

Laser Ablation Nanoarchitectonics of Au–Cu Alloys Deposited on TiO₂ Photocatalyst Films for Switchable Hydrogen Evolution from Formic Acid Dehydrogenation

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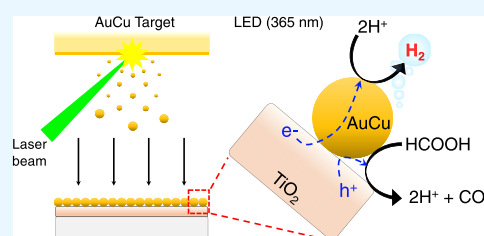
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ABSTRACT: The regulation of H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation using recyclable photocatalyst films is an essential approach for on-demand H₂ production. We have successfully generated Au–Cu nanoalloys using a laser ablation method and deposited them on TiO₂ photocatalyst films (Au_xCu_{100-x}/TiO₂). The Au–Cu/TiO₂ films were employed as photocatalysts for H₂ production from formic acid dehydrogenation under light-emitting diode (LED) irradiation (365 nm). The highest H₂ evolution rate for Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ is archived to 62,500 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹ per photocatalyst weight. The remarkable performance of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ may account for the formation of Au-rich surfaces and the effect of Au alloying that enables Cu to sustain the metallic form on its surface. The metallic Au–Cu surface on TiO₂ is vital to supply the photoexcited electrons of TiO₂ to its surface for H₂ evolution. The rate-determining step (RDS) is identified as the reaction of a surface-active species with protons. The results establish a practical preparation of metal alloy deposited on photocatalyst films using laser ablation to develop efficient photocatalysts.



INTRODUCTION

With increasing global energy demand and environmental pressure, H₂ has drawn significant attention in replacing fossil fuels because of its sustainability and environmental friendliness.^{1–7} The widespread use of H₂ has practical limitations in several aspects, such as safe storage and transportation. The liquefaction of gaseous H₂ requires high pressure (up to 700 bar) and extremely low temperature (–253 °C), which increases the costs and risks of H₂ storage.^{8,9} Chemical compounds such as formic acid containing hydrogen atoms provide an indirect method to store H₂ with potentially low risk and cost. Formic acid dehydrogenation (HCOOH → CO₂ + H₂) can produce gaseous H₂ in the presence of a catalyst.^{10,11} Noble metal (e.g., Pt, Pd, and Ir) nanoparticles (NPs) are generally used as catalysts for H₂ production from formic acid dehydrogenation.^{12–14} However, formic acid dehydrogenation based on the thermal catalytic reactions may not be terminated until formic acid is completely consumed. Therefore, to regulate H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation, an on/off switch by light would be an essential tool for on-demand H₂ production.

Several reports show that photocatalysts with noble metal-based NPs in a suspended powder form can produce H₂ from formic acid dehydrogenation.^{15–24} Among them, noble metal NPs deposited on TiO₂-based photocatalysts have gained widespread attention with good photostability, activity, non-toxicity, and low cost for practical applications.²⁵ Typically, metal NP-deposited TiO₂ photocatalysts are utilized as

suspended powders in the reaction. Thus, it could face difficulties in separating and recovering the photocatalyst NPs without any loss from reaction solutions. Additionally, the conjunction of metal NPs onto TiO₂ generally comprises several complex and multiple reaction steps to obtain nanoscale materials with homogeneous chemical compositions and sizes. In a conventional method, tailoring the form and composition of the nanomaterials requires several parameters such as morphological tuners, toxic reagents, and organic solvents. Organic or inorganic residues in photocatalysts derived from chemical reagents and organic solvents could deactivate and reduce catalytic performance.²⁶

Conversely, as a physical method, the laser ablation technique is regarded as a new green technology because of its versatility and simplicity. Recently, it has been demonstrated that the fabrication of alloy NPs through laser ablation affords unique physical and chemical properties beneficial for catalytic applications.^{27,28} The laser ablation of alloy targets in inert gases (e.g., He and Ar) can quickly generate nanoalloys with various compositions by changing source-target compo-

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sitions without using complex chemical routes.^{29,30} This physical method has additional merit for avoiding surfactants, capping agents, or metal ions, which are considered to decrease catalytic performance. Au can be a promising candidate cocatalyst for switchable photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation because Au NPs are thermally inactive for H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation at ambient temperature.³¹ Alloy NPs composed of Au and other metals can reduce Au usage and potentially enhance the catalytic performance by the alloy effect.^{32–34} In addition, Cu is an abundant metal and can form a homogeneous AuCu alloy, which is suitable for a model case by the laser ablation synthesis. Furthermore, the activity and role of Au and Cu metals have not yet been investigated and understood in the photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation.

In this work, we successfully prepared well-defined Au–Cu NPs in the gas phase using a laser ablation method and deposited them onto TiO₂ NP films (Au_xCu_{100–x}/TiO₂, $x = 0–100$ at%). The NPs were prepared without contaminants, surfactants, or toxic reagents to obtain homogeneous Au–Cu alloys on TiO₂ photocatalyst films. The as-prepared Au_xCu_{100–x}/TiO₂ films were evaluated for the photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation. The Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalyst film exhibited significantly high H₂ production under LED irradiation, demonstrating the advantage of the laser ablation method for NP synthesis. No H₂ evolution in the dark proves useful for the light-switchable H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation. The Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ film achieved a H₂ evolution rate per photocatalyst weight of 62,500 μmol h^{–1} g^{–1} owing to the formation of a Au-rich surface on Au₂₀Cu₈₀ NPs during the photocatalytic reactions. This is the first work that shows efficient H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation using Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalyst films prepared by the laser ablation. The mechanism insight into the photocatalytic H₂ evolution by Au–Cu/TiO₂ was investigated based on X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The results clarify that Au accelerates the electron migration in the reaction, and the rate-determining step (RDS) is involved in the reaction of the surface-active species with protons.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Chemicals. Au_xCu_{100–x} alloy targets ($x = 0, 5, 10, 20, 40, 50, 60, 80,$ and 100 at%) for the laser ablation were obtained from Rare Metallic Co., Ltd. (Japan). Titanium dioxide P25 (TiO₂ P25) was purchased from EVONIK (Germany). Nitric acid (HNO₃), ethanol, and formic acid were purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals (Japan). All reagents were used without further purification. Purified water (18.2 MΩ cm) was obtained from a Milli-Q system (Direct-Q3 UV, Millipore).

Characterization Methods. The morphology of the photocatalysts was observed using a JEOL JEM-2010 transmission electron microscope with an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The mean particle size of each sample was calculated by counting 200 particles from the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image using ImageJ software. The lattice parameters and chemical compositions of the prepared Au–Cu nanoalloys were examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) in the thin film mode at $\theta = 0.3^\circ$. The X-ray source was operated at 40 kV and 200 mA with Cu K α radiation of 0.154178 nm. The X-ray photoelectron and X-ray-induced Auger spectra were recorded on catalyst films using a KRATOS ULTRA2 X-ray

photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) system with an Al K α monochromatic X-ray source (1486.6 eV) and with a SPECS PHOIBOS 150 XPS system equipped with an Al K α monochromatic X-ray source (XR50 MF). The binding energy (BE) was calibrated by the Ti 2p_{3/2} peak (458.8 eV) as an internal standard.³⁵ Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) was carried out to analyze the chemical composition of the Au–Cu NPs. The UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) spectra were recorded on a V-770 spectrophotometer (JASCO, Japan). The Raman spectra were collected on Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ films before and after a 1 h immersion in a formic acid solution (0.010 M). After the treatment, the samples were rinsed with water and dried *in vacuo*. Measurements were carried out using a He–Ne laser ($\lambda = 632.8$ nm) coupled with a 600 lines mm^{–1} grating monochromator and a charge-coupled device (CCD). Incident radiation was focused on the sample using a 10 \times objective, and thereafter, the peak was collected in a back-scattering configuration.

Synthesis of TiO₂ Films. To prepare the TiO₂ films, TiO₂ P25 (10 g) was suspended in ethanol (10 mL) with a drop of HNO₃ (0.10 M, 10 μL) and ultrasonicated for 20 min to form 1.0 g mL^{–1} P25 colloidal suspension (1.0 g L^{–1}). It was deposited onto a quartz glass plate (20 mm \times 20 mm) by spin-coating (2000 rpm for 45 min) with a drop rate of 33 μL min^{–1}, and the P25-coated plate was calcined at 500 °C for 5 h in O₂ flow to obtain the TiO₂ particulate film.

Preparation of Au–Cu/TiO₂ Photocatalyst Films. The schematic diagram of the apparatus is illustrated in Figure 1.

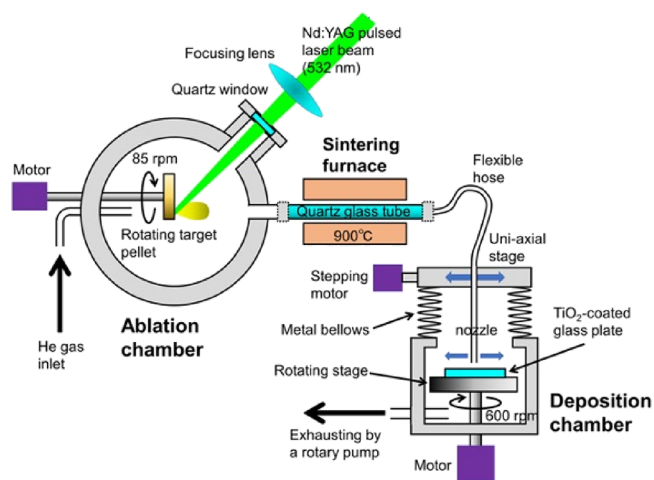


Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the Au–Cu alloy deposition on TiO₂ films by the laser-deposition technique.

Briefly, the system consisted of three parts: a laser ablation chamber, a sintering furnace, and a deposition chamber. A target pellet (19 mm in diameter, 4 mm thick) rotating at 85 rpm was irradiated (3.0 mm ϕ spot size) by the second harmonic (532 nm, 40 or 50 mJ/pulse, 5.0 Hz) of an Nd:YAG laser (Surelite SLI-20, Continuum) at a pulse width of 4–6 ns. The sample pictures are shown in Figure S1. The weight of each photocatalyst (~ 0.42 mg) was determined by subtracting the weight of the quartz glass from the total weight.

Evaluation of H₂ Evolution. The setup for H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation is shown in Figure S2. In a typical experiment, a vial (70 mL) containing a Au–Cu/TiO₂ film (19 mm \times 19 mm) immersed in formic acid (0.010 M, 30

mL) was sealed using a rubber septum and Teflon tape. The reactor was deaerated before the reaction by purging Ar for 30 min. The formic acid solution was stirred continuously to ensure homogeneous distribution and reaction with the photocatalyst film. Thereafter, the vial was irradiated using an LED lamp ($\lambda = 365$ nm) to initiate H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation. The intensity of the light irradiated on the photocatalyst films was adjusted to be 4.3–30 mW cm⁻². After every 60 min of the irradiation, the gas evolved in the headspace (40 mL) of the reaction vial was sampled using a gastight syringe (100 μ L) and quantified using a Shimadzu GC-2014 gas chromatograph (Ar carrier gas, Shincarbon-ST column) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector.

Calculation of the Apparent Quantum Yield (AQY).

The AQY for H₂ evolution was calculated according to the previous literature.^{36,37} The AQY of the modified samples under LED irradiation (365 nm) was determined by the following equation.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{AQY} &= \frac{\text{number of reacted electrons}}{\text{number of incident photons}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{2N_{\text{H}_2}N_{\text{A}}hc}{PS\lambda t} \times 100 \end{aligned}$$

where N_{H_2} (moles) is the amount of hydrogen evolved, N_{A} is Avogadro's constant (6.02×10^{23} mol⁻¹), h is Planck's constant (6.62×10^{-34} J s⁻¹), c is the speed of light (3.08×10^8 m s⁻¹), and P indicates the power of light intensity (8.0×10^{-3} W cm⁻²) on an irradiation area S (4.0 cm²) with a wavelength (λ) of 3.65×10^{-7} nm for a duration (t) of 3600 s.

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) Measurements. The EIS measurements were performed in a standard three-electrode system in formic acid solution (0.010 M). The silver/silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) and Pt wire were used as reference and counter electrodes, respectively. The Au–Cu alloy NPs deposited on TiO₂-coated ITO films (15 mm \times 19 mm) were used as the working electrode. The formic acid solution was purged with Ar for 30 min prior to the measurement. The light intensity of the light irradiated on the photocatalyst films was adjusted to be 15 mW cm⁻². The impedance spectra were measured in potentiostat mode over the frequency range of 1.0 MHz to 0.10 Hz with an amplitude of 20 mV using the potentiostat (SP-200, Bio-Logic Inst.). The obtained spectra were fitted with an equivalent circuit model.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and Characterization of Au–Cu/TiO₂ Photocatalysts. The schematic representation of the Au–Cu/TiO₂ film fabrication process is illustrated in Figure 1. The Au–Cu/TiO₂ films were synthesized as follows: First, the TiO₂ film was obtained by immobilizing TiO₂ nanoparticles on a quartz wafer by a spin coating method followed by calcination. Thereafter, the deposition of the Au–Cu alloy NPs on the TiO₂ films was performed via a laser ablation method with Au–Cu source targets along with an aerosol deposition technique. Tiny aggregates created in the ablation chamber were sintered to spherical NPs when transported through a quartz tube heated using a furnace at 900 °C. The NPs were further transported with the He stream into the deposition chamber, in which they were deposited on the TiO₂

film-coated quartz substrate. We successfully prepared a homogeneous deposition over the entire film area by uniaxially scanning the blowout nozzle facing the rotating sample surface at speed proportional to the reciprocal distance from the rotation center. The Au–Cu NPs deposited on the TiO₂ films are denoted as Au_{*x*}Cu_{100-*x*}/TiO₂ ($x = 0, 5, 10, 20, 40, 50, 60, 80,$ and 100 at%) photocatalyst films (Figure S1). No additional pretreatments, such as washing and calcination, were required for the as-prepared samples by the laser ablation method compared to those prepared by sol–gel solution methods.^{38–40} The as-prepared Au–Cu/TiO₂ films were characterized by powder XRD, TEM, UV–vis DRS, and XPS analyses to examine the structure and composition.

The crystal structure of the as-prepared Au–Cu/TiO₂ films was characterized by powder XRD. Figure 2 shows the XRD

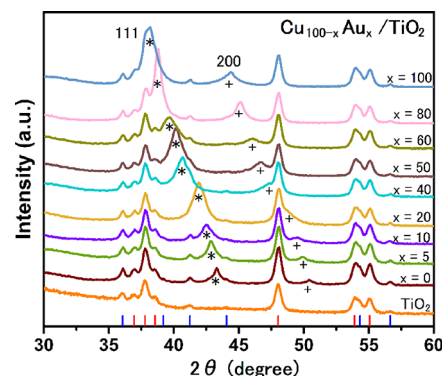


Figure 2. XRD patterns of the prepared TiO₂ and Au_{*x*}Cu_{100-*x*}/TiO₂ ($x = 0$ –100 at%) films. The red and blue bars at the bottom denote the diffraction peaks from anatase and rutile phases of TiO₂, respectively. The markers of * and + correspond to the 111 and 200 peaks from Au–Cu NPs, respectively.

patterns of TiO₂ and Au–Cu/TiO₂ films with different Au contents. The pure TiO₂ film showed diffraction peaks from anatase-type TiO₂ centered at 36.9°, 37.8°, 38.6°, 48.0°, 53.9°, and 55.1° and from rutile-type TiO₂ centered at 36.1°, 39.2°, 41.2°, 44.0°, 54.3°, and 56.6°. Au–Cu/TiO₂ showed the 111 and 200 peaks of the Au–Cu NPs, and their positions shifted to relatively high angles with the decrease in Au content. The compositions of Au–Cu were calculated based on Vegard's law^{33,41} and were in good accordance with the corresponding Au–Cu alloy targets and ICP-MS analysis results (Table S1).

The nanoscale morphologies of the Au–Cu/TiO₂ films were explored by TEM measurements (Figure 3 and Figure S3). The Au₂₀Cu₈₀ spherical alloy NPs were well dispersed on the TiO₂ film with an average particle size of 13.3 nm. All the Au–Cu/TiO₂ NPs were distributed on the TiO₂ films with similar

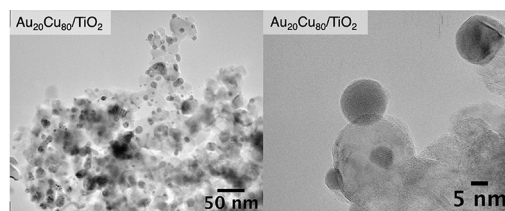


Figure 3. TEM images of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ NPs with corresponding high-magnification images. See Figure S3 for the other TEM images of the Au–Cu/TiO₂ NPs.

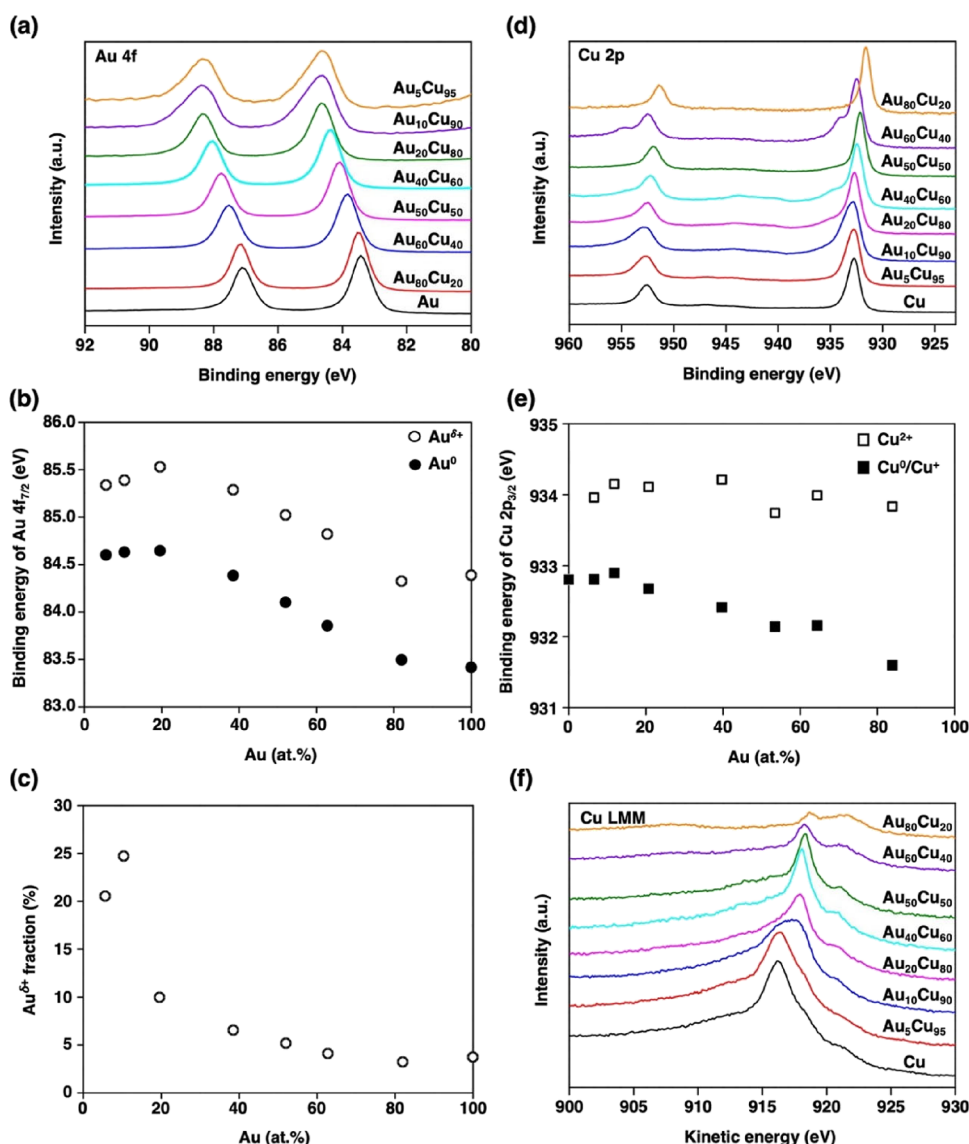


Figure 4. (a) XPS spectra of Au 4f, (b) deconvoluted Au^0 and $\text{Au}^{\delta+}$ peak values plotted against Au content, (c) relative $\text{Au}^{\delta+}$ fraction plotted against Au content, (d) XPS spectra of Cu 2p, (e) Cu $2p_{3/2}$ (Cu^{2+} and Cu^0/Cu^+) binding energy plotted against Au content, and (f) Cu LMM spectra obtained from the Au–Cu/ TiO_2 films; the deconvoluted Au 4f and Cu 2p peaks are shown in Figure S7.

particle sizes within 10–30 nm (Figure S4). The diffuse reflectance UV–vis spectra of Au–Cu/ TiO_2 films are shown in Figure S5. Broad absorption bands at approximately 530 nm for Au/ TiO_2 and 600 nm for Cu/ TiO_2 were attributed to the localized surface plasmon resonance of Au and Cu NPs, respectively. The plasmon peaks of Au–Cu/ TiO_2 exhibited a red shift with an increase in Cu content in accordance with the alloy effect of Au and Cu.⁴² The results indicate that the laser ablation method for preparing Au–Cu NPs provides easy and precise control of alloy compositions by using the corresponding alloy targets. Since the deposited Au–Cu NPs were uniform in morphology and size, we accurately evaluated and compared the catalytic activity of each photocatalyst film to investigate the catalytic mechanism.

Surface Characterization of Au–Cu/ TiO_2 by XPS Spectroscopy. XPS measurements were performed as shown in Figure 4 and Figures S6 and S7 to understand the surface conditions of the Au–Cu/ TiO_2 films. The Au $4f_{7/2}$ and $4f_{5/2}$ peaks of the Au/ TiO_2 film were centered at 83.4 and 87.1 eV, respectively (Figure 4a). The Au content on the surface of

Au–Cu/ TiO_2 was calculated from the XPS spectra of the Au $4f_{7/2}$ and Cu $2p_{3/2}$ areas normalized with cross-sectional factors, as shown in Table S1. The surface Au content obtained from the XPS spectra is consistent with those obtained from XRD and ICP–MS analyses. The Au 4f peaks in the Au/ TiO_2 film shifted to lower binding energies than pure Au, of which the $4f_{7/2}$ peak is located at 84.0 eV.^{35,43} The result suggests that the electrons migrate from TiO_2 to Au because the work function of Au (5.10–5.28 eV) is larger than that of TiO_2 (4.6–4.7 eV).⁴⁴ The peaks with a spin–orbit splitting of $\Delta = 3.67$ eV in the Au 4f region showed the presence of metallic Au in the Au/ TiO_2 film. As the Cu content increased in Au–Cu/ TiO_2 , the Au 4f peaks shifted to higher binding energies. This observed shift to high binding energies in the Cu-rich alloys on TiO_2 was attributed to the inherent nature of the alloy itself because of the depletion of Au 5d electrons caused by dilution of Au atoms in Cu atoms.^{45,46} We also performed XPS measurements for Au–Cu alloy NPs deposited on conductive carbon papers (Au–Cu/CP) to investigate the electron transfer between the Au–Cu nanocolloids and the TiO_2

semiconductor in Au–Cu/TiO₂ (Figure S6a). The Au 4f_{7/2} peak of Au/CP was observed at 84.1 eV, consistent with the standard value,⁴⁷ while that of Cu-rich Au–Cu NPs on CP showed nearly the same values as on TiO₂. We thus conclude that the electron transfer between Au–Cu NPs and TiO₂ occurs when the Au content is more than 20 at%.

In addition, we also obtained a Au^{δ+} component in the Au–Cu/TiO₂ films by analyzing the Au 4f spectra, as shown in Figure 4b (Figure S6b for Au–Cu/CP). The deconvolution peaks assigned to Au^{δ+} shifted by +0.8 eV from the Au⁰ peaks. The Au^{δ+} fractions calculated from the deconvoluted peak areas rapidly increased at the two Cu-rich alloys (Au₅Cu₉₅ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀) on TiO₂, as shown in Figure 4c, but did not markedly increase for Au–Cu/CP (Figure S6c). A similar result was reported previously for Au–Pd and Au–Cu alloys deposited on TiO₂,⁴⁸ suggesting that the alloying effect of Cu could affect the Au metallic state. This might suggest the easier formation of Au–O bonding for interfacial Au atoms diluted by Cu atoms in Cu-rich alloys.⁴⁹

The Cu 2p peaks of the Au–Cu/TiO₂ films are shown in Figure 4d and deconvoluted to the main component (Cu⁰ or Cu⁺) and a subcomponent (Cu²⁺) (Figure S7). No charge transfer between the two Cu-rich alloys (Au₅Cu₉₅ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀) and TiO₂ was observed because the work function of Cu (4.65 eV)⁴⁵ is similar to that of TiO₂ (4.6–4.7 eV). Figure 4e shows that the main component for Au–Cu/TiO₂ shifted to lower binding energy when the Au content is higher than 20 at%, whereas no shift is observed for Au–Cu/CP (Figure S6e). This suggests that the electrons migrate from TiO₂ to Cu atoms through the Au-rich side. The peak shifts in the Au–Cu alloy agree with the previously reported literature.^{50–52} The Cu LMM spectra were analyzed to distinguish Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ (Figure 4f and Figure S6f). The kinetic energies of Cu LMM in Cu/TiO₂ and Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂ were centered at 916.2 eV, corresponding to the Cu⁺ component.⁵³ The Cu LMM peaks in Au–Cu/TiO₂ with more than 20 at% Au appeared at 918.6 eV, denoting the presence of Cu⁰. Although a Cu LMM peak for the Cu²⁺ component is generally observed between the Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ LMM peaks, its contribution could be small because of the lower Cu²⁺ fractions. The XPS results indicate that the surface Cu in the Au–Cu alloys had oxidation resistance⁵⁴ when the Au content was higher than 20 at%. The Au₅Cu₉₅ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀ alloy NPs on the TiO₂ films formed a Au–Cu₂O mixed layer in atmospheric conditions.

H₂ Evolution from Formic Acid Dehydrogenation. We employed the well-characterized Au–Cu/TiO₂ films for the photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation under LED irradiation ($\lambda = 365$ nm, 8.0 mW cm⁻²). First, we examined the activity of pure Au and Cu deposited on the TiO₂ NP films to confirm the efficiency of the light on/off switch for H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation. The time courses of the H₂ evolution amount by Cu/TiO₂, Au/TiO₂, and Au/TiO₂ without light irradiation are shown in Figure 5. Further, in formic acid dehydrogenation, an equal quantity of CO₂ (HCOOH → CO₂ + H₂) and small amounts of CO (HCOOH → CO + H₂O) were also observed (Figure S8). No H₂ evolution was observed from Au/TiO₂ in the dark. The result suggests that the UV light on/off switch can regulate the H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation using the Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalyst films. The H₂ evolution rates were obtained as 1.7 and 9.7 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ for Cu/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂, respectively, under the LED irradiation of 8.0 mW

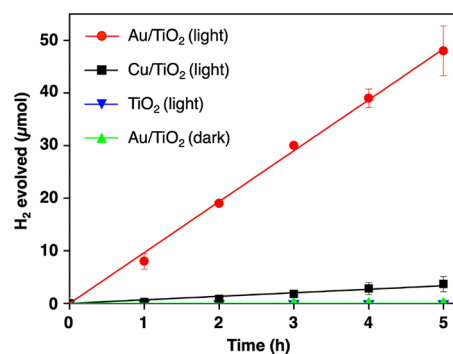


Figure 5. Time courses of H₂ evolution by the irradiation (365 nm, 8.0 mW cm⁻²) of TiO₂, Cu/TiO₂, and Au/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts in the dark in formic acid solutions (0.010 M, 30 mL).

cm⁻². The H₂ evolution rate per photocatalyst weight for Au/TiO₂ was calculated to be 24,200 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$, which is a high rate compared to the reported photocatalysts for H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation (Table S2). The results demonstrate the advantage of the laser ablation method for the surfactant-free synthesis of Au NPs deposited on the TiO₂ NP films, which can be effectively used for on-demand H₂ production from formic acid dehydrogenation.

We examined the H₂ evolution of Au–Cu alloy NPs with different compositions deposited on the TiO₂ film. The H₂ evolution rates were plotted against the Au content calculated from XRD measurements as shown in Figure 6a (see Figures S9 and S10 for the time profile of H₂, CO₂, and CO evolution). The H₂ evolution rates were saturated at the Au content of 20%. Notably, the activity of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ was comparable with that of Au/TiO₂. The AQY was calculated to be ~6.0% for Au_xCu_{100-x}/TiO₂ ($x \geq 20$ at%) (Figure S11). The results suggest that utilizing base metals as alloying agents can minimize Au usage for practical application. Hence, we used the optimized Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalyst for further evaluation.

The H₂ evolution rates of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ obtained at different wavelengths were overlaid with the diffuse reflectance UV–vis spectra of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ and TiO₂ films (Figure 6b and Figure S12). No discernible H₂ evolution was observed for Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ at the irradiation of 420, 450, 530, and 590 nm, indicating that the photoexcitation of TiO₂ initiated the photocatalytic H₂ evolution. The plasmonic effect derived from the Au–Cu alloy NPs was not involved in the photocatalytic H₂ evolution. The light intensity dependence of the H₂ evolution rates for Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ at 365 nm is presented in Figure S13. H₂ evolution was observed with the increase in light intensity from 4.3 to 30 mW cm⁻². The result suggests that the photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation occurs through a one-photon/one-electron process.⁵⁶ Moreover, the H₂ evolution rate of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ reached 62,500 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ per photocatalytic weight at the light intensity of 30 mW cm⁻², demonstrating the high efficiency of the H₂ evolution with the use of the Au–Cu cocatalyst among the reported photocatalysts (Table S2). The reported photocatalyst NPs dispersed in reaction solutions have higher reaction probability than AuCu/TiO₂ photocatalysts immobilized in quartz plates for the activity comparison.

Nevertheless, the superior performance of the AuCu/TiO₂ photocatalyst films may account for the uniform deposition of AuCu alloy on TiO₂ films and free surfactants and ion residues on the AuCu surface. The uniform deposition of AuCu alloy

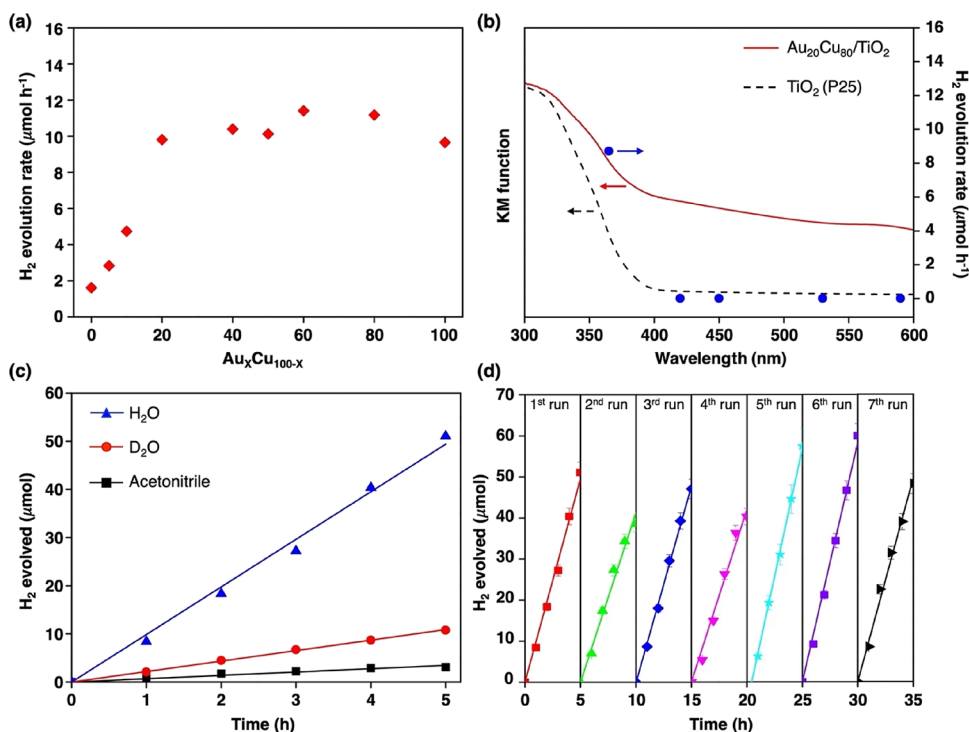


Figure 6. (a) H₂ evolution rates of Au_xCu_{100-x}/TiO₂ ($x = 0-100$) photocatalysts plotted against the Au content calculated from XRD measurements. (b) Wavelength dependence of the H₂ evolution rates of Au₂₀Cu₈₀TiO₂ ($\lambda = 365, 420, 450, 530,$ and 590 nm). (c) Time courses of H₂ evolution under the irradiation (365 nm, 8.0 mW cm⁻²) of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀TiO₂ photocatalyst film in H₂O, D₂O, and acetonitrile containing formic acid (0.010 M). (d) Repetitive photocatalytic H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation over Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ under LED irradiation (365 nm, 8.0 mW cm⁻²) in formic acid solution.

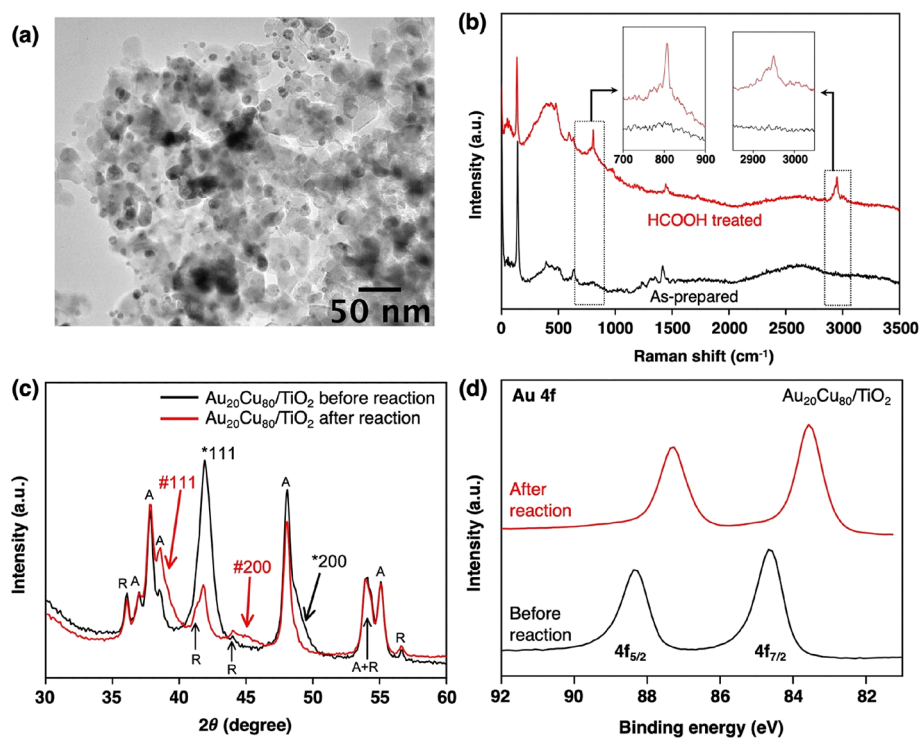


Figure 7. Characterizations of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ film before and after the H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation. (a) TEM image after reaction, (b) Raman spectra before and after treatment of formic acid, (c) XRD spectra, and (d) XPS spectra.

NPs on TiO₂ films by laser ablation will show a more effective surface area of AuCu NPs exposed to the reaction solution working as active sites toward H₂ evolution. Compared to laser

ablation deposition, metal NP-loaded TiO₂ photocatalysts prepared by sol-gel solution methods may reduce their effective surface area because parts of their metal NPs may be

embedded and surrounded by TiO₂. Additionally, organic and inorganic residues on metal surfaces may decrease catalytic activity. Although AgPd@Pd/TiO₂ NPs in powder form showed an excellent H₂ evolution rate under the irradiation of a Xe lamp,²⁴ it was not suited for the light-switchable H₂ evolution because the H₂ evolution was observed even without light irradiation. CdS/CoP@rGO NPs in powder form were also reported to exhibit a high H₂ evolution rate under LED irradiation with a low light intensity.⁵⁵

The H₂ evolution of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀TiO₂ film was also performed in acetonitrile (MeCN) and deuterium water (D₂O) as shown in Figure 6c. The low H₂ evolution rate in MeCN (0.7 μmol h⁻¹) indicates that H₂O acts as a proton source in the H₂ evolution reaction. The kinetic isotope effect (KIE) on H₂ evolution using D₂O was determined in formic acid dehydrogenation. The H₂ evolution rate in D₂O was obtained to be 2.2 μmol h⁻¹ with the corresponding KIE value of 4.5 (KIE = [H₂ evolution rate in H₂O]/[H₂ evolution rate in D₂O]). The large KIE value indicates that the RDS of the H₂ evolution is involved in the reaction of surface-active species on Au–Cu alloy with H₂O (protons).⁶

The recycling and reusability of photocatalysts are crucial factors in practical application. We carried out repeated experiments to examine the stability of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalyst. After each reaction, the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ film was rinsed with water and dried *in vacuo*; afterward, it was reused for the repeated reaction with a freshly prepared formic acid solution. The high photocatalytic performance was maintained even after seven cycles (Figure 6d). The maintained activity suggests that the evolved CO does not deactivate the Au₂₀Cu₈₀ surface in the reactions. For H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation, metal NP catalysts are commonly used as suspended solutions.^{56–58} Generally, it is difficult to separate photocatalyst NPs from reaction solutions for further use and recover all photocatalysts without weight loss during the recycling process. Our Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ immobilized on quartz plates showed superior photocatalyst recovery. We also performed an extended duration test for Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ in the H₂ evolution (Figure S14). The H₂ evolution linearly increased until 28 h, reaching 131.4 μmol. The evolved H₂ was saturated after 28 h because of formic acid consumption. The results demonstrate the high recyclability and durability of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ film in the H₂ production from formic acid dehydrogenation.

Characterizations of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ after the Reactions. After the reaction, the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalyst plate was washed with water, dried *in vacuo*, and characterized using TEM, Raman scattering, and XRD and XPS spectroscopies. Figure 7a displays the TEM images of the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ NPs after the reaction. The morphology and particle size distribution did not significantly change even after seven consecutive runs (Figure S15). The Raman spectra were obtained from the as-prepared Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ and immersed in formic acid for 1 h (Figure 7b). The characteristic Raman peaks that appeared at 800 and 2950 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the vibrational modes of HCOO molecules.⁵⁹ The characteristic peaks disappeared after light irradiation onto the formic acid-treated Cu₈₀Au₂₀/TiO₂. The results demonstrated that formic acid was first adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface and then dehydrogenated to H₂ and CO₂ during LED irradiation. As shown in Figure 7c, the XRD peaks of the original Au–Cu phase (denoted as *111 and *200) in Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ decreased after the reaction, while the new peaks at around

38.6° and 45.0° grew, which correspond to Au-rich Au–Cu phases (denoted as #111 and #200). The results indicate that a portion of Cu atoms leached from the original alloy NPs. Additionally, the XPS spectrum of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ for Au 4f_{7/2} was significantly shifted from 84.6 to 83.6 eV after the reaction (Figure 7d), suggesting that the Au–Cu alloy surfaces became Au-rich. The surface Au compositions of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ were increased from 20.8 to 34.7 at% after the reaction (Figure S16), which were estimated from the XPS spectra of the Au 4f_{7/2} and Cu 2p_{3/2} areas normalized with cross-sectional factors. The XPS result indicates that the outermost surface of Au₂₀Cu₈₀ after the reaction can form a Au-rich surface since the 34.7 at% Au content obtained from XPS data is the average value obtained probing a 1–2 nm layer. Both XRD and XPS measurements confirmed the partial Cu leaching from Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ after the reaction. Further, the Cu 2p and Cu LMM spectra of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ after the reaction are depicted in Figure S17. The Cu LMM pattern showed that the surface Cu atoms were maintained in a metallic Cu⁰ state similar to that before the reaction. The metallic Au–Cu surfaces contributed to the high H₂ evolution obtained from the Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalyst.

The H₂ evolution was sharply decreased when the Au content was lower than 20 at% (Figure 6a). To understand the reactivity difference, we analyzed the relative Cu content on the surfaces from the XPS spectra of the Au 4f_{7/2} and Cu 2p_{3/2} areas before and after the reaction (Figure S16). After the reaction, the Cu content in the Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀/TiO₂ photocatalysts significantly decreased from 95.7 and 87.9 at% to 35.0 and 42.6 at%, respectively. The result suggests that the Cu atoms on the alloys were oxidized to Cu⁺ and thus leached into the acidic solutions during the photocatalytic reactions. Before the reaction, the oxidized Cu layers (Cu₂O) on the surfaces of Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀/TiO₂ were also characterized by the Cu Auger spectra (Figure 4f). The formed Cu₂O layer or Cu⁺ may inhibit the formation of an active species on the surface for subsequent H₂ evolution, resulting in low activity. Although less Cu leaching was observed on the surface of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ after the reaction, the surface Cu atoms were also maintained in a metallic state after the reaction (Figure S17). Thus, one of the reasons for the reactivity difference between Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ and Au₁₀Cu₉₀/TiO₂ can be the deterioration of the oxidation resistance on Au–Cu surfaces.

Mechanistic Insight into the H₂ Evolution. The EIS measurement was carried out under the LED irradiation of Au–Cu/TiO₂ films in the formic acid solution (0.010 M) to determine the electron transfer efficiency (Figure 8). The EIS Nyquist plots in the spectra can be assigned to the solution resistance (R_{sol}), the electrochemical electron transfer resistance (R_{et}), and the reaction resistance of formic acid decomposition (R_{re}) in descending order from the high-frequency side. The resistance values obtained by fitting the plots with an equivalent circuit model are summarized in Table S3 and Figure S18. As shown in Figure 8, Au/TiO₂ displayed the smallest radius, followed by Au₅₀Cu₅₀/TiO₂, Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂, Au₁₀Cu₉₀/TiO₂, and Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂. The smaller radius in the EIS Nyquist plot indicates a lower R_{et} of the electrodes. On the contrary, the relatively small R_{et} of Cu/TiO₂ can be affected by Cu₂O on its surface, probably behaving as a semiconductor to induce the electron transfer.⁶⁰ Based on the fitting analysis using the equivalent circuit model, the Au/TiO₂, Au₅₀Cu₅₀/TiO₂, and Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalysts

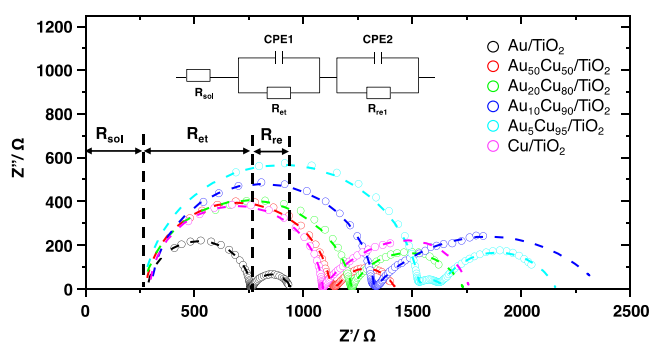


Figure 8. EIS Nyquist plots of Au–Cu/TiO₂ in formic acid solution (0.010 M) under light irradiation (15 mW cm⁻²). The plots shown by circles are measured values, and the dotted lines are the spectra calculated from the fitting results.

show R_{re} values of 184, 345, and 513 Ω , respectively, that are smaller than Au₁₀Cu₉₀/TiO₂ (1051 Ω) and Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂ (628 Ω). An additional arc observed at the region of R_{re} for Au₅Cu₉₅/TiO₂ can be attributed to the Cu⁺ leaching from Au₅Cu₉₅ NPs. The results illustrate the tendency of Au to improve the electron transfer efficiency. Based on the EIS analysis, Au/TiO₂ is expected to show the highest H₂ evolution rates among Au–Cu/TiO₂ films; nevertheless, the observed H₂ evolution rates in Figure 6a are comparable when the Au content is up to 20%. This obviously suggests that the RDS in the H₂ evolution is neither the electron transfer nor formic acid decomposition. The EIS analysis is consistent with the KIE result that the reaction of a surface-active species with protons is involved in the RDS.

Based on the above results and a previous report,⁶¹ a plausible mechanism for the H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation using the Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalysts is illustrated in Figure 8. The H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation using Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalysts is achieved through three essential steps (Figure 9a): (1) Upon light irradiation ($\lambda = 365$ nm), the electrons and holes are generated in TiO₂. (2) Subsequently, the holes of TiO₂ react with HCOOH to form CO₂ and protons. As the vibrational modes of HCOO molecules were observed in the Raman spectra of Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ in Figure 7b, formic acid is likely oxidized by the holes. However, it cannot deny the possibility of oxidation by hydroxyl radicals. (3) The photogenerated electrons migrate from TiO₂ to the Au–Cu alloy NPs that function as an electron sink, and protons are reduced by a surface-reactive species,⁶² leading to H₂ evolution. The RDS in the H₂ evolution is involved in the reaction of protons with the surface-active species based on the EIS and KIE analysis.

The catalytic activity of Au–Cu/TiO₂ was significantly changed between the Au contents of 20 and 10 at%. When the Au content was less than 20 at%, the surface of Au–Cu NPs was naturally oxidized and covered by Cu₂O layers (Figure 4f) and suffered from the considerable leaching of Cu atoms after the reactions (Figure S16). The Cu₂O layers on the surfaces of Au–Cu/TiO₂ can disturb the electron migration evidenced by the large R_{et} (Figure 8) and inhibit surface electron accumulation on AuCu NPs. It simultaneously accelerates the recombination of electrons and holes generated in TiO₂,⁶³ resulting in low H₂ evolution rates (Figure 9b). On the other hand, the relatively large Au content (Au \geq 20 at%) in Au–Cu/TiO₂ preserves the Cu atoms from oxidation as well as it induces electron transfer efficiency, which is favorable for the H₂ evolution (Figure 9c). In addition, the H₂ evolution of Au–Cu/TiO₂ (Au \geq 20 at%) photocatalysts exhibited comparable reactivities to pure Au/TiO₂ because the RDS is the reaction of a surface-active species with protons rather than the electron transfer.

CONCLUSIONS

Well-defined Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalyst films were successfully synthesized by depositing Au–Cu alloy NPs onto TiO₂ NP films via the laser ablation method along with the aerosol deposition technique. In formic acid dehydrogenation, the as-prepared Au–Cu/TiO₂ films exhibited high H₂ evolution rates under LED irradiation ($\lambda = 365$ nm). No H₂ evolution was observed in the dark condition, demonstrating the ability of Au–Cu/TiO₂ films for a switchable on-demand H₂ production. The Au₂₀Cu₈₀/TiO₂ photocatalyst film exhibited a high H₂ evolution rate comparable to pure Au/TiO₂ and significantly higher activity than Cu/TiO₂. The XPS analysis demonstrated that the Au–Cu nanoalloys with more than 20 at% Au maintained a metallic state and induced the interfacial electron transfers from TiO₂ to the Au–Cu alloy NPs, improving catalytic activity and stability. The KIE and EIS analysis confirmed that the RDS in the H₂ evolution is involved in the reaction of a surface-active species with protons. Efficient and recycled Au–Cu alloy NPs deposited on the TiO₂ photocatalyst with on/off switching ability showed great promise for an on-demand H₂ production in practical applications. Identifying suitable base metals and optimizing the nanoalloy composition using the gas-phase laser ablation method are highly effective strategies for the contaminant and surfactant-free synthesis of various nanoparticles for developing photocatalysts.



Figure 9. Schematic illustration of the proposed mechanism for the H₂ evolution from formic acid dehydrogenation by Au–Cu/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsomega.2c03509>.

Photographs of Au–Cu/TiO₂ films (Figure S1), experimental setup (Figure S2), Au contents by XRD and ICP-MS (Table S1), TEM images (Figures S3 and S15), particle size distribution (Figure S4), diffuse reflectance UV–vis spectra (Figure S5), XPS spectra (Figures S6, S7, and S17), time courses of CO₂ and CO evolution (Figures S8, S9, S10, S12 and S13), activity comparison (Table S2), apparent quantum yield (Figure S11), long-term stability (Figure S14), Au contents by XPS (Figure S16), ohmic resistance (Table S3), and plots of resistances (Figure S18) (PDF)

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Notes

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