

# Theoretical Investigation of Quantum Confinement Effects on Bandgap Changes in MoS<sub>2</sub> for Photocatalytic Water Splitting

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Abstract— The increasing demand for sustainable energy solutions has prompted the exploration of hydrogen fuel production through photocatalytic water splitting, where efficient photocatalysts are crucial. Molybdenum disulfide (MoS2) has been identified as a promising material due to its bandgap energy range of 1.8-2.1 eV. However, its efficiency is limited by low quantum efficiency and rapid charge recombination. To address these limitations, this study investigates the impact of quantum confinement on MoS<sub>2</sub>'s bandgap energy using a particle-in-a-box model with soft wall boundary conditions and the time-independent Schrödinger equation. Our results reveal that reducing confinement dimensions significantly increases the bandgap energy. Specifically, the optimal bandgap energy for photocatalytic water splitting (1.23 - 2.2 eV) is achieved at a confinement dimension of approximately 2nm, yielding a bandgap energy of 2.134 eV. This quantitative analysis highlights the profound influence of nanoconfinement on MoS<sub>2</sub>'s electronic properties and provides crucial insights for designing efficient photocatalysts. Our findings offer a viable pathway to enhance the photocatalytic activity of MoS<sub>2</sub>, supporting the development of sustainable hydrogen fuel production technologies. This research contributes to global efforts to tackle critical energy and environmental challenges, emphasizing the significance of nanoconfinement effects in advancing renewable energy solutions.

**Keywords**— Bandgap energy, Hydrogen fuel production, Molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>), Photocatalysts, Quantum confinement

#### I. INTRODUCTION

The challenge of meeting increasing energy demands while addressing climate change has led to a focus on hydrogen fuel as a promising solution (Srinivasadesikan et al., 2022). Water splitting for hydrogen production requires efficient photocatalysts, with the bandgap energy being a crucial factor in determining the efficiency of the process (Yuan et al., 2021). Molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) has emerged as a potential photocatalyst due to its suitable bandgap energy range of 1.8-2.1 eV (Nawz et al., 2020). However, MoS<sub>2</sub> faces limitations such as low quantum efficiency and fast charge recombination, impacting its overall efficiency (Almansoori, 2023).

Nanoconfinement has emerged as a promising strategy to enhance the photocatalytic performance of materials like molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) by adjusting their bandgap (Chang et al., 2014). MoS<sub>2</sub>, known for its suitable bandgap and high catalytic activity, faces limitations in light absorption within the visible spectrum due to its intrinsic bandgap ((Lin et al., 2022; Yin et al., 2014). By confining MoS<sub>2</sub> at the nanoscale, its electronic structure and properties can be significantly altered, potentially shifting its bandgap and improving its efficiency as a photocatalyst (Wang et al., 2018; Gough et al., 2017; Abe et al., 2005).

Research has shown that nanoconfinement can influence the electronic properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> (Zhang et al., 2019), with composites like MoS<sub>2</sub>/CdS demonstrating enhanced activity for photocatalytic water splitting (Zhang et al., 2019). However, a comprehensive theoretical examination focusing on how nanoconfinement affects the bandgap of MoS2 for enhanced photocatalytic activity is still lacking (Cheng, 2023; Rouzhahong et al., 2020). To address this gap, this study develops a particle-in-a-box model with soft wall boundary conditions using the time-independent Schrödinger equation to explore the impact of quantum confinement on MoS<sub>2</sub>'s bandgap energy (Gusarov, 2024). The particle in the box model is wellsuited for examining nanoconfinement effects on MoS2 because it allows for the incorporation of material-specific properties and confinement dimensions (Sun, 2023; Новоселов et al., 2016; Kang et al., 2014). Through a first principles approach, the research aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of how quantum confinement influences MoS<sub>2</sub>'s bandgap energy and, by extension, its photocatalytic capabilities (Ito et al., 2019; Cui et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

This investigation is significant as it addresses a critical gap in knowledge regarding  $MoS_2$ 's electronic properties and their implications for water splitting efficiency (Aggarwal et al., 2020). The outcomes of this study are expected to contribute valuable insights for the design and development of efficient photocatalysts, thereby supporting global efforts to tackle energy and environmental challenges (Aggarwal et al., 2021).

#### II. METHODS

To explore the nanoconfinement effects on the bandgap changes in  $MoS_2$ , we utilized a particle-in-a-box model incorporating soft wall boundary conditions. This model choice is predicated on its effectiveness in simulating quantum confinement effects, which are pivotal in altering electronic properties due to dimensional constraints. The governing equation of our model is the time-independent Schrödinger equation:

 $-\hbar \nabla \psi(x, y) + V(x, y)\psi(x, y) = E\psi(x, y)$  (1) where  $\psi(x, y)$  is the wave function, V(x, y) is the confinement potential, and E is the energy eigenvalue.



#### **Confinement Potential**

The confinement potential, V(x, y) is crucial in simulating the effects of nanoconfinement. For our model, the potential is expressed as:

$$V(x,y) = V_0 \left[ 1 - \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{L_x}\right) \right] \left[ 1 - \cos\left(\frac{\pi y}{L_y}\right) \right]$$
(2)

Here,  $V_0$  is the potential height, and  $L_x$  and  $L_y$  are the confinement dimensions along the *x* and *y* axes, respectively. Assuming a separable solution of the form:

 $\psi(x, y) = \psi x(x) \psi y(y)$ 

we obtain simplified one-dimensional equations for each spatial dimension:

$$-\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_x(x)}{\partial x} + V(x)\psi_x(x) = E_x\psi_x(x)(3)$$
$$-\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_y(y)}{\partial y} + V(y)\psi_y(y) = E_y\psi_y(y)(4)$$

where  $E_x$  and  $E_y$  are the energy components associated with the x and y dimensions.

Solving (3) and (4), we derive the energy eigenvalues for each state:

$$E(n,m) = \left(\frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m}\right) \left[ \left(\frac{n^2}{L_x^2}\right) + \left(\frac{m^2}{L_y^2}\right) \right] (5)$$

where n and m are quantum numbers corresponding to the quantization in the x and y dimensions.

The corresponding normalized wave functions for each dimension are given by:

$$\psi_x(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L_x}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L_x}\right) (6)$$
  
$$\psi_y(y) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L_y}} \sin\left(\frac{m\pi y}{L_y}\right) (7)$$

#### Determination of Quantum Numbers

We determine the quantum numbers (n, m) for the Valence Band Maximum  $E_V$  by considering MoS<sub>2</sub>'s electronic configuration and the Pauli Exclusion Principle, assuming two electrons per quantum state. The highest occupied state's quantum numbers are selected to accommodate all valence electrons.

The Valence Band Maximum  $E_v$  is obtained from (5) as;

$$E_{\nu} = \left(\frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m_h}\right) \left[ \left(\frac{n^2}{L_x^2}\right) + \left(\frac{m^2}{L_y^2}\right) \right] (8)$$

 $m_h$  is the effective mass of holes, different from the electron mass due to material properties.

#### Conduction Band Minimum $(E_c)$

The first unoccupied state's quantum numbers are either n + 1 or m + 1, depending on the direction (x or y) with lower energy, influenced by confinement dimensions  $L_x$  and  $L_y$ , and electron effective mass.

The Conduction Band Minimum  $(E_C)$  is obtained from (5) as;

$$E_c = \left(\frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m_e}\right) \left[ \left(\frac{n^2}{L_x^2}\right) + \left(\frac{m^2}{L_y^2}\right) \right] (9)$$

#### Bandgap Energy Calculation

The bandgap energy  $E_g$  is calculated as the difference between the conduction band minimum energy  $E_c$  and the valence band maximum energy  $E_v$ :

 $E_{g,nano} = E_c - E_v(10)$ 

The nanoconfinement-induced bandgap changes  $\Delta E_g$  is calculated as the difference between the nanoconfined and bulk bandgap energies:

 $\Delta E_g = E_{g,nano} - E_{g,bulk}(11)$ 

For photocatalytic applications, we assume confinement similar to monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub>,  $E_{g,bulk} = 1.8 \text{ eV}$ 

### III. RESULTS

Equation (8) was used to compute the Valence Band Maximum  $E_v$ . The Conduction Band Minimum  $(E_c)$ 

Was computed with (9). The nano bandgap energy bandgap energy  $E_{g,nano}$  and nanoconfinement-induced bandgap changes  $\Delta E_g$  were calculated with (10) and (11) respectively using the constants;

- 1. Reduced Planck's Constant  $\hbar = 1.0545718 \times 10^{-34} Js$
- 2. Effective Mass of Electron  $m_e = 0.5 \times 9.11 \times 10^{-31} kg$
- 3. Effective Mass of Holes  $m_h = 0.6 \times 9.11 \times 10^{-31} kg$
- 4. Bulk Bandgap Energy for  $MoS_2$  ( $E_g$  bulk): 1.8 eV
- 5. Conversion Factor from Joules to Electron Volts:  $1eV = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} J$
- 6. Quantum Number (*n*):
  - a. Valence band: n = 2
  - b. Conduction band: n = 3

Table 1 shows the calculated nano bandgap energies  $E_{g,nano}$  for MoS<sub>2</sub> under various confinement dimensions  $L_x$  and  $L_y$ . The energies are in electron volts (eV) and illustrate the impact of quantum confinement on the bandgap energy, which is crucial for optimizing photocatalytic water splitting.

TABLE 1: Nano Bandgap Energies Egnano(eV)						
$L_x \setminus L_y (nm)$	1	2	3	4	5	
1	5.02	3.14	2.79	2.67	2.61	
2	3.14	1.26	0.91	0.78	0.73	
3	2.79	0.91	0.56	0.44	0.38	
4	2.67	0.78	0.44	0.31	0.26	
5	2.61	0.73	0.38	0.26	0.20	
6	2.58	0.70	0.35	0.23	0.17	
7	2.56	0.68	0.33	0.21	0.15	
8	2.55	0.67	0.32	0.20	0.14	
9	2.54	0.66	0.31	0.19	0.13	
10	2.54	0.65	0.30	0.18	0.13	

Table 1 presents the nano bandgap energies  $E_{g,nano}$  for  $MoS_2$  as a function of varying confinement dimensions  $L_x$  and  $L_y$ , both ranging from 1 nm to 10 nm. The data illustrates the quantum confinement effects on the bandgap energy, which is critical for determining the material's suitability for photocatalytic water splitting.

The results show a clear trend where the bandgap energy increases as the confinement dimensions decrease. For instance,

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when both  $L_x$  and  $L_y$  are at their minimum (1 nm), the bandgap energy reaches a maximum value of 5.02*eV*. Conversely, as the confinement dimensions increase to 10 *nm*, the bandgap energy significantly decreases, approaching values as low as 0.05 *eV*.

The graph presented in Figure 1 further elucidates the relationship between the nano bandgap energies  $E_{g,nano}$  and the varying confinement dimensions  $L_x$  for different fixed values of  $L_y$ 



Figure 1: Nanoconfined Bandgap Energies  $E_{g,nano}$  vs.  $L_x$ 

The results presented in Table 1 and Figure 1 demonstrate a pronounced impact of quantum confinement on the bandgap energy of MoS<sub>2</sub>. As the confinement dimensions  $(L_x \text{ and } L_y)$  decrease, the bandgap energy increases, consistent with the enhanced quantum confinement effect. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between nanoconfined bandgap energies ( $E_{g,nano}$ ) and varying confinement dimensions  $(L_x)$  for fixed values of  $L_y$ . The plot reveals that for a given  $L_y$ , the bandgap energy decreases with increasing  $L_x$ , with a more pronounced effect at lower  $L_y$  values. For instance, at  $L_y = 1nm$ , the bandgap energy drops sharply from 5.02 eV at  $L_x = 1nm$  to approximately 2.54 eV at  $L_x = 10nm$ . Similarly, for  $L_y = 10nm$  he bandgap energy ranges from 2.54 eV to 0.05 eV as  $L_x$  increases from 1 nm to 10 nm.

Figure 2 shows the average nanoconfined bandgap energies as a function of  $L_y$  for different values of  $L_x$ . The trend is similar to that observed for varying  $L_x$ , where the bandgap energy decreases as  $L_y$  increases. This decrease in energy is indicative of the reduction in quantum confinement effects as the dimensions increase.

The optimal dimensions for photocatalytic water splitting, where the bandgap energy falls within the range suitable for water splitting (1.23 eV to 2.2 eV), can be identified from the table and the graphs. For example, with  $L_x = 2nm$  and  $L_y = 2nm$ , the bandgap energy is approximately 1.26 eV, making it a promising candidate for efficient photocatalytic water splitting.



Figure 2: Average Nonconfined Bandgap Energies at varying L<sub>x</sub> and L<sub>y</sub> dimensions.

Table 2 shows the calculated energy levels and bandgap changes for a fixed confinement dimension of  $L_y = 2nm$ , with varying  $L_x$  dimensions ranging from 1 nm to 10 nm.

TABLE 2:	Calculated	Bandgap	Energies	Levels and	Changes at I	$L_y = 2nm$
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L <sub>x</sub> (nm)	E <sub>V</sub> (eV)	E <sub>C</sub> (eV)	Eg,nano(eV)	$\Delta E_{g}(eV)$
1.0	3.138	8.472	5.334	3.534
2.0	1.255	3.389	2.134	0.334
3.0	0.906	2.447	1.541	-0.259
4.0	0.784	2.118	1.334	-0.467
5.0	0.728	1.965	1.237	-0.563
6.0	0.697	1.883	1.185	-0.615
7.0	0.679	1.833	1.154	-0.646
8.0	0.667	1.800	1.133	-0.667
9.0	0.659	1.778	1.119	-0.681
10.0	0.653	1.762	1.109	-0.691

The results demonstrate a decrease in bandgap energy as  $L_x$  increases, aligning with the trend observed for varying  $L_y$  dimensions. This table enables the identification of optimal confinement dimensions for photocatalytic water splitting, where the bandgap energy falls within the desired range of 1.23 eV to 2.2 eV. Specifically, a confinement dimension of  $L_x = 2nm$  and  $L_y = 2nm$  yields a bandgap energy of approximately 2.134 eV, making it suitable for photocatalytic application.

Bandgap Energy and Change in Bandgap Energy vs. Confinement Length Lx with Ly=2 nm



Figure 3(a): Variation of Bandgap Energy and Change in Bandgap Energy with dimensions of  $L_x$ 

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Figure 3(b): Variation of Bandgap Energy and Change in Bandgap Energy with dimensions of  $L_v$  with  $L_x = 2nm$ 

The plot includes horizontal lines at 1.23 eV and 2.2 eV to indicate the optimal range for photocatalytic water splitting.

Table 3 provides the calculated energy levels and bandgap changes for equal confinement dimensions  $(L_x = L_y = L)$  ranging from 1 nm to 10 nm.

TABLE 3: Calculated Bandgap Energies and Changes at  $L_x = L_y = L$ 

L(nm)	E <sub>V</sub> (eV)	E <sub>C</sub> (eV)	Egnano(eV)	$\Delta E_{g}(eV)$
1	2.510	6.777	4.267	2.467
2	0.628	1.694	1.067	-0.733
3	0.279	0.753	0.474	-1.325
4	0.157	0.424	0.267	-1.533
5	0.100	0.271	0.171	-1.629
6	0.070	0.188	0.119	-1.681
7	0.051	0.138	0.087	-1.713
8	0.039	0.106	0.067	-1.733
9	0.031	0.084	0.053	-1.747
10	0.025	0.068	0.043	-1.757



Figure 4: Variation of Bandgap Changes vs. Confinement Length  $L_x = L_y =$ 

The results show a similar trend where the bandgap energy decreases as the confinement dimensions increase. At L = 1 nm, the bandgap energy is at its highest (4.267 eV), and it decreases significantly to 0.043 eV at L = 10 nm.

Figure 4 presents the energy energies ( $E_V$  and  $E_C$ ), the nano bandgap energy ( $E_{g,nano}$ ), and the change in bandgap energy ( $\Delta E_g$ ) as functions of the confinement length L for equal confinement dimensions ( $L_x = L_y = L$ ).

This plot provides a comprehensive view of how these energy values vary with the confinement dimensions.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates that quantum confinement significantly impacts the bandgap energy of  $MoS_2$ , enabling tunability for optimized photocatalytic water splitting performance.

#### Nano Bandgap Energies for Varying Confinement Dimensions

The calculated nano bandgap energies reveal a substantial increase in bandgap energy as confinement dimensions decrease, consistent with the quantum confinement effect. For instance, the bandgap energy reaches a maximum value of 5.02 eV when both confinement dimensions are at their minimum (1 nm). Conversely, as the confinement dimensions increase to 10nm, the bandgap energy decreases to approximately 0.05 eV. This trend highlights the tunability of the bandgap energy through precise control of the nanomaterial's dimensions, making it possible to tailor the material for specific applications.

#### Bandgap Energy and Changes for Fixed $L_y = 2 nm$

For a fixed  $L_y = 2$  nm, the bandgap energy decreases as  $L_x$  increases, with a steep decrease at smaller  $L_x$  values that gradually flattens out as Lx approaches 10 nm. Notably, the optimal range for photocatalytic water splitting (1.23 eV to 2.2 eV) is achieved when  $L_x$  is approximately 2nm, yielding a bandgap energy of 2.134 eV. This optimal range is crucial for efficient photocatalytic water splitting, as it allows for maximum absorption of visible light.

## Energy Levels and Bandgap Changes for Equal Confinement Dimensions

When  $L_x$  and  $L_y$  are equal, the energy levels and the nano bandgap energy show a consistent decrease with increasing confinement length. At a confinement length of 1 nm, the bandgap energy is at its highest (4.267 eV), and it decreases significantly to 0.043 eV at a confinement length of 10 nm. This trend underscores the impact of quantum confinement in enhancing the bandgap energy at smaller dimensions.

#### Critical Discussion

The findings from this study underscore the importance of quantum confinement in tuning the electronic properties of  $MoS_2$ . While reducing dimensions enhances certain properties, it is essential to balance these changes to ensure the material remains suitable for its intended application, considering factors like visible light absorption and material stability. The very high bandgap energies observed at extremely small

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dimensions (e.g., 5.02 eV at 1 nm) may limit the material's absorption of visible light, which is crucial for photocatalytic applications.

#### V. CONCLUSION

This study showcases the potential of quantum confinement in optimizing  $MoS_2$  properties for photocatalytic water splitting, offering valuable insights for advanced photocatalyst design and development. By carefully selecting the confinement dimensions, it is possible to achieve bandgap energies within the optimal range for this application, thus enhancing the material's efficiency.

#### Limitations and Further Studies

While this study provides critical insights, it is based on theoretical calculations that assume ideal conditions. Realworld factors such as defects, impurities, and surface states can influence the observed properties and should be considered in future research. Additionally, experimental validation of these theoretical predictions is necessary to confirm the practical applicability of the findings. Future studies should explore the effects of different confinement geometries, such as quantum wells and quantum wires, on the bandgap energy of  $MoS_2$ . Investigating the impact of environmental factors, such as temperature and pressure, on the quantum confinement effects would also provide a more comprehensive understanding. Finally, integrating  $MoS_2$  with other materials to form heterostructures could offer new avenues for enhancing its photocatalytic performance.

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