



Cite this: *Chem. Sci.*, 2020, **11**, 6297

All publication charges for this article have been paid for by the Royal Society of Chemistry

## Mildly regulated intrinsic faradaic layer at the oxide/water interface for improved photoelectrochemical performance†

Ziyu Yin,<sup>a</sup> Xiangtian Chen,<sup>a</sup> Cheng Wang,<sup>b</sup> Zijing Guo,<sup>c</sup> Xinglong Wu,<sup>c</sup> Zongyan Zhao,<sup>d</sup> Yingfang Yao,<sup>d</sup> Wenjun Luo <sup>abef</sup> and Zhigang Zou<sup>abef</sup>

Metal oxides are widely used in different fields, including photoelectrocatalysis, photocatalysis, dye-sensitized solar cells, photoinduced superhydrophilicity and so on. It is well-known that there are intrinsic hydrated layers on the surfaces of metal oxides in ambient air or the electrolyte. Generally, interface layers between metal oxides and solutions have significant effects on the performances in these applications. However, the exact roles of the intrinsic hydrated layers are still unclear. In this study, taking  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  as model materials, we propose a mild heat treatment to increase the hydroxyl concentration in the hydrated surface layers of the oxides, which improves their photoelectrochemical performance remarkably. Moreover, we find that the heat-regulated hydrated layer plays the role of a hole transfer mediator between oxides and the electrolyte, which can accelerate both interface charge collection and oxygen evolution reaction kinetics in acidic solution. The new insights into the intrinsic hydrated interface layer on oxides can offer guidance not only in photoelectrocatalysis, but also in the other applications mentioned above.

Received 21st February 2020  
Accepted 3rd June 2020

DOI: 10.1039/d0sc01052a  
[rsc.li/chemical-science](http://rsc.li/chemical-science)

## 1 Introduction

Metal oxides are widely used in different fields, including photoelectrocatalysis,<sup>1</sup> photocatalysis,<sup>2</sup> dye-sensitized solar cells,<sup>3</sup> photoinduced superhydrophilicity<sup>4</sup> and so on. In these applications, the interface charge transfer between metal oxides/solution has significant effects on the performance.<sup>5–7</sup> For example, in previous studies, some intermediate layers, such as  $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  and CoPi, were introduced at the interface between oxides and the electrolyte to improve the photoelectrocatalytic performance.<sup>8,9</sup> These intermediate layers include variable valence metal ions. When the semiconductor

photoanodes are excited under illumination, the metal ions in the intermediate layers will be oxidized by photo-generated holes very fast, and simultaneously release protons into the electrolyte to maintain electrical neutrality. This process is also reversible by controlling the applied potential, which is a faradaic reaction.<sup>10</sup> Therefore, the intermediate layers can be considered as extrinsic faradaic layers.<sup>11</sup> The faradaic layers can accelerate both interface charge collection and oxygen evolution reaction (OER) kinetics and improve the performance of a photoelectrode.<sup>12–15</sup>

Moreover, some recent studies have suggested that there is an intrinsic hydrated layer on the surface of metal oxide in ambient air or an electrolyte,<sup>6,16–19</sup> which also has significant effects on interface charge separation and transfer.<sup>20–22</sup> Is it possible that the intrinsic hydrated layer plays the same role with an extrinsic faradaic layer? In fact, the effects of the intrinsic hydrated layer on photoelectrochemical performance are controversial. Some results suggest that the hydrated interface layer passivates the surface states or provides a new charge transfer pathway to improve the performance.<sup>20,22</sup> However, other studies argue that the hydrated layer acts as recombination centers, which decreases the photoelectrochemical performance.<sup>23–25</sup> These inconsistent results possibly come from harsh post-treatment methods on photoelectrodes used in previous studies, which change not only the hydrated interface layer but also the bulk of photoelectrodes. In order to understand the real role of a hydrated interface layer, it

<sup>a</sup>Eco-materials and Renewable Energy Research Center (ERERC), Jiangsu Key Laboratory for Nano Technology, National Laboratory of Solid State Microstructures, Department of Physics, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210093, China

<sup>b</sup>Eco-materials and Renewable Energy Research Center (ERERC), College of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210093, China. E-mail: [yaoyingfang@nju.edu.cn](mailto:yaoyingfang@nju.edu.cn); [wjluo@nju.edu.cn](mailto:wjluo@nju.edu.cn)

<sup>c</sup>National Laboratory of Solid State Microstructures and Department of Physics, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210093, China

<sup>d</sup>Faculty of Materials Science and Engineering, Kunming University of Science and Technology, Kunming 650093, China

<sup>e</sup>School of Science and Engineering, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shenzhen, 2001 Longxiang Blvd, Longgang District, Shenzhen 518172, China

<sup>f</sup>Macau Institute of Systems Engineering, Macau University of Science and Technology, Macau 999078, China

† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See DOI: [10.1039/d0sc01052a](https://doi.org/10.1039/d0sc01052a)



is desirable to develop a new method that only changes the intrinsic hydrated interface layer of metal oxide.

In this work, taking  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  as model materials, we proposed a facile low-temperature heat treatment ( $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) to regulate the hydrated surface layers of the two metal oxides. The low-temperature heat treatment only changed the hydrated surface layer, not the bulk, because the heat treatment conditions were much milder than the previous ones.<sup>20</sup> Moreover,  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  were used as photoanodes for solar water splitting and their performance increased significantly after the heat treatment. Our study suggests that the regulated hydrated layer played the same role as the extrinsic faradaic layer mentioned above. Therefore, the hydrated interface layer can also be considered an intrinsic faradaic layer. Different from previous studies, we propose new insights into the role of a hydrated interface layer, which are significant for mechanistic study and performance improvement. Moreover, many reports suggest that there are also (hydro)oxide surface layers on non-oxides in ambient air or aqueous solution.<sup>26,27</sup> Therefore, this study can also offer guidance to improve the performance of a non-oxide photoelectrode.

## 2 Results and discussion

$\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  films were deposited on FTO substrates, prepared by the hydrothermal method and calcined at  $450\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and  $675\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in air, respectively.<sup>28,29</sup> In order to investigate the effect of heat-treatment temperatures on the surface layer, the samples were further calcined in air at different temperatures ( $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and  $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) for 30 min. The SEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples before and after the heat treatment are shown in Fig. 1a-d, respectively. A sample before heat treatment is denoted as pristine. The SEM images of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  are also shown in Fig. S1.†  $\text{TiO}_2$  shows a dispersed nanorod array with an average diameter of about 150 nm. After the heat treatment, the morphologies of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  do not change obviously.

Fig. 1e indicates the XRD patterns of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples. The strongest peak corresponds to the (101) plane of rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  (JCPDS 21-1276). From the XRD patterns, no phase changes or other new phases are observed after the heat treatment. Raman spectroscopy is more sensitive to the surface of materials. Therefore, Raman spectroscopy is also used to investigate the samples and the results are shown in Fig. 1f. The characteristic peaks of rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $236$ ,  $444$  and  $610\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) are observed.<sup>30</sup> The Raman peaks do not change after the heat treatment, which is in good agreement with the XRD results. The SEM (Fig. S1†), XRD and Raman results (Fig. S2†) of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  also suggest that the morphologies and phases of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  do not change after the heat treatment either.

A transmission electron microscope (TEM) can be used to investigate microcosmic changes of materials. Therefore, a TEM is also used to further characterize the  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples before and after the heat treatment and the results are shown in Fig. 2. Lattice spacings of  $0.32\text{ nm}$  and  $0.29\text{ nm}$  are assigned to the (110) and (001) of rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$ , respectively. Clear electron diffraction (ED) patterns are observed for the sample before and after heat treatment, which suggests that  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples are single crystal nanorods. A second ED pattern is observed in the sample before the heat treatment, which possibly comes from some overlapping grains. The ED patterns of all the samples after heat treatment are the same, which further confirms that the bulk of  $\text{TiO}_2$  does not change after the heat treatment. From the TEM images, the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanorods does not change obviously after the heat treatment at different temperatures. Irregular morphologies and agglomerated grains are observed on the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples (see Fig. S3†). It is difficult to obtain useful information by comparing the TEM images of the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  before and after the heat treatment. Therefore, the TEM images of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  calcined at different temperatures are not shown. According to the above results and analysis, the bulk properties of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples do not change after the heat treatment.

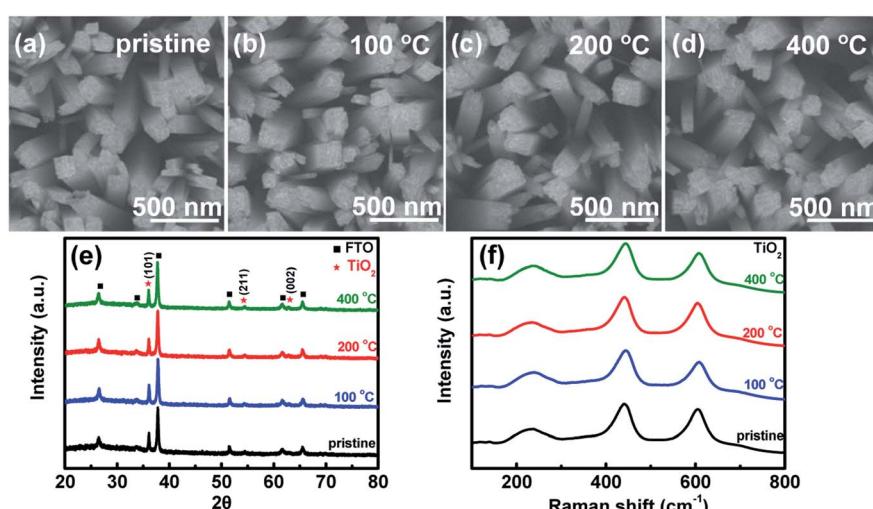


Fig. 1 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before (a) and after heat treatment in air at  $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (b),  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (c) and  $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (d); X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns (e) and Raman spectra (f) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after heat treatment at different temperatures.



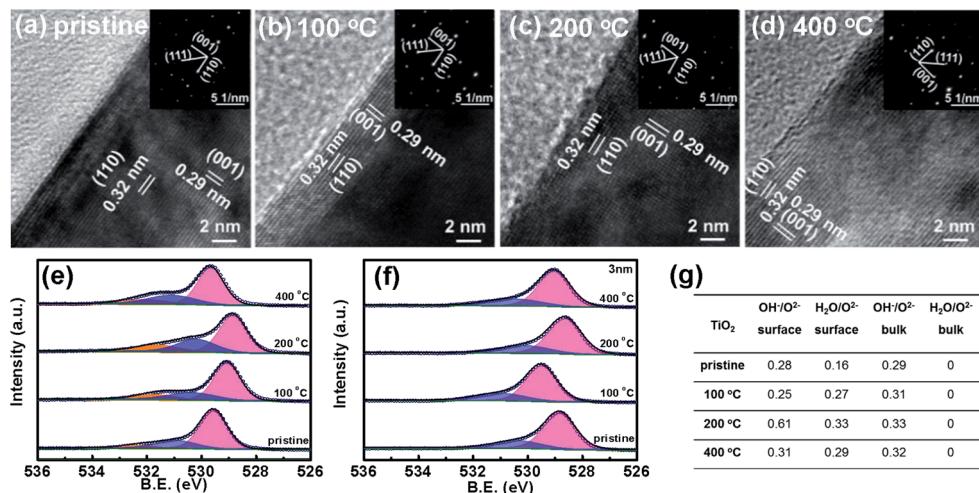


Fig. 2 Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before (a) and after heat treatment in air at  $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (b),  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (c), and  $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (d) and the corresponding electron diffraction (ED) patterns (inset); X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) results of O 1s on the surface (e) and in the bulk (3 nm depth) (f) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after heat treatment at different temperatures. The red, blue and yellow peaks are assigned to lattice  $\text{O}^{2-}$ , lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, respectively; a table of the XPS ratio of lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and chemically adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to lattice  $\text{O}^{2-}$  on the surface and in the bulk (3 nm depth) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (g).

In order to analyze the composition of the surface layer, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) is used to characterize the  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  thin films before and after the heat treatment. Fig. 2e and S4<sup>†</sup> indicate the binding energies of O 1s and Ti 2p of the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , respectively. Only  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  and not  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  peaks are observed on the surfaces of the samples after the heat treatment. Three binding energies of O 1s (529.6 eV, 530.9 and 532.1 eV) are observed on the surfaces of  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples before heat treatment (see Fig. 2e), which are assigned to the lattice  $\text{O}^{2-}$ , lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, respectively.<sup>31–33</sup> A partially hydrated surface layer is observed, which is in good agreement with some previous studies.<sup>34</sup> The surface layer is hydroxylated, which comes from the reaction between the surface of oxides and water in ambient air. Moreover, some  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules are chemically adsorbed on the hydroxylated surface layer. The binding energies of bulk O 1s are also measured for the samples at a depth of 3 nm by  $\text{Ar}^+$  etching and the results are shown in Fig. 2f; no adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules are observed in the bulk of  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

The ratios of the three O species on the surface change remarkably after the heat treatment, but do not in the bulk. The quantitative ratios of lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules to lattice  $\text{O}^{2-}$  on the surface and in the bulk of  $\text{TiO}_2$  are calculated and the results are shown in Fig. 2g. After the heat treatment at  $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the ratio of  $\text{OH}^-$  to  $\text{O}^{2-}$  on the surface of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  sample decreases from 0.28 to 0.25, but remarkably increases to 0.61 on the sample at  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , and then decreases to 0.31 when the temperature is further increased to  $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The ratio of adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to  $\text{O}^{2-}$  on the surface increases from 0.16 to 0.33 when increasing the heat-treatment temperature to  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and then decreases to 0.29 when further increasing the temperature to  $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . However, the ratio of  $\text{OH}^-$  to  $\text{O}^{2-}$  in the bulk  $\text{TiO}_2$  increases from 0.29 to 0.33 after the treatment. The contents of surface  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  are the highest on

the sample at  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The bulk shows much less change than the surface. The XPS peak of O 1s in carbonate is usually near that of lattice  $\text{OH}^-$ , which would affect the hydroxylation coverage analysis. In order to exclude the effects of carbonate, the XPS spectrum of C 1s in  $\text{TiO}_2$  is shown in Fig. S5.<sup>†</sup> The results suggest that the C 1s peak (288.5 eV) for carbonate does not change obviously after the heat treatment at  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .<sup>35,36</sup> Therefore, the change of the O 1s peak comes from  $\text{OH}^-$  concentration variation in the surface hydrated layer, and not from the carbonate. The binding energy shift of the samples after heat treatment is not discussed here since the calibration method of binding energy is controversial.<sup>37</sup> The heat-treatment process is also examined by TGA analysis (Fig. S6<sup>†</sup>). The first mass loss stage of  $\text{TiO}_2$  that extends from room temperature to  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  can be ascribed to the desorption of physically and chemically adsorbed water. The second distinct mass loss from  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $350\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  possibly comes from the removal of surface hydroxyl groups.<sup>38–40</sup> For  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , the three mass loss stages are ascribed to the desorption of physically and chemically adsorbed water and hydroxyl, respectively.<sup>41</sup> From the TGA results of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , the desorption of hydroxyl occurs at a temperature over  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , and the  $\text{OH}^-$  content decreases after heat treatment at higher temperature ( $400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). Therefore, it is reasonable that the sample after heat treatment at  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  has the highest  $\text{OH}^-$  content. Both the XPS and TGA results suggest that the surface changes come from the reaction of the oxide samples with water. Therefore, the heat treatment leads to the increase of lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in the hydrated surface layer of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Moreover, we also characterize the surface changes of  $\text{TiO}_2$  by the contact angle method and the results are shown in Fig. S7.<sup>†</sup> After the heat treatment at  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the contact angle of  $\text{TiO}_2$  decreases, which further supports the increase of the surface hydroxyl concentration after  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  heat treatment.<sup>42,43</sup> Moreover, the ratios of  $\text{OH}^-$  to  $\text{O}^{2-}$  on the surface and



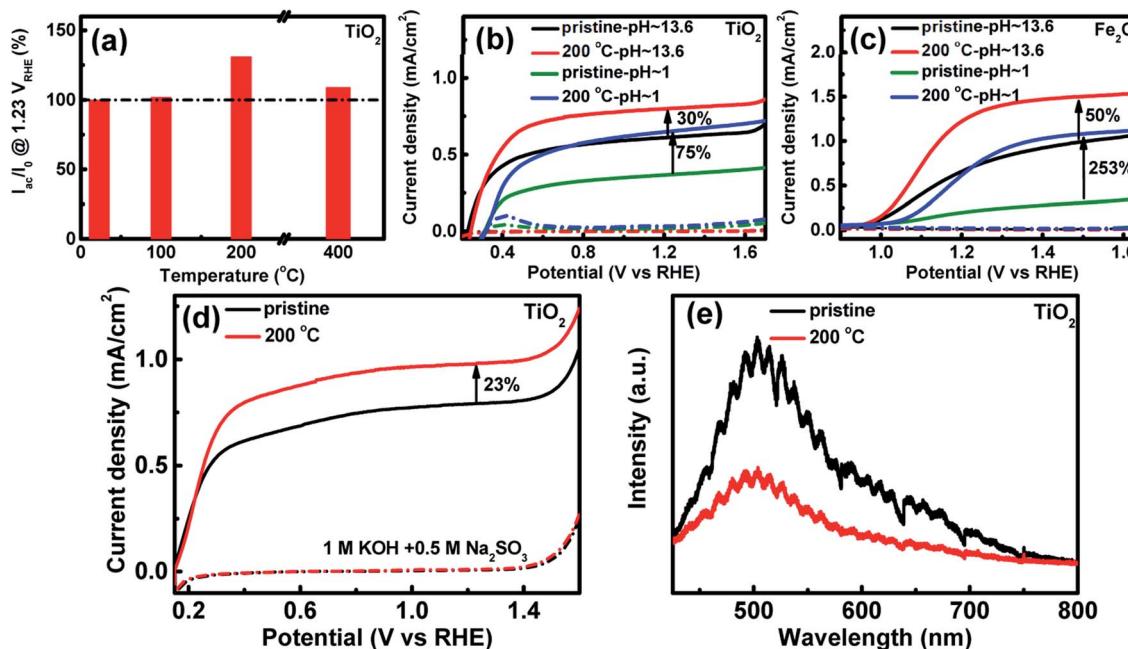


Fig. 3 Photocurrent ratio of  $\text{TiO}_2$  at different heat-treatment temperatures to a pristine sample at  $1.23 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$  (a);  $I_{\text{ac}}$  is the photocurrent of the samples after heat treatment and  $I_0$  is the photocurrent of the pristine sample; photocurrent–potential curves of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (b) and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (c) before and after heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in electrolytes with different pHs,  $1 \text{ M KOH}$  ( $\text{pH} \sim 13.6$ ) and  $0.1 \text{ M HClO}_4$  ( $\text{pH} \sim 1$ ), respectively; the solid line and dashed line correspond to the photocurrent and dark current, respectively; photocurrent–potential curves of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in  $1 \text{ M KOH}$  with  $0.5 \text{ M Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  as the hole sacrificial agent (d); photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (e).

in the bulk of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  indicate similar changes to those in  $\text{TiO}_2$  after heat treatment (see Fig. S8†). Therefore, the heat treatment increases the hydration degree of the surface layer on the metal oxides.

In order to investigate the effects of the heat-treated hydrated layer of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  on the photoelectrochemical performance,  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  before and after heat treatment at different temperatures are used as photoanodes and the photocurrents @ $1.23 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$  are measured in  $1 \text{ M KOH}$  ( $\text{pH} \sim 13.6$ ). The ratios of the photocurrent of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after to before the heat treatment are calculated and shown in Fig. 3a. The sample at  $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  indicates similar photocurrent to that of the pristine sample. The photocurrent increases by 30% at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , but the increase is only 9% at  $400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The  $\text{TiO}_2$  sample at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  shows the highest photocurrent among these samples. Fig. S9† indicates the photocurrent stability of the sample at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at  $1.23 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$ , which suggests that the photocurrent increase is stable after the heat treatment. A similar photocurrent variation trend is observed on an  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  photoanode (see Fig. S10a†). The heat treatment changes both lattice  $\text{OH}^-$  and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules on the surface (see Fig. S8a†). However, the photocurrent only shows a similar variation trend for  $\text{OH}^-$ , and not the adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules on the surface of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ . Therefore, the change of the surface  $\text{OH}^-$  and not the adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules contributes to the improved photoelectrochemical performance. The surface  $\text{OH}^-$  concentration is higher, and the photocurrent density is higher. Fig. 3b displays the CV curves of  $\text{TiO}_2$  at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in aqueous solution with different pHs in the

dark and under illumination. The sample exhibits a much lower photocurrent and more positive onset potential in the acidic electrolyte than in the basic electrolyte. Similar results have also been reported in previous studies.<sup>25</sup> After the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the photocurrent of  $\text{TiO}_2$  increases by 75% in the acidic solution, much higher than the increase in the basic solution (30%). The results are further verified from the incident-photon-to-current-conversion efficiency (IPCE) spectra (Fig. S11†). A more obvious effect of pH on the photocurrent increase is observed on  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (see Fig. 3c): the photocurrent at  $1.5 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$  increases by 253% in the acidic solution, which is also much higher than that in the basic solution (50%).

In order to investigate the mechanism of the improved performance after the heat treatment, the CV curves for the electrolyte with the hole sacrificial agent  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  were measured and the results are shown in Fig. 3d. The photocurrent at  $1.23 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$  on  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the electrolyte with the hole sacrificial agent increases by 23% after the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$  ions can consume photo-generated holes very fast, which suggests that all the holes that reach the hydrated interface layer can be injected into the electrolyte to oxidize  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$ .<sup>44</sup> Therefore, the photocurrent in the hole sacrificial agent only depends on the density and separation efficiency of photo-generated carriers.<sup>45,46</sup> The optical absorption spectra (Fig. S12†) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples before and after the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  were measured. The absorption at  $300\text{--}400 \text{ nm}$  contributes to the photocurrent of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , which does not change obviously after the heat treatment at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The effect of the

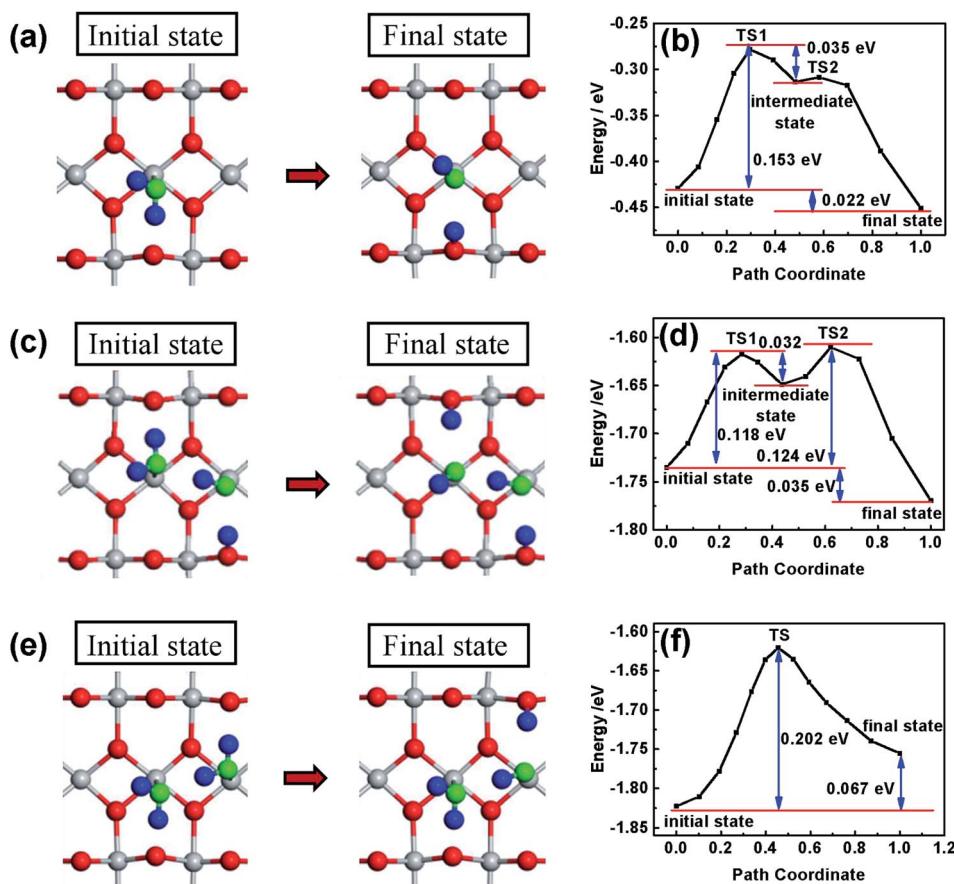


Fig. 4 A slab model of the rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  (110) surface with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  adsorbed on  $\text{Ti}$  atoms. Grey and red spheres represent the oxygen and titanium atoms from  $\text{TiO}_2$ , respectively. Blue and green spheres represent hydrogen and oxygen from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , respectively. The initial and final states of the first  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecule dissociated on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  (110) surface (a) and the corresponding reaction path (b); the initial and final states of the second  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecule dissociated on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  (110) surface with the dissociated  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecule (c) and the corresponding reaction path (d); the initial and final states of the second  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecule dissociated on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  (110) surface with non-dissociated  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (e) and the corresponding reaction path (f).

heat treatment on the density of photo-generated carriers is negligible. Therefore, the higher photocurrent of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after treatment in the electrolyte with  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  mainly comes from the improved separation efficiency, which is further confirmed using the PL spectra (Fig. 3e). The PL decreases after the heat treatment at 200 °C. The XPS data (Fig. S4†) suggest that there are no oxygen vacancies on the surface. According to the literature, it is possible that the PL peak comes from carrier recombination in the bulk or subsurface oxygen vacancies.<sup>34,47,48</sup> The surface hydrated layer decreases carrier recombination in the bulk/subsurface by transferring the carriers from the bulk to the hydrated interface layer very fast. The photocurrent increase (23%) in the electrolyte with the hole sacrificial agent is similar to that (30%) in the basic solution, so the photocurrent increase in the basic solution mainly comes from improved interface charge collection by decreasing carrier recombination. Moreover, the photocurrent increase in the acidic solution is 75% at 1.23 V<sub>RHE</sub>, much higher than the increase in the basic solution. It is likely that the photocurrent increase in the acidic solution does not arise only from the improved interface charge collection. There are still other reasons for the improved performance in the acidic electrolyte. Some previous studies suggested that

the pH of the electrolyte can influence the oxygen evolution reaction kinetics.<sup>49</sup> Therefore, it is possible that the surface hydroxylation can also promote OER kinetics in the acidic solution.

Different from that in the basic solution,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules and not  $\text{OH}^-$  are adsorbed on the surface of the oxides in the acidic solution. In order to investigate the effect of the surface hydroxylation on OER kinetics in the acidic solution, the water molecule dissociation process on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is simulated by DFT calculation and the results are shown in Fig. 4.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules are chemically adsorbed on the surface of bare  $\text{TiO}_2$  as the initial state, with water dissociation as the final state (see Fig. 4a and b). Though the water dissociation reaction is exothermic, there is an energy barrier height of about 0.153 eV, which suggests that activation energy is necessary to dissociate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The results can explain the  $\text{OH}^-$  content increase after heat treatment only at temperatures higher than 100 °C (see Fig. 2). The reaction of water and the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface occurs following the equation  $\text{TiO}_2 + x\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{TiO}_{2-x}(\text{OH})_{2x}$ . The low-temperature heat treatment can increase the content of  $\text{OH}^-$  in the hydrated surface layer by activating the water dissociation reaction. In previous studies, an

electrochemical method (treatment energy of about 1 eV) was usually used to treat a  $\text{TiO}_2$  photoelectrode to achieve surface hydroxylation,<sup>20,22</sup> which caused decreased photocurrent near the onset potential. However, no decreased photocurrent near the onset potential is observed after the heat treatment, possibly because the heat treatment is mild and does not change the bulk. On the surface with the first water dissociation, the dissociation of the second adsorbed water molecule is also exothermic (see Fig. 4c and d). There are two important variations in this case: the first is a decrease in the largest energy barrier from 0.153 to 0.118 eV, indicating that water molecules dissociate more easily; the second is that the reaction energy increases from 0.022 to 0.035 eV, indicating that the dissociation state is more stable and the reverse reaction of water decomposition occurs with more difficulty. However, if the first adsorbed water molecule on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is not dissociated, the dissociation of the second adsorbed water molecule is more difficult, because of the higher energy barrier (0.202 eV) (see Fig. 4e and f). Most importantly, the dissociation of the second water molecule turns into an endothermic reaction, indicating that the dissociation state is relatively unstable and the reverse reaction of water decomposition easily occurs. In the acidic solution,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  reacting with the surface of oxides is the first step of water oxidation, which is significant for OER kinetics.<sup>50</sup> Therefore, the heat treatment can dissociate water molecules and accelerate OER kinetics.

According to the above results and analysis, a possible mechanism for the improved performance after the heat treatment is proposed in Fig. 5. After the heat treatment, some  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules are dissociated on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , which leads to a higher  $\text{OH}^-$  content in the hydrated surface layer. When  $\text{TiO}_2$

is immersed into the electrolyte for photoelectrocatalytic water splitting, a two-step successive interface charge transfer process will occur (see Fig. 5). The first step is the collection of photo-generated holes by the hydrated interface layer from the bulk of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , according to the following reaction:<sup>50-52</sup>  $\text{Ti}^{+4}\text{O}_{2-x}(\text{OH})_{2x} + \text{h}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{Ti}^{+4}\text{O}^{-1}\text{O}_{1-x}(\text{OH})_{2x+1} + \text{H}^+$ . The second step is the transfer of holes from the oxidized hydrated interface layer to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{OH}^-$  to produce oxygen. In the first step, when the hydrated interface layer is oxidized by the photo-generated holes, it simultaneously releases  $\text{H}^+$  into the electrolyte to maintain the electrical neutrality. The coupled electron and ion transfer process is fast and reversible and is called a faradaic reaction.<sup>10</sup> For an extrinsic faradaic layer ( $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  or  $\text{CoPi}$ ) on a photoanode, metal ions are usually oxidized and their valence states become higher under illumination.<sup>53</sup> However, herein, the valence state of  $\text{Ti}^{+4}$  in the hydrated interface layer does not change, but the valence state of  $\text{O}^{2-}$  becomes higher ( $\text{Ti}^{+4}-\text{O}^{-1}$  species). And for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , a faradaic reaction,  $\text{Fe}^{+3}\text{OOH} + \text{h}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{Fe}^{+4}\text{O}_2 + \text{H}^+$ , occurs through the oxidation of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in the hydrated layer to  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$ .<sup>54,55</sup> In the faradaic reaction, the transfer rate of ions is much slower than that of electrons. Therefore, the ion transfer is a rate-limiting step in the faradaic reaction.<sup>56</sup> After the heat treatment, the  $\text{OH}^-$  in the hydrated interface layer becomes higher, which can make ions permeate more easily and improve the collection efficiency of photo-generated holes from the bulk of  $\text{TiO}_2$ .<sup>14,57</sup> Therefore, the heat-regulated interface layer can improve the first step of interface charge transfer, which is independent of the pH of the electrolyte. For the second step of interface charge transfer, different OER kinetics processes occur in the basic and acidic solutions, respectively. In the basic solution,  $\text{OH}^-$  is oxidized (see Fig. 5a), which is

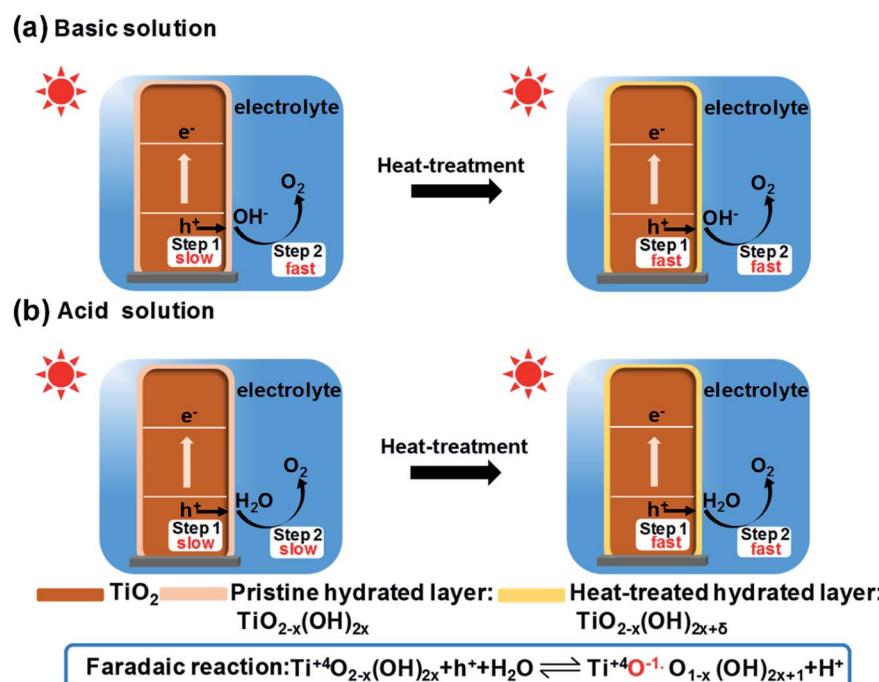


Fig. 5 A possible mechanism of improved performance of an oxide photoelectrode after the heat treatment in basic (a) and acidic solutions (b), respectively.



favorable kinetically.<sup>58</sup> Therefore, the heat treatment mainly improves the first and not the second step of interface charge transfer in the basic solution. However, in the acidic solution, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecule is oxidized (see Fig. 5b), which is slow and should be initiated by water dissociation (see Fig. 4). The heat-treated interface layer with higher  $\text{OH}^-$  can lower the activation energy of water dissociation and accelerate OER kinetics. Therefore, the heat treatment enhances both the first (interface charge separation) and the second step (OER kinetics) of the interface charge transfer in the acidic solution, just like the role of an extrinsic faradaic layer.<sup>12</sup> Therefore, the photocurrent increase in the acidic solution is much higher than that in the basic solution.

### 3 Conclusions

We propose a mild heat-treatment method to regulate the intrinsic hydrated layer of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and improve their photoelectrochemical performance remarkably. The heat treatment does not change the bulk, but increases the  $\text{OH}^-$  content in the hydrated layer on the surface of the oxide samples. Moreover, the effects of the intrinsic hydrated layer on the photoelectrochemical properties are investigated in basic and acidic solutions. In the basic solution, the regulated hydrated layer only increases the interface charge collection. However, in the acidic solution, the regulated hydrated layer improves both interface charge collection and OER kinetics. The regulated hydrated layer plays a role as a hole mediator between the oxide and electrolyte, just like an extrinsic faradaic layer. Therefore, we propose a new concept of an intrinsic faradaic layer on the surface of oxides. The hydrated layers exist on the surfaces of not only oxides, but also non-oxides. Therefore, the new insights into the intrinsic faradaic layer can also offer guidance to improve the performance of non-oxide photoelectrodes. Moreover, the concept of the intrinsic hydrated layer possibly has significant effects on interface charge transfer in other fields, such as photocatalysis, dye-sensitized solar cells, photoinduced superhydrophilicity and so on.

### Author contributions

W. L. supervised the project, proposed the concept and designed the experiments. Z. Y. carried out sample preparation, characterization and electrochemical measurements; Z. Z. carried out the DFT calculation. W. L. and Z. Y. analyzed the data and wrote the paper. All the authors discussed the results and gave comments on the manuscript.

### Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

### Acknowledgements

The authors thank Prof. Bin Liu and Ms. Yimeng Sang at Nanjing University for their help in photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy characterization of samples. This work was

supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2017YFE0120700), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21875105), the National Scientific Instrument Development Major Project of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51627810), and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (021314380139 and 021014380115).

### References

- 1 A. Fujishima and K. Honda, *Nature*, 1972, **238**, 37–38.
- 2 X. Chen, L. Liu, P. Y. Yu and S. S. Mao, *Science*, 2011, **331**, 746–750.
- 3 B. O'Regan and M. Grätzel, *Nature*, 1991, **353**, 737–740.
- 4 R. Wang, K. Hashimoto, A. Fujishima, M. Chikuni, E. Kojima, A. Kitamura, M. Shimohigoshi and T. Watanabe, *Nature*, 1997, **338**, 431–432.
- 5 D. Wang, F. Niu, M. J. Mortelliti, M. V. Sheridan, B. D. Sherman, Y. Zhu, J. R. McBride, J. L. Dempsey, S. Shen, C. J. Dares, F. Li and T. J. Meyer, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2019, 201821687.
- 6 K. Onda, B. Li, J. Zhao, K. D. Jordan, J. Yang and H. Petek, *Science*, 2005, **308**, 1154–1158.
- 7 A. Fujishima, X. Zhang and D. Tryk, *Surf. Sci. Rep.*, 2008, **63**, 515–582.
- 8 K. Nie, S. Kashtanov, Y. Wei, Y. S. Liu, H. Zhang, M. Kapilashrami, Y. Ye, P. A. Glans, J. Zhong, L. Vayssieres, X. Sun and J. Guo, *Nano Energy*, 2018, **53**, 483–491.
- 9 L. Han, S. Dong and E. Wang, *Adv. Mater.*, 2016, **28**, 9266–9291.
- 10 Y. Shao, M. F. El-Kady, J. Sun, Y. Li, Q. Zhang, M. Zhu, H. Wang, B. Dunn and R. B. Kaner, *Chem. Rev.*, 2018, **118**, 9233–9280.
- 11 X. Chen, K. Zhu, P. Wang, G. Sun, Y. Yao, W. Luo and Z. Zou, *iScience*, 2020, **23**, 100949.
- 12 F. A. L. Laskowski, M. R. Nellist, J. Qiu and S. W. Boettcher, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2019, **141**, 1394–1405.
- 13 T. W. Kim and K. S. Choi, *Science*, 2014, **343**, 990–994.
- 14 F. Lin and S. W. Boettcher, *Nat. Mater.*, 2014, **13**, 81–86.
- 15 J. Y. Kim, D. H. Youn, K. Kang and J. S. Lee, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2016, **55**, 10854–10858.
- 16 H. Tamura, A. Tanaka, K. Mita and R. Furuichi, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 1999, **209**, 225–231.
- 17 Z. T. Wang, J. C. Garcia, N. A. Deskins and I. Lyubinetsky, *Phys. Rev. B: Condens. Matter Mater. Phys.*, 2015, **92**, 081402.
- 18 Z. Jakub, F. Kraushofer, M. Bichler, J. Balajka, J. Hulva, J. Pavelec, I. Sokolović, M. Müllner, M. Setvin, M. Schmid, U. Diebold, P. Blaha and G. S. Parkinson, *ACS Energy Lett.*, 2019, **4**, 390–396.
- 19 R. Martinez-Casado, G. Mallia, N. M. Harrison and R. Pérez, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2018, **122**, 20736–20744.
- 20 H. Zhu, M. Zhao, J. Zhou, W. Li, H. Wang, Z. Xu, L. Lu, L. Pei, Z. Shi, S. Yan, Z. Li and Z. Zou, *Appl. Catal., B*, 2018, **234**, 100–108.
- 21 D. Zhang, M. Yang and S. Dong, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2015, **119**, 1451–1456.
- 22 B. H. Meekins and P. V. Kamat, *ACS Nano*, 2009, **3**, 3437–3446.



23 Y. Li and H. Chen, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2016, **4**, 14974–14977.

24 S. Jiang, Y. Li, X. Zhang and Y. Li, *Catal. Today*, 2016, **259**, 360–367.

25 M. Pyeon, T.-P. Ruoko, J. Leduc, Y. Gönüllü, M. Deo, N. V. Tkachenko and S. Mathur, *J. Mater. Res.*, 2018, **33**, 455–466.

26 D. J. Michalak, S. R. Amy, D. Aureau, M. Dai, A. Estève and Y. J. Chabal, *Nat. Mater.*, 2010, **9**, 266–271.

27 M. Sato, Y. Imazeki, K. Fujii, Y. Nakano and M. Sugiyama, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2019, **150**, 154703.

28 X. Xia, J. Luo, Z. Zeng, C. Guan, Y. Zhang, J. Tu, H. Zhang and H. J. Fan, *Sci. Rep.*, 2012, **2**, 981.

29 T. Wang, W. Luo, X. Wen, Z. Zou and W. Huang, *ChemNanoMat*, 2016, **2**, 652–655.

30 D. A. H. Hanaor and C. C. Sorrell, *J. Mater. Sci.*, 2011, **46**, 855–874.

31 X. Lu, G. Wang, T. Zhai, M. Yu, J. Gan, Y. Tong and Y. Li, *Nano Lett.*, 2012, **12**, 1690–1696.

32 J. G. Yu, H. G. Yu, B. Cheng, X. J. Zhao, J. C. Yu and W. K. Ho, *J. Phys. Chem. B*, 2003, **107**, 13871–13879.

33 W. Luo, C. Jiang, Y. Li, S. A. Shevlin, X. Han, K. Qiu, Y. Cheng, Z. Guo, W. Huang and J. Tang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2017, **5**, 2021–2028.

34 Y. Zhang, Z. Xu, G. Li, X. Huang, W. Hao and Y. Bi, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2019, **58**, 14229–14233.

35 F. Dong, Q. Li, Y. Sun and W. K. Ho, *ACS Catal.*, 2014, **4**, 4341–4350.

36 M. Kang, E. D. Park, J. M. Kim and J. E. Yie, *Appl. Catal., A*, 2007, **327**, 261–269.

37 G. Greczynski and L. Hultman, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2020, **59**, 5002–5006.

38 G. Li, L. Li, J. Boerio-Goates and B. F. Woodfield, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2005, **127**, 8659–8666.

39 N. G. Petrik and G. A. Kimmel, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2009, **113**, 4451–4460.

40 M. I. Said, *J. Alloys Compd.*, 2020, **819**, 152976.

41 D. Walter, *Thermochim. Acta*, 2006, **445**, 195–199.

42 K. Liu, M. Cao, A. Fujishima and L. Jiang, *Chem. Rev.*, 2014, **114**, 10044–10094.

43 Z. Luo, H. Zhang, Y. Yang, X. Wang, Y. Li, Z. Jin, Z. Jiang, C. Liu, W. Xing and J. Ge, *Nat. Commun.*, 2020, **11**, 1116.

44 Y. Kuang, Q. Jia, H. Nishiyama, T. Yamada, A. Kudo and K. Domen, *Adv. Energy Mater.*, 2016, **6**, 1501645.

45 H. Dotan, K. Sivula, M. Grätzel, A. Rothschild and S. C. Warren, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2011, **4**, 958–964.

46 Q. Meng, B. Zhang, L. Fan, H. Liu, M. Valvo, K. Edström, M. Cuartero, R. Marco, G. A. Crespo and L. Sun, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2019, **131**, 19203–19209.

47 A. Samokhvalov, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2017, **121**, 21985–21994.

48 B. Santara, P. K. Giri, K. Imakita and M. Fujii, *J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys.*, 2014, **47**, 215302.

49 Y. Liu, F. Le Formal, F. Boudoire and N. Guijarro, *ACS Appl. Energy Mater.*, 2019, **2**, 6825–6833.

50 R. Nakamura and Y. Nakato, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2007, **129**, 11569–11579.

51 R. Nakamura and Y. Nakato, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2004, **126**, 1290–1298.

52 P. Salvador, *Prog. Surf. Sci.*, 2011, **86**, 41–58.

53 G. Wang, Y. Ling, X. Lu, T. Zhai, F. Qian, Y. Tong and Y. Li, *Nanoscale*, 2013, **5**, 4129.

54 T. Takashima, K. Ishikawa and H. Irie, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2016, **120**, 24827–24834.

55 B. Klahr and T. Hamann, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2014, **118**, 10393–10399.

56 Y. S. Kim, S. Kriegel, K. D. Harris, C. Costentin, B. Limoges and V. Balland, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2017, **121**, 10325–10335.

57 G. Tocci and A. Michaelides, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2014, **5**, 474–480.

58 F. Ambrosio, J. Wiktor and A. Pasquarello, *ACS Energy Lett.*, 2018, **3**, 829–834.

