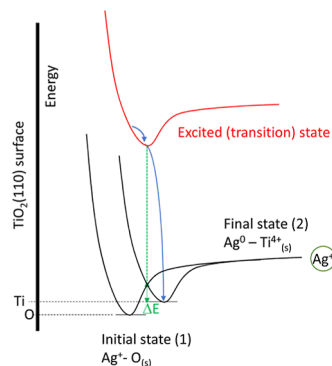


Electron Transfer between Metal Ions and Photoexcited Semiconductors

K. Katsiev and H. Idriss*

ABSTRACT: Electron transfer between metal ions and excited solid materials is central to many catalytic events in natural and synthetic systems. The interaction of metal ions, leading to their reduction, with the excited semiconductor is expected to decrease the lifetime of excited electrons and increase that of the holes. By conducting this reaction using a semiconductor single crystal [rutile TiO_2 (110)] in the aqueous phase and the presence of different Ag^+ concentrations, it was found that the initial signal of excited electrons increases and the signal related to holes decreases, which is the opposite of expectations. Results indicate that this is most likely related to the initial interaction, the adsorption process (surface $\text{O}_{\text{GS}}-\text{Ag}^+$; GS: ground state) that precedes the electron transfer reaction ($\text{Ti}_{\text{ex}}^{3+}-\text{Ag}$ metal; ex: excited state). Similar results are obtained for the Ce^{4+} interaction with the surface of $\text{TiO}_2(110)$.



INTRODUCTION

Electron transfer between two interacting systems is central to most chemical reactions. While considerable knowledge is available for the interaction of two ionic systems in the liquid phase,¹ the temporal nature of the electronic interaction of metal ions with the surface of oxide semiconductors in an aqueous environment is largely unknown. Interactions leading to electron transfer between two ionic complexes are well described by Marcus' and other similar theories,² in which the reorganization energy has a central role because it slows down the fast electron transfer between two given ions. The situation is different when an ion interacts with a surface. This is because the surface of a solid represents an infinite size compared to the ions and is therefore largely static. As a consequence, unlike the interaction between two ions in solution, the ionic interaction with an excited solid semiconductor, before the charge transfer event, is poised to be governed by the nature of the adsorption of the given ion. In this case, and in the absence of a photon, it is largely a result of the electrostatic potential between the ion and the surface site.³ This is because, in this step, no charge has been transferred. In the case of a metal oxide, the interaction occurs between the surface O atoms (high electron density) and the metal ions in solution. Strictly, the surface is hydroxylated in an aqueous phase, but this would not change the nature of the adsorption because the surface hydroxyl still contains high electron density⁴ around the O atom. For example, a recent experimental and computational study has shown that Ag^+ interacts with the oxygen and nitrogen anions of the metal–organic framework.⁵ The situation will change upon light excitation, where electron transfer occurs from the valence band (VB) to the conduction

band (CB) within the semiconductor. In the case of a semiconductor with no electrons in the d-orbitals, such as TiO_2 , the transfer occurs from O 2p orbitals to Ti 3d orbitals. As a result, holes reside on the O atom and electrons on the Ti atom.⁶ In other words, the temporal electron distribution on the two centers is reversed. This would affect the position of the metal ions adsorbed on an O atom. Adsorbed ions will move from the O atom centers on which they reside, due to the electrostatic repulsion with the holes, toward Ti atoms, due to electrostatic attraction with the excited electrons, and where they get reduced. This type of interaction may be monitored by pump–probe transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS).

In the case of oxide semiconductors excited with energy higher than their bandgap, there are generally three observed regions by TAS. The first is at the bandgap energy where a negative signal is viewed as evidence of depleted VB electrons in the excited state, ground-state bleaching (GSB), although this has seldom been seen in the case of TiO_2 . The second is a positive signal in the visible region commonly attributed to holes.⁷ The third, also a positive signal, is in the IR region, attributed to trapped electrons⁸ and polarons (self-trapped excited electrons).⁹ Both the second and the third are commonly called photon-induced absorption (IPA).

To conduct the experiment, we used the most studied and probably understood n-type oxide semiconductor single crystal, the rutile $\text{TiO}_2(110)$, as a prototype.^{10–12} The use of a single crystal is important as it removes possible effects of grain boundary,¹³ degree of crystallinity,¹⁴ and multiple surface orientations,¹⁵ among other factors. All affect the performance of polycrystalline photocatalysts and are poised to affect the TAS signal. The reaction is conducted in solution to mimic the solid–liquid aqueous environment encountered in nature. The metal cation used is Ag^+ , which is one of the simplest reducible cations to Ag metal by excited electrons and is used to generate O_2 from water upon trapping excited electrons from the CB.¹⁶ This allows for holes to be transferred to adsorbed water molecules, making O_2 and protons.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

The setup of TAS consists of a regeneratively amplified Ti:sapphire laser system that produces 800 nm laser pulses of 90 fs pulse width at 1 kHz repetition rate in conjunction with Excipro pump–probe spectrometers (CDP, Moscow). Pump pulses (320 nm) were generated after passing through 90% of the 800 nm beam into a spectrally tunable (240–2600 nm) optical parametric amplifier (Spectra-Physics) and a frequency mixer (NIR Vis UV, Light conversion). The fluency of the pump power was about 15 mW/cm². To generate the probe pulses (UV, visible, and NIR wavelength continuum), the remaining 10% of the 800 nm amplified pulses were focused onto a CaF_2 crystal. To study the transient signal following excitation, the 800 nm amplified pulses were passed through a motorized delay stage before white light generation. The pump pulses (320 nm) and the probe light were overlapped on the $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ single crystal and then reflected with a mirror to the detector. The pump pulses passed through a synchronized chopper (500 Hz), which blocked alternative pump pulses. The experiments were carried out in a reactor constructed around a standard 10 mm optical-path quartz cuvette. A fresh TiO_2 single crystal ($10 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$) (from MTI) was used. The fresh sample was cleaned with ethanol in an ultrasound bath and then dried in ambient conditions. The crystal was positioned vertically, normal to the pump/probe laser beams, enabling the measurements in reflection mode. The cuvette was filled with deionized water (Milli Q filtration) and sealed with a reclosable plastic cap with a rubber seal (3D-printed). The cap was equipped with two syringe needles for N_2 purging and introduction of the reactants. Silver nitrate was dissolved in water to a $6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$ concentration and added to the reactor dropwise with a microliter droplet volume through one of the needles by a syringe. The change in absorption (ΔA) of the excited state is calculated by subtracting the absorption of the excited sample from the unexcited sample.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It was observed that the presence of Ag^+ resulted in increasing the short (<10 ps) lifetime of excited electrons in the CB and decreasing the lifetime of trapped holes. This was contrary to expectation because Ag^+ is ultimately reduced to Ag^0 , and one would expect that it would decrease the lifetime of excited electrons and consequently increase that of holes (because of a decreased electron–hole recombination rate). Figure S1 presents the TAS signal of $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ when Ag^+ was added at two different concentrations (A and B) in the UV and visible regions. GSB became pronounced in the presence of Ag^+ . The

appearance of GSB is because, by trapping electrons from the CB, the excited state has fewer VB electrons and this leads to a negative signal. Also shown in Figure S2 are the fittings of the rise (recovery) of the GSB signal. The recovery fitted by a single exponential function is almost the same, with a time constant of 2.1 and 2.7 ps^{−1} for 6 and $12 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mM}$, respectively. The Ag^+ concentrations used were very low (10^{-5} to 10^{-4} mM) to avoid any possible deposition of Ag^0 in the reactor. This concentration, while very low, is still 10–20 times higher than the number of surface Ti atoms of the single crystal.

Figure 1 presents the decay of excited electrons with energies between 1.7 and 1.4 eV. The trace is at 840 nm.

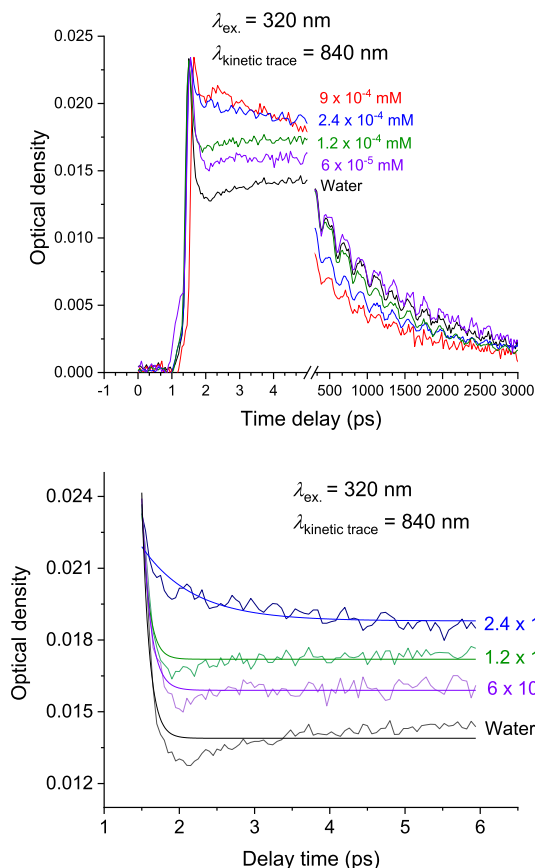


Figure 1. TAS signal from a rutile $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ single crystal at 840 nm as a function of time in the presence of Ag^+ at the indicated concentrations. (a) From 0 to 3500 ps and (b) from 0 to 6 ps. Note that the effect of the Ag^+ is inverted at a longer time when compared to the initial short lifetime (<10 ps).

Although small variations do exist from one trace to the next,¹⁷ they are not expected to affect the outcome of the analysis in the present context. At a very short time (<10 ps), the signal decay is slowed down by increasing the concentration of Ag^+ , while at a longer time (>300 ps), the situation is reversed. Previously, we modeled the decay of similar single crystals in air¹⁸ and under nitrogen.¹⁹ The signal originates from trapped electrons upon de-excitation from the CB to trap centers. During the measurements, these trapped electrons acquire energy and return to the CB before decaying back to the traps. Self-trapped electrons (polarons) have small energy (typically below 1 eV) and are termed “small polarons”^{20,21} in the rutile TiO_2 (as opposed to “large polarons”²² in the anatase TiO_2).

There are also surface traps that are located on the Ti cations in the terraces and at the step edges, where, in this case, trapped electrons are less mobile. This is in addition to bulk traps, Ti^{x+} cations ($x < 4$).²³ The fact that the presence of Ag^+ affects the first decay may indicate that this latter is largely related to the surface. Part of this signal would be linked to polarons since they are affected by adsorbates [such as CO ,²⁴ water,²⁵ or carboxylic acids²⁶ on $\text{TiO}_2(110)$].

Figure 2A shows the computed time constants for both decays with Ag^+ concentrations. The opposite trend is clear. The oscillation of the signal (Figure 1) with time is not noise and has been seen on single crystals^{27,28} and well-defined thin films²⁹ by others. It is related to the excited electrons coupling with lattice vibration in the excited state, and its frequency and amplitude are a function of numerous parameters including the

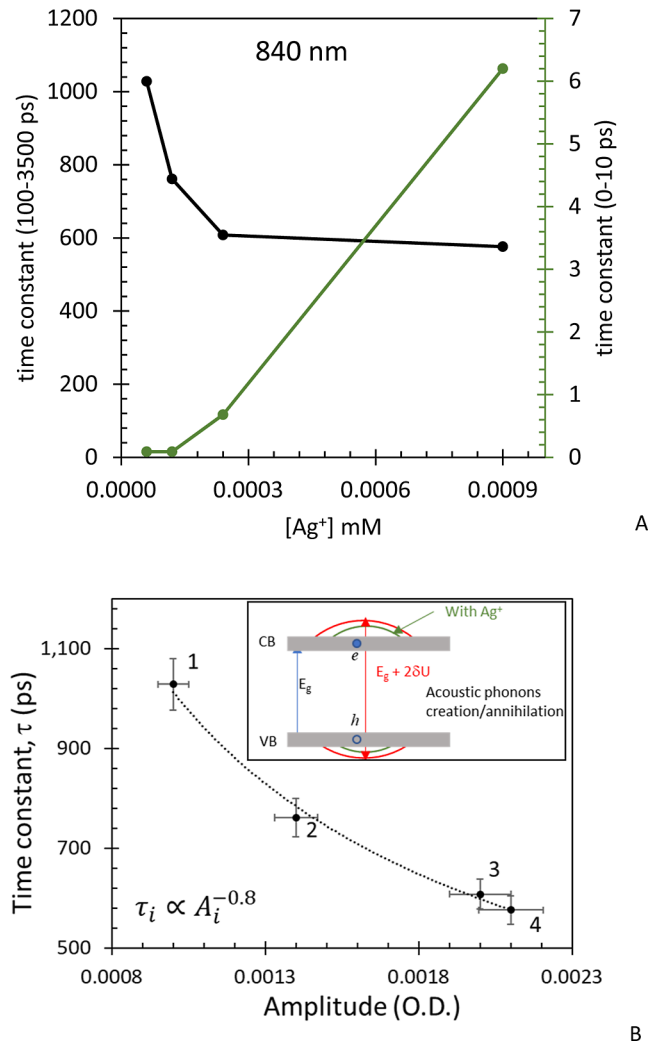


Figure 2. Time constants extracted from the single exponential fitting of the TAS signal at 840 nm at the given Ag^+ concentrations. The time constants for the long-life signal (left Y-axis) decrease with increasing Ag^+ , while they are reversed for the short-life signal (right Y-axis). (B) Change in the time constant with the amplitude of the oscillation wave in the 200–1000 nm region in the presence of four different Ag^+ concentrations. The inset is a sketch of the principle behind the oscillation and a possible explanation for the change in the oscillation wave in the presence of Ag^+ . The numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4 are for the Ag^+ concentrations (0.6 , 1.2 , 2.4 , and 9×10^{-4} mM, respectively).

probe and pump light frequencies ($\omega = 2nV_s k_{\text{pr}}$); n : refractive index, V_s : longitudinal sound velocity, and k_{pr} : wave vector of the probe. While our probe light is too broad to extract quantitative parameters, the periodicity of the oscillation (220 ps) was found to be the same in water and when Ag^+ was present at different concentrations. However, the amplitude of the oscillation decreased with increasing $[\text{Ag}^+]$ (Figures S3 and 2b). The relationship between the amplitude and coherent acoustic phonon (CAP) oscillations at a given set of conditions is represented by a damped harmonic oscillator equation.

$$R_{\text{CAP}} = A_{\text{ph}} e^{-t/\tau} \cos[(\omega + \beta t)t + \varphi]$$

where A_{ph} denotes the amplitude of coherent oscillation, ω is the oscillation frequency of CAPs, α is the chirp coefficient, φ is the initial phase, and τ is approximated by the TAS-obtained time constant. The oscillation is due to the deformation of the crystal during the pump–probe experiment. The deformation potential has been well explained by others.^{30,31} In brief, the relative displacement of atoms in the crystal results in strain. This in turn regulates the orbital overlap and therefore induces an electron energy level (δU) shift. When charges propagate in the crystal upon light excitation (excited electrons and holes), their local density at a specific energy level is changed, which leads to changes in the bond energy from which some phonons are generated and others are annihilated. The decrease in the time constant of the long-lived signal is plotted as a function of the amplitude for the four $[\text{Ag}^+]$ (Figure 2B). The reciprocal relationship may be explained by the decreasing population of excited electrons in the CB because the higher the $[\text{Ag}^+]$, the more electron transfer would occur.

Figure 3 presents the visible light signal attributed to holes, while Table 1 gives the fitted parameters. Although some

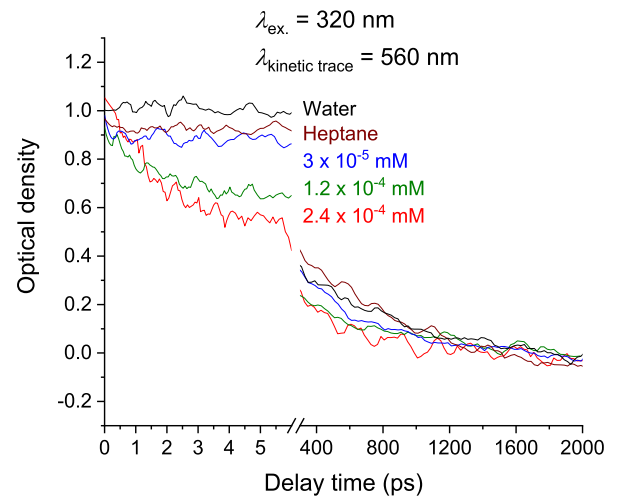


Figure 3. TAS signal from a rutile $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ single crystal at 560 nm as a function of time in the presence of Ag^+ at the indicated concentrations. Note that the effect of Ag^+ on the signal is the same at a longer time when compared to the initial short lifetime.

overlap with excited electrons exists,³² the decay of the signal with increasing wavelengths from 400 to 550 nm may indicate that hole contribution largely decreases with increasing wavelengths. Holes residing on O atoms typically have energy³³ between 2 and 2.5 eV. The signal originates from those trapped holes absorbing visible light energy and is then detrapped, increasing their mobility. This may be viewed as

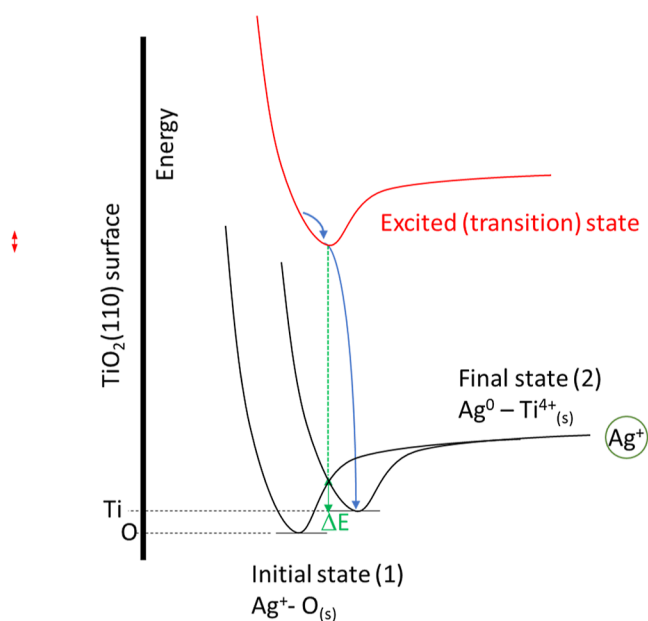
Table 1. Parameters of the Bi-Exponential Function Used to Fit the Trace Signal at 560 nm of a Rutile TiO₂ (110) Single Crystal in Water and an Aqueous Solution Containing Ag⁺ at the Indicated Concentrations

| | water | 3 × 10 ⁻⁵ mM | 6 × 10 ⁻⁵ mM | 1.2 × 10 ⁻⁴ mM | 2.4 × 10 ⁻⁴ mM |
|----------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| A ₁ | 0.92 | 0.54 | 0.58 | 3.3 | 3.1 |
| τ ₁ | 118 | 153 | 71 | 1.84 | 1.9 |
| A ₂ | 0.85 | 0.48 | 0.34 | 0.64 | 0.5 |
| τ ₂ | 896 | 841 | 775 | 330 | 382 |
| <τ> | 799 | 724 | 680 | 321 | 371 |

becoming holes in the VB again, with the extra energy dissipated. In Figure 3, the spectra are smoothed (5 points) because typically the signal in this region is noisier than that in the IR region. As can be seen, the decay time is faster with increasing [Ag⁺].

Scheme 1 presents a diagram with an attempt to explain the observations. In the absence of light, Ag⁺ interacts with the

Scheme 1. Qualitative Schematic Description of the Energy Events for the Photoreduction of Ag⁺ to Ag⁰ on a TiO₂(110) Rutile Single Crystal^a



^aΔE is the displacement energy of a Ag⁺ adsorbed on a surface oxygen (initial state) to Ag⁰ on a Ti⁴⁺ surface (final state) upon acquiring an electron from the CB. In the diagram, the initial state is put at a lower energy because Ag⁺–O²⁻ bond energy is stronger than Ag⁰–Ti⁴⁺ bond energy.

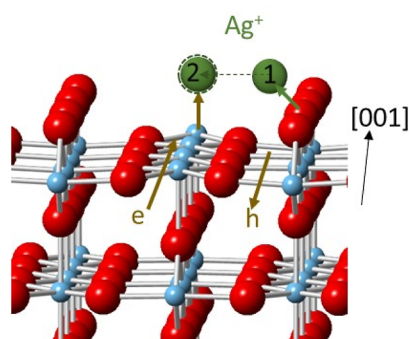
TiO₂(110) rutile surface. Because both are in an aqueous environment, the surface is fully hydroxylated and Ag⁺ is solvated. Upon hydroxylation, surface defects are healed, and the surface is composed exclusively of Ti⁴⁺ cations, in-plane oxygen atoms, and bridging –OH. The exact coordination of Ag⁺ to water molecules is still under study; the most recent work indicates that a Ag⁺ is coordinated to two molecules of water in an axial configuration.³⁴ We will assume that a Ag⁺ interacting with the surface has either lost solvation (upon adsorption) or that the presence of water molecules does not affect its mode of interaction (since there is no net charge transfer). Because of the difference in charge, Ag⁺ would interact with the surface hydroxyls of TiO₂. We view this as the ground-state configuration (labeled 1 in Scheme 1). Upon light

absorption, electrons are transferred to the CB, and holes are formed in the VB. An adsorbed Ag⁺ will move from an O atom of surface hydroxyls (hole centers) to Ti³⁺ cations (electron trap). While surface hydroxyls are weak hole traps,³⁵ they become strong in the presence of water.³⁶ By doing so, two changes occur in the excited state when Ag⁺ is present. First, excited electrons at and near the surface will be attracted to Ag⁺ instead of being trapped (either self-trapped or in deep traps). That may explain the increase in the time constant of the TAS IR signal over a short lifetime. Second, holes will be pushed away because of a repulsion with the ions (detrapped), increasing their mobility. This would result in decreasing their population in the trapped centers. Both effects are poised to increase the electron transfer rate. Excited electrons residing longer in the CB then have higher energy than trapped electrons and are more mobile. This favors the electron transfer rate to make Ag⁰. Holes returning to the VB create a higher potential energy difference for electrons from water to be transferred (instead of the less energetic, trapped ones) and, as a result, generate O₂.

Difference from an Organic Adsorbate. Alcohols such as methanol³⁷ and ethanol³⁸ or amines such as triethanolamine^{39,40} (TEA) are commonly used as hole scavengers in photoreactions for hydrogen production over semiconductor photocatalysts. Their addition results in suppressing the electron–hole recombination rate, allowing for hydrogen ions to be reduced to H₂ by excited electrons transferred to the CB. Work conducted using pump–probe femtosecond spectroscopy has shown, as expected, an increase in the signal attributed to excited electrons when these hole scavenger (electron-donating) molecules are used.^{19,41} In the case of alcohols on the TiO₂(110) surface, their dissociative form (alkoxides) has been shown to be more efficient for this electron transfer reaction.^{42–44} The alkoxides reside on the Ti⁴⁺_{sc} site with a bond made between the O 2p of the alkoxide (alcohol)^{45,46} and the empty states of the Ti 3d band. Under photoexcitation, these adsorbates are already in their optimal ground-state position to participate in the electron transfer events (Scheme 2) and therefore do not change sites. This is different from the case of a metal ion (in this case, Ag⁺), where it interacts with the surface oxygen anions in the absence of photons. Scheme 2 presents a comparison between both cases: a Ag⁺ ion as an electron scavenger and a primary alcohol (ethanol in this case) as a hole scavenger.

The results obtained on Ag⁺ cations are similar to those found for Ce⁴⁺ cations⁴⁷ also on the same surface, TiO₂(110) (in this case, Ce⁴⁺ is ultimately reduced to Ce³⁺, also as electron scavengers). The analysis in this work as well as for Ce⁴⁺ interaction with the same surface⁴⁷ does not take into consideration the possible role of the counterion (NO₃⁻) in the case of Ag⁺ and [(NH₄⁺)₂(NO₃⁻)₆]⁴⁺ in the case of Ce⁴⁺. It appears, based on the results of these two metal cations, that their presence increases the charge accumulation of the excited

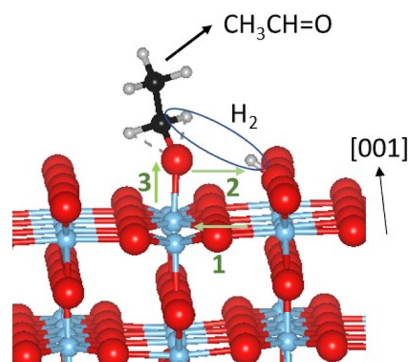
Scheme 2. Schematic Representation of the Interaction of Ag^+ (A) and Dissociatively Adsorbed Ethanol (B) with the Surface of $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ before and after Photoexcitation^a



(A)

Initial state: Ag^+ interaction with high electron density sites (O_{3c} or O_{2c} atoms).

- Upon light excitation, e are transferred from $\text{O}2p$ to $\text{Ti}3d$. In an aqueous environment the surface is hydroxylated (hydroxyls are omitted in the figure). This is viewed as from $\text{O}2p$ of the HO_{2c} to the Ti_{5c} resulting in Ti_{5c}^{3+} and an HO_{2c}^{\cdot} radical.
- The creation of holes on the $\text{O}_{2c,3c}$ sites repels Ag^+ which are then attracted to the Ti_{5c}^{3+} sites.
- As a consequence, h become more mobile while e are directed toward the Ag^+ instead of being trapped.



(B)

Initial state: dissociative adsorption (ethoxy) – the bond between the $\text{O}2p$ and $\text{Ti}3d$ is a dative bond.

- Upon light excitation, e are transferred from $\text{O}2p$ to $\text{Ti}3d$ (1). This is viewed as from $\text{O}2p$ of the HO_{2c} to the Ti_{5c} resulting in Ti_{5c}^{3+} and an HO_{2c}^{\cdot} radical.
- The alkoxy donates an e to the HO_{2c}^{\cdot} radical and a second electron to the $\text{Ti}3d$ band (current doubling⁴⁵) (2). This results in the breaking of one C-H bond closest to the alkoxy O atom (beta-hydride elimination).
- The O atom of the alkoxy recuperates the two e involved, initially in the bonding with Ti, to make the second bond with the C ($\text{C}=\text{O}$) and generates the product (acetaldehyde¹⁹).

The repulsion between the Ti^{3+} and $\text{O}2p$ of the alkoxy at the excited state leading to the formation of acetaldehyde can be explained without the need for surface migration from one site to the other.

^a Ag^+ is an electron trap, while ethanol (like other alcohols) is a hole trap. h : hole(s) and e : electron(s). (B) is constructed from an energy-minimized structure of a $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ slab and ethanol, see ref 46 for more details, while (A) is a schematic representation.

electrons on the surface, increasing (initially) their lifetime instead of being decayed in trap sites.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the interaction of Ag^+ with the $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ surface under UV light excitation resulted in four observations. (1) The appearance of GSB due to the suppression of a large fraction of the de-excitation route ($\text{CB electrons} \rightarrow \text{VB}$) in the presence of Ag^+ . (2) A slower decay with time of excited electrons (in the 0 to 10 ps) with increasing $[\text{Ag}^+]$. (3) A decrease in the amplitude of the acoustic oscillation with increasing $[\text{Ag}^+]$. (4) A faster decay with time of the visible light signal, largely attributed to trapped holes, with increasing $[\text{Ag}^+]$. Schematics discussing these events in which Ag^+ moves from one site (a surface O atom) to another (a surface Ti atom) are proposed. These observations related to the interaction of metal cations with an excited oxide semiconductor surface might be more general because a similar behavior is observed for Ce^{4+} cations' interaction with the $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ surface.⁴⁷

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The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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