

# 3D Printed SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS-Based Nanocomposite Hydrogel as a Photoenhanced Triboelectric Nanogenerator

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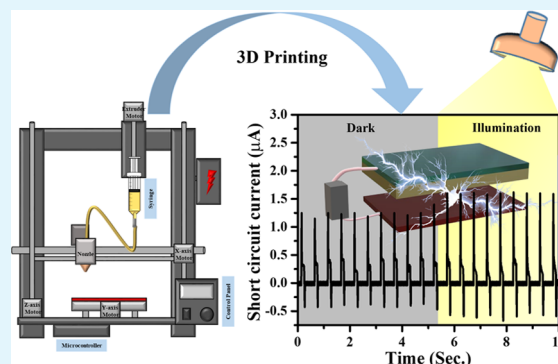
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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Recent advancements in printing technologies have led to new fabrication techniques for the development of various flexible, compact, wearable, and portable energy harvesters and self-powered devices. In particular, the three-dimensional printing (3DP) technology for a nanogenerator has become advantageous due to its low cost, simplicity, and high precision in fabricating complicated structures. Therefore, we report a 3DP-based photoinduced triboelectric nanogenerator (PTNG) fabrication, a hybrid version of a conventional triboelectric nanogenerator. Here, a 3D printed poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) nanocomposite hydrogel (3DPH) with photoactive SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes is used as a tribo-positive material and copper foil as a tribo-negative material for PTNG application. Under light illumination, the as-fabricated PTNG with an optimized weight percentage of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS displays the open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) enhancement from 29 to 37.5 V and short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ) enhancement from 1.23 to 1.58  $\mu$ A. In addition, the power density of the device is observed at 5.4  $\mu$ W/cm<sup>2</sup> under illumination conditions at the external load of 60 M $\Omega$ . This enhanced performance of the as-fabricated PTNG is attributed to the mutual coupling effect and improved interfacial interactions between the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes and PVA under the influence of light illumination, leading to a charge-trapping mechanism. The outstanding performance and stability of the as-fabricated PTNG surpassing all similar recent reports, establish it as an effective hybrid platform for constructing multifunctional self-powered devices.

**KEYWORDS:** triboelectric nanogenerator, 3D printing, SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes, nanocomposite hydrogel, photoinduced triboelectric nanogenerator



## 1. INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancements in printing technology have received significant attention over the past few decades in different fields of applications, namely, printed electronics,<sup>1</sup> sensors,<sup>2</sup> biomedical,<sup>3</sup> and energy devices.<sup>4</sup> Generally, printed electronics are reported with enhanced properties like functionalities and efficacy of the devices. Such advancement in printing technology has been achieved through various printing methods such as screen, inkjet, and laser printing. However, these techniques are limited to two dimensions (2D) (i.e., X- and Y-axis), and a passive substrate is essential for device fabrication. To overcome this limitation of 2D printing and to enable easy fabrication of devices, the three-dimensional (3D) (i.e., X-, Y-, and Z-axis) printing technology has evolved. In this, the printing of the devices takes place in all three dimensions through a layer-by-layer deposition process, which does not require any passive substrate for device fabrication. In addition to this, it is also a cost-effective rapid device fabrication technique with high stability, sustainability, and efficiency than other printing devices.

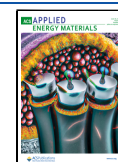
Nanomaterial-based self-powered, portable electronic devices are widely reported for various applications like sensors,

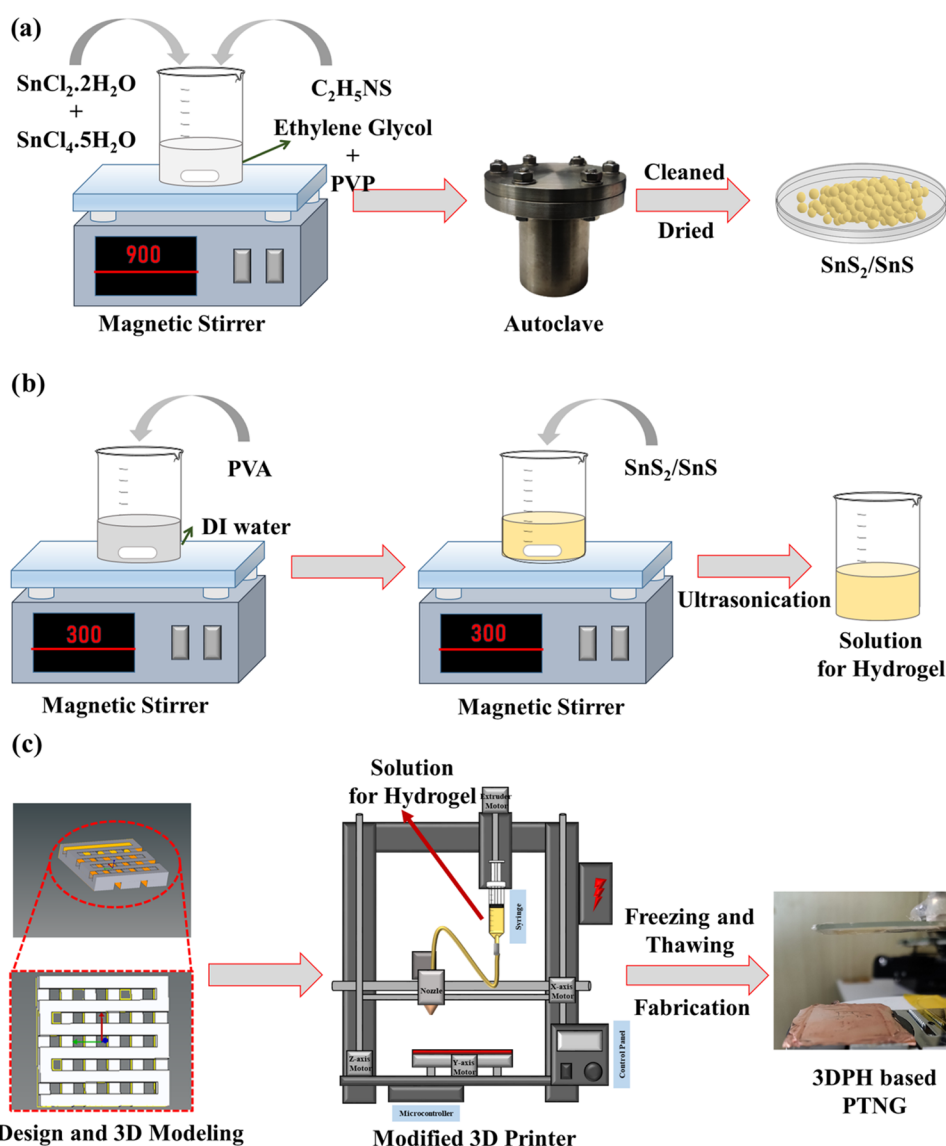
implants, etc. Generally, these devices are self-powered using nonconventional energy generation sources like mechanical,<sup>4,5</sup> thermal,<sup>6</sup> magnetic,<sup>7</sup> and photon<sup>8</sup> sources in their respective environments. Triboelectric nanogenerator uses mechanical energy as a source of energy generation. It converts mechanical energy to electrical by using two working principles: (i) contact electrification and (ii) electrostatic induction.<sup>9</sup> Contact electrification is otherwise known as triboelectrification, which is achieved via a friction mechanism between two dissimilar surfaces of identical or nonidentical materials using the concept of surface charge and the electron affinity of the surface.<sup>10</sup> Triboelectric nanogenerators are the eco-friendly,<sup>11</sup> cost-effective<sup>12</sup> energy harvesting platform reported with high efficacy<sup>13</sup> for small-scale energy harvesting applications. Though these devices have been explored for a wide variety

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**Figure 1.** (a) Schematic of synthesis of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  via a one-step solvothermal process. (b) Preparation of the  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}/\text{PVA}$  nanocomposite solution. (c) 3D printing of the  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}/\text{PVA}$  nanocomposite hydrogel.

of self-powered applications, efforts are made to enhance their overall efficiency and reliability.<sup>14</sup> The significant parameters to improve the device compatibility and efficiency are (i) material selection with significant differences of tribo-polarity,<sup>13</sup> (ii) charge injection,<sup>15</sup> (iii) hybridization with piezoelectric nanogenerator,<sup>16</sup> (iv) micro/nanopatterning to increase the contact area,<sup>17</sup> and (v) uses of photomodulated semiconductor material.<sup>18,19</sup> Among these strategies, using a photoactive semiconductor material is a new field of study in energy harvesting via triboelectric nanogenerators in the presence of photon illumination, known as photon-induced triboelectric nanogenerators (PTNGs). Han et al. have reported Au (metal) and  $\text{TiO}_2$  (semiconductor) as tribo-negative and tribo-positive layers of a triboelectric nanogenerator, respectively, where the conductivity of the surface increased via photon illumination.<sup>19</sup> However, the device exhibited a low  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$ . The energy conversion efficiency in photomodulated triboelectric nanogenerators depends on the optimum optical band gaps of the semiconductor material used.<sup>20</sup> The two major requirements of a material to be used in PTNGs are (i) a low energy band gap and (ii) high physical and chemical stability.

Transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) have been widely reported for different optoelectronics applications due to their high absorption coefficient and tunable energy band gaps. In particular, tin-based TMDCs are commonly used in optoelectronic devices as they exhibit n-type semiconductance in  $\text{SnS}_2$  and p-type semiconductance in  $\text{SnS}$  with an energy band gap between 1.3 and 2.2 eV.<sup>21,22</sup> Therefore, the  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  exhibits a comparatively better electron-transport property and absorption coefficient than the common  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanomaterials for optoelectronic applications.<sup>23</sup> On the other hand, polymer-based nanocomposites are also being used in PTNG applications due to their synergetic effect leading to a mutual coupling effect between the nanomaterials and the polymer matrix under light illumination. In addition, the morphology of the nanomaterial and interfacial characteristics of the polymer nanocomposite (i.e., interfacial interactions between the nanomaterial and the polymer matrix) leads to nanocomposites' improved dielectric, optical, and electrical properties.<sup>24</sup> Among various polymer nanocomposites, poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA)-based composites exhibit high transparency and conductivity.<sup>25</sup>

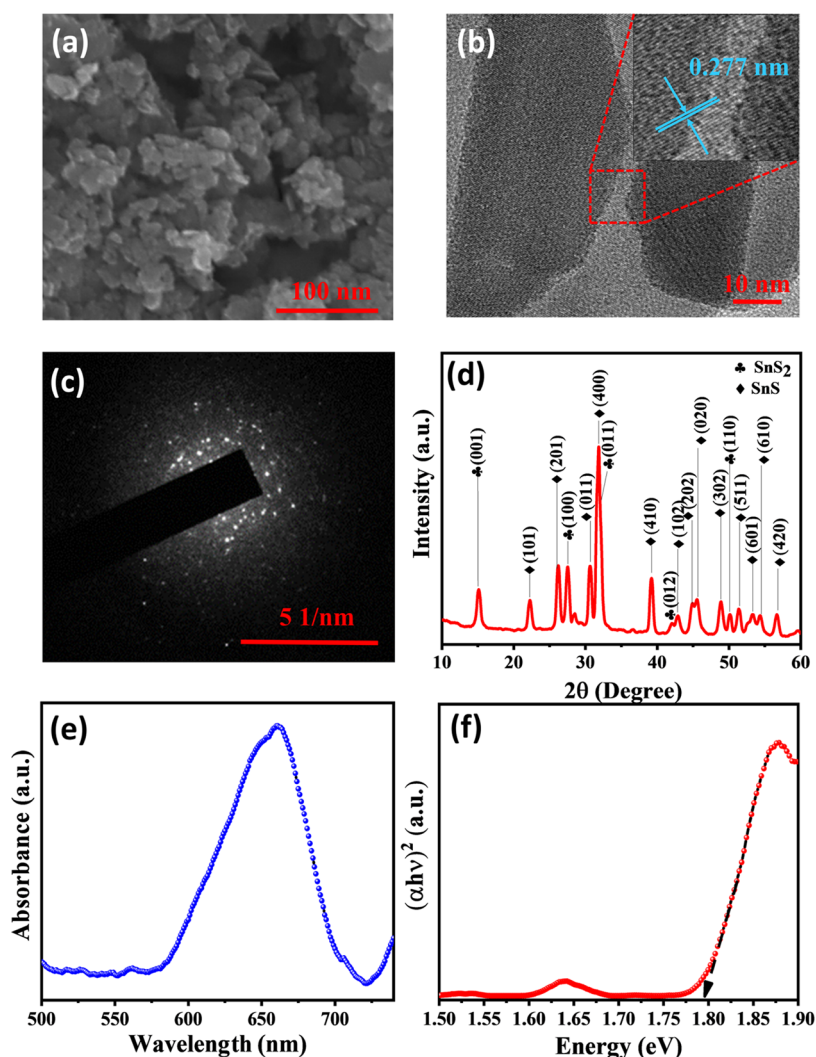


Figure 2. (a) SEM, (b) HR-TEM, (c) SAED pattern, (d) XRD, (e) UV-vis absorption spectrum, and (f) Tauc's plot of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS.

In this work, we report a photoinduced triboelectric nanogenerator (PTNG) using 3D printed SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS-based PVA hydrogel (3DPH) as a photoactive tribo-positive material and copper foil as a tribo-negative material. The wt % of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS in 3DPH has been optimized to 10 wt % based on triboelectric nanogenerator's energy conversion efficiency. In the dark, the 10 wt % SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS-loaded 3DPH-based triboelectric nanogenerator with a 2 cm × 2 cm active area generates a high  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$ , i.e., 29.0 V and 1.23  $\mu$ A, respectively. Upon illumination,  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  increase by 29 and 28%, which is 37.5 V and 1.58  $\mu$ A, respectively. This increased output can be ascribed to the photoelectron or hole generation via photon illumination. Here, the photogenerated carriers help to trap charge by mutual coupling effect under illumination, which generates more surface charges. This work provides a new approach to fabricating a PTNG via a 3D printed light absorption layer with enhanced energy conversion efficiency.

## 2. MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

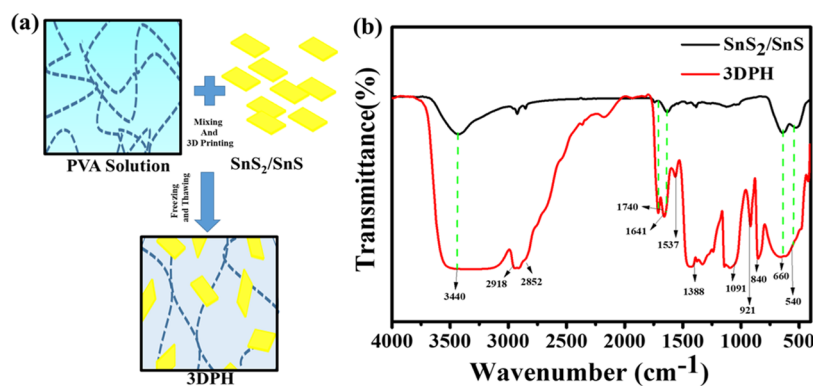
**2.1. Materials.** Tin chloride (SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (99.99%)), tin(IV) chloride (SnCl<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O (98%)), thioacetamide (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>NS (99.99%)), ethylene glycol (anhydrous, 99.8%), poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP, (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>9</sub>NO)<sub>n</sub>) poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA,  $M_w$  89,000-98,000, 99+% hydrolyzed), indium tin oxide coated poly(ethylene terephthalate)

(ITO-PET) sheet ( $\leq 10 \Omega \text{ sq}^{-1}$ ), and copper (foil, thickness 0.25 mm) were bought from Sigma Aldrich, India. Millipore setup (Merck, Direct Q 3-UV) was used for DI water.

**2.2. Instrumentation.** Structural analysis of the material was carried out using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Bruker Discover D8 with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation). A scanning electron microscope (SEM, ApreoLoVac with additional EDS detector) and transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM F200, JEOL Ltd.) were used to get the information about morphology. A Raman spectrometer (Witec,  $\alpha$ -300) was also used to characterize the synthesized sample and understand the chemical structure. The composite films were 3D printed by a customized Creality Ender 3 V2 3D printer. All of the electrical characterization (output voltage and output current) measurements were measured by a digital storage oscilloscope (Agilent Technologies, DSO 3062A) and Source meter (Keithley, Tektronix, 2450). A Holmark ozone-free arc lamp (HO-SC-SS300C) was used as a light source.

## 3. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**3.1. Synthesis of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS Nanoflakes.** SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes were synthesized via a facile one-step solvothermal method, as shown in Figure 1a. SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, SnCl<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>NS were mixed in a 1:1:2 molar ratio with 30 mL of ethylene glycol. Then, the solution was stirred for 3 h after adding a small amount of PVP and transferred to a 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave for solvothermal reaction at 240 °C for 24 h. The precursor solution is heated to the reaction temperature during the initial step of the solvothermal



**Figure 3.** (a) Schematic of the PVA and SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS in 3DPH. (b) FTIR spectra of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS and 3DPH.

process, which initiates the nucleation process. In that, the tin source (i.e., Sn<sup>4+</sup> and Sn<sup>2+</sup>) reacts with the sulfur source (i.e., S<sup>2-</sup>) to generate nuclei, which are initially tiny and randomly distributed in the solution. The nuclei are produced as SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS due to the coexistence of Sn<sup>4+</sup> and Sn<sup>2+</sup>. The growth process, in which the nuclei expand into bigger crystals, occurs in the second stage. Under solvothermal synthesis conditions, the growth mechanism of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS crystals may be characterized as a dissolution–precipitation process. The precursor solution provides a source of tin and sulfur ions, which dissolve the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS crystals at the surface. Then, these ions diffuse through the solution and re-precipitate onto the crystal surface, resulting in crystal growth. After the reaction, the autoclave was cooled to ambient temperature (25 °C), and the as-obtained precipitate was centrifuged and washed repeatedly using DI water and ethanol till neutral pH. Then, it was dried under vacuum at 100 °C for 4 h to collect the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes.

**3.2. Preparation of the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS/PVA Nanocomposite Solution.** Two grams of PVA powder was homogeneously dissolved into 10 mL of DI water via continuous stirring at 85 °C. Later, the as-synthesized SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS powder was added to the PVA solution and stirred for 3 hrs, followed by 1 h of sonication to obtain a bubble-free homogeneous nanocomposite solution for 3D printing as shown in Figure 1b.

**3.3. 3D Printing of the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS/PVA Nanocomposite Hydrogel.** A computer-aided design (CAD) model of the mesh-structured hydrogel was designed and sliced by Solidworks and Cura software, respectively. The as-prepared PVA nanocomposite solution was used to fabricate the PTNG device. In brief, the computer-programmed-controlled extrusion drive unit was attached to a solution container filled with the as-prepared nanocomposite solution, as shown in Supporting Information (SI) Figure S1. The force applied by the extrusion drive unit flows the nanocomposite solution toward the printer head over the conductive transparent ITO-coated PET sheet with a dimension of 2 cm × 2 cm. For example, 3D printing of the PVA solution is shown in SI Video V1. The nanocomposite solution was frozen inside the cooling chamber for 10 h at −23 °C, followed by thawing to room temperature. The cycle of the freezing and thawing process was performed five times to achieve PVA nanocomposite-based hydrogel (3DPH) for PTNG application, as shown in Figure 1c.

**3.4. Customized Setup for the Measurement of PTNG.** The real and schematic image of the customized setup for the measurement of the PTNG is shown in Supporting Information (SI) Figure S2. In brief, the 3D printed SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS-based hydrogel (3DPH) on the ITO/PET electrode was used as a tribo-positive material, while the copper foil was used as a tribo-negative material. Here, 3DPH on ITO/PET was attached to the glass slide, which was fixed to the sewing machine's movable upper clamp, and a copper foil was attached to the stator part, as shown in SI Figure S2a. The motion of the sewing machine causes uniform contact and separation between 3DPH and copper foil. Hence, a force of 3 ± 0.4 N was maintained throughout the experiment for a reliable reference in consistent force application. Further, a frequency of 120 cycles per minute, where the

maximum separation distance was 30 mm in vertical contact separation mode, is maintained. The photoassisted measurements of the PTNG device were performed under light illumination, as shown in SI Figure S2b.

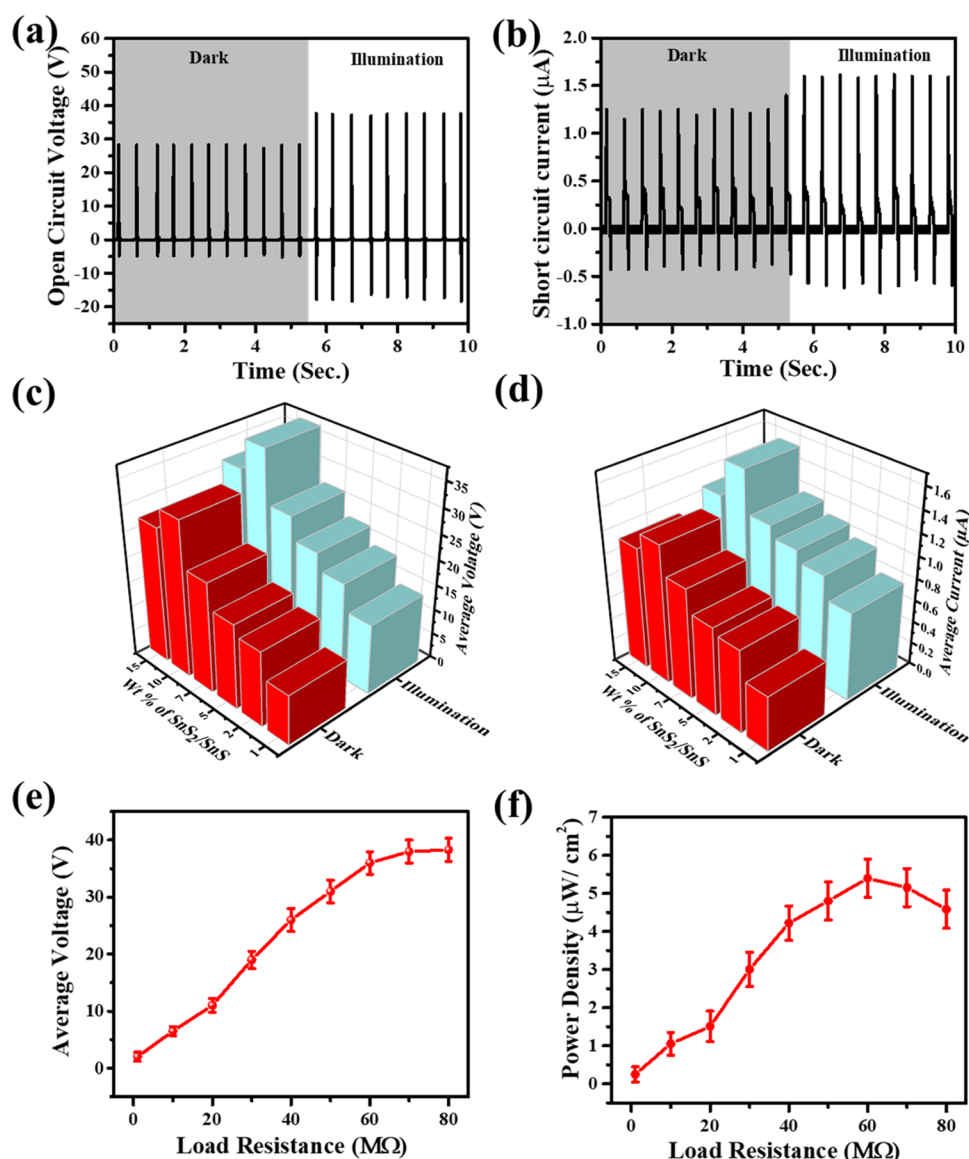
## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**4.1. Morphological and Structural Characterization of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS.** Figure 2a illustrates the SEM images of the solvothermal grown SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS. The SEM images demonstrate the irregular nanoflake-like structures of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS with a minimum width of 20 ± 1 nm, which indicates the complete formation of differently sized SnS<sub>2</sub> and SnS from the amorphous tin and sulfur ions that were present in the precursors.<sup>21</sup> The SEM micrographs also depict the uniformly distributed SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes. The nanosize of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS confirms the presence of more active sides, generating more electron–hole pairs during illumination in PTNG application. Figure 2b depicts the TEM micrographs of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS, which validates the nanoflake-like morphology observed via SEM analysis. The TEM further confirms the existence of SnS<sub>2</sub> in nanoflakes via the (011) plane, as the interplanar distance for SnS<sub>2</sub> is observed to be ~0.277. Figure 2c shows the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern, which confirms the polycrystalline structure of SnS<sub>2</sub> and SnS. All these planes indicate the formation of the hexagonal and orthorhombic structures of SnS<sub>2</sub> and SnS in the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanoflakes.

Figure 2d displays the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS. The diffraction peaks observed at 15.10, 28.20, 32.20, 42.00, and 50.11° correspond to the crystalline planes (001), (100), (011), (012), and (110), in good agreement with the JCPDS card No. 01-083-1705 for hexagonal SnS<sub>2</sub>.<sup>26</sup> Additionally, the other diffraction peaks observed at 22.05, 26.03, 30.48, 31.90, 39.30, 44.85, 45.53, 48.70, 51.36, 52.60, 55.00, and 56.5° can be attributed to crystal planes of (101), (201), (011), (400), (410), (202), (020), (302), (511), (601), (610), and (420), respectively, which are also in agreement with the JCPDS card No. 01-73-1859 corresponding to orthorhombic SnS.<sup>27</sup>

For the optical properties of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS, the sample was investigated by ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectroscopy, as shown in Figure 2f. At ~640 nm wavelength, a high-intensity peak was observed, which explicated the maximum photoresponse of the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS heterojunction in the visible spectra. Furthermore, the energy band gap ( $E_g$ ) of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS was examined using Tauc's equation (eq 1)<sup>28</sup>

$$(ah\nu)^{1/2} = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (1)$$



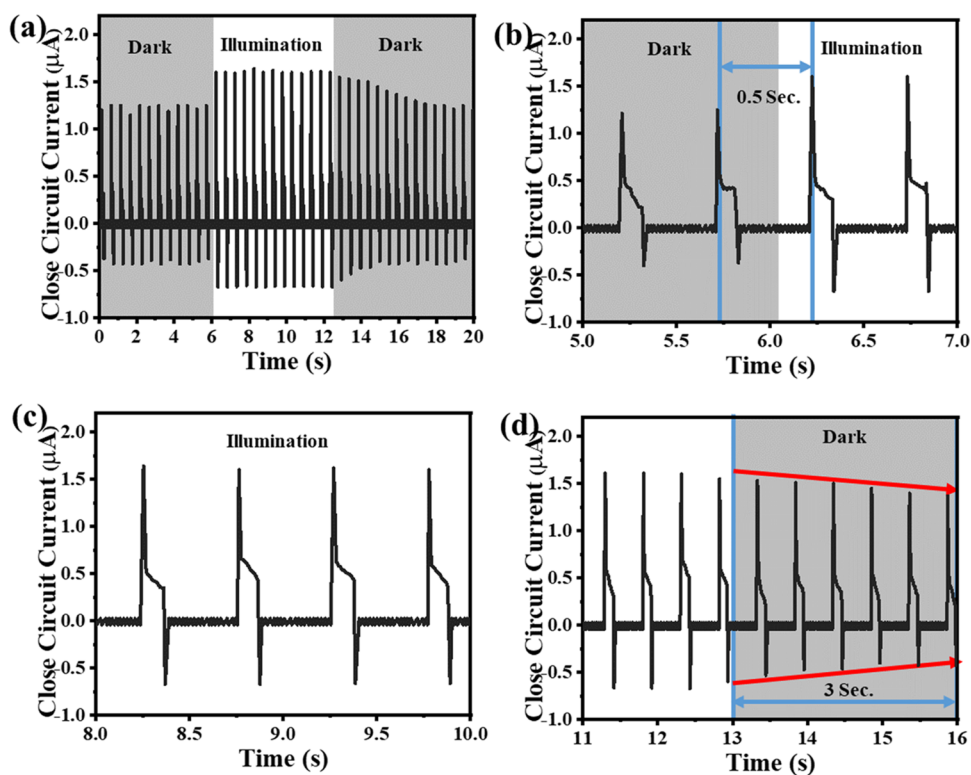
**Figure 4.** Output of PTNG in the dark and under illumination conditions: (a) open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) and (b) short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ). The output of PTNG with different wt % of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  in dark and illumination: (c) open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) and (d) short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ). The output of PTNG with different load resistances under illumination: (e) voltage and (f) power density.

where  $h\nu$  is the incident photon's energy and  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient. As shown in Figure 2g, the band gap ( $E_g$ ) of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  was evaluated as 1.8 eV, which is lower than the previously reported  $\text{SnS}_2$  and  $\text{SnS}/\text{SnS}_2$  heterostructure.<sup>21,29</sup> This low-energy band gap will be more beneficial as the solar spectrum has low-energy light other than UV light, which is 5% of the total light.

Figure 3a shows the possible interaction of immobilization  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes in the PVA matrix and the formation of 3DPH in schematic representation. The freezing and thawing method results in cross-linking in the PVA matrix, thereby leading to the formation of 3DPH. The localization of the  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes within the gel network is visually identified by its uniform appearance. Figure 3b shows the Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) analysis, which was performed to understand the formation of 3DPH. The  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes and 3DPH were characterized by FTIR spectroscopy over the 400–4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  range. The absorption peak at 3440  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes represents O–H

stretching. The broad absorption band at  $\sim 3000\text{--}3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a narrow peak at 921  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  indicate O–H bonds in 3DPH. The absorption peaks at 2918 and 2852  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in 3DPH were assigned to CH and  $\text{CH}_2$  asymmetric stretching vibration, respectively. The conjugate 1740 and 1641  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  peaks represent the C=O and C=C stretching vibrations of 3DPH, respectively. The C=O vibrations show the presence of the vinyl acetate group of 3DPH. A small peak at 1537  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the C=O stretching corresponding to the metal acetate functional group in 3DPH. Three strong peaks at 1388, 1091, and 840  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  represent the C–OH, C–O, and C–C stretching vibrations in 3DPH, respectively. Further, the 660  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 540 peaks were attributed to the Sn–S bond formation in  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes, which is also present in 3DPH. The peak broadening and overlapping peak in the FTIR for the 3DPH represents the cross-linking of the PVA hydrogel and  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  nanoflakes.<sup>30</sup>

**4.2. Electrical Characterization of the Triboelectric Nanogenerator.** The as-fabricated PTNG device was



**Figure 5.** (a)  $I_{sc}$  of PTNG in the dark and under illumination. The enlarged plot of the PTNG corresponding to outputs at the moments of (b) light on, (c) continuous light illumination, and (d) light off.

examined under dark and illumination conditions to evaluate the hybridization effect, as shown in (Figure 4a,b). The device's response was initially observed in dark conditions for 5 s. Then, the light within the visible spectrum range was illuminated, and the corresponding response was measured. In the dark, the peak value of  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  of the PTNG was observed as 29 V and 1.23  $\mu\text{A}$ , respectively. Under illumination, the  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  increased by 29 and 28% to 37.5 V and 1.58  $\mu\text{A}$ , respectively, indicating the photo-modulation of 3DPH. This increase in  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  can be attributed to photogenerated electron–hole pairs. The performance of the PTNG device at different wt % of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  in 3DPH under the illumination of photons in terms of  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  was studied as depicted in Figure 4c,d, respectively. As the wt % of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  (1–10 wt %) increased, the initial enhancement in output performance of the 3DPH-based PTNGs was observed till 10 wt %. Later, the fall in the output voltage trend observed at 15 wt % indicates that 10 wt % of the  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$ -based PTNG device is an optimized high-performance device for energy harvesting applications. This rise and fall trend in the efficiency of PTNG with respect to wt % of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  can be attributed to two vital factors as follows: (i) the change in dielectric constant and (ii) the piezoelectric property of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$ . The increase in the weight percentage of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  up to 10% was observed to have an increasing trend in  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  output due to the formation of a microcapacitor interfacial network that led to an increase in the dielectric constant of 3DPH.<sup>31</sup> The decrease in the output of PTNG at 15 wt % of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$  can be attributed to the start of agglomeration, which caused the current leakage, leading to the decreased output of PTNG and the piezoelectric behavior of hydrogel caused by the inherent piezoelectric properties of  $\text{SnS}_2/\text{SnS}$ .<sup>32</sup>

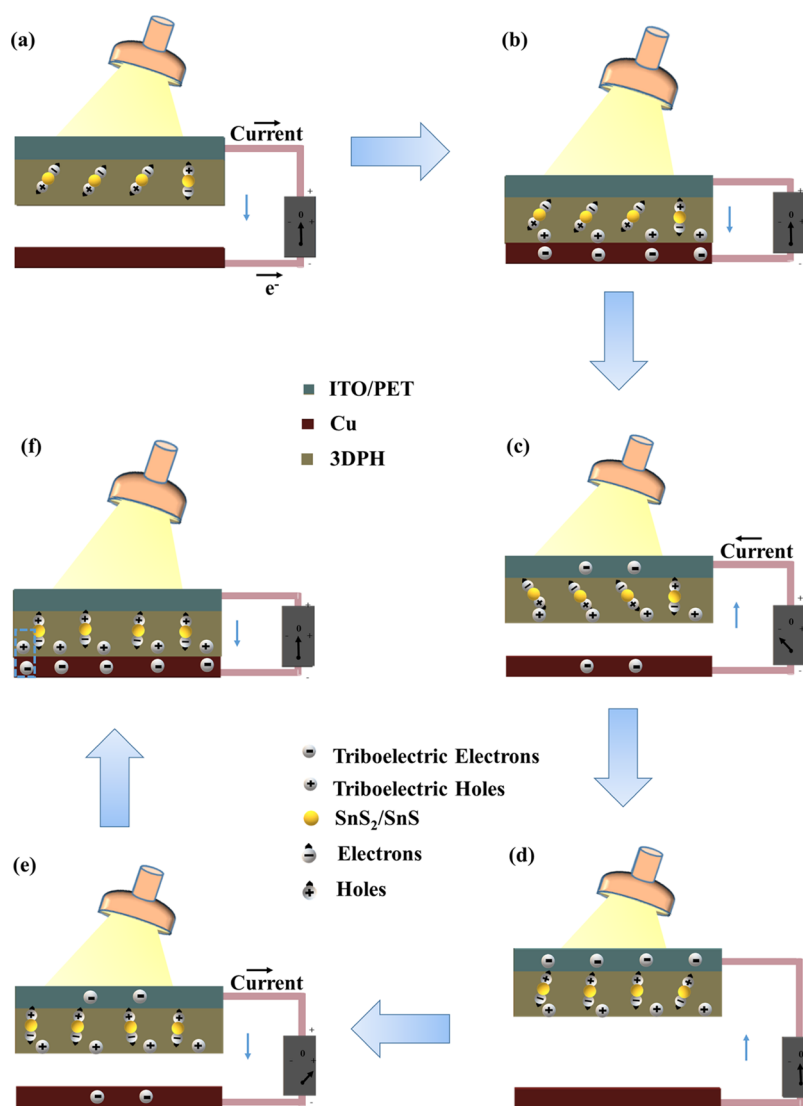
Further, an experiment was performed to discuss the dependency of force on PTNG without light and by varying influencing factors like material thickness and active contact area under illumination as described in SI Section S1. Herein, the output of PTNG was measured by connecting various load resistors ( $R_{load}$ ) with the external circuit. The average voltage output was measured by connecting the load resistor (1 to 80  $\text{M}\Omega$ ) under illumination conditions, as shown in Figure 4e. From the figure, it can be easily observed that the voltage output increased with the increase in load resistance initially and saturated near 70  $\text{M}\Omega$ . The instantaneous power density was calculated by using

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R \times A} \quad (2)$$

where  $P$  is the power density,  $V$  is the average voltage output,  $R$  is the external load resistance, and  $A$  is the active area.

The output power of PTNG reached its highest when the load was near about 60  $\text{M}\Omega$  corresponding to 5.4  $\mu\text{W}\cdot\text{cm}^2$  (under illumination) as shown in Figure 4f. The long-term and cyclic stability test of PTNG has been explained in SI Section S2. To demonstrate the as-fabricated PTNG for practical applications, a 2.2  $\mu\text{F}$  capacitor was connected to PTNG to be charged, which was further used to power light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and small electronic components like a calculator, as shown in SI Figure S6.

Figure 5a shows the photoresponse switching behavior while switching on and off the light. In the dark, the contact and separation of 3DPH and Cu generate  $I_{sc}$  of 1.25  $\mu\text{A}$  by contact electrification and electrostatic induction. However, under illumination, the  $I_{sc}$  increased to 1.58  $\mu\text{A}$  because of additional photoenergy, as shown in Figure 5b. The electron and holes generated by photoenergy increase the charge trapping by the



**Figure 6.** Working mechanism of PTNG under illumination for (a) no contact stage, (b) fully in contact stage, (c) initial stage of separation, (d) fully separation stage, (e) initial stage of the second cycle of contact, and (f) fully contact stage of the second cycle.

mutual coupling effect, which helps to accumulate more surface charges of 3DPH and Cu compared to dark mode. When the light source was switched on, the  $I_{sc}$  increased rapidly and stabilized at  $1.58 \mu\text{A}$ , as depicted in Figure 5c. In the first response, it achieved a 28% increment and became saturated there. Therefore, the response time (time required to reach 90% of current deviation) can be calculated by the time difference between two peaks of  $I_{sc}$ , which is 0.5 s. Figure 5d illustrates the device's response after 6 s of illumination; when the light was turned off, the  $I_{sc}$  slowly reduced and recovered the previous dark as there was no more extra current generated under dark. The recovery time (the time difference to recover 90% of the current deviation or to recover up to 10% of the current increment) is calculated as 3 s, which is lesser than that of the previously reported triboelectric nanogenerator.<sup>33</sup>

**4.3. Mechanism.** The working mechanism of the as-fabricated PTNGs for the generation of  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  in the dark and under illumination conditions can be explained via the contact and separation processes, as shown in Figure 6. In the initial state, the PTNG does not create any electrical potential as there is no contact between two tribo-materials, i.e., 3DPH and Cu. When the external pushing force is applied, the

transfer of positive and negative charges occurs in-between the surface of 3DPH and Cu because of the difference in surface charges, and both surfaces become charged identically.<sup>13</sup> In the separation process, the generated surface charges of 3DPH move toward the ITO electrode by two processes, i.e., (i) diffusion and (ii) electromigration, to balance the potential difference.<sup>34</sup> In the case of diffusion, the charge generated at the surface moves toward the inner space naturally because of the electrical charge concentration difference between the top surface and internal space of 3DPH. Along with diffusion, the charges move from the surface to the inner space of 3DPH due to the high difference in electric field strength between the surface of 3DPH and ITO. Due to this separation in 3DPH and Cu, the potential difference across the surfaces increased and drove the charges from the surface of Cu, which obtained a positive current in the external circuit. When the gap between 3DPH and Cu decreases, the potential difference between these two surfaces decreases; thus, the electrons from Cu flow back, resulting in a negative current.<sup>19</sup>

Photoactive semiconductor material with a low energy band gap generates the photocarriers under illumination. However, the recombination process of the electron–hole pairs from the

**Table 1. Performance Comparison of the As-Fabricated PTNG with the Previously Reported Photoassisted Nanogenerators**

tribo-material combination	band gap	output voltage (Illuminated)	output current (Illuminated)	device size	power density (Illuminated)	references
TiO <sub>2</sub> /FTO vs Au/glass	3.1 eV	0.45 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = 0.3 V)	35 nA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = -28 nA)	1.4 cm × 0.8 cm	15.75 nW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	19
MAPbI <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> /FTO vs PTFE/FTO		4.25 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = 17 V)	0.09 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = 0.38 μA)	2 cm × 2 cm	<sup>a</sup> 0.38 μW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	36
Al/polyimide/TiO <sub>x</sub> /P3HT vs PC <sub>61</sub> BM/PEDOT:PSS/ITO/glass		4 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = 4 V)	20 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = 20 μA)	1 cm × 1 cm	<sup>a</sup> 80 μW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	37
Au/TiO <sub>2</sub> /FTO vs TiO <sub>2</sub> /FTO		0.7 V·cm (V ~ 0.7 V)	11 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (dark condition)	1 cm × 1 cm	not provided	38
MA <sub>0.5</sub> FA <sub>0.5</sub> Pb <sub>0.5</sub> Sn <sub>0.5</sub> I <sub>3</sub> /FTO vs Al	1.24 eV	-58.33 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = -0.7 V)	100 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = -1.2 μA)	0.012 cm <sup>2</sup>	<sup>a</sup> 5.8 mW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	39
Si /Al vs FTO		0.35 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = 0.35 V)	0.25 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = 0.25 μA)	1 cm × 1 cm	<sup>a</sup> 0.08 μW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	40
SnS <sub>2</sub> /SnS and PVA 3D printed nanocomposite hydrogel vs Cu	2.1 eV for SnS <sub>2</sub> /SnS	9.37 V·cm <sup>-2</sup> (V = 37 V)	0.39 μA·cm <sup>-2</sup> (I = 1.58 μA)	2 cm × 2 cm	5.4 μW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	this work

<sup>a</sup>value calculated by using the formula, i.e.,  $P = V \cdot I$  (as resistance is constant).

carrier reduces the charge trap.<sup>33</sup> However, as per the quantum conversion efficiency theory, it has been concluded that the higher separation efficiency provides higher  $I_{sc}$ , as the charge trap will be more.<sup>35</sup> In this work, the SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS acts as a photoactive material that boosts the efficiency of PTNG via a charge trap from the mutual coupling effect. In PTNG, the electron and holes, via the mutual coupling effect, can be excited from SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS within the triboelectric layer and distributed at the interface of 3DPH. When the charge accumulates on the surface of 3DPH and Cu due to mutual interaction, the electron–holes generated from mutual coupling effects are arranged vertically and trap the charge to enhance the efficiency of PTNG.<sup>35</sup> During the external force for the second time, the electric field will disappear, but the vertically arranged hole pairs will not entirely dissipate. In other words, under illumination, more charges will be accumulated on 3DPH and Cu, which results in a periodic higher current in the process of external periodical force.

Table 1 shows the performance comparison between the as-fabricated 3DPH-based PTNG and previously reported nanogenerators. Most reported PTNGs involved TiO<sub>2</sub> as a photoactive material combined with a variety of different materials and involved complex device architecture, which failed to achieve high efficiency due to the large energy band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>19,36–38</sup> The high band gap value implies that TiO<sub>2</sub> can only respond to ultraviolet (UV) light, which accounts for less than 5% of the solar spectrum. In other reports for PTNGs, attempts were made to address the issue of large band gaps by using materials like perovskite, silicon, etc.<sup>39,40</sup> However, these exhibited either low stability and/or poor output performance. In sharp contrast, the as-fabricated SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS nanocomposite hydrogel PTNG demonstrated excellent stability and high performance than other reported PTNGs with its low energy band gap. This is the first report on 3DPH for PTNG application, exhibiting high  $V_{oc}$ ,  $I_{sc}$ , and power density and excellent stability.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this work demonstrates a highly scalable approach of a 3D printed SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS-based nanocomposite hydrogel (3DPH) for photoinduced triboelectric nanogenerator (PTNG) application. Herein, the as-fabricated PTNG device exhibited high efficiency under illumination, which is ascribed to the narrow band gap of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnS in the matrix. The  $V_{oc}$  and  $I_{sc}$  of PTNG increased by about 29 and 28%, respectively,

under light illumination, with 5.4 μW·cm<sup>-2</sup> (under illumination) power density at 60 MΩ external resistance load. This enhancement is attributed to the migration of photogenerated charge carriers, which increases the charge-trapping capacity via the mutual coupling effect. This facile, low-cost technique of 3D printing nanocomposite hydrogel demonstrated here provides a new approach for the enhancement of mechanical-to-electrical conversion efficiency via photoinduced nanogenerator fabrication that finds wide applications in the development of next-generation self-powered systems.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsaem.3c00887>.

Digital photograph of a modified 3D printer (Figure S1); digital photograph and the corresponding schematic of the measurement setup for PTNG (Figure S2); the performance of PTNG by varying different influencing factors (Section S1); long-term and cyclic stability test of PTNG under illumination (Section S2); and digital photograph of the circuit connection to power LED and calculator (Figure S6) (PDF)

3D printing of the PVA solution (Video V1) (MP4)

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## Author Contributions

N.K.D. was responsible for conceptualization, methodology, data curation, writing the original draft, reviewing, and editing. S.V. performed the methodology and data curation and wrote, reviewed, and edited the manuscript. S.B. was responsible for conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, project administration, resources, supervision, and writing, reviewing, and editing the manuscript.

## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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