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Supported Mn₃O₄ nanosystems for hydrogen production through ethanol photoreforming

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3 **ABSTRACT:** Photoreforming promoted by metal oxide nano-photocatalysts is an attractive
4 route for a clean and sustainable hydrogen generation. In the present work, we propose for the
5 first time the use of supported Mn₃O₄ nanosystems, both pure and functionalized with Au
6 nanoparticles (NPs), for hydrogen generation by photoreforming. The target oxide systems,
7 prepared by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and decorated with gold NPs by radio frequency
8 (RF)-sputtering, were subjected to a thorough chemico-physical characterization and utilized for
9 a proof-of-concept H₂ generation in aqueous ethanolic solutions under simulated solar
10 illumination. Pure Mn₃O₄ nanosystems yielded a constant hydrogen production rate of 10 mmol
11 h⁻¹ m⁻² even for irradiation times up to 20 h. The introduction of Au NPs yielded a significant
12 enhancement in photocatalytic activity, which decreased as a function of irradiation time. The
13 main phenomena causing the Au-containing photocatalyst deactivation have been investigated by
14 morphological and compositional analysis, providing important insights for the design of Mn₃O₄-
15 based photocatalysts with improved performances.
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34 **KEYWORDS:** nanosystems, Mn₃O₄, Au, H₂ production, photoreforming.
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■ INTRODUCTION

The sustainable production of clean energy is a main open challenge in the search of sources alternative to fossil fuels, which are highly environmental polluting.¹⁻³ In this regard, the use of largely available natural sources, such as water and solar light, to produce hydrogen, a high energy density carbon-neutral fuel,³⁻¹¹ has received a progressively increasing attention.¹²⁻¹⁶ In this regard, the use of TiO₂ in photoactivated hydrogen production has received a considerable attention due to its high efficiency, easy accessibility, low cost and chemical stability.^{10-12,17} Nevertheless, a major titania disadvantage is the high band-gap ($E_G \approx 3.2$ eV), which requires UV photon excitation, accounting for only 3–4% of the incident solar radiation.^{9,12} As a consequence, great attention has been dedicated to the investigation of various metal oxide semiconductors as photocatalysts for water splitting,^{6,13,18-24} but the process efficiency is still far from industrial viability due to: *i*) the backward H₂ and O₂ reaction to yield water; *ii*) the recombination of photogenerated electron and holes, and *iii*) the need to improve photocatalyst sunlight absorption, to exploit solar illumination for real-world end-uses.^{12-13,18} To overcome the first two drawbacks, photoreforming processes, based on the use of aqueous solutions containing biomass-derived oxygenates (*e.g.* ethanol, glycerol,...), stand as a valuable option.^{12,18,25} The use of renewable feedstocks and solar energy to produce hydrogen is a much more sustainable approach than processes based on fossil fuels reforming.¹⁷ The main drawback is the generally low energy conversion efficiency, which can be enhanced by many possible strategies (*e.g.* material engineering, doping, sensitization), which are being extensively investigated.²⁶ Converting biomass to H₂ entails a higher energy content by weight with respect to the starting materials and the possibility to safely produce H₂ *in situ* instead of distributing it over long distances. Moreover, the selective production of acetaldehyde instead of CO₂ was observed using

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3 ethanol as a sacrificial agent over some photocatalysts, meaning that carbon emissions can be
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5 reduced while producing high-value chemicals in a green way.
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8 To enhance photocatalyst sunlight harvesting, a proper choice and chemical tailoring of oxide-
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10 based semiconductors offers valuable opportunities to engineer their electronic and surface
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12 properties.^{8,13-14,27} In this context, the functionalization with metal nanoparticles (NPs), such as
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14 Au, Ag, Pt, has received a great attention to minimize the recombination of photogenerated
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16 electrons and holes, and enhance solar light harvesting.^{5,8,12,20,23,28}
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20 Among the possible photocatalyst materials, manganese oxides (*e.g.*, Mn₂O₃, Mn₃O₄, MnO₂) are
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22 very promising for bio-inspired water splitting,^{2-4,6,24,29-32} thanks to their environmentally friendly
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24 character, light absorption in the Vis spectral region and accessibility to various oxidation
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26 states,^{14,28,33-34} that have triggered their use as heterogeneous (photo)catalysts. So far, Mn oxide
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28 systems have been used in water (photo)oxidation,^{15-16,22,35-36} as well as in H₂ generation by
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30 photoelectrochemical water splitting,^{6,14} along with Mn₃O₄-NiO³ and Mn₂O₃-TiO₂ composite
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32 thin films.¹ As concerns the improvement of MnO_x (photo)catalytic performances through the
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34 controlled incorporation of metal nanoparticles, relevant examples include Ag-MnO₂ for organic
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36 dyes photodegradation,³³ as well as Pd-MnO₂ nanorods²³ and Ag-Mn₂O₃ composite thin films²⁸
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38 for (photo)electrochemical water splitting. In particular, various efforts devoted to Mn₃O₄, a low
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40 cost spinel-type oxide endowed with high natural abundance and environmental
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42 compatibility,^{3,16,31,37} encompass the production of M-Mn₃O₄ (M = Pt, Ag, Au) powders as
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44 catalysts for various reactions³⁷⁻⁴⁰ and of Pd- and Ni-Mn₃O₄ nanocomposites for water
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46 splitting.^{16,23} Nevertheless, apart a few cases,^{1,5,28,30,41-42} the majority of these studies have been
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48 devoted to powders instead of supported systems, whose implementation is highly required for
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50 practical applications,^{9,20,25} and no reports on H₂ production by photoreforming from Mn₃O₄
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3 nanosystems are available in the literature so far.

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5 The possible large-scale use of Mn_3O_4 -based catalysts in photoreforming processes depends on
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7 the tailored preparation of supported nanomaterials through cost-effective and potentially
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9 scalable processes. In this work, we present the preparation of supported Mn_3O_4 -based
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11 nanosystems, grown on Si(100) substrates by means of a chemical vapor deposition (CVD)
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13 route, and their eventual functionalization with gold NPs by radio frequency (RF) sputtering
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15 (Figure 1, top panel) under mild conditions, avoiding any undesired alteration of the pristine
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17 Mn_3O_4 matrices. For the first time a proof-of-concept utilization of the target samples in solar-
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19 assisted H_2 production by photoreforming of aqueous ethanolic solutions is reported and
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21 discussed, also in terms of material activity and stability.
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28 ■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

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31 Mn_3O_4 nanodeposits were grown by CVD on $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ Si(100) substrates (MEMC[®], Merano,
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33 Italy). Basing on preliminary optimization experiments, deposition processes were performed in
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35 a pure O_2 atmosphere at 400°C for 1 h (total pressure = 10.0 mbar). As prepared Mn_3O_4
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37 nanosystems were functionalized with Au NPs by means of RF-Sputtering from Ar plasmas
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39 using the following settings: RF-power = 5 W; deposition time = 30 min; total pressure = 0.3
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41 mbar. Further details on the adopted instrumentation and processing parameters can be found in
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43 the Supporting Information, § S-1.
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47 Field emission-scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray
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49 spectroscopy (EDXS) analyses were performed by a Zeiss SUPRA 40VP apparatus equipped
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51 with an Oxford INCA x-sight X-ray detector, using primary beam voltages between 10 and 20
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53 kV. Images were recorded by collecting secondary and back-scattered electron signals (SE and
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3 BSE, respectively). The average nanodeposit thickness and NP diameters were evaluated through
4 the ImageJ[®] software (<http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>, accessed November 2017), averaging over
5 various independent measurements.
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9 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) micrographs were recorded in tapping mode using an NT-MDT
10 SPM Solver P47H-PRO instrument. After plane fitting, the root mean square (RMS) roughness
11 values were obtained from the height profiles of $2 \times 2 \mu\text{m}^2$ images.
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15 Glancing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) measurements were carried out by a Bruker D8
16 Advance diffractometer, using a $\text{CuK}\alpha$ X-ray source, at a fixed incidence angle of 1.0° .
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20 High resolution-transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) micrographs were acquired with a
21 FEI Tecnai F20 TEM operated at 200 kV. Cross sections of the samples were prepared by
22 cutting them into slides followed by mechanical polishing and ion milling up to electron
23 transparency. Compositional analysis was performed by combining high angle annular dark
24 field-scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM) with EDXS.
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28 A Perkin–Elmer Φ 5600ci spectrometer with an $\text{AlK}\alpha$ excitation source ($h\nu = 1486.6 \text{ eV}$) was
29 used for X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis. Binding energy (BE) values were
30 corrected for charging by assigning a BE of 284.8 eV to the C1s signal of adventitious carbon.
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32 Least-square peak fitting was performed adopting Gaussian-Lorentzian peak shapes.^{9,27} Atomic
33 percentages (at. %) were determined using Φ V5.4A sensitivity factors. Further details are
34 available in the Supporting Information, § S-1.
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38 Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) analysis was carried out by a Cameca IMS 4f
39 instrument, using a Cs^+ primary ion beam (14.5 keV, 20 nA) and negative secondary ion
40 detection, accomplishing charge compensation by an electron gun. Rastering over a 150×150
41 μm^2 area was performed, and secondary ions were sampled from a sub-region close to $8 \times 8 \mu\text{m}^2$
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3 to avoid crater effects. Beam blanking mode and high mass resolution configuration were
4 adopted to improve in-depth resolution and avoid mass interference artifacts, respectively. The
5 sputtering time in the abscissa of the recorded profiles was converted into depth values basing on
6 the nanodeposit thickness data obtained by cross-sectional FE-SEM analyses (see below).
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10 The photoreforming activity of bare and Au-loaded Mn_3O_4 specimens was evaluated using a
11 previously described experimental apparatus,²⁵ irradiating the samples with a solar simulator
12 (LOT-Oriel). Specimens were mounted on a sample holder and placed on the bottom of the
13 reactor, filled with 30.0 mL of ethanol:water 1:1 solution. The detection of H_2 evolved from the
14 working solution was performed by means of gas chromatography (see the Supporting
15 Information, § S-2.5 for further details).
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26 27 28 ■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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31 A preliminary characterization of the system nano-organization was carried out by means of FE-
32 SEM. Pure Mn_3O_4 systems (Figures 1a-b) were characterized by the presence of highly
33 interconnected faceted nanoaggregates [average lateral size = (50 ± 10) nm], whose assembly
34 resulted in an uniform coverage of the Si(100) substrate and in a relatively compact cross-
35 sectional morphology [average thickness = (170 ± 10) nm]. After gold sputtering (Figure 1c), the
36 chemical contrast yielded by BSE imaging provided evidence of brighter spots, related to the
37 presence of dispersed low-sized gold NPs (mean diameter ≈ 6 nm) evenly decorating the
38 outermost Mn_3O_4 region. The corresponding cross-sectional micrograph (Figure 1d) revealed
39 that no significant morphological and thickness modifications with respect to the pristine Mn_3O_4
40 took place after RF-sputtering, in agreement with previous studies.^{9,20} Accordingly, AFM
41 micrographs (Supporting Information, Figure S1) showed very similar surface topographies,
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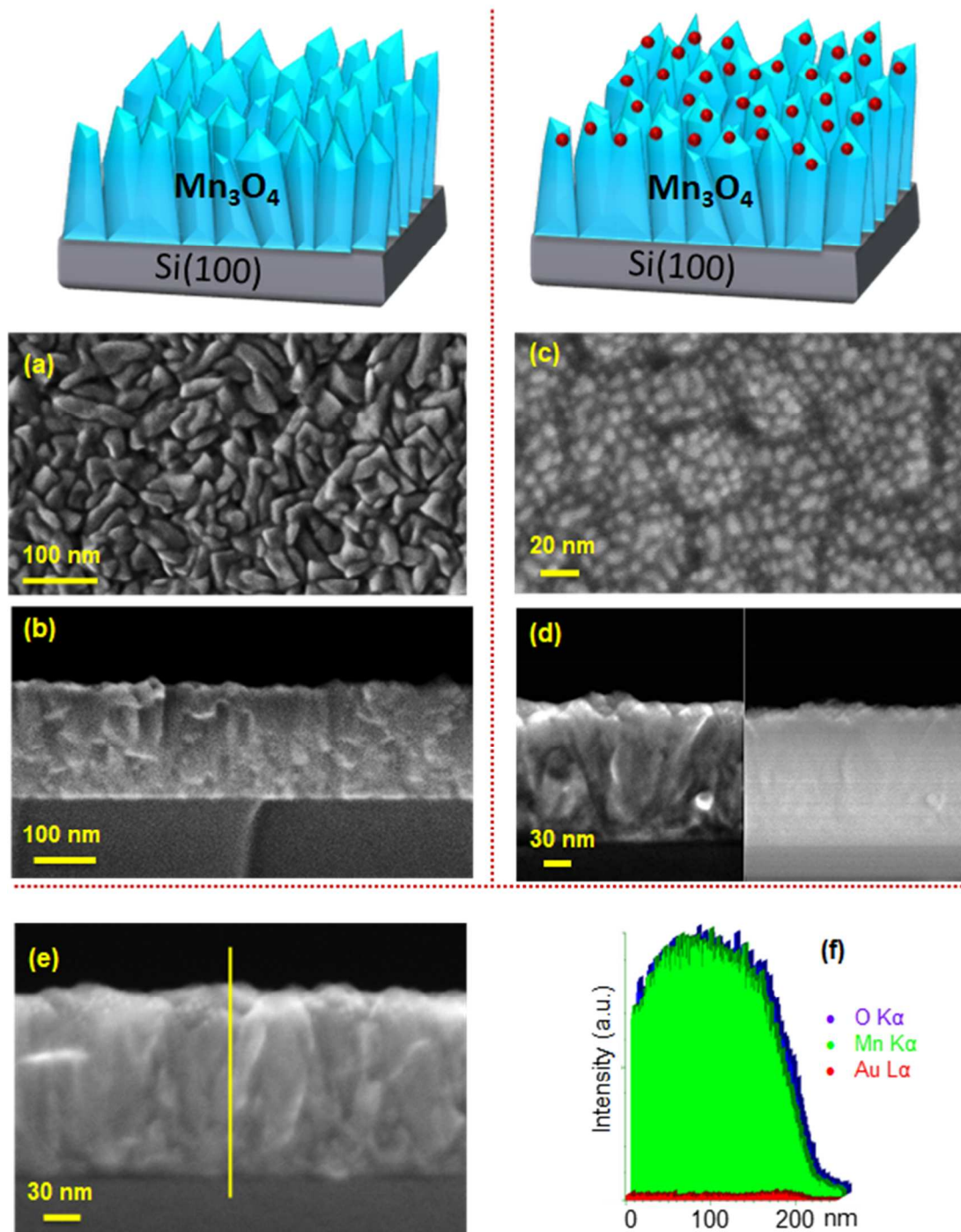


Figure 1. Sketches representing the target Mn₃O₄ and Au/Mn₃O₄ nanodeposits. Plane-view and cross-sectional FE-SEM micrographs for Mn₃O₄ (a,b) and Au/Mn₃O₄ (c,d) specimens. In the latter case, cross-sectional images were recorded by collecting SE (left) and BSE electrons (right). (f) Cross-sectional EDXS line-scans for Au/Mn₃O₄ performed along the yellow line reported on micrograph (e).

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3 characterized by interconnected globular grains, and by RMS roughness values close to 1.0 nm,
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5 irrespective of gold presence. Cross-sectional EDXS line scan analyses carried out in various
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7 sample regions (see representative examples in Figures 1e-f) enabled to ascertain the
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9 homogeneous formation of Mn_3O_4 through the whole deposit thickness. In fact, the intensities of
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11 O and Mn X-ray signals followed the same trend from the external surface up to the interface
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13 with the substrate. In addition, gold appeared to be mainly located in the system outermost
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15 layers, as also confirmed by TEM and SIMS analyses (see below).
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19 The system structure was investigated by GIXRD, and the recorded patterns (Supporting
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21 Information, Figure S2) were characterized by the sole diffraction peaks of tetragonal $\alpha\text{-Mn}_3\text{O}_4$
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23 (*hausmannite*)⁴³ with almost identical relative intensities of reflections before and after gold
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25 introduction, thanks to the mild conditions adopted for the sputtering process.²⁰ The lack of any
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27 detectable gold reflection was mainly traced back to the high dispersion and relatively low
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29 content of Au-containing nanoaggregates.⁹
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33 A deeper insight into the system nanostructure was obtained by TEM. Preliminary cross-
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35 sectional HAADF-STEM (*Z*-contrast) images, along with EDXS elemental maps (Supporting
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37 Information, Figure S3) yielded thickness values in excellent agreement with FE-SEM results
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39 (see above), and revealed that carbon presence was limited to the outermost layers, suggesting
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41 that it mainly arose from external contamination (compare SIMS results). As can be observed,
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43 gold NPs were mainly concentrated in the near-surface nanodeposits regions, within a depth of \approx
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45 40 nm. HR-TEM analyses evidenced the polycrystalline nature of Mn oxide nanoparticles, that
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47 appeared to be randomly oriented. Figure 2a shows representative data for a [111] zone axis-
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49 oriented aggregate of Mn_3O_4 , crystallized in the tetragonal I_{41}/amd crystal phase, with lattice
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51 constants $a = 5.75 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 9.42 \text{ \AA}$.² In the HR-TEM micrograph, Moirée fringes arising from
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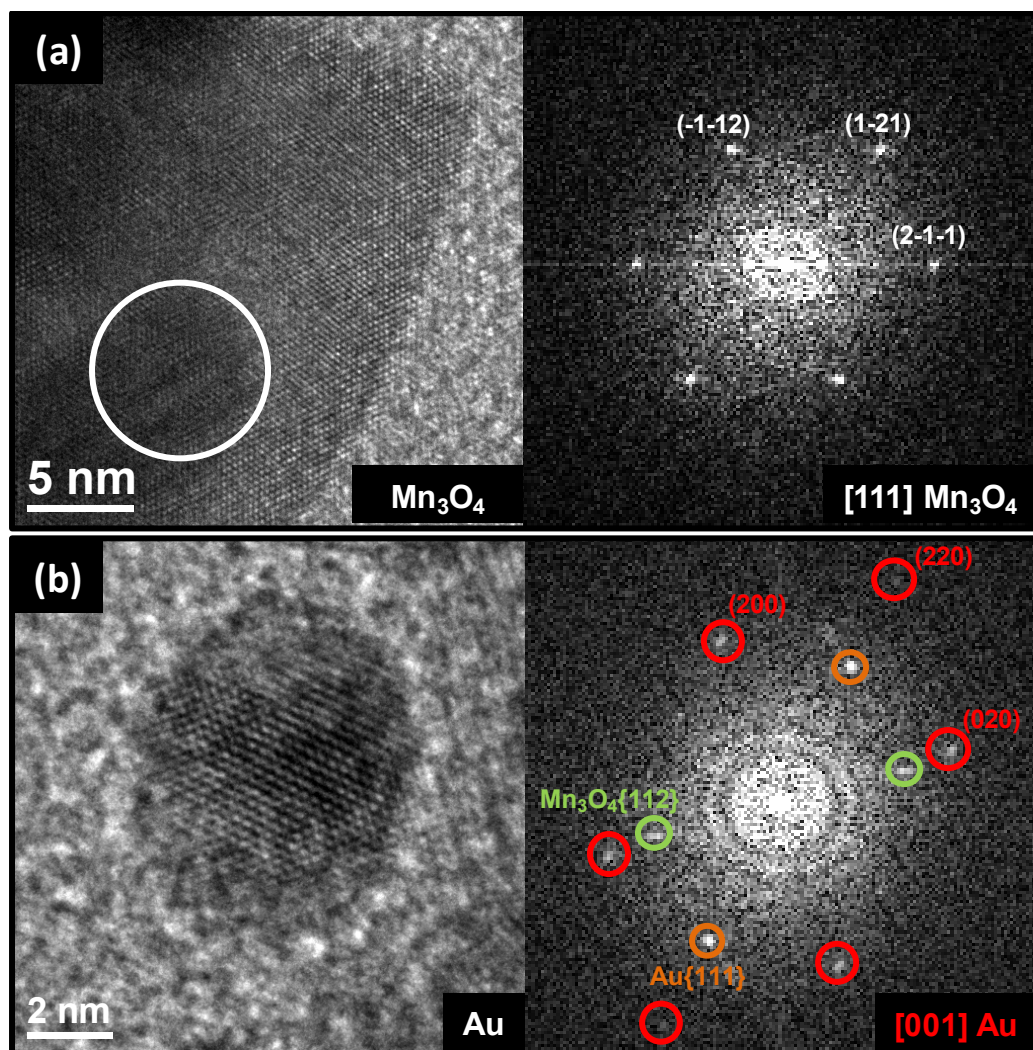


Figure 2. HRTEM micrographs and their corresponding power spectra (FFT) employed for phase identification of: (a) a [111] oriented Mn_3O_4 crystal in the polycrystalline Mn_3O_4 deposit; (b) an Au nanoparticle along its [001] zone axis. Spots marked in red correspond to the planes of Au[001] oriented crystal in zone axis. Green spot corresponds to Mn_3O_4 planes observed in the top right corner of the image. The orange spots have been identified as {111} Au planes from the particle.

the presence of another overlapping Mn_3O_4 crystalline grain with a different orientation could be observed. The area showing the overlap with Moirée fringes is circled in white in Figure 2a. The absence of any appreciable preferential orientation and of any epitaxial relation between the

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3 Si(100) substrate and Mn_3O_4 , due to the presence of the interfacial SiO_x native oxide, was
4 accompanied by an irregular grain morphology, with no net predominance of exposed facets.
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6 After RF-sputtering, polycrystalline Au NPs crystallizing in the cubic $Fm\bar{3}m$ phase (lattice
7 constant $a = 4.08 \text{ \AA}$), with mean dimensions in agreement with those obtained by FE-SEM (see
8 above), could be clearly observed (Figure 2b). In some cases, the Au nanoparticles exhibit twin
9 defects and stacking faults, that result in different crystalline domains.⁴⁴ The presence of
10 different crystal domains is illustrated in Figure 2b, where (111) planes, corresponding to the
11 selected orange spots in the power spectrum obtained from the same region, could be clearly
12 observed. These (111) planes arise from a different crystal domain than the one found in [001]
13 zone axis, which is responsible for the marked red spots in the power spectrum.
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16 XPS analyses were carried out to investigate the system surface composition. Wide scan spectra
17 (Supporting Information, Figure S4a) evidenced the presence of manganese, oxygen and, in the
18 RF-sputtered sample, gold, along with adventitious carbon contamination (<10 at. %). The O1s
19 signal resulted from the concomitant contribution of lattice oxygen (Mn–O–Mn bonds; BE =
20 529.9 eV)^{30,40,45} and surface adsorbed oxygen/hydroxyl/carbonate species resulting from contact
21 with the outer atmosphere^{9,19-20,28} (BE = 531.7 eV, $\approx 44\%$ of the total O photopeak; Supporting
22 Information, Figure S4b) As a consequence, the O/Mn atomic ratio (see also Supporting
23 Information, § S-2.4) was slightly higher than the stoichiometric one (≈ 1.7). The analysis of the
24 Mn2p signal shape and position [BE($\text{Mn}2p_{3/2}$) = 641.8 eV; spin–orbit splitting = 11.6 eV,<sup>16,31-
25 32,35,39</sup> Figure 3a], along with the spacing between the Mn3s multiplet splitting components
26 (Supporting Information, Figure S4c; 5.4 eV),^{5,37,41} was indicative of Mn_3O_4 presence free from
27 other Mn oxides, in accordance with the above discussed structural data. This conclusion was
28 further corroborated by the energy difference between the $\text{Mn}2p_{3/2}$ maximum and the lowest O1s
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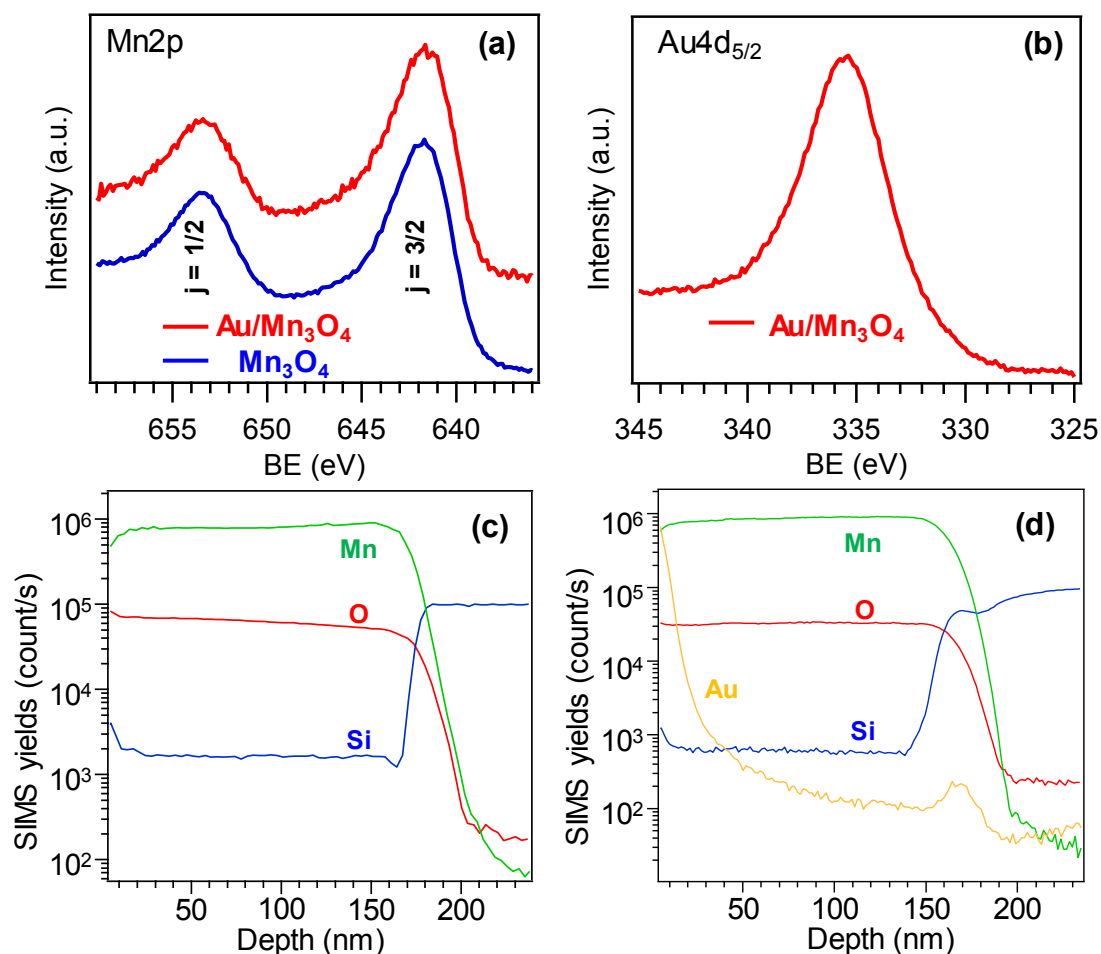


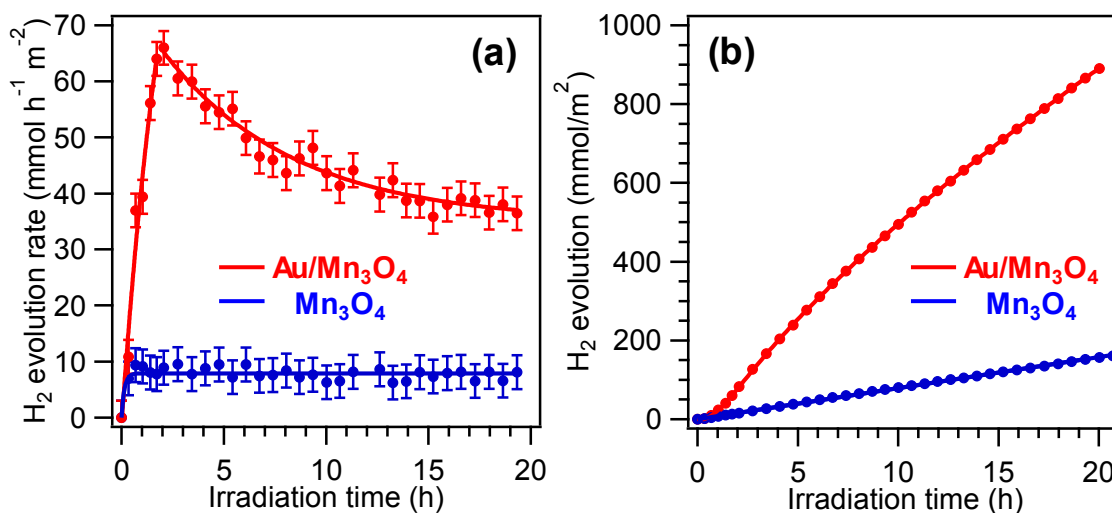
Figure 3. Surface Mn2p (a) and Au4d_{5/2} (b) photoelectron signals for Mn₃O₄ and Au/Mn₃O₄ nanosystems. SIMS depth profiles for (c) Mn₃O₄ and (d) Au/Mn₃O₄ specimens.

BE component, that corresponded to a value of 111.6 eV, in line with Mn₃O₄ presence.^{38,41-42}

The overlap between the Mn3s signals and Au4f photoelectron peak (the most intense one for this element) prevented from detailed analyses of the latter signal (see the Supporting Information, § S-2.4). To overcome this issue, the attention was focused on the interference-free Au4d_{5/2} photopeak [Figure 3b; BE (Au4d_{5/2}) = 335.4 eV], which confirmed the occurrence of the sole Au(0).^{41,45} The average Au/Mn surface atomic ratio was estimated to be 1.85.

Important information on the in-depth chemical composition was obtained by SIMS analyses. In

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3 general, carbon contamination was estimated to be as low as tenths of ppm, a feature that, along
4 with EDXS and XPS results, highlighted the purity of the obtained nanosystems. Irrespective of
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6 with EDXS and XPS results, highlighted the purity of the obtained nanosystems. Irrespective of
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8 gold presence, representative SIMS depth profiles for both specimens (Figures 3c-d) evidenced
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10 almost constant and parallel Mn and O ionic yields throughout the investigated depth, with
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12 relatively sharp interfaces with the Si(100) substrate, indicating the even Mn_3O_4 formation across
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14 the entire deposit thickness. The principal differences between the two cases was related to the
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16 functionalization with Au, whose ionic yield had an erfchian-type profile and underwent a
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18 progressive decrease at higher depth values.^{9,20} Overall, the presented results highlight that gold
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20 NPs were essentially concentrated in the outermost material region, and that their efficient and
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22 homogeneous dispersion resulted in an intimate contact with Mn_3O_4 . Such a feature is highly
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24 beneficial in view of the target applications, since the involved heterojunctions are of critical
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26 importance in determining the system photocatalytic performances³⁷ (see below).
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51 **Figure 4.** (a) H_2 evolution and (b) integrated H_2 production rates obtained during ethanol
52 photoreforming over Mn_3O_4 and $\text{Au}/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ photocatalysts under solar irradiation.
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56 Hydrogen production by photoreforming was carried out in water/ethanol mixtures under
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3 simulated solar irradiation (Figure 4). The initial induction period (< 2 h), typically observed in
4 similar experiments,¹³ was related to a radiation-induced surface activation, as well as to the
5 establishment of an equilibrium between by-products adsorbed on the catalyst surface and in the
6 liquid/gas phase.^{9,19} As can be observed, bare Mn₃O₄ showed a constant H₂ production over time
7 up to ≈ 20 h of illumination (Figure 4a), a result that, along with the linear trend of Figure 4b,
8 evidenced an appreciable operational stability upon prolonged utilization.²⁰ The solar-to-fuel
9 efficiency (SFE; see the Supporting Information, § S-2.5) of the system (0.04%) was remarkably
10 enhanced by Au deposition, reaching a maximum (transient) value of 0.24%, with an average of
11 0.10% over 60 h. For Au/Mn₃O₄, the obtained values compared favorably with those previously
12 reported for Fe₂O₃-TiO₂ and ε-Fe₂O₃ systems functionalized with Au NPs.^{9,20}

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Notably, H₂ production rate of bare Mn₃O₄ was higher than that previously reported for supported Fe₂O₃,¹⁹ Co₃O₄,²¹ CuO,¹⁸ TiO₂,⁹ and comparable to that of Au-TiO₂⁹ nanomaterials under analogous irradiation conditions. After functionalization with Au NPs, a significant improvement of the observed photoactivity took place, resulting in hydrogen production rates that compared favorably not only with those reported for Cu_xO-TiO₂-Au,¹³ ε-Fe₂O₃-Au²⁰ and Fe₂O₃-TiO₂-Au⁹ nanocomposites, but even with those of state-of-the-art titania-based photocatalysts.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷

The significance hold by the present results is further corroborated by the use of supported nanomaterials instead of the corresponding powdered systems^{9,13,20-21} and by the absence of additives used in previous studies, such as photosensitizers (*e.g.* [Ru(bpy)₃]²⁺)^{2,22,29,36} or expensive/toxic co-catalysts (*e.g.* Pd, Pt, RuO₂ and IrO₂).^{12,16,27,31,42}

Beside the inherent Mn₃O₄ catalytic activity, the promising performances of the target systems can be traced back to the presence of: i) voids extending into the systems structure (see above),

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3 resulting in an exposure to the reaction environment even of the internal material surface; ii) an
4 intimate Au/Mn₃O₄ contact, of key importance in order to exploit their electronic interplay.⁹ The
5 improved Au/Mn₃O₄ activity can be in fact attributed to the formation of Au/Mn₃O₄ Schottky
6 junctions,^{8,17,23} promoting an improved separation of photogenerated charge carriers and
7 rendering photoproduced electrons more available for H₂ production. In addition, Au NPs
8 localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR), *i.e.* the collective oscillation of free electrons
9 induced by incident radiation,^{9,20} can result in an enhanced sunlight harvesting,^{23,28,48-49} further
10 contributing to the observed H₂ yield increase.

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12 The possible mechanism of the overall process is described in the Supporting Information,
13 section S-2.5. In the present study, acetaldehyde was the only product detected in the liquid
14 phase, as a result of ethanol oxidation by photogenerated holes. No other products such as CO,
15 oxygen, methane or formaldehyde were observed in the gas phase. The formation of molecular
16 hydrogen is obtained through the reduction of adsorbed H⁺ ions by photogenerated
17 electrons.^{9,12,19} On the other hand, production of oxygen by water splitting was not observed,
18 highlighting that water oxidation does not directly contribute to hydrogen production. This result
19 can be explained taking into account that, from a thermodynamical point of view, the reaction of
20 water to produce oxygen is more demanding ($\Delta G_{298K}^0 = 237 \text{ kJ}\times\text{mol}^{-1}$)¹² than the oxidation of
21 ethanol to acetaldehyde ($\Delta G_{298K}^0 = 36 \text{ kJ}\times\text{mol}^{-1}$).⁵⁰

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23 On the basis of the above results, a possible mechanism for the observed activity enhancement
24 upon Au introduction is proposed in Supporting Information, Figure S5. Upon simulated solar
25 illumination, photon absorption results in the formation of electron-hole pairs, with the
26 promotion of electrons into the Mn₃O₄ conduction band. The presence of Au nanoparticles on
27 Mn₃O₄ can increase the separation between charge carriers, since photogenerated electrons can

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3 be captured by the noble metal, whose Fermi level is lower in energy than the conduction band
4 edge. Thanks to the formation of the Au/Mn₃O₄ Schottky junctions and intimate contact, the
5 electrons transferred to Au NPs can boost H⁺ reduction to H₂ (see the Supporting Information,
6 equation (S9))¹⁰ making the process more efficient than over Mn₃O₄. Photoproduct holes,
7 localized in Mn₃O₄ valence band, can promote photooxidation processes,^{9,20} either directly or by
8 OH[•] radicals.⁵⁰

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17 Despite the advantageous performance improvement enabled by Au NPs introduction, the
18 experimental data in Figure 4 show that the activity of Au/Mn₃O₄ photocatalysts underwent a
19 progressive decrease for prolonged irradiation times. In order to get a further insight into this
20 phenomenon, the Au/Mn₃O₄ photocatalyst was tested in sequential catalytic runs using fresh
21 ethanol solutions each time, and rinsing the catalyst with water and ethanol after every run. As
22 can be observed in Supporting Information, Figure S6, since the deactivation proceeded even
23 after washing and in fresh reaction mixtures, the activity loss was unlikely to be related to
24 poisoning by reaction byproducts. In addition, Au oxidation and photocorrosion with
25 concomitant gold ion dissolution were not expected, since Au is a noble metal with a high
26 reduction potential.⁵¹ This prediction was indeed confirmed by quantitative EDXS analyses
27 before and after photocatalyst utilization, that yielded typical values very close to 5.0% in both
28 cases. In order to gain a deeper insight into the observed behavior, FE-SEM analyses were
29 performed on a representative Au/Mn₃O₄ system subjected to various utilization cycles
30 (Supporting Information, Figure S7). As can be observed by the presented micrographs, the main
31 morphological modification occurring after photocatalytic tests was the increase of Au NP mean
32 size, from the pristine value of ≈6 nm up to ≈15 nm. The consequent decrease of the surface-to-
33 volume ratio is considered to be the main cause accounting for the decrease in Au/Mn₃O₄
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3 photoactivity upon prolonged illumination. Indeed, electrons generated by LSPR have a very
4 short lifetime, in the time scale of femtoseconds,^{8,48} and, in order to take part to the
5 photocatalytic process, they have to survive during the above discussed transfer across the
6 interfacial Schottky barrier. As a matter of fact, an increase of Au nanoparticle size causes not
7 only a LSPR decrease,^{23,49} but also a lower interfacial contact between Au and Mn₃O₄, resulting
8 in a less efficient electron transfer and, ultimately, in a decrease of hydrogen production rate, as
9 experimentally observed.²³

21 ■ CONCLUSIONS

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24 In summary, we have reported on the vapor phase deposition of supported Mn₃O₄-based nano-
25 photocatalysts for hydrogen photogeneration from aqueous ethanol solutions. In particular, after
26 the initial CVD growth of Mn₃O₄ on Si(100), functionalization with gold by RF-Sputtering under
27 mild conditions enabled the fabrication of Au/Mn₃O₄ specimens. The samples were composed by
28 single-phase and high-purity *hausmannite* Mn₃O₄, with small Au nanoparticles uniformly
29 dispersed on manganese oxide nanoaggregates in the case of Au/Mn₃O₄ samples. The target
30 systems were tested for the first time in photocatalytic hydrogen generation, and their functional
31 performances turned out to be critically affected by their actual composition. For bare Mn₃O₄,
32 the obtained stable hydrogen production rates were higher than those reported for various
33 supported oxide nanomaterials, whereas Au/Mn₃O₄ composites displayed improved
34 performances that compared favorably with state-of-the-art TiO₂ photocatalysts. This
35 improvement was rationalized in terms of an enhanced charge carrier separation at the interface
36 between manganese oxide and gold, whose close contact had a beneficial role in boosting H₂
37 yields thanks also to an improved solar light harvesting. The results obtained as a proof-of-
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3 concept in this work may serve as a useful guide in the design of noble metal-manganese oxides
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5 for a variety of photo-assisted processes, encompassing hydrogen generation using more
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7 sustainable oxygenates, such as glycerol, and photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. Attention will be
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9 also dedicated to the growth of Mn₃O₄-based nanomaterials on conductive glass substrates for
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11 the preparation of photoanodes to be used in photoelectrochemical cells aimed at water splitting
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13 triggered by solar irradiation. Nevertheless, the progressive decay of Au/Mn₃O₄ photoactivity for
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15 prolonged illumination periods, that was related to Au nanoparticle aggregation during
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17 irradiation, highlights the need of further experimental efforts to produce systems with enhanced
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19 stability, for instance by coverage of Au/Mn₃O₄ surfaces with an ultra-thin TiO₂ layer.
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21 Progresses in this direction will be the object of our future attention.
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28 ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

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31 **Supporting Information.** Details on synthesis, AFM, XRD, HAADF-STEM, EDXS, XPS and
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33 photoreforming measurements for the as-prepared materials; morphological and compositional
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35 data collected after hydrogen production tests. This material is available free of charge via the
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37 Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.
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41 AUTHOR INFORMATION

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54 55 **Author Contributions**

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3 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval
4 to the final version of the manuscript.
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8 **Notes**

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11 The authors declare no competing financial interest.
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