

1 Article

2 **Efficient Photoelectrochemical Water Splitting**3 **Reaction using Electrodeposited  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  Catalyst**4 **Yelyn Sim<sup>†</sup>, Jude John<sup>†</sup>, Subramani Surendran<sup>†</sup>, Byeolee Moon, and Uk Sim<sup>\*</sup>**5 Department of Materials Science & Engineering, Chonnam National University, Gwangju 61186,  
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9

10

11 **Abstract**

12 Photoelectrochemical water splitting is a promising field for sustainable energy production using  
13 hydrogen. Development of efficient catalysts is essential for resourceful hydrogen production. The  
14 most efficient catalysts reported to date have been extremely precious rare-earth metals. One of the  
15 biggest hurdles in this research area is the difficulty of developing highly efficient catalysts  
16 comparable to the noble metal catalysts. Here, we report that non-noble metal dichalcogenide  
17 ( $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ ) catalysts made using a facile one-pot electrodeposition method, showed highly efficient  
18 photoelectrochemical activity on a Si photocathode. To enhance light collection and enlarge its  
19 surface area even further, we implemented surface nano-structuring on the Si surface. The nano-  
20 structured Si photoelectrode has an effective area greater than that of planar silicon and a wider  
21 absorption spectrum. Consequently, this approach exhibits reduced overvoltage as well as increased  
22 photo-catalytic activity. Such results show the importance of controlling the optimized interface  
23 between the surface structure of the photoelectrode and the electrodeposited co-catalyst on it to  
24 improve catalytic activity. This should enable other electrochemical reactions in a variety of energy  
25 conversion systems.

26 **Keywords:** Photoelectrochemical cell; hydrogen evolution reaction (HER); metal free catalyst; Cobalt  
27 selenide catalyst

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Increasing energy demand and the rapid depletion of fossil fuels have made it inevitable that  
31 renewable sources of alternative energy be found.<sup>1</sup> Despite the difficulties of finding alternative  
32 sources of energy, hydrogen has emerged as an excellent source of clean energy that could serve as a  
33 key technology for providing alternative energy.<sup>2</sup> The state-of-the-art high-efficiency hydrogen-  
34 producing catalysts are based on noble metals like Pt.<sup>3</sup> However, the cost and scarcity of noble metals  
35 are preventing hydrogen energy from being used in a variety of applications. Moreover, depletion of  
36 fossil fuels at a steady pace is contributing to the emerging energy crisis.<sup>4</sup> In this situation, hydrogen  
37 has become attractive as an excellent option for clean energy that could also serve as a key technology  
38 in providing sustainable alternative energy.<sup>5</sup> The discovery of photoelectrochemical water splitting  
39 using TiO<sub>2</sub> by Honda and Fujishima in 1972 has completely revolutionized the area of  
40 photoelectrochemical water splitting using semiconductor photoelectrodes.<sup>6</sup> In this regard,  
41 photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting to produce hydrogen is turning out to be a promising  
42 strategy through which energy produced from solar irradiation could be transformed and stored in  
43 the form of hydrogen.<sup>2,7</sup>

44 Photoelectrodes provide the essential function of converting solar energy-to-fuel. To achieve this  
45 conversion, the photoelectrode should possess a reasonable band gap for absorption of the incoming  
46 incident light. This is necessary to drive the reaction for the reduction and oxidation of water. The  
47 desired photoelectrode also has to provide charge transfer kinetics fast enough to minimize the  
48 recombination of oppositely charged ions at the electrode/electrolyte interface.<sup>7</sup> Metal oxides have  
49 larger bandgaps (higher than 2 eV) which restrains their light absorption capability and thereby  
50 makes them inefficient for solar energy conversion.<sup>8-10</sup> Among the various semiconductor materials  
51 that have been researched, p-type silicon (Si) stands out as a well-known photocathode owing to its  
52 excellent photoelectrochemical water splitting properties.<sup>11-14</sup> Silicon is also an Earth-abundant  
53 semiconductor material with a narrow bandgap (1.12 eV). These qualities make it an appropriate  
54 material for absorbing a larger portion of the solar spectrum, and thus an ideal candidate for the  
55 photovoltaic industry.<sup>15</sup> Even with these advantages, Si is quite unstable in aqueous conditions and  
56 in the absence of a catalyst, the reaction at the p-Si/electrolyte interface results in sluggish kinetics at  
57 zero overpotential (i.e., 0 V vs RHE).<sup>16</sup>

58 One strategy to overcome this was to incorporate a corrosion-resistant protective layer that  
59 would minimize inhibition of the photogenerated carriers and thereby improve the charge transfer.  
60 Numerous studies have been carried out in the area of adding protective layers to Si photoelectrodes  
61 to improve the stability of p-Si photoelectrodes in aqueous conditions.<sup>17-19</sup> Platinum (Pt)<sup>20</sup> is well  
62 known for its use as an electrocatalyst in PEC hydrogen production. It is however, also a precious  
63 metal, the scarcity of which makes its large-scale deployment for PEC water splitting rather unlikely.

64 In response to these conditions, tremendous effort has been expended to find and develop Earth-  
65 abundant non-precious catalysts for hydrogen production.

66 Recently, first-row transition-metal dichalcogenides have emerged as significant prospects for  
67 use in water-splitting reactions, and been proposed as replacements for precious metals (i.e., Pt). This  
68 proposal is especially compelling due to their natural-abundance and high catalytic activity. Among  
69 these options,  $\text{CoX}_2$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S, Se}$ ) has lower overpotential with smaller Tafel slope and large exchange  
70 current, and variants have shown promising development in HER reactions.<sup>21-23</sup> Yu et al. established  
71 that higher catalytic rendition could be achieved by turning bulk  $\text{CoSe}_2$  into an ultrathin nanosheet  
72 and thereby significantly enhancing the surface-to-volume ratio due to the vacancy rich surfaces.<sup>24-25</sup>  
73 Similarly Zhang et al. found that by a phase engineering process, they were able to produce more  
74 edge sites on  $\text{CoSe}_2$  catalyst. This included polymorphic phases of  $\text{CoSe}_2$  that were obtained through  
75 a temperature controlled process for calcination of amorphous  $\text{CoSe}_x$ . Their work demonstrated that  
76 the grain boundaries existing between the two phases would unravel new HER active sites, thereby  
77 enhancing the overall HER activity in  $\text{CoSe}_2$ .<sup>26</sup>

78 However, regarding actual development of HER photocathodes, relatively few catalysts have  
79 been successfully integrated into these photocathodes. Moreover, many of these could not achieve  
80 their full potential due to the lack of effective interfacing of these active nanosized HER catalysts with  
81 the silicon photoabsorbers.<sup>27-29</sup> In the light of these developments, we report a simple and facile  
82 method for electrodeposition of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  as a co-catalyst passivation-layer onto a p-Si photocathode to  
83 enhance the photoelectrochemical water-splitting reaction. To provide better substrate selectivity, the  
84 catalytic activity of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  co-catalyst was tested using Fluorine-doped Tin Oxide (FTO) and a  
85 glassy carbon electrode as substrates. The  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  decorated onto the FTO substrate exhibited excellent  
86 HER ( $\eta_{(10)} = 215$  mV) and OER ( $\eta_{(4)} = 562$  mV) catalytic activity. The resulting low Tafel value (42.5)  
87 and 103 mV/dec occurred under pH 0 and pH 8 conditions, respectively. Hence, new  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$   
88 electrocatalysts with optimized working electrode selectivity and controlled deposition rate are  
89 proposed as an efficient new bi-functional catalyst for water-splitting applications.

90

## 91 2. Materials and Methods

92 **2.1 Materials.** Sodium selenite ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SeO}_3$ ), cobalt acetate ( $\text{Co}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2$ ), lithium chloride ( $\text{LiCl}$ ),  
93 perchloric acid ( $\text{HClO}_4$ ), silver nitrate ( $\text{AgNO}_3$ ), hydrochloric acid ( $\text{HCl}$ ), nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ), and  
94 hydrofluoric acid ( $\text{HF}$ ) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Seoul, Rep. of Korea, 2018). All reagents  
95 used in this work were of analytical grade purity and were used without further purification. As  
96 (photo)electrodes, Si substrates (B-doped, p-type, 500  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness, 10–15  $\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$  resistivity, (100)

97 oriented) were purchased from Namkang Inc. (Seongnam, Rep. of Korea, 2018) and FTO glass slides  
98 ( $1 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$ ,  $7 \Omega/\text{sq}$  resistivity) were purchased from Wooyang GMS (Namyangju, Rep. of Korea, 2018).  
99 Si wafers were cut to dimensions of  $8 \times 8 \text{ mm}^2$  and then each of these Si wafers was cleaned prior to  
100 deposition with acetone, 2-propanol, and deionized water, respectively, using a bath sonicator (10  
101 min each). In the chemical etching of the nanostructured Si (NSi) surface, the Si substrates were  
102 dipped into a solution containing 20 mL aqueous etchant solution of  $\text{AgNO}_3$  (0.679 g, 0.02 M) and HF  
103 (5 M) under ambient conditions ( $25^\circ\text{C}$ ). Finally, Ag residue was completely removed from the  
104 nanostructured silicon surface by treating with 70% nitric acid solution for two hours.

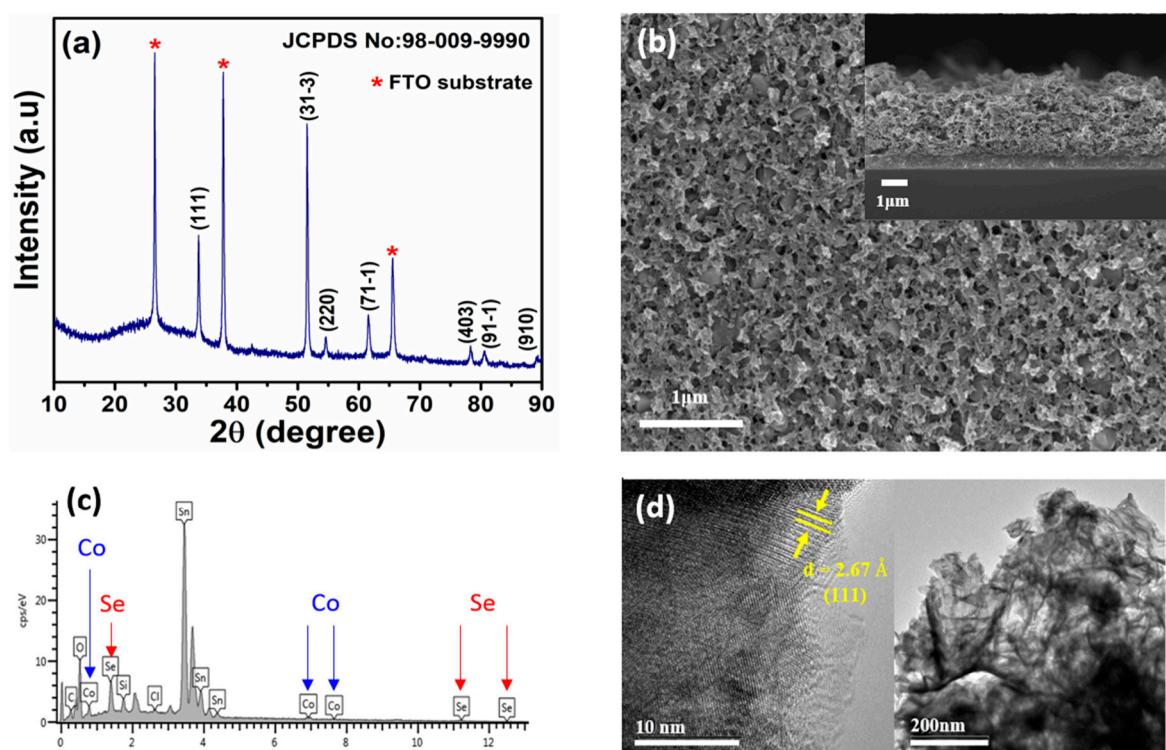
105 **2.2 Electrodeposition of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ .** Prior to electrodeposition, the substrates were cleaned  
106 following a standard protocol. For electrodeposition, substrates of planar silicon, nanostructured Si  
107 (NSi), and FTO were used to get the best possible results from the three electrodes. An aqueous  
108 solution containing 20 mM  $\text{Na}_2\text{SeO}_3$  (0.101 g), 20 mM  $\text{Co}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2$  (0.146 g) and 100 mM  $\text{LiCl}$  (0.0121  
109 g) were placed in a 30 mL container. The solution was kept near pH 2 by adding dilute HCl. The  
110 deposition was conducted at room temperature in a single compartment glass cell using a three-  
111 electrode configuration. Electrodeposition was performed with a CHI 7008E (CH Instruments, Inc.,  
112 Austin, TX, USA, 2018) potentiostat. Graphite rod was used as a counter electrode and  $\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl}$  (3M  
113  $\text{NaCl}$ ) was used as the reference electrode for the electrodeposition. The chronoamperometric  
114 deposition was conducted at  $-0.8 \text{ V}$  for varying deposition times (5, 10, or 15 s), and we determined  
115 that the optimal time was 15 s. A thin film of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  co-catalyst was formed on the surface of the  
116 working electrodes.

117 **2.3 Photoelectrochemical measurements.** Photoelectrochemical tests were conducted using a  
118 three-electrode cell. Working electrodes comprising a planar silicon photoelectrode, nanowire  
119 structured silicon photoelectrode, and FTO glass were used. Graphite rods were used as counter  
120 electrodes and  $\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl}$  (3M  $\text{NaCl}$ ) as reference electrodes. Each reference electrode was calibrated  
121 to  $-0.201 \text{ V}$  (vs RHE) in a proton-rich aqueous solution of 1 M perchloric acid, and purged with a  
122 high-purity saturated  $\text{H}_2$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . For solar irradiation, a 300 W Xenon lamp was used as the light  
123 source at a light intensity of  $100 \text{ mW/cm}^2$  (Air Mass 1.5 Global condition glass filter).

### 124 **3. Results and Discussion**

125 Cobalt selenide ( $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ ) was deposited electrochemically onto conductive electrodes by the  
126 electrodeposition method. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern shown in **Figure 1** reveals highly  
127 intense and crystalline peaks of prepared cobalt selenide sample. The peaks confirm the single-phase  
128 formation of pure monoclinic crystal system of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ , which exactly corresponds with the standard  
129 JCPDS card No. 98-009-9990. The prepared  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  was in well agreement with the lattice parameters

130 of space group of  $P21/c$  (space group number 14). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurements  
 131 were employed to confirm the morphology of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  film, as shown in Figure 1 (a). The  
 132 nanoporous structure of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  catalyst was confirmed from the corresponding top-view and  
 133 cross-sectional view SEM images. To determine the elemental composition of the film, energy  
 134 dispersive spectrometry (EDS) was performed (Figure 1 (b)). To clarify this further, transmission  
 135 electron microscopy (TEM) measurements of the deposited film were conducted, as shown in Figure  
 136 1 (c). Information about the lattice fringe with an inter-planar spacing of 2.67 nm, revealed that the  
 137 electro-deposited  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  film strongly corresponds to the (111) plane of the obtained XRD pattern.

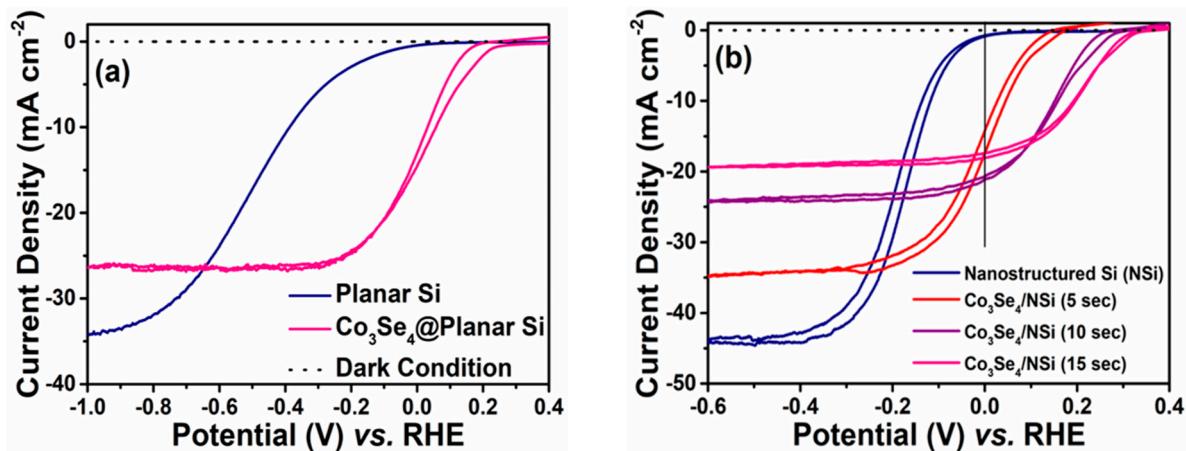


138  
 139 **Figure 1. Surface characterization of the cobalt selenide film:** (a) XRD pattern of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ , (b) Scanning  
 140 electron microscopy (SEM) images of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  electrodeposited on FTO, (c) Energy dispersive  
 141 spectrometry (EDS) spectrum showing the presence of cobalt and selenide elements, and (d)  
 142 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image to identify  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ .

143 Photoelectrochemical measurements indicated that the electrodeposited  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  film on the  
 144 photoelectrode acted as an effective layer for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). Figure 2a shows  
 145 the resulting photoresponse of bare planar Si and  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on planar Si. In the case of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on planar  
 146 Si, the current density started to increase negatively much earlier than that of bare planar Si. This  
 147 indicates that the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4/\text{Si}$  system has higher onset potential, defined as the specific potential at  $-1$   
 148  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ . The onset potential ( $V_{os}$ ) of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4/\text{Si}$  ( $V_{os} = 0.216 \text{ V}$  vs. RHE at  $-1 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ ) is 303 mV higher  
 149 than that of planar Si ( $V_{os} = -0.087 \text{ V}$  vs. RHE at  $-1 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ ). The potential vs current plot under dark  
 150 condition shows a  $1 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  scale of current density, which indicates that the photoresponse of the

151 Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>/Si cell operated well with and without illumination. However, when Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> was deposited on  
 152 the Si electrode, the saturation current density decreased by approximately 23% from the initial  
 153 current density (from -34.1 to -26.4 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>). This was attributed to the reduced light collection  
 154 caused by deposition of the semi-transparent Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> film. To evaluate the photocathodic efficiency, a  
 155 half solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency was introduced. It was defined as [(photocurrent  
 156 density at the reversible potential (0 V vs. RHE),  $J_{V=0}$  (mA/cm<sup>2</sup>)  $\times$  (open circuit potential,  $V_{oc}$  (V)  $\times$  Fill  
 157 Factor / 100 (mW/cm<sup>2</sup>)  $\times$  100 (%)].<sup>2,30</sup> The equation is also equal to a maximum value of [ $J_{ph}$  (mA/cm<sup>2</sup>)  
 158  $\times$  ( $V_{redox}$ - $V_b$ ) (V) / (P<sub>light</sub> (mW/cm<sup>2</sup>)  $\times$  100 %)].<sup>2,30</sup> Herein,  $J_{ph}$  is the photocurrent density obtained under  
 159 the applied bias  $V_b$ , and  $V_{redox}$  is the redox potential for hydrogen production (0 V vs. RHE).  $V_{bias}$  is an  
 160 externally applied bias potential often necessary to achieve reasonable photocurrents, and P<sub>light</sub> is the  
 161 intensity of the incident light under AM 1.5 G conditions. In this work, the incident light intensity  
 162 was maintained at 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>. From calculation, the half solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency  
 163 increased to 10-times higher than for bare planar Si. Consequently, it was determined that Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> is  
 164 a highly active film for photoelectrochemical hydrogen production in terms of photocathodic  
 165 efficiency.

166



167

168 **Figure 2.** Cyclic voltammograms of electrodeposited cobalt selenide (Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>) on Si photocathodes:  
 169 (a) Current density-potential ( $J$ - $E$ ) curves of bare planar Si photoelectrode and Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> electrodeposited  
 170 with Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> under dark condition and light condition, respectively, (b) Photoresponse current  
 171 density-potential curves for bare planar Si and Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> deposited planar Si, (c) Photocurrent density-  
 172 potential ( $J$ - $E$ ) curve according to cobalt selenide electrodeposition time.

173

Treatment of the nanostructured Si surface using a metal-catalyzed electroless etching process  
 174 further increased the light-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency. Optimized nanostructuring of the Si  
 175 electrode surface increased the limiting current density (the saturation current density at high  
 176 negative potential) to 44.0 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. This is 1.29 times higher than that of bare planar Si (34.1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>),  
 177 as shown in Figure 2 (a) and (b). The  $V_{os}$  of the nanostructured Si (-0.007 V vs. RHE) also shifted by

178 a positive 80 mV ( $V_{os}$  of bare planar Si: -0.087 V vs. RHE). Consequently, the conversion efficiency of  
179 the nanostructured Si photocathode (0.04%) increased two fold compared to that of bare planar Si  
180 (0.02%). The enhanced efficiency of the nanostructured photoelectrode surface is mainly attributed  
181 to increased effective surface area and reduced reflectance of incident light. To increase the  
182 photocathodic activity even more,  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  was deposited electrochemically as a function of time,  
183 maintaining the applied potential of -0.8 V vs. RHE. Figure 2 (b) shows representative photoresponse  
184 results with various electrodeposition times. With increasing deposition time, the onset potential  
185 shifted positively (anodically) while the limiting current density continuously decreased, induced by  
186 deposition of much thicker  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  film. Overall, the conversion efficiency increased and conversion  
187 became saturated at 15 sec of electrodeposition time. The efficiency of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ /nanostructured Si  
188 with 15 s of electrodeposition was 2.71%, a value 136 times higher than that of bare planar Si and 68  
189 times higher than bare nanostructured Si without co-catalyst. From these results, it was shown that  
190 an optimal thickness of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  co-catalyst film exists for efficient hydrogen production.

191 **Table 1 Half solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency of various photocathodes**

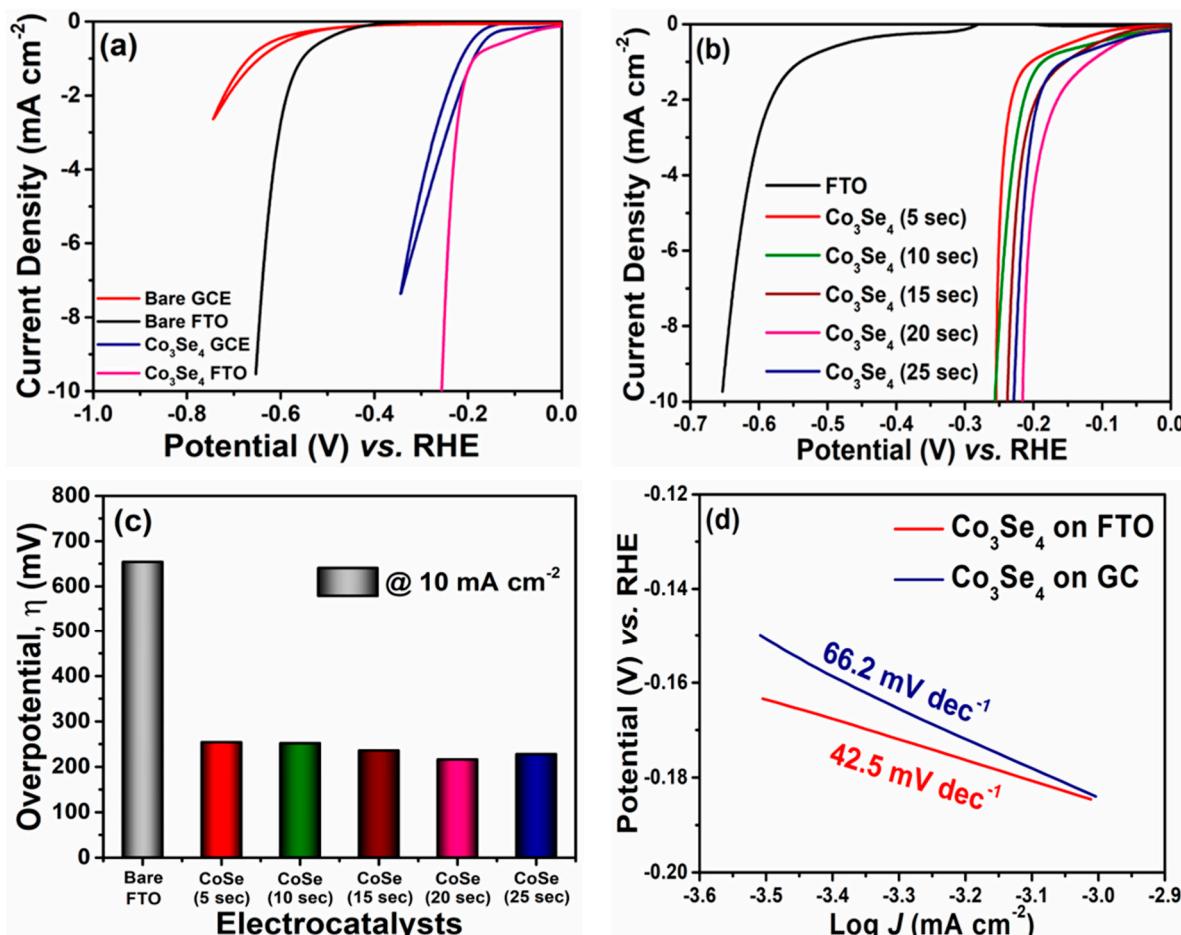
Type of Si photocathode	Efficiency (%)
Planar Si	0.02
$\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ on planar Si	0.20
Nanostructured Si	0.04
$\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ on nanostructured Si (5 s)	0.47
$\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ on nanostructured Si (10 s)	1.72
$\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ on nanostructured Si (15 s)	2.71

192  
193 To evaluate the electrocatalytic properties of the material, the HER electrocatalytic activity was  
194 examined using the customary three-electrode system. To understand better the electrocatalytic  
195 activity with respect to the substrate, the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  material was deposited on a glassy carbon electrode  
196 (GCE) and on a fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) substrate. In Figure 2 (a), the HER polarization curves  
197 of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on FTO and GC electrodes are compared, along with those of bare FTO and bare GCE. In  
198 all the polarization curves, the reductive current density started to increase negatively according to  
199 the cathodic potential applied, and promoted the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The HER  
200 curves indicate that  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ (10) on the FTO electrode exhibited superior onset potential (-0.189 V vs.  
201 RHE at -1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) than did  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ (10) deposited on GCE (-0.192 V vs RHE at -1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) and better  
202 onset potential than did bare FTO (-0.552 V vs RHE at -1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) and GC (-0.644 V vs RHE at -1  
203 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) electrodes. Moreover, at a similar current density of 5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  deposited on the  
204 FTO conductive electrode showed enhanced electrocatalytic activity resulting in a lower  
205 overpotential of 239 mV compared to  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on the GC electrode (292 mV). This indicated that FTO

206 is a more suitable substrate and improves catalytic activity. Therefore, in-depth analyses were carried  
207 out at various deposition times of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  electrocatalysts on the FTO substrate. Figure 2 (b) shows  
208 that the HER activity of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  electrocatalyst varies with respect to the deposition time (5–25 s).  
209 The electrocatalytic activity of the time dependent  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  catalysts was observed to increase  
210 gradually with deposition time from 5 to 20 s, exhibiting a very low onset potential ( $-0.205$  V to  $-0.119$   
211 V vs. RHE at  $-1$  mA/cm $^2$ ). Subsequently, the sample deposited for 25 s abruptly declined due to an  
212 increase in onset potential ( $-0.152$  V vs. RHE at  $-1$  mA/cm $^2$ ) compared to the sample deposited for 20  
213 s. Figure 2c sorts out the overpotential demanded by prepared  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  electrocatalysts deposited on  
214 the FTO for different times. The enhanced HER catalytic activity of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  (20 s) catalysts can be  
215 attributed to better quality loading of the catalyst on the FTO substrate. However, the decrease in the  
216 activity of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  (25 s) catalysts may be due to overloading of the catalysts on the FTO. This  
217 clumps the electroactive sites, resulting in a poor interface between electrode and electrolyte.  
218 Therefore, controlled loading of the catalysts over the substrates plays a vital role because it tends to  
219 generate more electroactive sites, which facilitates superior electrocatalytic activity. Overall, the  
220  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  catalysts deposited on the FTO substrate for 20 s delivered superior HER electrocatalytic  
221 activity by requiring only a very low overpotential of 215 mV to acquire an improved current density  
222 of 10 mA/cm $^2$ . This overpotential (215 mV) required by the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  catalysts electrodeposited on the  
223 FTO substrate for 20 s seems very efficient compared to the previously reported results on metal  
224 selenides.

225 To gain additional and more detailed information about the inherent properties of the  
226 electrodeposited  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ , the current density vs potential curves of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  samples on GC and on  
227 FTO were converted to Tafel plots to study the rate limiting step of the HER reaction. First, the Tafel  
228 slopes shown in Figure 2d were calculated to be 66.2 and 42.5 mV/dec for  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on GC and on FTO,  
229 respectively. The  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ (20) electrocatalyst deposited on FTO yielded a consistently low Tafel value,  
230 substantiating the upgraded electrocatalytic activity of the material. This provided further evidence  
231 that hydrogen can be generated by a Heyrovsky reaction mechanism, by which one proton adsorbs  
232 to the electrode and one hydrated proton comes from the electrolyte (and they combine) to make  
233 hydrogen gas. The exchange current density of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  on GC was  $1.62 \times 10^{-6}$  A/cm $^2$  and that of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$   
234 on FTO was  $4.47 \times 10^{-8}$  A/cm $^2$ , which values were derived from the results on variation in the substrate  
235 condition. In conclusion, electrodeposited  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ (20) showed an effective hydrogen evolution  
236 mechanism with any of the conductive standard electrodes.

237



238

239 **Figure 3. Electrochemical activity with cobalt selenide (Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>) deposition time on glassy carbon**  
 240 **and FTO electrode from RDE system:** (a) Polarization curves of bare GCE, bare FTO, Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>(10) on  
 241 GCE, and Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>(10) on FTO. (b) Polarization curves of bare FTO without any co-catalyst and FTO  
 242 with cobalt selenide deposited for 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25 s. (c) HER overpotential demanded by the  
 243 prepared electrocatalysts to achieve a current density of 10 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, and (d) HER Tafel slope of glassy  
 244 carbon and FTO electrodeposited with cobalt selenide, as calculated from (a) and (b).

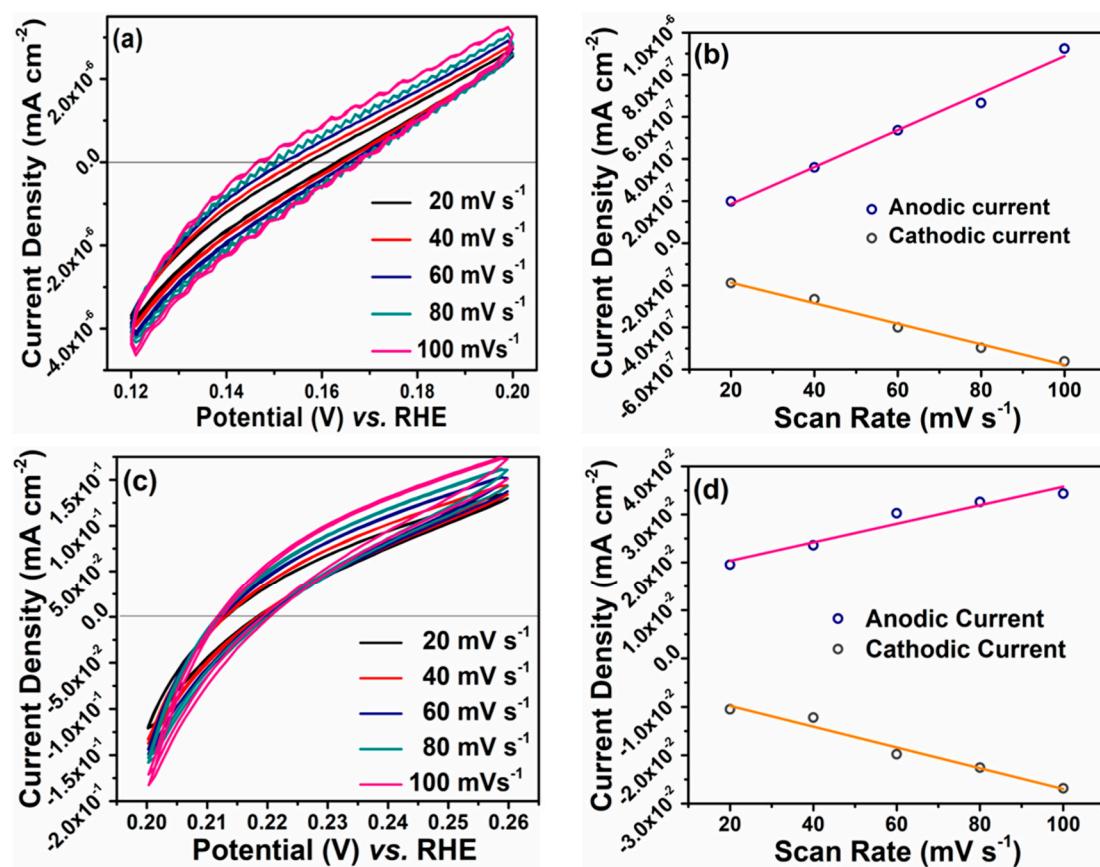
245

246 To measure the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA), the capacitance of an electrical double  
 247 layer ( $C_{dl}$ ) at a solid/electrolyte interface was evaluated by measuring the  $J-E$  response of the bare GC  
 248 and Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC at various scan rates, as shown in Figure 3. The  $C_{dl}$  is estimated from the slope of  
 249 the plot of  $J_C$ , which is the current at the potential with a net current density of 0  $\mu$ A/cm<sup>2</sup> with  
 250 increasing scan rate from 20 to 100 mV/s. The capacitance is  $8.78 \times 10^{-3}$   $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> for bare GC and 0.19  
 251 mF/cm<sup>2</sup> for Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC, respectively. These values are much higher than that for a typical compact  
 252 flat electrode reported to date (approximately 10–20  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>).<sup>31</sup> The slope is also proportional to the  
 253 exchange current density, which is directly related to the catalytically active surface area.<sup>22, 32</sup> The  
 254 ECSA is calculated from the  $C_{dl}$  divided by the capacitance of a smooth planar surface of the catalyst  
 255 (C<sub>s</sub>). Using the general C<sub>s</sub> value of 13–17  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> in pH 0 solution (1M HClO<sub>4</sub>),<sup>33</sup> the average ECSA of

256 Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC and of bare GC are  $(2.67 \text{ and } 8.91) \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2$ , which corresponds to roughness factors of  
 257  $(13.67 \text{ and } 4.55) \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2$ , respectively. Therefore, Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC has a large electrochemical catalytic  
 258 surface area, which may also provide effective active sites for the HER.

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263 **Figure 4. The current vs potential result of** (a) Bare GC and (c) Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC electrodes at different scan  
 264 rates. The capacitance current ( $J_C$ ) of (b) Bare GC and (d) Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC at  $J_{net} = 0 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  depending on scan  
 265 rates. The slope of the  $J_C$  to scan rates plot is the capacitance of the double layer ( $C_{dl}$ ). (b) The value of bare GC is  
 266  $8.78 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{F/cm}^2$  of cathodic current density and  $4.88 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{F/cm}^2$  of anodic current density. (d) For Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on  
 267 GC,  $C_{dl}$  is  $0.19 \text{ mF/cm}^2$  of cathodic current density and  $0.22 \text{ mF/cm}^2$  of anodic current density.

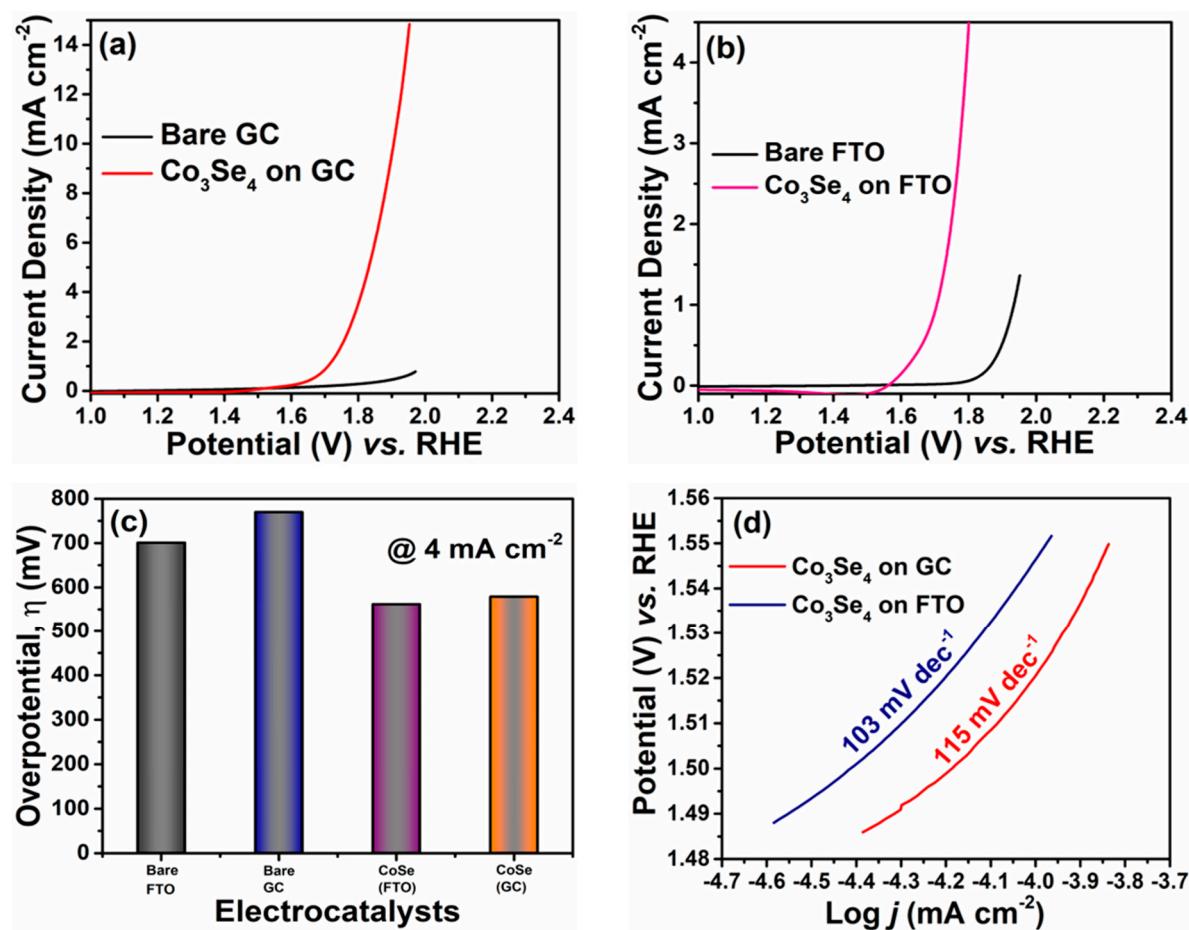
268

269 In addition, the electrodeposited Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>(20) were also attempted for use as working electrodes  
 270 for the water oxidation reaction. The Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>(20) electrocatalyst was employed as the anode at pH 8  
 271 condition (phosphate buffer solution). Figure 4 a and b, shows the OER polarization curves of bare  
 272 GC electrode, Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> deposited on GC, bare FTO, and Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> deposited on FTO, respectively.  
 273 Substantially, the Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on FTO revealed superior OER activity compared to Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC, with  
 274 lower onset potential (1.55 V vs RHE at 1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) under pH 8 condition. The Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on FTO  
 275 electrocatalyst requires lower overpotential of 562 mV to attain a current density of 4 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, while  
 the Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> on GC needed 579 mV to reach the same current density. Figure 5c differentiates the

276 required OER overpotential for the prepared electrocatalysts to achieve a current density of 4  
 277 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

278 To recognize the rate determining step, a Tafel slope was calculated by fitting the plot to a Tafel  
 279 equation ( $\eta = b \log j + a$ ), where  $j$  represents the current density and  $b$  is the Tafel slope. Figure 5d  
 280 shows the OER Tafel plot of Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> electrocatalyst on FTO and GC electrodes. A minimum Tafel slope  
 281 of 103 mV/dec was obtained by the Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> electrocatalyst on FTO substrate, which implies that the  
 282 rate-determining step in the electrochemical system is a single electron transfer step. Hence, the  
 283 Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> catalyst electrodeposited on the FTO substrate delivered upgraded OER electrocatalytic  
 284 activity. Therefore, the Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> electrocatalysts prepared by controlled deposition over the FTO and  
 285 GC electrodes, act as efficient bi-functional catalysts for both hydrogen and oxygen evolution  
 286 reactions.

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288

289 Figure 5. OER polarization curves of Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>. (a) Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> deposited on GC and bare GC, and (b) Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>  
 290 deposited on FTO and bare FTO. (c) OER overpotential demanded by the prepared electrocatalysts  
 291 to achieve a current density of 4 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. (d) OER Tafel slopes of Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub> deposited on FTO and GC  
 292 electrodes.

293

294 **4. Conclusions**

295 In conclusion, we employed electrodeposited-cobalt selenide ( $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$ ) co-catalyst on a silicon  
296 photoelectrode system for the water splitting reaction. The SEM image confirms the uniform  
297 distribution of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  film over the electrode material. The controlled loading of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  over the  
298 substrates was effectively optimized by varying the deposition time. The prepared  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  electrodes  
299 were successfully investigated and found to be efficient electrocatalysts for both hydrogen and  
300 oxygen evolution reactions. For the hydrogen evolution reaction, the  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  catalyst electrodeposited  
301 on FTO substrate for 20 s requires very low overpotential of 215 mV to provide an improved current  
302 density of  $10 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ , compared to the other prepared electrocatalysts. Moreover, this electrocatalyst  
303 yielded a very low Tafel slope value of 42.5 mV/dec. The same electrocatalyst was subjected to the  
304 oxygen evolution reaction, which required a lower overpotential of 562 mV with a reduced Tafel  
305 value of 103 mV/dec. From these enhanced HER and OER catalytic activity results, we believe that  
306  $\text{Co}_3\text{Se}_4$  prepared by this easy, one-pot electrodeposition method, seems to be the most promising  
307 candidate for commercialization as a low cost efficient electrocatalyst for water splitting.

308

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310 Analysis, Y.S. and S.S.; Investigation, S.S. and U.S.; Resources, U.S.; Data Curation, B.M. and S.S.;  
311 Writing-Original Draft Preparation, Y.S., J.J. and S.S.; Writing-Review & Editing, U.S., J.J., S.S. and  
312 Y.S.; Visualization, B.M. and Y.S.; Supervision, U.S.; Project Administration, U.S. ‡ These authors  
313 contributed equally to this work.

314

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