

Light-Driven Multielectron Chemical Transformations with Tailored Nanoparticles

विद्या वाचस्पति की

उपाधि की अपेक्षाओं की आंशिक पूर्ति में प्रस्तुत शोध प्रबंध

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degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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2025

Certificate

I certify that the thesis entitled “***Light-Driven Multielectron Chemical Transformations with Tailored Nanoparticles***” presented by Ms. Vanshika Jain represents her original work, which was carried out by her at IISER, Pune, under my guidance and supervision during the period from August 2019 to June 2025. The work presented here or any part of it has not been included in any other thesis submitted previously for the award of any degree or diploma from any other University or institutions.

I further certify that the above statements made by her in regard to her thesis are correct to the best of my knowledge.

Date: 05/06/2025

Place: Pune, India



Prof. Pramod P. Pillai

Thesis Supervisor

Declaration

I declare that this written submission represents my idea in my own words and where others' ideas have been included; I have adequately cited and referenced the original sources. I also declare that I have adhered to all principles of academic honesty and integrity and have not misrepresented or fabricated or falsified any idea/data/fact/source in my submission. I understand that violation of the above will be cause for disciplinary action by the Institute and can also evoke penal action from the sources which have thus not been properly cited or from whom proper permission has not been taken when needed. The work reported in this thesis is the original work done by me under the guidance of Prof. Pramod P. Pillai.



Date: 05/06/2025

Vanshika Jain

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- Vanshika

Thesis Synopsis

Attaining sustainability in chemical synthesis is an important step to achieving the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of Climate Action and Responsible Consumption and Production. The diligent utilization of solar energy by plants offers an excellent way for sustainable chemical production in a perpetual manner. The four key steps in photosynthesis, starting from light absorption leading to charge generation, charge separation, and charge transfer (process I) to water oxidation (process II) on one end and proton/electron storage in the form of NADPH (process III) on the other and finally reduction of CO₂ to biomass (process IV), can be coupled or decoupled for implementation of different solar utilization technologies. Among them, solar-to-chemical energy conversion in photosynthesis has gained substantial popularity, and hence, the area of photocatalysis is at the forefront of modern research. At the core of all photocatalytic transformations are the three fundamental steps: generation of charge carriers, separation, and charge transfer/utilization. Based on the physical parameters dictating these fundamental steps, combined with unique optoelectronic properties and rich surface chemistry, our choice of photocatalysts is plasmonic metal nanoparticles (NPs) and quantum dots (QDs). This thesis deals with maximizing the efficiency of each fundamental step through the rational design of both the core and the surface of the chosen photocatalysts for challenging and industrially relevant multielectron chemical transformations.

The present thesis begins with an introduction to photocatalysis, its fundamentals, and its advantages over thermal catalysis. This is followed by a discussion over our choice of photocatalyst cores - plasmonic metal nanoparticles and semiconductor quantum dots, their unique optoelectronic properties, and the associated challenges, respectively. Next, we summarize the significant role of ligands on the surface of the chosen photocatalysts in dictating the fundamental processes involved in photocatalysis. Finally, we discuss the impact of appropriately designed photocatalyst cores and surface ligands in driving challenging multielectron chemical transformations, which the present thesis revolves around.

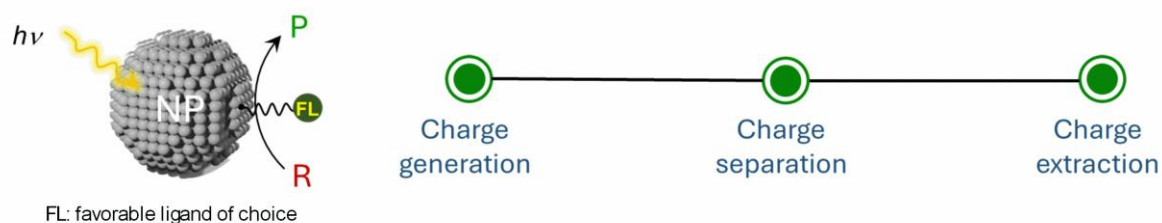
With this objective, **Chapter 3** focuses on deciphering the role of light excitation attributes in light-driven nicotinamide cofactor regeneration with plasmonic metal nanoparticles. The choice of anisotropic gold nanorod core as the plasmonic photocatalyst allowed us to understand the exclusive role of interband vs intraband transitions in NADH photoregeneration. This work emphasizes the need for an appropriately chosen catalyst–reactant system and reaction conditions to gain meaningful insights into various factors controlling the product yield and selectivity in plasmonic photocatalysis.

With the aim of synthesizing important commodity chemicals such as ammonia, we fine-tuned the photocatalyst design in **Chapter 4a** to arrive at indium phosphide (InP) QDs with appropriate surface chemistry to drive selective nitrate-to-ammonia conversion. Photocatalytic nitrate-to-ammonia conversion is a multiproton and multielectron transformation and demands photocatalysts that generate long-lived surplus charge carriers and allow optimum surface interaction with the N-sources. Due to the challenges associated with a short lifetime in plasmonic metal nanoparticles, we changed the core from metal to semiconductor quantum dots (QDs). A rational choice of indium phosphide (InP) QDs and its appropriate surface functionalization, along with a preferential affinity of N-sources towards surface In atoms and ligands on InP QD photocatalysts, led to the selective and efficient ammonia production under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. We gained an in-depth understanding of important pathways involved in photocatalytic nitrate reduction in **Chapter 4b** to establish InP QD as a potential visible-light photocatalyst for ammonia synthesis. We listed key findings associated with reaction rate, competing reactions, proton source, and the fate of photoexcited holes in the multielectron transformation of nitrate to ammonia.

In **Chapter 5**, we attempted to enhance the efficiency of charge extraction by the appropriate choice of inorganic surface ligands on the InP QDs for light-driven ammonia synthesis. A positively charged metal-solvent complex was chosen as the ligand to maintain favorable catalyst-reactant interactions, while the inorganic nature of the ligand helps in improving charge extraction and transfer processes. The inorganic metal-solvent complex-capped InP QDs exhibited 16x rate enhancement for nitrate-to-ammonia transformation compared to organic long-alkyl ligands employed in the previous chapter.

Consequently, there was ~8x enhancement in quantum efficiency. This is one of the first reports where cationic inorganic ligands are employed in quantum dot photocatalyzed chemical transformations.

In summary, the present thesis showcases the need for the appropriate design of core and surface ligands to maximize each fundamental step in photocatalysis for challenging multielectron transformations. The concepts developed in this thesis can be easily extended to complex molecule/material synthesis in a sustainable manner, including multicomponent reactions.



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Scientific output

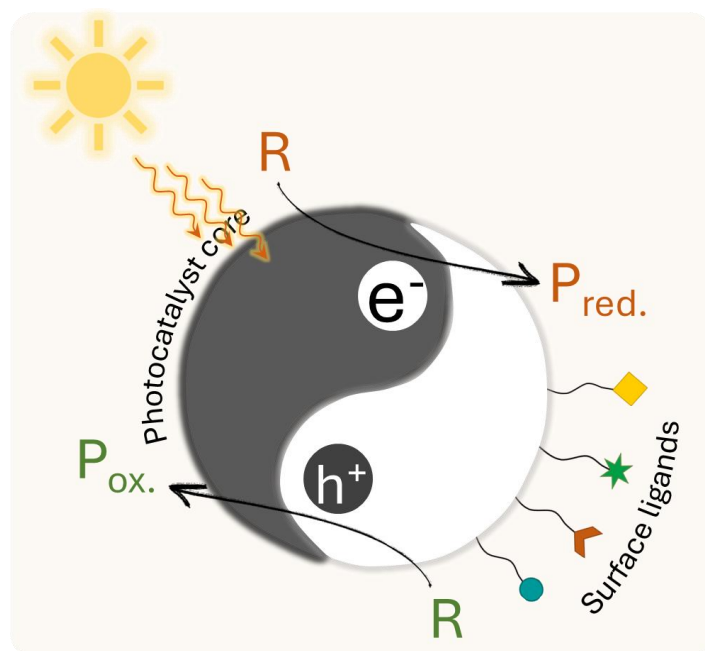
*List of publications**List of conferences attended*

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Lights, Catalyst, & Action...

Chapter – 1

Introduction to Photocatalysis with Tailored Metal Nanoparticles and Quantum Dots



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Jain, V.; Roy, S.; Roy, P.; Pillai, P. P. When Design Meets Function: The Prodigious Role of Surface Ligands in Regulating Nanoparticle Chemistry. *Chem. Mater.* **2022**, *34*, 7579-7597.

1.1. Introduction

Chemical synthesis is an endergonic process, often relying on conventional non-renewable energy sources to meet the production demands.¹ The ever-increasing demand for chemical products across different supply chains is related to the production of high-value primary chemicals- methanol, ammonia, ethylene, propylene, and benzene/toluene/xylenes (BTX).¹⁻³ Not only do these commodity chemicals consume the largest proportion of energy to supply high temperatures, pressures, or purification, but they are also associated with the largest greenhouse gas emissions (**Figure 1.1**), arising from the enormous burning of fossil fuels.^{3,4} Stipulated by the Paris Agreement, attaining sustainability in chemical synthesis and processing has sparked the urgent need for sustainable and low-carbon solutions. Utilizing surplus energy supplied by the Sun is considered one of the most sustainable and affordable solutions to reach these goals. Consequently, the development and implementation of various solar harvesting technologies are of great interest to the scientific community.⁵⁻⁹

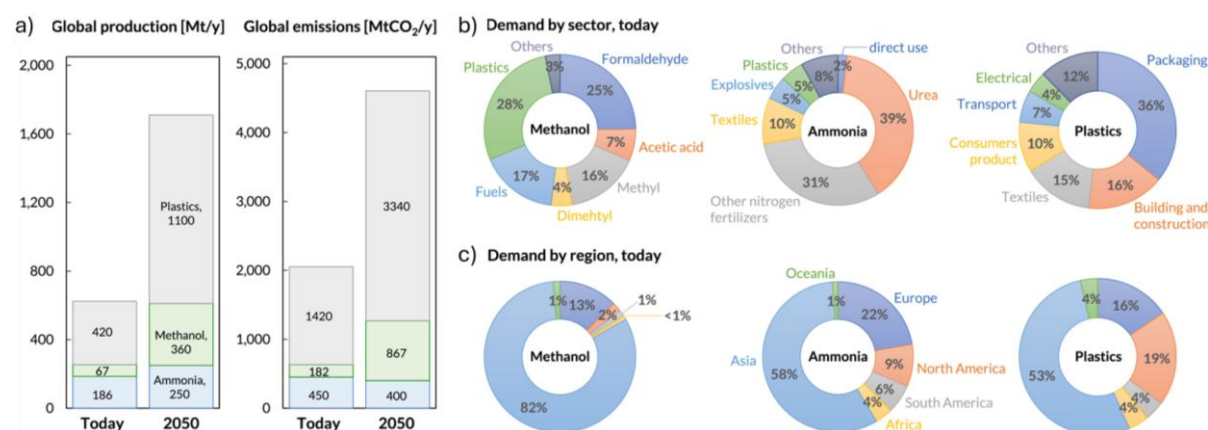


Figure 1.1. The global production and emissions per year associated with primary chemicals, along with their demands in different market sectors in different parts of the world. Reproduced with permission from reference 2. Copyright 2023 Elsevier Inc.

The attractive design principles catering to the modern solar energy research originate from the process of natural photosynthesis (**Figure 1.2**).⁹ The four key steps of the natural photosynthetic process: I) charge generation, charge separation, and charge extraction, II) catalytic H₂O oxidation, III) H⁺/e⁻ transfer and energy storage in the form of NAD(P)H and ATP, and IV) catalytic CO₂ fixation, can be coupled or decoupled for the

implementation of various solar utilization technologies, such as solar-to-thermal, solar-to-power or solar-to-chemical energy conversion.⁹⁻¹¹ The present thesis is primarily focused on solar-to-chemical energy transformation, which is widely achieved via the process of *photocatalysis*. In fact, photocatalysis is considered to be one of the most sustainable ways to make and break chemical bonds. In natural photosynthesis, the light cycle is associated with the catalytic oxidation of H_2O to produce O_2 , with simultaneous storage of hydride ions in the form of reactive nicotinamide cofactor, NAD(P)H .¹²⁻¹⁵ This reduced cofactor enters the light-independent Calvin cycle for the catalytic fixation of CO_2 into biomass in a ceaseless manner.¹⁵ This process prompted the development of artificial mimics of the natural photosynthetic systems, which require an appropriate choice and design of the light-harvesting materials with continuous catalytic function for sustainable chemical production. Furthermore, an in-depth understanding of the underlying fundamental principles behind photocatalyst design, its interaction with light, related photophysical processes, and interaction with substrates/reactants of choice is crucial to build photocatalytic platforms.

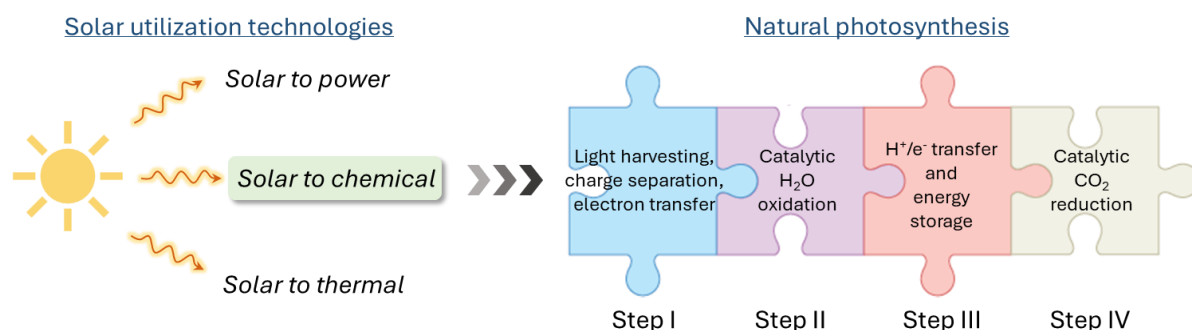


Figure 1.2. Schematics illustrating the key processes of natural photosynthesis that serve as the basis for the development of modern solar utilization technologies. The present *thesis* is focused on the transformation of solar energy into chemical bonds via *photocatalysis*.

In this thesis, we have uncovered the design principles pertaining to the photocatalyst core and modulation of its surface to drive important and challenging chemical transformations involving multiple electrons and protons. In this direction, the first section of this Chapter presents a brief overview of the photocatalysis- the past and the present, with its advantages for sustainable chemical synthesis. This is followed by a brief discussion on the fundamental processes involved in any photocatalytic

transformations, followed by an overview of emerging areas of plasmonic and quantum dot photocatalysis. With plasmonic metal nanoparticles (NPs) and quantum dots (QDs) as the photocatalyst of our choice, we will discuss the meticulous design strategies to arrive at the champion photocatalyst. These strategies will be utilized in the subsequent Chapters to make and break chemical bonds using visible light.

1.2. The dawn of photocatalysis

The beginning of the era of photocatalysis dates to the early 1900s, with Eibner, Kozak, and Ciamician being considered the early proponents of photochemistry.^{5,16-18} The term ‘*photocatalysis*’ first appeared in 1911 in a study by Kozak, which discussed the decomposition of oxalic acid in the presence of uranyl salts (UO^{2+}) when exposed to sunlight.¹⁶ In the same year, Eibner independently reported the bleaching of Prussian blue in the presence of zinc oxide (ZnO) under light illumination.¹⁷ Numerous reports on light-driven chemical transformations appeared at the beginning of the 20th century, but with the term ‘photocatalytic reaction’ being used with a more general meaning of ‘photochemical reaction’ as no catalyst was employed in several of them.¹⁹⁻²² Nevertheless, all these works sparked a great interest in performing ‘chemistry with light’, and gradually the area was dominated by semiconductor oxides (ZnO, TiO_2 , Sb_2O_3) as the photocatalyst, with interesting reports on photocatalytic activities of oxides appearing from the 1940s by Markham.²³⁻²⁵ A strong push to the area was given in the 1970s when Honda and Fujishima reported photoelectrochemical water splitting assisted by TiO_2 photocatalyst and Pt cocatalyst.²⁶ And in the past 50 years, the area has expanded its limits to drive exotic and challenging chemical transformations, spanning across different classes such as solar fuels production, organic synthesis, wastewater treatment, CO_2 utilization, and so on.²⁷⁻³²

Not only does photocatalysis provide an alternate route for sustainable chemical synthesis, but it also offers added advantages. One of the key highlights is to drive thermodynamically uphill reactions or photosynthetic reactions under milder conditions.^{27,33} While the excitation of the catalyst by light can enhance the kinetics of the exergonic reaction bearing $\Delta G < 0$, endergonic or thermodynamically non-

spontaneous reactions with $\Delta G > 0$ can also be performed (**Figure 1.3a**).^{27,33} In a stricter sense, the reactions bearing a positive value of ΔG are categorized as *photosynthetic* reactions. The key distinction is that photocatalysts promote the reactions with $\Delta G < 0$ without storing the solar energy, whereas products of photosynthetic reactions are higher in energy, which makes reverse photosynthetic reactions thermodynamically feasible. Hence, photosynthetic reactions must suppress the reverse pathway along with facilitating non-spontaneous reactions in the forward direction by using and storing solar energy. Some of the prominent examples of photosynthetic reactions include overall water splitting into H_2 and O_2 , N_2 fixation accompanied by water splitting, CO_2 reduction to methanol and methane with water oxidation, etc.^{27,33,34}

In an interesting study by Fujita, Abe, Miyauchi, and coworkers, the thermodynamically uphill process of methane dry reforming ($CH_4 + CO_2 \rightarrow 2H_2 + 2CO$, $\Delta G_{298K} = +171 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) under photocatalytic conditions was found to break the thermal limitation of the thermal catalysis at 450°C .³⁵ Typically, the reaction requires high temperatures in the range of $800\text{--}900^\circ\text{C}$ to achieve substantial conversion greater than 50 %. By using rhodium NPs modified strontium titanate ($Rh/SrTiO_3$) as the photocatalyst, more than 50 % conversion could be achieved under light irradiation without any additional heat input (**Figure 1.3 b**). More interestingly, H_2 production was ~50 % even at mild temperatures below 200°C under photocatalytic conditions. Control experiment with $Rh/SrTiO_3$ carried out under thermal conditions in the absence of light displayed lower performance (grey line in **Figure 1.3b**) than the limitations of the thermal catalyst (black dashed line in **Figure 1.3b**). Bare $SrTiO_3$ did not yield any H_2 , confirming the active role of Rh catalytic sites (green line in **Figure 1.3b**). Detailed electron spin resonance and Kelvin probe force microscopy studies confirmed the active participation of photoexcited charge carriers in driving dry reforming of methane.

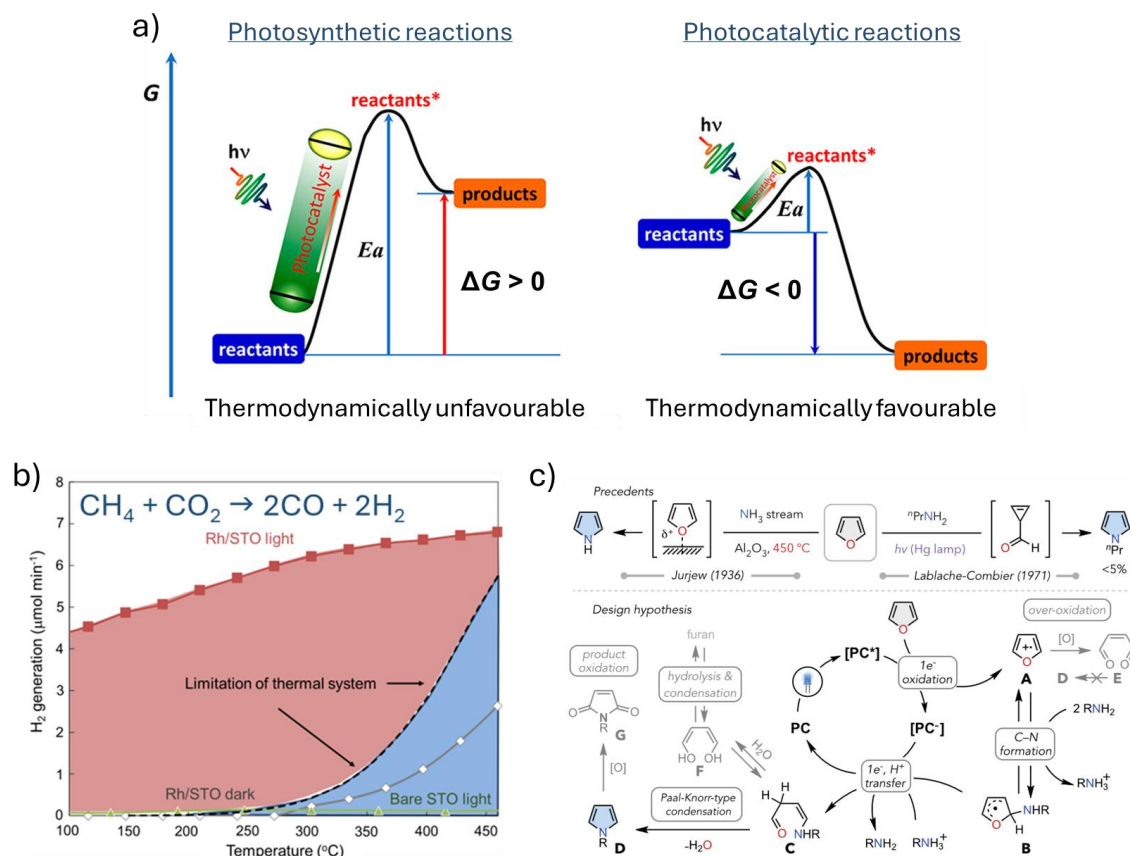


Figure 1.3. Distinct advantages of photocatalysis for sustainable chemical synthesis. a) Schematics showing the thermodynamics of uphill and downhill light-assisted catalytic reactions. With the help of photocatalysis, thermodynamically non-spontaneous reactions can be carried out under milder conditions. Reproduced with permission from reference 27. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society. b) Photocatalytic uphill process of dry reforming of methane performed under light illumination in the presence of Rh/SrTiO₃ photocatalysts at much lower temperatures and high yields. The black dashed line depicts the limitation of the thermal system, which suggests the need for at least 400-450 $^\circ\text{C}$ to achieve decent H₂ production. The red squares show excellent H₂ production even at milder temperatures in the presence of Rh/SrTiO₃ photocatalyst under light irradiation, showcasing the potential of photocatalysis in achieving sustainability. Reproduced with permission from reference 35. Copyright 2020 Springer Nature. c) Conversion of furan to pyrrole in a single step under photocatalytic conditions. A distinct reaction mechanism allows selective furan to pyrrole conversion with excellent yields at room temperature. Reproduced with permission from reference 36. Copyright 2024 American Association of the Advancement of Science.

Another added advantage lies in molecular skeletal editing, where complex organic synthesis can be carried out in fewer steps than conventional routes under photocatalytic conditions.³⁶ One such example is the conversion of furan to pyrrole, which is highly challenging, as furan is highly stable due to its aromaticity. Classical methods for this chemical transformation include pyrolysis of furan in an ammonia stream over activated alumina at 450 $^\circ\text{C}$ or photolytic conversion using high-energy

ultraviolet (UV) irradiation.³⁶⁻³⁸ The former method requires extremely high temperatures, while the latter strategy results in poor product yields.³⁶⁻³⁸ In a seminal work by Park and coworkers, heteroatom swapping was done at ease to convert furan to pyrrole in a single step under photocatalytic conditions (**Figure 1.3c**).³⁶ A distinctly different reaction mechanism than the conventional routes was the key behind a single-shot conversion of O-atom to N-atom. Herein, an acridinium-based photocatalyst under blue light irradiation initiates one-electron oxidation of furan to yield furanic cation (**Figure 1.3c**). The electron-deficient furanic cation enables nucleophilic addition of amine to form an adduct, which in the next step accepts an electron from the reduced photoexcited photocatalyst. Subsequent proton transfer yields a ring-opened intermediate, followed by Paal-Knorr-type condensation to construct pyrrole (**Figure 1.3c**). The photocatalytic pathway resulted in an excellent yield of 92 % without any overoxidized or side products. The strategy was extended to synthesize naturally occurring products and pharmaceutical drugs, such as diosbulbin B, cafestol acetate, furosemide, etc.

All the fundamental studies and collective efforts till now have resulted in the translation of photocatalytic strategies to pilot scale, which is quite a remarkable feat. Recently, Syzygy Plasmonics- a Houston-based startup, produced its first batch of liquid fuel using Rigel photoreactors that drive chemical reactions in the presence of light. All these examples clearly demonstrate the power of photocatalysis for sustainable synthesis and the crucial role of fundamental research in achieving the same.

1.3. Fundamentals involved in photocatalysis

At the core of all these photocatalytic transformations lies three key steps: I) absorption of light leading to the generation of charge carriers, II) separation of photoexcited charge carriers, and III) charge extraction or transfer to the reactant of interest (**Figure 1.4**).^{27,39-42} Various physical parameters dictate these key steps for all the photocatalysts, which impact the overall photocatalytic efficiency. Absorption of light is unambiguously the foremost step for any photocatalytic reaction, as without light input, no photocatalysis will occur. The interaction of light with the photocatalyst can be expressed as follows:⁴²

$$I_0 = A_{\%} + T + R_s + S + R_d \quad (1.1)$$

where, I_0 is the photon flux of incident light, $A_{\%}$ is the absorptance or the ratio of the absorbed to incident light, T is the transmitted light, R_s is the specularly reflected light, S is the forward-scattered light, and R_d is the backward-scattered light.

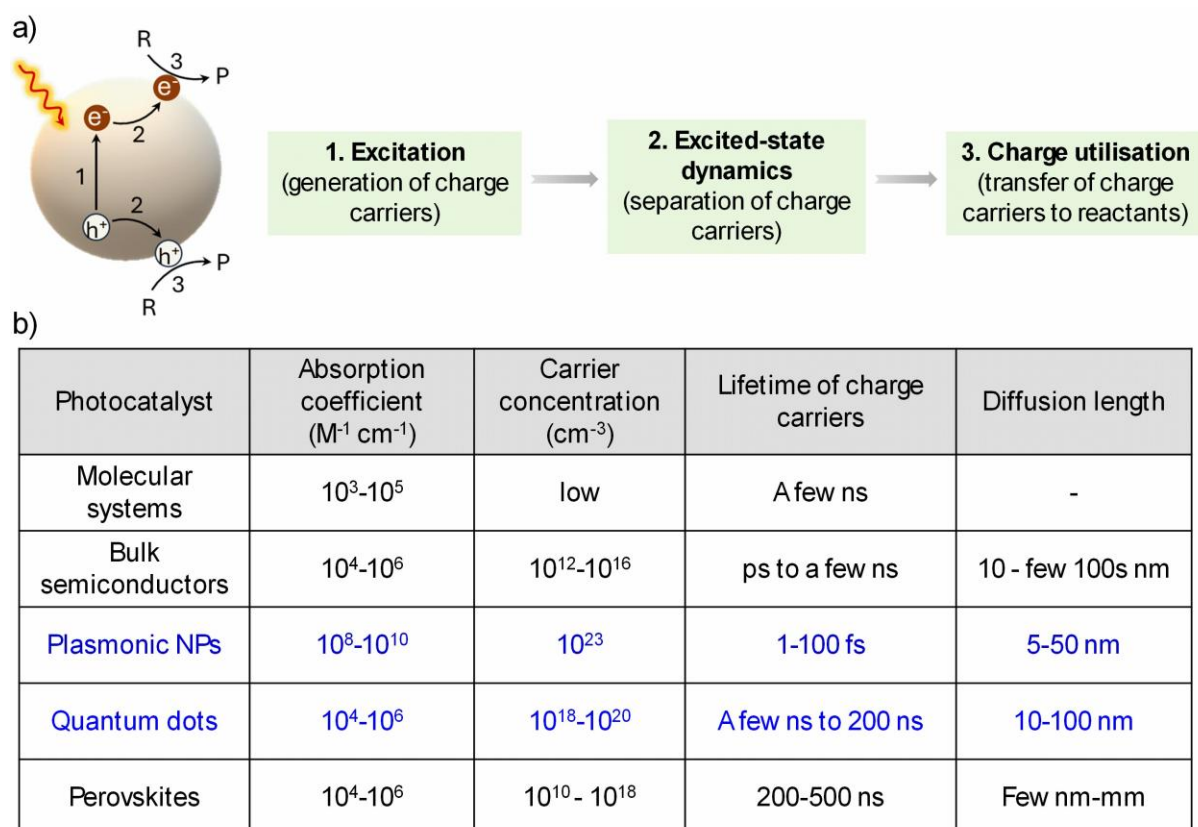


Figure 1.4. a) Schematic illustration of the key steps involved in photocatalytic transformations. b) Table summarizing the key photophysical parameters of commonly used photocatalysts.

Out of all, it is the absorption of light that dictates the subsequent process of charge generation and is determined by the absorption coefficient ($\alpha(\lambda)$) of the material. The absorption coefficients of different classes of photocatalysts are summarized in **Figure 1.4**. Amongst them, plasmonic metal nanoparticles (NPs) stand out with their exceptionally high molar absorption coefficient in the range of 10^8 - $10^{10} M^{-1} cm^{-1}$, arising from strong light-matter interactions due to the unique phenomenon of localized surface plasmon resonance (*vide infra*). Now, the number of electron-hole pairs generated per absorbed photon as a function of wavelength (λ) and light penetration depth (x), is described by the generation rate, G , as follows:^{43,44}

$$G = \alpha I_0 e^{-\alpha x} \quad (1.2)$$

Once charge carriers are generated, they must be spatially separated to reach their respective surface sites before they undergo recombination. The separation of photoexcited charge carriers is associated with various parameters such as exciton binding energy, effective mass of the charge carriers, carrier lifetime, carrier mobility, and diffusion length.⁴² Based on the photoabsorbers, two distinct modes of charge separation are involved: asymmetric energetics (AE) and asymmetric kinetics (AK) (**Figure 1.5**).³⁹ For photoabsorbers possessing continuous energy bands, AE is the preferred mode of charge separation. Under AE, the charge carriers drift towards the respective surface reaction sites under the influence of the electric field within the photoabsorber, which enables the spatial separation.^{39,45} Consequently, tuning of energy levels at the surface sites becomes necessary. Such a modulation can be achieved via varying the doping, constructing solid-solid interfaces, appropriately designing the crystal facets of varying surface energies, or by tuning the extrinsic and intrinsic dipoles of surface sites (**Figure 1.5a,b**).³⁹ For photoabsorbers that cannot sustain internal electric fields, such as molecular catalysts and quantum-confined materials, AK is the way to achieve charge separation.³⁹ In AK mode, the difference in the charge transfer rate is the driving force to achieve charge separation (**Figure 1.5c,d**). Once one of the charge carriers is utilized, there is an excess accumulation of the other carrier, thereby creating a gradient of charge carrier concentration.^{39,46} As a result, the overall process becomes diffusion-limited and necessitates that the diffusion length of the charge carriers is larger than the size of the photocatalyst to avoid charge recombination before reaching the surface reaction sites. Based on Marcus' model, the modulation of charge transfer rates by varying the donor-acceptor distance is one of the ways to achieve charge separation under the AK regime.^{47,48} Another commonly used strategy is to incorporate redox couples or sacrificial agents to remove the charge carriers, or by varying the free energy of the charge transfer process by tuning the acceptor energy levels. An interesting approach to tuning the local concentration of the acceptor near the photocatalyst reaction sites also facilitates charge separation.³⁹

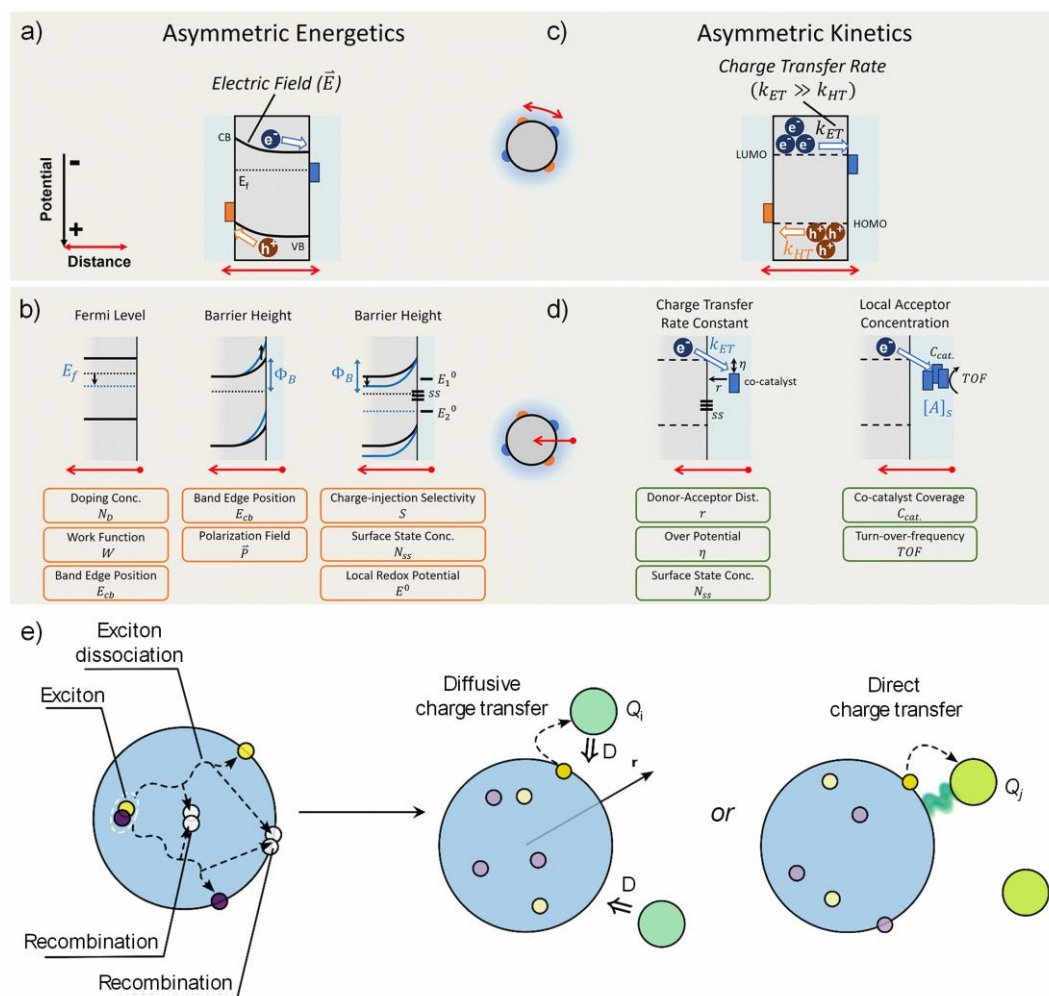


Figure 1.5. Schematics of different modes of charge separation in different photocatalysts: a, b) asymmetric energetics and c, d) asymmetric kinetics. a) and c) depict the ideal scenario for charge separation, while b) and d) represent various physical parameters that dictate charge separation under asymmetric energetics and asymmetric kinetics, respectively. Reproduced with permission from reference 39. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society. e) Scheme showing the modes of photoinduced charge transfer from the semiconductor to the acceptor molecules. Reproduced with permission from reference 41. Copyright 2024 American Chemical Society.

Once the charge carriers reach the respective surface sites before the recombination, the final step involves the extraction of the charge carriers by the reactant molecules. For homogeneous photocatalysts, charge transfer occurs through diffusive collisions and is commonly described by either Smoluchowski or Collins-Kimball theory.⁴¹ As diffusion occurs on longer time scales, generally, photocatalysts bearing triplet states are employed for effective charge transfer. When it comes to the heterogeneous photocatalysts, the phenomenon of charge transfer becomes more complex due to the

involvement of an interface. The charge transfer can occur via either surface binding (direct charge transfer) or reactant diffusion (diffusive charge transfer) (**Figure 1.5e**), depending on the photocatalyst and reactant of choice.^{41,49,50} While the first two steps of photocatalysis are highly dependent on the photocatalysts' design, the process of charge extraction is significantly affected by the external environment as well.^{50,51}

Based on some of the key parameters affecting the key steps in photosynthesis (**Figure 1.4b**), we have chosen *plasmonic metal NPs* and *semiconductor NPs (quantum dots, QDs)* as the photocatalysts of our choice. The subsequent section of this Chapter will discuss the light-matter interactions with plasmonic metal NPs and semiconductor QDs, their distinct features, charge transfer mechanisms, and the associated challenges. With these two classes of photocatalysts, we will discuss the design strategies to maximize each fundamental step in photocatalysis, which forms the objective of the present Thesis.

1.4. Introduction to plasmonic photocatalysis

Accelerating chemical transformations under plasmonic excitation is the crux of the area of plasmonic photocatalysis. What makes these plasmonic excitations exciting lies in the way metal NPs interact with the incoming electromagnetic radiation. When the frequency of incoming electromagnetic radiation matches the frequency of oscillating free electrons of metal NPs, a resonant condition is achieved.⁴³ This phenomenon is known as surface plasmon resonance (SPR). For metal NPs of the size range of 1-100 nm, SPR is confined to a small volume, which is commonly referred to as localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR).⁵² For metal NPs of size much smaller than the wavelength of light, only the dipolar mode of interaction is taken into consideration.⁵² Under this assumption, the polarizability of spherical NPs of volume V is given by Clausius-Mossotti relation:⁴³

$$\alpha = 3\epsilon_0 V \left(\frac{\epsilon - \epsilon_m}{\epsilon + 2\epsilon_m} \right) \quad (1.3)$$

where α is the polarizability, ε_0 is the permittivity of vacuum, ε_m is the dielectric constant of the medium, and ε is the dielectric function of metal, which is complex and frequency dependent. ε can be expressed as $\varepsilon(\omega) = \varepsilon_r(\omega) + i\varepsilon_i(\omega)$, where ε_r and ε_i are the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric function, respectively.

From **eq. 1.3**, it can be seen that polarizability is maximum when $\varepsilon_r = -2\varepsilon_m$ under the assumption that ε_i is small or weakly dependent on frequency. For most of the metals, the real part of the dielectric function is negative (**Figure 1.6a, b**). The absorption and scattering cross-sections (C_{ext} and C_{sca} , respectively) can be related to dipolar polarizability as:^{43,53}

$$C_{ext} = k \operatorname{Im}(\alpha) \quad (1.4)$$

$$C_{sca} = \frac{k^4(\alpha)^2}{6\pi} \quad (1.5), \quad \text{where } k = \frac{2\pi\varepsilon_m^{1/2}}{\lambda}$$

For very small particles ($r \ll \lambda$), the scattering cross-section can be neglected, and the extinction cross-section is dominated by absorption, which can be expressed as:^{53,54}

$$C_{ext} = \frac{24\pi^2 r^3 \varepsilon_m^{3/2}}{\lambda} \frac{\varepsilon_i}{(\varepsilon_r + 2\varepsilon_m)^2 + \varepsilon_i^2} \quad (1.6)$$

Thus, the extinction cross-section becomes maximum at the resonant conditions and can even exceed the geometric cross-section of metal NPs by ten times.⁵⁵ As a result, NPs are able to absorb enormous light, which makes them highly desirable for photocatalysis. Of all metals, NPs of coinage metals such as Au, Ag, and Cu are highly interesting as the plasmon resonance frequency lies in the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum (**Figure 1.6a, b**). For instance, AuNPs of size 10 nm exhibit strong absorption features at ~520 nm.⁵⁵ It is evident from **eqs. 1.3** and **1.6** that the extinction cross-section is sensitive to the size and shape of the NP and the dielectric constant of the materials and the surroundings.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ Thus, light absorption can be tuned across the visible light spectrum by modifying these parameters.

Once a plasmon is excited, it undergoes dephasing within 1-10 fs via radiative or non-radiative relaxation pathways.^{53,58,59} For small metal NPs (< 50 nm), non-radiative relaxation dominates and is relevant for photocatalysis (**Figure 1.6c**).^{53,55} The dephasing of LSPR leads to the formation of highly energetic non-thermal charge carriers, which undergo thermalization by electron-electron scattering on the time scale of 100 fs to form a hot Fermi-Dirac distribution of charge carriers (**Figure 1.6c**).^{53,59} Till this point, the hot charge carriers can be extracted to perform photocatalytic reactions and form the basis of the area of plasmonic photocatalysis. If hot charge carriers are not extracted, electron-phonon scattering events will occur on a time scale of 1-10 ps, after which the hot Fermi-Dirac distribution thermalizes to heat up the NP lattice (**Figure 1.6c**).^{53,59} At this point, the local temperature at the surface of metal NPs can reach hundreds of Kelvins. The heated NP ultimately dissipates the energy to the surroundings by phonon-phonon scattering on a 100 ps timescale (**Figure 1.6c**).^{53,59} In order to perform photocatalytic reactions, the hot charge carriers formed during the relaxation must be extracted before the energy is dissipated in the form of heat, and this is a core challenge in the area of plasmonic photocatalysis.^{59,60}

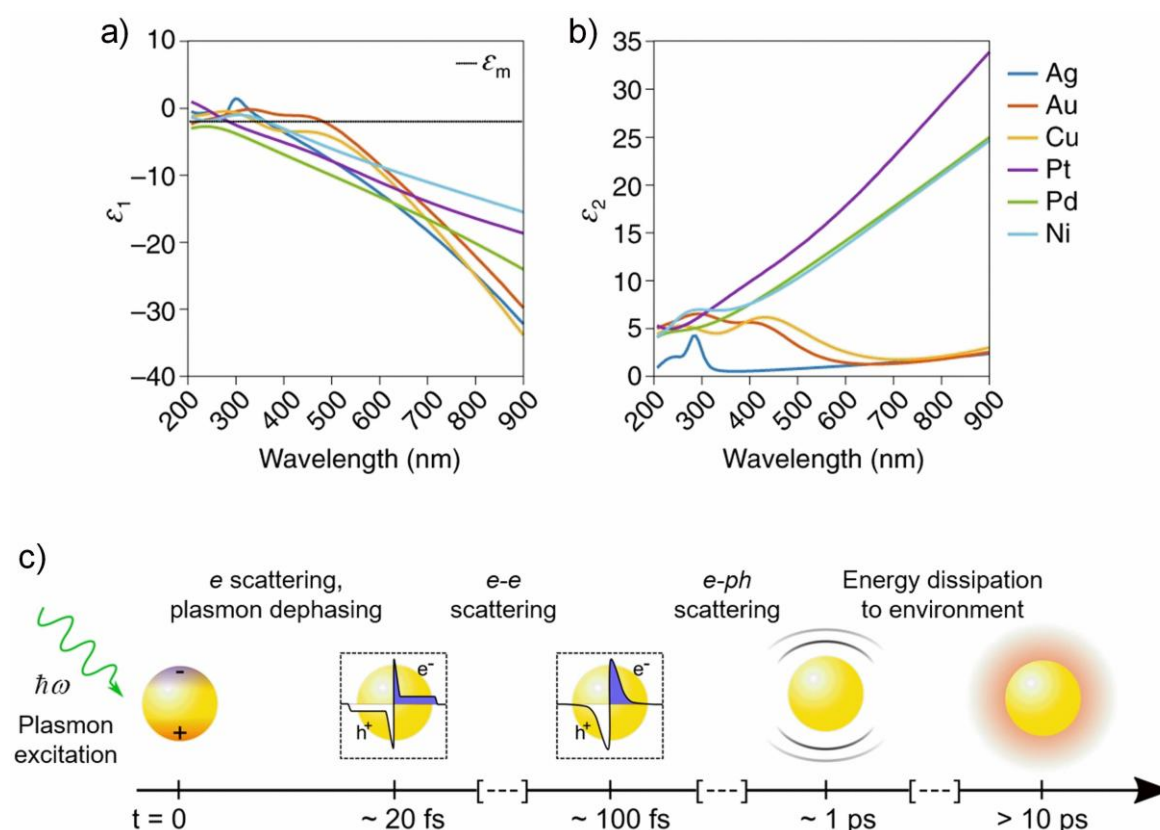


Figure 1.6. a) The real and b) imaginary part of the dielectric function of different metals as a function of wavelength. The black line in a) represents the resonant condition where $\epsilon_r = -2\epsilon_m$ with negligible or small contribution from the imaginary part of the dielectric function. Reproduced with permission from reference 54. Copyright 2018 Springer Nature. c) Scheme showing the plasmon relaxation dynamics, where the plasmonic excitation leads to the formation of highly energetic charge carriers, which dissipate their energy via electron-electron, electron-phonon, and phonon-phonon scattering events. Reproduced with permission from reference 59. Copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH.

The efficiency of charge generation in plasmonic NPs depends on both intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as geometrical shape and size of NP, light frequency and intensity, hot-spot generation between adjacent NPs, etc.^{59,61-63} Since a small window of time exists between hot charge carrier generation and their thermalization, charge extraction must be carried out efficiently within the timescales of relaxation (within 10's of ps). There are two distinct mechanisms for charge transfer between plasmonic NPs and the reactants: I) indirect and II) direct charge carrier transfer.^{59,64-66} In indirect charge injection, the charge carriers are first generated within the metal NP core, as discussed above, followed by their transfer to the acceptor molecules (**Figure 1.7**). Herein, the energy of the generated charge carriers is of prime importance as the potential barrier needs to be overcome to eject charge carriers out of the NP. As the highly energetic non-thermal charge carriers thermalize within a ps time scale, the concentration of low-energy charge carriers is higher.⁶⁴ This essentially suggests that charge transfer will be more favorable to the acceptor's energy levels that are close to the Fermi level of metal NPs, which limits the reaction yield. On the other hand, direct charge transfer is proposed to occur in a single step where the charge carriers are directly excited into the adsorbate's energy level, triggering the chemical reactivity (**Figure 1.7**).⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶ This is also referred to as chemical interface damping (CID). The direct charge transfer mechanism is thought to have an intrinsic 100 % charge injection efficiency, as excited charge carriers do not stay inside the metal NPs to lose their energy via different scattering events.⁵⁹ This mechanism is found to dominate in systems where there is strong hybridization between the metal surface and the adsorbates' energy levels. Such strong electronic hybridization can also be utilized to achieve selectivity in the chemical transformations by targeting specific adsorbate energy levels.⁶⁷

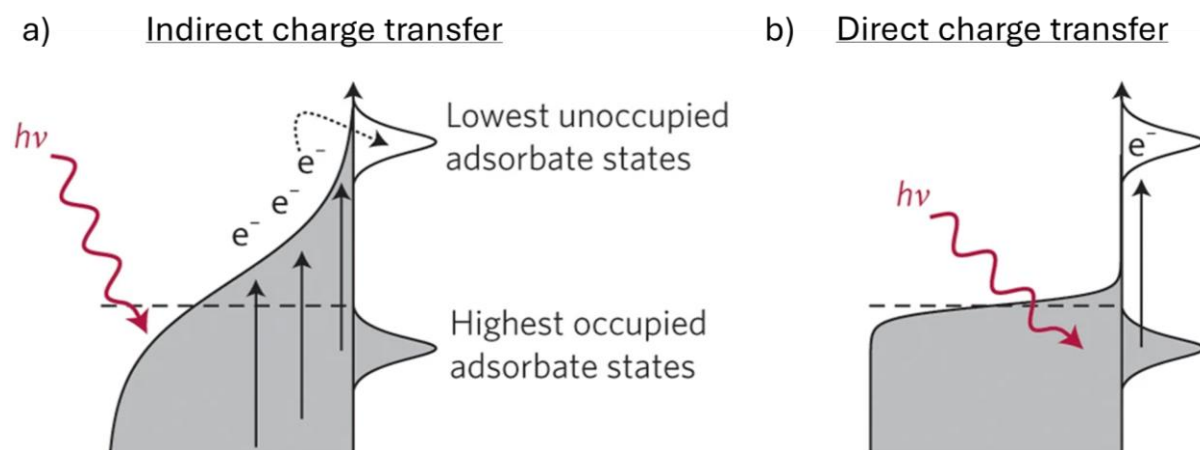


Figure 1.7. Mechanisms of charge transfer in plasmonic photocatalysis. a) In indirect charge transfer, hot charge carriers are first formed within the metal core and then transferred to the acceptor molecules. b) Direct charge transfer involves the transfer of photoexcited charge carriers in a single step by direct excitation of an electron from the metal to the adsorbate unoccupied orbital upon plasmon relaxation. Reproduced with permission from reference 65. Copyright 2015 Springer Nature.

1.5. Introduction to quantum dot photocatalysis

Quantum dots (QDs) are semiconductor nanoparticles having their size comparable to their bulk exciton Bohr radius.⁶⁸ This size regime is the quantum confined regime, where the exciton begins to feel the presence of the particle's boundaries.⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰ As a consequence of the quantum confinement effect, the continuous energy levels collapse to give rise to discrete and quantized energy levels.^{70,71} In general, the extent of confinement is manipulated by changing the size of QDs, which dramatically alters the optoelectronic properties.⁶⁸⁻⁷¹ With the decrease in the size of the QDs leading to a higher degree of confinement, the band gap increases (**Figure 1.8**).⁷⁰⁻⁷² Brus' equation describes the relation between the band gap (E_g) of the QDs to its bulk band gap as follows:⁷³

$$E_g = E_{bulk} + \frac{h^2}{8R^2} \left(\frac{1}{m_e^*} + \frac{1}{m_h^*} \right) - \frac{1.786e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon_r R} \quad (1.7)$$

where, h is the Planck's constant, R is the radius of the QD, m_e^* and m_h^* are the effective masses of electrons and holes in the QD, respectively, ϵ_0 is the permittivity of vacuum and ϵ_r is the relative permittivity.

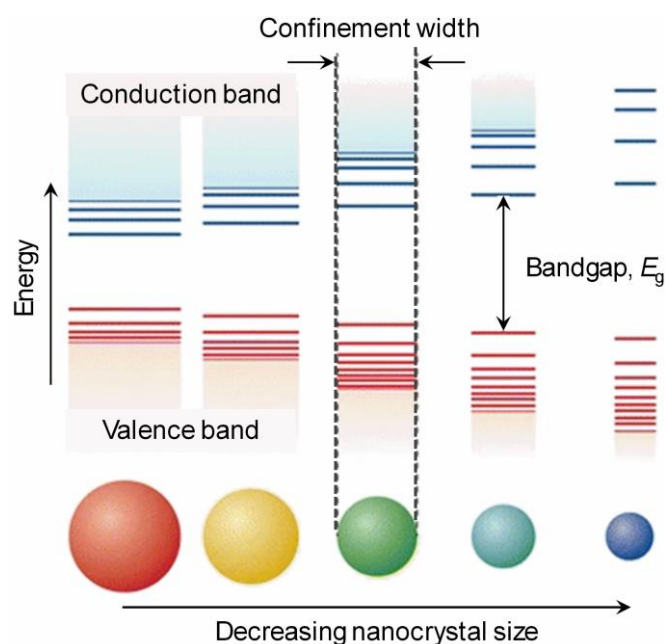


Figure 1.8. Schematics representing the quantum confinement effect leading to the change in the band gap of semiconductor nanoparticles as a function of their size. Reproduced with permission from reference 72. Copyright 2017 Springer.

From the photocatalytic point of view, QDs offer enormous flexibility to tune the band positions with respect to the thermodynamics of the desired reaction, just by varying the size of the QD. In addition, QDs exhibit a wide and tunable absorption range, large extinction coefficient, and high photostability - all of which make QDs attractive to be employed as photocatalysts.⁷⁴⁻⁷⁶ Unlike molecular photocatalysts that follow Kasha's rule, QDs often involve higher excited states under photocatalytic conditions (**Figure 1.9**). Thus, high-energy charge carriers can be directly extracted by reactants.^{77,78} However, the defect states are often present in QDs, which significantly affect the charge transfer by trapping the photoexcited charge carriers and can either act as a relay or a point of charge recombination (**Figure 1.9**).⁷⁹ Interestingly, QDs are susceptible to multiexcitonic processes as well due to the presence of degenerate and quasi-discrete energy levels.^{41,80} This results in exciting non-trivial non-linear charge transfer processes across the interface (**Figure 1.9**). Another interesting process by which charge transfer can occur in QDs is through an Auger-assisted mechanism, in which electron transfer is promoted by virtue of hole excitation to deeper energy levels (**Figure 1.9**).^{41,81} With such distinct charge carrier dynamics, albeit intricate, QDs serve as a unique photocatalytic platform for performing a wide array of chemical transformations.⁸²⁻⁸⁵

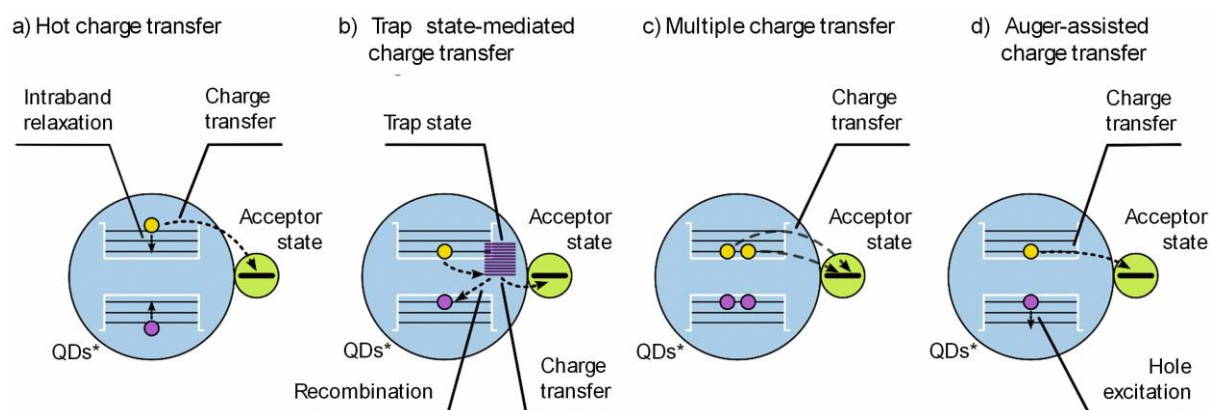


Figure 1.9. Schematics showing the different pathways of charge transfer from quantum dots to the acceptor. Reproduced with permission from reference 41. Copyright 2024 American Chemical Society.

1.6. Surface as a template for tuning photocatalysis

As the famous saying goes, “*God made the bulk, surfaces were invented by the devil*” by Wolfgang Pauli, the surface effects are quite phenomenal in the area of catalysis and photocatalysis.^{85–103} The chosen photocatalysts, plasmonic metal NPs and QDs, not only offer intriguing optoelectronic properties, but the high surface-to-volume ratio of these nanostructures renders them a rich surface chemistry. Anatomically, metal NPs or QDs have two distinct parts: I) the core, which imparts photophysical properties, and II) the surface ligands, which act as stabilizing agents and provide dispersion in different media (**Figure 1.10a**).^{76,86} A typical ligand comprises three parts: a binding group that attaches to the NP/QD surface, a spacer that determines the length between the NP/QD and the surroundings, and a terminal group from which various covalent and noncovalent forces emanate (**Figure 1.10a**).^{51,86} Ligands form a self-assembled monolayer (SAM) on the surfaces of NP/QD, which decides how a NP/QD will interact with its surroundings.

From a photocatalysis point of view, ligands are often undesirable. The long-chain alkyl ligands hinder the approach of reactants towards the catalyst’s surface, and their insulating nature restricts the flow of photoexcited charge carriers.^{86,87–89} Taking inspiration from enzymes that employ a complex network of interactions to drive catalytic chemical reactions, the ligands on the surface of NP/QD can bring various interparticle forces into action, which can directly regulate the catalyst–reactant

interactions. By attaching the *ligand of choice* to the surface of NP/QD, favourable catalyst-reactant interactions can be installed to channel the reactants toward the NP/QD surface, thereby increasing the local concentration and, hence, the efficiency of the catalytic reaction (**Figure 1.10b**).^{86,90-93} Thus, ligands can act as ‘gatekeepers’ in plasmonic metal NPs and QDs photocatalyzed chemical reactions such as H₂ evolution, CO₂ reduction, biological cofactor regeneration, carbon-carbon coupling, etc.

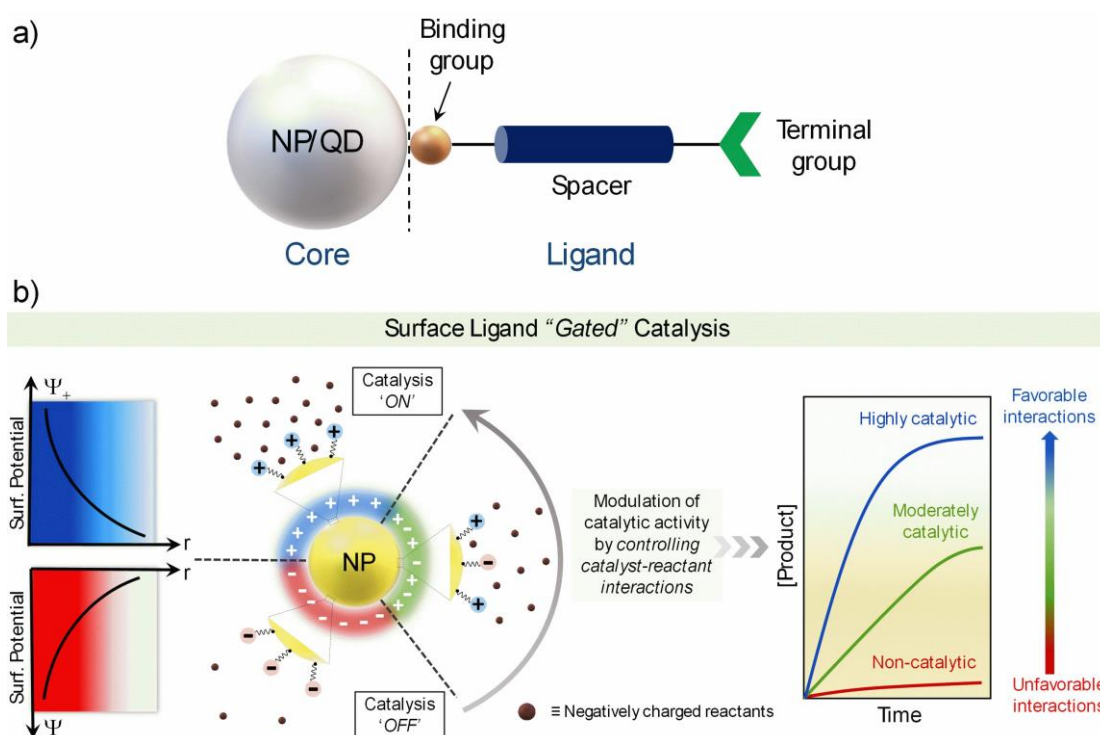


Figure 1.10. a) Schematic representation showing the anatomy of an NP/QD comprising core and surface ligands. A typical ligand comprises three parts: a binding group, a spacer, and a terminal group. b) Surface ligand “gated” catalysis. The graph on the left shows the exponential variation in the surface potential of the NP, arising from the charged ligands, as a function of distance. A favorable electrostatic interaction can channelize the flow of the reactants and increase their local concentration near the NP catalyst surface, thereby enhancing the catalytic activity. The catalyst–reactant interaction can be fine-tuned by varying the ratio of the [+] and [–] ligands on the NP surface, which has the power to modulate the catalytic activity as per the demand: highly catalytic, moderately catalytic, and noncatalytic. Reproduced with permission from reference 86. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

Apart from improving the catalytic activity, surface ligands can play a crucial role in accomplishing other desirable functions in catalysis as well, such as product selectivity, switchability, and recyclability.⁹⁴⁻¹⁰² In an interesting study by Reisner and coworkers, product selectivity for the reduction of CO₂ to CO was achieved by stabilizing a particular

reaction intermediate with the help of smartly chosen ligands.⁹⁷ Here, the surface of ZnSe QDs was modified with imidazole ligands that stabilize the surface-bound $^*\text{CO}_2^-$, which is a key intermediate in the formation of CO (**Figure 1.11a**). A 4-fold and 13-fold increase in the product yield and selectivity were obtained using imidazole functionalized ZnSe QDs, respectively. In a similar study, the same group has achieved CO product selectivity by inhibiting the H_2 evolution using dithiolated ligands having long chain lengths.⁹⁸ These preliminary studies indicate that the surface ligands have the power to control the adsorption–desorption kinetics of reactants, intermediates, and products. On a different note, Weiss and coworkers functionalized CuInS_2 QDs with distinct ligands terminated with amine to improve the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction activity in the presence of cobalt porphyrin catalyst (**Figure 1.11b**).¹⁰¹ Here, the amine functional groups capture CO_2 as carbamic acid to enhance CO_2 solubility in water, and the electrostatic attraction between protonated amine groups and negatively charged cobalt porphyrin enables fast multielectron transfer from QD to the catalyst. As a result of finely tuned ligand chemistry, CO_2 photoreduction proceeded with unprecedented efficiency, with turnover number reaching >80000 with 5.2 % quantum yield and > 99 % selectivity.

Additionally, surface ligands also play a pivotal role in dictating the intrinsic properties of NP/QDs.^{51,103–109} For instance, the electronic structure of the QD was found to be perturbed by surface ligands, resulting in a shift in the band edge positions.^{104–106} The direct impact of this could be useful in modulating the free energy for charge transfer from photocatalysts to the reactant molecules. More importantly, ligands are known to significantly alter charge carrier dynamics, can introduce or eliminate trap states, modulate intrinsic conductivity, or even impact the stability under photoirradiation conditions.^{107–111} Hence, it is clear that along with designing the photocatalyst core, it is crucial to optimize the ligand shell to obtain maximum efficiency in light-assisted chemical transformations.

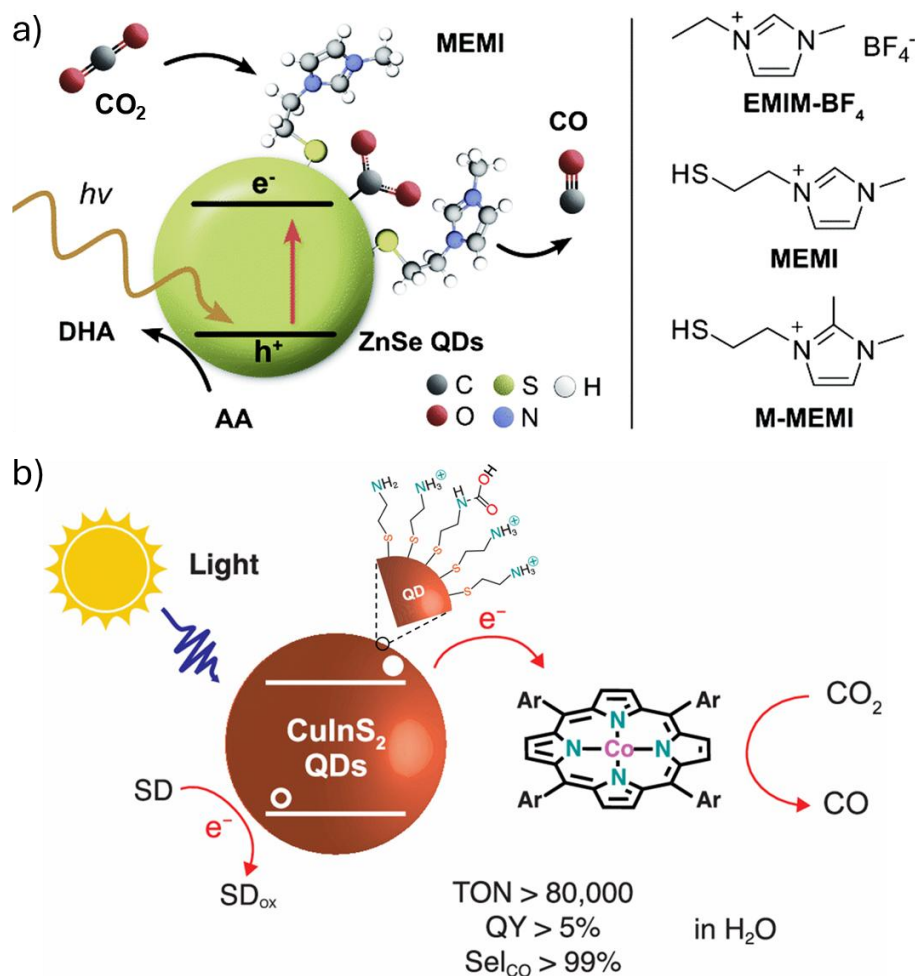


Figure 1.11. Surface ligand-mediated product selectivity in photocatalysis. a) Scheme representing the stabilization of the surface-bound CO_2^- intermediate by the imidazole ligand, resulting in a selective photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 to CO by ZnSe QDs. Reproduced with permission from reference 97. Copyright 2021 The Royal Society of Chemistry. b) Schematic illustration of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with CuInS_2 QDs as photosensitizer and Co-porphyrin catalyst. The use of alkyl ligands bearing primary amine functional groups enables CO_2 capture in the form of carbamic acid, leading to higher solubility of CO_2 , and the strong electrostatic interactions between oppositely charged surface ligands and Co-porphyrin catalyst ensure efficient electron transfer from QD to the catalyst under light irradiation. Reproduced with permission from reference 101. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society.

1.7. Objective of the thesis

As seen in this Chapter, doing chemistry with light involves intricate underlying mechanisms for charge generation, separation, and their utilization in order to achieve desired chemical transformations. The main focus of the present *thesis* is to maximize the efficiency of the key fundamental steps in photocatalysis by rational design of the photocatalyst core and its surface ligands, to drive challenging multielectron reactions,

in particular. We believe that tuning the core properties (plasmonic metal NPs vs QDs) will allow us to regulate and maximize charge carrier generation and their dynamics in the excited states, whereas a meticulous choice of the surface ligands will dictate the interaction with reactants for effective utilization of photoexcited charge carriers. As discussed in this Chapter, a large number of studies focus on the fundamental aspects of charge generation, separation, and extraction independently. Despite extensive fundamental photophysical studies, these have not been translated to photocatalytic transformations to a sufficient extent.

In light of this, the present *thesis* will showcase the impact of rationally designed core and surface ligands in dictating the photocatalytic efficiencies in driving challenging multielectron transformations. In **Chapter 2**, the details of the chemical reagents used, the synthetic protocols followed, and the instrumentation methods are discussed. **Chapter 3** is focused on understanding the role of light excitation attributes in plasmon-photocatalyzed nicotinamide cofactor regeneration, which requires a rationally designed plasmonic core and surface. Appropriate design of the light-harvesting components was crucial to maximize the key photocatalytic steps and distinguish amongst various plasmon activation mechanisms under different light excitations. With an increase in the complexity of the reaction, from $2e^-/H^+$ driven regeneration of nicotinamide cofactors to $8e^-/9H^+$ reduction of nitrate ions to ammonia, we switched from plasmonic metal core to QDs to increase the charge separation process in **Chapter 4a**. Herein, we established indium phosphide (InP) QDs as an excellent visible light photocatalyst for ammonia synthesis at room temperature. The key mechanistic details involved in photocatalytic nitrate to ammonia conversion are listed in **Chapter 4b**. With the goal of increasing the efficiency of InP QD photocatalyzed nitrate to ammonia conversion, organic long-alkyl ligands were replaced with inorganic surface ligands to improve the charge utilization step in **Chapter 5**. The modifications in surface ligands on the InP QD surface led to a multifold enhancement in reaction rate and quantum efficiency. We envision that the areas of plasmonic photocatalysis and QD photocatalysis will surely benefit from adopting the existing fundamental concepts or even advance beyond our predictions.

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Chapter – 2

Materials, Methods, and Techniques



2.1. Materials and reagents

Tetrachloroaurate trihydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$), hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), ascorbic acid, silver nitrate (AgNO_3), tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAOH) 25 % wt. in water, 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA), β -nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide sodium salt (NAD^+), β -nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide reduced disodium salt (NADH), rhodium chloride hydrate ($\text{RhCl}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$), 1,2,3,4,5-pentamethylcyclopentadiene (Cp^*), 2,2'-bipyridyl (bpy), tris-(dimethylamino)phosphine ($\text{P}(\text{DMA})_3$), oleylamine (OAm), potassium nitrate (KNO_3), potassium nitrite (KNO_2), potassium nitrate-15N labeled (K^{15}NO_3), zinc stearate, 1-dodecanethiol (DDT), 1-octadecene (ODE), sulfur powder, trioctylphosphine (TOP), and glutamate dehydrogenase were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 1-Decanol, disodium 2-oxoglutarate, indium chloride (InCl_3), zinc chloride (ZnCl_2), indium bromide (InBr_3), and indium iodide (InI_3) were purchased from TCI Chemicals Pvt. Ltd. India. Triethanolamine (TEOA) was purchased from Avra Chemicals. Dimethylformamide (DMF) was purchased from Advent ChemBio. All the reagents were used as received without any further purification. *N, N, N*-Trimethyl(11-mercaptoundecyl) ammonium chloride (TMA) was synthesized according to the reported procedure.¹

2.2. Synthesis of gold nanorods (AuNRs)

Gold nanorods (AuNRs) were synthesized following a modified literature procedure.² In a typical experiment, a solution of 50 mM CTAB/13.5 mM *n*-decanol was prepared by dissolving 9.111 g of CTAB and 1.068 g of *n*-decanol in 500 mL of Milli-Q water. This was followed by the preparation of small AuNP seeds (1–2 nm) by rapidly injecting 800 μL of NaBH_4 (20 mM) into 20 mL of a CTAB/*n*-decanol solution, 200 μL of HAuCl_4 (50 mM), and 100 μL of ascorbic acid (0.1 M). The seed solution turned yellowish-brown upon NaBH_4 addition and was kept for aging (at least 60 min) for complete consumption of excess NaBH_4 . For the synthesis of small anisotropic AuNRs, 325 mL of a CTAB (50 mM)/*n*-decanol (13.5 mM) solution, 2.6 mL of AgNO_3 (10 mM), and 3.25 mL of HAuCl_4 (50 mM) were added. From this mixture, 25.45 mL of the solution was taken out in a different flask, and 325 μL of ascorbic acid (0.1 M) was added. The solution turned colorless and was

divided into five equal parts of 1.55 mL, followed by the addition of HCl (1 M) in increasing amounts, starting from 250 to 450 μL . The growth solution was left undisturbed for 3–4 h after adding 300 μL of the prepared AuNP seed solution. An appropriate amount of HCl was chosen for which the longitudinal SPR band lies at $\sim 800\text{ nm}$. Using the same reagent solutions, the same AuNP seeds, and an optimized HCl amount, the synthesis was scaled up to $\sim 300\text{ mL}$ by keeping all ratios constant. The growth solution was left overnight to obtain a higher yield of NRs, followed by centrifugation at 10000 rpm for 30 min so as to obtain a concentrated colloidal solution. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images revealed uniform size distribution of AuNRs of an aspect ratio of ~ 4 .

2.3. Synthesis of indium phosphide quantum dots (InP QDs)

2.3.1. Synthesis of core-only InP QDs

A modified literature procedure was used for the synthesis of red-emitting core-only InP QDs.^{3,4} In a typical synthesis, indium(III) chloride (100 mg, 0.45 mmol), zinc chloride (300 mg, 2.2 mmol), and oleylamine (5.0 mL, 15 mmol) were placed in a 100 mL three-neck RB equipped with a stir bar. The mixture was heated to $120\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ under an Ar atmosphere with gentle stirring until a clear solution was obtained. The reaction mixture was degassed for $\sim 60\text{ min}$ at $120\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, followed by a rise in temperature to $\sim 200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Upon reaching $\sim 200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, 350 μL of tris(dimethylamino)phosphine (1.93 mmol) in 1.0 mL of oleylamine was quickly injected into the reaction mixture. The temperature was maintained at $\sim 200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 60 min for the growth of the InP core QDs. In the end, the reaction mixture was quenched with a water bath, followed by the addition of 5.0 mL of hexane to arrest the growth of core-only QDs. The as-synthesized QD solution was centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 10 min to remove unreacted precursors. The resultant supernatant was purified by precipitation with ethanol and redispersed back in toluene for further use.

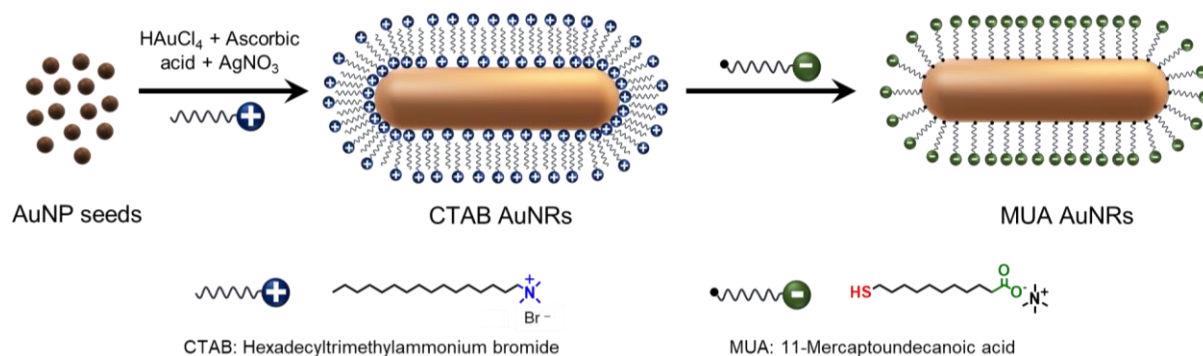
2.3.2. Synthesis of core/shell InP/ZnS QDs

For the synthesis of core/shell InP/ZnS QDs, firstly, core-only InP QDs were synthesized according to the procedure described in Section 2.3.1. After the complete growth of core-only InP QDs, the reaction mixture was cooled down to room temperature with a cold-water bath and further proceeded for ZnS shell growth. For the shell growth, zinc stearate (63 mg, 0.1 mmol) and DDT (24 mL, 0.1 mmol) were dissolved in ODE and injected into the reaction mixture containing core-only InP QDs under inert conditions. The temperature was raised to 300 °C and kept for 20 min. Finally, the reaction mixture was quenched with a water bath, followed by the addition of 5 mL hexane to arrest the shell growth. As prepared, red-emitting InP/ZnS QDs were purified by precipitation with ethanol twice and redispersed in toluene for further use.

2.4. Ligand exchange reaction for AuNRs and InP QDs

2.4.1. Ligand exchange of AuNRs

CTAB/*n*-decanol-stabilized AuNRs, [+] AuNRs, were place-exchanged with negatively charged 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA, [−]) ligand to obtain [−] AuNRs (**Scheme 2.1**). In a typical place exchange, 1 mL of concentrated [+] AuNRs were precipitated by the addition of 25 mL of methanol, which yielded a black precipitate. The supernatant was carefully removed, and a 10 mM MUA ligand dissolved in methanol was added to the precipitated AuNRs. The solution was left undisturbed for 8 h to ensure complete place exchange with the MUA ligand. Next, the supernatant was decanted, and the precipitate was washed with 25 mL of methanol, followed by acetone. The precipitate was then dried and redispersed in Milli-Q water by adding 20 μ L of tetramethylammonium hydroxide (25 % wt. in water) to deprotonate the carboxylic acid group. Zeta potential (ζ) measurements confirmed the successful ligand exchange, and the as-synthesized [−] AuNRs were used for further studies.

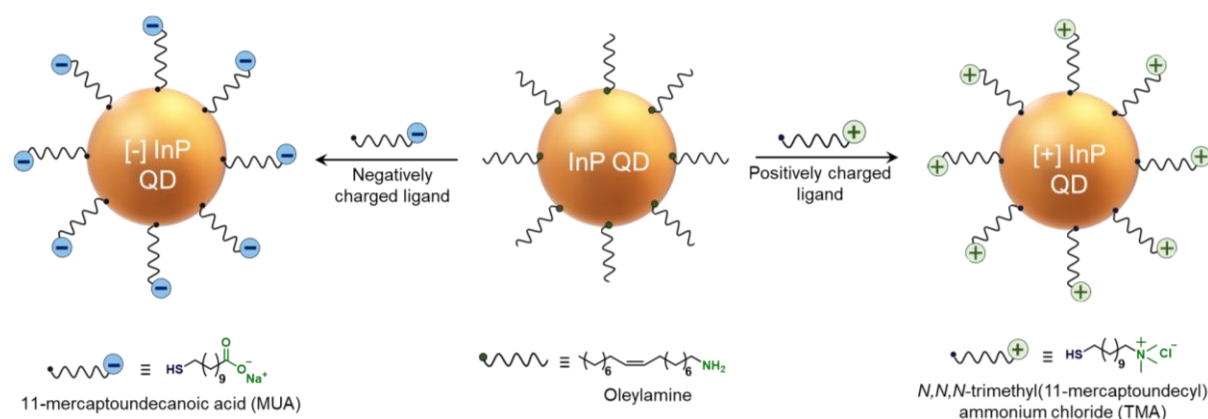


Scheme 2.1. Schematic illustration for the synthesis and place exchange of AuNRs. Positively-charged CTAB stabilized NRs, [+] AuNRs, were synthesized via the seed-mediated method and ligand exchanged with negatively charged MUA ligands to yield [-] AuNRs.

2.4.2. Ligand exchange of InP QDs

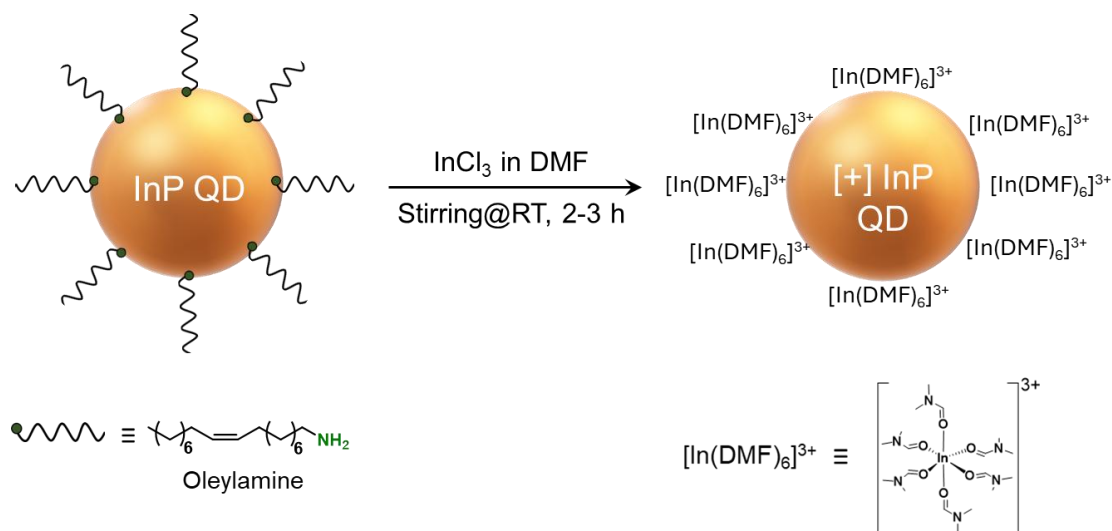
The parent OAm-capped InP QDs were subjected to ligand exchange with positively charged *N,N,N*-trimethyl(11-mercaptoundecyl) ammonium chloride (TMA, [+]) to achieve colloidal stability in an aqueous medium in accordance with the literature report (**Scheme 2.2**).⁵ In a typical place exchange protocol, TMA (~50 mg) was dissolved in 2 mL of water, and 800 μL of parent OAm-capped InP QDs were added. The solution was vigorously shaken for ~5 min, followed by the addition of 1 mL of water and 10 mL of toluene. The solution was stirred overnight to facilitate a complete transfer of QDs from the organic phase to the aqueous phase. The aqueous phase was separated, precipitated with 2-propanol, and centrifuged to remove excess TMA ligands. Finally, [+] InP QDs were redispersed in water for photocatalytic studies.

Similarly, [-] InP QDs were prepared by a ligand exchange protocol using 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA, [-]) as the ligand (**Scheme 2.2**).⁵ Here, MUA (~100 mg) was dissolved in a 1:4 ratio of water: methanol (0.3 and 1.2 mL, respectively), and the pH was adjusted to 10 using NaOH. To this, ~800 μL of parent QDs was added, followed by the addition of 2 mL of water and 10 mL of toluene. The solution was stirred overnight to facilitate a complete phase transfer of QDs from the organic phase to the aqueous phase. The aqueous phase was carefully transferred, precipitated with acetone, and centrifuged to remove the excess MUA ligands. The anionic [-] InP QDs were redispersed in water for further studies.



Scheme 2.2. Schematics showing the ligand exchange of oleylamine-capped InP QDs with positively charged N,N,N -trimethyl(11-mercaptopundecyl) ammonium chloride (TMA) and negatively charged 11-mercaptopundecanoic acid (MUA) thiolated ligands.

A modified literature protocol was used to functionalize a metal-solvent complex (MSC) on the InP QD surface.⁶ Firstly, 50 mg InCl_3 was dissolved in 2 mL of DMF to form $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ complex ($[+] \text{ MSC}$). To this solution, 800 mL of parent OAm-capped InP QDs in hexane were added. The reaction mixture was stirred vigorously for 12 h to facilitate the transfer of InP QDs from hexane to DMF (**Scheme 2.3**). The place-exchanged QDs were purified twice with hexane, followed by precipitation using toluene, and redispersed in water for further photocatalytic reactions.



Scheme 2.3. Schematics of ligand exchange of InP QDs with positively charged metal-solvent coordination complex, $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ ($[+] \text{ MSC}$).

2.5. Instrumentation and techniques used

2.5.1. UV-vis absorption studies

All UV-vis absorbance data were recorded on a Shimadzu UV-3600 spectrophotometer and a quartz cuvette of path length 1 cm, over the range of 200-1200 nm. The concentration of AuNRs and InP QD solution was calculated using Beer-Lambert's law:

$$A = \varepsilon \cdot c \cdot l$$

where,

A is the absorbance

ε is the molar extinction coefficient ($M^{-1} cm^{-1}$)

c is the concentration of the solution (M)

l is the optical path length (cm).

Molar extinction coefficient for InP QDs was calculated using the following equations:⁷

$$D = (-3.7707 \times 10^{-12})\lambda^5 + (1.0262 \times 10^{-8})\lambda^4 - (1.0781 \times 10^{-5})\lambda^3 \\ + (5.4550 \times 10^{-3})\lambda^2 - (1.3122)\lambda + 119.9$$

$$\varepsilon = 3046.1 (D)^3 - 76532 (D)^2 + (5.5137 \times 10^5)(D) - (8.9839 \times 10^5)$$

where D is the diameter of QDs in nm, and λ is the wavelength corresponding to the first excitonic peak of QDs in nm.

2.5.2. Zeta potential measurements

Zeta potential (ζ) measurements of the functionalized AuNRs and InP QDs were performed in Zetasizer Nano series, Nano-2590 (Malvern instruments, U.K.). The optical density of the solution was maintained ~ 0.05 during all the measurements. The ζ value was estimated from the electrophoretic mobility (U_E) (the velocity with which the charged particles are attracted to the oppositely charged electrodes) and is calculated using Henry's equation:⁸

$$U_E = \frac{2\varepsilon\zeta f(k_a)}{3\eta}$$

where,

ϵ is the dielectric constant of the medium,

ζ is the zeta potential (mV)

$f(k_a)$ is Henry's function

η is the viscosity of the medium (Pa s).

Smoluchowski's approximation was used to measure the zeta potential values.

2.5.3. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy studies

^1H NMR data were recorded on a Bruker 400 MHz spectrometer.

2.5.4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) studies were carried out using a Zeiss Ultra Plus FESEM instrument. The SEM sample was prepared by drop-casting a solution of AuNRs on a silicon wafer and dried under a vacuum. The SEM imaging for the paper-based dip catalyst system, loaded with [–] AuNRs, was carried out by taking a small portion of the paper film.

2.5.5. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) imaging

NP and QD samples were drop-casted onto a 400-mesh copper grid (Ted Pella Inc.) and dried under vacuum. The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) imaging was performed on Jeol JEM2200FS (200 kV) instrument.

2.5.6. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) studies

Metrohm DropSens $\mu\text{Stat}400$ electrochemical workstation and Dropview 8400 software were used to carry out the CV experiments. Glassy carbon was used as the working electrode, non-aqueous Ag/AgNO_3 in acetonitrile as the reference electrode, and a Pt wire was used as the counter electrode. Ferrocene was used as the internal standard. The oxidation and reduction potential for QDs vs vacuum was determined using the following equations:

$$E_{VB} = -I_P = -(eE_{ox} + E_{ref})eV$$

$$E_{CB} = -E_A = -(eE_{red} + E_{ref})eV$$

where,

E_{ox} and E_{red} are the onset redox potentials with respect to the reference electrode, E_{ref} is the potential difference between the selected reference electrode and the vacuum energy level, and

I_P and I_A are the ionization potential and electron affinity.

2.5.7. Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

FTIR experiments were performed to confirm the presence of ligands on the surface of QDs. The measurements were performed on Bruker ALPHA II FTIR spectrometer.

2.5.8. Mass spectrometry

Qualitative gas analysis was performed with BELMASS II quadrupole mass spectrometer from Microtrac. Mass channels for the desired gases were selected, and the gases from the reactor's headspace were injected into the mass spectrometer using a gas-tight syringe.

2.5.9. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

The XPS studies were performed on a Thermo Fisher Scientific Instrument, Leicestershire, UK (Model: K-Alpha+) using Al-K α anode in a transmission lens mode and multi-channel plate (MCP) detector. OAm-InP QDs and [+] InP QDs before the reaction were drop-casted on a silicon wafer and dried completely in vacuum. To prepare the sample after the photocatalytic reaction, [+] InP QDs were precipitated from the reaction mixture by centrifugation and dried completely in vacuum. The dried [+] InP QD sample was dispersed in IPA and drop-cast on a silicon wafer. The binding energy scale was calibrated using the standard C 1s peak (284.6 eV), and the elemental peaks were analyzed using non-linear Shirley background correction. The peak position fittings were

carried out using XPSpeak41 software and optimized by a weight least-square fitting method using Gaussian and Lorentzian lineshape.

2.5.10. Ion chromatography

Dionex Aquion ion chromatography system from Thermo Fisher Scientific was used to quantify the concentration of different ions in the reaction. Cations and anions were analysed using CS16 column (5 x 250 mm) with CDRS 600 (4 mm) suppressor and AS23 column (4 x 250 mm) with ADRS 600 (4 mm) suppressor, respectively. Methanesulfonic acid (30 mM) and a mixture of sodium carbonate (4.5 mM) and sodium bicarbonate (0.8 mM) were used as the eluent for cation and anion analysis, respectively. The sample loop was kept constant at 25 μL for all studies. The concentrations of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and NO_2^- were deduced from the calibration curves plotted for the respective ions.

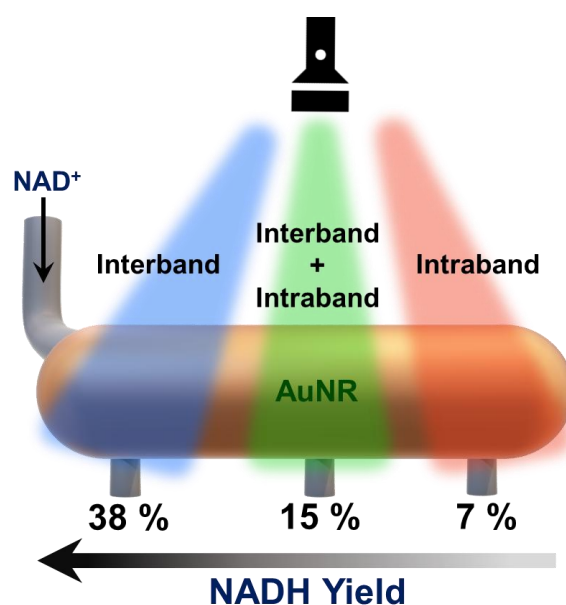
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Chapter – 3

Deciphering the Role of Light Excitation Attributes in Plasmonic Photocatalysis: The Case of Nicotinamide Cofactor Regeneration



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Jain, V.; Chakraborty, I. N.; Raj, R. B.; Pillai, P. P. Deciphering the Role of Light Excitation Attributes in Plasmonic Photocatalysis: The Case of Nicotinamide Cofactor Regeneration. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2023**, 127, 5153-5161.

3.1. Abstract

Photocatalysis with metal nanoparticles is attractive because of their unique plasmonic properties, such as large absorption cross-section, high charge density, spectral tunability, and photostability. As a result, plasmonic photocatalysis has emerged as a distinct area in catalysis for performing different classes of chemical transformations. However, disentangling the exact mechanism in plasmonic photocatalysis is often challenging because of the interference from different plasmon relaxation pathways, which in turn is highly dependent on the catalyst–reactant system. Presently, the field demands a detailed investigation into different factors involved in plasmonic chemistry to gain a better understanding of the complex reaction pathway. Herein, we reveal the critical role of light excitation attributes in the plasmon-driven photoregeneration of the nicotinamide (NADH) cofactor by gold nanorods (AuNRs). The two distinct surface plasmon bands in AuNRs allowed us to study the exclusive role of interband vs intraband transitions in NADH photoregeneration. Also, the choice of reaction is ideal for testing various hypotheses, as it proceeds only in the presence of both light and catalyst. Long-lived hot charge carriers generated through interband transition, in combination with a favorable catalyst–reactant interaction, drive the efficient photoregeneration of the NADH cofactor (~40 %). Our study emphasizes the need for an appropriately chosen catalyst–reactant system and reaction conditions to gain meaningful insights into various factors controlling the product yield and selectivity in plasmonic photocatalysis.

3.2. Introduction

Localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) in metal nanoparticles (NPs) offers a unique way for converting solar energy to chemical fuels, which forms the basis of the area of plasmonic photocatalysis.¹⁻³ Upon LSPR excitation, the plasmon can dephase via (i) radiative pathway by creating intense electric fields in the vicinity of the NP surface, or (ii) nonradiative pathways by forming highly energetic hot charge carriers, which eventually dissipate their excess energy to the surroundings in the form of heat.²⁻⁶ Literature reports establish that both radiative (near-field enhancement) and nonradiative (hot charge carriers and local heating) processes can activate molecules and trigger useful chemical transformations in the presence of light (**Figure 3.1**).⁷⁻¹⁹ As a result, the mechanism involved in a plasmon-driven chemical transformation is complex.^{20,21} A better understanding, as well as control over the involvement of different relaxation pathways, is essential to overcome the existing challenges of low product yield and selectivity in plasmonic photocatalysis.²²⁻²⁴

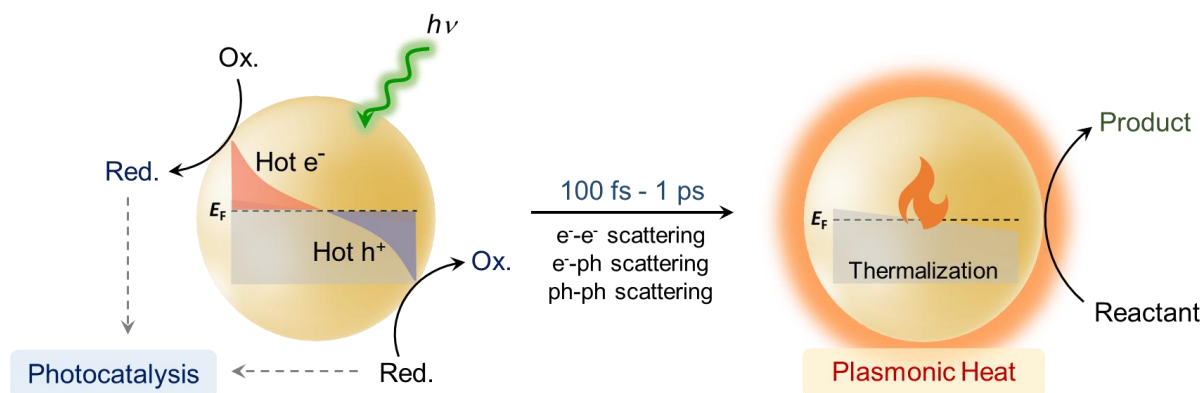


Figure 3.1. Schematics showing the feasibility of chemical transformations with plasmonic nanomaterials via different relaxation pathways. The non-radiative relaxation after plasmonic excitation results in generation of generation of hot charge carriers which can be extracted out to perform chemical reactions. The inefficient extraction of charge carriers results in dissipation of large amount of heat energy, which can also be utilized to do chemical transformations.

The contribution of different pathways will depend on the choice of chemical reaction, photocatalyst design, and reactor design (light excitation, volume, temperature, colloidal/solid phase, fluid flow, etc.).^{20,21,24-26} For instance, Baldi and co-workers observed the change of dominant reaction mechanism from non-thermal to thermal,

depending on the fraction of NP volume under irradiation.²⁵ Herein, the authors investigated the contribution of different activation mechanisms by employing Au@Ag core@shell nanoparticles synthesis. The rate of Ag shell formation under different conditions was monitored through extinction spectroscopy as well as modelled to simulate light propagation and heat transfer dynamics. The local heating effects were completely overruled. However, a prominent participation of collective thermal effects was observed, accounting for 30 to 100 % of the total reaction rate when the volume of the reaction mixture was varied from 90 mL to 450 mL. Such a subtle change in the reaction volume leading to a complete change of reaction mechanism clearly shows the need to elucidate the role of vast reaction parameters for a holistic understanding of plasmon-powered processes.

In an interesting study by Un and Sivan, the impact of fluid flow on heat generation was elucidated in plasmon-mediated redox reactions (**Figure 3.2**).²⁶ The spatial distribution as well as temporal dynamics of temperature were analyzed in two exemplary experimental studies: a) plasmon-induced dithionite-mediated redox reactions (**Figures 3.2a,b**) and b) plasmon-mediated CO₂ reduction to C₁-C₃ hydrocarbons (**Figures 3.2c-e**), alongside the fluid convection dynamics. In the former case, the reaction was found to be driven via thermal effects, mainly because of the presence of a non-uniform temperature profile after light irradiation. Modeling studies revealed that the local temperature in the regions close to illuminated nanoparticles was higher, while no significant heating could be observed in the bulk. However, in the latter case, non-thermal effects dominated as forced convection by stirring reduced the temperature gradients. The convection dynamics (natural vs. forced) and the use of additional hole scavengers were responsible for such contrasting reaction mechanisms. This study demonstrates that minute differences in the experimental setup can turn out to be decisive in the elucidation of the underlying reaction mechanism in plasmon-powered processes.

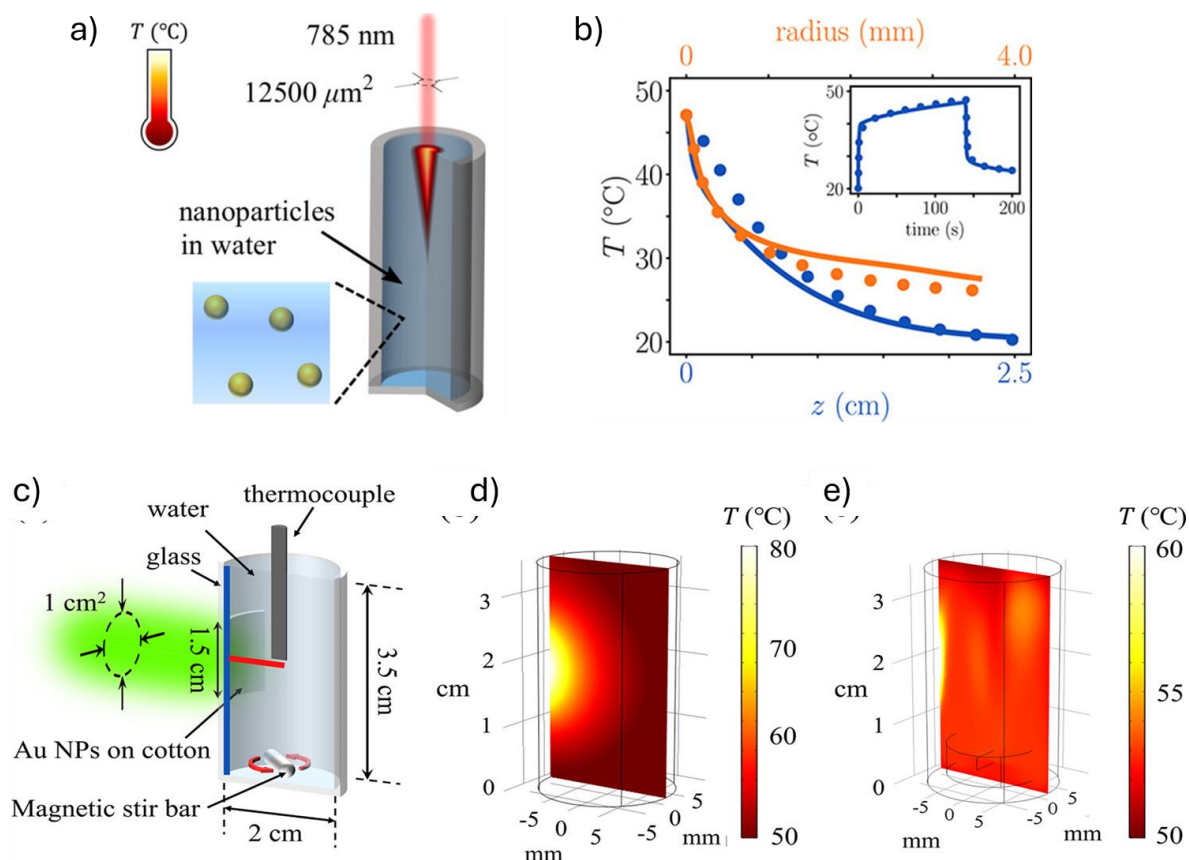


Figure 3.2. The role of fluid flow in plasmon-photocatalyzed chemical reactions. a) Schematics showing the simulation domain of the reactor used in plasmon-induced dithionite-mediated redox reactions. b) Temperature distribution as a function of distance from the center of the beam spot. The inset shows the temporal rise in temperature after light illumination. c) Schematics of the simulated reactor design used for plasmon-mediated CO_2 reduction to C1-C3 hydrocarbons. d) and e) are the temperature profiles after light irradiation in the absence and presence of forced convection by stirring, respectively. It can be clearly seen that the thermal gradients are significantly reduced when the reaction mixture is stirred. Reproduced with permission from reference 26. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society.

Light excitation is one such parameter that is crucial for any photocatalytic reaction and can significantly impact the reaction rates and product selectivity. In the light of plasmonic photocatalysis, light excitation attributes play a crucial role in tuning the reaction parameters such as yield, rate, and selectivity. In a seminal work by Jain & coworkers, harvesting of multiple electrons becomes prevalent with continuous wave light excitation of moderate power after a threshold light intensity is achieved.¹⁰ With the help of a hole scavenger and appropriate excitation wavelength, the reaction rate followed a superlinear trend as a function of photon flux. The authors strategically used this observation in another work to tune the selectivity in photocatalytic CO_2 reduction,

wherein the light intensity influenced the rate of formation of C₁ (methane) and C₂ (ethane) products.⁹ Higher photon energy and flux favored C₂ products due to the simultaneous harvesting of multiple charge carriers. This study impressively utilizes light excitation as a tool to drive challenging multielectron chemical transformations with fine control over the reaction mechanism and selectivity. As the outcome of any plasmon-powered process is highly sensitive to the catalyst-reactant system as well as the experimental conditions, it cannot be generalized. Thus, given the diversity of parameters involved in the photocatalytic process, there is a need for catalyst and reaction-specific investigations to understand plasmon-powered chemical transformations.

In this direction, we report here the conclusive role of light excitation and hot charge carriers in dictating the outcome of a plasmon-catalyzed chemical transformation. Our study demands the appropriate choice of photocatalyst as well as a chemical reaction, to minimize the contribution from the other two relaxation processes (near field enhancement and thermal effects). Gold nanomaterial was our choice for the plasmonic photocatalyst because of its wide applicability in different classes of chemical transformations.^{8-12,15,16} In the case of Au, plasmon is damped via excitation of interband '*d-sp*' and intraband '*sp-sp*' transitions (**Figure 3.3a**).^{6,9,10,27-29} The threshold energy required for interband '*d-sp*' transitions is only 2.1 eV, which overlaps with the LSPR of spherical gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) at ~2.4 eV.^{9,27-29} Therefore, interband transitions can significantly contribute to the observed reaction rate when LSPR (intra + interband transitions) is excited. This essentially suggests that AuNPs may not be the ideal choice of catalyst to study the role of light excitations in plasmonic photocatalysis. On the contrary, selective excitation of interband and intraband transitions is possible in anisotropic gold nanorods (AuNRs) because of the presence of two distinct LSPR bands - longitudinal and transverse bands (**Figure 3.3b**). Excitation at the longitudinal LSPR band results in the intraband transitions selectively; whereas excitation at the transverse LSPR band results in both interband and intraband transitions.^{30,31} Further, the excitation with higher energy photons (>2.4 eV) will result in selective interband transitions.^{9,27,28}

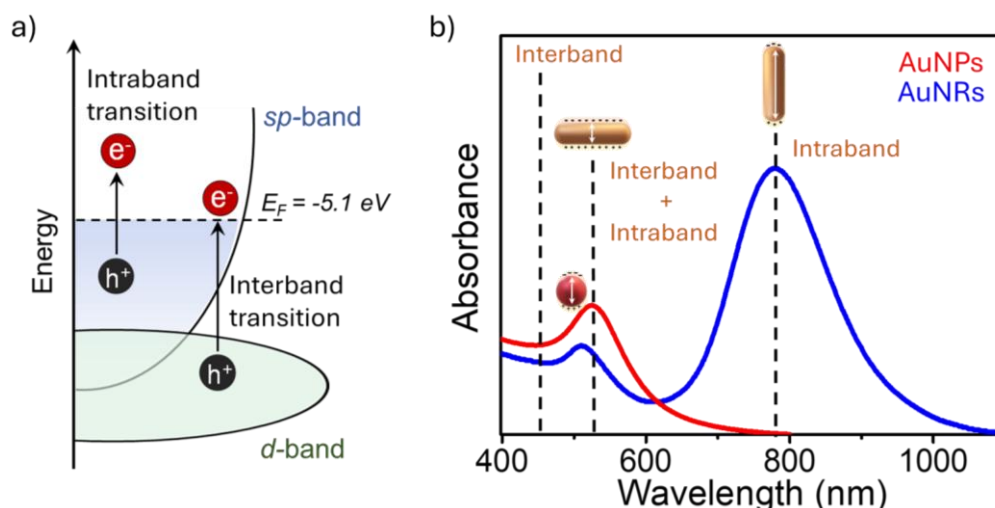


Figure 3.3. a) Representative band diagram of Au showing two different types of transitions that can occur upon plasmonic excitation. Intraband transition results in the formation of hot charge carriers in the sp band, whereas interband transition results in e^- - h^+ pair formation in the sp band and d band, respectively. b) Comparison of absorption profiles of spherical AuNPs and anisotropic AuNRs in the vis-NIR region. The presence of two distinct LSPR bands in AuNR allows the formation of hot charge carriers, selectively, via intraband or interband transitions.

As selective excitation pathways can be achieved, AuNRs have been used in recent studies as the catalyst for deconvoluting the role of different factors in plasmonic photocatalysis.^{30,31} Somorjai, Alivisatos, and Toste investigated photoinduced etching of AuNRs with FeCl_3 to elucidate the effect of different excitations and implicated the dominating role of interband transitions in plasmonic photocatalysis (**Figure 3.4**).³⁰ The reaction rate under dark and different light excitation was monitored through changes in the absorption spectrum of AuNRs as FeCl_3 selectively etches the tip of AuNRs (**Figures 3.4a, b**). Kinetics studies revealed the highest etching rate with 450 nm light excitation, whereas the rate of etching was similar to dark when longitudinal LSPR excitation (650-850 nm) was used (**Figure 3.4b**). The rate constant under interband excitation was at least 3-4 orders of magnitude higher than selective intraband excitation at the longitudinal LSPR (**Figure 3.4c**). Furthermore, the rate of etching was significantly higher even at the transverse LSPR excitation (510 nm) because of the excellent overlap of interband and intraband transitions. A detailed reaction mechanism was proposed, which involved the reduction of Fe^{3+} ions by hot electrons and holes accumulated in AuNRs to eventually form Au^{3+} , causing the etching of AuNRs (**Figure 3.4d**). The efficiency

of interband charge carriers was found to be better than the charge carriers generated upon plasmonic excitation.

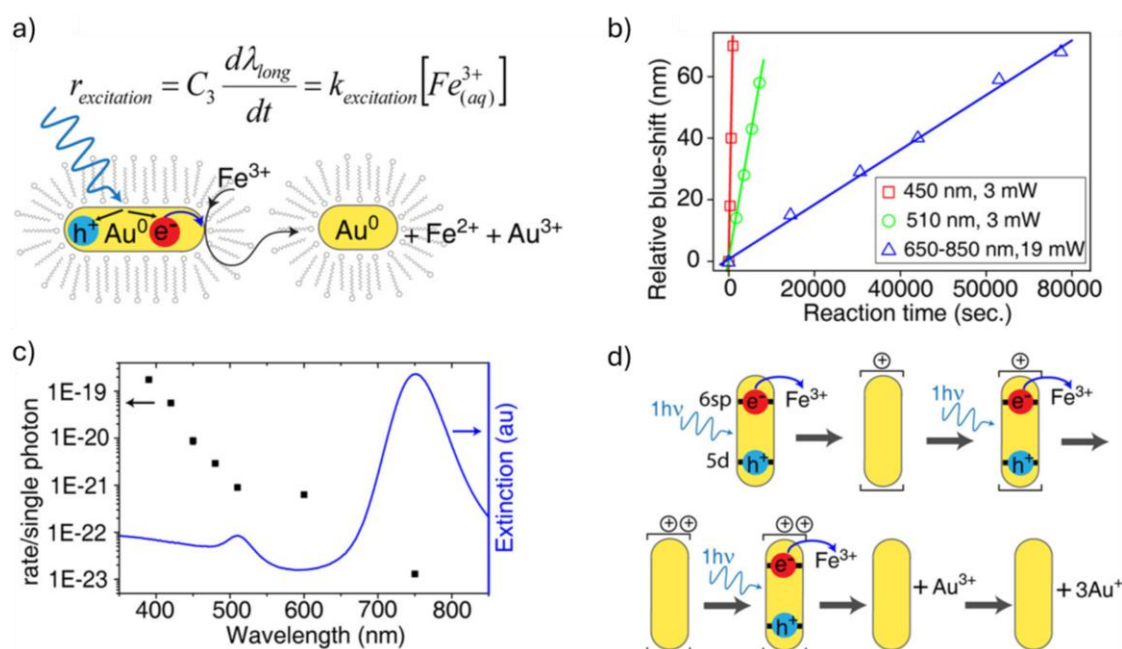


Figure 3.4. a) Schematic showing the photoinduced etching of AuNRs with FeCl_3 . The blue shift in the longitudinal LSPR band of AuNRs served as a proxy to determine the reaction rate under different excitations. b) Rate of AuNR etching at different excitation wavelengths. c) Etching rate normalized with respect to each photon absorbed. d) Proposed reaction mechanism for AuNR etching under light illumination. Reproduced with permission from reference 30. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

Along similar lines, Baldi and co-workers developed Au@Ag NR core@shell system to distinguish among different underlying plasmon activation mechanisms (**Figure 3.5a**).³¹ The silver shell growth over AuNRs was monitored using TEM and in-situ extinction spectroscopy. The evolution of the extinction spectrum under 730 nm was similar to that of dark, suggesting the inefficiency of intraband hot charge carriers in enhancing the reaction kinetics (**Figure 3.5b**). In contrast, a similar spectral profile was observed with faster kinetics under 532 nm excitation with an initial 10-fold rate enhancement as compared to dark (**Figure 3.5c**). Using a combination of in-situ extinction spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy, thermal characterization, and finite-difference time-domain simulations, the dominant role of hot charge carriers generated via interband charge carriers was established. This was further corroborated by single-particle studies, wherein shifts in the LSPR position were measured at polarizations parallel and orthogonal to laser polarizations. A clear lack of angular dependency was observed,

suggesting the isotropic distribution of charge carriers, which is characteristic of the interband hot charge carriers (**Figure 3.5d**). Though both studies suggest that interband transitions play a major role in carrying out photocatalytic conversions with Au as the plasmonic catalyst, the choice of reaction in these studies may not be ideal, as the reaction could proceed to some extent without the need for the catalyst and light.

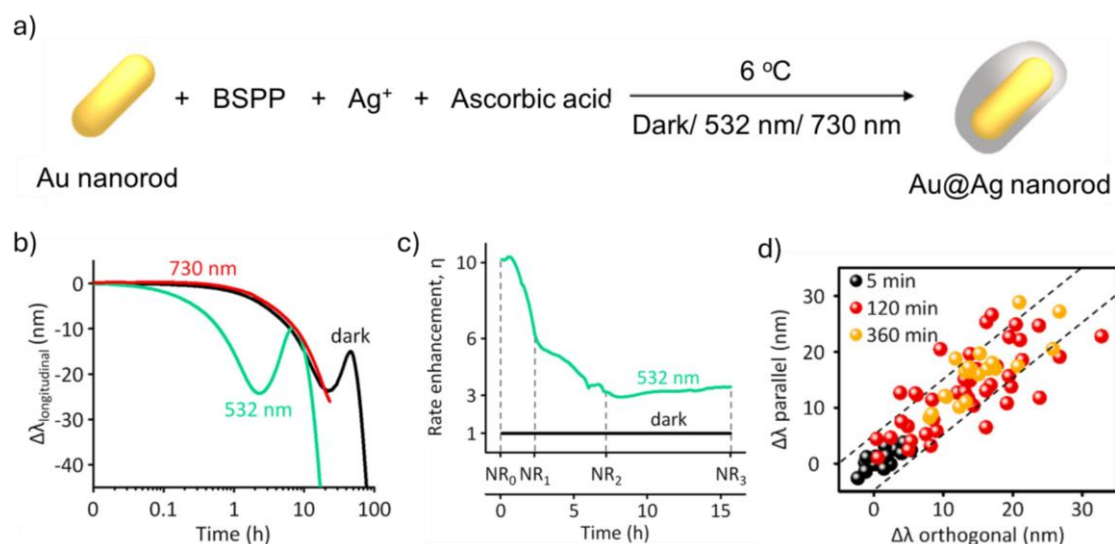
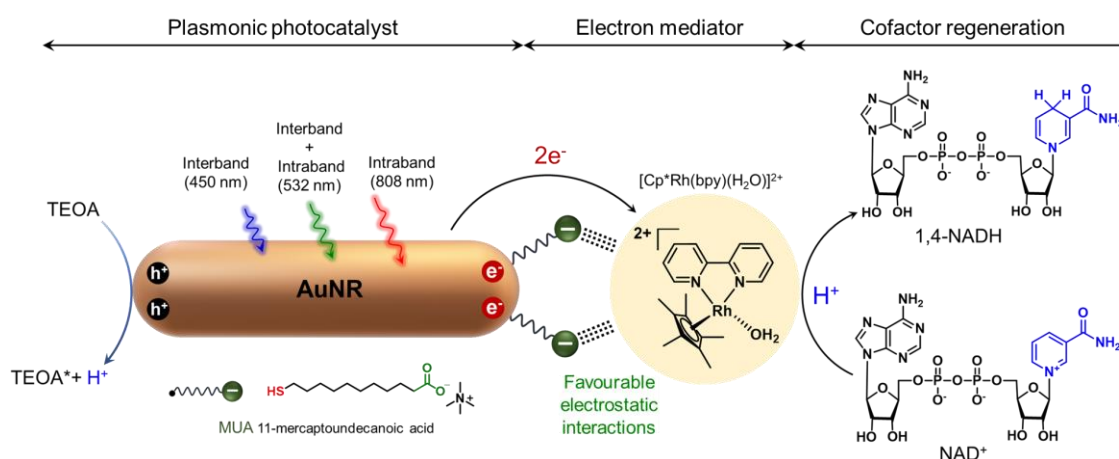


Figure 3.5. a) Schematics of the plasmon-driven Au@Ag core@shell NR synthesis. b) Evolution of longitudinal LSPR band of AuNRs under different light excitation conditions. Kinetics of Au@Ag core@shell NRs under longitudinal LSPR excitation at 730 nm were similar to the dark conditions, whereas a faster rate was observed under 532 nm excitation. c) Rate enhancement of Ag growth over AuNRs under 532 nm compared to dark as a function of time. A 10-fold enhancement was observed initially, which stabilizes to 3-fold over the course of reaction. d) Shifts in the LSPR position measured at single-particle level at polarizations parallel and orthogonal to laser polarization. A lack of angular dependency was clearly observed suggesting the isotropic distribution of charge carriers, characteristic of interband hot charge carriers. Reproduced with permission from reference 31. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.

The present work fills this gap by selecting the photoregeneration of nicotinamide cofactor (NADH) as the reaction of choice, which occurs only in the presence of both catalyst and light. Artificial regeneration of NADH from NAD⁺ is a two electron-one proton transfer (or hydride ion transfer) process that is being used as a model reaction to test several hypotheses in plasmonic photocatalysis.^{12,32-36} Along with this, NADH is a key cofactor required by a majority (~70 %) of oxidoreductase enzymes to carry out various biocatalytic reactions, thereby justifying the choice of the reaction from an applied perspective as well.^{37,38} Our selection of AuNRs to photocatalyze the regeneration of NADH cofactor satisfies the fundamental requirements that a catalyst-reactant system

should possess, to gain conclusive insights into the role of light excitations in plasmonic photocatalysis. A widely used electron mediator, $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$, was incorporated to enhance the charge transfer rate for a better comparison of the reaction yields under different excitations as well as to regenerate the enzymatically active 1,4-NADH (**Scheme 3.1**).³⁹⁻⁴¹ Moreover, the incorporation of a positively charged electron mediator allowed us to use electrostatic forces as a tool to install the concept of ‘*catalyst-reactant interaction*’ in our study.^{11,12,42} A favorable catalyst-reactant interaction will channelize the diffusion and increase the local concentration of the reactants close to the surface of the catalyst, thereby enhancing the possibility of the charge transfer process.^{11,12,42} Accordingly, the surface of the AuNRs was appropriately functionalized with negatively charged ligands to achieve electrostatic attraction with the positively charged electron mediator (**Scheme 3.1**). Detailed wavelength-dependent experiments showed that hot charge carriers generated through selective interband transitions (via excitation at ~450 nm) yielded the best photocatalytic regeneration of NADH cofactor, compared to selective intraband (via excitation at ~808 nm) and inter + intraband transitions (via excitation at ~532 nm). The light intensity was tuned in such a way that the interference from the photothermal effects, *if any*, was similar under each excitation, thereby ruling out the thermal effects in this wavelength-dependent study. An attractive yield of ~40 % was obtained upon illumination of AuNRs with ~450 nm excitation for ~12 h, with a turnover frequency (TOF) of $\sim 16.8 \times 10^3 \text{ AuNR}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. The incorporation of catalyst-reactant interaction, as well as the excitation of AuNR photocatalyst at a suitable wavelength, was the key to achieving a good conversion yield. In short, the appropriate selection of photocatalyst and reaction was crucial in conclusively proving the dominant role of charge carriers generated via interband transitions in photocatalyzing the NADH regeneration. Given the diversity of parameters involved in plasmonic photocatalysis, our study emphasizes the need for catalyst- and reaction-specific investigations to understand the role of each parameter in plasmon-powered processes. Such independent studies are essential for realizing the full potential of plasmonic materials in photocatalysis and other plasmon-powered processes.



Scheme 3.1. Schematics showing the photocatalytic regeneration of the NADH cofactor with $[-]$ AuNRs using $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ as an electron mediator and triethanolamine (TEOA) as a hole scavenger. The favorable electrostatic interaction between negatively charged AuNRs and a positively charged electron mediator facilitates an efficient electron transfer upon photoexcitation.

3.3. Experimental section

3.3.1. Synthesis of $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$

$[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ was synthesized using the literature procedure^{41,43} as follows: In a 30 mL glass vial equipped with a stir bar, 0.55 mmol of $\text{RhCl}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 3 mL isopropanol (IPA) were added and stirred till the solution became deep red in color. Following this, 0.69 mmol of Cp^* was added to the solution, and the vial was sealed with Teflon. The resulting mixture was heated at 85 °C for 1 h, resulting in the formation of a red-colored precipitate. The mixture was cooled down to room temperature and then kept at -20 °C for 5-6 h to allow complete precipitate formation. The precipitate was filtered and washed with cold IPA several times, followed by washing with *n*-pentane. The precipitate was dissolved in CHCl_3 , and the solvent was evaporated under vacuum. This was followed by washing with diethyl ether, and finally, the solid was dried under vacuum to yield $[\text{Cp}^*\text{RhCl}_2]_2$ dimer. The dimer was suspended in 5 mL of methanol, and 2.5 equivalents of 2,2'-bipyridyl (bpy) were added to it. A clear orangish-yellow solution was obtained upon bpy addition. Methanol was evaporated under vacuum to concentrate the solution to 1 mL, and $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})\text{Cl}]\text{Cl}$ was precipitated by the addition of diethyl ether. The final product was dried for 12 h at 40 °C under vacuum. The product was

characterized by ^1H -NMR spectroscopy (**Figure 3.12**). Since $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})\text{Cl}]\text{Cl}$ immediately hydrolyzes to form $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$, a stock solution of 10 mM was prepared in water and stored in the dark at 4 °C for further use.

3.3.2. Photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ to NADH

The photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ was carried out in a glass tube under continuous irradiation from tunable power CW diode lasers. The light intensity was measured with optical power meter from Newport (Model 842 PE) with a beam diameter of 1 cm for all different lasers. In a typical experiment, NAD^+ (1 mM), TEOA (1 M), and $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ (250 μM) were mixed in 50 mM phosphate buffer, and the pH of the solution was maintained at 8. AuNRs loaded paper-based catalyst strip was dipped in the reaction mixture, and purged with Ar for 30 min. The tube was sealed with Teflon, and the reaction mixture was kept under visible light irradiation for 12 h at room temperature. After 12 h, AuNRs-loaded paper strip was removed, and the photoregenerated NADH was quantified using UV-vis absorption spectroscopy.

3.3.3. Preparation of paper-based dip catalyst system

To prepare paper-based dip catalyst system, Whatman filter paper was cut into 2 cm x 1.2 cm strips. A mixture of [-] AuNRs ($\text{O.D.}_{\text{LSPR}} \sim 2$) was drop-casted in parts onto the paper strips, followed by drying with a dryer. The process was repeated thrice and kept for drying at 45 °C for at least 6 h before use. AuNRs loaded paper catalyst was characterized by UV-vis-NIR diffuse reflectance spectroscopy as well as scanning electron microscopy.

3.3.4. Yield calculation

Photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ to NADH can be monitored by UV-visible absorption spectroscopy, wherein the emergence of peak at 340 nm can be used to quantify the yield of NADH.^{37,40,41} Since $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ is present in the reaction mixture, the total absorbance at 340 nm cannot be taken into consideration for NADH quantification. Therefore, for all the experiments, a corrected spectrum was obtained by subtracting the absorption spectrum before light irradiation from the final absorption spectrum obtained

after 12 h light irradiation. Finally, the concentration of regenerated NADH was calculated using Beer-Lambert law:

$$C = \frac{A}{\epsilon l} \quad (1)$$

where C is the concentration of regenerated NADH, A is the absorbance at 340 nm in the corrected spectrum obtained, ϵ is the molar extinction coefficient of NADH ($6220 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$)³³ and l is the optical path length of 1 cm. The percentage yield was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{Product yield}(\%) = \frac{C_{\text{NADH}}}{C_{\text{NAD}^+}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where C_{NADH} is the concentration of regenerated NADH calculated from equation 1, C_{NAD^+} is the initial concentration of NAD^+ (1 mM) in the reaction mixture.

3.3.5. Calculation of turnover number (TON) and turnover frequency (TOF)

The turnover number (TON) for the photocatalytic reaction was defined as the number of molecules of NADH regenerated per AuNR for the given irradiation time. The total number of AuNRs was calculated from Beer-Lambert's law. The absorbance of AuNRs at the longitudinal surface plasmon band was set to be ~ 2 , and the extinction coefficient of $1.02 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ was used for the calculation of the number of AuNRs.⁴⁴ Since the exact volume of AuNRs is drop-casted onto the paper strip, the number of AuNRs on the paper substrate can be considered the same as obtained by Beer-Lambert's law. From the above calculation, the total number of AuNRs was calculated to be 3.54×10^{12} . The turnover frequency (TOF) was defined as the number of molecules of NADH regenerated per AuNR per unit time of irradiation. The TOF was calculated by dividing TON by the total time of irradiation in h.

3.4. Results and discussion

3.4.1. AuNR photocatalyzed NADH photoregeneration

Gold nanorods functionalized with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB, [+]
AuNRs), having an aspect ratio of ~ 4 , were prepared using a seed-mediated method.⁴⁵

The CTAB ligands on [+] AuNRs were then place-exchanged with negatively charged MUA ligands to install the favorable electrostatic interaction between [-] AuNRs and $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ (**Scheme 3.1**). The UV-vis-NIR absorption characteristics of AuNRs were well-retained after the place-exchange with [-] ligands (**Figure 3.6a**). A shift in the zeta potential value from $+40.9 \pm 0.3$ mV to -45.3 ± 0.2 mV confirms the successful functionalization of MUA ligands on the surface of [-] AuNRs (**Figure 3.6b**). SEM image proves the structural uniformity of AuNRs, with an average length of 43.2 ± 6.6 nm and width of 10.8 ± 1.8 nm (**Figures 3.6c, 3.13**). AuNRs with these dimensions were chosen in the present study to achieve a selective excitation of interband and intraband transitions. Specifically, the selective intraband transition can be achieved at the longitudinal LSPR band at ~ 795 nm by irradiating with an 808 nm laser, whereas the selective interband transition can be achieved with a 450 nm laser irradiation. It is to be noted that the threshold energy for the interband transitions in Au is ~ 2.1 eV (~ 590 nm),^{10,27,28} which ensures a negligible interference between interband and intraband transitions at 808 nm laser irradiation. Further, the light illumination at the transverse LSPR band at ~ 510 nm with a 532 nm laser will result in both interband and intraband transitions.

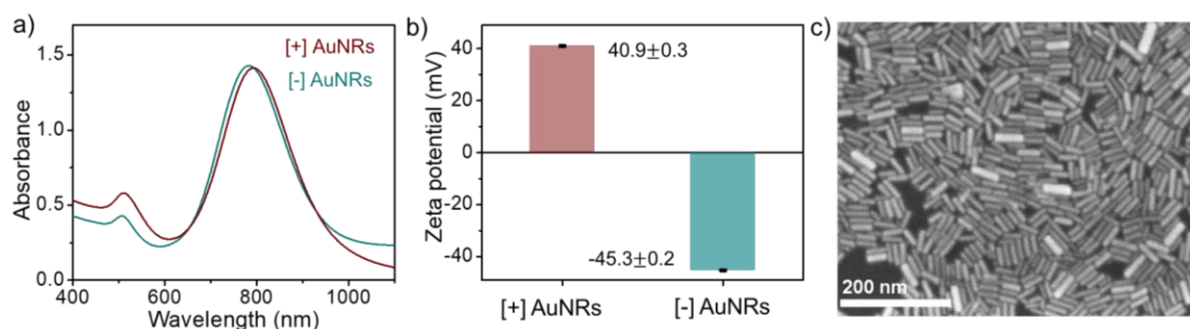


Figure 3.6. a) UV-Vis-NIR absorption, and b) zeta potential measurements of CTAB-stabilized [+] AuNRs and MUA functionalized [-] AuNRs. c) Representative SEM image proves the size and shape uniformity of [-] AuNRs.

To begin with, the role of hot charge carriers generated via the interband transition was tested in the photocatalytic regeneration of NADH cofactor. [-] AuNRs were used as the sole photocatalyst in the presence of $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ electron mediator, with triethanolamine (TEOA) as the hole scavenger, under continuous irradiation with 450 nm CW diode laser for 12 h (the total light intensity measured at the test tube wall was ~ 700

mW cm⁻², **Scheme 3.1**). The photocatalytic conversion of NAD⁺ to NADH by [-] AuNRs was monitored through UV-vis spectroscopy, by following the absorption of NADH at ~340 nm.^{12,37,41} A paper-based dip catalyst system was employed in the present study to overcome the issue of colloidal stability of [-] AuNRs in a photocatalytic reaction mixture (**Figure 3.14**). Here, [-] AuNRs were dropcast and dried on a Whatman filter paper substrate. [-] AuNRs loaded paper substrate was characterized with UV-Vis-NIR diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, where the presence of both transverse and longitudinal LSPR bands was observed (**Figure 3.7a**). Also, the optical photograph and SEM images confirm the successful adsorption of AuNRs on the paper substrate (**Figure 3.7b**). The adsorption of AuNRs on filter paper takes place through strong van der Waals and hydrophobic interactions between the metal nanoparticles and the cellulose fibers.⁴⁶

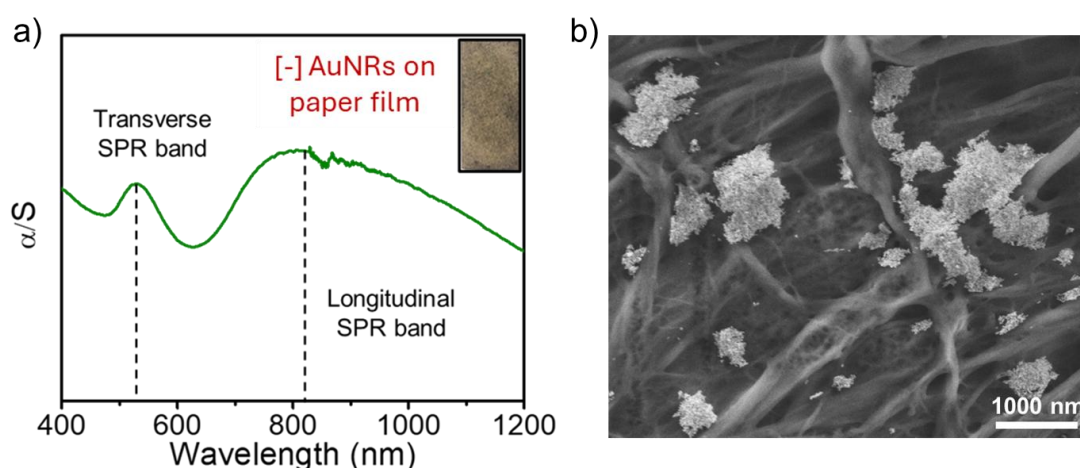


Figure 3.7. a) Vis-NIR diffuse reflectance spectrum of [-] AuNRs loaded on the filter paper, clearly showing the presence of both transverse and longitudinal LSPR bands. The inset shows the optical photograph of the [-] AuNRs loaded paper dip catalyst film. b) Representative SEM image of [-] AuNRs loaded on paper film.

Control experiments prove that both NAD⁺ (reactant) and [Cp^{*}Rh(bpy)(H₂O)]²⁺ were stable under prolonged light irradiation at 700 mW cm⁻² (**Figure 3.15**). No noticeable changes were observed in the UV-Vis absorption of the reaction mixture in the presence of [-] AuNRs, in the dark (**Figure 3.16**). Interestingly, a strong absorption at ~340 nm was observed upon 12 h irradiation with 450 nm CW laser in the presence of [-] AuNRs, confirming the photoregeneration of NADH (**Figures 3.8a,b**). The yield of the photoregenerated NADH was estimated to be ~38 %. It is worth mentioning that a poor to low yield is often reported in the literature during the plasmonically driven

photoregeneration of NADH cofactors by gold nanomaterials,^{12,32,34,36} because of the poor charge separation and utilization steps. One of the main reasons for the decent yield obtained in the present study can be attributed to the favorable electrostatic interaction between the [-] AuNRs and [+] $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$, leading to the channeling and increase in the local concentration of the electron mediators close to the surface of the catalyst. This, in turn, enhances the probability of the charge transfer process from the photocatalyst to the electron mediator. The exclusive role of this favorable electrostatic interaction was proved by performing the photocatalytic reaction with CTAB [+] AuNRs, under the same reaction conditions, wherein the yield of NADH photoregeneration was found to be merely ~12 % (**Figures 3.8c, 3.17**). An additional experiment was performed with AuNRs functionalized with N, N, N-trimethyl-(11-mercaptoundecyl)-ammonium chloride (TMA) ligand. It is to be noted that both TMA and MUA ligands are similar in length with thiol as the binding group, and differ only in the terminal head functional group ($-\text{COO}^-$ and $-\text{NMe}_3^+$ in MUA and TMA, respectively). The yield of NADH photoregeneration was only ~13 % (**Figure 3.18**) when positively charged TMA-AuNR was used as the photocatalyst. This again proves the dominant role of favorable electrostatic interaction between [-] AuNRs and $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$. Thus, it can be concluded that ligands on AuNR surface mediate charge transfer by precisely regulating electrostatics between the catalyst and the reactants. The change in surface ligands predominantly affects the kinetics and not the reaction mechanism.

3.4.2. Confirming the role of hot charge carriers

A series of control experiments were performed to identify the dominant relaxation pathway in the photoregeneration of NADH cofactor by [-] AuNRs (**Figures 3.8c, 3.16**). Separate experiments performed in the absence of light, electron mediator, [-] AuNRs, and TEOA (hole scavenger) prove that the reaction follows the light-dependent pathway and proceeds via the participation of hot charge carriers. Moreover, the intensity dependence of NADH regeneration also validates the dominating role of hot-charge carriers under our reaction conditions (**Figures 3.8d, 3.19, 3.20**). A superlinear increase in NADH yield was observed as a function of light intensity, which is a characteristic of a multielectron transfer process (**Figure 3.8d**).^{10,47} This was explained by constructing

$RT\ln\text{TOF}$ vs light intensity plot in accordance with the heuristic model developed by Jain and co-workers (**Figure 3. 21**).⁴⁷ According to this model, charge carriers generated upon plasmon excitation contribute to the free energy of the overall reaction rate, which in turn is dependent on light intensity as in **eq. 3.1**.

$$RT\ln\frac{R_f}{R_b} = -\Delta G_{dark} + \frac{z E_{ib} \sigma \eta_{ib} I}{h\nu k_{nr}} \quad (3.1)$$

where, ΔG_{dark} is the free energy of the reaction under dark, where the probability of electron-hole generation will be negligible due to the high magnitude of interband energy gap (E_{ib}) compared to the thermal energy. R_f and R_b are the forward and backward reaction rates respectively, z is the no. of e^-h^+ pairs involved in the reaction, E_{ib} is the interband energy gap, σ is the absorption cross-section of NP, η_{ib} is the efficiency of conversion of plasmon excitation, I is the intensity of light and k_{nr} is the rate of recombination. According to **eq. 3.1**, the rate of a photochemical reaction is exponentially dependent on the intensity of light. The $RT\ln\text{TOF}$ vs. light intensity plot was constructed by calculating the TOF obtained from the intensity-dependent experiments, and T was the bulk temperature of the reaction mixture as measured to be 315, 314, 312, and 310 K at 700, 600, 500, and 400 mW cm^{-2} light intensity, respectively. In our study, a linear dependence of $RT\ln\text{TOF}$ on light intensity confirms the active participation of photoexcited hot charge carriers in the regeneration of NADH (**Figure 3.21**).

As discussed earlier, irradiating the ensemble of plasmonic NPs can result in both localized and collective heating effects, which can also contribute to the observed reaction rate. Under the laser intensities used in our reaction, the calculated local increase in temperature at a single AuNR is negligible with ΔT_{local} of ~ 0.35 mK (see Appendix). Such a small increase in the local temperature of AuNRs is insufficient to drive the reduction of NAD^+ in a high yield of ~ 40 %. However, a large number of AuNRs under illumination can result in collective photothermal effects, which can increase the overall temperature by tens of Kelvin. It is worth mentioning that the temperature of the reaction medium rose to ~ 42 °C after 12 h of irradiation, in the presence of [-] AuNRs. To test the role of photothermal effects, a control experiment was performed in the dark at an elevated temperature of ~ 50 °C in the presence of [-] AuNRs. A low yield of ~ 7 %

confirmed that photothermal effects do not dominate the photoregeneration of NADH by [-] AuNRs (**Figures 3.8c, 3.22**). Thus, it can be confirmed that under our reaction conditions, the photoregeneration of the NADH cofactor is predominantly carried out by photoexcited charge carriers.

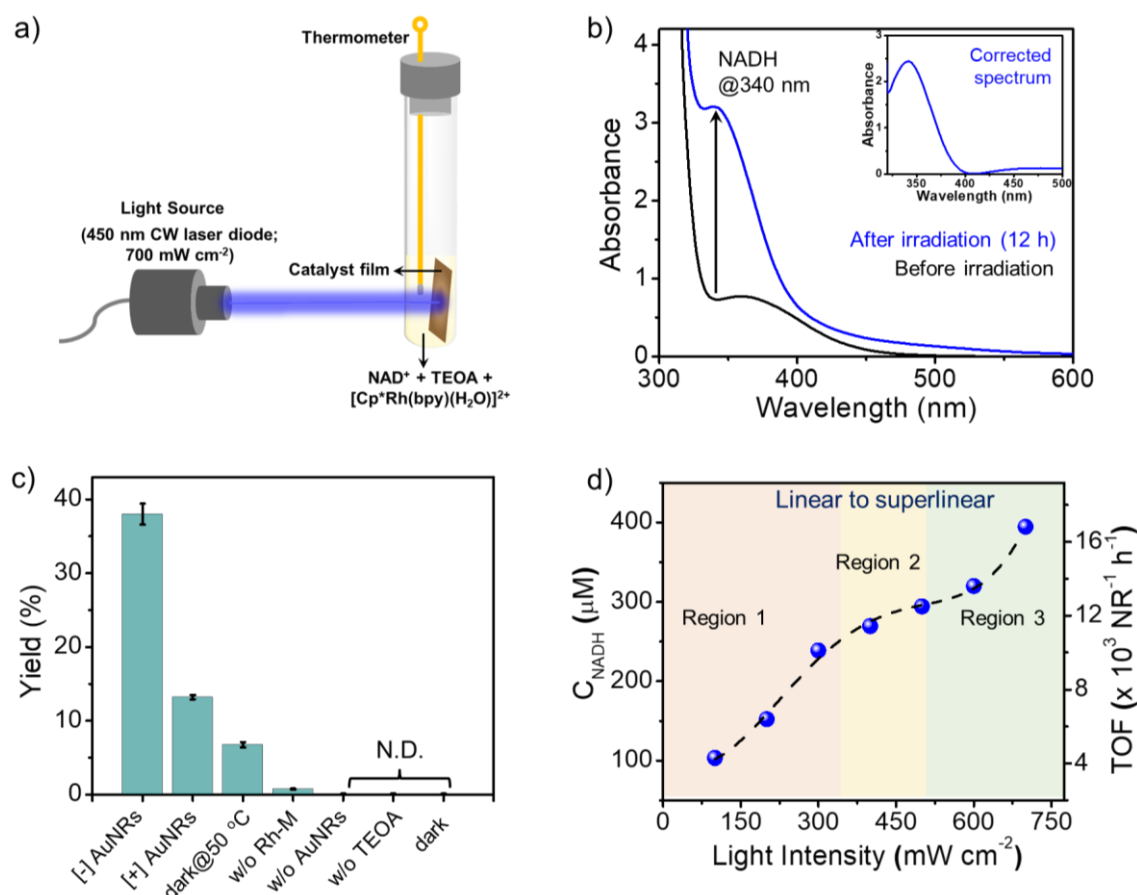


Figure 3.8. Photocatalytic regeneration of NADH cofactor with [-] AuNRs. a) A schematic representation of the photocatalytic reaction setup. b) UV-Vis absorption changes in the reaction mixture before and after 12 h light irradiation (450 nm, 700 mW cm⁻²). The inset shows the corrected spectrum obtained after subtracting the initial absorption spectrum from the spectrum obtained after 12 h light irradiation. c) Bar diagram showing the photocatalytic activity of AuNRs under different control experiments obtained from the corrected spectrum, and d) variation in photoregenerated NADH as a function of light intensity. The dashed lines are in place to show the light intensity dependence of NADH regeneration. C_{NADH} increases superlinearly from a threshold intensity of 400 mW cm⁻².

3.4.3. Role of light excitation attributes

The role of light excitation pathways in the photoregeneration of NADH was investigated by performing detailed wavelength-dependent studies. As mentioned earlier, the plasmon dephasing results in two types of electronic transitions in Au

nanomaterials - '*d-sp*' interband transitions, and '*sp-sp*' intraband transitions. Since the threshold energy for interband transition is ~ 2.1 eV (~ 590 nm),^{9,27,28} irradiation at the longitudinal LSPR band of AuNRs (~ 795 nm) will selectively result in intraband transitions. Likewise, irradiating with higher energy photons of ~ 2.75 eV (~ 450 nm) will result in selective interband transitions. Therefore, a wavelength-dependent study should provide conclusive proof of the contribution of hot charge carriers generated under each excitation in the photoregeneration of NADH cofactor by [-] AuNRs. In one set of experiments, the power absorbed was normalized under different illumination wavelengths (450 nm, 532 nm, and 808 nm) at ~ 550 mW (**Table 3.1**). The photoregeneration of NADH was strongly dependent on the irradiation wavelength, where the absorbance at 340 nm increased with an increase in photon energy (**Figures 3.9a, 3.23**). Irradiation with 450 nm resulted in ~ 38 % regeneration of NADH, followed by ~ 15 % with 532 nm, and ~ 8 % with 808 nm (**Figure 3.9b**). A similar trend was observed when the reaction was carried out by keeping the incident light intensity similar at ~ 700 mW cm⁻² (**Figures 3.9b, 3.24**). Here again, the NADH yield was highest at 450 nm irradiation (~ 35 %), followed by 532 nm (~ 18 %) and 808 nm (~ 13 %).

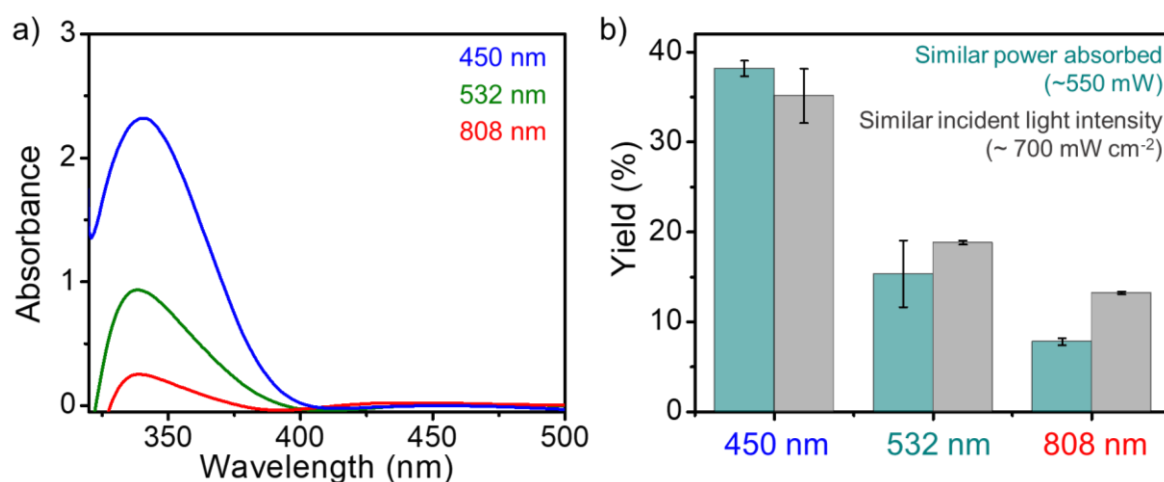


Figure 3.9. Wavelength-dependence of photoregenerated NADH with [-] AuNRs. a) Corrected absorption spectra of the reaction mixture irradiated for 12 h with different wavelengths, keeping the power absorbed by the reaction mixture similar (~ 550 mW). b) Bar diagram comparing the yield of photoregenerated NADH under different wavelengths, keeping the power absorbed similar (cyan-colored bars) and incident light intensity similar (grey-colored bars).

Another condition to perform the wavelength-dependent study involves keeping the photon flux (no. of photons falling per unit area per unit time) constant under all

irradiation wavelengths. In our study, the photon flux was different under both normalization conditions. However, the calculations reveal that the photon flux under 532 nm and 808 nm light irradiation is higher than at 450 nm under both the normalization conditions (**Table 3.2**); yet, the yield of NADH photoregeneration was highest under 450 nm excitation (**Figure 3.9b**). Thus, it can be concluded that the photoregeneration of NADH by [-] AuNRs is dominated by the hot charge carriers generated by interband transitions. This is further supported by the first-principles calculations performed by Atwater and coworkers, which predict that the generation of hot charge carriers via interband transitions will dominate over resistive losses in Au nanomaterials whenever the excitations above the threshold energy of 2.1 eV are possible.²⁸

Apart from the involvement of interband charge carriers, the photothermal effects and plasmon-enhanced adsorbate excitation pathway can also contribute to the photoregeneration of NADH. The contribution from the photothermal effects will be predominant at the irradiation wavelengths close to the SPR bands of AuNRs (808 and 532 nm).^{17,48} The superior photoregeneration of NADH at 450 nm excitation, along with the poor yield obtained in the thermal reaction under dark (**Figure 3.22**), clearly rules out the contribution from the photothermal effects. Plasmon-enhanced adsorbate excitation pathway is known to dominate when the plasmon resonance or excitation wavelength spectrally overlaps with the electronic transition energy of the molecules adsorbed on the NP photocatalyst.^{18,19} As seen in **Figure 3.10**, there is a negligible spectral overlap between the electronic transition energy of NAD⁺ and the plasmon resonances/ excitation wavelengths used in the study. It is possible that the modified energy levels of NAD⁺, after adsorption, may have overlap with the excitation wavelengths used in the study (especially with 450 nm and 532 nm excitations). However, the NADH regeneration occurs by the interaction of NAD⁺ with [Cp*Rh(bpy)(H₂O)]²⁺ and not directly with AuNRs (**Scheme 3.1**). Thus, NAD⁺ is not directly adsorbed on the surface of AuNR photocatalysts, and the change in the electronic levels may not be significant. In this regard, the difference in the NADH yields obtained under 450 nm (~38 %) and 532 nm (~18 %) excitations cannot be attributed solely to the plasmon-enhanced adsorbate excitation pathway. Nevertheless, the contribution from

the plasmon-enhanced adsorbate electronic excitation pathway cannot be completely overruled. A separate study, presumably with adequate theoretical support, will be required to deconvolute the contributions of different pathways. Having said that, the experiments in the presence and absence of the hole scavenger, intensity-dependent studies, and thermal reaction under dark conclusively prove the dominant role of hot charge carriers in the photoregeneration of NADH cofactor.

Table 3.1. Total power absorbed in the reaction mixture at different illumination wavelengths.

Excitation wavelength (nm)	Incident light power (mW)	Transmitted light power (mW)	Total power absorbed (mW)
450	710	162	548
532	740	188	552
808	558	5	553

Table 3.2. Calculated photon flux under different irradiation conditions for NADH photoregeneration.

Light excitation attributes	Photon Flux (no. of photons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)		
	450 nm	532 nm	808 nm
Constant power absorbed (550 mW)	1.6×10^{18}	2.0×10^{18}	2.3×10^{18}
Constant light intensity (700 mW cm^{-2})	1.6×10^{18}	1.9×10^{18}	2.8×10^{18}

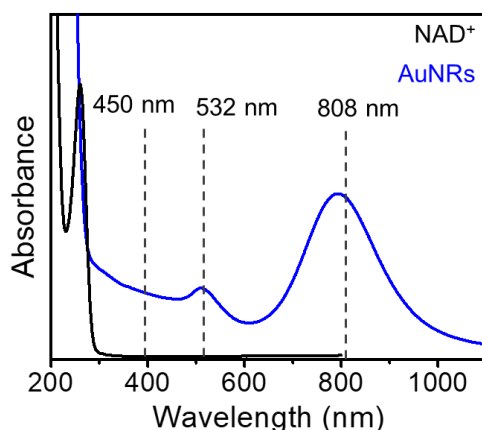


Figure 3.10. UV-Vis-NIR absorption spectra of AuNRs and NAD^+ , showing negligible overlap between the electronic transition energy of NAD^+ and different excitation wavelengths used in the study (450 nm, 532 nm, and 808 nm).

Finally, a probable mechanism for the transfer of hot charge carriers generated via interband and intraband transitions is discussed. The photoregeneration of NADH by [-] AuNRs involves the oxidation of TEOA (by abstracting the holes from the photocatalyst) and reduction of $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ (by accepting the electrons from the photocatalyst). The electron mediator further takes up the H^+ ions from the oxidized TEOA to reduce NAD^+ to NADH. The energy and population of photogenerated charge carriers in [-] AuNRs will depend on the type of electronic transitions.^{27,28,49} The dephasing of hot charge carriers in metal nanoparticles is completed within a time frame of ~ 100 fs - 1 ps,^{2,5,6} resulting in the formation of thermalized charge carriers – referred to as the steady state condition. In the case of intraband transitions (at 808 nm excitation), photoexcited charge carriers reside close to the Fermi level of Au ($E_{F,\text{Au}} = -5.10$ eV)¹⁰ at the steady-state condition.^{50,51} Now, the probability of hot electron transfer to the electron mediator will be limited because of the mismatch in the energy levels between the two (redox potential of $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ is -4.34 eV).³⁸ On the other hand, the TEOA has high oxidizing power (-3.40 eV)^{38,52} to scavenge the holes generated in the ‘sp’ band. This results in the accumulation of hot electrons above the Fermi energy level (photocharging),^{29,53,54} which could attain sufficient energy to participate in an electron transfer process with the electron mediator. The outcome of the above two competing steps results in an inefficient transfer of hot electrons to the electron mediator, leading to the low yield of NADH regeneration at 808 nm excitation. On the contrary, the fate of

the photoexcited charge carriers is different when generated via the interband transitions (at 450 nm excitation). Here, the hot electrons and hot holes are formed in the *sp* and *d*-band, respectively, which increases the lifetime of the charge-separated pairs to ~ 1 ps.^{10,29,55} This means that the hot holes have more energy than the hot electrons, as the former reside deep in the *d*-band. The highly energetic holes in the *d*-band are efficiently scavenged by the TEOA. This results in the higher accumulation of hot electrons at a steady state condition (photocharging), when compared to 808 nm excitation. Consequently, there is a buildup of excess potential that raises the Fermi energy level (E_F') and enhances the probability of electron transfer from AuNRs to $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ (Figure 3.11). Thus, it can be concluded that the photoregeneration of NADH by $[-]$ AuNRs is limited by the hole scavenging step, which was further evident from the negligible progress of the reaction in the absence of a hole scavenger.

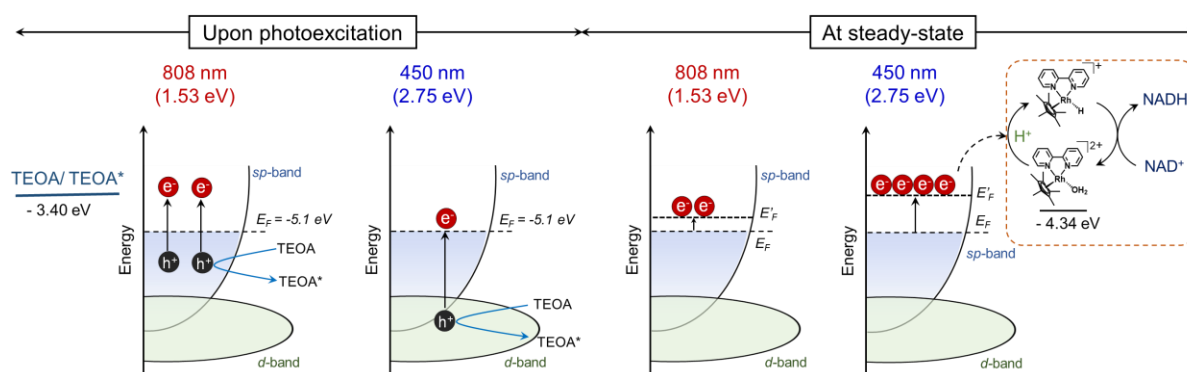


Figure 3.11. Energy level diagram and possible mechanism for the observed difference in the NADH regenerated under intraband and interband excitations, with AuNRs as the sole photocatalyst, TEOA as the hole scavenger, and $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ as the electron mediator. The higher oxidation potential of TEOA aids in faster hole extraction from AuNRs, resulting in the accumulation of electrons above the Fermi energy level (photocharging). The extent of electron accumulation depends on the energy as well as the lifetime of the photoexcited charge carriers.

3.5. Conclusions

The effect of different light excitations on plasmon-catalyzed photoregeneration of NADH cofactors was investigated. The choice of anisotropic AuNRs as the plasmonic photocatalyst allowed us to achieve the selective excitation of interband and intraband transitions in the present study. Detailed photocatalytic studies confirm the active role of hot charge carriers in the efficient photoregeneration of NADH by AuNRs. The hot

charge carriers generated through selective interband transitions (via excitation at ~450 nm) gave the maximum photocatalytic regeneration of NADH cofactor, compared to selective intraband (via excitation at ~808 nm) and inter + intraband transitions (via excitation at ~532 nm). Higher energy and longer lifetime of hot charge carriers generated from interband transitions were reasoned to the trend observed in the NADH yield during the wavelength-dependent study. Moreover, the hole scavenging process was identified as the limiting step in the photoregeneration of NADH by AuNRs. Light excitation is one of the main parameters that can influence the product yield, which should always be analyzed to get a better insight into the contribution of various relaxation pathways in plasmonic photocatalysis. Given the diversity of parameters involved in plasmonic photocatalysis, our study emphasizes the need for catalyst- and reactant-specific investigations for understanding the roles of each parameter in plasmon-powered processes.

3.6. References

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3.7. Appendix

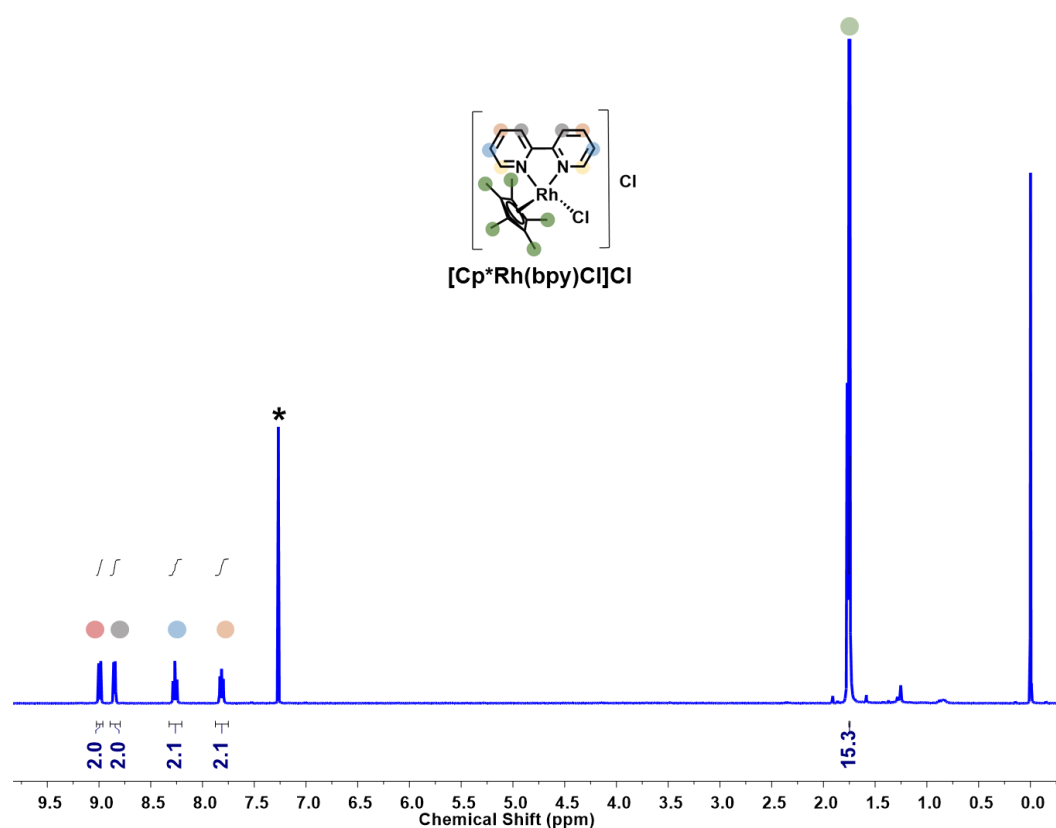


Figure 3.12. ^1H -NMR spectrum of $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})\text{Cl}]\text{Cl}$. ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): δ (ppm) 8.9 (2H, d), 8.85 (2H, d), 8.26 (2H, t), 7.81 (2H, t), 1.75 (15H, s). Solvent peaks are marked with *.

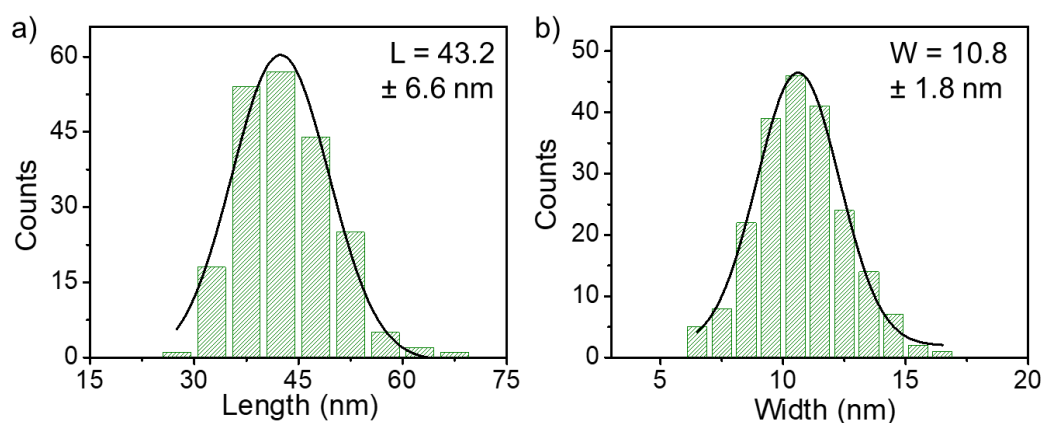


Figure 3.13. Size distribution histogram for a) lengths and b) widths of AuNRs calculated from scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images. The average length and width of AuNRs were calculated to be $43.2 \pm 6.6 \text{ nm}$ and $10.8 \pm 1.8 \text{ nm}$, respectively, from ~ 200 NRs.

Stability of colloidal [-] AuNRs in the photocatalytic reaction mixture

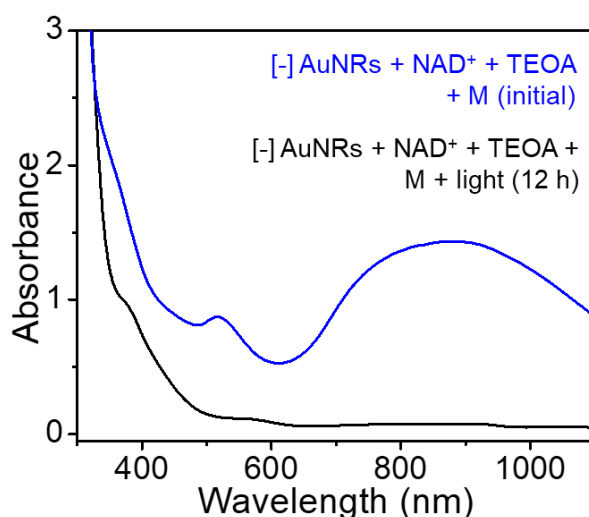


Figure 3.14. UV-Vis-NIR absorption of the reaction mixture consisting of [-] AuNRs in solution system before and after 450 nm light irradiation (laser power $\sim 700 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) for 12 h. [-] AuNRs aggregated in the reaction mixture and a complete loss in colloidal stability was observed after prolonged light irradiation.

Control experiments

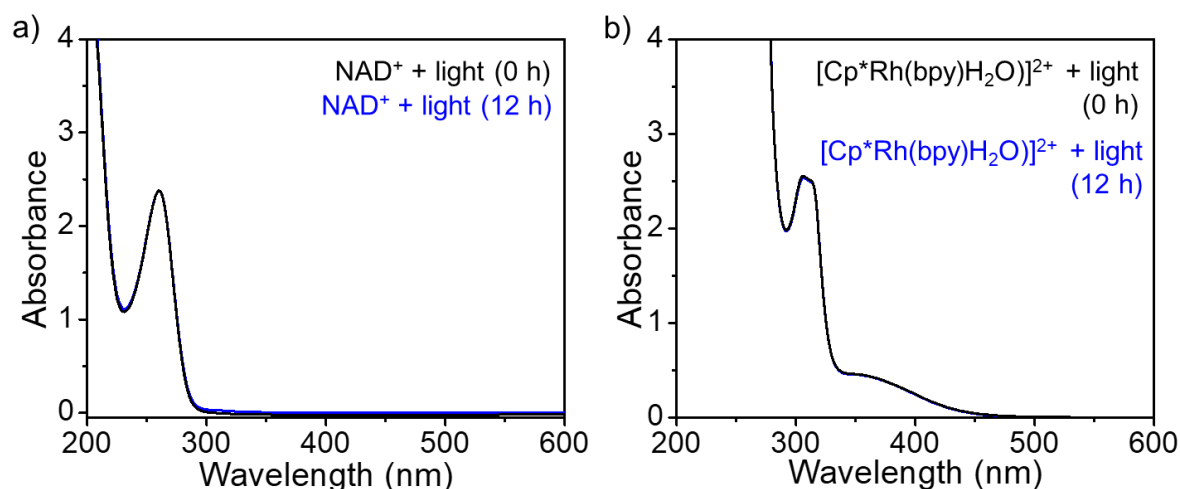


Figure 3.15. Photostability of a) NAD^+ and b) $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ under 450 nm light irradiation (laser power $\sim 700 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) for 12 h.

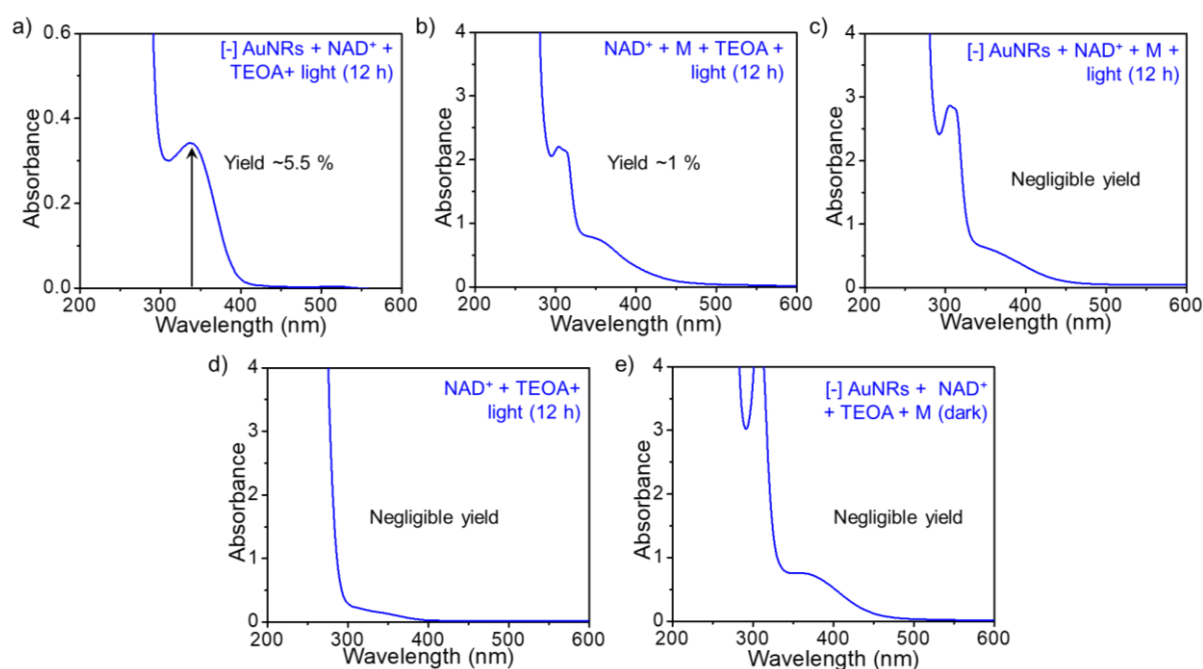


Figure 3.16. Photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ under different control reaction conditions. UV-vis absorption of the reaction mixture in the absence of a) $\text{M} = [\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$, b) $[-] \text{AuNRs}$, c) TEOA (hole scavenger), d) $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{bpy})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ and $[-] \text{AuNRs}$, and e) light for 12 h reaction time. All the light reactions were carried out with 450 nm CW laser diode at 700 mW cm^{-2} intensity.

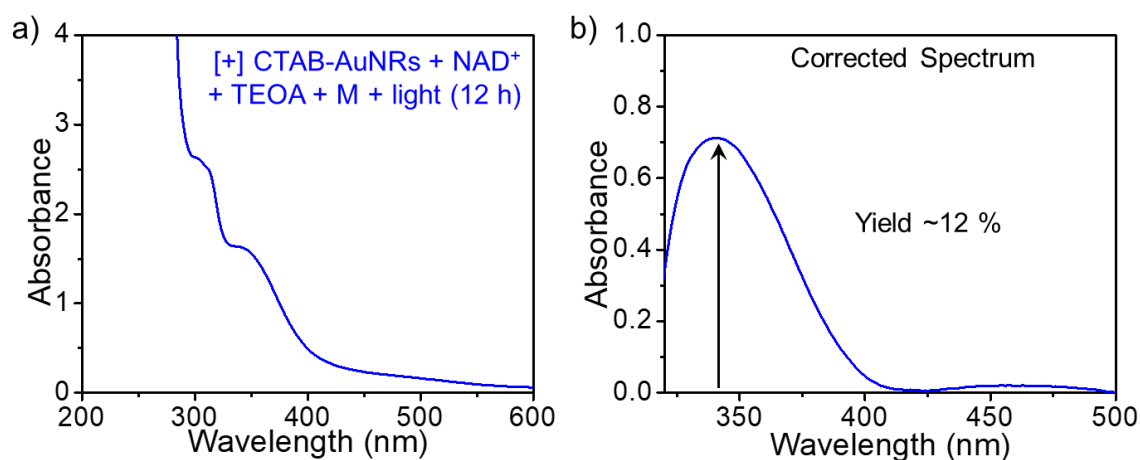
Role of electrostatic interactions emanating from surface ligands on AuNRs

Figure 3.17. Effect of AuNR surface charge on photocatalytic NADH regeneration. UV-visible absorption of reaction mixture after 450 nm light irradiation (laser power $\sim 700 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) for 12 h in presence of [+] CTAB-AuNRs (unfavorable interactions).

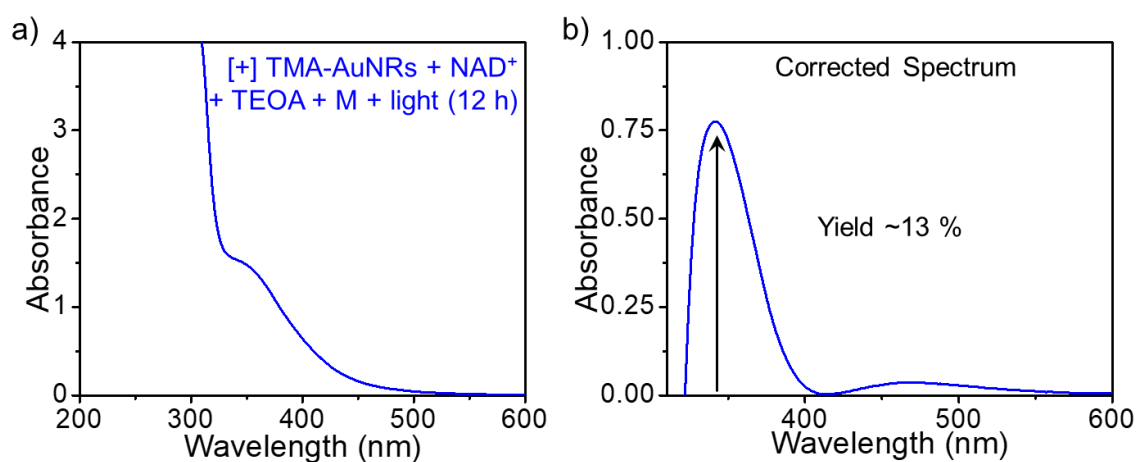


Figure 3.18. Effect of AuNR surface charge on photocatalytic NADH regeneration. UV-visible absorption of reaction mixture after 450 nm light irradiation (laser power $\sim 700 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) for 12 h in presence of [+] TMA-AuNRs (unfavorable interactions).

Intensity-dependent study

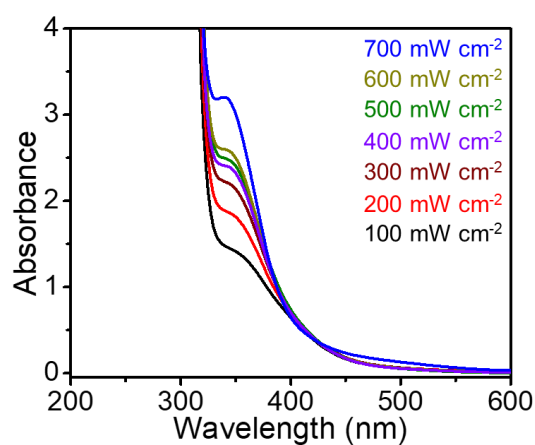


Figure 3.19. Intensity-dependent catalytic reduction of NAD^+ with [-] AuNRs. Progress of photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ under 450 nm CW laser irradiation for 12 h, with [-] AuNRs at seven different illumination intensities.

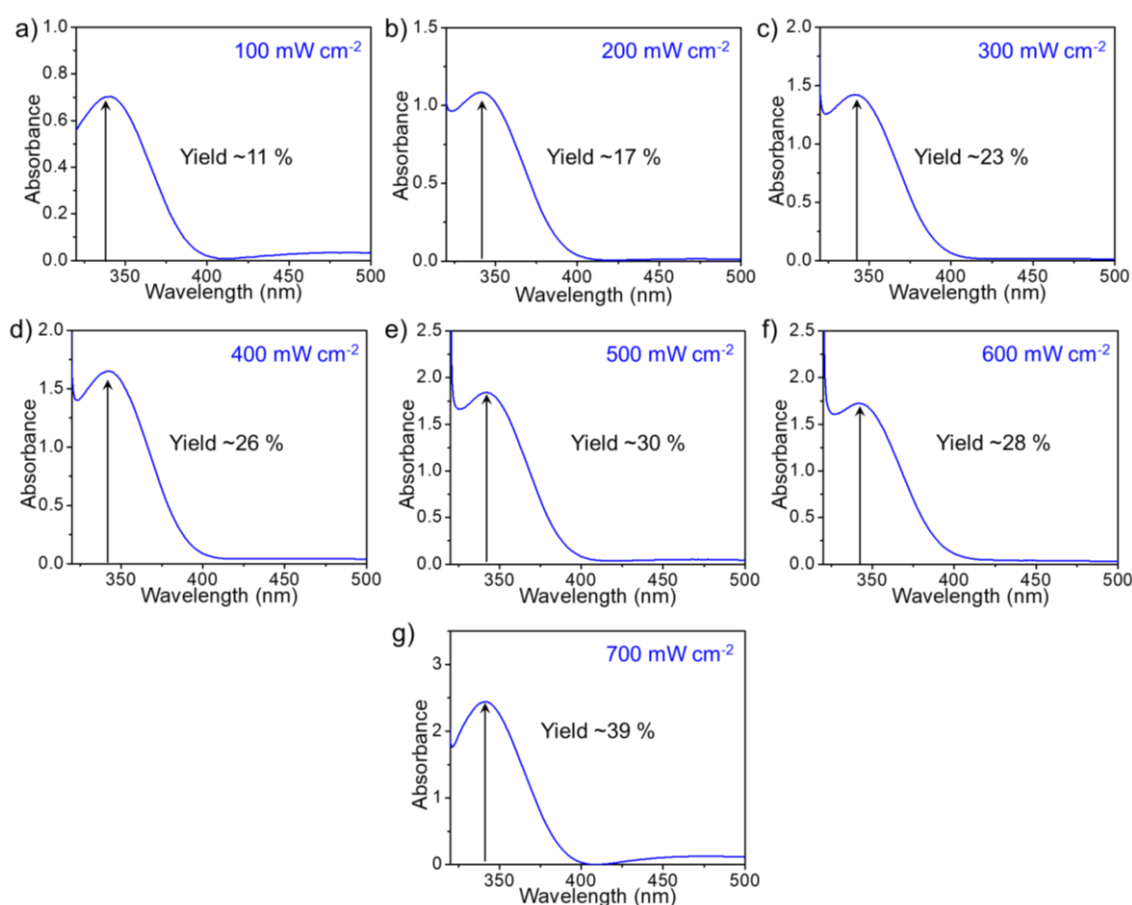


Figure 3.20. Corrected spectra of the reaction mixture after 12 h light irradiation with 450 nm CW laser at a) 100 mW cm^{-2} , b) 200 mW cm^{-2} , c) 300 mW cm^{-2} , d) 400 mW cm^{-2} , e) 500 mW cm^{-2} , f) 600 mW cm^{-2} , and g) 700 mW cm^{-2} .

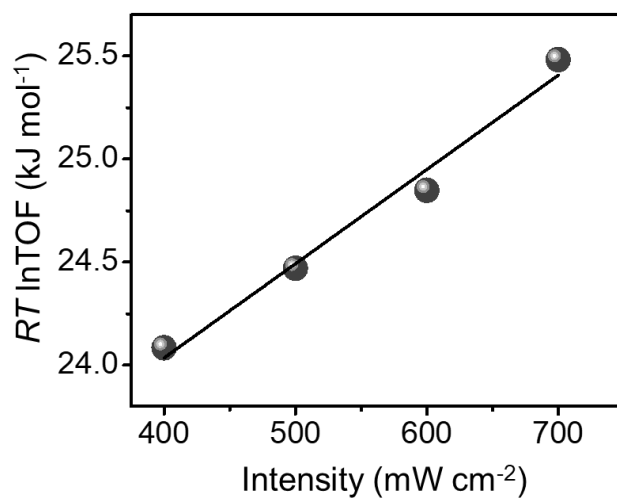


Figure 3.21. The linearized first-order fit for the variation in $RT \ln \text{TOF}$, as a function of light intensity.

Photocatalytic reaction at elevated temperature in dark

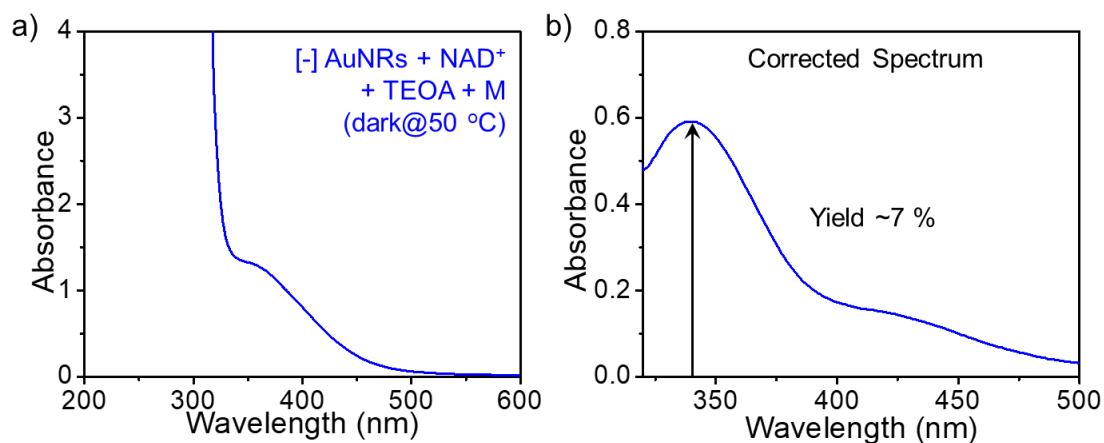


Figure 3.22. Photocatalytic reduction of NAD^+ under external heating condition at 50 °C. a) UV-visible absorption of reaction mixture heated at 50 °C in absence of light after 12 h, and b) the corresponding corrected absorption spectrum.

Wavelength-dependent study

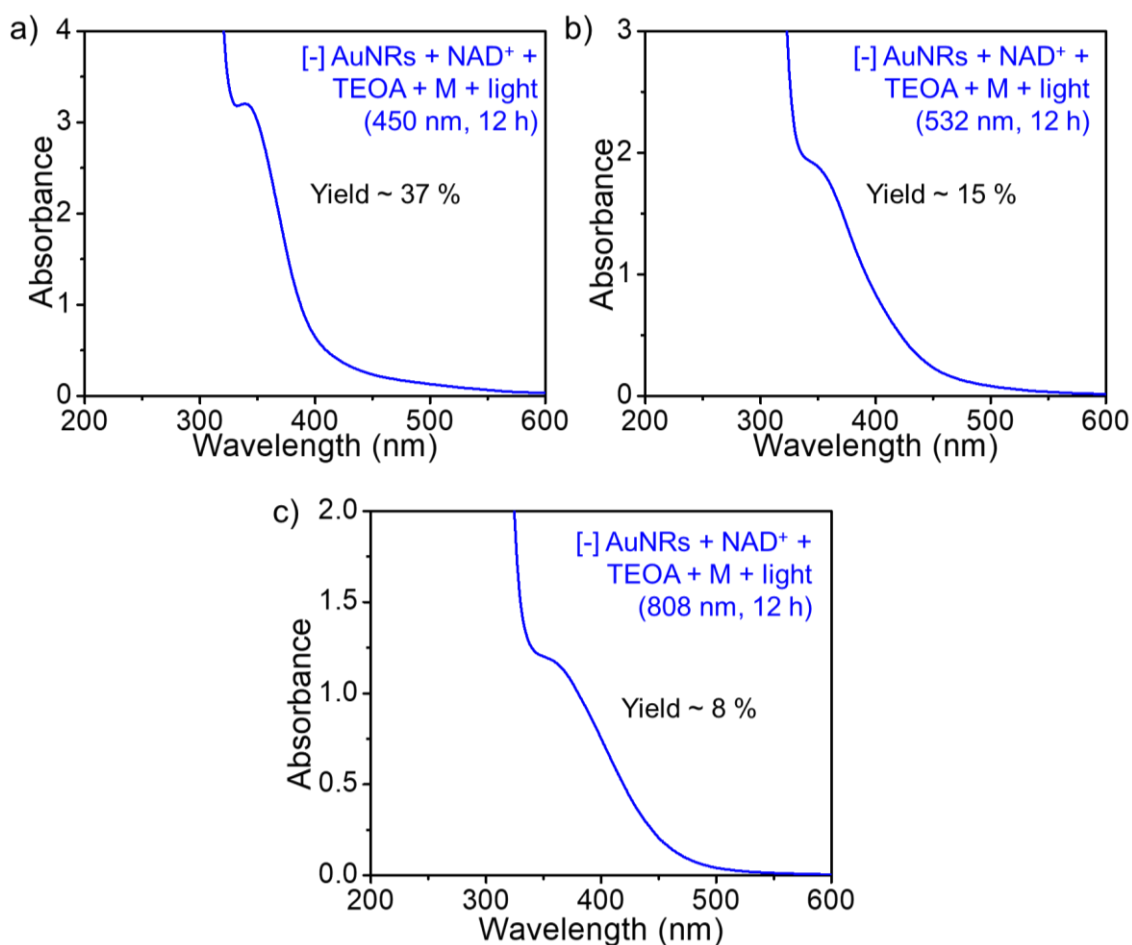


Figure 3.23. Photocatalytic reduction of NAD⁺ under different excitation wavelengths with similar power absorbed (~550 mW) in the reaction mixture. Progress of the photocatalytic reduction of NAD⁺ with [-] AuNRs under a) 450 nm, b) 532 nm, and c) 808 nm CW laser irradiation for 12 h.

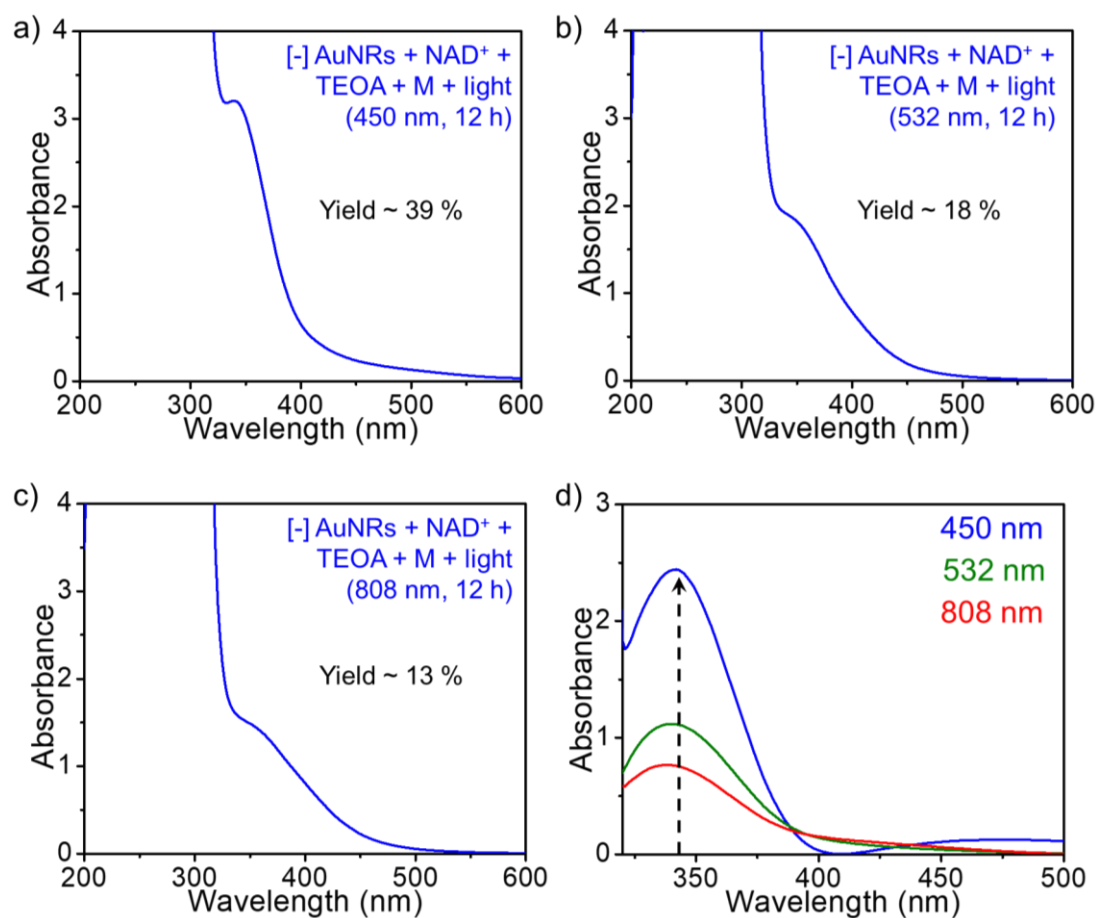
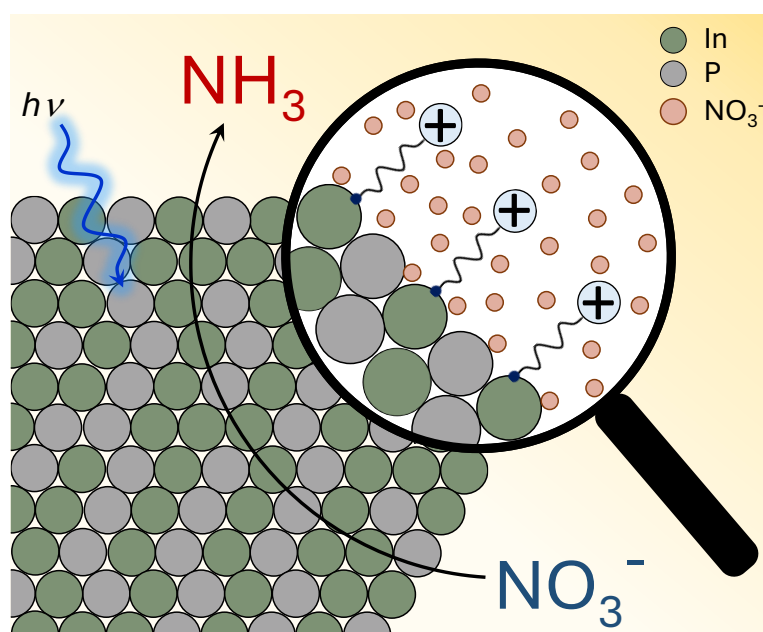


Figure 3.24. Photocatalytic reduction of NAD⁺ under different excitation wavelengths with similar incident light intensity ($\sim 700 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$). Progress of the photocatalytic reduction of NAD⁺ with [-] AuNRs under a) 450 nm, b) 532 nm, and c) 808 nm CW laser irradiation for 12 h. d) The corresponding corrected spectra.

Chapter – 4a

Design Principles for the Development of Efficient Photocatalyst for Ammonia Synthesis



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Jain, V.; Tyagi, S.; Roy, P.; Pillai, P. P. Ammonia Synthesis with Visible Light and Quantum Dots. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2024**, 146, 32356-32365.

4a.1. Abstract

Ammonia serves as a carbon-free energy source and a key ingredient of synthetic nitrogenous fertilizers, with a major proportion of it being produced via the industrial Haber-Bosch process. The large carbon footprint associated with the energy-intensive Haber-Bosch process calls for developing greener and sustainable alternatives for ammonia synthesis. Light-assisted synthesis of ammonia from nitrate and nitrite sources is a potential avenue for a sustainable ammonia economy. However, poor selectivity and the need for UV-active photocatalysts are the current bottlenecks in ammonia synthesis from nitrate and nitrite sources. Herein, we introduce a selective visible-light-driven ammonia production from nitrate and nitrite ions with indium phosphide quantum dots (InP QDs) as the photocatalyst. The presence of catalytic indium sites and microenvironment modulation through an interplay of catalyst-reactant interactions resulted in an efficient and selective ammonia formation under visible light. Ammonia was produced in an attractive yield of ~94 % in both aqueous and gaseous phases within 2 h of visible-light irradiation at room temperature. A decent formation of ammonia was observed under sunlight as well, strengthening the translational prospects of InP QD photocatalysts. Our study shows the impact of the rationally designed core and surface of InP QD-based photocatalysts in developing sustainable routes to produce ammonia *beyond the Haber-Bosch process*.

4a.2. Introduction

Ammonia (NH_3) is vital to life.¹⁻⁵ For the past century, NH_3 has been the major fertilizer feedstock and sustained life on this planet.^{2,6} In the past decade, there has been a shift in the role of NH_3 from fertilizer feedstock to the liquid carrier of carbon-free energy.^{4,5,7-9} A majority of current demands of NH_3 are met by a century-old industrial process known as the Haber-Bosch process.¹⁰ While Fritz Haber created the breakthrough of NH_3 synthesis from its elements deploying high-pressure reactors, Carl Bosch developed the high-pressure chemistry on an industrial scale at BASF.¹⁰⁻¹³ This translation to industrially relevant scale made NH_3 a top high-volume commodity chemical and facilitated the production of several chemical products, including hydrazine, nitric acid, urea, acrylonitrile, and phenol.^{14,15} In a typical Haber-Bosch process, N_2 and H_2 react in the presence of Fe catalyst at an elevated temperature of 400-500 °C and pressures in the range of 100-200 bar to produce NH_3 with decent efficiency (energy efficiency ranges from 35-60 %).¹⁰ However, the Haber-Bosch process comes with unintended environmental consequences because of energy-intensive H_2 production via methane reforming and extreme reaction conditions.¹⁴⁻¹⁸ It is reported that this industrial NH_3 production consumes 1-2 % of the world's annual energy and is responsible for ~1 % of global greenhouse gas emissions.^{14,15,18} The large carbon footprint associated with the energy-intensive Haber-Bosch process calls for developing greener and sustainable alternatives for NH_3 synthesis.¹⁶⁻²⁰ In this regard, utilizing the surplus energy dissipated from the Sun offers a promising approach for sustainable NH_3 synthesis.^{16, 21-25}

Now, the main question is, what will the N-source be for green ammonia synthesis? Though N_2 present in the atmosphere is unequivocally the desired and abundant N-source, a careful look into the nitrogen cycle (N-cycle) reveals that all the forms of nitrogen are interconvertible, providing us the flexibility to choose any N-source to produce NH_3 ions (**Figure 4a.1a**).²⁶ According to the N-cycle, once NH_3 is oxidized back to nitrate/nitrite ions ($\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$), some microorganisms can drive assimilatory/dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium, resulting in N-recycling without any waste.²⁶⁻²⁸ Inspired by this biological cycle, NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions have emerged

as alternate N-sources in artificial NH_3 synthesis.²⁹⁻³⁴ Accordingly, nitrogen oxidation reactions (NOR) have been developed to increase the availability of NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions as a viable source for NH_3 synthesis.³⁵ Currently, the prospect of energy demands and efficiencies is being investigated for NOR. It has been theoretically predicted that the energy consumption for NOR via the non-thermal plasma process is comparable to or lower than the existing Haber-Bosch process,³⁵ with the added advantage of reduced greenhouse gas emission from the NOR process. Further, with the advent of industrial NH_3 production, there has been a disruption in the nitrogen cycle, resulting in excessive accumulation of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ in water bodies from industrial wastewater discharge and agricultural run-offs.³⁶⁻³⁸ Motivated by assimilatory/dissimilatory ammonification in N-cycle, and the necessity to reduce the detrimental environmental effects of N-contamination in water bodies, the conversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions to NH_3 offers a way for wastewater treatment while simultaneously generating a value-added commodity.^{29-34, 37,38} Furthermore, NO_3^- to NH_3 conversion from wastewater is attractive for niche applications such as delocalized production of fertilizers at agricultural locations with high levels of NO_3^- pollution and on-site NH_3 demands.^{39,40} Thus, the conversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions to NH_3 has gained significant attention in recent years and emerged as a viable strategy for ammonia synthesis (**Figure 4a.1b**).²⁹⁻³⁴

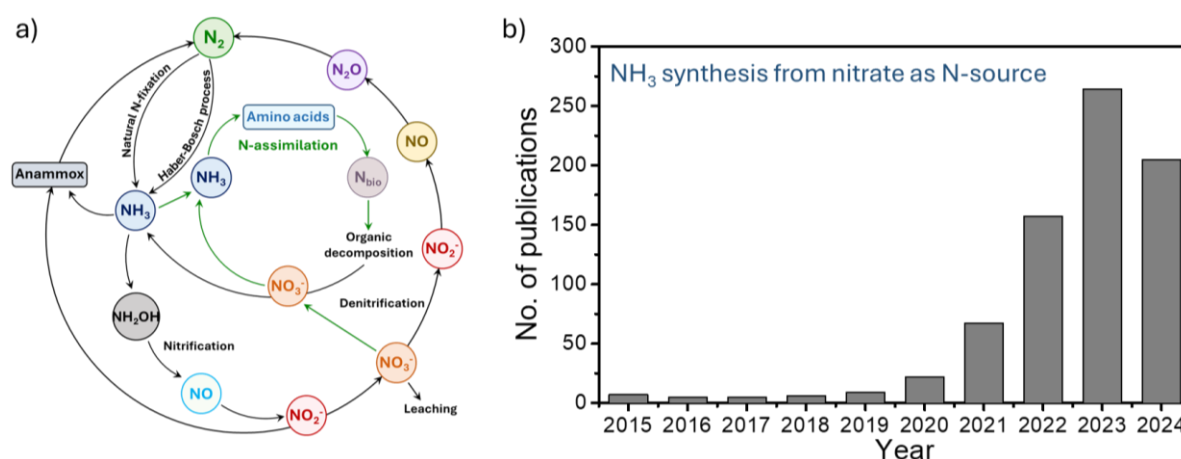


Figure 4a.1. a) The Nitrogen cycle shows major species and their interconversions. b) Bar diagram representing the number of annual publications related to ammonia synthesis from nitrate as the N-source in the past 10 years till August 2024. The statistics are based on Web of Science™ database with screening terms: ‘Nitrate reduction to ammonia’. The results presented here depict publications only from 4 publishers (ACS, Wiley, RSC, and Springer Nature).

One of the earliest examples of photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis from $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ as N-source dates to 1984 when Halmann and Zuckerman observed NH_3 synthesis in the presence of semiconductor powders suspended in aqueous alkaline sulfide solution under light illumination.⁴¹ Various semiconductors such as TiO_2 , SrTiO_3 , CdS , and CdS-ZnS powders as the photocatalysts in the $\text{KOH-Na}_2\text{S}$ solution resulted in continuous ammonia production in the presence of KNO_2 . Around a similar time, Onishi and coworkers explored TiO_2 supported metals (Pt, Rh, and Pd) as the photocatalyst for NH_3 synthesis from nitric acid and sodium nitrate solutions.⁴² This was followed by a series of reports by Viswanathan and coworkers exploring various metals (Ru, Pd, Ir, Pt, Rh. etc.) and metal ions (Fe^{3+} , Cr^{3+} , Co^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , etc.)-loaded semiconductors such as CdS and TiO_2 for NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction to NH_3 .⁴³⁻⁴⁶ While the focus shifted to N_2 as the N-source for green NH_3 production, there has been a huge surge again in the past 5 years for photocatalytic NH_3 generation from NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions (**Figure 4a.1b**). With the ever-expanding library of the designer photocatalysts, numerous reports on reduction of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ ions have emerged.^{30-33, 47-50}

Photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 is a proton-coupled multielectron process ($8\text{e}^-/9\text{H}^+$), which has often been achieved with UV-active photocatalysts.^{22,31-33,41-47,50} Additionally, the differences in kinetics and thermodynamics of multistep reaction pathways involved result in the accumulation of undesired by-products (majorly N_2 and NO_x as the end-product).^{32,33,51-54} For instance, Shiraishi and coworkers reported design principles to achieve selective reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 with TiO_2 -based photocatalysts.³³ A series of commercially available TiO_2 particles such as JRC-TIO-1, ST-01, Aldrich anatase, P25, Wako rutile, JRC-TIO-6, Aldrich rutile, etc. were tested for photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction. It was observed that most of the anatase and rutile TiO_2 (JRC-TIO-1, ST-01, Aldrich anatase, P25, Wako rutile, Aldrich rutile) exhibited low selectivity for NH_3 formation, except for the JRC-TIO-6 photocatalyst. For a better comparison, Japanese reference catalysts supplied from the Catalyst Society of Japan, JRC-TIO-1 and JRC-TIO-6, were investigated in detail. With an increase in the reaction time, JRC-TIO-1 produced both N_2 as well as NH_3 (31 % NH_3 selectivity) (**Figure 4a.2a**), whereas sole production of NH_3 was observed in the case of JRC-TIO-6 (97 % NH_3 selectivity) under similar reaction conditions (**Figure 4a.2b**). The difference in the behavior of TiO_2 based photocatalyst was

attributed to the presence of different reduction sites, surface defects or Lewis acid sites. Detailed studies revealed that the surface defects act as sites for selective NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 while Lewis acid sites are non-selective (**Figures 4a.2c, 4a.2d**). The selectivity was altered because of the strong adsorption affinity of NO_3^- ions on surface defects as compared to Lewis acid sites, which do not allow for liberation of NO_2^- intermediates.

In another report by Han and coworkers, $\text{Ag}_2\text{O}/\text{P25}$ and $\text{Ag}/\text{P25}$ photocatalysts were used for NO_3^- reduction using formic acid as the hole scavenger under UV irradiation (**Figures 4a.2e, 4a.2f**).⁵⁴ Even though a high NO_3^- conversion of ~97 % was achieved, the major product was N_2 with ~83 % selectivity. It was reported that photoexcited electrons have weak $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ reducing ability. Interestingly, in the presence of formic acid as hole scavenger, $\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}$ species is generated after extraction of photogenerated holes. A strong reducing ability ($E^\circ(\text{CO}_2/\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}) = -1.8 \text{ V}$) enables reduction of NO_3^- to NO_2^- , N_2 or NH_3 . Because of the involvement of $\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}$, the most thermodynamically favourable product i.e., N_2 ($E^\circ(\text{NO}_3^-/\text{N}_2) = 1.25 \text{ V}$ vs $E^\circ(\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NH}_3) = 1.20 \text{ V}$), was obtained under higher yields. In fact, the presence of ammonium ions inhibited NO_3^- reduction. However, when NO_3^- reduction was performed under visible light illumination instead of UV, negligible conversion was observed. Thus, a thorough literature search reveals only a few photocatalysts exhibiting selective NH_3 formation from $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ ions under visible light irradiation. Hence, these limitations of existing approaches call for rationally designed visible-light photocatalysts for the efficient and selective NH_3 formation from NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions.

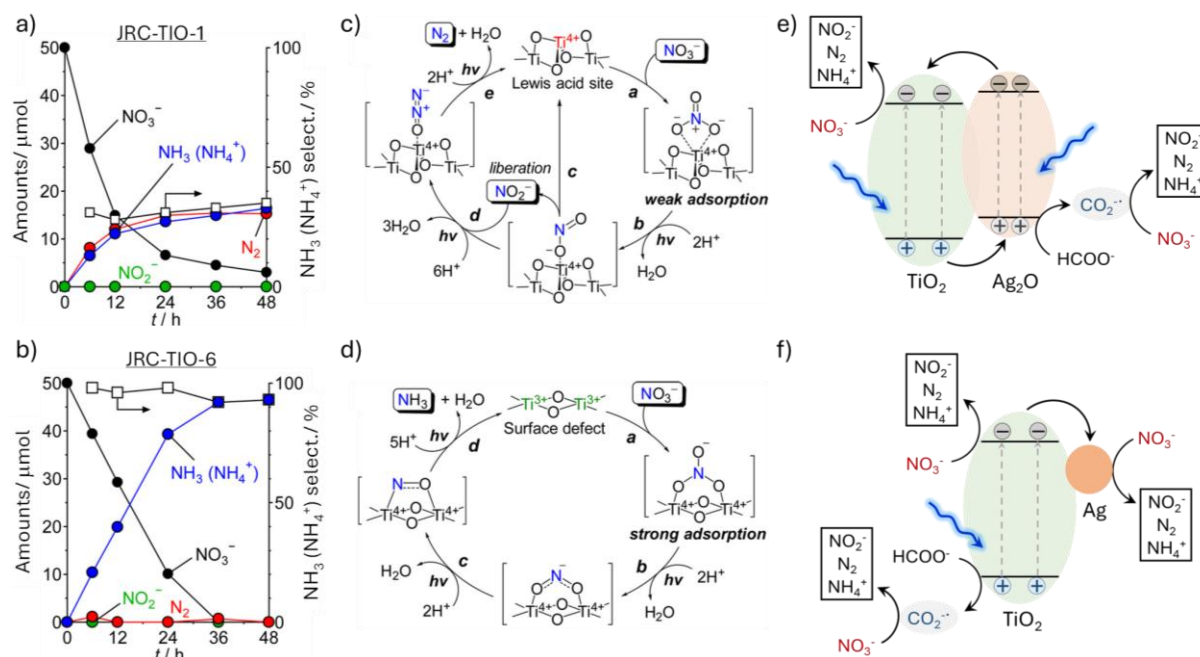


Figure 4a.2. Photocatalytic NH₃ formation from NO₃⁻ as the N-source. Progress of photocatalytic NO₃⁻ reduction under UV irradiation using commercially available TiO₂ photocatalysts, a) JRC-TiO-1 and b) JRC-TiO-6. Along with NH₃, N₂ was also produced in the presence of JRC-TiO-1 photocatalyst, whereas selective formation of NH₃ was observed with JRC-TiO-6. The difference in selectivity arises because of the presence of c) Lewis acid sites and d) surface defects mediated NO₃⁻ reduction. TiO₂ with a greater proportion of surface defects results in better NH₃ selectivity by strongly adsorbing NO₃⁻ ions. Reproduced with permission from reference 33. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society. Photocatalytic NO₃⁻ reduction in the presence of e) Ag₂O/TiO₂ and f) Ag/TiO₂ hybrid photocatalysts under UV light irradiation using HCOOH as the hole scavenger. With both photocatalysts, multiple NO₃⁻ reduction products were obtained. The poor selectivity for NH₃ formation can be attributed to the presence of HCOOH as a hole scavenger, which results in CO₂^{•-} radical formation. CO₂^{•-} radical is highly reducing and leads to non-selective NO₃⁻ reduction to NO₂⁻, N₂, and NH₃. Reproduced with permission from reference 54. Copyright 2015 Elsevier.

Converging NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ reduction to yield NH₃ demands photocatalysts that generate surplus charge carriers and allow optimum surface interaction with the N-sources. It was reported very recently by Wu and coworkers that II-VI cadmium selenide QDs and I-III-VI copper indium sulfide QDs are promising visible-light photocatalysts to reduce NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ to NH₄⁺ ions.³⁰ This study calls for exploring the enormous potential hidden in QD-based photocatalysts for producing NH₃ beyond the Haber-Bosch process. In this Chapter, we introduce III-V indium phosphide (InP) QDs as the photocatalyst to drive the selective reduction of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ to NH₄⁺ under visible-light irradiation, at room temperature. Our choice of InP QD as the photocatalyst was based on its high molar extinction coefficient, tunable absorption profiles, high carrier mobility, long-lived

charge separation, and flexibility in tunability of the surface chemistry.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸ More importantly, III-V InP QDs exhibit distinct charge carrier dynamics from II-VI QDs because of the different nature of bonding.^{59,60} While II-VI QDs are ionic in nature (Phillips ionicity, $f = 0.685$) because of the large electronegativity difference between the constituent elements, III-V InP QDs exhibit a more covalent nature (Phillips ionicity, $f = 0.421$) (**Figure 4a.3a**).⁶¹ As a consequence of the covalent bonding nature, the effective mass of charge carriers becomes smaller for InP ($m^*/m_e = 0.13$ for InP vs 0.20 for CdS) and the wavefunctions are more delocalized in III-V InP QDs (**Figure 4a.3b**) compared to II-VI QDs (**Figure 4a.3c**).⁶² This implies a weaker coulombic interaction between electrons and holes in InP QDs compared to II-VI and I-III-VI QDs.⁵⁹⁻⁶³ Along with a more delocalized wavefunction, a higher covalent bonding nature (**Figure 4a.3c**) results in the formation of deep trap states.⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ Heath and coworkers estimated that for similarly sized (~ 3.2 nm) InP and CdSe QDs, the depth of trap states below the conduction band is 25 times higher for InP QDs (6.3 kJ mol^{-1}) than CdSe QDs (0.25 kJ mol^{-1}).⁵⁹ In principle, the deep trap states can retard the charge recombination and enhance the carrier lifetime, which may turn beneficial for photocatalytic transformation. Moreover, in an interesting study by Cossairt and coworkers, InP QDs were reported to exhibit longest-lived charges ($t = 25.5 \pm 0.4$ min) after light illumination compared to CdSe ($t = 11.1 \pm 0.5$ min) and CdS ($t = 7.2 \pm 0.4$ min) QDs (**Figure 4a.3d**).⁶⁴ This was again attributed to the high covalency of the InP lattice, leading to less reversible redox changes on the QD surface and storing the charges for a longer time. Such prolonged charge storage is commensurate with the timescale at which photocatalytic reactions take place. Thus, the robust covalent framework of InP QDs enables the efficient charge separation, as well as the appropriate surface modification to enhance the charge extraction process.^{59-63,65,66} As a result, InP QDs exhibit excellent visible-light harvesting properties,^{66,67} which can find applications in photocatalysis as well.^{63, 68-70} Furthermore, recent computational studies have proposed a promotional effect of In atoms in binding NO_3^- via 2 oxygen atoms to form In-O bond, followed by the deoxygenation of NO_3^- (**Figure 4a.3e**).⁷¹ Additionally, the environmentally benign attributes, such as low intrinsic toxicity and biocompatibility, strengthen the translational prospects of InP QDs as an ideal visible-light photocatalyst for producing NH_3 .⁷²⁻⁷⁴

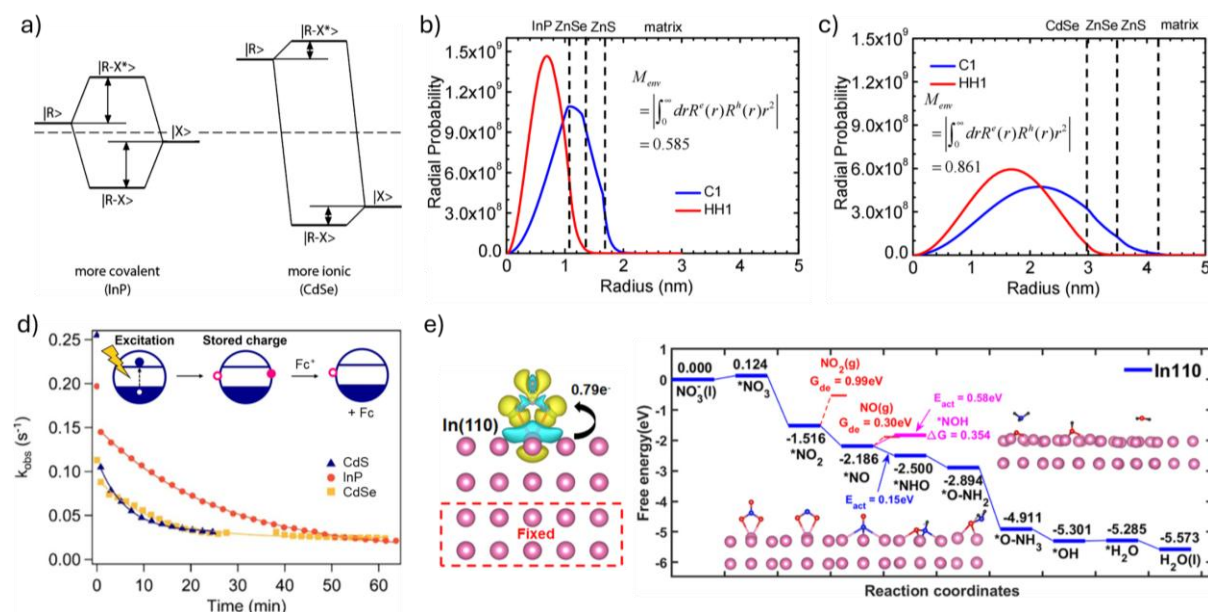


Figure 4a.3. Choice of InP QDs as the photocatalyst for NO_3^- to NH_3 conversion. a) Schematics showing the diatomic molecular orbitals formed from atomic $|R\rangle$ and $|X\rangle$ of different electronegativities. In the case of III-V QDs, e^- and h^+ trap states are formed in the middle of valence band and conduction band, while shallow trap states are formed close to valence and conduction band in case of II-VI QDs. Reproduced with permission from reference 61. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society. Calculated radial probability of e^- (blue) and h^+ (red) wavefunctions in the ground state of b) InP/ZnSe/ZnS and c) CdSe/ZnSe/ZnS. The wavefunctions are confined to the core with a large degree of overlap in CdSe as compared to InP QDs, where more delocalization is observed. Such a higher overlap between e^- and h^+ wavefunctions results in higher confinement. Reproduced with permission from reference 62. Copyright 2019 Optica Publishing Group. d) Decay of electron transfer from QD to ferrocenium ion (Fc^+) extracted from cyclic voltammetry studies after QD illumination ends. All QDs (CdS, CdSe, and InP) were found to store charges after light irradiation, with InP having the longest-lived charges. Reproduced with permission from reference 64. Copyright 2024 American Chemical Society. e) Charge density difference plot showing the charge accumulation (yellow) on NO_3^- adsorbed on In (110) surface. NO_3^- binds to In atoms via two oxygen atoms. The free energy diagram shows the thermodynamically favorable reaction pathway of NO_3^- reduction over In (110) surface. Reproduced with permission from reference 71. Copyright 2023 American Chemical Society.

In a step towards green NH_3 synthesis, the present work highlights a simple, yet efficient photocatalytic system based on InP QDs for the selective reduction NO_3^- and NO_2^- to NH_4^+ under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. A rational design of the core and appropriate surface chemistry of InP QDs were the key for the efficient NH_3 synthesis. The favorable catalyst-reactant interactions emanating from InP QD surface ligands accelerated the charge transfer and extraction steps, resulting in the efficient and selective formation of NH_4^+ in the aqueous phase within 2 h of visible-light irradiation ($57.5 \pm 9.3\%$ NO_3^- to NH_4^+ and $42.9 \pm 8.9\%$ NO_2^- to NH_4^+ in aqueous phase). The sole

presence of NH_3 was detected in the gaseous phase as well, further adding to the total NH_3 yield of the photocatalytic reaction ($430 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ and 6.8 ppm, accounting for ~94 % of the total NO_3^- converted). The apparent quantum efficiency reached as high as 1.45 % and 3.7 % @450 nm for the photocatalytic ammonia synthesis using NO_3^- and NO_2^- ions as N-sources, respectively. In short, a preferential affinity of N-sources towards surface In atoms and ligands on InP QD photocatalysts led to the selective and efficient production of NH_3 under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. We anticipate that the excellent photocatalytic ability and environmentally benign attributes of InP QDs can complement existing methods of green NH_3 synthesis.

4a.3. Experimental section

4a.3.1. General procedure for the photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion

All the photocatalytic experiments were performed in a 4 mL long-neck quartz cuvette. In a typical procedure, [+] InP QDs (2.5 μM , 0.5 mol %) and KNO_3 (0.5 mM) in water were mixed, purged with Ar, and irradiated with $2 \times 10 \text{ W}$ 450 nm LEDs for 2 h (total light intensity falling on wall of the cuvette was $\sim 200 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$). The total volume of the reaction mixture was maintained at 3 mL throughout the studies, and the pH was 5. Subsequently, the reaction mixture was analyzed for NH_4^+ formation using ion chromatography by injecting 500 μL of the reaction mixture. The area under the peak at retention time $\sim 8.5 \text{ min}$ was used to calculate the concentration of NH_4^+ formed from the calibration curve. A similar analysis was carried out for NO_3^- and NO_2^- conversion as well to calculate the total conversion yields.

4a.3.2. Photocatalytic experiments with isotope labelled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$

The proof for NO_3^- as the sole N-source in the NH_4^+ formed was obtained from photocatalytic experiments performed with isotope labelled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$. After the photocatalytic experiment, the reaction mixture was acidified to a pH 1-2 with HCl. The reaction mixture was concentrated to half, from which 600 μL was mixed with 100 μL DMSO-d_6 and subjected to $^1\text{H-NMR}$ spectroscopy. For comparison, the $^1\text{H-NMR}$

spectrum of $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ containing reaction mixture was also recorded. NMR signals between 6.5-7.5 ppm region were analyzed.

4a.3.3. Quantification of NH_3 in gas phase

The quantification of NH_3 in headspace was carried out using a BELMASS II quadrupole mass spectrometer from Microtrac. Firstly, a known amount of NH_3 gas (0.4 mL of 101141 ppm) was injected using a gas-tight syringe, and the area under the peak for $m/z = 15$ corresponding to the NH fragment, was analyzed. We chose $m/z = 15$ of the NH fragment to avoid interference from H_2O and its fragments ($m/z = 18, 17$, and 16). The standard NH_3 gas was injected thrice at different points in time, and the average area under the peak was calculated. The areas under the curves for $m/z = 15$ were compared for standard and photocatalytic reactions to quantify the NH_3 amount in the gas phase.

Average area under the peak for $m/z = 15$ in standard $\text{NH}_3 = 2.035 \times 10^{-9} \pm 6.3 \times 10^{-10}$

Average area under the peak for $m/z = 15$ after the photocatalytic reaction = $2.86 \times 10^{-11} \pm 3.7 \times 10^{-10}$

Moles of NH_3 in headspace = 0.37 ± 0.11 mmol

Total moles of NH_3 formed in photocatalytic reaction = 0.37 ± 0.11 mmol (in gas phase) + 0.43 ± 0.08 mmol (in aqueous phase) = 0.80 ± 0.19 mmol

Similarly, the amount of NH_3 present in the headspace was analyzed and calculated with NO_2^- as the N-source.

4a.3.4. Apparent quantum yield calculations

The apparent quantum yield (AQY) of a photochemical process is calculated by dividing the number of photons utilized for NH_4^+ formation by the total number of incident photons. AQY was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{AQY (\%)} = \frac{\text{number of } \text{NH}_4^+ \text{ formed} \times 8}{\text{number of incident photons}} \times 100 \quad (4a.1)$$

Multiplication by 8 is to account for the total number of electrons required to form 1 molecule of NH_4^+ from NO_3^- (photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ is an 8-electron process).

The total number of incident photons (n_{photon}) can be calculated as follows

$$n_{\text{photon}} = \frac{P_0 \times \lambda \text{ (m)} \times t \text{ (s)}}{hc} \quad (4a.2)$$

$$n_{\text{photon}} = \frac{(0.2 \text{ J/s}) \times (450 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}) \times 7200 \text{ s}}{(3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) \times (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s})} = 3.26 \times 10^{21}$$

The number of product molecules formed was calculated to be 5.90×10^{18} .

$$AQY_{450}(\%) = \frac{5.90 \times 10^{18} \times 8}{3.26 \times 10^{21}} \times 100 = 1.45 \%$$

The AQY for NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion with [+] InP QDs under 450 nm illumination was estimated to be 1.45%.

Likewise, the AQY for NO_2^- to NH_4^+ conversion was calculated as follows:

$$n_{\text{photon}} = \frac{(0.2 \text{ J/s}) \times (450 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}) \times 3600 \text{ s}}{(3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) \times (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s})} = 1.62 \times 10^{21}$$

The number of product molecules formed was calculated to be 9.99×10^{18} .

$$AQY_{450}(\%) = \frac{9.99 \times 10^{18} \times 6}{1.62 \times 10^{21}} \times 100 = 3.7 \%$$

Similarly, AQY for NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion performed under different irradiation wavelengths were estimated to be 0.146 % (@450 nm), 0.105 % (@532 nm), and 0.0335 % (@580 nm). It is to be noted that the wavelength-dependent experiments were performed at a lower scale (3 mL) while keeping the incident light intensity similar.

4a.3.5. Photocatalytic experiments in sunlight

Photocatalytic reactions in sunlight were performed by exposing the reaction mixture to direct sunlight. [+] InP QDs and KNO_3 were mixed in a long-neck quartz cuvette, and the reaction mixture was purged with Ar. The cuvette was exposed to natural sunlight for

2 h (light intensity was measured to be $\sim 95 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$). The reaction mixture was analyzed with IC to calculate the conversion yields.

4a.4. Results and discussion

4a.4.1. Preparation of InP QD-based visible-light photocatalysts

Red-emitting core-only InP QDs were prepared using modified literature protocols, involving the high-temperature organometallic reaction between indium(III) chloride and tris-(dimethylamino)phosphine in oleylamine (OAm).⁷⁵ Core-only InP QDs, without any shell, were our choice of photocatalyst to enhance the charge separation and extraction processes under light irradiation. Moreover, a recent theoretical study has predicted a favorable adsorption of NO_3^- ions over In atoms via two oxygen atoms.⁷¹ Appropriate choice and amounts of indium halide and phosphorus precursors were crucial for regulating nucleation and growth kinetics, and achieving high-quality core-only InP QDs.^{75,76} The as-synthesized shows excellent light absorption in the visible region with a band gap of 2.02 eV as estimated from the Tauc plot (**Figure 4a.4a**). The core-only InP QDs possess appropriate band positions to facilitate photocatalytic reduction of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ to NH_4^+ with visible-light irradiation. For as-synthesized OAm-InP QDs, only the peak corresponding to oxidation was observed in CV (black voltammogram) (**Figure 4a.4c**). This peak at 0.94 V vs. Ag/AgNO₃ corresponds to the valence band of OAm-InP QDs. Accordingly, the valence band position was estimated to be -5.59 eV with respect to vacuum. From the band gap value and the valence band position, the conduction band position was estimated to be -3.57 eV with respect to vacuum for OAm-InP QD. The native OAm ligands on InP QDs were place-exchanged with cationic *N,N,N*-trimethyl(11-mercaptoundecyl)ammonium chloride (TMA, [+]) ligand to achieve colloidal stability in aqueous medium as well as to install favourable catalyst-reactant interactions (**Figure 4a.5a**).^{77,78} Negligible change in the band gap was observed after ligand exchange (**Figure 4a.4b**). However, it has been reported that ligands can significantly affect the QD band positions even up to 0.9 eV.⁷⁹ Therefore, we estimated the band positions for TMA-functionalized [+] InP QDs. For [+] InP QD, the peak corresponding to oxidation was observed at 0.92 V vs. Ag/AgNO₃ (blue voltammogram) (**Figure 4a.4c**). Accordingly, the

valence band position was estimated to be -5.57 eV with respect to vacuum. The valence and conduction bands of [+] InP QDs were positioned at -5.57 eV and -3.54 eV, respectively (**Figure 4a.4d**). The ligand exchange resulted in a negligible change on band edge positions for InP QDs, as confirmed by cyclic voltammetry and absorption studies.

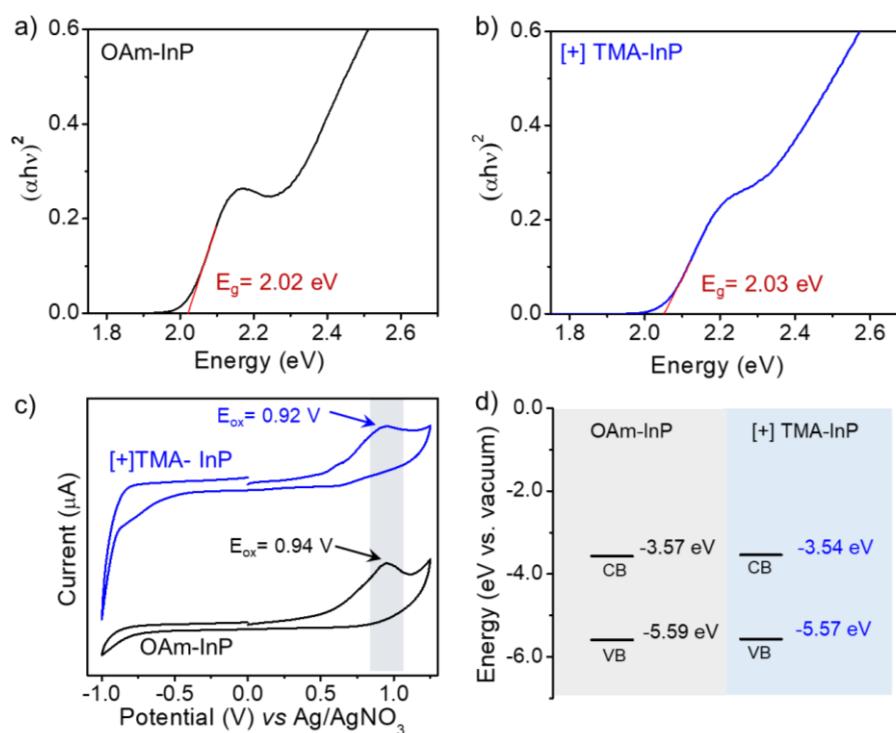


Figure 4a.4. Estimation of band positions for OAm-InP and [+] TMA-InP core-only QDs. Tauc plots of a) OAm-InP QDs and b) [+] InP QDs. c) Cyclic voltammograms (CV) of OAm-InP (black voltammogram) and [+] TMA-InP (blue voltammogram) core-only QDs. As the [+] InP QD film was made from an aqueous suspension, a water oxidation peak was also observed at 0.65 V in addition to the peak corresponding to the valence band of [+] InP. The water oxidation peak was validated by recording the CV of the electrolyte in the water-acetonitrile mixture (green voltammogram). d) Plot showing the band positions of OAm-InP and [+] TMA-InP QDs calculated from Tauc and CV plots.

The absence of S-H stretching frequency peak in Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis revealed that TMA ligands bind to core-only InP QDs predominantly as X-type thiolates (**Figure 4a.5b**). To prove the role of electrostatic interactions emanating from the surface ligands of InP QDs, negatively charged ([−]) InP QDs were prepared by ligand place exchanging the native OAm ligands with 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA) ligands (**Figure 4a.5a**). The complete transfer of InP QDs from toluene to the aqueous phase indicates the successful ligand exchange with TMA and MUA ligands, respectively. The thiol groups of TMA and MUA bind to the QD

surface, while the terminal positively charged quaternary ammonium group in TMA and negatively charged carboxylic acid group in MUA provide dispersion in the aqueous medium. The zeta potential values of $+24.0 \pm 8.5$ mV and -37.0 ± 6.9 mV confirm the successful functionalization of TMA and MUA ligands on the surface of InP QDs, respectively (**Figure 4a.5c**). There was a negligible change in the zeta potential of [+] InP QDs across a wide pH range (3-10) (**Figure 4a.10**). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) studies confirm the formation of uniform-sized [+] InP QDs having an average diameter of 3.5 ± 0.4 nm (**Figures 4a.5d, 4a.11**). After the successful synthesis, characterization, and ligand exchange, the core-only InP QDs were employed for photocatalytic ammonia synthesis with visible light.

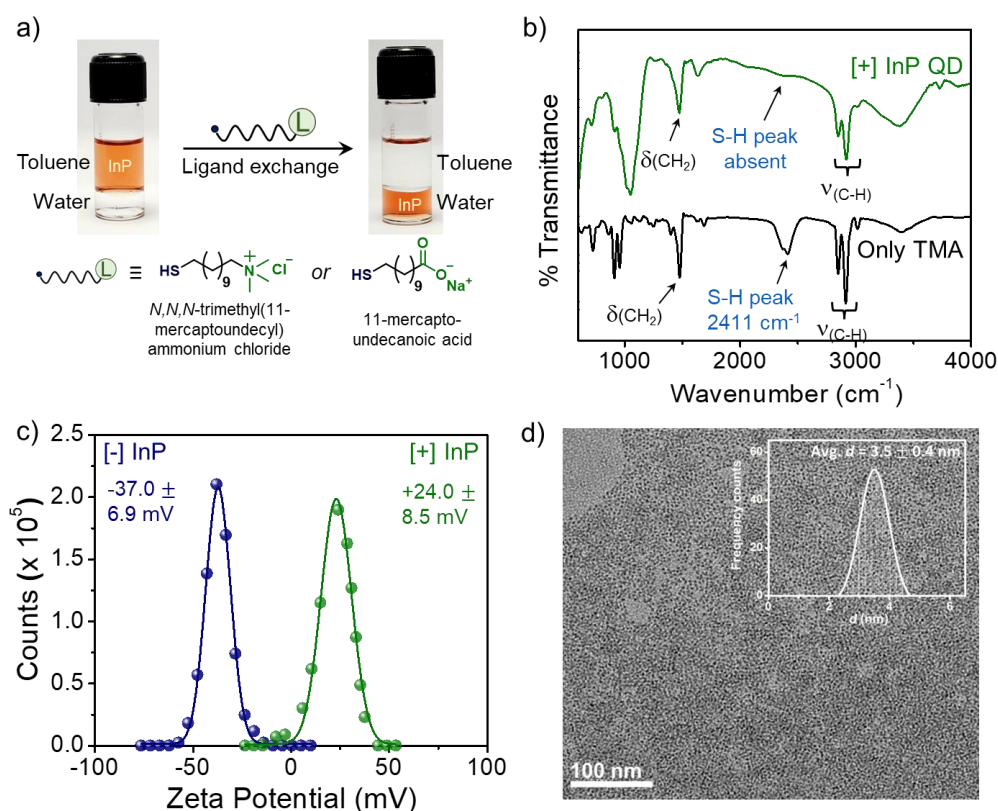


Figure 4a.5. Characterization of core-only InP QDs. a) Schematics showing the ligand exchange of oleylamine-capped InP QDs with positively charged *N,N,N*-trimethyl(11-mercaptoundecyl) ammonium chloride (TMA) and negatively charged 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA) thiolated ligands. b) FTIR spectra of [+] TMA ligand (black) and [+] TMA capped [+] InP QDs (green). c) Zeta potential plot confirming the successful functionalization of InP QDs with [+] and [-] thiolated ligands. Zeta potential was measured at the pH of the reaction mixture (pH ~5 and ~10 for [+] and [-] InP QDs, respectively). d) A representative TEM image of core-only [+] InP QDs. Inset shows the corresponding size distribution histogram (collected from ~300 QDs).

4a.4.2. Photocatalytic reduction of nitrate and nitrite ions to ammonia

The permanent positive charge of the quaternary ammonium group modifies the local environment of $[+]$ InP QD by electrostatically channeling NO_3^- and NO_2^- reactants towards the QD photocatalysts (**Figure 4a.6a**).^{77,78} The concentration profiles as a function of distance were computed which clearly show the channeling effect in $[+]$ InP QDs due to favourable electrostatic interaction between $[+]$ InP QD and $[-]$ NO_3^- ions (**Figure 4a.6b**; See Appendix for details, **Figure 4a.12**). The enhanced local concentration of $[-]$ NO_3^- ions enhances the probability of charge transfer step from photoexcited $[+]$ InP QDs. The electron transfer can happen from photoexcited $[+]$ InP QDs directly to the adsorbed NO_3^- ions, as well as through the TMA ligands.^{80,81} A typical photocatalytic reaction consists of an Ar-purged $[+]$ InP QDs (2.5 μM , 0.5 mol %) and $\text{KNO}_3/\text{KNO}_2$ (0.5 mM) reaction mixture in water, (the total volume of the reaction mixture was 3 mL and pH was maintained at 5), which was irradiated for 2 h with visible light (2 x 10 W 450 nm LEDs. The total light intensity falling on cuvette walls was $\sim 200 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$). Subsequently, the amounts of NO_3^- converted and NH_4^+ formed were analyzed with ion chromatography (IC) and ^1H -NMR techniques (**Figures 4a.13, 4a.14**). It must be noted that IC and ^1H -NMR have been proposed to be the most reliable methods to quantify NH_4^+ with negligible interference from the reaction mixture constituents.^{82,83}

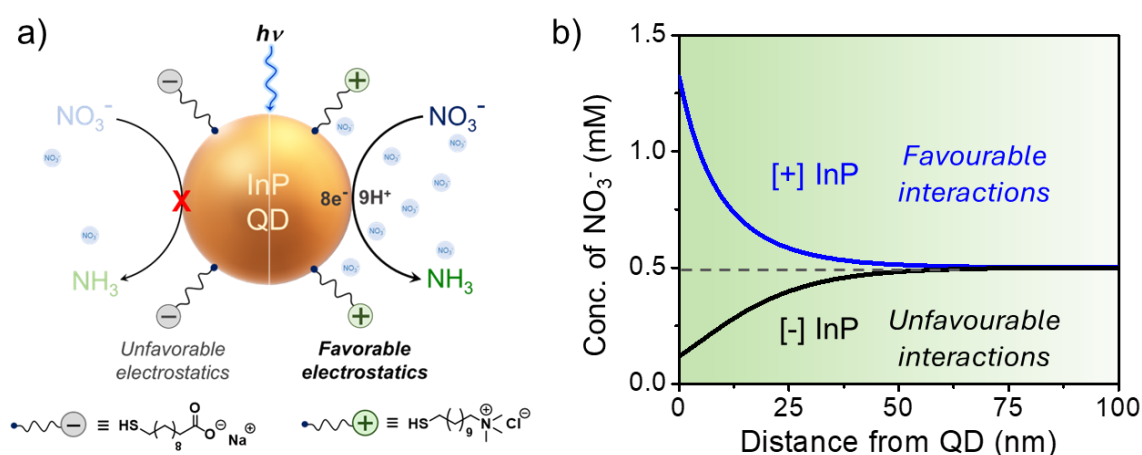


Figure 4a.6. a) Schematics showing the regulation of catalyst (InP QD)-reactant (NO_3^-) interactions through electrostatic forces emanating from QD surface ligands. A favorable catalyst-reactant interaction between $[+]$ InP and $[-]$ NO_3^- ions enables efficient and selective NH_4^+ formation. b) Variation in concentration of NO_3^- calculated as a function of distance from the surface of $[+]$ InP QD and $[-]$ InP QD. The local concentration of NO_3^- was ~ 2.5 times higher for $[+]$ InP compared to $[-]$ InP QDs.

A series of experiments were performed to optimize the reaction conditions with respect to [+] InP QD photocatalyst, reactant, and time of irradiation. With the increase in the concentration of [+] InP QDs, there was a gradual increase in the NO_3^- conversion as well as NH_4^+ formation within 2 h of visible-light irradiation (**Figures 4a.7a, 4a.15**). Even though the maximum NH_4^+ formation was obtained with 5.0 μM (1.0 mol %) [+] InP QDs, 2.5 μM (0.5 mol %) of photocatalyst was used in further studies to avoid the excessive use of QDs. The NH_4^+ production increased by $\sim 48\%$, with an increase in KNO_3 from 0.25 mM to 0.5 mM (**Figures 4a.7b, 4a.16, 4a.17**). A further increase in KNO_3 concentration did not increase NH_4^+ production, which may be due to the saturation of all active sites on [+] InP QD photocatalyst. Likewise, the NH_4^+ production saturated after 2 h of visible-light irradiation of the reaction mixture containing of 2.5 μM [+] InP QDs and 0.5 mM KNO_3 (**Figures 4a.7c, 4a.18**).

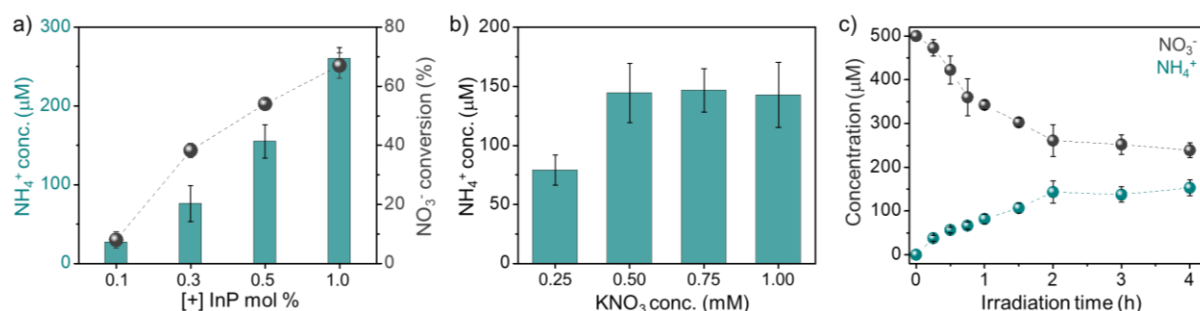


Figure 4a.7. Optimization of reaction parameters for photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ with visible light. a) Variation in NH_4^+ concentration and total NO_3^- conversion as a function of [+] InP amount. [KNO_3] = 0.5 mM, t = 2 h. b) Bar diagram summarizing the effect of KNO_3 (reactant) concentration on NH_4^+ with 0.5 mol % [+] InP QDs under 2 h visible-light irradiation. c) Progress of [+] InP QD photocatalysed reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ monitored through IC. NH_4^+ concentration increases gradually and attains saturation after 2 h of visible-light irradiation with 0.5 mol % [+] InP QDs and 0.5 mM KNO_3 . The dotted lines are only to guide the eyes.

Under the optimized condition (2.5 μM , 0.5 mol % [+] InP QDs, 0.5 mM KNO_3 , and 2 h visible light irradiation), the formation of NH_4^+ reached $143 \pm 25 \mu\text{M}$ (~ 2.5 ppm, $\sim 160 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) in the aqueous phase (**Figure 4a.8a**). It was observed that only $52.2 \pm 7.4\%$ ($261.2 \pm 3.7 \mu\text{M}$) of NO_3^- has reacted, which could be attributed to the incomplete extraction of photoexcited charge carriers from [+] InP QD photocatalyst, as well as the involvement of other competing reactions, such as hydrogen evolution, as reported in the literature^{22,29,30} (**Figure 4a.7c**). The yield of NH_4^+ was estimated to be $57.5 \pm 9.3\%$ in

aqueous phase with respect to NO_3^- conversion. A series of control experiments revealed that a negligible amount of NH_4^+ was formed in the absence of either light or [+] InP QDs, confirming their necessity for the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ (**Figure 4a.8a, 4a.19**). Further, a characteristic triplet ($J = 52$ Hz) corresponding to NH_4^+ was observed in the ^1H -NMR study (**Figure 4a.8b**). More importantly, the isotope studies with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ provided the ultimate proof for NO_3^- as the sole N-source in the [+] InP QD photocatalysed synthesis of NH_4^+ (a characteristic doublet, $J = 73$ Hz, corresponding to $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ was observed in the ^1H -NMR spectrum. **Figure 4a.8b**). Quantitatively similar amounts of $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ were formed from $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ reactants, respectively, which further validates the claim of NO_3^- as the sole N-source for NH_4^+ synthesis (**Figures 4a.8c, 4a.20**). Interestingly, the gas phase mass analysis revealed the sole presence of NH_3 in the headspace as well (**Figure 4a.8d**). The amount of NH_3 in the gas phase was estimated to be 0.37 ± 0.11 μmoles , resulting in a total 0.80 ± 0.19 μmol (~ 6.8 ppm, ~ 430 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) of NH_3 in aqueous and gas phases (**Figure 4a.21**). This accounts for ~ 94 % of the total NO_3^- converted, proving the excellent selectivity of [+] InP QD towards NH_3 production. The presence of NH_3 in the headspace was further validated by performing isotope studies with labeled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$, where mass signals corresponding to $^{15}\text{NH}_3$ were observed (**Figure 4a.8e**).

Interestingly, a mere change of the surface ligands from positively charged [+] TMA to negatively charged [-] 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid ([-] MUA) completely *switched off* the photocatalytic conversion (**Figures 4a.8f, 4a.22**). This is attributed to the strong electrostatic repulsion between similarly charged NO_3^- ions and [-] MUA ligands, which restricts the substrate access to the [-] InP QD photocatalyst surface. As a result, the local concentration of NO_3^- ions will be less near the [-] InP QD surface (**Figure 4a.12**), eventually lowering the probability of the photoexcited electron transfer process. Thus, ligands play a crucial role as gatekeepers in regulating the photocatalytic property of InP QDs towards the reduction of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ to NH_3 .

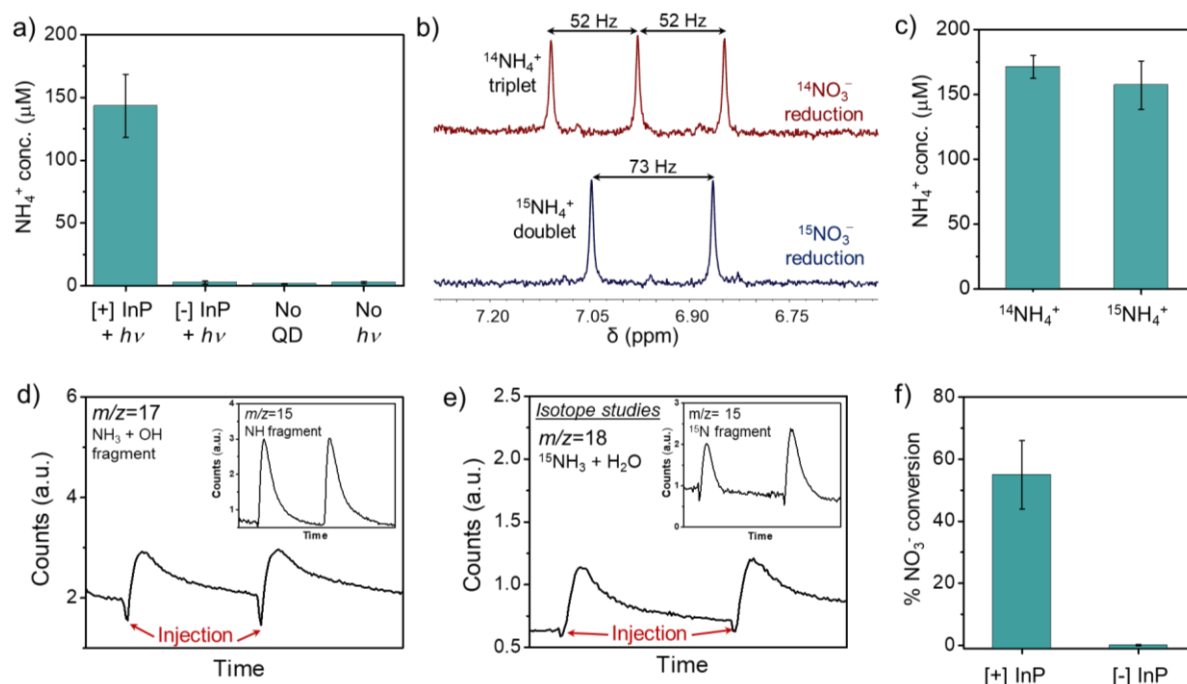


Figure 4a.8. InP QDs photocatalysed synthesis of NH_4^+ under visible-light irradiation. a) Comparison of NH_4^+ formed under different control experiments, clearly confirming the need for both light and $[+]$ InP QDs for the ammonia synthesis. b) ^1H -NMR spectra of $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ formed after the photocatalytic reduction of $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ by $[+]$ InP QDs, respectively. c) Bar diagram comparing $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ formed from $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$, respectively, confirming NO_3^- to be the sole N-source. Mass analysis of the gases in the headspace after photocatalytic reaction performed with d) $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and e) $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-source, respectively. $m/z = 17$ and $m/z = 18$ indicate the presence of $^{14}\text{NH}_3$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_3$ in the gaseous phase from $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$, respectively. Inset of d) and e) shows characteristic ^{14}NH and ^{15}N fragments of $^{14}\text{NH}_3$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_3$, respectively, with no interference from H_2O , confirming the presence of gaseous NH_3 in reactor's headspace. f) Proof of favorable catalyst-reactant interactions through a change of QD surface ligands. Bar diagram showing the % NO_3^- conversion with $[+]$ and $[-]$ InP QDs (0.5 mol %) under visible-light illumination (450 nm) for 2 h.

As InP QDs exhibited a broad absorption in the visible region with significant overlap with the solar spectrum (**Figure 4a.9a**), we first tested the photocatalytic activity under different excitation wavelengths. The action spectrum constructed using the apparent quantum yield (AQY) at different excitation wavelengths (580 nm, 532 nm, and 450 nm) followed the ground state absorption profile of $[+]$ InP QDs (**Figures 4a.9b, 4a.23**), which again confirmed the active participation of InP QDs in the photocatalytic NH_4^+ synthesis.^{84,85} A decent NH_4^+ production across broad visible-light spectrum motivated us to perform the photocatalytic reaction under direct sunlight (**Figure 4a.24**). Notably, we observed $91 \pm 30 \mu\text{M}$ of NH_4^+ (NO_3^- conversion = $26.5 \pm 7.7 \%$) within 2 h of exposure of reaction mixture to natural sunlight (**Inset to Figure 4a.9b**). It must be noted that the

photocatalytic performance under sunlight and LED irradiations cannot be compared, because of the variations associated with the flux, power, chromaticity, and coherence of the two light excitation sources. The sole purpose of performing the photocatalytic reduction under sunlight was to showcase the feasibility in real-world conditions and strengthen the translational aspect of [+] InP QD-based NH_3 synthesis. All these experiments conclusively prove the excellent potential of [+] InP QDs for efficient and sustainable NH_3 synthesis with visible light. Based on the photocatalysis parameters such as light excitation, reaction time, selectivity, AQY, etc., our photocatalytic system comprising simple [+] InP QDs stands out when compared with the limited literature reports available for the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ (**Table 4a.1**).

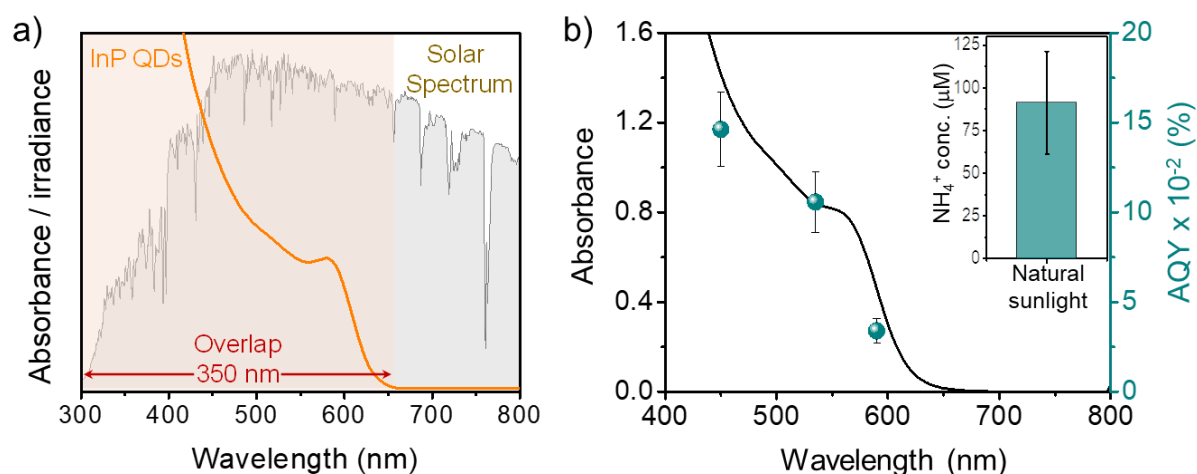


Figure 4a.9. a) Spectral overlap between the absorption of [+] InP QDs and the solar spectrum. The reference solar spectrum was adapted from SMARTS v. 2.9.2 (AM 1.5) for the comparison. b) Action spectra showing the variation in the NH_4^+ formation with [+] InP QDs as a function of different wavelengths. Inset shows the feasibility of ammonia production with [+] InP QDs in sunlight.

Comparison with state-of-the-art photocatalyst for NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion**Table 4a.1:** Summary of state-of-the-art photocatalysts available for NO_3^- to NH_4^+ .

Photocatalyst	NH_4^+ conc.	Catalyst amount	Time	Light source	Hole scavenger	AQY
[+] InP QD (this work)	$490 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ (NO_3^- to NH_3)	19.6 mg	2 h	Visible light 450 nm	No hole scavengers added	1.45 % @450 nm
	$830 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ (NO_2^- to NH_3)	19.6 mg	1 h			3.7 % @450 nm
CuPd/TiO ₂ ²²	$893 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	100 mg	5 h	UV	MeOH	0.22 % @365nm
JRC-TiO-6 ³³	$384 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	100 mg	24 h	UV	HCOOH	-
BaO-TNS ³¹	89.8 mmol g^{-1}	1 mg	1 h	UV	Ethylene glycol	0.53 % @524.5 nm
	3.1 mmol g^{-1}			Simulated solar light		
Cu ₂ O sub-nanoclusters ⁴⁷	$73.8 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	20 mg	2 h	Full spectrum	HCHO	-
CdSe QD ³⁰	47 mmol g^{-1}	2.35 mg	2 h	Visible light 440 nm	Ascorbic acid + sodium ascorbate	5.45 % @440 nm
CuInS ₂ QD ³⁰	40 mmol g^{-1}	34 mg	60 h	Simulated solar light		-

4a.5. Conclusions

In a step towards green NH_3 synthesis, the present work highlights a simple yet efficient photocatalytic system based on InP QDs for the selective reduction of NO_3^- and NO_2^- to NH_4^+ under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. A rational design of the core and appropriate surface chemistry of InP QDs was the key to efficient NH_3 synthesis. A preferential affinity of N-sources towards surface In atoms and ligands on InP QD

photocatalysts led to the selective and efficient ammonia production under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. We anticipate that the excellent photocatalytic ability and environmentally benign attributes of InP QDs can complement existing methods of green NH_3 synthesis. Because there is always a room for improvement, consistent efforts are needed to outcompete the efficiency of the conventional Haber-Bosch process for NH_3 synthesis through better design of the photocatalyst as well as in-depth understanding of the parameters dominating the reaction coordinate for the scalable green NH_3 production.

4a.6. References

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4a.7. Appendix

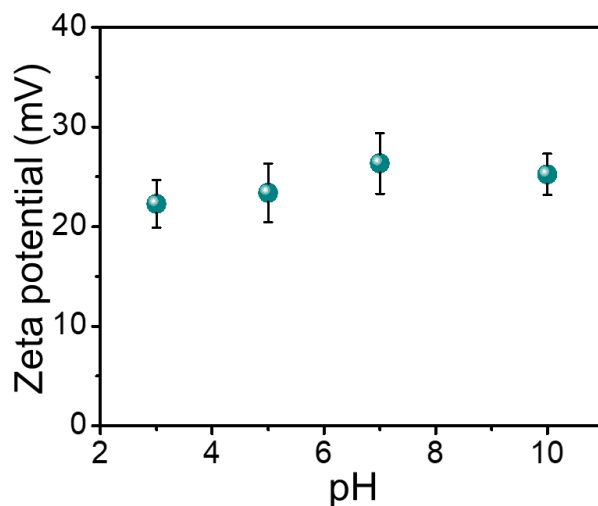


Figure 4a.10. Zeta potential of [] InP QDs as a function of pH. A negligible change in zeta potential was observed for a wide pH range (3-10).

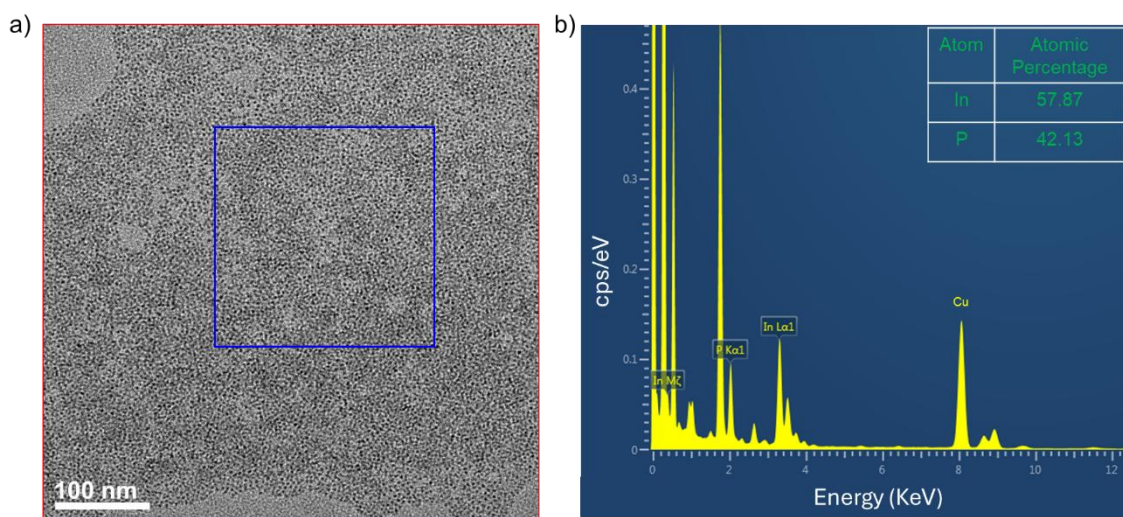


Figure 4a.11. a) Representative TEM image used for EDAX analysis. The area enclosed in blue box was analyzed to record EDAX spectrum. b) Corresponding EDAX spectrum of [] InP QD. Inset shows the atomic percentages for In and P.

Microenvironment modulation through surface ligands of InP QD

Concentration profiles of K⁺ and NO₃⁻ ions

The concentrations of K⁺ and NO₃⁻ in the diffused layer of [+] InP and [-] InP QDs will follow the Boltzmann distribution, and is given by the following equation:^{86,87}

$$c_{\pm} = c_0 \exp\left(\mp \frac{ze\phi}{k_B T}\right) \quad (4a.3)$$

where,

c_+ and c_- are the concentrations of K⁺ and NO₃⁻ respectively,

c_0 is the concentration of KNO₃ in the bulk, 0.5 mM,

z is the valency of the ions,

ϕ is the surface potential at a given point, and

$k_B T$ is the thermal energy

To find out the concentration profile as a function of distance from charged InP QD surface, we need the variation in ϕ as a function of distance. The variation in ϕ as a function of distance (x) in the diffused layer is given by the Poisson Boltzmann equation as follows:^{86,87}

$$\nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon} \quad (4a.4)$$

Here, ρ is the charge density, and ϵ is the dielectric constant of the medium.

To compute variation of ϕ in x -direction, the above equation transforms into:

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon} = -\frac{zF(c_+ - c_-)}{\epsilon} \quad (4a.5)$$

Upon substituting the value of c_+ and c_- from (4a.1) into (4a.3), we get

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} = c_0 z F \epsilon \left[\exp\left(\frac{ze\phi}{k_B T}\right) - \exp\left(-\frac{ze\phi}{k_B T}\right) \right] = \frac{2c_0 z F}{\epsilon} \sinh\left(\frac{ze\phi}{k_B T}\right) \quad (4a.6)$$

Applying the boundary conditions, we get

$$\varphi(x=0) = \zeta \text{ and } \varphi(x=\infty) = 0$$

Here, ζ is the zeta potential which is equal to + 25 mV and -37 mV for [+] InP and [-] InP QDs, respectively.

Applying Debye-Huckel approximation for dilute solution, $\left(\frac{ze\varphi}{k_B T}\right) \ll 1$, **eq. 4a.6** can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2\varphi}{dx^2} &= \frac{c_0 z F}{\epsilon} \left[\left(1 + \frac{ze\varphi}{k_B T}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{ze\varphi}{k_B T}\right) \right] \\ &= \frac{c_0 z F}{\epsilon} \left[\frac{2ze\varphi}{k_B T} \right] \\ &= \frac{2(ze)^2 N_a c_0 \varphi}{\epsilon k_B T} \\ &= \frac{\varphi}{\kappa^2} \quad (4a.7) \end{aligned}$$

where, κ is the Debye length.

Solving (4a.5) yields the final **eq. 4a.8**,

$$\varphi = \zeta \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\kappa}\right) \quad (4a.8)$$

The concentration profiles as a function of distance were computed using **eq. 4a.3** and **eq. 4a.8**. The computed graphs are shown in **Figure 4a.12**. The concentration profiles clearly show the channeling effect in [+] InP QDs due to favourable electrostatic interaction between [+] InP QD and [-] NO_3^- ions. The enhanced local concentration of [-] NO_3^- ions enhances the probability of the charge transfer step from photoexcited [+] InP QDs.

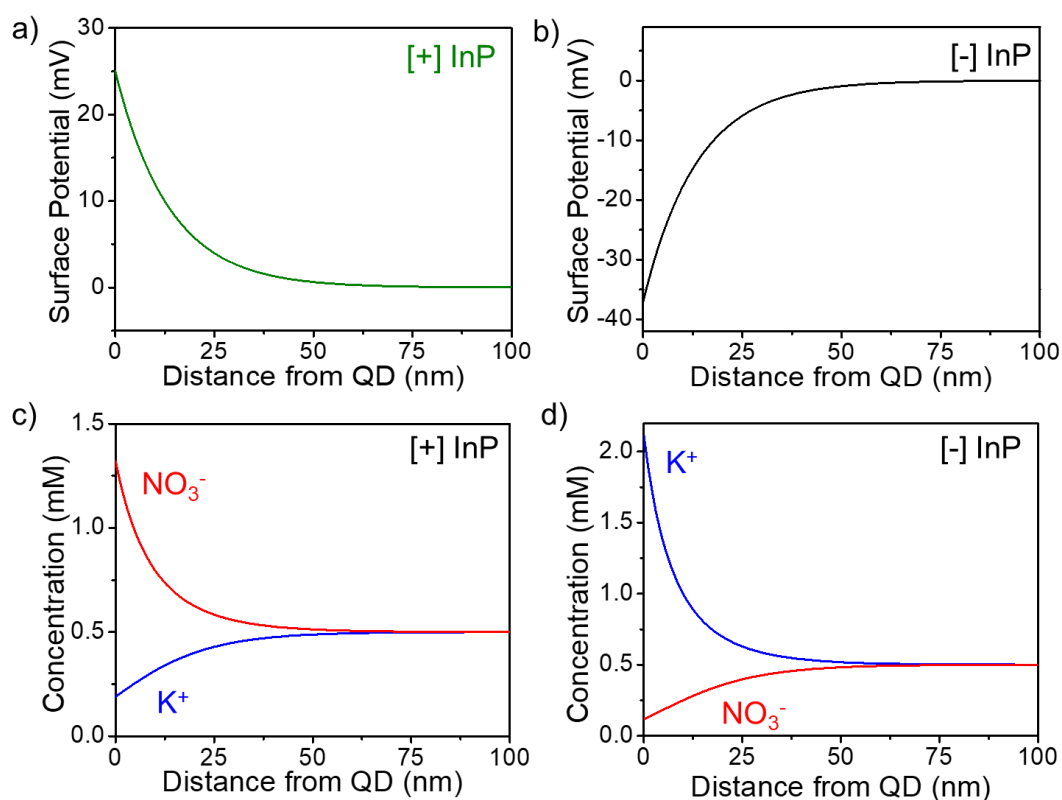


Figure 4a.12. Variation in the surface potential as a function of distance from the surface of a) $[+]$ InP QD and b) $[-]$ InP QD. Variation in concentration of NO_3^- and K^+ as a function of distance from the surface of c) $[+]$ InP QD and d) $[-]$ InP QD.

Calibration curves for estimation of reaction yield

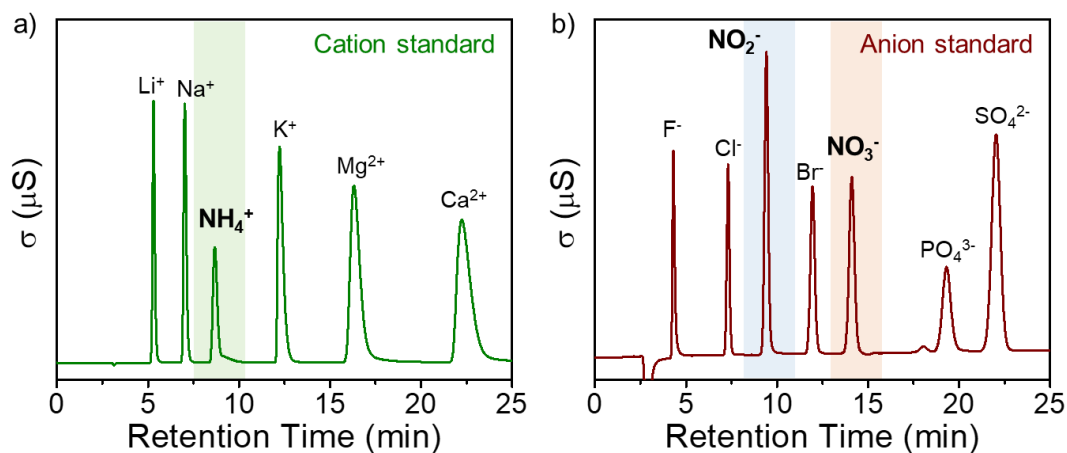


Figure 4a.13. Representative chromatograms of a) Dionex six cation standard and b) Dionex seven anion standard solution. Signals at ~8.5 min in the cation chromatogram and at ~9.5 min and ~14.5 min in the anion chromatogram correspond to NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , and NO_3^- , respectively.

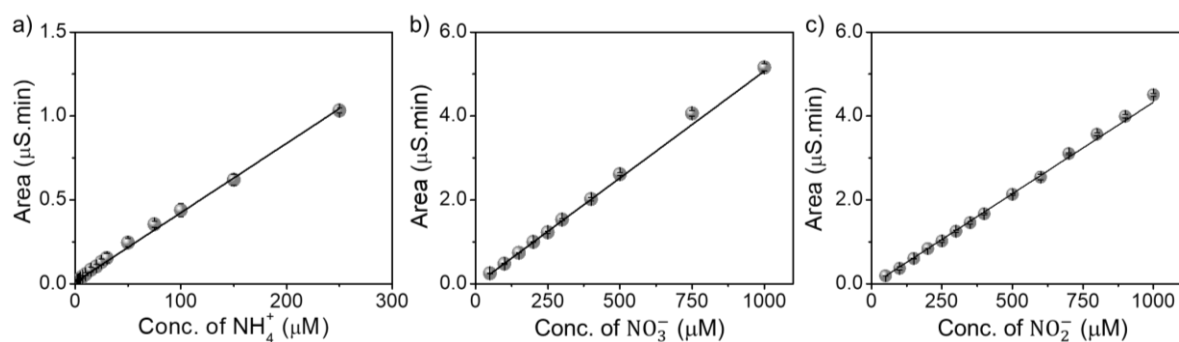


Figure 4a.14. Standard curves for a) NH_4^+ , b) NO_3^- , and c) NO_2^- detection with ion chromatography, prepared with different concentrations of NH_4Cl (0–250 μM), KNO_3 (0–1000 μM), and KNO_2 (0–1000 μM), respectively.

Optimization of reaction parameters

Concentration of [+] InP

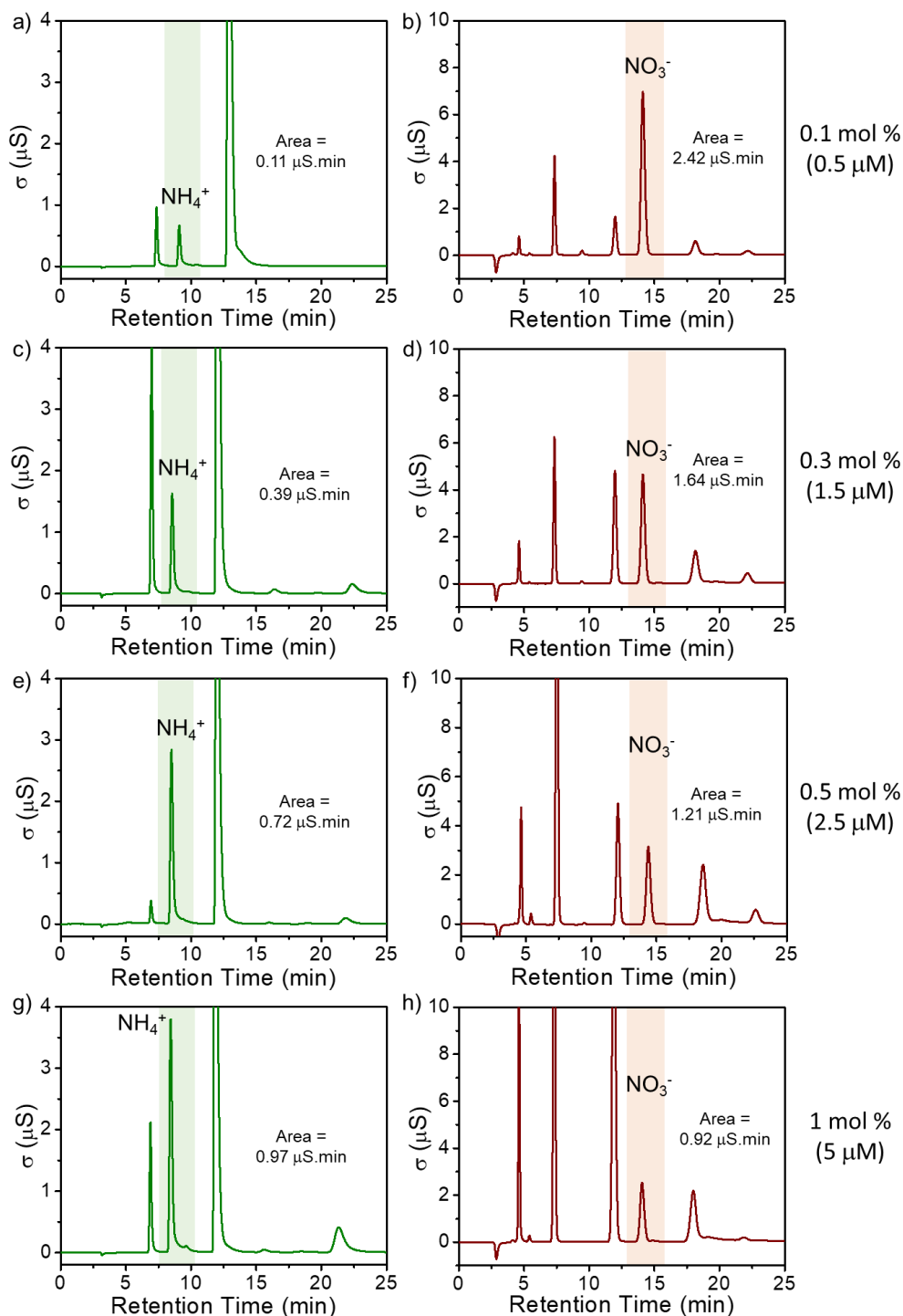


Figure 4a.15. Cation (a,c,e,g) and anion (b,d,f,h) chromatograms for photocatalytic reactions performed with different concentrations of [+] InP QDs. a,b) 0.1 mol %, c,d) 0.3 mol %, e,f) 0.5 mol %, and g,h) 1 mol % of [+] InP QDs.

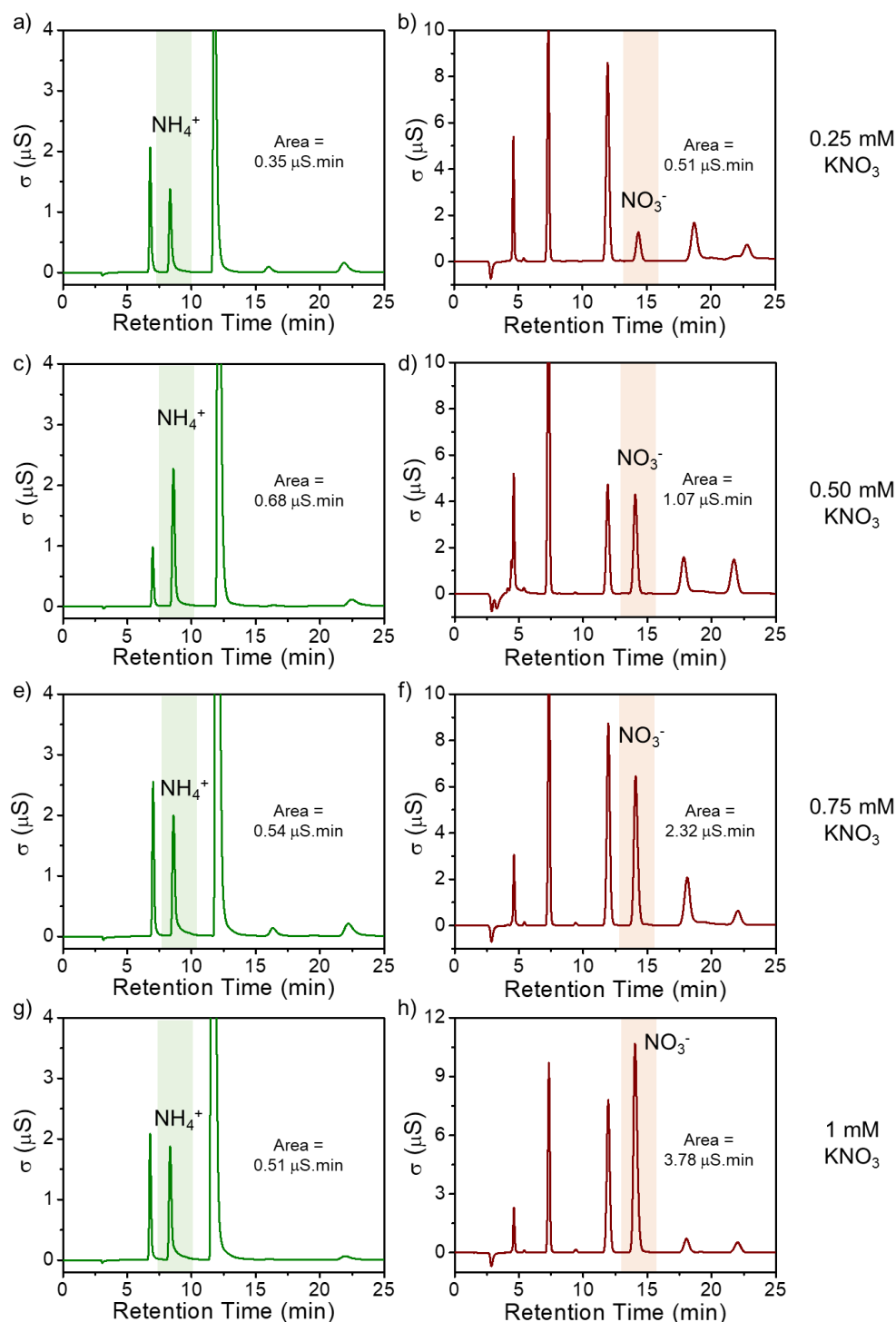
KNO₃ concentration

Figure 4a.16. Cation (a,c,e,g) and anion (b,d,f,h) chromatograms for photocatalytic reactions performed with different substrate concentrations. a,b) 0.25 mM, c,d) 0.50 mM, e,f) 0.75 mM, and g,h) 1.00 mM KNO₃.

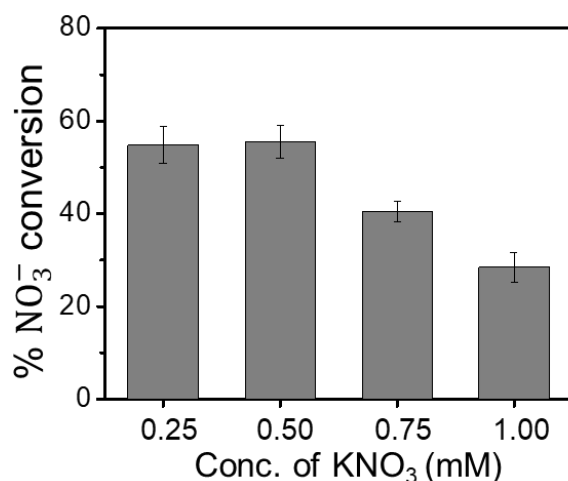


Figure 4a.17. Bar diagrams summarizing total NO₃⁻ conversion as a function of KNO₃ concentration with 0.5 mol % [+] InP QDs. With the increase in substrate concentration, there was an increase in NH₄⁺ concentration and eventually attains saturation. Consequently, we chose 0.5 mM KNO₃ and 0.5 mol % [+] InP QDs for further studies.

Time-dependent studies through ion chromatography

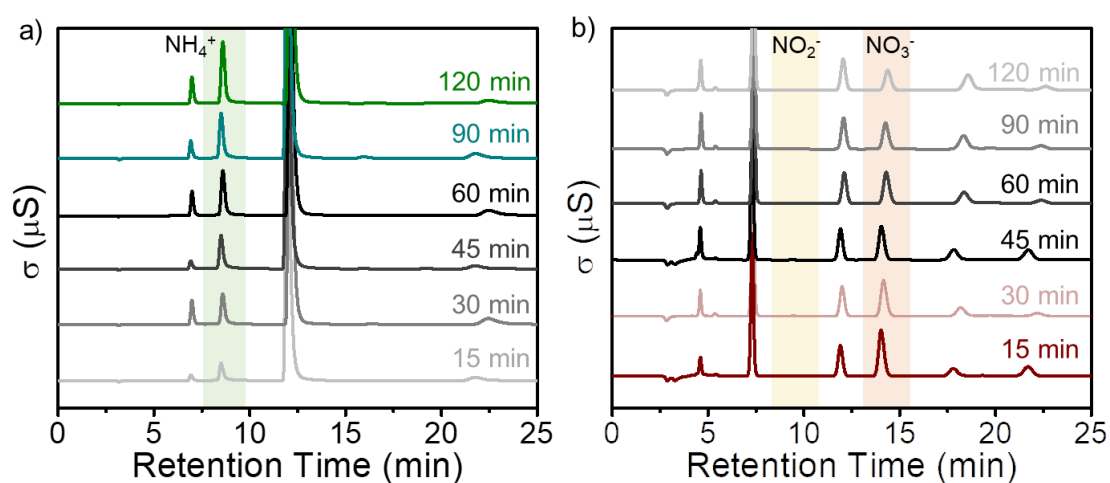


Figure 4a.18. Progress of the reaction monitored through ion chromatography. With increasing reaction time, a) the amount of NH₄⁺ increases with b) a gradual decrease in NO₃⁻ concentration, as can be seen from variation in peak intensities. No traces of NO₂⁻ were observed during the photocatalytic reaction.

Control experiments

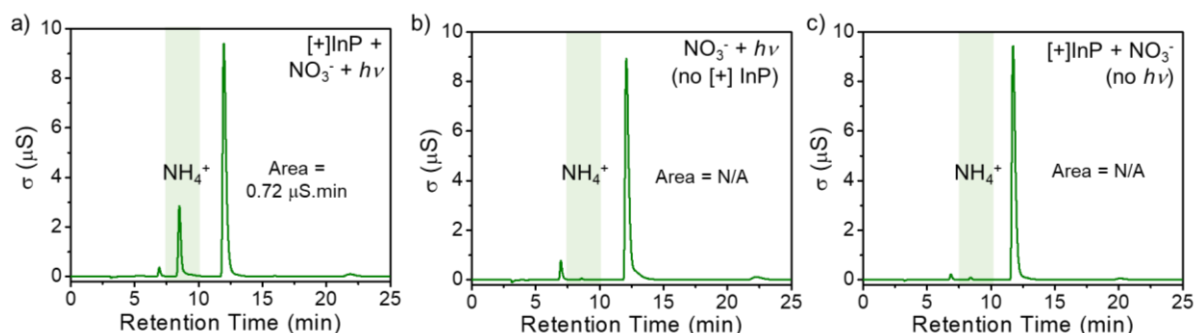


Figure 4a.19. Cation chromatograms for the quantification of NH_3 in aqueous phase for different control experiments. The appearance of signal at ~ 8.5 min in a) optimized reaction conditions corresponds to the formation of NH_4^+ , whereas negligible amounts of NH_4^+ were formed in the absence of b) $[+]$ InP QDs and c) light. Control experiments clearly confirm the necessity of both the photocatalyst and light for the conversion of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ .

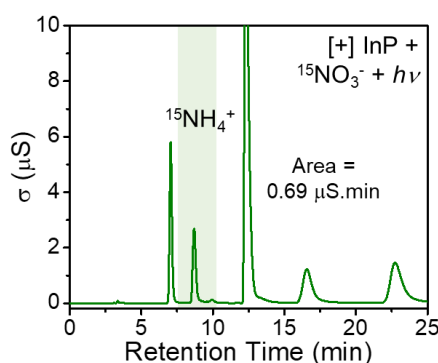
Photocatalytic experiments with isotope labelled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ 

Figure 4a.20. Ion chromatogram showing the formation of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ obtained from isotope-labelled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$.

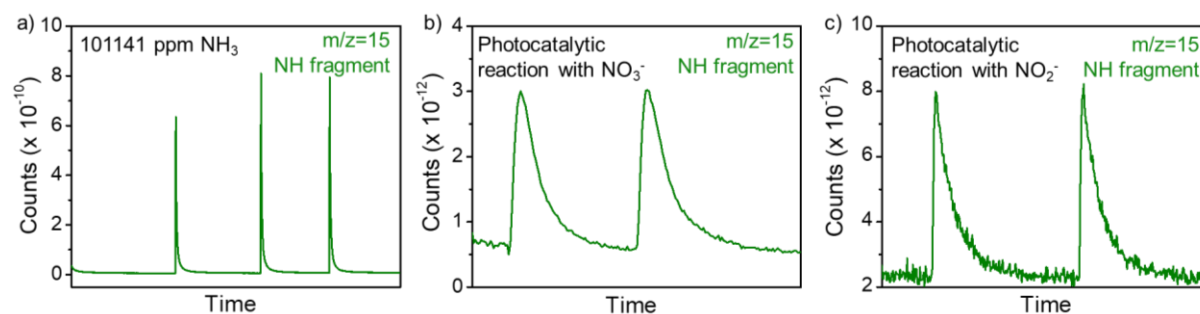
Quantification of NH_3 in the gas phase

Figure 4a.21. Gas-phase mass analysis of a) standard NH_3 gas (conc.= 101141 ppm) and photocatalytic reaction performed with $[+]$ InP QDs with b) NO_3^- and c) NO_2^- as N-source.

Proof of electrostatics

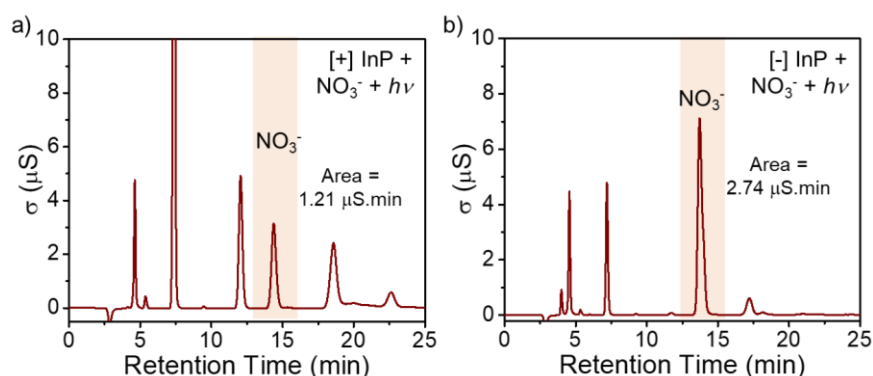


Figure 4a.22. Proof of favourable catalyst-reactant interactions through change of QD surface ligands. Anion chromatograms for the quantification of NO_3^- conversion with a) [+] InP and b) [-] InP. The area under signal ~ 14.5 min was lower for photocatalytic reaction performed with TMA-capped [+] InP QDs, compared to MUA-capped [-] InP QDs.

Constitution of action spectra

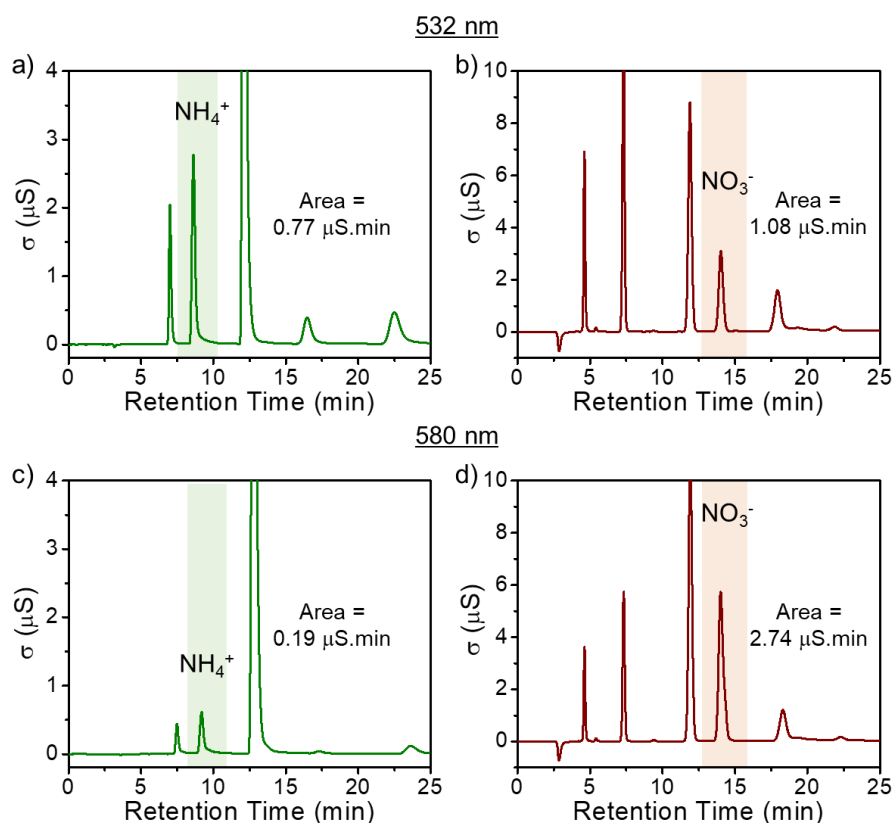


Figure 4a.23. Wavelength-dependent photocatalytic NH_4^+ synthesis with [+] InP QDs. Cation (a,c) and anion (b,d) chromatograms for photocatalytic experiment performed under a, b) 532 nm and c, d) 580 nm irradiation using 2×10 W LEDs (incident light intensity was kept similar $\sim 200 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$).

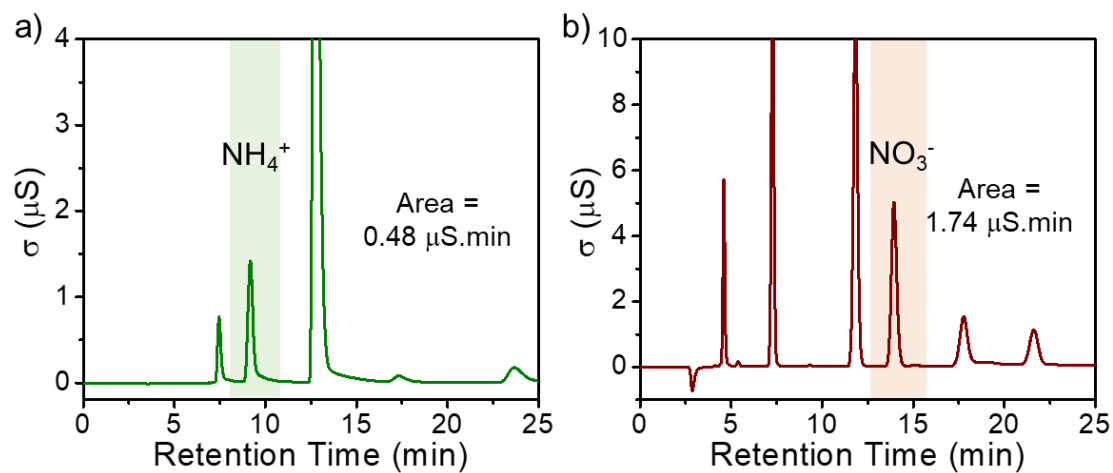
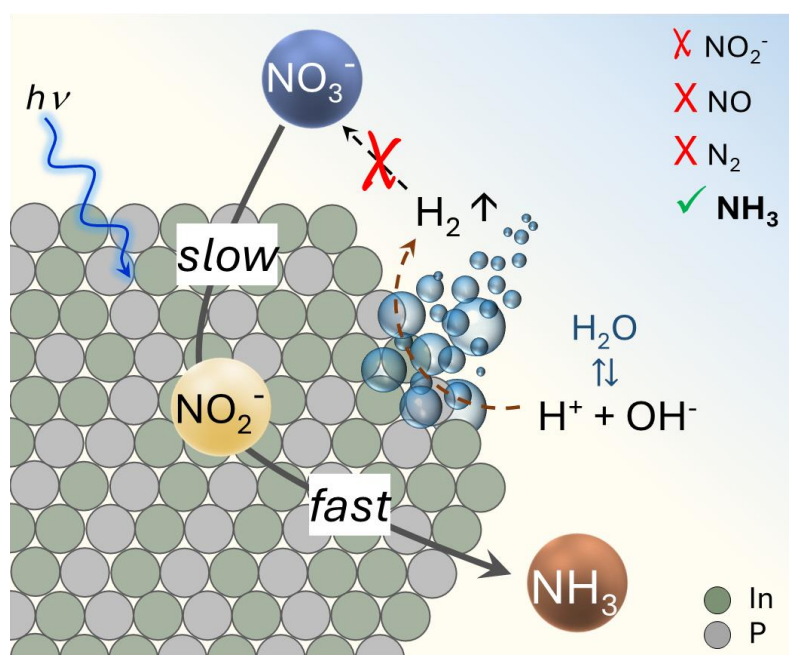
Photocatalytic experiments in sunlight

Figure 4a.24. Representative chromatograms for a) NH_4^+ and b) NO_3^- quantification after the photocatalytic reaction performed with [+] InP QDs under natural sunlight for 2 h.

Chapter – 4b

Insights into Photocatalytic Ammonia Synthesis with InP Quantum Dots



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Jain, V.; Tyagi, S.; Roy, P.; Pillai, P. P. Ammonia Synthesis with Visible Light and Quantum Dots. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2024**, 146, 32356-32365.

4b.1. Abstract

Light-driven ammonia synthesis from nitrate/nitrite ions has emerged as a viable strategy to complement the existing methods of green ammonia synthesis. In this direction, we designed a simple yet efficient, III-V indium phosphide (InP) quantum dots (QDs) based photocatalytic system to produce ammonia under visible light irradiation at room temperature. The presence of catalytic indium sites and microenvironment modulation through precise regulation of catalyst-reactant interactions in InP QDs were the keys to achieving excellent photocatalytic activity. As nitrate-to-ammonia conversion is a multielectron and multiproton coupled process, we attempt to gain an in-depth understanding of important pathways involved in the InP QDs photocatalysed synthesis of ammonia. Kinetic studies revealed the energetically challenging nitrate-to-nitrite conversion as the rate-determining step, with subsequent reactions proceeding with ~100 % conversion to yield ammonia. The sole presence of ammonia in both the aqueous and gaseous phases, along with negligible accumulation of any byproducts, confirms the excellent selectivity of InP QDs. Further mechanistic investigations ascertained a negligible role of competing hydrogen evolution in the direct nitrate reduction, confirming the active participation of photoexcited charge carriers from InP QDs in the ammonia synthesis. A series of experiments concluded that water is the proton source in InP QD photocatalysed ammonia synthesis. Finally, optimizing the photocatalytic reaction system by using core/shell InP/ZnS QDs and an additional hole scavenger enabled long-term photocatalytic experiments, with complete retention of the photocatalytic activity up to 4 cycles and 75 % retention in the subsequent cycles. In short, the present study provides important mechanistic insights into establishing InP QD as a potential visible-light photocatalyst for ammonia synthesis.

4b.2. Introduction

Ammonia (NH_3) synthesis from nitrate (NO_3^-) and nitrite (NO_2^-) ions as the N-source emerges as a viable route to reduce the burden on the existing Haber-Bosch process while simultaneously offering water remediation opportunities.¹⁻⁵ The reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 is a multiproton (9H^+) coupled multielectron (8e^-) transfer transformation, which proceeds via multiple deoxygenation and protonation steps.^{4,5} For the deep reduction of NO_3^- (oxidation state = +5) to form NH_3 (oxidation state = -3), multiple electrons (8e^-) must be transferred, which necessitates the stabilization of 1e^- intermediates long enough till the successive electron transfer process can take place.⁶ Further, the transformation is accompanied by elementary multiple proton transfer steps. Since there exists a mass difference between electrons and protons, the latter being heavier, the coordination between electron and proton delivery is inherently challenging.⁶ Because of the difference in thermodynamics, kinetics, and reactivities of the electron and protons, photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_3 conversion suffers from low quantum efficiencies, accumulation of side reactions, and coexistence of competing $2\text{e}^-/2\text{H}^+$ proton reduction to H_2 .^{1-5,7-9} The standard reduction potential of different steps involved in NO_3^- reduction, as shown in **Table 4b.1.**, clearly shows that N_2 and NH_3 are the most thermodynamically stable products.^{4,10} As multiple steps are involved in NO_3^- reduction, several reaction paths exist that branch out to yield N_2 , N_2H_4 , or NH_3 , which makes the elucidation of the exact reduction pathway challenging (**Figure 4b.1**).^{4,10}

Table 4b.1. Standard redox potentials for different NO_3^- reduction products

Reduction reaction	Standard redox potential
$\text{NO}_3^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{NO}_2^- + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 0.49 \text{ V}$
$\text{NO}_3^- + 4\text{H}^+ + 3\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{NO} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 0.96 \text{ V}$
$\text{NO}_3^- + 7\text{H}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_2\text{OH} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 0.67 \text{ V}$
$\text{NO}_3^- + 10\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_4^+ + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 1.20 \text{ V}$
$2\text{NO}_3^- + 10\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{N}_2\text{O} + 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 1.12 \text{ V}$
$2\text{NO}_3^- + 12\text{H}^+ + 10\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{N}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 1.25 \text{ V}$
$2\text{NO}_2^- + 8\text{H}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_4^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$E^\circ = 0.90 \text{ V}$

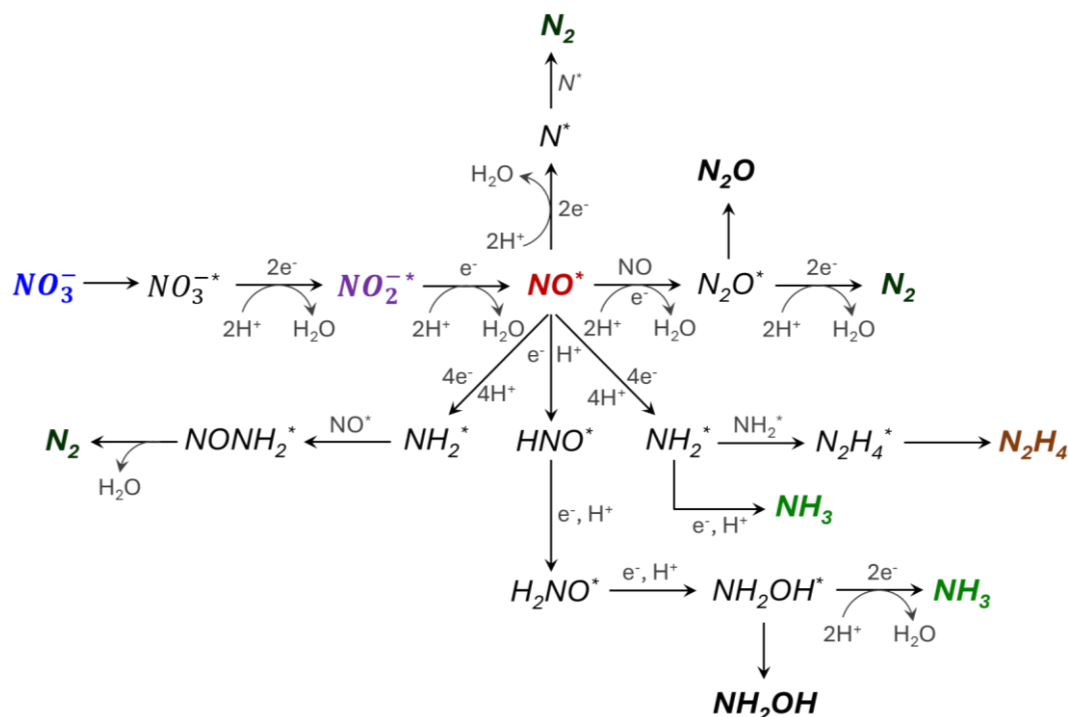


Figure 4b.1. Schematics showing the proposed reaction mechanism for NO_3^- reduction. Redrawn with permission from references 4 and 10. Copyright 2022 The Royal Society of Chemistry and Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society. * refers to adsorbed molecule.

Given the limited literature reports on photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 , there is only a limited understanding of the exact mechanistic pathways. In most cases, there is a heavy reliance on theoretical support to gain an in-depth understanding of the pathway involved.^{2,11-14} However, attempts have been made recently to elucidate the reaction mechanisms using in-situ techniques.^{15,16} For instance, in an interesting work by Shiraishi and coworkers, Cu^{2+} doped TiO_2 was explored for NO_3^- reduction to ammonia using water as an electron donor.¹⁶ Here, Cu^{2+} doping eliminates lattice O from TiO_2 and produces vacancies, which play a crucial role in NO_3^- adsorption and subsequent reduction. The photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction yielded NH_4^+ and NO_2^- as the major products along with H_2 (**Figure 4b.2a**). While the rate of NO_2^- generation decreases with time, a gradual increase in NH_3 formation indicated simultaneous $8e^-$ and $2e^-$ reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 and NO_2^- , respectively. In-situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) was employed to study the role of O-vacancies in NO_3^- reduction. In-situ DRIFTS spectrum revealed the emergence of negative peaks in the $3100\text{--}3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\sim 1620\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region, corresponding to stretching band of adsorbed water molecules ($\nu(\text{O-H})$) and NO_3^- ions ($\nu(\text{NO}_3^-)$), respectively (**Figure 4b.2b**). Upon light

irradiation, a broad band appeared at $\sim 2080\text{ cm}^{-1}$ which was attributed to the stretching band of nitrosyl intermediates ($\nu(\text{N}=\text{O})$) (**Figure 4b.2b**). As the reaction progressed, stretching and bending bands at 2970 cm^{-1} and 1690 cm^{-1} intensified, suggesting the formation of N-H bonds (**Figure 4b.2b**). No such bands appeared when Cu(0) was doped into TiO_2 , indicating the active participation of O-vacancies created by Cu^{2+} in NO_3^- reduction (**Figure 4b.2b**). The overall reaction was proposed by combining in-situ DRIFTS data with DFT calculations. The Lewis-base NO_3^- adsorbs onto Ti^{3+} and Cu^{2+} sites of O-vacant Cu^{2+} -doped TiO_2 , and undergoes N-O cleavage by photoexcited electrons localized on Ti^{3+} sites. This results in NO_2^- intermediate adsorbed on Cu^{2+} sites via N-Cu bond and removal of one water molecule. Further N-O bond cleavage results in a bridging NO intermediate, which further undergoes a deoxygenation step to form a secondary amine intermediate, ultimately forming NH_3 . Finally, adsorbed NH_3 is desorbed from the surface (**Figure 4b.c**). DFT calculations also revealed that the N-O cleavage of NO_3^- is the rate-determining step, whereas the other three steps proceed with negligible activation energies. Moreover, it was proposed that the accumulation of NO_2^- occurs due to the involvement of indirect NO_3^- reduction pathways where weakly absorbed NO_2^- intermediate desorbs from O-vacancies. The promotion of a direct pathway instead of this indirect pathway was found to be dependent on photon flux, with higher NH_3 formation with higher light intensities.

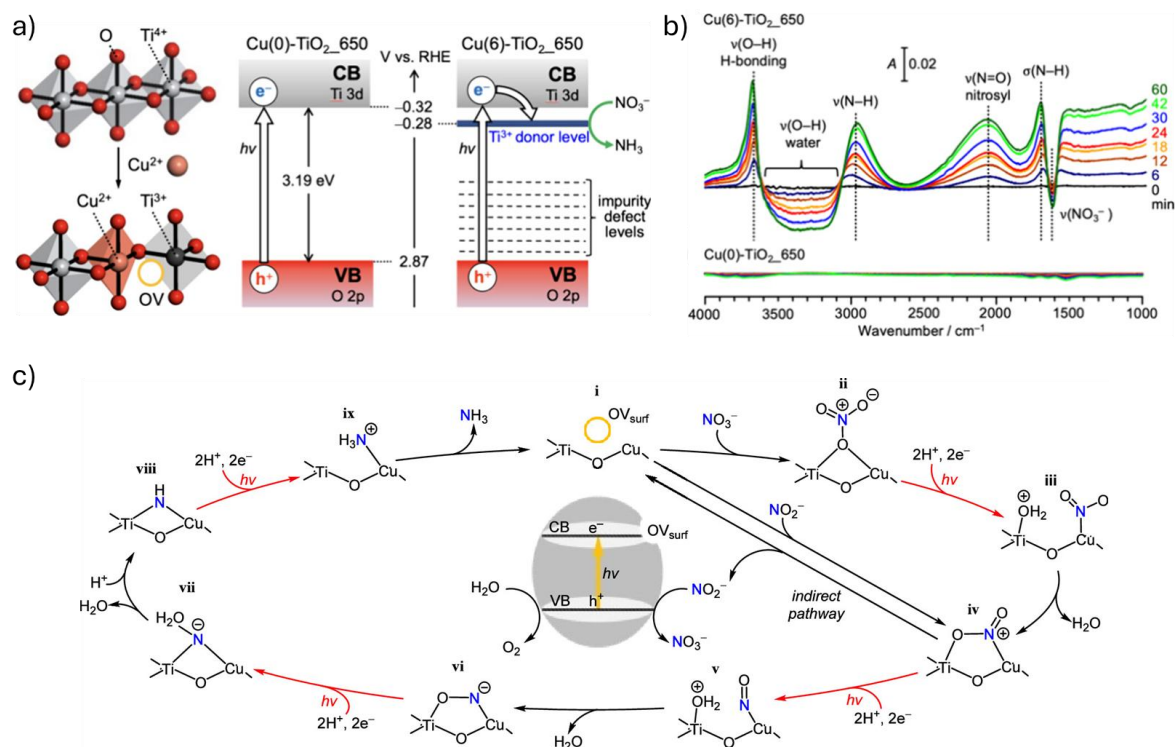


Figure 4b.2. Photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction with Cu^{2+} -doped TiO_2 . a) Schematics of the Cu^{2+} doping into TiO_2 and its effect on the electronic structure. b) In-situ DRIFTS spectra of NO_3^- reduction over Cu^{2+} - TiO_2 and $\text{Cu}(0)$ - TiO_2 under continuous light irradiation at -173°C in vacuum. c) Proposed reaction mechanism for NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 based on in-situ DRIFTS and DFT calculations. Reproduced with permission from reference 16. Copyright 2025 American Chemical Society.

It is widely known that the majority of proton-coupled multielectron reactions are accompanied by kinetically facile $2\text{H}^+/2\text{e}^-$ reduction reactions, evolving H_2 .⁶ In the case of NO_3^- reduction, H_2 evolution is not just a competing reaction but is proven to be non-innocent in some cases.^{8,9,17-19} In an early example, Yamauchi and coworkers observed that selective NH_3 was produced from NO_3^- ions with photocatalytically generated H_2 over CuPd/TiO_2 .⁸ The excellent hydrogenation over CuPd nanoalloys to form NH_3 was attributed to the high ratio of reductant H species to the surface coverage of N species, H/N (**Figure 4b.3a**). As H_2 evolution was higher in the case of CuPd/TiO_2 than Pd/TiO_2 , the adsorbed N species are continuously in proximity with nascent H atoms, resulting in complete hydrogenation of NO_3^- to form NH_3 . In another instance, Kamiya and coworkers coupled Pt/TiO_2 photocatalysts and $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ non-photocatalyst for photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to N_2 in water.¹⁸ Here, H_2 was photocatalytically generated by Pt/TiO_2 , which was then utilized as a reductant by $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to convert NO_3^- to N_2 . Negligible

NO_3^- conversion occurred in the presence of only Pt/TiO_2 or $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, suggesting the need for a coupled system. Control experiments revealed that the amount of N_2 formed corroborates well with the amount of H_2 generated in the absence of NO_3^- under similar reaction conditions. An excellent catalytic hydrogenation of NO_3^- over $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ with H_2 gas under dark conditions confirmed the active participation of photocatalytically generated H_2 evolution from Pt/TiO_2 in reducing NO_3^- over $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Recently, some transition metal phosphides have also showcased hydrogenation ability for nitrate reduction.^{19,20} The rationale behind the participation of H-atoms in direct hydrogenation of NO_3^- usually stems from the H-adsorption capability and the proximal presence of diverse surface sites for the adsorption of different intermediates on transition metal phosphides (**Figure 4b.3b**).¹⁹ Such proximity between H-adsorption sites and local active sites allows ready reaction between the two, resulting in a dominant role of the hydrogenation pathway rather than the charge transfer one.

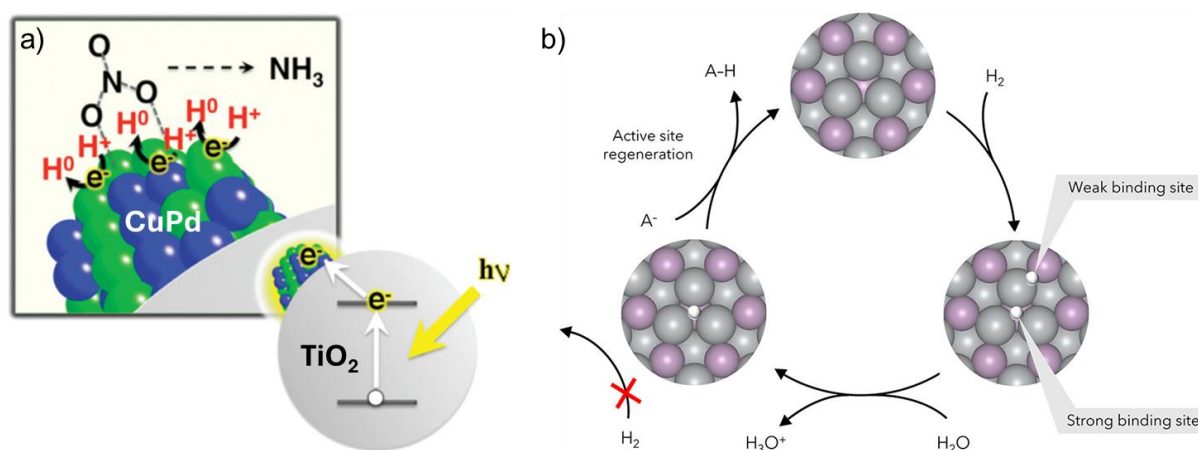


Figure 4b.3. Role of competing H_2 evolution in nitrate reduction. a) Schematics of nitrate reduction with photocatalytically generated hydrogen over PdCu-TiO_2 under UV excitation. Reproduced with permission from reference 8. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society. b) Schematics showing the role of adsorbed H atoms in facilitating hydrogenation of A^- over transition metal phosphides. Here, white, grey, and purple spheres represent H, Ni, and P atoms. Reproduced with permission from reference 19. Copyright 2023 American Chemical Society.

Herein, we attempt to gain an in-depth understanding of the important pathways involved in the InP QDs photocatalysed NH_3 synthesis from $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ ions. The sole formation of NH_3 in the aqueous and gaseous phases, without accumulation of any of the side products, confirmed the selective NH_3 synthesis with InP QDs. Detailed kinetics

and isotope-labeled studies suggested the first $2e^-$ transfer step involving NO_3^- to NO_2^- conversion as the rate-determining step. The absence of any side product except NH_3 clearly rules out several pathways for NO_3^- reduction, yielding N_2 as the final product. However, the fast kinetics associated with NO_2^- to NH_3 conversion make it challenging to decipher the exact reaction pathway for NH_3 synthesis, as shown in **Figure 4b.1**. Along with NO_3^- reduction, InP QDs also photocatalyzed H_2 evolution. The interference from the competing H_2 evolution reaction was overruled in the direct photoreduction of NO_3^- , proving that the photoexcited charge carriers formed in InP QDs mediate photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis. Finally, water was identified as the proton source in the photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis with [+] InP QDs. Further, optimizing the photocatalytic reaction system by using core/shell InP/ZnS QDs and an additional hole scavenger enabled long-term photocatalytic experiments, with complete retention of the photocatalytic activity up to 4 cycles and 75 % retention in the subsequent cycles. Given the limited literature available on photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_3 conversion, we provide key mechanistic details related to the kinetics, competing reactions, proton source, and the fate of photoexcited holes in the multielectron transformation of NO_3^- to NH_3 .

4b.3. Experimental section

4b.3.1. Identification of side products

As NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ involves multiple electrons and protons, various side products tend to accumulate during the reaction. Most commonly observed products include NO_2^- , NH_2OH , N_2H_4 , N_2 , and NO_x (g).^{4,5} We analyzed the formation of these products in our photocatalytic reduction reaction through chromatographic and spectroscopic techniques. In our study, NO_2^- ions were analyzed using ion chromatography, NH_2OH and N_2H_4 were analyzed with colorimetry assays, and N_2 and NO_x in the headspace were analyzed with mass spectrometry.

4b.3.1a. Identification of hydroxylamine (NH_2OH)

The presence of NH_2OH was determined from 8-hydroxyquinoline-based colorimetric method.²¹ A typical analysis consists of mixing 1 mL of analyte solution, 1 mL of PBS, and

1 mL of 1 % 8-hydroxyquinoline. To this mixture, 1 mL of 0.1 M Na_2CO_3 was added under vigorous shaking, followed by heating at 100 °C. The development of bright bluish green color with absorption peak at ~706 nm confirms the presence of NH_2OH . A calibration curve was plotted with 0-250 μM NH_2OH solutions from the absorption spectra.

4b.3.1b. Identification of hydrazine (N_2H_4)

The amount of N_2H_4 was determined by standard Watt-Chrisp method.²² In a typical procedure, the coloring agent was prepared by dissolving 4-(dimethylamino)benzaldehyde in conc. H_2SO_4 and ethanol. Equal volumes of N_2H_4 containing solution and coloring agent were mixed and left for 20 min for the color to develop. In the presence of hydrazine, the solution turns yellow with a characteristic absorption peak at 458 nm. A calibration curve was plotted from standard N_2H_4 solutions (0-3 ppm), and the amount of N_2H_4 formed during the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- was obtained from this.

4b.3.2. Glutamate dehydrogenase (GLDH) assay

GLDH assay²³ was used to derivatize $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ formed after the photocatalytic reaction performed in D_2O with [+] InP QDs to prove the role of water as the proton source. In a typical procedure, [+] InP QDs were removed after the photocatalytic reaction, and to this reaction mixture, NADH (6 μM), α -ketoglutarate (20 μM), and GLDH enzyme (1.2 units) were added. The reaction mixture was incubated at 25 °C for 6 h for the formation of glutamate. The progress of glutamate formation was monitored using UV-vis absorption, where the peak at 340 nm corresponding to NADH was monitored. After the enzyme assay, the reaction mixture was analyzed using high-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS). A similar procedure was adopted for the analysis of isotope-labelled glutamate formed via reaction between $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ (formed in the photocatalytic reaction carried out in D_2O with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as N-source) and α -ketoglutarate in the presence of NADH and GLDH.

4b.3.3. Recyclability study and long-term experiments

4b.3.3a. With core-only InP QDs

The recyclability experiments were performed using a dip-catalyst system, which was prepared by the drop-cast of oleylamine (OAm)-capped InP QDs on Whatman filter paper film (2 cm x 1 cm), followed by drying. This paper film was dipped in the aqueous reaction mixture containing KNO_2 (0.5 mM) and irradiated for 6 h. After each photocatalytic cycle, the film was removed, washed, and dried for the next cycle, and the reaction mixture was analyzed using IC.

4b.3.3b. With core-shell InP/ZnS QDs

The challenge associated with the etching of core-only QDs was overcome by performing recyclability studies with InP/ZnS core/shell QDs, which is a well-known type-I core/shell material.²⁴ A paper-based dip catalyst system was prepared by drop-casting OAm-capped InP/ZnS QDs on Whatman filter paper film (2 cm x 1 cm), followed by drying. This paper film was dipped in the aqueous reaction mixture containing KNO_2 (0.5 mM) and 10 % ethanol and irradiated for 6 h. Because type I core/shell QDs have a higher degree of confinement of the excitons within the core material, which reduces the charge transfer efficiency, ethanol was introduced as the hole scavenger to enhance the conversion yield. After each photocatalytic cycle, the film was removed, washed, and dried for the next cycle, and the reaction mixture was analyzed using IC.

4b.4. Results and discussion

4b.4.1. Identification of side products

As NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ involves multiple electrons ($8e^-$) and protons (10H^+), various side products tend to accumulate during the reaction, which can impact the product selectivity.^{4,5} As time progressed, a gradual decrease in NO_3^- concentration from 500 μM to $260 \pm 36 \mu\text{M}$ was observed with a concomitant increase in NH_4^+ in the aqueous phase (**Figure 4b.4a**). However, the NH_4^+ concentration in the aqueous phase did not corroborate well with the total NO_3^- conversion, suggesting the formation of other

reduction products. Thus, detailed studies were performed to detect the presence of side-products formed during the $[+]$ InP QD photocatalyzed synthesis of NH_4^+ . Most commonly observed NO_3^- reduction products include NO_2^- (aq.), NH_2OH (aq.), N_2H_4 (aq.), N_2 (g), and NO (g).^{4,5,10} Ion-chromatography studies revealed a negligible accumulation of NO_2^- ions during the course of the photocatalytic reaction (**Figure 4b.4b**). Furthermore, gas-phase mass analysis and spectroscopic studies show a negligible formation of gaseous (N_2 and NO) and aqueous phase products (NH_2OH and N_2H_4), respectively (**Figures 4b.4c-f, 4b.12, 4b.13**). As gas phase analysis revealed the presence of NH_3 in the reactor's headspace, we calculated the amount of NH_3 present in the gaseous phase. The cumulative NH_3 production in both aqueous and gaseous phases reached $0.80 \pm 0.19 \mu\text{moles}$ ($\sim 6.8 \text{ ppm}$, $\sim 430 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$), which accounts for $\sim 94 \%$ of the total NO_3^- converted. In essence, it can be concluded that $[+]$ InP QDs selectively reduce NO_3^- to NH_3 under visible-light illumination.

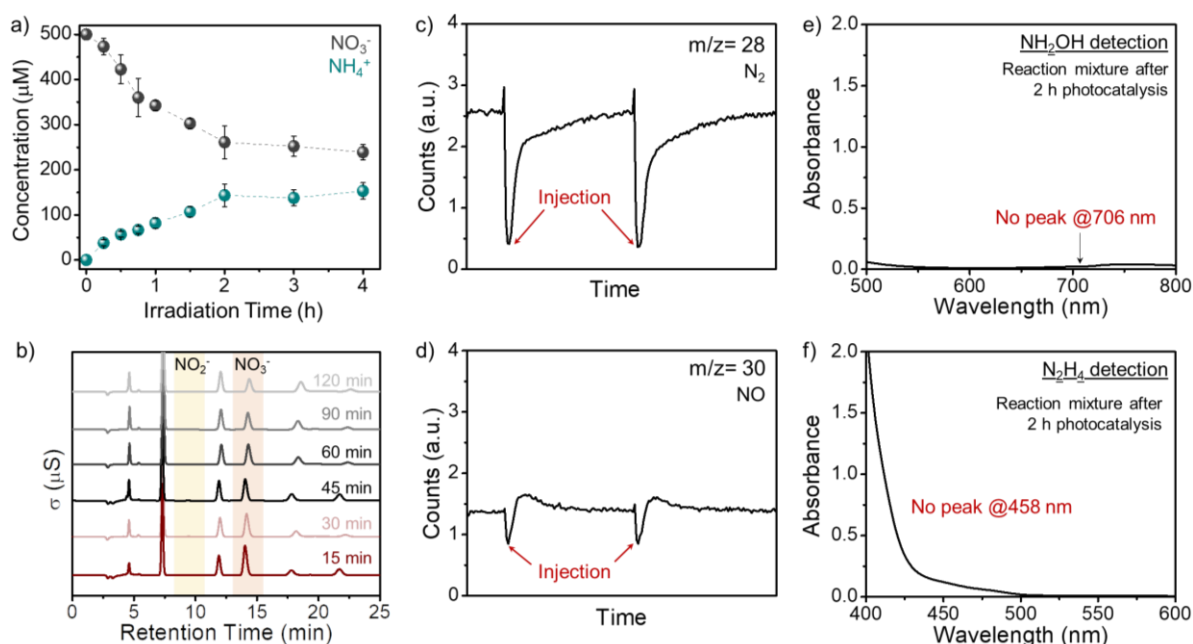


Figure 4b.4. Identification of side products in InP QDs photocatalyzed ammonia synthesis. a) Progress of $[+]$ InP QD photocatalysed reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ monitored through IC. The dotted lines are only to guide the eyes. b) Progress of the reaction monitored through ion chromatography. With increasing reaction time, a gradual decrease in NO_3^- concentration can be seen from variation in peak intensities. No traces of NO_2^- were observed during the photocatalytic reaction. Analysis of common gaseous side products c) N_2 and d) NO through mass spectrometry. Negligible traces of N_2 and NO were observed in the reactor's headspace. Absorption spectrum of the reaction mixture after photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ with $[+]$ InP QDs for identification of e) hydroxylamine (NH_2OH) and f) hydrazine (N_2H_4). Absence of

absorption peak @706 nm and @458 nm confirm negligible formation of NH_2OH and N_2H_4 , respectively, in our study.

4b.4.2. Elucidation of rate-determining step

As per the electrochemical potentials, the initial two-electron reduction of NO_3^- to NO_2^- is the most energetically challenging step ($E^\circ = 0.49 \text{ V vs SHE}$) in the NH_4^+ synthesis from NO_3^- (**Figure 4b.5a**).^{25,26} Accordingly, NO_2^- was chosen as the N-source to evaluate the impact of reactant on [+] InP QD photocatalysed synthesis of NH_4^+ . Strikingly, a complete conversion of NO_2^- was observed within 1 h of visible-light illumination, along with an increase in NH_4^+ concentration in the aqueous phase to $280 \pm 25 \mu\text{M}$ ($\sim 5.5 \text{ ppm}$, $\sim 320 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) (**Figures 4b.5b, 4b.14**). The total NH_3 formed in the aqueous and gas phases was found to be $1.36 \mu\text{moles}$, which amounts to $\sim 91 \%$ of the total NO_2^- converted. The faster kinetics associated with NO_2^- to NH_4^+ conversion, corroborates well with the negligible accumulation of NO_2^- during the [+] InP QD photocatalysed reduction of NO_3^- (**Figure 4b.4b**). Further insights were obtained from competitive photocatalytic experiment performed with an equimolar mixture of $^{14}\text{NO}_3^- + ^{14}\text{NO}_2^-$, as the N-source. IC analysis reveals $\sim 100 \%$ conversion for NO_2^- , while $\sim 50 \%$ NO_3^- remained unreacted after 2 h of photocatalysis (**Figure 4b.5c, 4b.15**). This confirms a greater preference of [+] InP QDs towards NO_2^- reduction over NO_3^- reduction. An isotopic competition experiment between $^{14}\text{NO}_2^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ further validated the greater affinity of nitrite reduction with [+] InP QD photocatalyst. $^1\text{H-NMR}$ studies explicitly show that the formation of $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ from $^{14}\text{NO}_2^-$ source was remarkably higher than the formation of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ from $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ source (**Figure 4b.5d**). All these experiments suggest that NO_3^- to NO_2^- conversion is the probable rate-limiting step controlling the overall NH_3 synthesis when NO_3^- is used as the N-source.

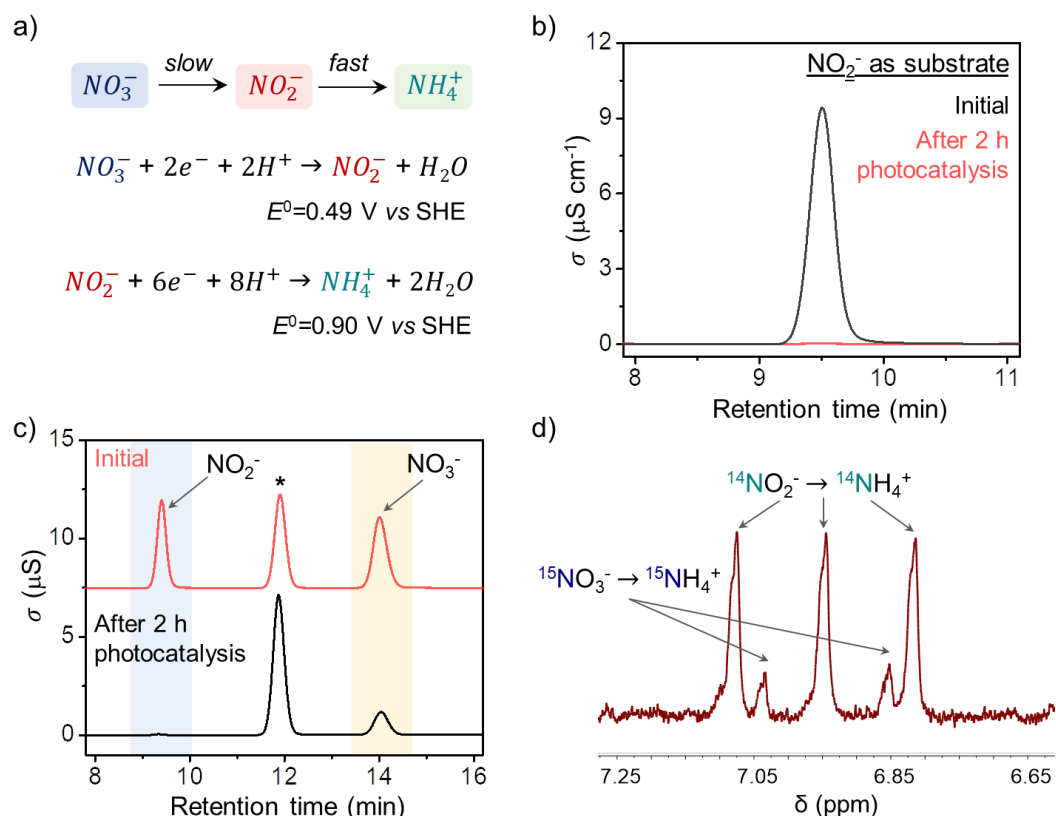


Figure 4b.5. a) A reaction scheme suggesting NO_3^- to NO_2^- conversion to be the probable rate-limiting step controlling the overall NH_3 synthesis, when NO_3^- is used as the N-source. b) Ion chromatograph for the photocatalytic experiment performed with NO_2^- as the N-source. c) Ion chromatograms and d) ^1H -NMR spectra for competitive photocatalytic experiments performed with equimolar mixture of $^{14}\text{NO}_2^- + ^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{14}\text{NO}_2^- + ^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-source, respectively. *represents Cl^- ion present in the reaction mixture. A clear preference for nitrite reduction over nitrate reduction was observed with $[+]$ InP QDs.

4b.4.3. Effect of competing hydrogen evolution reaction

Proton-coupled multielectron reactions are often challenged by the kinetically facile H_2 evolution reaction.⁶ From the band positions of InP QD, it is clear that both H_2 evolution as well $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ reduction reactions are thermodynamically feasible (**Figure 4b.6**). Indeed, we observed H_2 evolution along with NH_4^+ production from NO_3^- as well as NO_2^- under our reaction conditions (**Table 4b.2**). Previous literature reports suggest that photocatalytic H_2 evolution is not only a competing reaction but is a potent reductant for NO_3^- ions as well.^{8,16-19} This motivated us to delve into the role of H_2 in NO_3^- reduction in our system. The active role of photocatalytically generated H_2 in the direct reduction of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ was evaluated through a series of control experiments (**Table 4b.2**). Firstly, the reaction mixture containing only $[+]$ InP QDs was irradiated to produce H_2 . To this

preirradiated reaction mixture, $\text{KNO}_3/\text{KNO}_2$ was added under inert conditions and left for incubation for 2 h in the dark. IC analysis revealed negligible production of NH_4^+ for samples incubated in dark, whereas a strong signal corresponding to NH_4^+ appeared only after the light illumination of the above incubated sample (**Table 4b.2, Figures 4b.16, 4b.17**). Likewise, no noticeable NH_4^+ was formed by directly purging H_2 gas into the reaction mixture containing [+] InP QDs and KNO_3 in dark (**Table 4b.2, Figure 4b.18**), confirming the negligible interference of H_2 in the present study. Thus, all the control experiments confirm the active role of photoexcited charge carriers from [+] InP QDs for $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ reduction to NH_4^+ under visible-light illumination. Here, H_2 evolution is an inherent side reaction and does not affect the kinetics of NH_4^+ formation from NO_3^- as well as NO_2^- . However, it does influence the percentage conversion of NO_3^- , as a portion of the photoexcited charge carriers generated in [+] InP QDs are used for the H_2 evolution reaction as well (17.5 % of photoexcited charge carries is used for H_2 vs 82.5 % for NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ , details are provided in the Appendix). In the future, it would be interesting to adapt existing strategies from electrocatalysis to suppress the H_2 evolution reaction and improve the absolute amount of NH_4^+ formation. One such strategy could be to use ligand head groups with higher pKa values, so as to break the H-bonding that is a crucial aspect for H_2 evolution.²⁷ Another approach would be to add surface modifier ions such as Sr^{2+} , Mg^{2+} or Al^{3+} , which are non-catalytic for proton reduction and possess high negative reduction potentials.²⁸

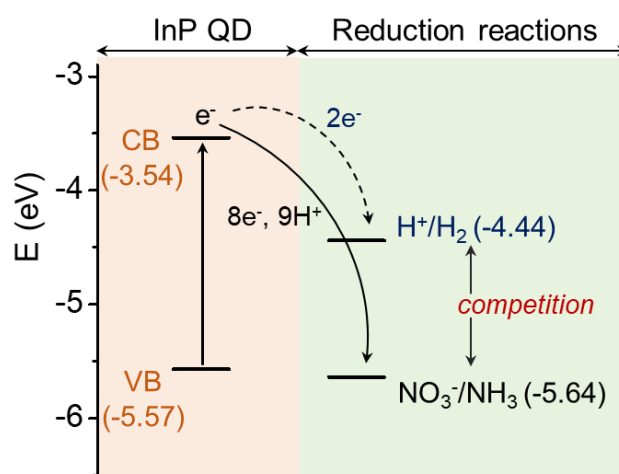


Figure 4b.6. Schematics of energy level diagram representing the thermodynamic feasibility of possible reduction reactions with [+] InP QDs. Under our reaction condition, photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_3 transformation was accompanied by H_2 evolution reaction.

Table 4b.2. Table summarizing the effect of photocatalytically generated H_2 in the direct reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ .

Reaction Condition	NO_3^- conversion (%)	$\text{NH}_{3(\text{aq.})}$ (%)	H_2 evolved (nmol)
Pre-irradiated [+] InP + KNO_3 (incubated in dark)	Negligible	Not formed	742 ± 52
Pre-irradiated [+] InP + KNO_3 + $h\nu$	52.2 ± 7.4	28.6 ± 5.0	678 ± 101
Pre-irradiated [+] InP + NO_2^- (incubated in dark)	Negligible	Not formed	632 ± 168
[+] InP + H_2 + NO_3^- (dark)	Negligible	Not formed	-
[+] InP + H_2 + NO_3^- ($h\nu$)	48.5 ± 4.6	25.7 ± 2.3	-

4b.4.4. Proton source and hole scavenger

Since photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ requires 10H^+ , we probed into the possible sources of protons in our reaction conditions. There are two possible proton sources in our system: (i) water and (ii) thiol group on TMA ligands present on the surface of [+] InP QDs. A series of experiments were performed to confirm the identity of the proton source. First, FTIR studies confirmed that TMA ligands bind as X-type ligands in the form of thiolates and, therefore, are devoid of any ionizable protons (**Figure 4a.5b**). This was further validated in a recent study by Hens and co-workers, where the native oleylamine ligands participated in acid-base reaction to form oleylammonium chloride leaving thiolates to bind on InP QDs.²⁹ Next, appreciable NH_3 formation was observed when InP QDs functionalized with non-thiolate quaternary ammonium ligands ($^-\text{OOC}-\text{CH}_2-\text{NMe}_3^+$, Betaine-InP QDs) were used as the photocatalyst ($\sim 45\%$ NO_3^- conversion, 2.16 ppm of NH_4^+ formed in the aqueous phase. **Figure 4b.7a, Scheme 4b.1**). This was further confirmed by performing photocatalytic experiments with the isotope-labeled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$. A clear emergence of characteristic doublet in ^1H -NMR ($J = 72\text{ Hz}$) corresponding to isotope labelled $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$, confirming NO_3^- to be the N-source (**Figure 4b.7b**). It is to be

noted that betaine, again, is devoid of any ionizable protons and cannot act as a proton source. All these experiments rule out the possibility of TMA ligands as a proton source.

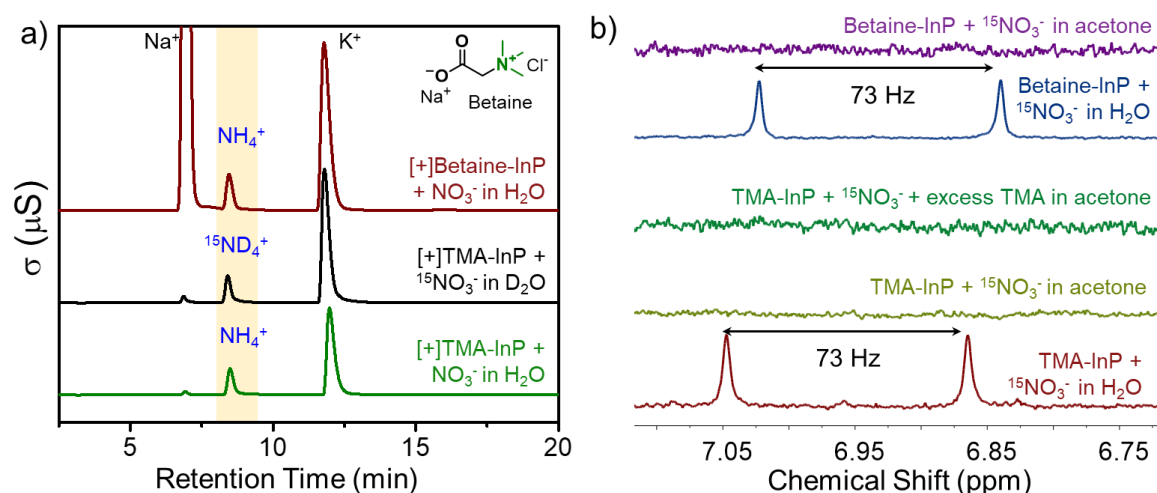


Figure 4b.7. Identification of proton source in photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis with $[\text{+}]$ InP QDs. a) Cation chromatograms of photocatalytic reactions performed in $[\text{+}]$ -InP QDs in D_2O and non-thiolated betaine ligand capped InP QDs, in comparison with $[\text{+}]$ -InP QDs in H_2O (the optimized condition). A clear formation of ammonium ion shows a prominent role of water as the proton source. b) Comparison of ${}^1\text{H}$ -NMR under different reaction conditions performed with ${}^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-source.

Further, the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- by $[\text{+}]$ InP QD was performed in a polar aprotic medium. Some of the most used polar aprotic solvents are acetone, acetonitrile, DMF and DMSO.³⁰ Here, we chose acetone as the polar aprotic solvent based on a prior literature report in QD photocatalysis by Wu and coworkers,³¹ where water was discovered as the sole proton source for H_2 evolution. In our study, no signs of NH_3 formation were observed when the reaction was performed in acetone (**Figure 4b.7b**, **Table 4b.3**). This indicates that water could probably be the proton source. An additional experiment performed in the presence of excess TMA-thiol ligands in acetone also resulted in negligible formation of NH_3 (**Figure 4b.7b**, **Table 4b.3**). In another control experiment, the photocatalytic reduction was performed in deuterated water (D_2O), which yielded a similar amount of ammonium ions as in the case of H_2O ($125.5 \pm 2 \mu\text{M}$ and $143 \pm 25 \mu\text{M}$ of ammonium ions in D_2O and H_2O , respectively in the aqueous phase. **Figure 4b.7a**).

The proof for water as the proton source came from glutamate dehydrogenase (GLDH) assay-based ammonia derivatization study, wherein $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ produced during the photocatalytic reaction forms isotope-labeled glutamate (**Figures 4b.8a, 4b.19-4b.21, Scheme 4b.2**). Further, the ultimate validation comes from the gas phase mass signals for $m/z=21$ and $m/z=19$ corresponding to $^{15}\text{ND}_3$ and $^{15}\text{ND}_2$ fragments, respectively (**Figures 4b.8b, 4b.22**). The evolution of H_2 in addition to NH_4^+ synthesis under photocatalytic conditions, also supports our claim of water as the proton source. From all the possible experiments performed, it can be concluded that water is surely acting as the sole proton source in the photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis with [+] InP QDs (**Table 4b.3**).

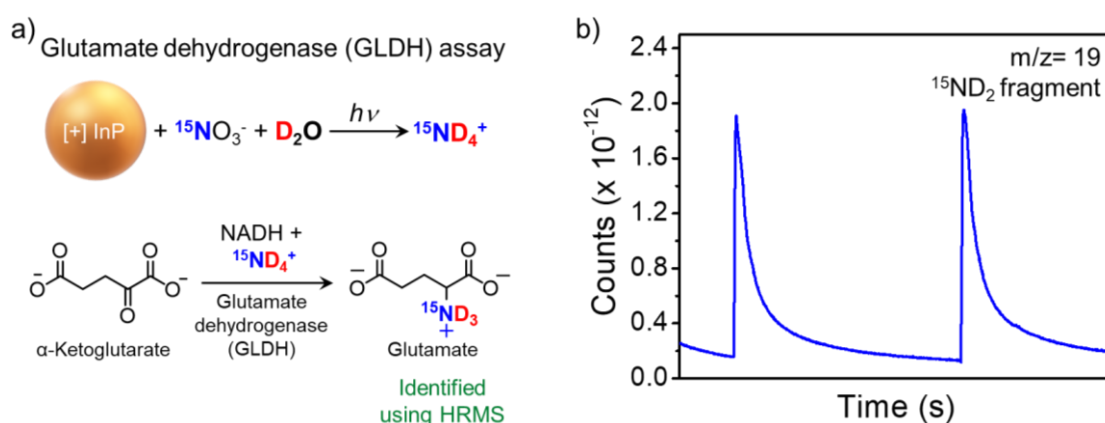
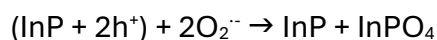
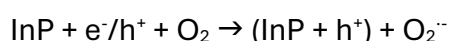
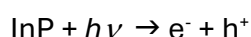


Figure 4b.8. Proof of water as the proton source in InP photocatalyzed ammonia synthesis from NO_3^- . a) Schematics showing the photocatalytic reduction of $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ to $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ with [+] InP QDs in D_2O . The bottom panel shows the glutamate dehydrogenase assay which converts α -ketoglutarate to isotope labelled-glutamate in presence of NADH, GLDH enzyme, and $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ (formed during photocatalysis). The identification of isotope-labelled glutamate using HRMS unambiguously confirmed that water is the sole proton source in the present study (**Figure 4b.21**). b) Gas phase mass analysis of the photocatalytic reaction performed with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in D_2O . Signals for $m/z = 19$, corresponding to $^{15}\text{ND}_2$ fragment confirm water as the proton source.

Next, probable processes dictating the fate of photoexcited holes are discussed. Intuitively, TMA-thiolate ligand and water could be the probable species that can act as hole scavengers. However, we failed to observe any oxidized products of TMA-thiolate as well as water, overruling their participation as the hole scavenger in our system. Literature reports reveal the presence of deep hole trap states in InP QDs, which in principle, can trap photoexcited holes from the valence band.^{29,32,33} Another possibility is the hole transfer-mediated dissociation of ligands from the QD surface, which was

reported in the case of CdS QDs.³⁴ All these possibilities can affect the photostability as well as the recyclability of the photocatalyst. In our study, a visual color change was observed for [+] InP QDs during the photocatalytic reaction (the deep orange color of [+] InP QDs faded with time). A time-dependent absorption study revealed a gradual blue shift of the first excitonic peak along with a decrease in the absorbance under light irradiation, confirming the etching of QDs during the photocatalytic process (**Figure 4b.9a**). The etching of InP was accompanied with surface oxidation of QD as evident from XPS studies (**Figures 4b.9b, 4b.23**). After the photocatalytic reaction, oxidation features were prominent for both In 3d and P 2p peaks (**Figure 4b.23**). In particular, the In 3d peak broadened, and a significant enhancement in P 2p peaks corresponding to InPO_x was observed, which confirms the oxidation process of core-only [+] InP QDs after the photocatalytic reaction (**Figures 4b.9b, 4b.23**). Consequently, the photocatalytic activity of InP QDs gradually decreased in each cycle, thereby impeding the recyclability beyond three cycles (**Figure 4b.24**). It is well known that InP QDs are prone to oxidation as oxygen and water can dissociatively adsorb on the InP surface.³⁵⁻³⁷ In a recent report by Jeong and coworkers, photoassisted surface oxidation of InP tetrahedrons was observed, which led to the blue shift in the absorption spectrum.³⁸ This was explained as follows:³⁸



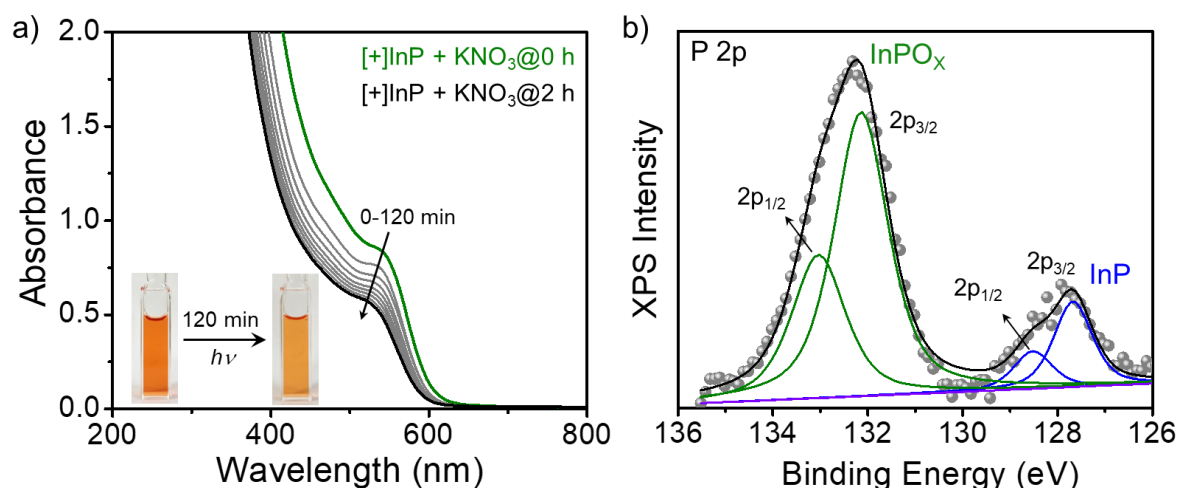


Figure 4b.9. Stability of InP QDs during the photocatalytic ammonia synthesis. a) Time-dependent absorption profile of [+] InP QDs in the photocatalytic reaction mixture. Inset shows the optical photograph of the reaction mixture before and after the photocatalytic reaction. A visual color change was observed for [+] InP QDs during the photocatalytic reaction (the deep orange color of [+] InP QDs faded with time), indicating the etching of QDs. b) Analysis of XPS spectra for [+] InP QDs after the photocatalytic reaction.

To gain better insight into the hole-scavenging step and improve the recyclability, we introduced InP/ZnS core/shell QDs and ethanol (EtOH) as the photocatalyst and external hole scavenger, respectively. EtOH provides a better driving force ($E^\circ = -4.66$ eV) than water ($E^\circ = -5.67$ eV) for the extraction of holes from the valence band of QDs. Moreover, employing EtOH as an additional hole scavenger aligns well with the current focus of producing more useful products in the oxidation half-cycle in photocatalysis.^{39,40} Interestingly, the use of EtOH allowed us to retain excellent photocatalytic efficiency with InP/ZnS core/shell QDs which was comparable to core-only InP QDs for ammonia synthesis (**Figures 4b.10a, 4b.10b**). The presence of acetaldehyde, an oxidized product of EtOH, was also observed during the gas-phase mass analysis (**Figure 4b.10c**). Along with the complete retention of their photocatalytic activity, InP/ZnS QDs exhibited excellent stability under prolonged irradiation for 36 h without any visual color change or etching (**Figures 4b.10d, 4b.25**). This enabled long-term photocatalytic experiments with complete retention of the photocatalytic activity up to 4 cycles, followed by 75 % retention in the subsequent cycles (**Figure 4b.10e**). It is to be noted that recyclability is an untouched aspect of QD photocatalysis, and we achieved this feat through the rational design of our photocatalytic system.

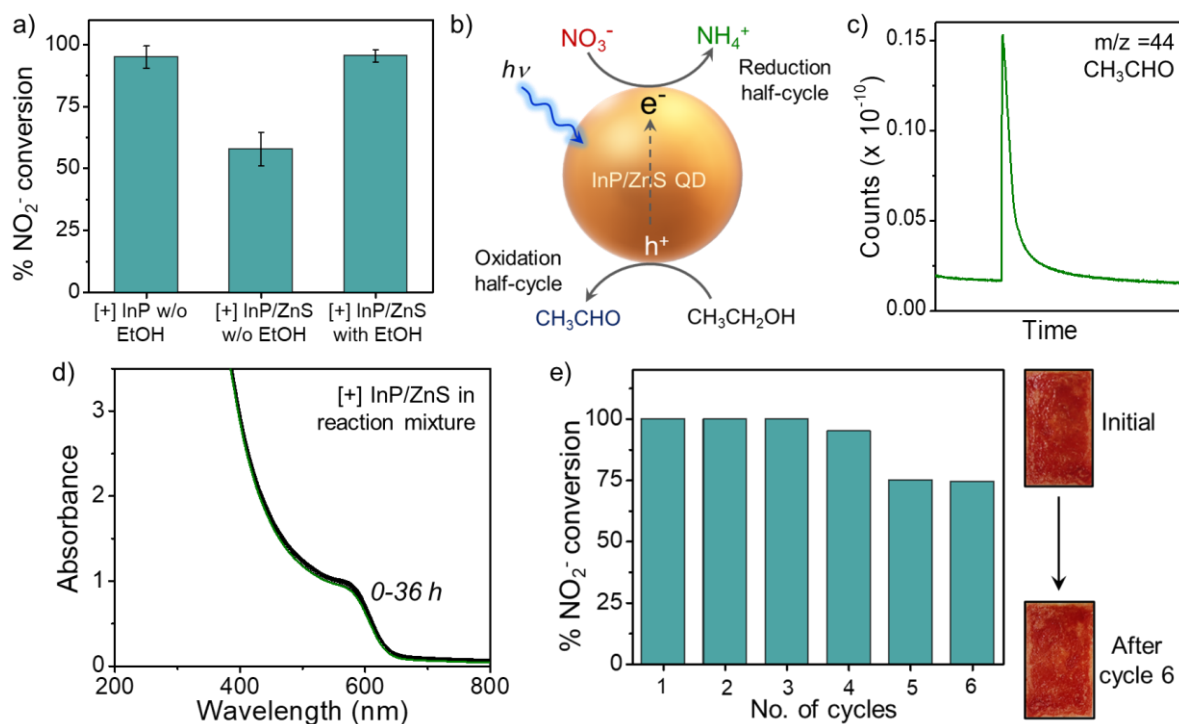


Figure 4b.10. a) Effect of ethanol (additional hole scavenger) on the photocatalytic activity. Bar diagram showing the efficiency of core-only InP vs core/shell InP/ZnS QDs in the presence and absence of ethanol as a hole scavenger. b) Schematics showing the photocatalytic processes in reduction and oxidation half-cycles with InP/ZnS QDs in presence of external hole scavenger (ethanol). c) Gas phase mass analysis of the photocatalytic reaction performed in the presence of ethanol ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$). The mass signal at $m/z=44$, corresponding to acetaldehyde (CH_3CHO), which is the oxidized product of ethanol, was observed. d) Time-dependent absorption spectra of the reaction mixture consisting of [+] InP/ZnS, KNO_2 , and ethanol (EtOH) show negligible change in the optical properties upon continuous light irradiation for 36 h with $2 \times 10\text{ W}$ 450 nm LEDs. e) Recyclability studies performed with a paper-based dip-catalyst system show excellent retention of photocatalytic activity with InP/ZnS core/shell QDs in the presence of ethanol as an additional hole scavenger. Optical photographs of paper-based dip catalyst film show excellent stability of InP/ZnS QDs even after ~ 36 h of continuous irradiation.

4b.4.5. Probable mechanism

Based on the accumulated experimental evidence and prior literature, we propose an overall mechanism for NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 with [+] InP QDs (**Figure 4b.11a**). Favourable electrostatic attraction between [+] InP QD and [-] NO_3^- modifies the microenvironment of QD photocatalyst by increasing the local concentration of NO_3^- , which enhances the probability of the charge transfer process. The photoexcited electrons are utilized for NO_3^- reduction, where NO_3^- to NO_2^- reduction step is slow and determines the overall rate of the reaction (**Figure 4b.11a**). The subsequent reduction of NO_2^- to NH_3 takes place rapidly with $\sim 100\%$ conversion. A series of control experiments

with deuterated water (D_2O), non-thiolated ligands, and in polar aprotic medium, with additional support from FTIR studies, confirm that water is the proton source in our study. A part of photoexcited electrons drive the competing H_2 evolution reaction, which does not interfere with the reduction of NO_3^- as well as NO_2^- to NH_3 by $[+]$ InP QDs (**Figure 4b.11a**). Now, the reduction of NO_3^- is reported to follow three main pathways: one resulting in N_2 as the end-product, whereas NH_3 is the end-product in remaining two pathways (**Figure 4b.11b**).^{4,5,41,42} Absence of N_2 formation, along with the selective formation of NH_3 with $[+]$ InP QDs rules out one of the three major pathways (**Figure 4b.11b**). Separate experiments were performed to identify the exact pathway involved in the present study (**Figure 4b.26**). However, the fast kinetics of NO_2^- to NH_4^+ formation inhibits the accumulation of any intermediates to be detected, which made the elucidation of the exact reaction pathway challenging. Appropriate in-situ experiments must be designed to detect the crucial short-lived intermediates and elucidate the exact pathway involved, which demands for a separate study.⁴³ Despite this, the present study provides important mechanistic insights in establishing InP QD as a potential visible-light photocatalyst for the synthesis of ammonia.

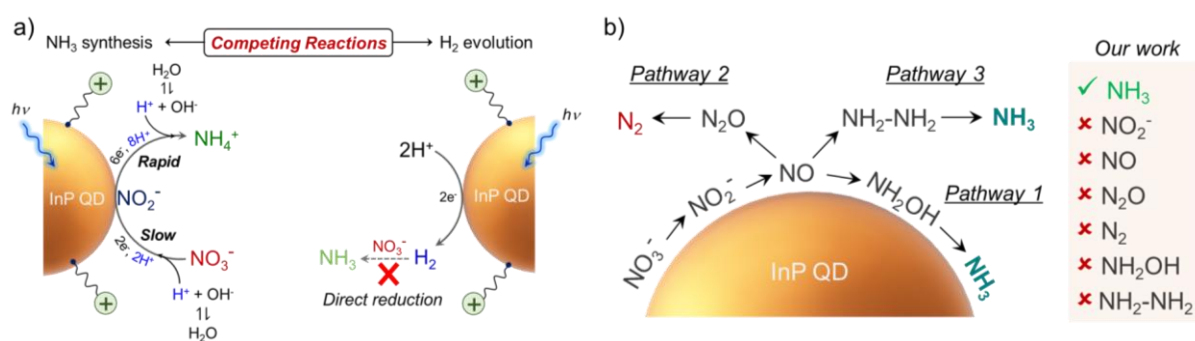


Figure 4b.11. a) Schematics of the proposed reaction mechanism for the visible-light photocatalysed reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ by $[+]$ InP QDs. b) Schematic representation of the three major pathways involved in photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- . Appropriate experiments were performed to identify different intermediates formed during the ammonia synthesis with $[+]$ InP QDs. However, the fast kinetics of NO_2^- to NH_4^+ formation inhibits the accumulation of any intermediates to be detected. A selective formation of NH_3 in aqueous and gaseous phases was achieved with $[+]$ InP QD as the photocatalyst.

4b.5. Conclusions

In light of establishing III-V InP QDs as visible-light photocatalysts for nitrate-to-ammonia conversion, a detailed mechanistic investigation was carried out in the present study. Kinetic analysis, in combination with isotope-labeled studies, revealed that the first two electron transfer steps for conversion of NO_3^- to NO_2^- determine the overall efficiency of ammonia synthesis with InP QDs. Negligible accumulation of any of the nitrate reduction products in the aqueous as well as the gas phase confirmed excellent selectivity of InP QDs for ammonia production under visible light irradiation. Along with ammonia formation, a part of the photoexcited charge carriers was involved in a kinetically facile H_2 evolution reaction, which proved innocent in the direct nitrate reduction. A series of control experiments ascertained water as the sole proton source in ammonia formation. We also gained insights into the hole scavenging step, which turned out to be crucial in achieving enhanced recyclability and enabled long-term photocatalytic experiments. In short, we listed key findings associated with reaction rate, competing reactions, proton source, and the fate of photoexcited holes in the multielectron transformation of nitrate to ammonia. With the insufficient research on reaction pathways for nitrate reduction, we strongly believe that our findings would serve as the blueprint for understanding a broad landscape of photocatalytic elements involved across different classes of materials. As visible-light photocatalytic reduction of nitrate to ammonia is still in the nascent stage, we envision that experimental data, in combination with appropriate in-situ studies and theoretical simulations, will build a strong foundation for scalable and sustainable NH_3 formation.

4b.6. References

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4b.7. Appendix

Identification of side products

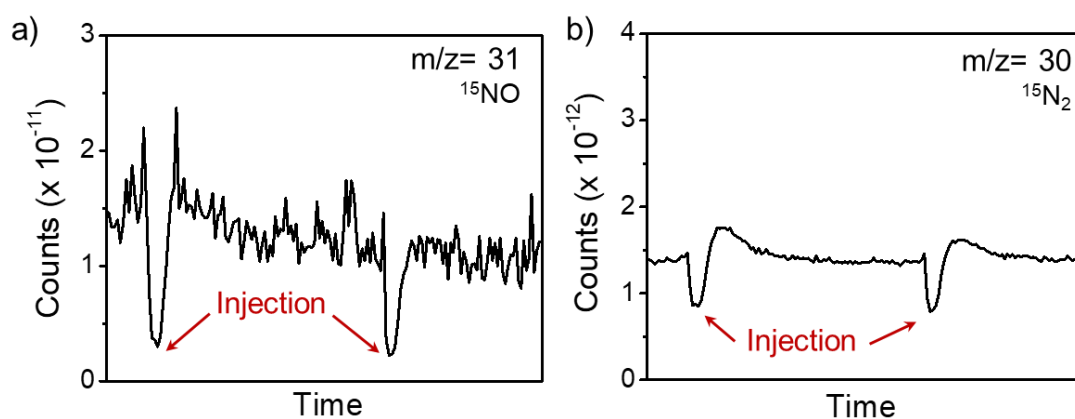


Figure 4b.12. Headspace analysis of the photocatalytic reaction performed with isotope labelled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$. Signals for a) $m/z = 31$ and b) $m/z = 30$ corresponds to ^{15}NO and $^{15}\text{N}_2$, respectively. A negligible amount of these gaseous products was observed in the headspace, confirming the selective formation of NH_3 .

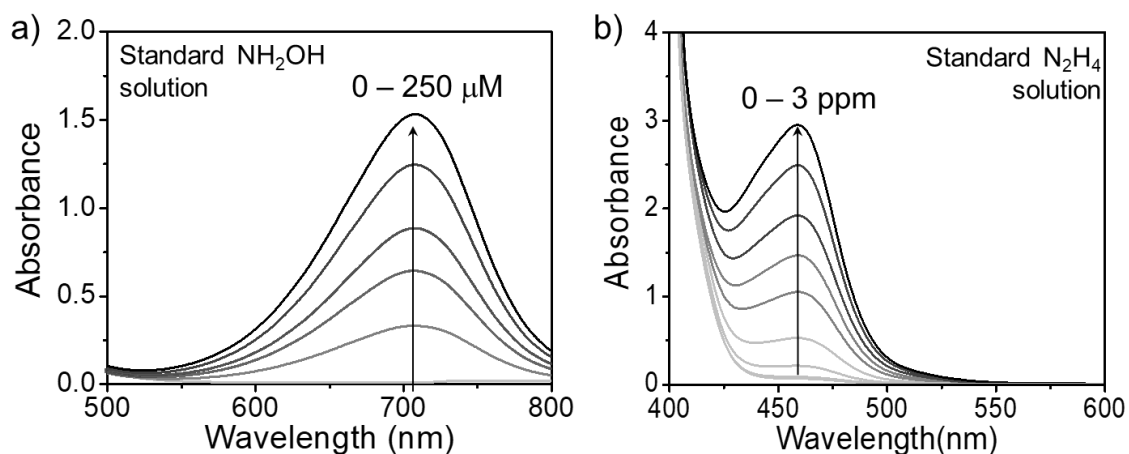


Figure 4b.13. a) Identification of NH_2OH in photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ using 8-hydroxyquinoline based colorimetry assay. Absorption spectra of the reaction mixture with a known concentration (0-250 μM) of NH_2OH . b) Identification of N_2H_4 in photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ using spectrophotometric Watt-Chrisp method. Absorption spectra of the reaction mixture with a known concentration (0-3 ppm) of N_2H_4 .

Elucidation of rate-determining step

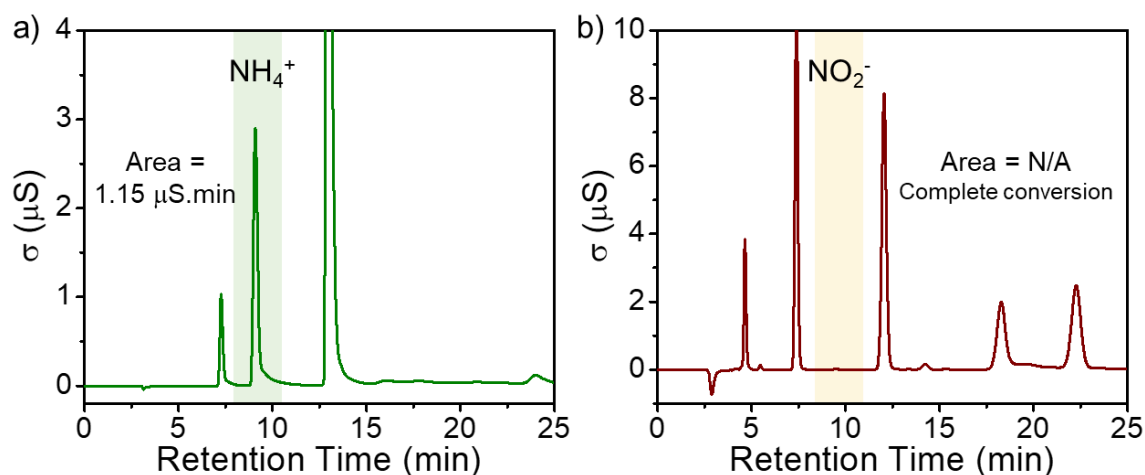


Figure 4b.14. Photocatalytic reaction with NO_2^- as the substrate. a) Cation and b) anion ion chromatograms for the reaction mixture, clearly showing the formation of NH_4^+ along with complete reduction of NO_2^- (retention time ~ 9.5 min).

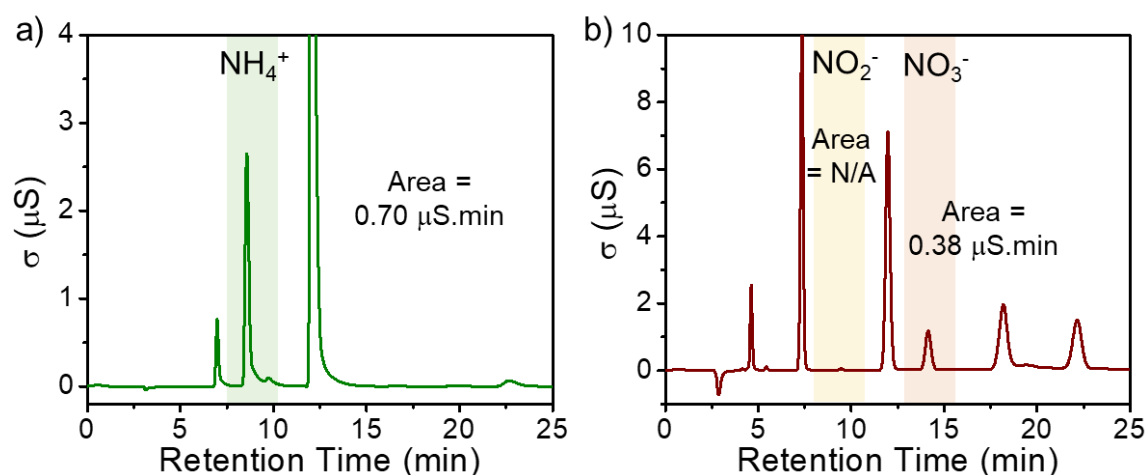


Figure 4b.15. Competing photocatalytic experiment performed with a mixture of NO_3^- and NO_2^- . a) Cation and b) anion ion chromatograms depicting the formation of NH_4^+ and conversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- . Anion chromatograms show complete conversion of NO_2^- , whereas NO_3^- still remained unreacted, suggesting NO_3^- to NO_2^- a probable rate determining step.

Role of H_2 in reduction of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ ions

H_2 evolution is a commonly observed competing reaction in photocatalytic reactions involving multiple electrons and protons. To evaluate its impact on photocatalytic nitrate reduction with InP QDs, we performed a series of control experiments. In one set of experiments, we irradiated [+] InP QDs in water for 2 h with $2 \times 10 \text{ W}$ 450 nm LEDs. This resulted in generation of H_2 which was analyzed using Agilent 7890 GC. To this pre-irradiated reaction mixture, we added 0.5 mM KNO_3 to evaluate whether H_2 can reduce NO_3^- or not. The reaction mixture was incubated in dark as well as light for next 2 h and analyzed using ion chromatography (**Figure 4b.16**). NH_3 formation was observed only under light illumination with little-to-no impact on reaction efficiency. Similarly, H_2 evolution did not impact NH_3 formation with NO_2^- as the substrate as well (**Figure 4b.17**). We further validated the negligible role of H_2 by directly purging H_2 gas in the reaction mixture and incubated for 2 h in light as well as dark conditions. Again, reaction was found to proceed only in the presence of light with no activity at all in the dark conditions (**Figure 4b.18**). All these experiments confirm that H_2 evolution is merely a competing reaction and does not participate in reduction of NO_3^- and NO_2^- to form NH_3 .

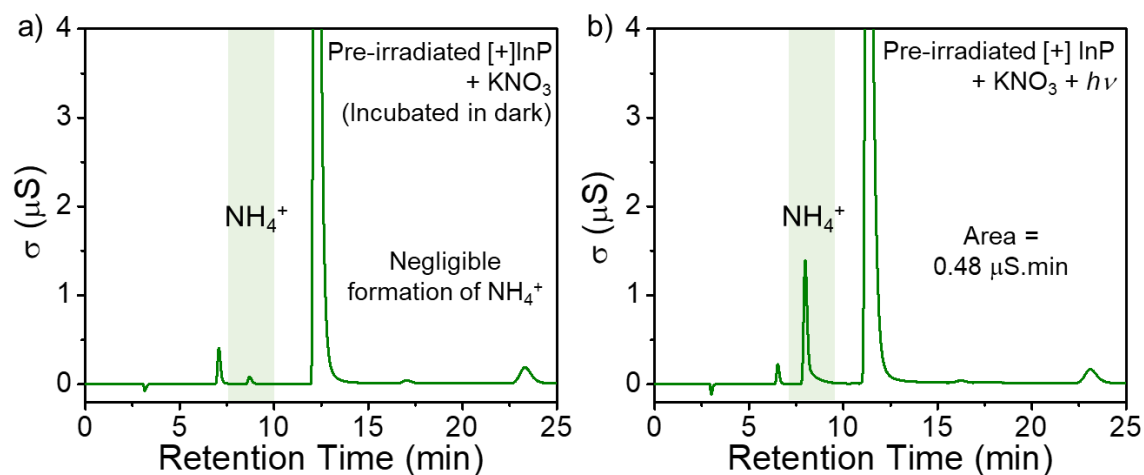


Figure 4b.16. Role of photocatalytic H_2 evolution in nitrate reduction. Cation ion chromatograms a) in absence of light and b) in presence of light after addition of KNO_3 in the preirradiated reaction mixture containing $[+]\text{InP}$ QDs. Irradiation of $[+]\text{InP}$ QDs in water results in H_2 evolution. However, no NH_4^+ formation took place after addition of NO_3^- to this irradiated reaction mixture when incubated in dark upto 2 h. NH_4^+ forms only in the presence of light, confirming the photocatalytic pathway for NO_3^- to NH_3 production.

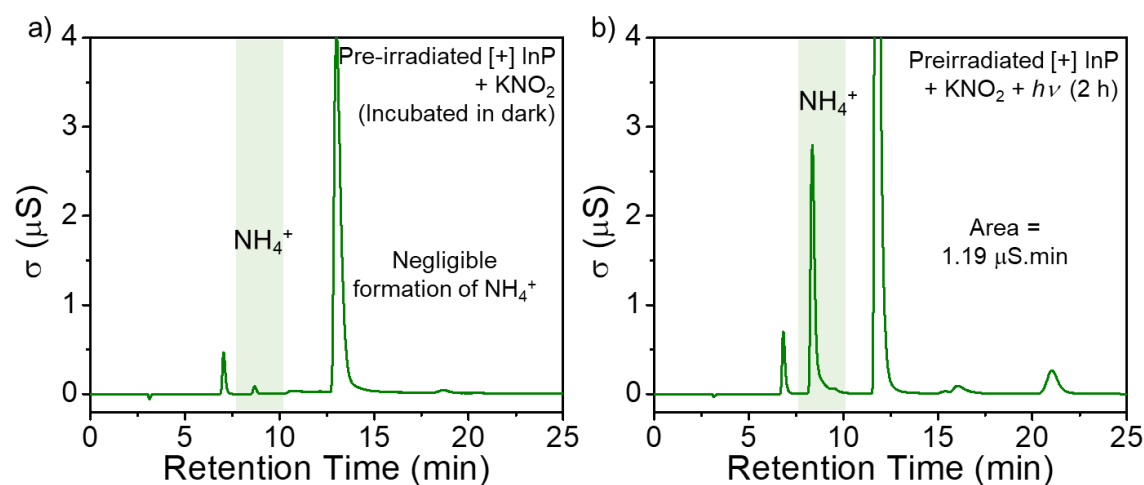


Figure 4b.17. Effect of photocatalytic H_2 evolution on KNO_2 reduction with $[+]\text{InP}$ QDs. Cation ion chromatograms a) in absence of light and b) in presence of light after addition of KNO_2 in the preirradiated reaction mixture containing $[+]\text{InP}$ QDs. Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution does not inhibit photocatalytic NH_4^+ formation.

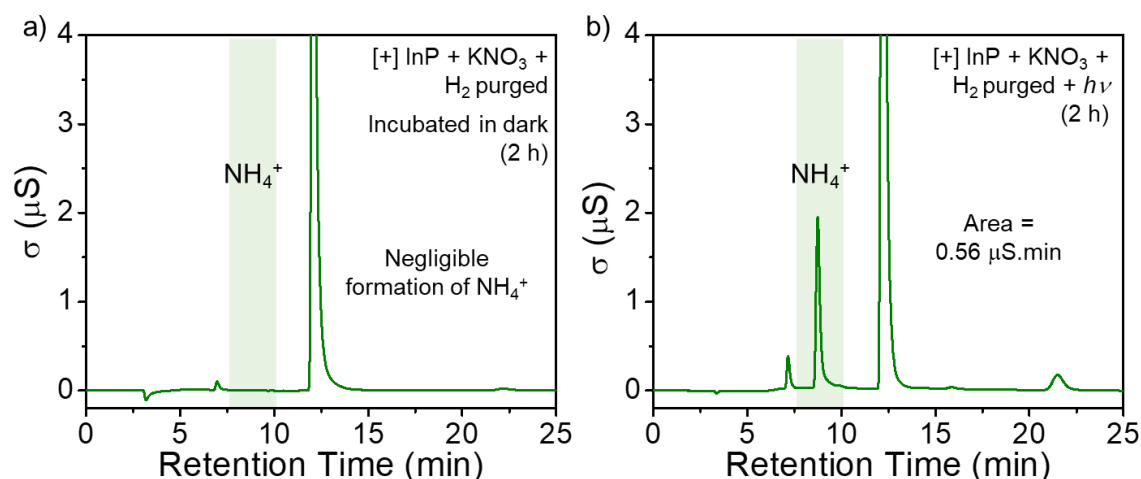


Figure 4b.18. Proof for active participation of photoexcited charge carriers in nitrate reduction. Ion chromatograms of reaction mixture purged with H_2 gas a) in absence of light, and b) in presence of light. A negligible formation of NH_4^+ was observed in presence of H_2 without light illumination, confirming negligible role of H_2 in direct reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 .

Utilization of photoexcited charge electrons

Assuming that each absorbed photon generates one e^-h^+ pair, the total number of photoexcited electrons will be 3.13×10^{21} at 450 nm excitation, as per the following equation:

$$\text{number of } e^- - h^+ \text{ pairs generated} = \frac{P_0 \times \lambda \text{ (m)} \times t \text{ (s)}}{hc} \times \% \text{ incident light absorbed}$$

where, P_0 (J s^{-1}) is the power of incident light, λ (m) is the wavelength (in meters) of LED light source, t (s) is the total irradiation time (in seconds), h is the Plank's constant ($\text{J}\cdot\text{s}$), and c is the speed of light (m s^{-1}).

The number of electrons extracted to form NH_4^+ and H_2 was calculated to be 4.82×10^{18} using the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of } e^- \text{ extracted} \\ = (8 \times \text{no. of moles of } \text{NH}_4^+ \times N_A) + (2 \times \text{no. of moles of } \text{H}_2 \times N_A) \end{aligned}$$

Here, 8 and 2 correspond to the number of electrons required for the reduction of nitrate to ammonium ions and proton to hydrogen, respectively. Moles of NH_4^+ and H_2 formed were estimated from ion chromatography and gas chromatography experiments, respectively. N_A is the Avogadro number.

As can be seen, $\sim 10^3$ electrons are lost without participating in the desired reaction. This inefficiency in extracting all the photoexcited charge carriers is well reflected in the low internal quantum yield (IQY), as reported in our study.

The complex interplay of exciton dynamics and interfacial catalytic events across different scales accounts for these losses. Upon light irradiation, excitons are generated in QDs within fs timescale. These photogenerated excitons in QDs can undergo band-edge recombination in the ns timescale, be trapped at the defect sites in QD crystal, or undergo interfacial charge transfer to the reactant molecules. The trapped charge carriers can also undergo recombination from respective sites or transfer to reactant molecules. In short, the transfer of charge carriers always competes with various radiative or non-radiative processes. For chemical transformations involving multielectron reactions such as NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ , multiple electrons (8 e^-) must be transferred, which necessitates the stabilization of 1e^- intermediates long enough till the next electron transfer process can take place. Additionally, most of the multielectron reactions (in our case, NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+) are accompanied by the proton transfer as well, which makes each proton-coupled electron transfer step challenging, impacting the overall efficiency of photocatalytic reactions.

As H_2 evolution reaction was observed alongside photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ , we calculated the effective photoexcited electron utilization for the competing reactions. As H_2 evolution involves 2 electrons and NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion requires 8 electrons, the fraction of electrons utilized for these two reactions was calculated as follows:

For H_2 evolution reaction:

Moles of H_2 generated = 678 ± 101 nmol

Moles of electrons = 2 (moles of H_2) = ~ 1400 nmol

For NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion:

Moles of NH_4^+ generated = 783 ± 111 nmol

Moles of electrons = 8 (moles of NH_4^+) = ~ 6600 nmol

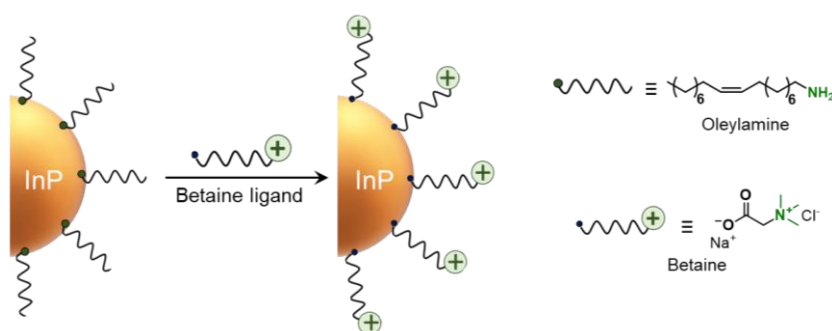
Therefore, total electrons involved in photocatalytic reactions = ~ 8000 nmoles

Thus,

The fraction of electrons used for H_2 evolution = $1400/8000 = \sim 0.175 = \sim 17.5\%$

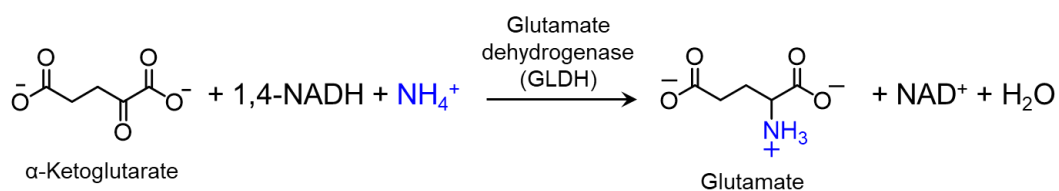
The fraction of electrons used for H_2 evolution = $6600/8000 = \sim 0.825 = \sim 82.5\%$

Identification of proton source and hole scavenger



Scheme 4b.1. Schematics showing the ligand exchange of InP QDs with non-thiolated betaine ligand.

Glutamate dehydrogenase (GLDH) assay



Scheme 4b.2. Schematics of glutamate dehydrogenase assay to form glutamate from α -ketoglutarate in the presence of NADH and NH_4^+ .

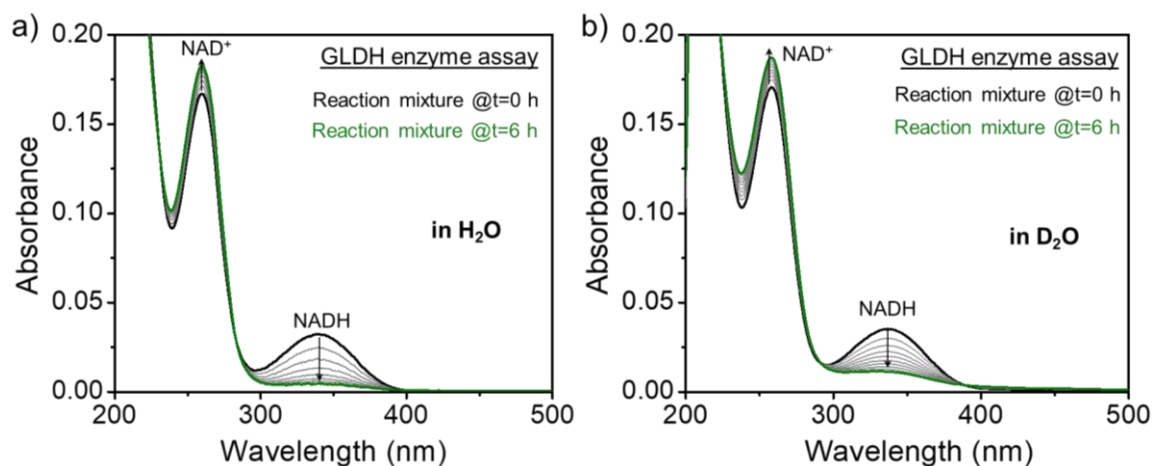


Figure 4b.19. UV-vis absorption spectra of GLDH assay proving the formation of glutamate in the presence of a) NH_4^+ (in H_2O) and b) isotope-labelled $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ (in D_2O) produced during the photocatalytic reaction.

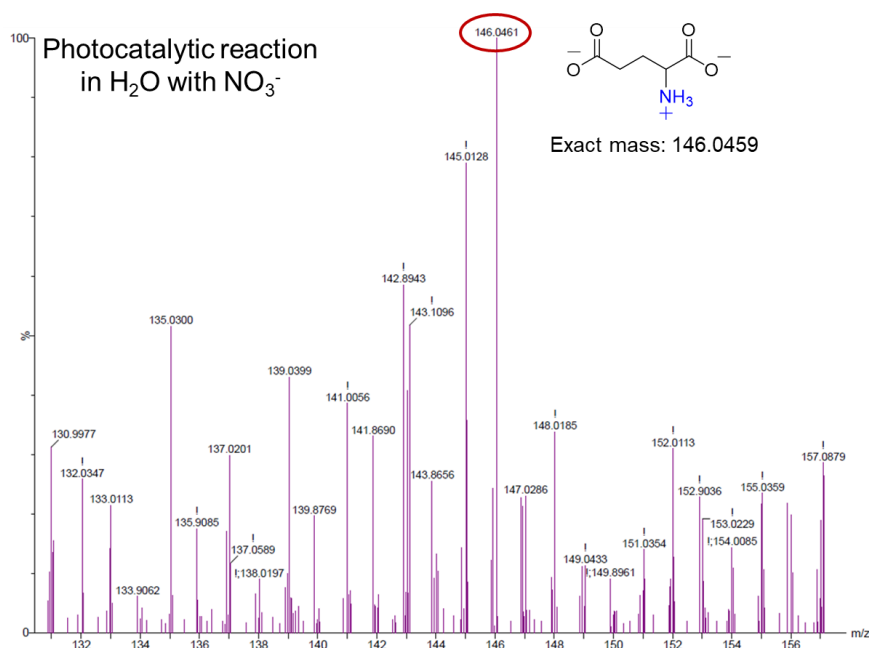


Figure 4b.20. High-resolution mass spectrum (HRMS) of glutamate formed from photocatalytically generated NH_4^+ with [+] InP QDs as photocatalyst and NO_3^- as N-source, in water.

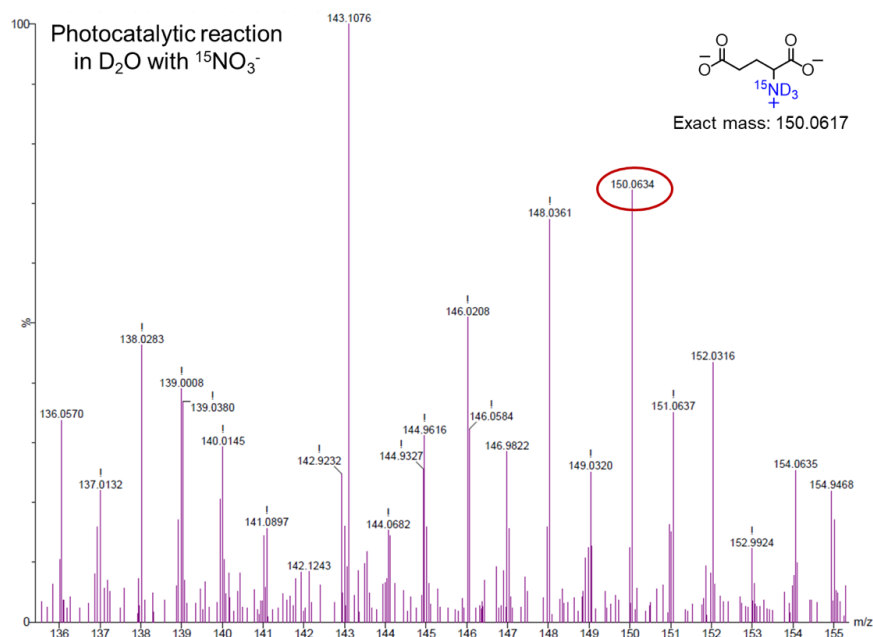


Figure 4b.21. High-resolution mass spectrum (HRMS) of isotope-labelled glutamate formed from photocatalytically generated $^{15}\text{ND}_4^+$ by performing reaction in D_2O with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as N-source, confirming water as the proton source.

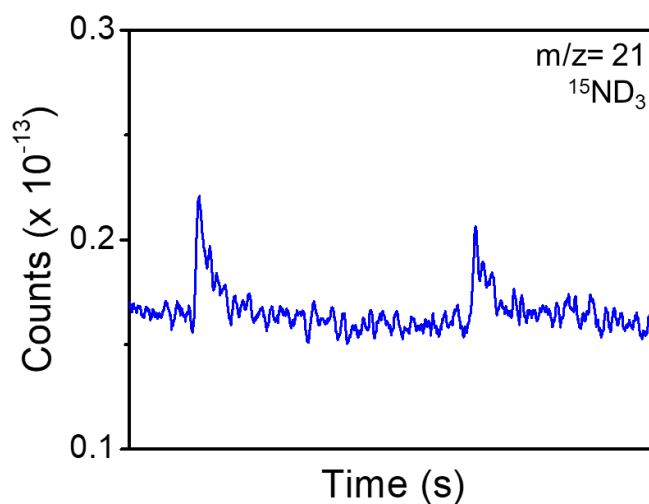


Figure 4b.22. Gas phase mass analysis of the photocatalytic reaction performed with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in D_2O . Signals for $m/z = 21$, corresponding to $^{15}\text{ND}_3$, confirm water as the proton source.

Table 4b.3. Table summarizing the reactions performed to identify the probable proton source and hole scavenger in the photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 by [+] InP QDs.

Reactions	NH_3 formation	Remarks
[+] InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in water	✓	[+] InP QD is photocatalysing the reduction of nitrate to ammonia.
[+] InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in acetone*	✗	Water surely plays an active role. May act as a proton source.
[+] InP QD + $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ + excess [+] TMA in water	✓	Enhanced stability of InP QD photocatalysts in the presence of excess TMA ligands.
[+] InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ + excess [+] TMA in acetone*	✗	Overrules the possibility of [+] TMA ligand acting as a proton source.
Betaine-InP QD + $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ in water	✓	
Betaine-InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in water	✓	
Betaine-InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in acetone*	✗	Water surely plays an active role. Overrules the possibility of [+] TMA ligand acting as a proton source.
[+] InP QD + $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in D_2O	✓	Water is surely the proton source.

*All the reactions in acetone (polar aprotic solvent) were performed using the Whatman filter paper based-dip-catalyst system. Concentrations of [+] InP and NO_3^- were maintained at 0.5 mol % and 0.5 mM, respectively. It is to be noted that the paper substrate does not affect the photocatalytic activity of [+] InP QDs when the reaction was performed in water under similar conditions (as seen in the recyclability studies).

Stability of [+] InP QDs in photocatalytic conditions

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) studies were carried out before and after the photocatalytic reaction to verify the change in the chemical composition of [+] InP QDs. Pristine [+] InP QDs (before irradiation) showed doublet for In 3d and P 2p spectra, which are characteristic of the In-P bond (**Figure 4b.23**). The In 3d doublet was located at 443.62 eV and 451.22 eV, corresponding to $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$, respectively (spin-orbit splitting energy = 7.6 eV). The doublet for P 2p appears at 127.54 eV and 128.44 eV, corresponding to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$, respectively (spin-orbit splitting energy = 0.9 eV).⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ In addition to the P 2p doublet, we also observed a new P 2p peak in the range of 131.94-132.84 eV, which corroborates with the formation of InPO_x . The formation of InPO_x stems from the presence of oxidative environments such as water and oxygen (the XPS sample was prepared from an aqueous solution of [+] InP), and is commonly observed by other groups as well.^{44,45} It must be noted that as-synthesized oleylamine-capped InP QDs (OAm-InP) displayed no such oxidation features (**Figures 4b.23a, 4b.23b**). After the photocatalytic reaction, oxidation features were prominent for both In 3d and P 2p peaks (**Figure 4b.23d**). In particular, the In 3d peak broadened, and a significant enhancement in P 2p peaks corresponding to InPO_x was observed, which confirms the oxidation process of core-only [+] InP QDs after the photocatalytic reaction. We believe that the oxidation of [+] InP QDs could be the probable reason for the etching of QDs during the photocatalytic process. It is well-known in the literature that core-only QDs can undergo chemical changes under photocatalytic conditions because of the presence of chemical reactants, reagents, and the charge transfer process.^{47,48} Even though core-only [+] InP QDs undergo oxidation during the photocatalytic process, the colloidal stability was maintained throughout the reaction timescale, as can be seen from the optical photographs (**4b.9a**).

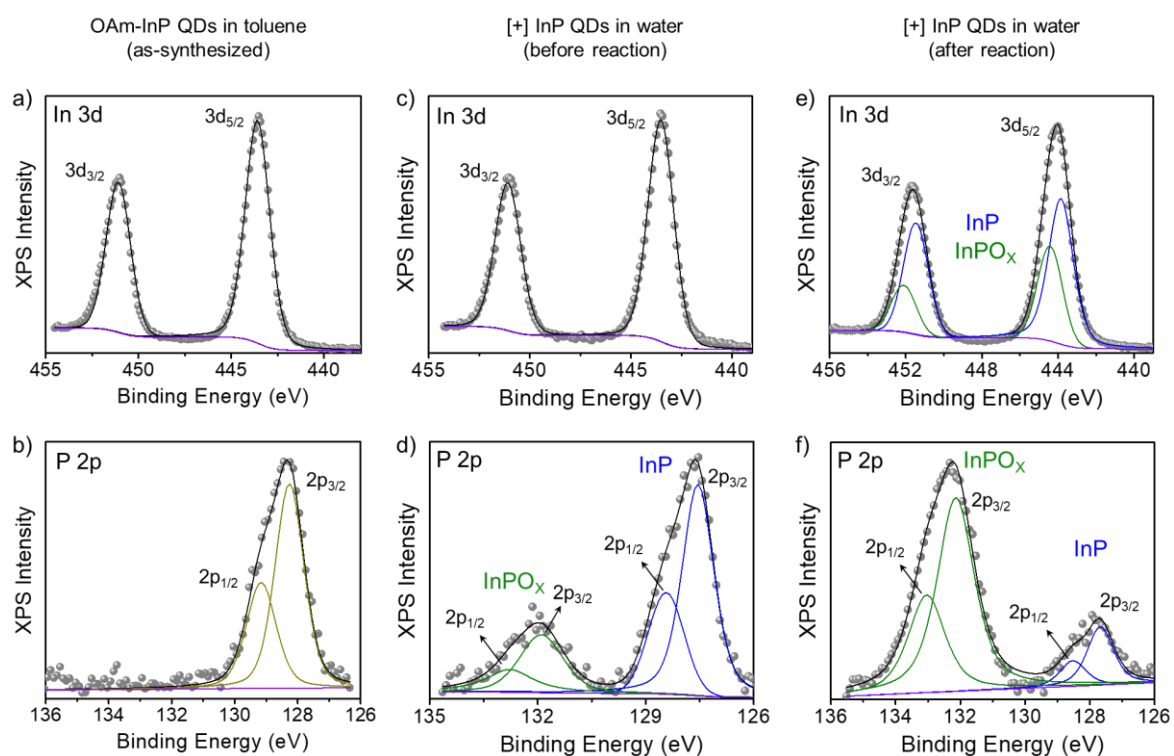


Figure 4b.23: Analysis of XPS spectra for a,b) as-synthesized OAm-InP QDs before, c,d) [+] InP QDs before the reaction and e,f) [+] InP QDs after the photocatalytic reaction. For the analysis, the charge correction for all the spectral peaks was performed according to the carbon-1s standard peak (284.6 eV).

Recyclability study and long-term stability experiments

With core-only InP QDs

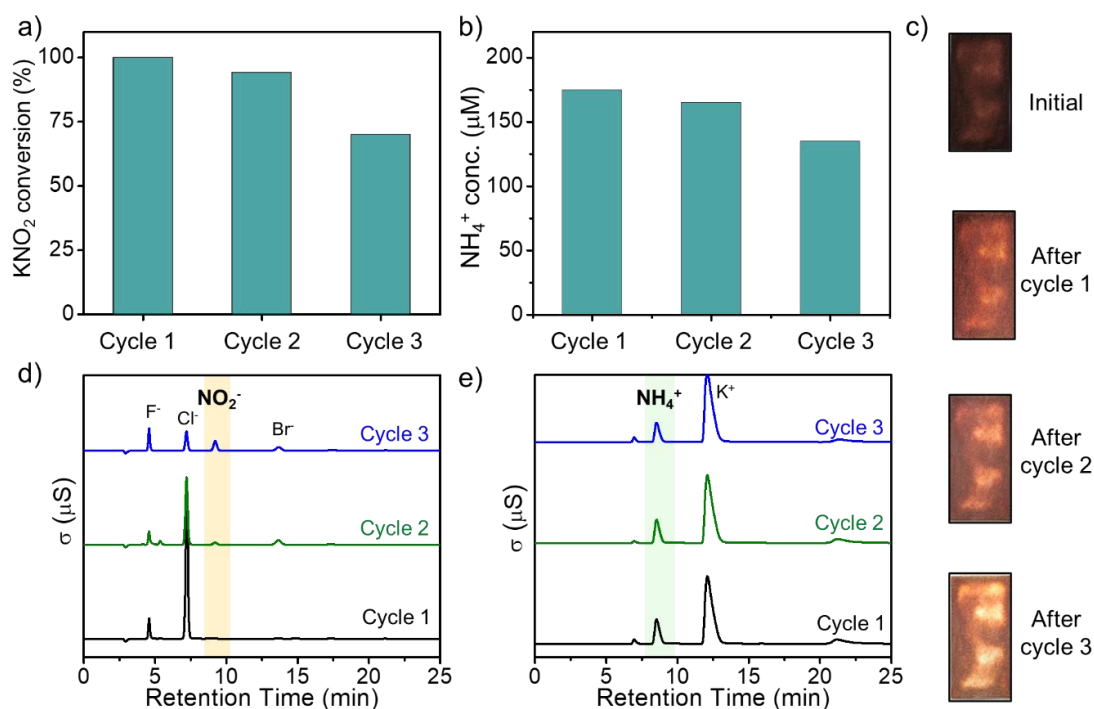


Figure 4b.24. Recyclability studies performed with paper-based dip-catalyst system show decent retention of photocatalytic activity a) for NO_2^- conversion and b) NH_4^+ production up to three cycles. c) Optical photographs of the InP QD loaded paper-film after each cycle. A significant etching of QDs was observed after 3 cycles. d) Anion and e) cation chromatograms of the reaction mixture after each cycle.

With core/shell InP/ZnS QDs

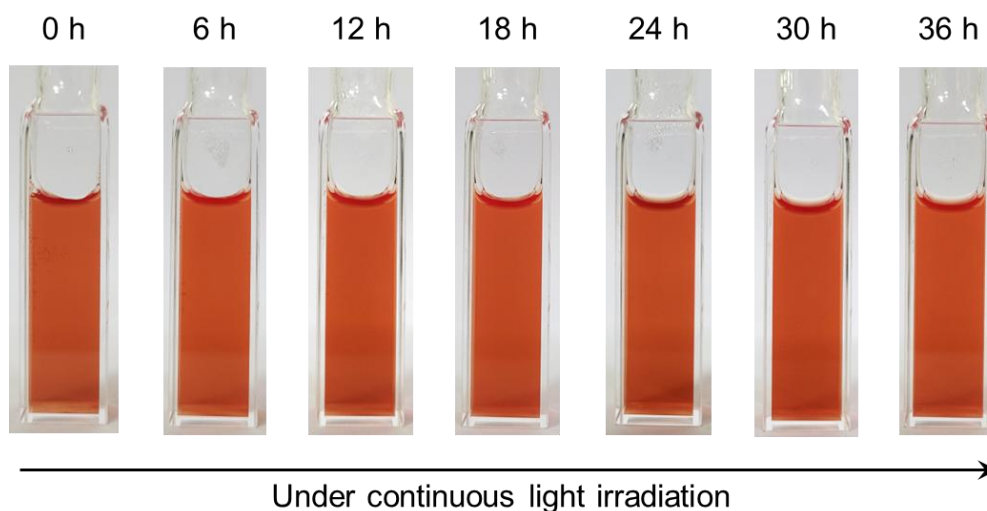


Figure 4b.25. Time-dependent optical photographs of the reaction mixture consisting of [+] InP/ZnS, KNO_2 , and ethanol (EtOH), captured at different times, clearly show negligible color

change upon continuous light irradiation for 36 h with 2 X 10W 450 nm LEDs. This clearly confirms the excellent colloidal and photostability of [+] InP/ZnS QD photocatalyst.

Identification of reaction pathway

From the literature reports, reduction of NO_3^- is found to proceed through three main pathways (**Figure 4b.1**).^{4,5} In our study, the absence of N_2 formation with [+] InP QDs rules out one of the three major pathways. The other two pathways result in NH_4^+ as the end-product and proceeds through N_2H_4 or NH_2OH as intermediates. As a selective NH_4^+ formation was achieved with [+] InP as the photocatalyst, we checked the feasibility of [+] InP QDs to produce NH_4^+ from N_2H_4 and NH_2OH as the starting reactants, respectively. However, both N_2H_4 and NH_2OH were photocatalytically reduced to NH_4^+ under similar reaction conditions (**Figure 4b.26**). This made the elucidation of the exact reaction pathway challenging.

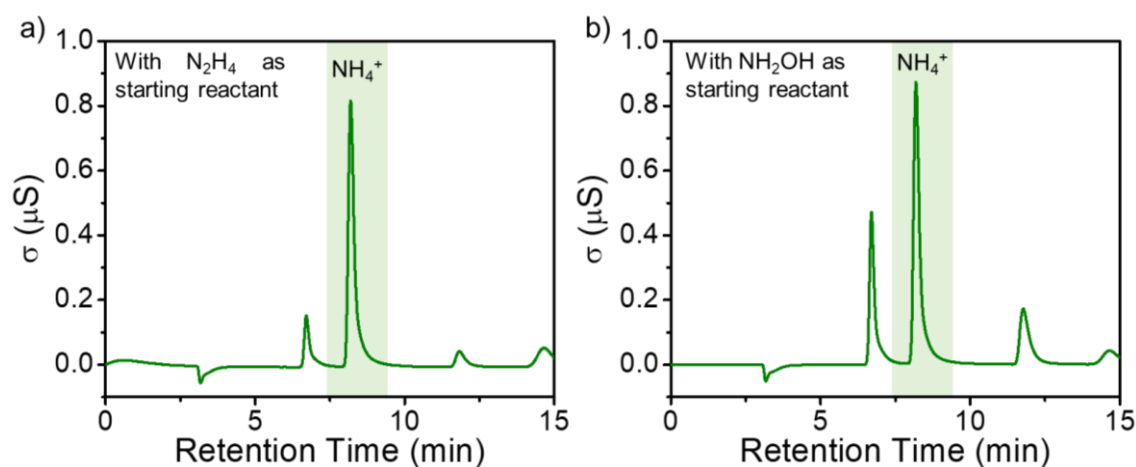
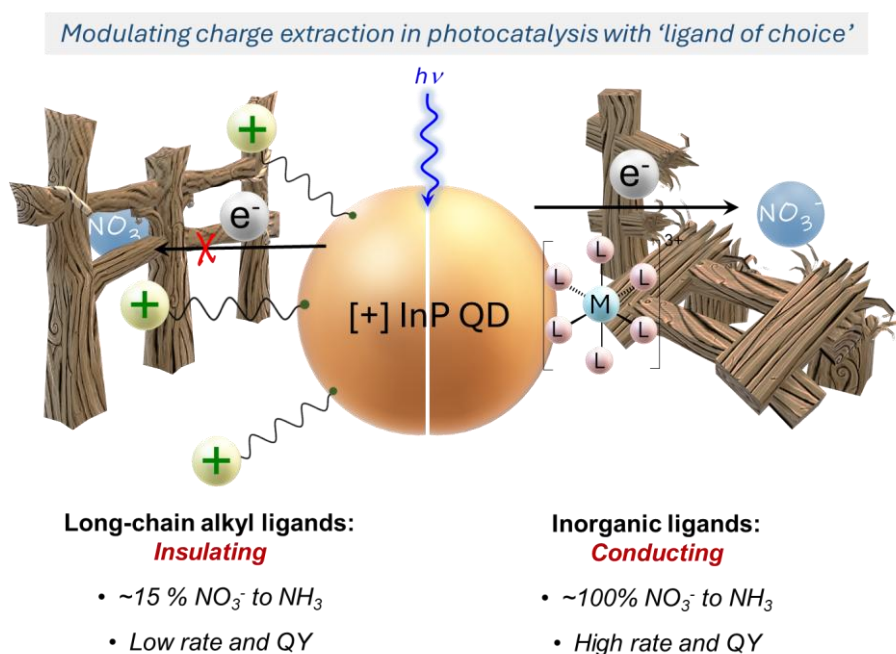


Figure 4b.26. Cation chromatograms showing the [+] InP QD photocatalysed formation of NH_4^+ from a) N_2H_4 and b) NH_2OH as the starting reactants.

Chapter – 5

Metal-Solvent Complex on Quantum Dot Surface Enhances Ammonia Formation with Visible Light



Jain, V.; Pillai, P. P. Metal-Solvent Complex on Quantum Dot Surface Enhances Ammonia Formation with Visible Light. *Manuscript Submitted*

5.1. Abstract

Achieving high photocatalytic efficiency in multielectron and multiproton chemical transformations is a fundamental challenge in the development of photocatalytic platforms. While traditional approaches rely on developing novel photocatalysts, fine-tuning the catalyst-reactant interactions via ligand chemistry is an emerging route. In this work, we opted for a less-explored route of attaching the “*ligand of choice*” to the indium phosphide quantum dot (InP QD) photocatalyst for enhanced ammonia production under visible light. Herein, instead of conventional long-chain alkyl ligands, a positively charged Lewis acid metal-solvent complex was employed as the surface ligand on InP QD to improve the charge extraction process. The facile charge transport with inorganic surface ligands leads to ~16-fold and 8-fold enhancement in the reaction rate and apparent quantum efficiency, respectively, compared to organic alkyl ligands. Nitrate conversion to ammonia reached ~100 % within 30 min of visible light illumination, with the sole formation of ammonia in the aqueous as well as gaseous phases. Further, we tested the applicability of other Lewis acid metal halide complexes as surface ligands on InP QDs for photocatalytic ammonia synthesis. Overall, our study shows the significance of the appropriate choice of surface ligands and the need for establishing new surface chemistries in regulating the photocatalytic activity of QDs in multielectron/multiproton reactions.

5.2. Introduction

Ligands are ubiquitous in colloidal nanocrystals (NCs), often acting as stabilizing agents to provide stable dispersions in different media.¹⁻³ However, the surface ligands on NCs play a far more significant role in dictating the outcome of the photophysical event under study.³⁻⁹ As seen from the basic NC anatomy, surface ligands have three sub-parts: binding group, spacer, and terminal/headgroup. In principle, all the sub-parts of surface ligands can influence the photophysical properties of NCs.^{1,9} From the lens of photocatalysis, electron transfer is one of the major fundamental processes, and manipulating surface ligands strongly influences its efficiency by changing the chemical and electronic environment around the NC.^{3-5, 9-15}

For instance, Kamat and coworkers reported the effects of surface chemistry on electron transfer from CdSe QDs to TiO₂.¹⁰ The native trioctylphosphine oxide (TOPO) capped CdSe QDs were functionalized with 3-mercaptopropionic acid (3-MPA) and β -alanine (β -Ala). Compared to TOPO-CdSe QDs, 3-MPA-CdSe results in the formation of Se vacancies (electron traps), which results in the delocalization of the electron wavefunction (**Figure 5.1a**). On the other hand, binding of β -Ala on CdSe QD via -NH₂ group confines the electron wavefunction to the core of QD by remediation of electron trap states (**Figure 5.1a**). The presence of the -COOH group in both 3-MPA and β -Ala ligands helps in the binding of CdSe QDs to TiO₂. While the presence of ligands results in higher CdSe loading, the electron transfer rates become extremely slow compared to the direct deposition of CdSe onto TiO₂ (**Figure 5.1b**). Between the two ligands, the electron transfer rate was ~ 3 times higher for β -Ala CdSe than 3-MPA CdSe QD (**Figure 5.1b**). This was attributed to the ability of the -NH₂ group to fill surface trap states, which then facilitates the charge transfer. In another elegant study by Thomas and coworkers, the role of binding groups was explored for regulating energy level equilibration in CdSe-Au hetero-nanostructures.¹¹ Herein, commonly used capping ligands, dodecylthiol (DDT) and dodecylamine (DDA), were chosen to study their impact on charge transfer properties of the CdSe-Au hetero-nanostructures (**Figure 5.1c**). Transient absorption studies revealed a slower bleach recovery for CdSe-Au@DDT and a faster one for CdSe-

Au@DDA heterostructure. This suggests a long-lived excited state for CdSe–Au@DDT, which can be attributed to the energetically facile hole transfer from CdSe to DDT (**Figure 5.1d**). Such a hole transfer event results in electron transfer to AuNP, leading to a rise in the Fermi level and achieving better Fermi level equilibration (**Figure 5.1d**). On the contrary, the relative energy level of DDT lies below the valence band of CdSe QD and hence cannot abstract photoexcited holes (**Figure 5.1d**). As a result, Au-mediated charge recombination becomes prominent and restricts the charge transport to the electron acceptor (**Figure 5.1d**).

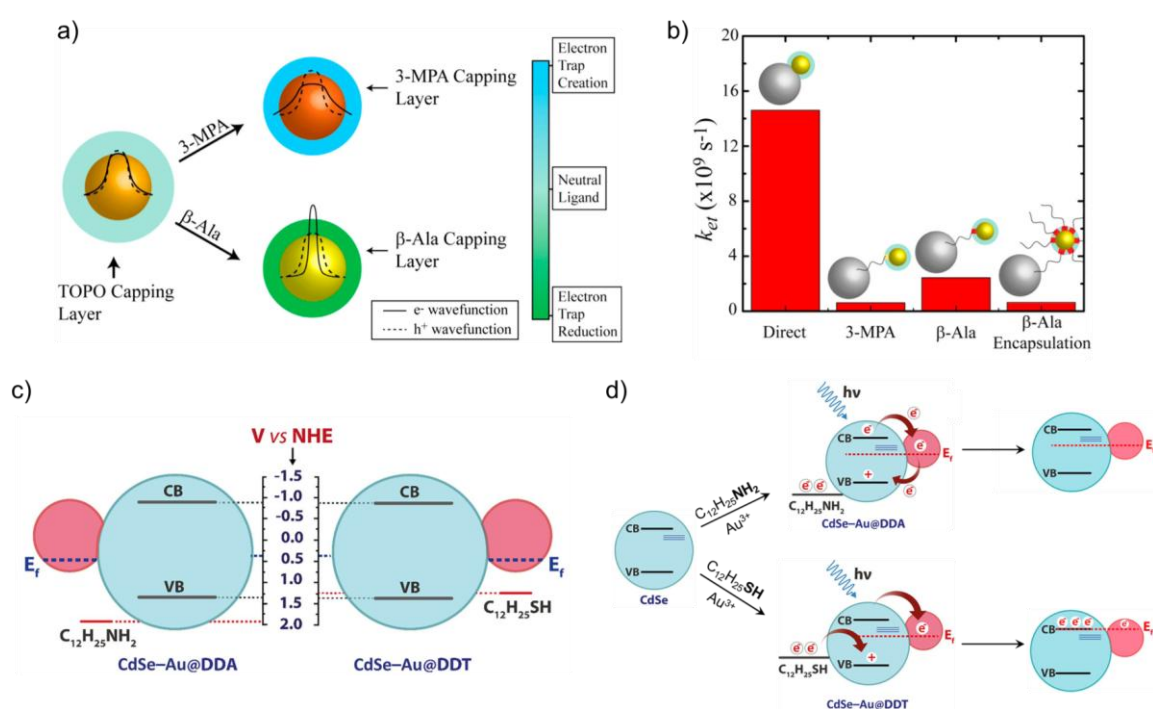


Figure 5.1. Effect of ligand anchoring group on charge transfer dynamics. a) Scheme showing the effect of different ligands on the electron wavefunctions of CdSe QD. 3-MPA ligands result in the delocalization of the electron wavefunction due to the creation of electron traps, whereas β-Ala confines the electron wavefunction to the CdSe core by removing the surface trap states. b) Rate of electron transfer from CdSe QD to TiO₂. Reproduced with permission from reference 10. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society. c) Schematics showing the energy levels of CdSe QD, Au, DDT, and DDA. d) Scheme showing the various charge transfer processes in ligand-modified CdSe-Au hetero-nanostructures. The hole-accepting DDT ligand results in Fermi-level equilibration, whereas the non-hole-accepting DDA ligand promotes exciton recombination. Reproduced with permission from reference 11. Copyright 2020 AIP Publishing.

While the anchoring group of ligands significantly affects the electronic structure of NC, the nature and length of the spacer are also known to impact the charge transfer dynamics.^{16–19} Generally, the Marcus equation for non-adiabatic charge transfer (**eq. 5.1**)

is employed to analyze the charge transfer from NC to acceptors.²⁰ In this equation, $|V_{a,b}|^2$ is the electronic coupling between the donor and acceptor, which varies with the distance between the two and results in a distance-dependent charge transfer rate. Such variation can be observed by changing the spacer length of the ligand.²¹

$$k_{CT} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{a,b}|^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\lambda k_B T}} \exp\left(\frac{(-\lambda + \Delta G_o)^2}{4\lambda k_B T}\right) \quad (5.1)$$

In an interesting study by Kinge, Cánovas, and coworkers, electron transfer rates were controlled by tuning the coupling between CdSe QDs and mesoporous SnO₂ through *n*-methylene (SH-[CH₂]_{*n*}-COOH) and *n*-phenylene (SH-[C₆H₄]_{*n*}-COOH) molecular bridges.¹⁷ These molecular bridges impose a barrier potential to electron transfer, and the electron transfer rate decreases exponentially with barrier height and barrier length (**Figure 5.2a**). **Figure 5.2b** clearly shows the change in electron transfer rate as a function of molecule length. In the case of alkyl *n*-methylene molecular bridges, an exponential decrease in electron transfer rate was observed with an increase in bridge length. Moreover, for a given molecular bridge distance, it was observed that aromatic *n*-phenylene bridges allow faster electron transfer than their alkyl counterparts because of higher delocalized molecular orbitals (**Figure 5.2b**). This clearly suggests that, along with the length, the nature of the spacer on NC also has a strong influence on charge transfer properties.

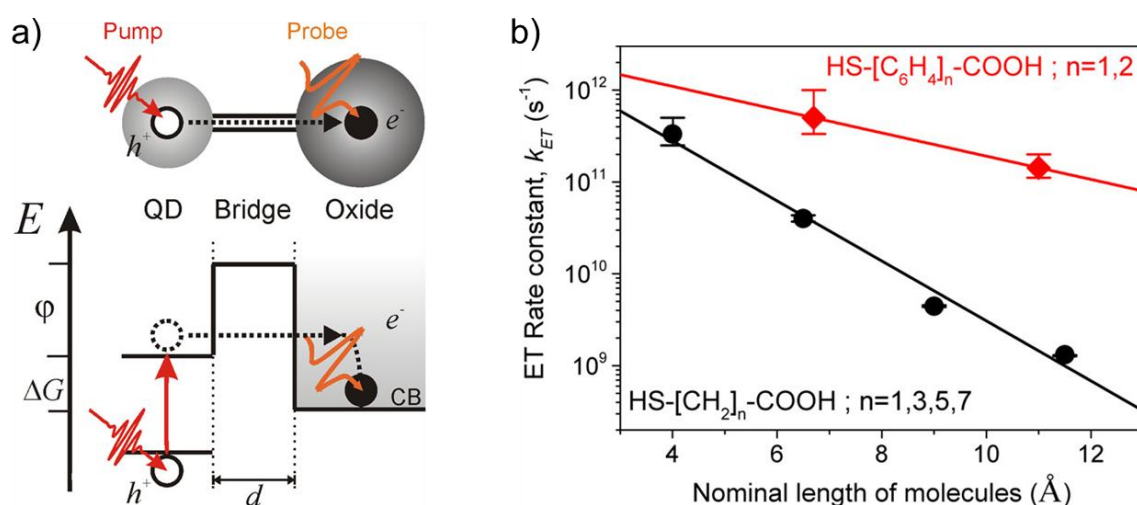


Figure 5.2. Influence of spacer on charge transfer. a) Schematics showing photoinduced electron transfer from CdSe QD to mesoporous SnO₂ through molecular bridges. The molecular

bridges impose a barrier of height ϕ and width d for electron transfer, which in turn depends on the length and nature of molecules. b) Plot showing the variation in electron transfer rate as a function of spacer length for n -methylene-based alkyl ($\text{HS}-[\text{CH}_2]_n-\text{COOH}$, black) and n -phenylene-based aromatic bridges ($\text{HS}-[\text{C}_6\text{H}_4]_n-\text{COOH}$, red). Reproduced with permission from reference 17. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society.

It is clear from the above discussion that ligands are not merely stabilizing agents, but all the parts of ligands significantly impact the charge transfer dynamics and, in principle, can significantly affect the photocatalytic activity of NCs. However, the ligand shell on the NC surface acts as a physical barrier primarily because of the use of alkyl ligands, which restricts the movement of photoexcited charge carriers.^{21,22} As a result, the photocatalytic reaction parameters such as reaction yield, rate, and quantum efficiencies are significantly compromised.^{3-5,22} A way out is to adopt the ‘*ligand of choice*’ approach to overcome existing challenges of ligand poisoning in photocatalysis. Herein, an ideal *ligand of choice* must allow for enhanced charge extraction and install favourable catalyst-reactant interactions while retaining the colloidal stability of the QDs.

In light of enhancing the charge transport, Talapin and coworkers explored new surface chemistries and introduced inorganic molecular metal chalcogenides and metal-free inorganic ligands (**Figure 5.3**).^{23,24} In the first report by Talapin and coworkers, molecular metal chalcogenide complexes (MCCs) were used for surface functionalization for various colloidal nanostructures, including CdSe NCs, CdTe NCs, CdS NRs, Bi_2S_3 NRs, Au NCs, and Pd NCs (**Figure 5.3a**).²³ A diverse range of MCCs, such as $\text{Sn}_2\text{Se}_6^{4-}$, $\text{In}_2\text{Se}_4^{2-}$, In_2Te_3 , Ga_2Se_3 , ZnTe , HgSe_2^{2-} , etc., were tested for stabilizing NCs in polar solvents (**Figure 5.3b**). MCC-capped NCs displayed strong electron delocalization when assembled in thin films. The charge transport properties of MCC-stabilized NCs were studied through conductivity and field-effect transistor (FET) measurements. While the organic ligands were highly insulating, MCC-capped NCs showed ~ 11 orders higher conductivity. In another report, Talapin and coworkers replaced organic capping ligands with metal-free inorganic ions such as S^{2-} , HS^- , Se^{2-} , OH^- , NH_2^- , etc. (**Figure 5.3c**).²⁴ The characteristic photophysical properties of NCs were well retained even after the ligand exchange process (**Figure 5.3c**), clearly suggesting negligible change in size, shape, and

ensemble distribution. Furthermore, the stabilization was not just restricted to CdSe NCs but could easily be extended to other NC cores such as InP, Au, ZnSe NCs, etc. The electron mobility in inorganic ligands stabilized NC arrays was measured from field-effect transistor studies (**Figure 5.3d**). The drain current (I_D) increased with increasing drain-source voltage (V_{DS}), which is characteristic of n-type transport and suggests excellent electron mobility in the array of inorganic ligands functionalized NCs.

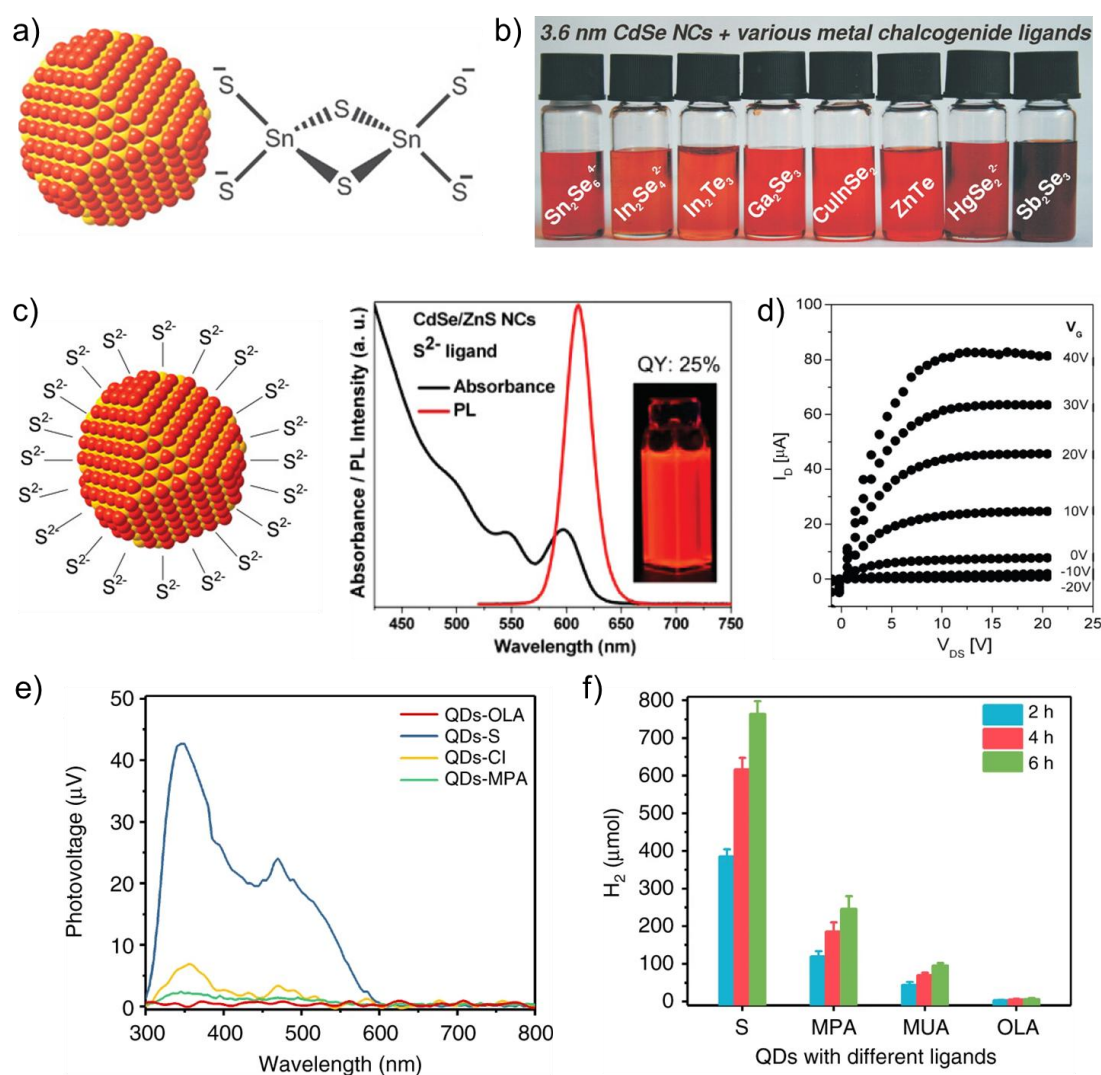


Figure 5.3. Use of inorganic ligands to modulate charge transport properties of NCs. a) Schematics showing NC capped with metal molecular chalcogenide (MCC), $\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_6^{4-}$. b) Photographs clearly showing colloidal stability of CdSe QDs functionalized with various MCCs. Reproduced with permission from reference 23. Copyright 2009 American Association for the Advancement of Science. c) Schematics of NC functionalized with metal-free inorganic S^{2-} ion. S^{2-} ligand functionalized CdSe QDs retained the key photophysical features. d) Plot of drain current as a function of drain-source voltage at different potentials, revealing the excellent electron mobility. Reproduced with permission from reference 24. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society. e) Photovoltage of InP QDs functionalized with various ligands. The highest

photovoltage was observed for InP QD functionalized with inorganic S^{2-} ions. f) Comparison of the photocatalytic H_2 evolution activity of InP QDs with varied surface chemistry, clearly showing that inorganic surface ligands outperform alkyl ligands. Reproduced with permission from reference 25. Copyright 2018 Springer Nature.

Even though such MCC and metal-free inorganic ligands capped NCs exhibit excellent charge transport behavior, their utility in photocatalysis is scarce. In an interesting study by Wu, Zhou, Patzke, and coworkers, all-inorganic S^{2-} -capped InP QDs photocatalyzed H_2 evolution reaction.²⁵ The use of small S^{2-} ions as ligands exhibited a dual role: 1) decrease the photoexcited charge transfer barrier between the QD and acceptors, and 2) facilitate extraction of photoexcited holes from the valence band. The surface photovoltage spectra were obtained for InP QD functionalized with different ligands to gain information about charge separation and extraction process. A large photovoltage was recorded for S^{2-} -InP QDs compared to oleylamine (OAm), Cl^- , and 3-MPA functionalized InP QDs (**Figure 5.3e**). The large photovoltage indicates the accumulation of positive charge at the QDs surface, which was attributed to the hole transfer to S^{2-} ligands. This was further verified by transient absorption and EPR studies. The effect of inorganic S^{2-} ligands was clearly visible in excellent H_2 evolution activity compared to alkyl ligand capped-InP QDs (**Figure 5.3f**).

With this motivation, we studied the effect of unconventional inorganic ligands in enhancing the efficiency of multielectron/multiproton ($8e^-/9H^+$) photocatalytic nitrate (NO_3^-) conversion to ammonia (NH_3) with QDs. In the previous Chapter, we established III-V indium phosphide (InP) QDs to synthesize NH_3 with visible light, wherein the favorable electrostatic interaction emanating from the positively charged surface ligands on InP QDs and negatively charged NO_3^- ions was found to be the key driving force (**Scheme 5.1**).²⁶ This necessitates the presence of positively charged inorganic ligands, which are rarely reported in the literature.^{24,27} This is because NCs typically have electrophilic metal-rich surfaces with preferential affinity toward nucleophilic ligands.²⁴ A recent report emerged wherein Protesescu and coworkers explored group 3 Lewis acid metal salts as surface ligands for InP QDs in polar solvents (**Figure 5.4a**).²⁸ The Lewis acid metal salts were found to form cationic coordination complexes in polar solvents like *N*-dimethylformamide (NMF), *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF), dimethylsulphoxide

(DMSO), etc., and passivate QD surface to provide colloiddally stable dispersions (**Figure 5.4 b**).

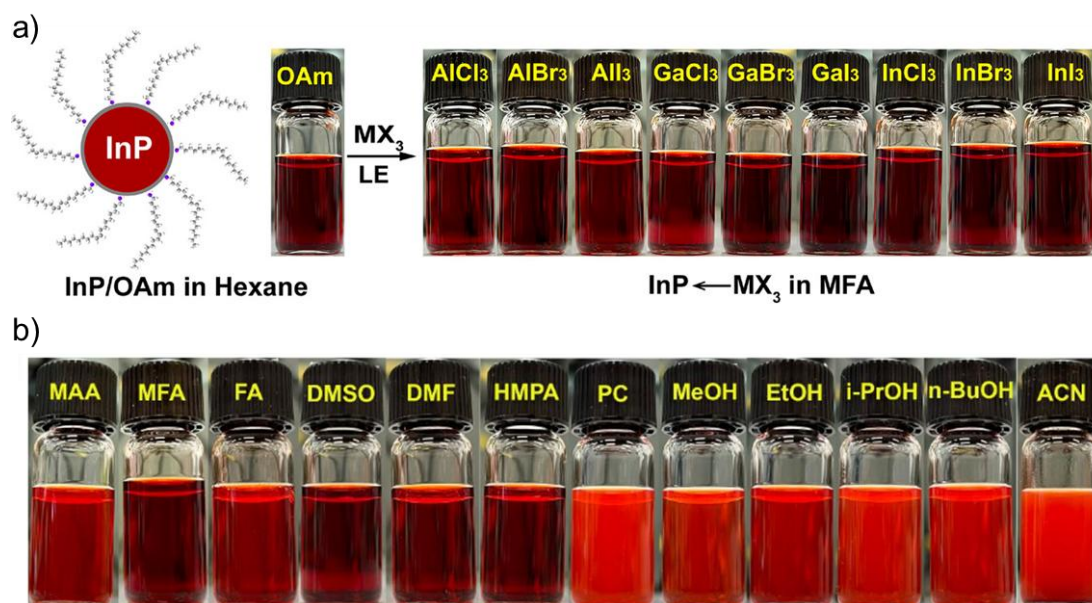
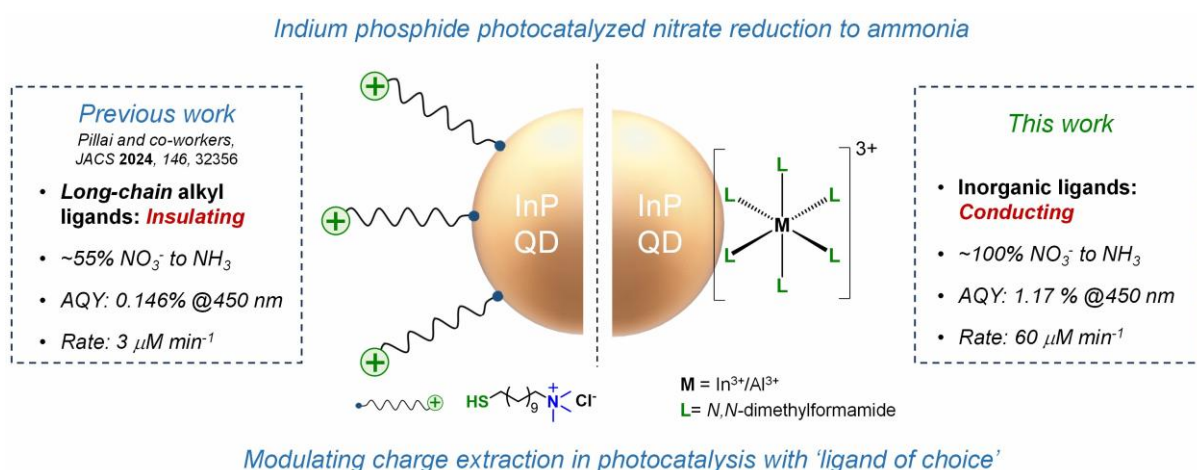


Figure 5.4. Metal-solvent complex as surface ligands for InP QDs. a) Schematics showing the ligand place exchange of oleylamine-capped InP with Lewis acid metal salts in *N*-methylformamide. b) Photographs of metal-solvent complex functionalized InP QDs in different polar solvents show excellent colloidal stability. Reproduced with permission from reference 28. Copyright 2024 American Chemical Society.

We took this opportunity to employ metal-solvent complex (MSC) stabilized InP QDs for photocatalytic NO₃⁻ to NH₃ production under visible-light irradiation (**Scheme 5.1**). We chose InCl₃ as a Lewis acid metal halide, forming a hexacoordinated complex in DMF, [In(DMF)₆]³⁺ ([+] MSC). An appropriate place exchange protocol was developed to disperse MSC-capped InP QDs ([+] MSC-InP QD) in the aqueous medium. A ~3.75-fold enhancement in photocurrent was observed for inorganic [+] MSC-InP QDs compared to long-chain alkyl [+] TMA-InP QDs, clearly suggesting enhanced photoexcited charge separation and transfer. Consequently, a complete conversion of NO₃⁻ was achieved within 30 min of visible light illumination, along with complete retention of selectivity for NH₃ formation. Interestingly, [+] MSC-InP QDs exhibited ~16 times enhancement in the reaction rate (~45 μM min⁻¹) compared to [+] TMA-InP QDs (~3 μM min⁻¹). Consequently, the apparent quantum yield (AQY) reached 1.17 % @450 nm, which is ~8 times higher than [+] TMA-InP QDs (0.146 % @450 nm). Photocatalytic experiments performed with isotope-labeled ¹⁵NO₃⁻ confirmed that NO₃⁻ ion is the sole N-source for NH₃ formation.

The enhanced charge transfer with metal-solvent complex ligand also accelerated the competing proton reduction reaction to produce H_2 . Finally, we showcase the use of other Lewis acid metal halides capped InP QDs for photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis. In short, our work highlights the impact of rationally chosen surface ligands and their nature in regulating the efficiencies of InP QD photocatalysts in challenging multielectron/multiproton reactions.



Scheme 5.1. Maximizing charge extraction in QD photocatalysis by appropriate use of inorganic surface ligands. Replacing long-chain alkyl ligands with inorganic ligands improves charge transfer in photocatalysis, leading to high reaction rates and quantum efficiencies.

5.3. Experimental section

5.3.1. General procedure for the photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion

All the reaction conditions were kept similar to that of [+] TMA-InP QDs for a fair comparison. In a typical procedure, [+] MSC-InP QDs ($2.5 \mu\text{M}$, 0.5 mol %) and KNO_3 (0.5 mM) in water were mixed, purged with Ar, and irradiated with $2 \times 10 \text{ W}$ 450 nm LEDs for 2 h. The total volume of the reaction mixture was maintained at 3 mL throughout the studies, and the pH was 5. The light intensity falling on the reaction cuvette was measured to be $\sim 200 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$. Subsequently, the reaction mixture was analyzed for NH_4^+ formation using ion chromatography by injecting 500 μL of the reaction mixture. The area under the peak at retention time $\sim 9 \text{ min}$ was used to calculate the concentration of

NH_4^+ formed from the calibration curve. A similar analysis was carried out for NO_3^- conversion as well to calculate the total conversion yields.

5.3.2. Preparation of S^{2-} functionalized InP QDs

A reported protocol was adopted to prepare negatively charged S^{2-} -functionalized InP QDs.²⁵ Firstly, 0.05 M of Na_2S solution was prepared in NMF, and 1.5 mL of this solution was mixed with 800 μL of as-synthesized OAm-InP QDs in hexane. The biphasic mixture was stirred for 30 min, and the success of the place exchange could be observed by the complete transfer of InP QDs from hexane to NMF. The place exchanged QDs were purified twice with hexane to remove free OAm ligands, followed by purification with acetone. Finally, the precipitated S^{2-} -InP QDs were dispersed in water by ultrasonication and stored in the dark for further use.

5.4. Results and discussion

5.4.1. Preparation and characterization of [+] MSC-InP QDs

A modified literature procedure involving a high-temperature organometallic reaction was used to prepare oleylamine (OAm) stabilized InP QDs.^{29,30} In a typical reaction, indium (III) chloride (InCl_3) reacts with tris(dimethylamino)phosphine ($\text{P}(\text{DMA})_3$) in the presence of OAm at 200 °C for 25 min to form core-only InP QDs. As-prepared OAm-InP QDs were ligand exchanged with metal-solvent complex formed upon mixing InCl_3 in DMF (**Scheme 5.2**). It has been reported that Lewis acid group III metal halides (MX_3 , M = Al, Ga, In; X = Cl, Br, I) tend to form hexacoordinated complexes in polar solvents such as NMF, DMF, DMSO, etc.²⁸ We chose InCl_3 as the Lewis acid salt as minimal etching of core-only InP QDs was observed compared to Al and Ga halides. Moreover, DMF was chosen as the polar solvent to form a coordination complex, as there was negligible interference in the quantification of NH_3 . The success of ligand exchange was confirmed by the complete transfer of InP QDs from hexane to the DMF phase, as can be seen in the photographs (**Scheme 5.2**). To perform photocatalytic ammonia synthesis, InP QDs must be stable in aqueous medium. Consequently, place-exchanged InP QDs were transferred from DMF to the aqueous phase by precipitating with toluene, followed by

redispersion in water. Thus, colloiddally stable dispersion of $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ -InP QDs (HDMFI-InP) were obtained for photocatalytic studies (**Scheme 5.2**).



Scheme 5.2. Schematics showing the ligand exchange with positively charged $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ complex on core-only InP QDs.

Absorption studies revealed changes in the position and nature of the first excitonic peak of $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs compared to OAm-InP. Specifically, a blueshift of 15 nm was observed for $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs, which can be attributed to surface etching because of the acidic nature of InCl_3 . Moreover, the peak became broader, suggesting enhanced electron delocalization in $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs compared to OAm-InP QDs (**Figure 5.5a**).³¹ A higher delocalization of the electron wavefunction leads to a weaker coulombic attraction between the photoexcited electrons and holes, thereby enhancing the charge separation and extraction process.³²⁻³⁴ The band gap of $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs was estimated to be 2.07 eV from the Tauc plot (**Figure 5.6**). Detailed Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) studies revealed that characteristic stretching frequency bands for OAm-InP at 2921 and 2852 cm^{-1} were absent from $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs, suggesting negligible presence of OAm ligands on QD surface. The retention of characteristic carbonyl stretching frequency of $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ on the InP QD surface indicates the successful functionalization of the metal-solvent complex. In comparison with pure DMF, carbonyl stretching frequency (ν_{CO}) lowered to 1646 from 1654 cm^{-1} , which indicates that DMF coordinates to the central In^{3+} ion through the carbonyl oxygen atom. Moreover, a lower frequency of N-CH₃ bending mode ($\delta(\text{N}-(\text{CH}_3))$) at 1370 cm^{-1} for MSC-InP QDs compared to 1385 cm^{-1} for pure DMF suggests the interaction between the amine group and InP surface (**Figure 5.5b**). A positive zeta potential value of $+34.0 \pm 6.1$ mV confirms the

presence of cationic In-DMF complex on InP QD surface (**Figure 5.5c**). High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) studies confirm the formation of uniform-sized $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs having an average diameter of 3.5 ± 0.5 nm (**Figures 5.5d, 5.11**). The elemental analysis (EDAX) from TEM revealed an increase in relative % of In to ~ 77 % for $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs compared to ~ 60 % for OAm InP QD, suggesting the presence of cationic In complex on QD surface in $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs (**Figure 5.12**).

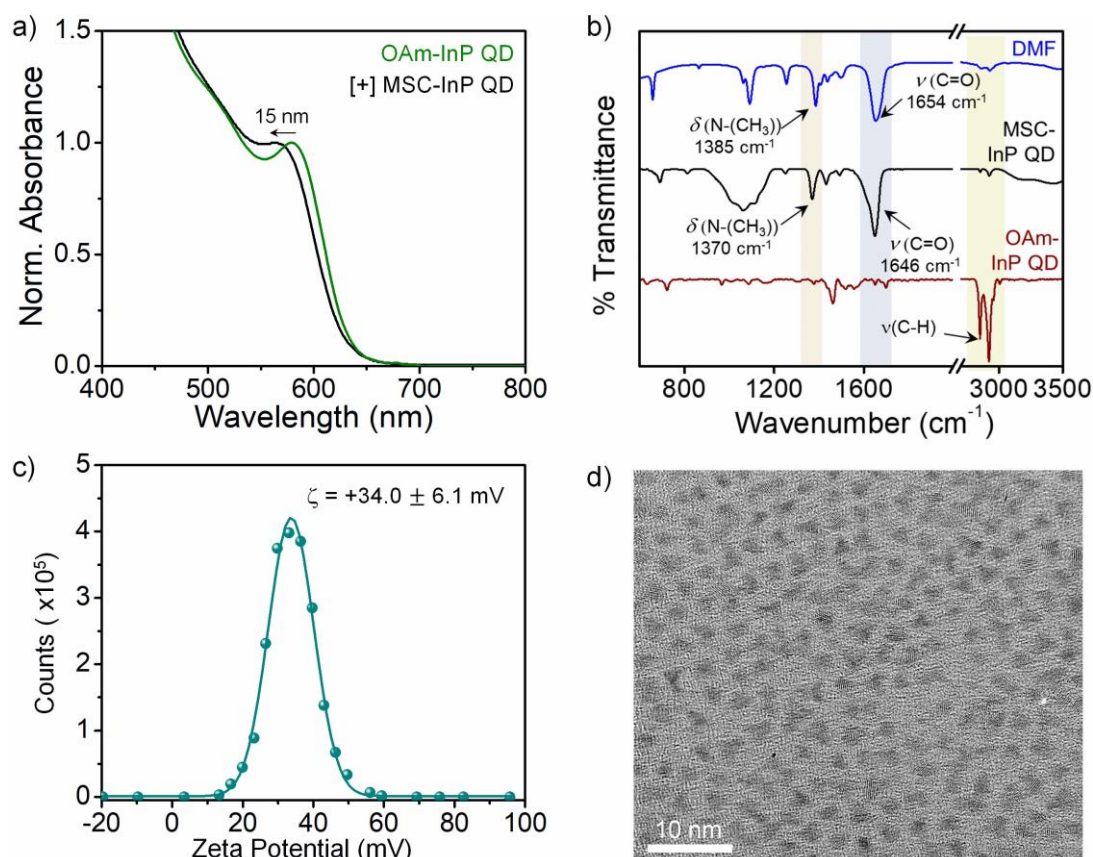


Figure 5.5. a) Absorption spectra of OAm-InP and $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs. A slight change in the nature of first excitonic peak is observed after the ligand exchange. b) FTIR spectra of $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs compared with OAm-InP QD and DMF. Absence of $\nu(\text{C-H})$ vibrational feature, characteristic of OAm, and retention of $\nu(\text{C=O})$, characteristic of DMF, confirms the successful ligand exchange with $[+]$ MSC on InP QD surface. c) Zeta potential plot validating the presence of $[+]$ MSC complex on the surface of InP QD. d) Representative HRTEM image of $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs.

To evaluate the thermodynamic feasibility of photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 with $[+]$ MSC-InP QDs, we measured the band positions using cyclic voltammetry (CV) using ferrocene as the internal standard (**Figure 5.6a**). The oxidation features were observed for both OAm and $[+]$ MSC InP QDs at 0.54 V and 1.20 V vs Ag/AgNO_3 , respectively (**Figure 5.6b**), and were utilized to calculate the valence band positions. The

valence band positions were calculated to be -5.19 eV and -5.85 eV vs. vacuum for OAm InP QDs and [+] MSC InP QDs, respectively. In combination with Tauc plot (**Figure 5.6c**), the conduction band positions were estimated to be -3.16 eV and -3.78 eV vs vacuum for OAm InP QDs and [+] MSC InP QDs, respectively. As can be seen from **Figure 5.6d**, the band-edge energies were shifted to lower energy when the pristine OAm surface ligand was exchanged with $[\text{In}(\text{DMF})_6]^{3+}$ complex. The shift in band positions due to changes in capping ligands and NC environment has been reported by other groups as well.³⁵⁻³⁷ It must be noted that thermodynamic feasibility to perform NO_3^- reduction (-5.69 eV vs vacuum) is retained despite the shifts in energy levels. After the successful synthesis, ligand exchange, and characterization of [+] MSC-InP QDs, we began the evaluation of photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis under visible light irradiation.

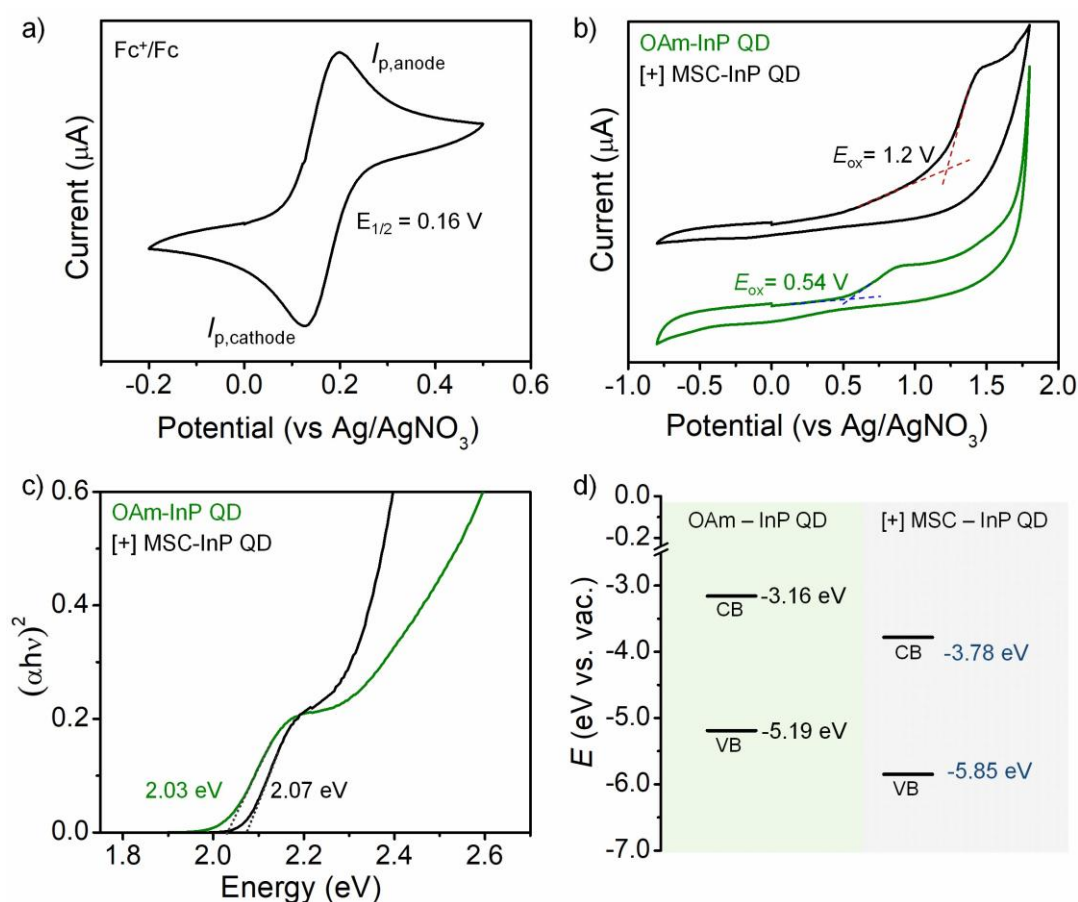


Figure 5.6. Estimation of the band-edge positions for InP QDs. Cyclic voltammograms of a) ferrocene (internal standard) and b) InP QDs functionalized with native oleylamine ligand and inorganic [+] MSC ligand. c) Tauc plot of OAm-InP and [+] MSC-InP QDs, showing a slight increase in band gap after ligand exchange with [+] MSC ligand. d) Energy level diagram comparing the band edge positions of OAm and [+] MSC InP QDs. A shift in band positions to lower energy was observed for [+] MSC-InP QDs.

5.4.2. Photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 with [+] MSC-InP QDs

A typical reaction mixture comprises 2.5 μM [+] MSC-InP QDs and 0.5 mM KNO_3 in water, which was illuminated with 2 x 10 W 450 nm LEDs (the total volume of the reaction mixture was 3 mL, pH was maintained ~ 5 , and the total light intensity falling on the cuvette was $\sim 200 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$). Total NO_3^- conversion and amount of NH_4^+ formed were analysed using ion chromatography (IC) using suitable cation and anion columns, respectively (**Figure 5.13**). The presence of a cationic complex on the InP QD surface is expected to install favorable catalyst-reactant interactions between the positively charged inorganic complex and negatively charged NO_3^- ions (**Figure 5.7a**). Such favorable interactions will allow enhanced substrate channeling,^{3-5,26} leading to higher local concentration of NO_3^- near InP QDs, which in turn increases the probability of charge transfer from QD to NO_3^- ions. With positively charged inorganic ligand on InP QD surface, NO_3^- conversion reached $88.4 \pm 12 \%$ with accumulation of $242 \pm 28 \mu\text{M}$ NH_4^+ in the aqueous phase within 2 h of visible light irradiation (**Figure 5.7b, 5.14**). Negligible NO_3^- conversion in the absence of either light or InP QDs confirms the photocatalytic pathway for NO_3^- to NH_4^+ conversion with [+] MSC-InP QDs (**Figure 5.7b, 5.15**). Isotope-labeled studies with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ were performed to confirm the N-source for the observed NH_4^+ formation. ^1H -NMR spectrum clearly revealed the presence of a doublet between 6.8-7.1 ppm with $J = 73.2 \text{ Hz}$, which is characteristic of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ (**Figure 5.7c**). On the other hand, $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ shows a characteristic triplet with $J = 52.4 \text{ Hz}$. Thus, isotope-labeling experiments confirm NO_3^- to be the sole proton source for NH_3 synthesis. Interestingly, we observed the sole presence of NH_3 in the gaseous phase as well, suggesting excellent selectivity of [+] MSC-InP QDs for NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 (**Figure 5.7d**). The total amount of NH_3 formed in both aqueous ($0.72 \pm 0.08 \mu\text{mol}$) and gaseous phase ($0.85 \pm 0.12 \mu\text{mol}$) corroborates well with the total NO_3^- converted and validates the claim of selective NH_3 formation from NO_3^- ions. All these experiments clearly show excellent photocatalytic activity of inorganic ligand-capped InP QDs to drive multielectron reactions.

One of the most employed inorganic ligands is sulfide ions (S^{2-}), which are known to impart excellent charge mobility in NC assemblies.^{24,38,39} However, the presence of negatively charged S^{2-} on InP QD surface is expected to install electrostatic repulsions

between the QD and negatively charged NO_3^- ions (**Figure 5.7a**). To verify the active role of ligands as gatekeepers in InP QD photocatalyzed NH_3 synthesis, we functionalized InP QDs with negatively charged inorganic ligand S^{2-} . Interestingly, the photocatalytic activity was completely switched OFF (**Figure 5.7b, 5.16**), even though S^{2-} is not insulating in nature. This is due to the restricted access to the QD surface arising from strong electrostatic repulsions, which lead to a decrease in the local concentration of NO_3^- ions. Consequently, the probability of charge transfer from S^{2-} -InP QD to NO_3^- is reduced. This experiment clearly shows the power of favorable interactions emanating from surface ligands for challenging multielectron chemical transformations.

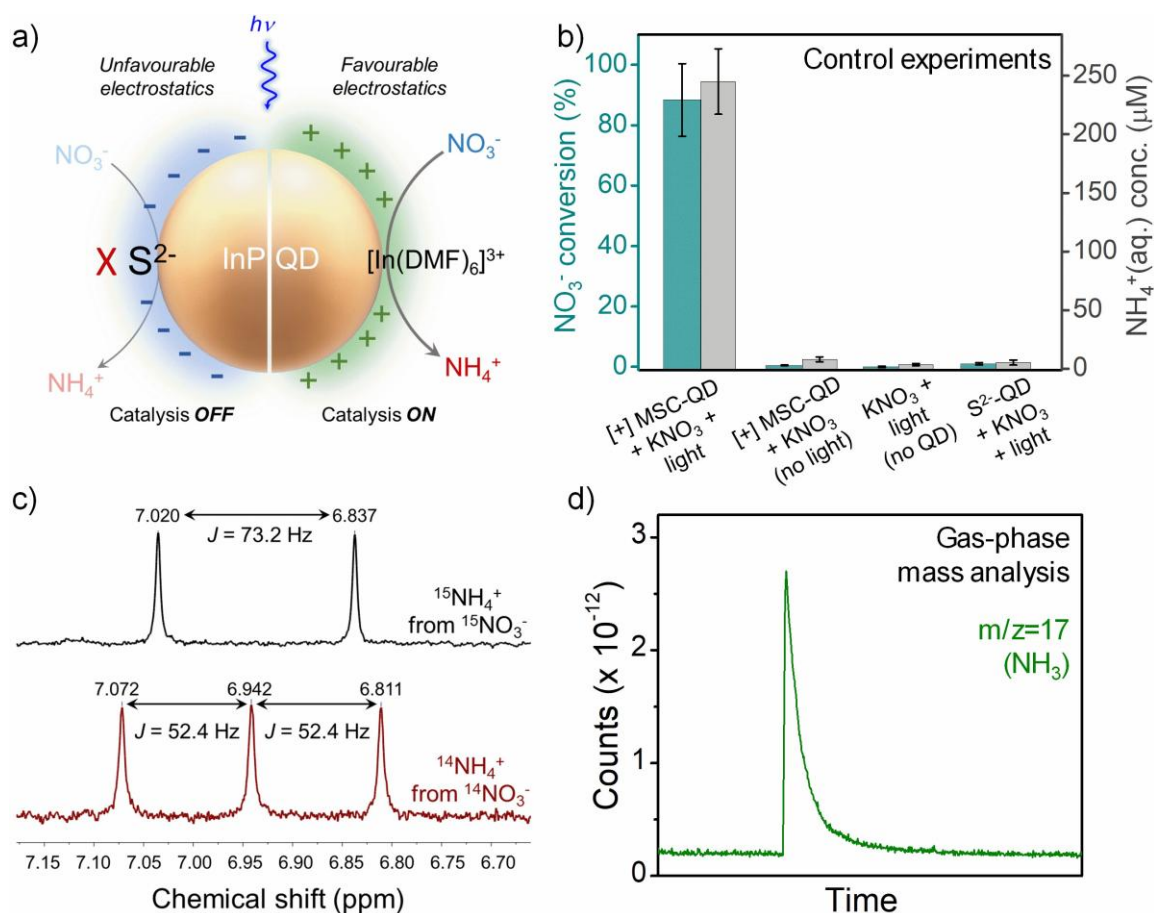


Figure 5.7. a) Schematics showing the modulation of photocatalytic activity by regulating the electrostatic forces emanating from surface ligands. The favorable catalyst-reactant interaction between InP QD and negatively charged NO_3^- ions is the key to NH_4^+ synthesis. b) Bar diagram showing photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion under different reaction conditions. A negligible conversion of NO_3^- in the absence of either light or InP QDs confirms that the reaction indeed follows a photocatalytic pathway. Comparison of the photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction activity with positively charged [+] MSC-InP QDs and negatively charged S^{2-} -InP QDs confirms the prodigious role of ligands as gatekeepers in NH_3 synthesis. c) ^1H -NMR spectra of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-source. The appearance of characteristic

triplet ($J=52.4$ Hz) and doublet ($J=73.2$ Hz) signals, corresponding to $^{14}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ formed from $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$, respectively, confirms NO_3^- to be the sole N-source. d) Gas phase mass analysis of the photocatalytic reaction mixture reveals the presence of $m/z = 17$ corresponding to NH_3 .

5.4.3. Effect of inorganic ligands on NH_3 synthesis

It was seen in the previous Chapter that positively charged *N,N,N*-trimethyl(11-mercaptoundecyl) ammonium chloride ([+] TMA) ligands on InP QDs installs favorable electrostatic interactions between NO_3^- ions and QD for photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis.²⁶ Even though a decent photocatalytic activity was observed under visible light irradiation with [+] TMA-InP QDs, [+] TMA is a long alkyl chain ligand comprising 11 carbons. Such long alkyl chains are often insulating in nature and pose steric hindrance for the substrates to access the catalyst surface.^{21,22} As a result, we were interested in investigating the effect of inorganic ligands in photocatalytic applications. For this, we compared the photocatalytic activities of [+] MSC-InP QDs with [+] TMA-InP QDs (**Figure 5.8a**). Firstly, preliminary photocurrent experiments were performed to compare the charge separation and extraction process between [+] MSC-InP and [+] TMA-InP QDs. Interestingly, ~ 3.75 -fold enhancement in the current density was observed for [+] MSC-InP QDs under 450 nm light illumination compared to [+] TMA-InP QDs (**Figure 5.8b**). This suggests enhanced charge separation and extraction in [+] MSC-InP QDs compared to InP QDs and indicates that a similar effect might appear in photocatalytic transformations. Such an enhancement in photocurrent for [+] MSC-InP QDs motivated us to compare the photocatalytic NO_3^- reduction activity of these two positively charged InP QDs. With [+] MSC-InP QDs, we observed $>90\%$ conversion within 30 min of visible light irradiation, whereas only $\sim 15\%$ NO_3^- conversion was observed with [+] TMA-InP QDs under similar reaction conditions (**Figure 5.8c**). This clearly suggests that the appropriate choice of surface ligands is crucial in achieving high photocatalytic efficiencies. Moreover, this comparison reveals the poisoning effect of long-chain alkyl ligands in photocatalysis. A detailed kinetic study was performed to evaluate various photocatalytic parameters such as reaction rate and apparent quantum yield (AQY). In the presence of inorganic [+] MSC ligand, the rate of NO_3^- conversion to NH_4^+ reached $45 \pm 5 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$, which was ~ 16 -fold higher than [+] TMA-InP QDs ($2.8 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$)

(Figures 5.8d, 5.17-5.20). Similarly, significant rate enhancement was observed even for core/shell InP/ZnS QDs when the [+] MSC ligand was used compared to the [+] TMA ligand (Figure 5.8e). As InP/ZnS QDs exhibit a type-I band structure,⁴⁰ the overall reaction rate is reduced for both cases (Figure 5.8e). Nevertheless, [+] MSC-InP/ZnS still outperformed [+] TMA-InP QDs to yield NH_4^+ under visible-light illumination (Figures 5.8e, 5.21, and 5.22), clearly suggesting the superior impact of appropriately chosen inorganic ligands in QD photocatalysis. The direct impact of such enhanced reaction rates was well-reflected in ~8-fold enhancement in AQY for [+] MSC-InP QDs (1.17 % @ 450 nm) compared with [+] TMA-InP QDs (0.15 % @ 450 nm). We anticipate that the enhanced electron delocalization leading to increased charge separation and extraction, along with the lower ligand density of [+] MSC on the InP QD surface results in excellent photocatalytic activity to drive challenging multielectron reactions.

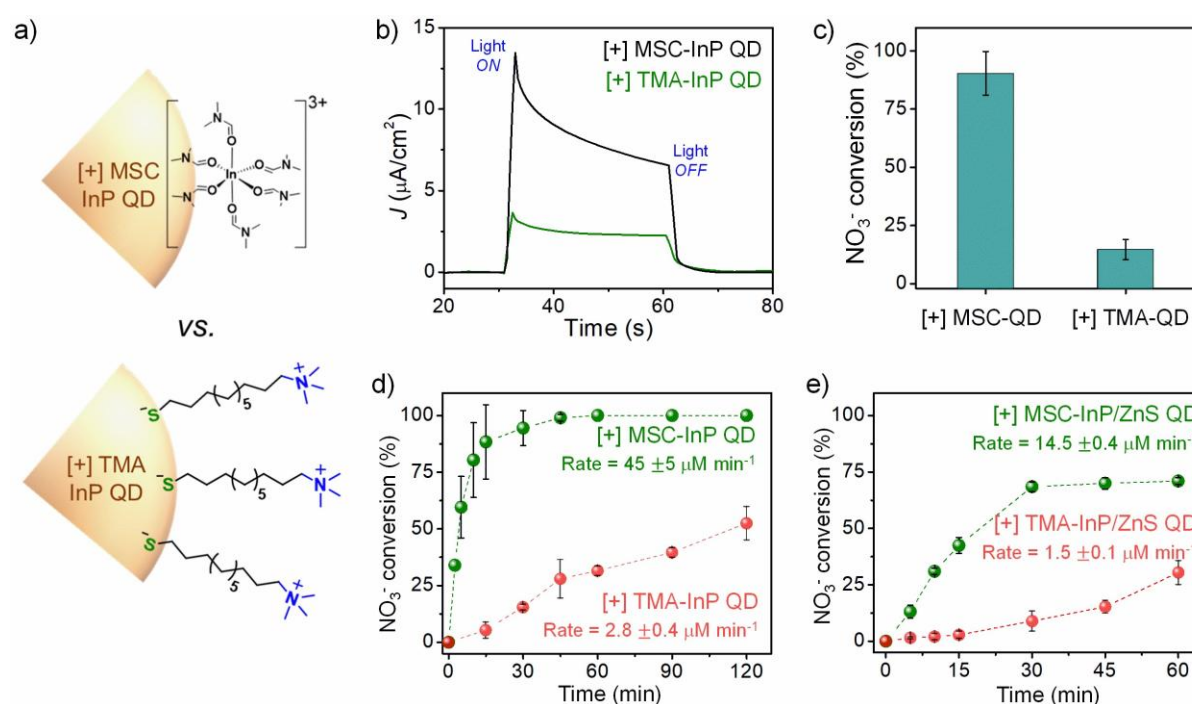


Figure 5.8. Comparison of the photocatalytic activity of [+] MSC-InP QDs with [+] TMA-InP QDs for NO_3^- reduction to NH_3 . a) Schematics of positively charged MSC and TMA ligands on the surface of InP QDs for photocatalytic NH_3 synthesis. b) Comparison of the photocurrent density of [+] MSC-InP QDs and [+] TMA-InP QDs under 450 nm light irradiation. A significant enhancement in the photocurrent density for inorganic [+] MSC-InP QDs was observed compared to long alkyl chain [+] TMA-InP QDs. For a fair comparison, the concentration of InP QDs was kept similar, and the light intensity was $\sim 100 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$. c) Bar diagram showing the photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion activity with [+] MSC-InP QD and [+] TMA-InP QDs after 30 min of 450 nm light irradiation. A higher NO_3^- conversion (>90 %) for [+] MSC-InP QDs than [+] TMA-InP QDs (~15 %) clearly suggests the enhanced charge separation and extraction process when

inorganic ligands are used. Photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion to NH_3 as a function of time performed with d) core-only InP QDs and e) core/shell InP/ZnS QDs functionalized with [+] MSC and [+] TMA ligands. A higher reaction rate was observed for [+] MSC functionalized core/shell QDs as well compared to [+] TMA ligands, showcasing the impact of inorganic ligands in dictating the photoactivity activity.

Most of the multielectron reactions, including NO_3^- reduction, proceed with a kinetically facile proton (H^+) reduction reaction to evolve hydrogen (H_2).⁴¹ The simultaneous occurrence of H_2 evolution reaction with the desired product (here, NH_3) often leads to poor selectivity.⁴¹ Consequently, we were interested in evaluating the effect of inorganic ligands on QD photocatalyzed reactions. From the energy level diagram, it is clear that both [+] MSC-InP QDs and [+] TMA-InP QDs satisfy the thermodynamics for H_2 evolution as well (**Figure 5.9a**). Interestingly, with an increase in NO_3^- conversion to NH_3 with [+] MSC-InP QDs, we observed a significant enhancement in H_2 evolution as well compared to [+] TMA-InP QDs (**Figure 5.9b**), even though the thermodynamic feasibility of H_2 evolution with [+] MSC-InP QDs ($\Delta G = -63.67 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) was lower than [+] TMA-InP QDs ($\Delta G = -86.84 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$). While the overall % of utilizable charge carriers were significantly higher when inorganic [+] MSC ligands were used instead of [+] TMA ligands, the proportion of charge carriers utilized for NH_3 significantly decreased from ~82.5 % for [+] TMA ligands to ~74 % for [+] MSC ligands (**Figure 5.9b**). This resulted in reduced selectivity of the desired NH_3 formation with respect to competing H_2 evolution. This tradeoff between overall yield and selectivity further calls for rational design and development of new NC surface chemistries in the future. As proton transfer is necessary for NO_3^- conversion to NH_3 , proton transfer needs to be regulated, where strategies from electrocatalysis may be adopted.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ Nevertheless, it is clear that inorganic MSC ligands on the InP QD surface have a positive impact on the charge separation and utilization steps for driving multielectron photocatalytic transformations.

As NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ is a proton-coupled electron transfer process, we investigated the proton source in our reaction mixture for NH_4^+ synthesis. Since DMF coordinates with the central In(III) ion to form MSC on the InP QD surface, the role of DMF as a proton source was analyzed first. As there are no ionizable protons in DMF, we expect DMF to play a non-innocent role in NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ . To prove this, a

photocatalytic reaction was performed in DMF instead of water using $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-source and analyzed through ^1H -NMR spectroscopy. The absence of a characteristic doublet for $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ rules out the role of DMF as a proton source (**Figure 5.9c**). Since no additional proton sources are added to the reaction mixture, water emerges to be the sole proton source for NH_3 synthesis. Additional experiments were performed in D_2O to verify the active participation of water as the proton source. Interestingly, a quantitatively similar NO_3^- conversion (> 90 %) and ND_4^+ (~240 μM in the aqueous phase) formation to that of the photocatalytic reaction performed in H_2O was observed (**Figures 5.9d, 5.23**). It must be noted that water was confirmed as the sole proton with [+] TMA-InP QDs in a previous study by our group. It can be concluded that the presence of inorganic ligands does not alter the reaction mechanism and only enhances the overall performance of the photocatalytic reactions by enhancing the charge extraction from QD photocatalysts.

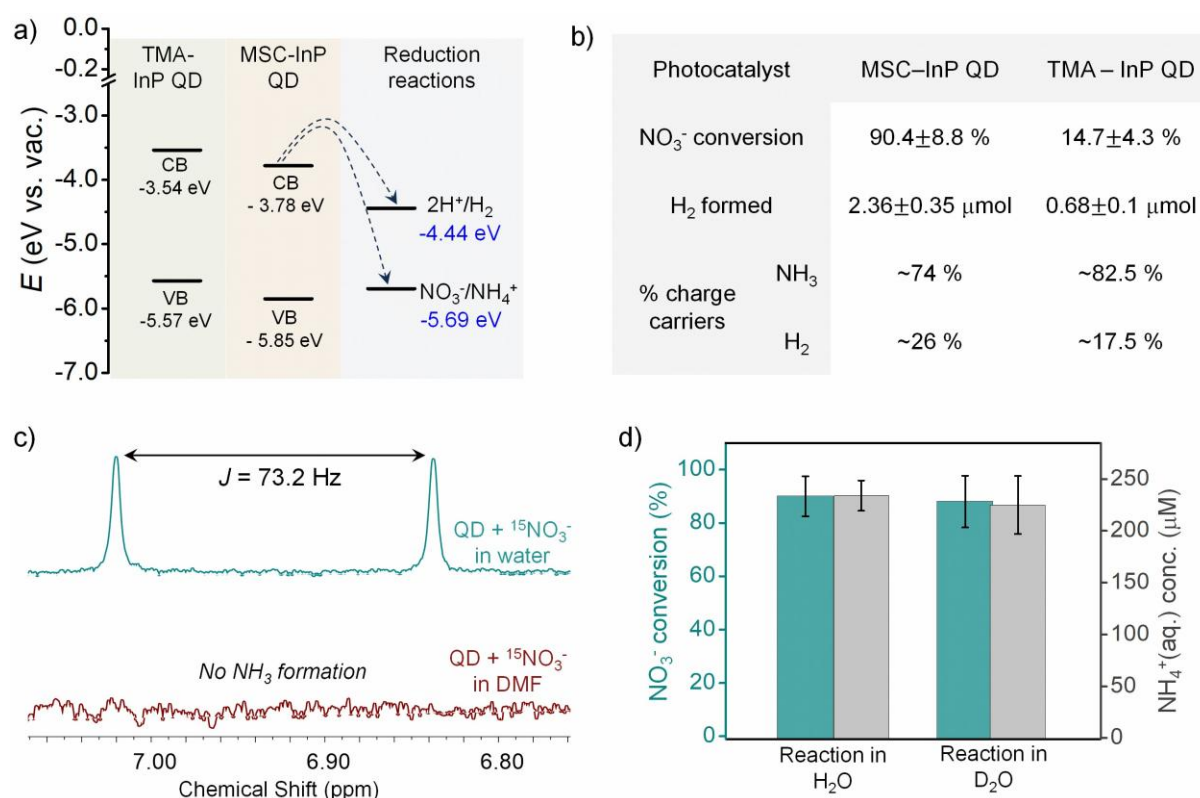


Figure 5.9. Effect of inorganic surface ligands on selectivity. a) Energy level diagram comparing the thermodynamic feasibility of driving NO_3^- reduction to NH_4^+ and hydrogen evolution with positively charged TMA-InP QDs and MSC-InP QDs. b) Table comparing the effect of MSC and TMA ligands on NH_4^+ production and competing H_2 evolution reaction. Along with an increase in the total number of utilizable photoexcited charge carriers with inorganic MSC ligands, the selectivity for NH_4^+ production was lowered compared to alkyl TMA ligands. c) ^1H -NMR spectra of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed in aprotic solvent, DMF using $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ as the N-

source. The absence of characteristic doublet of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ when reaction was performed in DMF suggests water to be the proton source. d) Photocatalytic reactions performed in deuterated water (D_2O) yield similar % NO_3^- conversion and NH_4^+ formation, confirming water to be the sole proton source.

Next, we tested the applicability of other Lewis acid metal halide complexes as surface ligands on InP QDs for photocatalytic ammonia synthesis. We varied the halide counterpart from chloride to bromide and iodide to form cationic In(III) complexes on InP QD surface. The photocatalytic experiments performed with InBr_3 and InI_3 cationic complexes in DMF result in negligible change in the NO_3^- conversion efficiency and NH_4^+ production (**Figures 5.10, 5.24**). This suggests that halide ions do not affect the photocatalytic activity, and it is purely the inorganic nature of the $[\text{+}]$ MSC cationic ligand that boosts NH_3 production. When the Lewis acid metal was changed from In to Al, again, there was a negligible effect on the photocatalytic activity (**Figures 5.10, 5.25**), which suggests that the central ion does not play a major role in NO_3^- reduction. Further elucidation of the role of the central metal ion in the metal-solvent complex in dictating photocatalytic activity requires extensive photophysical studies in the future. Moreover, it would be interesting to utilize this strategy to functionalize coordination complexes bearing redox-active metal ions such as $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{3+}$, which can lead to distinct charge carrier dynamics.^{45,46}

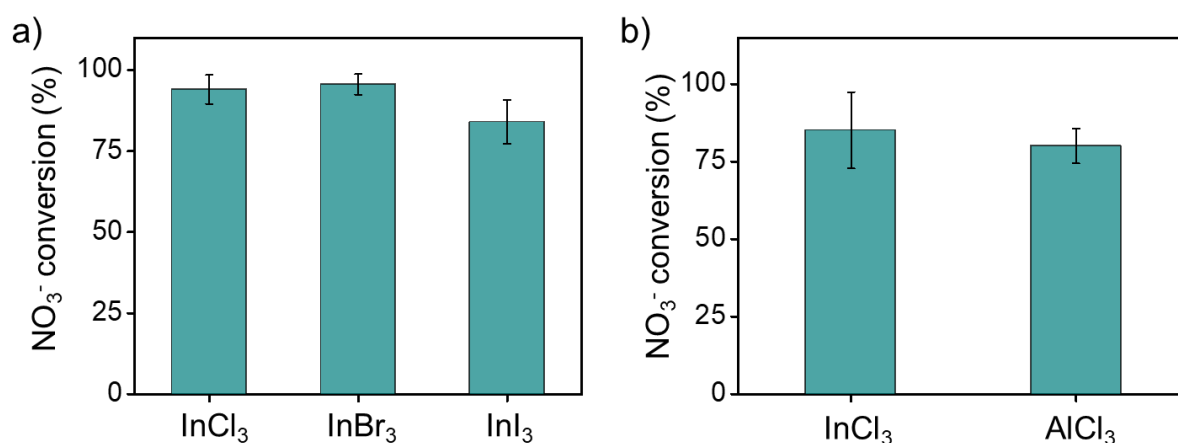


Figure 5.10. Extension to other Lewis metal halides as ligands on InP QDs for photocatalytic NO_3^- to NH_3 conversion. Photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion with InP QDs functionalized with cationic complexes formed from a) different indium halides and b) different Lewis metal chlorides. A similar photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion suggests the negligible effect of halide counterions and central metal ions in dictating the photocatalytic activity of $[\text{+}]$ MSC-InP QDs.

5.5. Conclusions

The present study implements new surface chemistries to attain high quantum efficiencies in QD photocatalysed multielectron/multiproton chemical transformations. The presence of an inorganic metal-solvent complex on InP QD surface boosted NH_3 production under visible-light irradiation. Compared to long-chain alkyl ligands, inorganic ligand-functionalized InP QDs exhibited ~16-fold and ~8-fold enhancement in reaction rate and AQY, respectively, with complete retention of selectivity for NH_3 formation. Through our work, we established the dominance of inorganic ligands over insulating alkyl ligands in outplaying ligand poisoning in visible-light photocatalysed chemical transformations. We posit that a similar ligand effect will be present to perform other challenging multielectron/multiproton chemical reactions, such as CO_2 reduction, N_2 fixation, urea synthesis, etc. As photocatalysis with QDs is an emerging area, and its full potential is unknown, all efforts made to enhance the quantum efficiencies will enable the development of practical photocatalytic platforms based on QDs.

5.6. References

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5.7. Appendix

Characterization of InP QDs

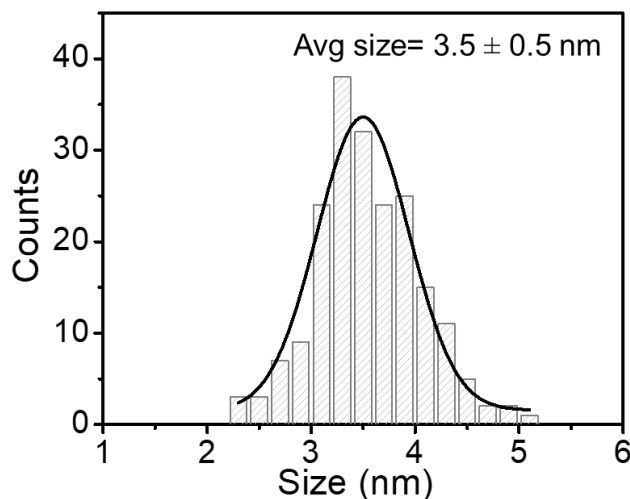


Figure 5.11. Size distribution histogram for core-only [+] MSC-InP QDs, measured from HRTEM images. The average size was calculated to be 3.5 ± 0.5 nm from ~ 200 InP QDs.

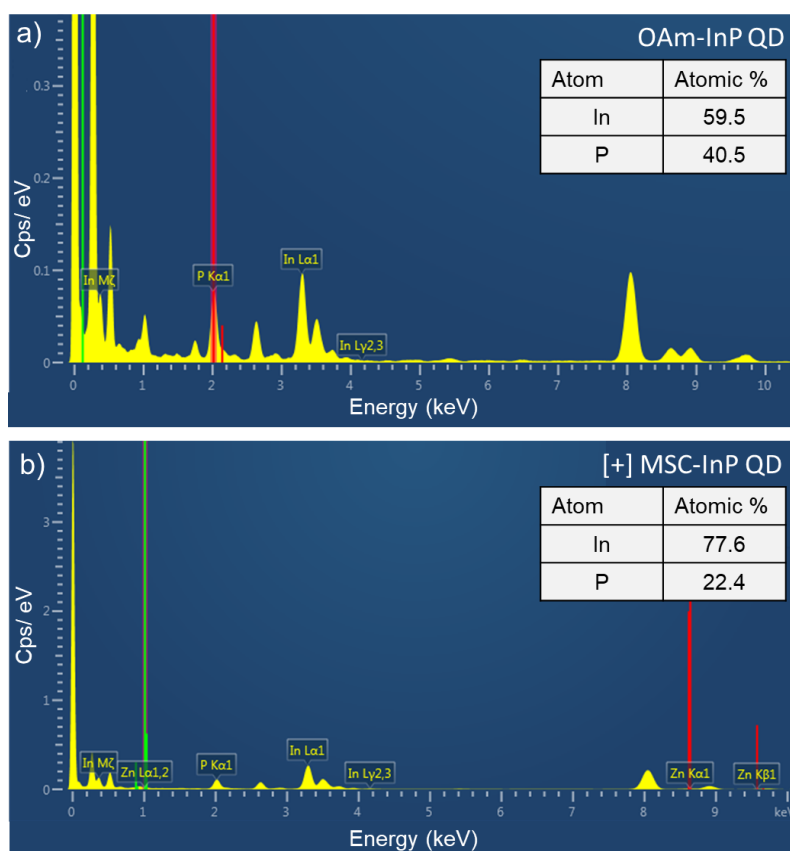


Figure 5.12. EDAX spectrum of a) OAm-InP QD and b) [+] MSC-InP QD. Inset shows the atomic percentages for In and P.

Photocatalytic reaction performed with [+] MSC-InP QDs

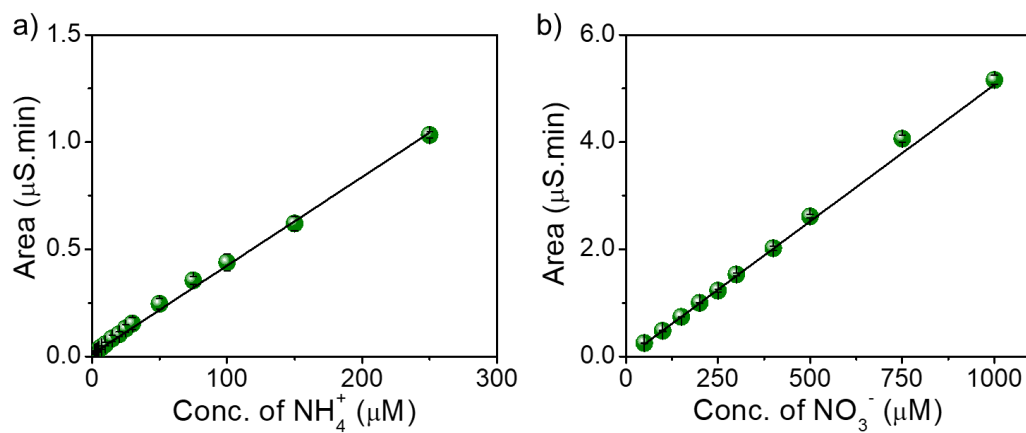


Figure 5.13. Calibration curves for a) NH_4^+ and b) NO_3^- ions detection with ion chromatography.

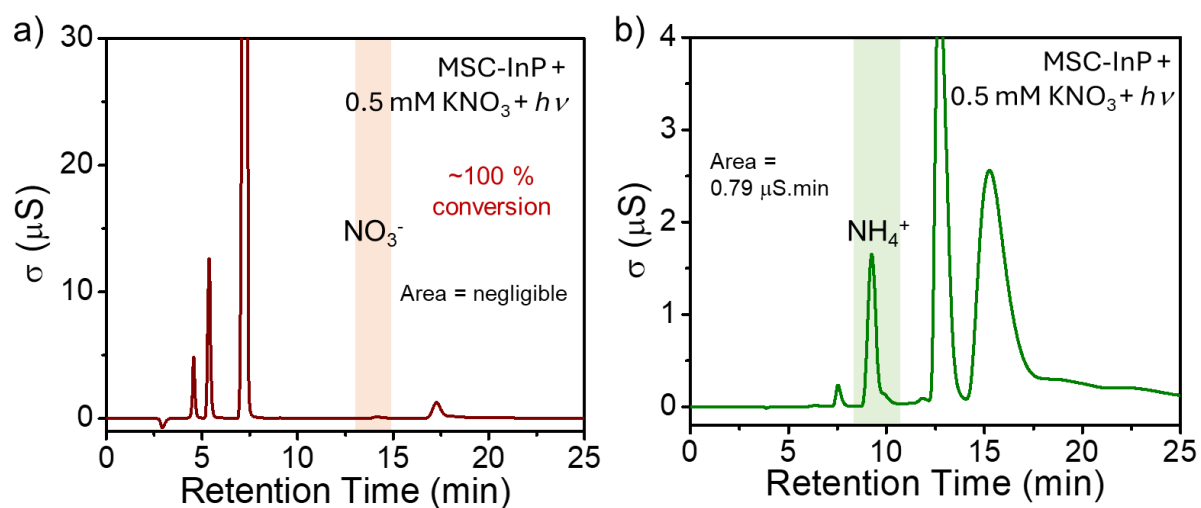


Figure 5.14. Photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- to NH_4^+ with [+] MSC-InP QDs. a) Anion and b) cation chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture after 2 h of visible-light irradiation.

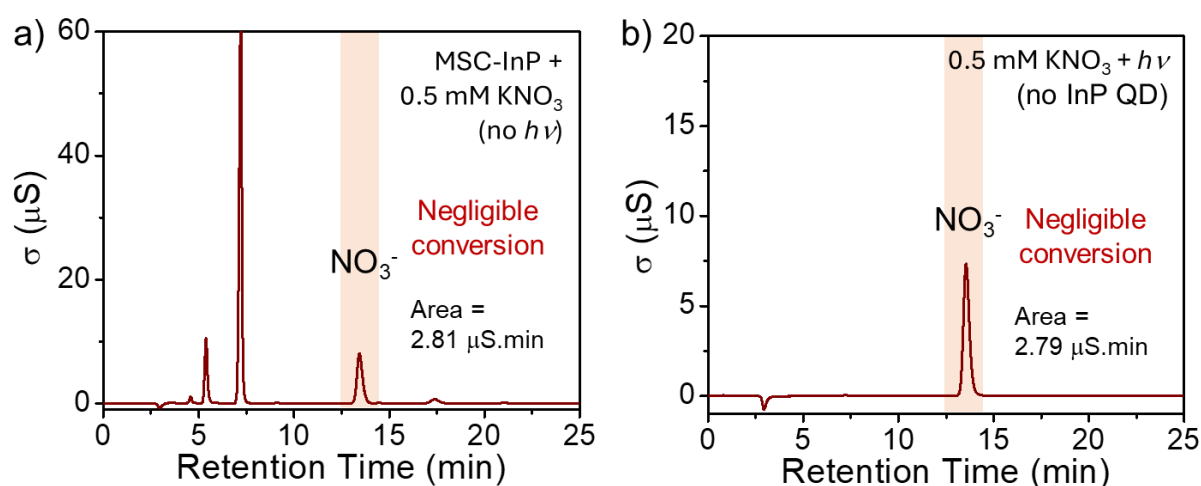


Figure 5.15. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reactions performed in the absence of a) light and b) [+] MSC-InP QDs. A negligible NO_3^- conversion confirms the need for both components for NH_3 synthesis.

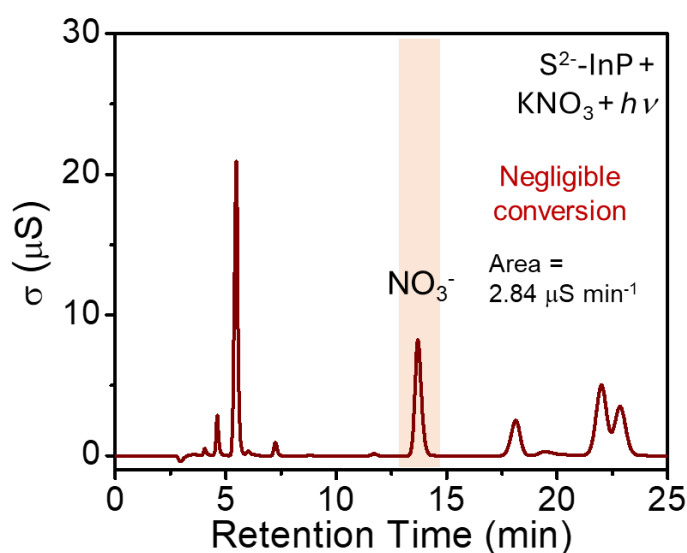


Figure 5.16. Proof of electrostatics. Anion chromatogram of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with negatively charged inorganic S^{2-} -functionalized InP QDs. A negligible NO_3^- conversion was observed, suggesting the key role of favourable electrostatics in dictating photocatalytic activity.

Comparison of the photocatalytic activity of inorganic ligand-capped [+] MSC-InP QDs with organic alkyl ligand-capped [+] TMA-InP QDs

Time-dependent studies with core-only [+] MSC-InP QDs

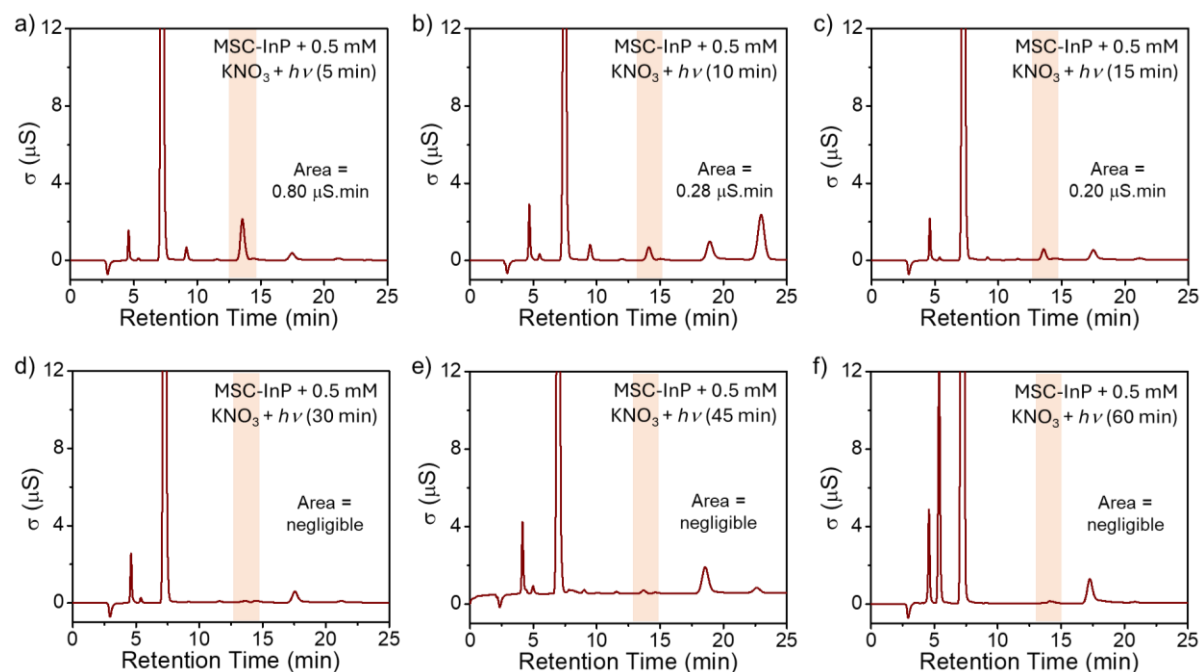


Figure 5.17. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] MSC-InP QDs for a) 5 min, b) 10 min, c) 15 min, d) 30 min, e) 45 min, and f) 60 min.

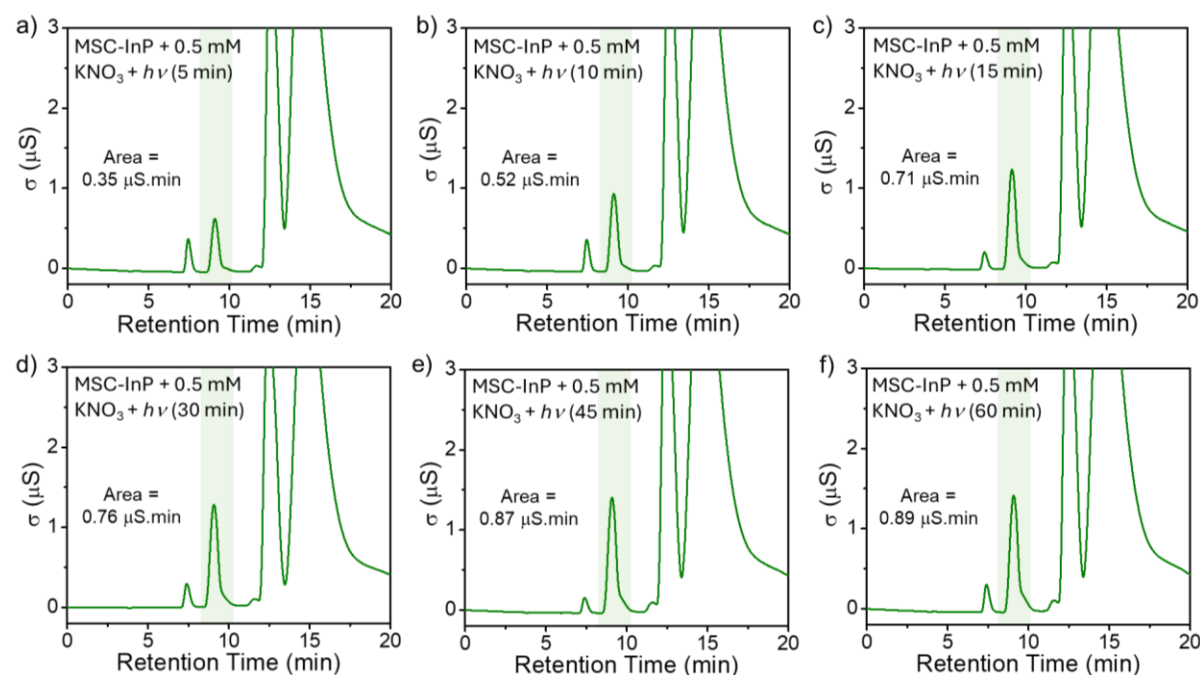


Figure 5.18. Cation chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] MSC-InP QDs for a) 5 min, b) 10 min, c) 15 min, d) 30 min, e) 45 min, and f) 60 min.

Time-dependent studies with core-only [+] TMA-InP QDs

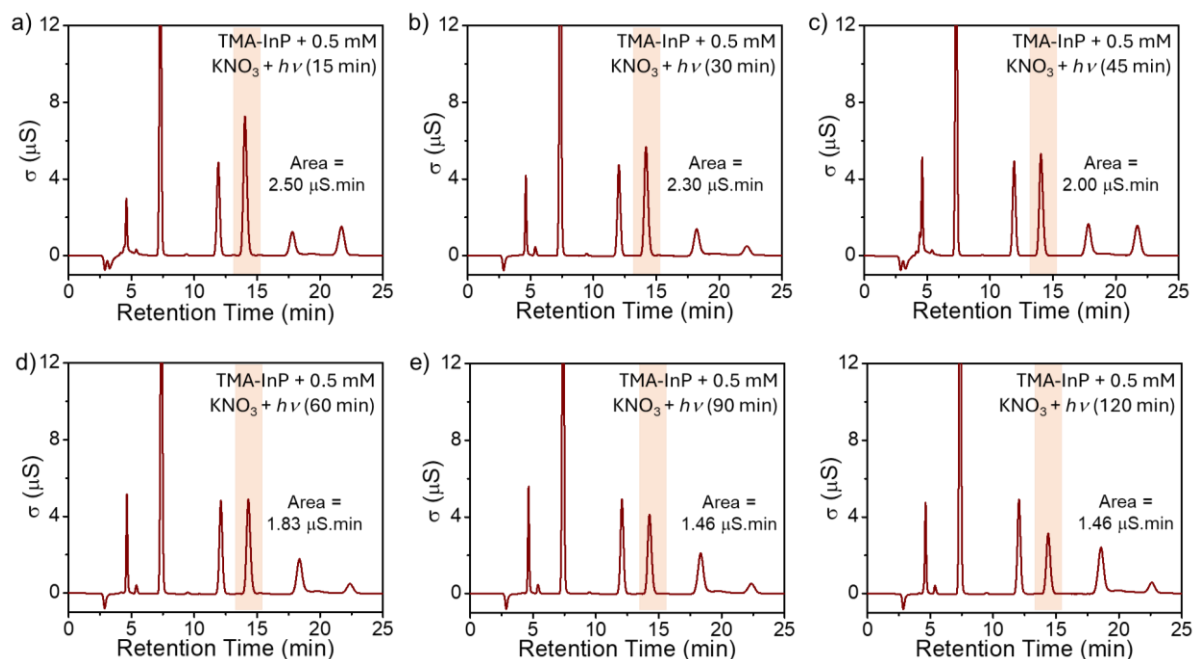


Figure 5.19. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] TMA-InP QDs for a) 15 min, b) 30 min, c) 45 min, d) 60 min, e) 90 min, and f) 120 min.

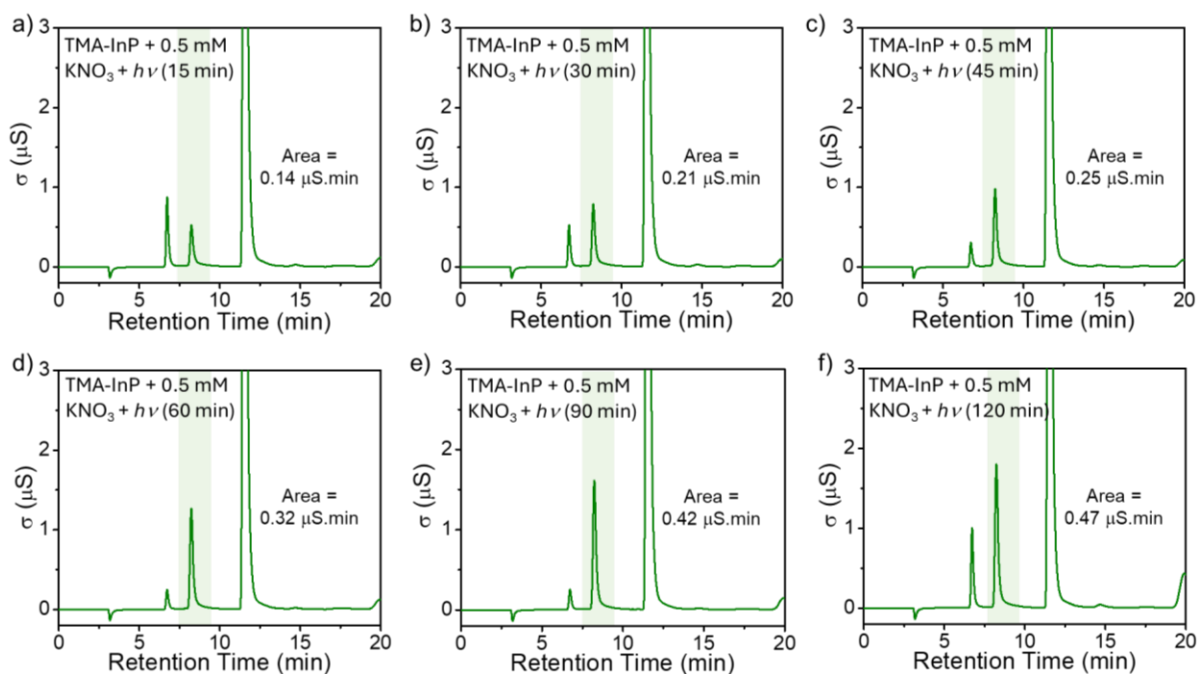


Figure 5.20. Cation chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] TMA-InP QDs for a) 15 min, b) 30 min, c) 45 min, d) 60 min, e) 90 min, and f) 120 min.

Time-dependent studies with core/shell [+] MSC-InP/ZnS QDs

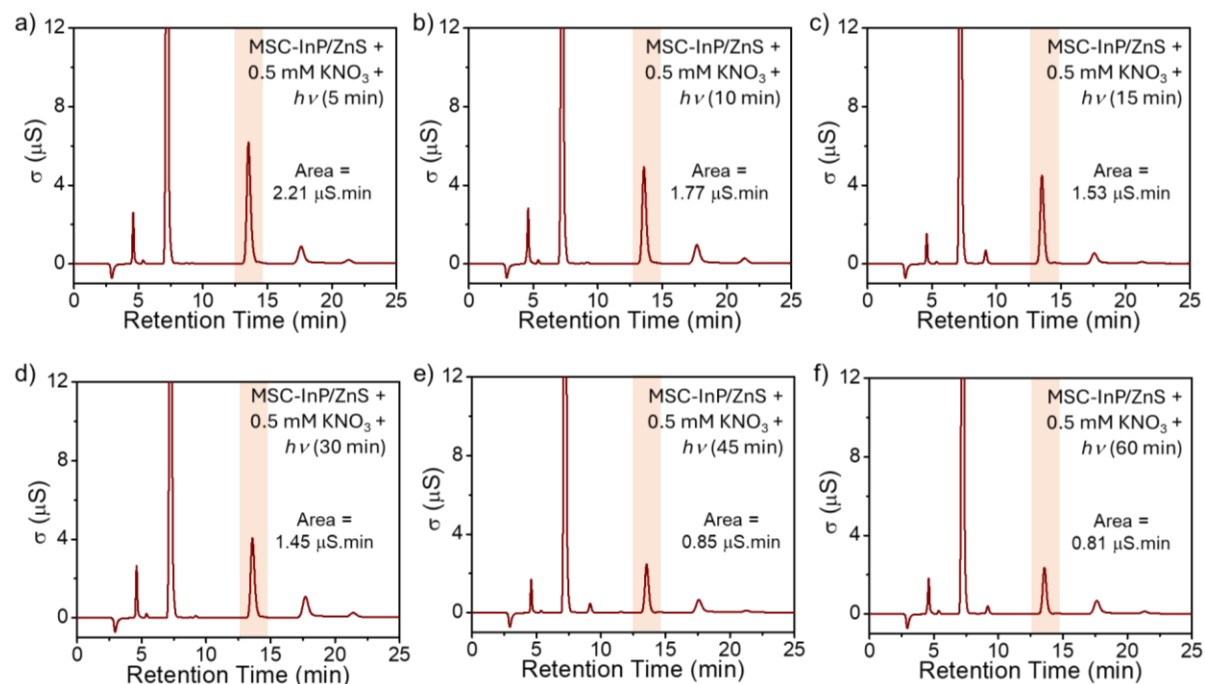


Figure 5.21. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] MSC-InP/ZnS QDs for a) 5 min, b) 10 min, c) 15 min, d) 30 min, e) 45 min, and f) 60 min.

Time-dependent studies with core/shell [+] TMA-InP/ZnS QDs

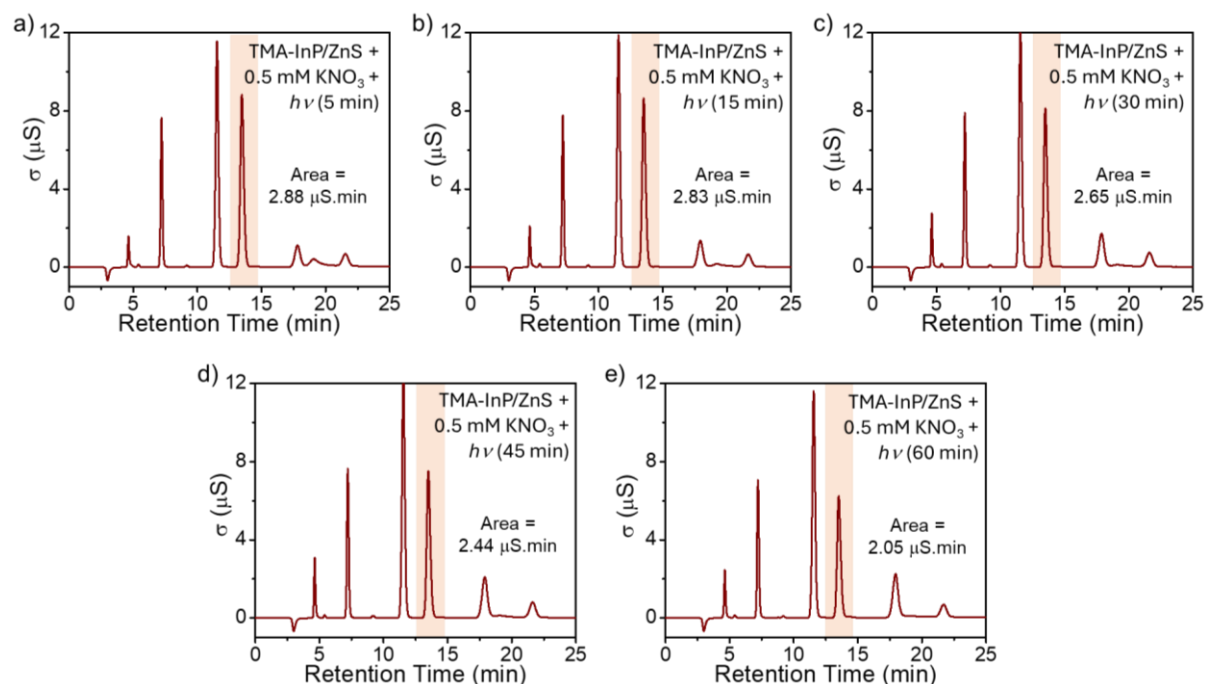


Figure 5.22. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction mixture performed with [+] TMA-InP/ZnS QDs for a) 5 min, b) 15 min, c) 30 min, d) 45 min, and e) 60 min.

Photocatalytic reaction performed in deuterated water

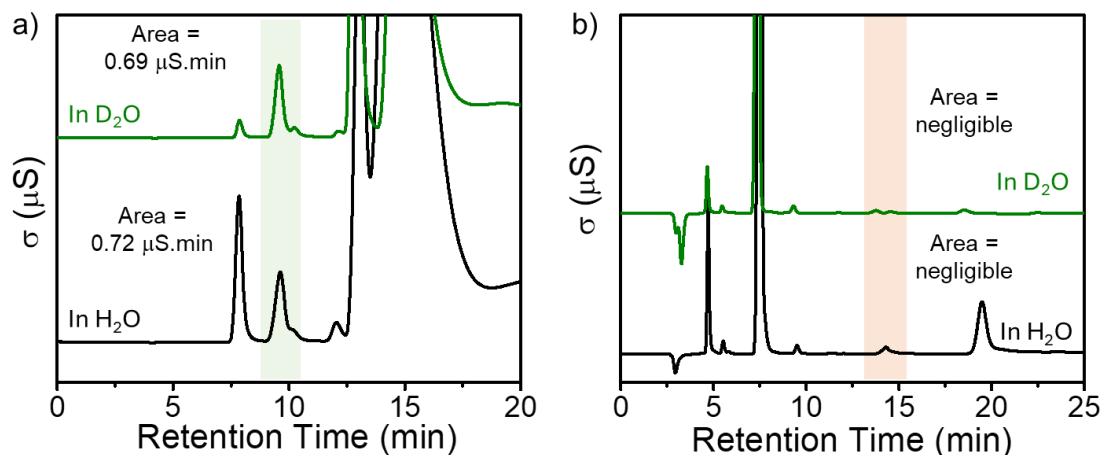


Figure 5.23. a) Cation and b) anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic reaction performed with [+] MSC-InP QDs in water and deuterated water, clearly showing the formation of ammonia and deuterated ammonia, respectively with complete conversion of NO_3^- under both media. With no other source of proton present in the reaction mixture, this confirms the role of water as the proton source in ammonia synthesis with [+] MSC-InP QDs.

Extension to other Lewis metal halides as surface ligands

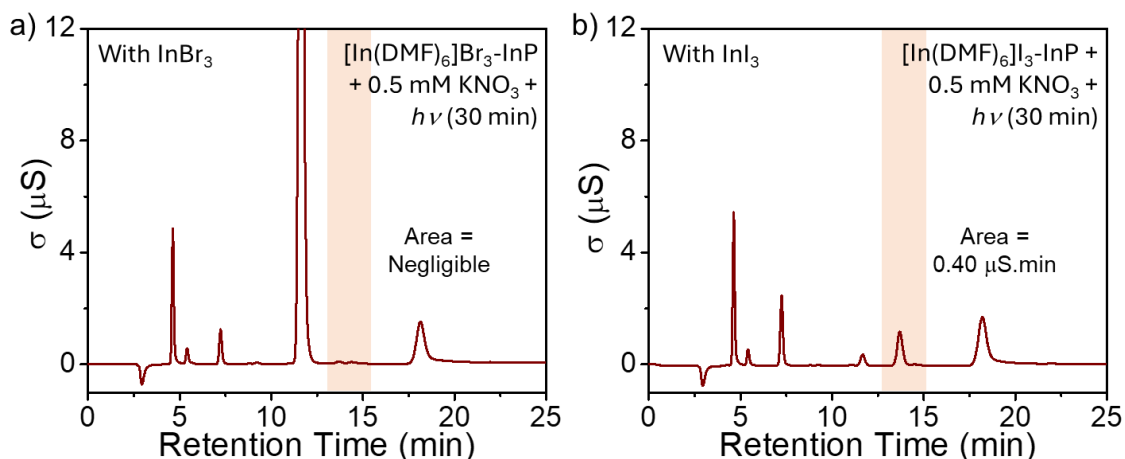


Figure 5.24. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion performed with InP QDs functionalized with different indium halides: a) InBr_3 and b) InI_3 . Both these indium halides tend to form cationic complexes in DMF similar to InCl_3 . A similar photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion suggests the negligible effect of halide counterions in dictating the photocatalytic activity of [+] MSC-InP QDs under visible light illumination.

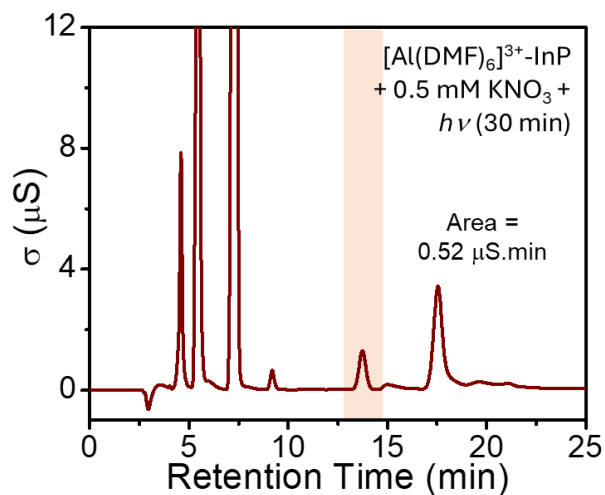


Figure 5.25. Anion chromatograms of the photocatalytic NO_3^- conversion performed with InP QDs functionalized with different Lewis acid metal chloride, AlCl_3 . Negligible effect of Lewis acid metal centre in dictating the photocatalytic activity of InP QDs under visible light illumination was observed.

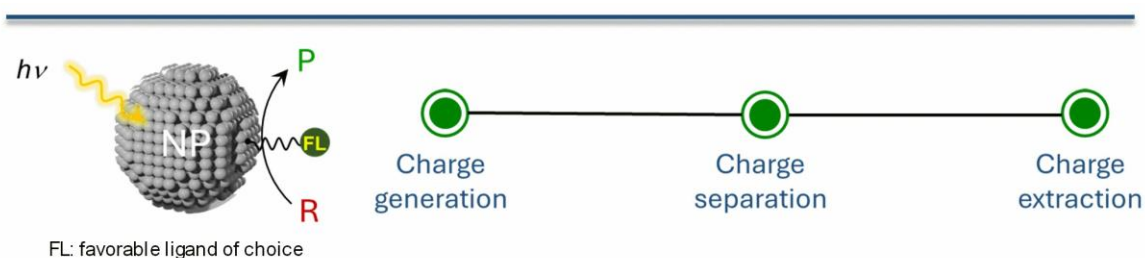
Chapter – 6

Summary and Future Outlook

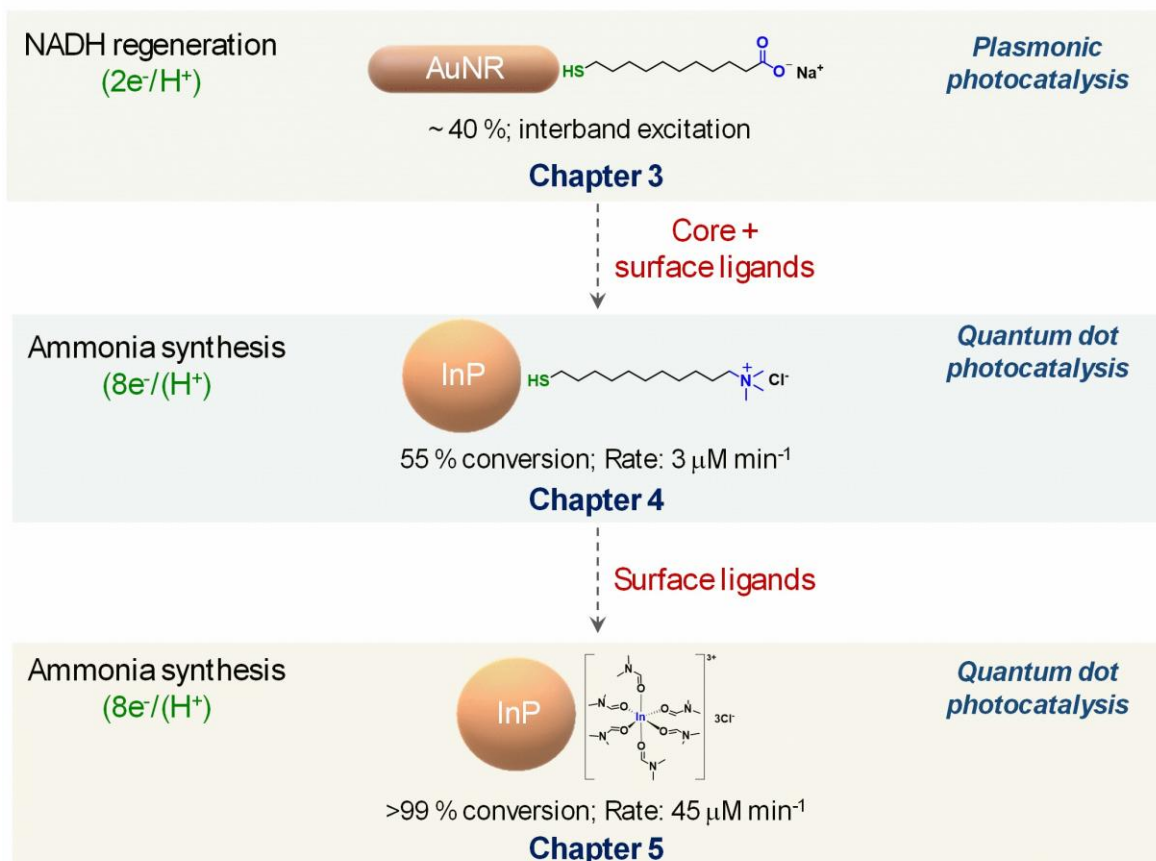
6.1. Thesis summary

The present Thesis deals with maximizing the efficiency of each fundamental step in photocatalysis: light absorption and charge generation, charge separation, and finally, charge extraction, to drive challenging and industrially relevant multielectron chemical transformations. This was achieved through the rational design of both the core and the surface of plasmonic metal nanoparticles (NPs) and semiconductor quantum dots (QDs), the photocatalysts of our choice.

Thesis at a glance



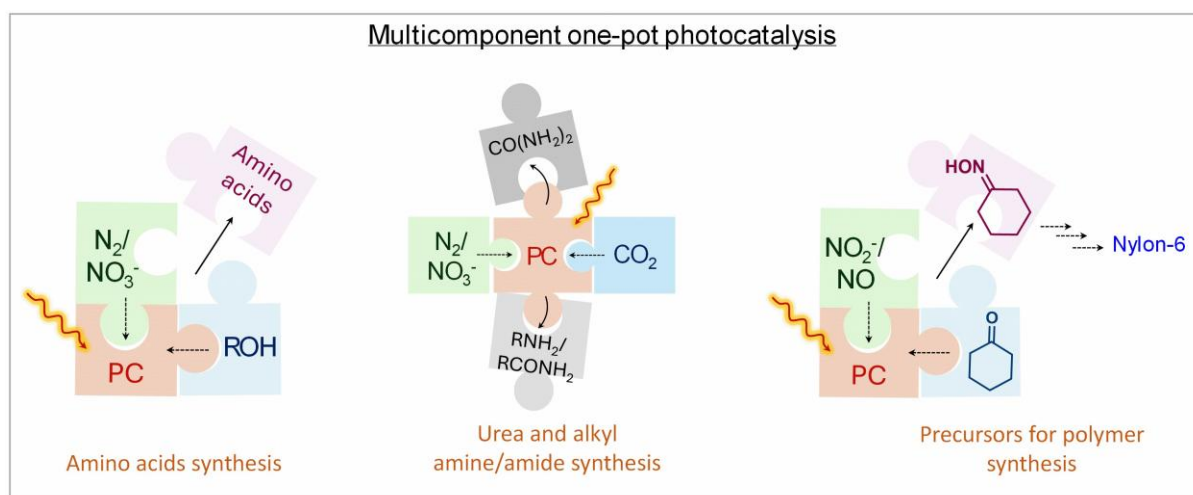
Regulating the **core** and **surface ligands** of nanoparticles to maximize the efficiency of multielectron photocatalytic transformations



At a glance, we regulated the nanoparticle core and surface ligands to perform multielectron and multiproton reactions with the aim of maximizing photocatalytic efficiencies. **Chapter 3** focuses on understanding the role of light excitation attributes in light-driven nicotinamide cofactor regeneration with plasmonic metal nanoparticles. The appropriate choice of plasmonic nanoparticle core in the form of anisotropic nanorods and favorable surface ligand allowed us to understand the exclusive role of interband vs intraband transitions in maximizing the charge generation, separation, and extraction processes in NADH photoregeneration. Next, with the aim of synthesizing important commodity chemicals such as ammonia, we fine-tuned the photocatalyst design in **Chapter 4a** and switched the core from metal to semiconductor quantum dots (QDs) to overcome the challenges associated with the short lifetime of charge carriers. A rational choice of indium phosphide (InP) QDs, having a preferential affinity of N-sources towards surface In atoms and favorable ligands on InP QD photocatalysts, resulted in selective and efficient ammonia production from nitrate and nitrite ions under visible-light irradiation. This is one of the simplest photocatalytic systems comprising only the photocatalyst, the reactant, and water. The next part of this Chapter deals with elucidating the key mechanistic details involved in photocatalytic nitrate reduction to ammonia with InP QDs. In **Chapter 4b**, we listed our findings on reaction rate, competing reactions, proton source, fate of photoexcited holes, and recyclability aspects. In **Chapter 5**, we were successful in maximizing the efficiency of the charge extraction process by the appropriate choice of the '*less-explored*' inorganic surface ligands on the InP QDs for light-driven ammonia synthesis. The effect of surface chemistry was clearly seen in 16-fold and 8-fold enhancement in reaction rate and quantum yield, respectively. This is one of the first reports where cationic inorganic ligands are employed in quantum dot photocatalyzed multielectron chemical transformations.

6.2. Future outlook

The concepts developed in this thesis can be easily extended to one-pot complex molecule/material synthesis in a sustainable manner, including cascade coupling reactions and multicomponent reactions such as urea/ alkyl amines synthesis, amino acids synthesis, or synthesizing precursors for polymer synthesis (**Scheme 6.1**). Such ambitious work in the future requires dedicated efforts in alleviating the challenges associated at the fundamental level. For instance, stability under continuous light illumination is a long-standing challenge in QD photocatalysis. Overcoming this requires an in-depth understanding of the mechanisms of degradation under operating conditions, which is currently scarce in the literature.



Scheme 6.1. Schematic representation of the multicomponent one-pot synthesis of value-added chemicals under photocatalytic conditions.

While arriving at the best photocatalyst design still relies upon the conventional route of the manual trial-and-error method, active learning can accelerate catalyst discovery and optimization of reaction parameters. The ultimate goal is to translate the photocatalytic process from laboratory to market-ready solar fuel platforms, which requires an increase in experimental replicability and standardization across different platforms by mitigating human error. In this direction, automation-driven photocatalysis or self-driving labs by integrating machine learning and robotics will turn out to be a game-changer.

Scientific Output

List of Publications

Included in the thesis

1. **Jain, V.**, Roy, S., Roy, P., and Pillai, P. P. When Design Meets Function: The Prodigious Role of Surface Ligands in Regulating Nanoparticle Chemistry. *Chem. Mater.* **2022**, *34*, 7579-7597.
2. **Jain, V.**, Kashyap, R. K., and Pillai, P. P. Plasmonic Photocatalysis: Activating Chemical Bonds through Light and Plasmon. *Adv. Opt. Mater.* **2022**, *10*, 2200463.
3. **Jain, V.**, Chakraborty, I. N., Raj, R. B., and Pillai, P. P. Deciphering the Role of Light Excitation Attributes in Plasmonic Photocatalysis: The Case of Nicotinamide Cofactor Regeneration. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2023**, *127*, 5153-5161.
4. **Jain, V.**, Tyagi, S., Roy, P., and Pillai, P. P. Ammonia Synthesis with Visible Light and Quantum Dots. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2024**, *146*, 32356-32365.
5. **Jain, V.** and Pillai, P. P. Metal-Solvent Complex on Quantum Dot Surface Enhances Ammonia Formation with Visible Light. *Manuscript Submitted*.

Not included in the thesis

6. **Jain, V.** and Pillai, P. P. A Path to Perpetual Chemical Synthesis Via Photocatalytic Cofactor Regeneration. *Chem. Sci.* **2025**. DOI: 10.1039/D5SC02770E (*corresponding author*)
 7. Chakraborty, I. N., **Jain, V.**, Roy, P., Kumar, P., Vinod, C. P., and Pillai, P. P. Photoregeneration of Reactive Cofactors with InP Quantum Dots for the Continuous Chemical Synthesis. *ACS Catal.* **2024**, *14*, 6740-6748.
 8. Deepak, N., **Jain, V.**, and Pillai, P. P. Metal-Semiconductor Heterojunction Accelerates the Plasmonically-Powered Photoregeneration of Biological Cofactors. *Photochem. Photobio.* **2024**, *100*, 1000-1009. (*corresponding author*)
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9. Dhankhar, A., **Jain, V.**, Chakraborty, I. N., and Pillai, P. P. Enhancing the Photocatalytic Regeneration of Nicotinamide Cofactors with Surface Engineered Plasmonic Antenna-Reactor System. *J. Photochem. Photobio. A: Chem.* **2023**, 437, 114472.
 10. Rao, A., Roy, S., **Jain, V.**, and Pillai, P. P. Nanoparticle Self-Assembly: From Design Principles to Complex Matter to Functional Materials. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* **2023**, 15, 25248-25274.
 11. Roy, S., **Jain, V.**, Kashyap, R. K., Rao, A., and Pillai, P. P. Electrostatically Driven Multielectron Transfer for the Photocatalytic Regeneration of Nicotinamide Cofactor. *ACS Catal.* **2020**, 10, 5522-5528.
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List of Conferences Attended

- Oral talk and poster presentation "*Ligands as Gatekeepers in Nanoparticles Photocatalyzed Chemical Transformations*" at **Gordon Research Seminar (GRS) and Gordon Research Conference (GRC) on Colloidal Semiconductor Nanocrystals 2024** held in **Les Diablerets, Switzerland**.
 - Flash talk "*Photocatalysis with Surface Engineered Nanoparticles*" at **5th Alexander von Humboldt Kolleg 2024** held in **Goa, India**.
 - Poster presentation "*Activating Chemical Bonds with Light and Plasmon*" at **PMRF Annual Symposium 2024** held at **Indian Institute of Technology Indore, India**.
 - Poster presentation "*Channelizing the Flow of Reactants in Plasmonic Photocatalysis*" at **Nanomaterials and Molecules: From Spectroscopy to Bioimaging (NaMoSBio) 2024** held at **IISER Kolkata, India**.
 - Oral talk "*Plasmon Driven Photocatalytic Regeneration of Biological Cofactors*" at **ChemSymphoria 2023** held at **IISER Pune, India**.
 - Poster presentation "*Plasmon-Powered Regeneration of Nicotinamide Cofactor*" at **Mini-Symposium on Organometallic Chemistry and Catalysis** held at **IISER Pune, India**.
 - Poster presentation "*Ligands as 'Gatekeepers' in Nanoparticle Photocatalysed Reactions*" at **Emerging Materials 2023** held at **IISER Pune, India**.
 - Oral talk and poster presentation "*Plasmon Driven Photocatalytic Regeneration of Nicotinamide Cofactor*" at **Conference on Advances in Catalysis for Energy and Environment (CACEE) 2022 & CO₂ India Network 1st Annual Meet** held at **Tata Institute of Fundamental Research (TIFR) Mumbai, India**.
 - Poster presentation "*Activating Chemical Bonds Through Plasmons*" at **Low-Dimensional Materials 2022** held at **IISER Pune, India**.
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Chapter 1

When Design Meets Function: The Prodigious Role of Surface Ligands in Regulating Nanoparticle Chemistry

Author: Vanshika Jain, Sumit Roy, Pradyut Roy, et al

Publication: Chemistry of Materials

Publisher: American Chemical Society

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Author: Rito Yanagi, Tianshuo Zhao, Devan Solanki, et al

Publication: ACS Energy Letters

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Jan 1, 2022

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Chapter 1

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When Design Meets Function: The Prodigious Role of Surface Ligands in Regulating Nanoparticle Chemistry

Author: Vanshika Jain, Sumit Roy, Pradyut Roy, et al

Publication: Chemistry of Materials

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Sep 1, 2022

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Figure 1.11b



Quantum Dot-Sensitized Photoreduction of CO₂ in Water with Turnover Number > 80,000

Author: Francesca Arcudi, Luka Đorđević, Benjamin Nagasing, et al

Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society

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Deciphering the Role of Light Excitation Attributes in Plasmonic Photocatalysis: The Case of Nicotinamide Cofactor Regeneration



Author: Vanshika Jain, Indra Narayan Chakraborty, Rohit B. Raj, et al

Publication: The Journal of Physical Chemistry C

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Mar 1, 2023

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Figure 3.2



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The Role of Heat Generation and Fluid Flow in Plasmon-Enhanced Reduction–Oxidation Reactions
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Publication: ACS Photonics
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Figure 3.5



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Distinguishing Among All Possible Activation Mechanisms of a Plasmon-Driven Chemical Reaction
Author: Rifat Kamarudheen, Guus J. W. Aalbers, Ruben F. Hamans, et al
Publication: ACS Energy Letters
Publisher: American Chemical Society
Date: Aug 1, 2020
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Chapter 4a: Permission

Ammonia Synthesis with Visible Light and Quantum Dots



Author: Vanshika Jain, Shreya Tyagi, Pradyut Roy, et al

Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Nov 1, 2024

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Figure 4a.2 (a-d)

Selective Nitrate-to-Ammonia Transformation on Surface Defects of Titanium Dioxide Photocatalysts

Author: Hiroaki Hirakawa, Masaki Hashimoto, Yasuhiro Shiraishi, et al

Publication: ACS Catalysis

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: May 1, 2017

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Figure 4a.3a

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Shape, Electronic Structure, and Trap States in Indium Phosphide Quantum Dots
Author: Kim Corinna Dömbgen, Juliette Zito, Ivan Infante, et al
Publication: Chemistry of Materials
Publisher: American Chemical Society
Date: Sep 1, 2021
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Figure 4a.3d

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Extremely Long-Lived Charge Donor States Formed by Visible Irradiation of Quantum Dots
Author: Micaela K. Homer, Helen C. Larson, Grant J. Dixon, et al
Publication: ACS Nano
Publisher: American Chemical Society
Date: Sep 1, 2024
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Figure 4a.3e



Transition-Metal-Free, Pure p-Block Alloy Electrocatalysts for the Highly Efficient Nitrate Reduction to Ammonia

Author: Hanqing Yin, Xin Mao, Stuart Bell, et al

Publication: Chemistry of Materials

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Apr 1, 2023

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Figure 4a.2 e-,f

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Ammonia Synthesis with Visible Light and Quantum Dots



Author: Vanshika Jain, Shreya Tyagi, Pradyut Roy, et al

Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Nov 1, 2024

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Figure 4b.1

Reaction mechanism and selectivity regulation of photocatalytic nitrate reduction for wastewater purification: progress and challenges

W. Yang, J. Wang, R. Chen, L. Xiao, S. Shen, J. Li and F. Dong, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2022, **10**, 17357 DOI: 10.1039/D2TA04611C

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Mechanistic Insights into pH-Controlled Nitrite Reduction to Ammonia and Hydrazine over Rhodium

Author: Chelsea A. Clark, C. Prakash Reddy, Hao Xu, et al

Publication: ACS Catalysis

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Jan 1, 2020

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Figure 4b.2

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Surface Oxygen Vacancies on Copper-Doped Titanium Dioxide for Photocatalytic Nitrate-to-Ammonia Reduction
Author: Wataru Hiramatsu, Yasuhiro Shiraishi, Satoshi Ichikawa, et al
Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society
Publisher: American Chemical Society
Date: Jan 1, 2025
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Figure 4b.3a

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Highly Selective Ammonia Synthesis from Nitrate with Photocatalytically Generated Hydrogen on CuPd/TiO₂
Author: Miho Yamauchi, Ryu Abe, Tatsuya Tsukuda, et al
Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society
Publisher: American Chemical Society
Date: Feb 1, 2011
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Figure 4b.3b



The Role of Hydrogen Adsorption Site Diversity in Catalysis on Transition-Metal Phosphide Surfaces

Author: Ding-Yuan Kuo, Emily Nishiwaki, Ricardo A. Rivera-Maldonado, et al

Publication: ACS Catalysis

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Jan 1, 2023

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Figure 5.1a and 5.1b



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Quantum Dot Surface Chemistry: Ligand Effects and Electron Transfer Reactions



Author: Douglas A. Hines, Prashant V. Kamat

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Publication: Nano Letters

Publisher: American Chemical Society

Date: Nov 1, 2013

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Author: Angshuman Nag, Maksym V. Kovalenko, Jong-Soo Lee, et al
Publication: Journal of the American Chemical Society
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Efficient photocatalytic hydrogen evolution with ligand engineered all-inorganic InP and InP/ZnS colloidal quantum dots

Author: Shan Yu et al
Publication: Nature Communications
Publisher: Springer Nature
Date: Oct 1, 2018

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