a consequence, the contact angle of the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + But-CD surface increases, indicating an increase in the hydrophobic character. Since the perovskite is infiltrated as an organic solution in the cell, the hydrophobic character might improve the structural characteristics or interactions of perovskite crystals. Secondly, the optical absorbance and photoluminescence properties of the o-PDA-CDs are also substantially different, suggesting particular optical and electronic responses. Recent works on perovskite cells have underlined the positive effect of N-doping in graphene quantum dots to improve their properties against humidity, temperature stress and UV irradiation, as well as a hole transport material [64,65]. In the present work, it is further observed that

CDs containing only nitrogen as a heteroatom, but not oxygen, exhibit improved interface properties in perovskite solar cells.

PEC water splitting

The results of PEC water oxidation are presented in Figs. 6–9. The cyclic voltammetry experiment (Fig. 6) on the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrode shows an anodic photocurrent at $E > -1 \text{ V}$ (vs. Hg/HgO). This photocurrent has to be strictly related to water oxidation with evolution of O₂ in the working electrode, and thus to H₂ evolution in the counter electrode. The deposition of CDs on the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrode provides an increase in the photocurrent, particularly in the case of But-CDs. The photocurrent in the modified electrode reaches nearly 2.3 times that of the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrode. Even though photocurrent densities are low, the improvement that was caused by CDs well agrees with previous literature data (Table 1). Apart from photocurrents, other voltammetry characteristics, such as the onset potentials at around -1 V (vs. Hg/HgO) and the presence of Wilson states in the cathodic scan at around -1.1 V (vs. Hg/HgO) [23] are not modified by the CDs, indicating that the general mechanism of the reaction is unchanged.

Amperometric experiments at $E > -1 \text{ V}$ were conducted to evaluate the kinetics of the system response and the long term stability (Fig. 7). It is confirmed that the deposition of But-CDs substantially improves the photocurrent without altering the speed in the response. In addition, the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + But-CD system is stable for more than 4 h under continuous operation in PEC water splitting. All the CD-modified electrodes, at equivalent working potentials of $E > -1 \text{ V}$ (vs. Hg/HgO), produce higher photocurrents than the reference TiO₂ electrode. However, the photopotential, calculated from open circuit voltages ($j = 0$), does not show substantial changes (Fig. 8). This fact, in agreement with observations on cyclic voltammograms, indicates that no substantial changes are introduced by CDs in the reaction mechanism on the TiO₂ electrode. In addition, this agrees with the results in perovskite cells, which indicate few changes in the electron transport properties.

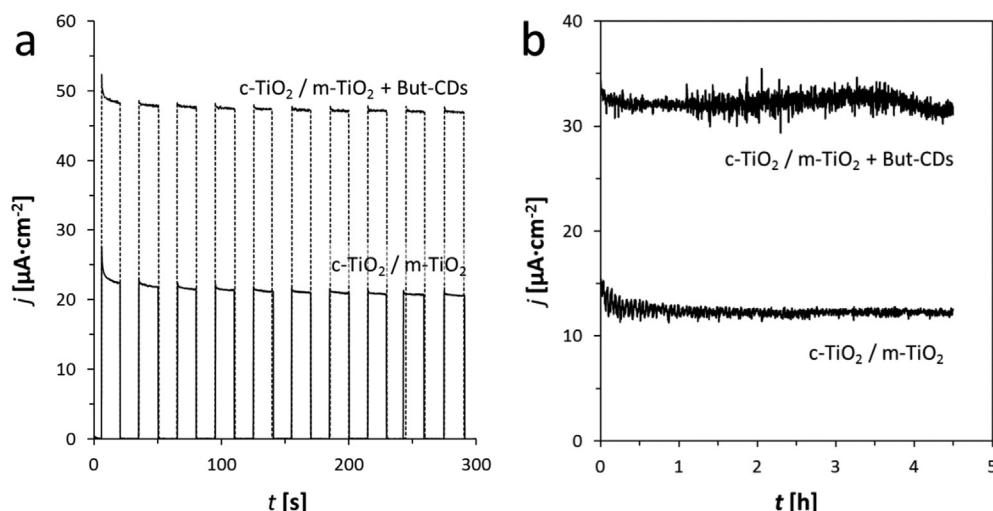


Fig. 7 – Photocurrent measurements under potentiostatic conditions: a) On/off irradiation at -0.037 V vs. Hg/HgO; b) continuous illumination at -0.280 V vs. Hg/HgO.

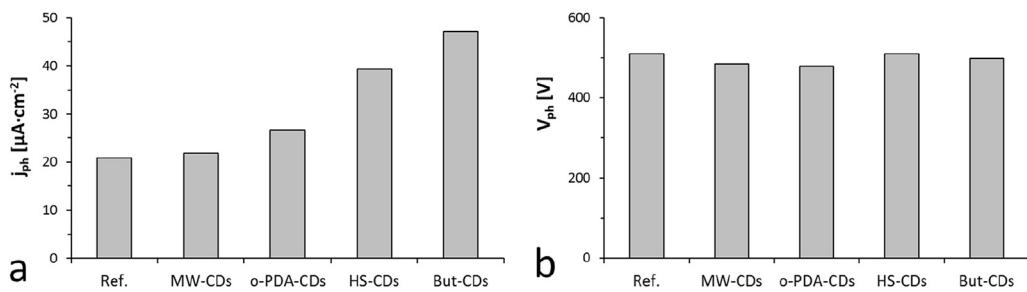


Fig. 8 – Parameters of PEC water oxidation on the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and electrodes bearing different functionalized CDs: a) potentiostatic photocurrent at -0.037 V vs. Hg/HgO ; b) photopotential.

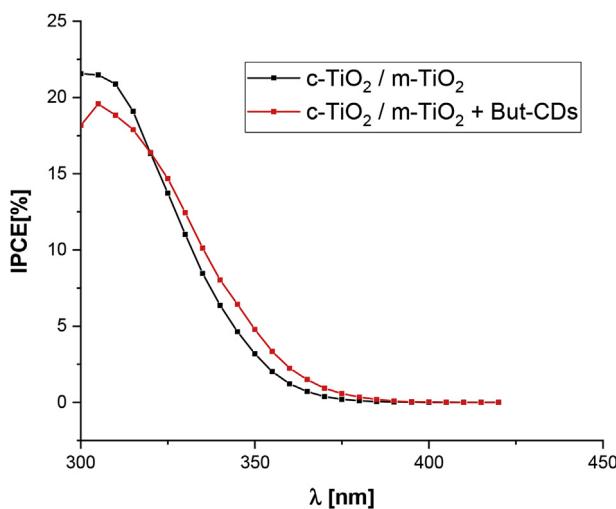


Fig. 9 – IPCE measurement on the reference c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and the modified c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + But-CDs electrode in 0.1 M NaOH at -0.037 V (vs. Hg/HgO).

Fig. 9 shows the conversion efficiency as a function of the incident irradiation wavelength. The outcomes prove that the CD-modified electrode has a higher efficiency than the reference TiO₂ electrode at larger irradiation wavelengths. The light absorption range is extended by approximately 20 nm. Therefore, the increase in the photocurrent can be associated with a contribution of a light harvesting path through the CD, which acts as a sensitizer (Fig. 10). Both the TiO₂ and CDs are simultaneously working as semiconductors, absorbing photons and pumping excited photoelectrons, while the photoholes react oxidizing water. The CDs provide an equivalent bandgap somewhat narrower than TiO₂. However, all the photoelectron paths seem to be flowing through TiO₂, since onset potentials and photopotentials for the process are not modified. As a consequence, it is deduced that the LUMO level of the CD is located at a higher energy than the lowest active level of the TiO₂ conduction band, in agreement with previous findings on TiO₂ nanotubes loaded with graphene quantum dots [45]. Functional groups on the CD might modulate the energy levels to achieve the most suitable interaction with TiO₂.

Conclusions

Various types of fluorescent CDs with different functional groups were synthesized from simple organic acids and amines by microwave irradiation, hydrothermal treatment, solution chemistry with coupling agents and chemical functionalization with nucleophilic amines. The CDs were deposited on thin film c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ electrodes; a comparison was performed using analogous electrodes as anode components in perovskite photovoltaic cells and as active photoanodes in PEC water splitting. In perovskite solar cells, an increase in V_{OC} occurs upon deposition of o-PDA-CDs, which has to be associated to their particular properties: a high nitrogen ratio, absence of oxygen, increased hydrophobic character and different optical behavior. The PEC water oxidation, in terms of photocurrent, improves upon CD deposition, and the increment depends on functionalization. The highest photocurrents were measured on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + But-CD electrodes, which are proved to be stable under continuous operation. All the PEC experiments, and particularly the IPCE, demonstrate that CDs work as sensitizers of TiO₂. The CDs act themselves as semiconductors that increase the optical

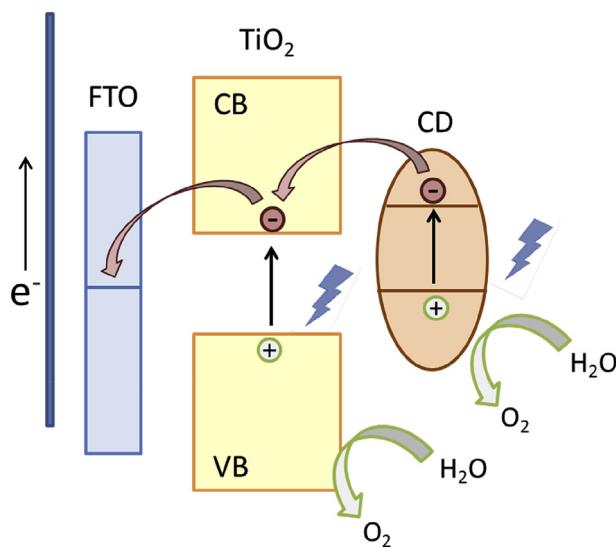


Fig. 10 – Schematic explaining the mechanism of PEC water oxidation on modified c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ + CD electrodes: both the TiO₂ and CDs work as semiconductors; all the photoexcited electrons flow through the TiO₂ layer (CB = conduction band; VB = valence band).

absorption range by approximately 20 nm, thus increasing the current flow through TiO₂.

Acknowledgements

This work has been funded by the Spanish MINEICO under the project ENE 2016-79282-C5-1-R (AEI/FEDER, UE), the Government of Aragón (Grupo reconocido T03-17R) and associated EU Regional Development Funds (DGA/FEDER, UE). Special thanks are directed to the Analysis Service at Instituto de Carboquímica ICB-CSIC.

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