PCCP

Accepted Manuscript

This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](http://www.rsc.org/Publishing/Journals/guidelines/AuthorGuidelines/JournalPolicy/accepted_manuscripts.asp).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](http://www.rsc.org/help/termsconditions.asp) and the **Ethical guidelines** still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

www.rsc.org/pccp

The Interactions between TiO2 and Graphene with Surface Inhomogeneity determined using Density Functional Theory

Brandon Bukowski, N. Aaron Deskins* Worcester Polytechnic Institute Department of Chemical Engineering Worcester, MA 01609

* Corresponding author: nadeskins@wpi.edu

Abstract:

 $TiO₂/graphene$ composites have shown promise as photocatalysts, leading to improved electronic properties. We have modeled using density functional theory $TiO₂/graphene$ interfaces formed between graphene with various defects/functional groups (C vacancy, epoxide, and hydroxyl) and $TiO₂$ clusters of various sizes. We considered clusters from 3 to 45 atoms, the latter a nanoparticle of \sim 1 nm in size. Our results show that binding to pristine graphene is dominated by van der Waals forces, and that C vacancies or epoxide groups lead to much stronger binding between the graphene and $TiO₂$. Such sites may serve to anchor $TiO₂$ to graphene. Graphene surfaces with hydroxyls however lead to OH transfer to $TiO₂$ and weak interactions between the graphene and the hydroxylated $TiO₂$ cluster. Charge transfer may occur between $TiO₂$ and graphene in various directions (graphene to $TiO₂$ or $TiO₂$ to graphene), depending on the state of the graphene surface, based on overlap of the density of states. Our work indicates that graphene surface defects or functional groups may have a significant effect on the stability, structure, and photoactivity of these materials.

1. Introduction

Graphene has received enormous attention since its discovery and has been pursued for catalytic, photocatalytic, energy storage, electronic, and various other purposes¹⁻⁷. It has unique electronic properties (e.g. high electron mobility) and is composed of an abundant element, namely carbon, which makes it economically attractive. Graphene/semiconductor composites show promise for use in photocatalytic, photovoltaic, and electrochemical devices^{1, 8-10}. One such promising composite is graphene/ $TiO₂$. $TiO₂$ is a prototypical metal oxide used for photocatalytic and photovoltaic processes. In such composites a number of interesting effects are proposed to occur during photocatalysis¹. The semiconductor (such as a metal oxide) may enable photoexcitation of electrons, while the graphene may act as a fast charge transporter. Such materials may impair electron-hole recombination (such recombination limits the net photoexcitation yield) by exploiting the higher mobility of charge transferred into the graphene sheet and thus separating holes and electrons generated in the semiconductor. The presence of graphene may also act as a sensitizer by extending photo-absorption into the visible region $11-13$. Finally new reaction sites may exist at the interface, which increase the overall reactivity. Identifying the reasons as to why graphene-based composite materials behave so well and strategies for improving such composites is an important, on-going area of research.

A number of experimental studies have been performed on graphene/ $TiO₂$, as attested by recent review articles^{1, 9, 14, 15}. There have also been several theoretical studies of graphene/ $TiO₂$ materials using density functional theory (DFT). Some papers have focused on smaller TiO₂ clusters (a prototype for larger TiO₂ materials), typically 3 to 12 atoms in size¹⁶⁻²². Both pure graphene, as well as graphene with functional groups/defects have been considered in these small cluster studies. Binding energies of the $TiO₂$ clusters to graphene and their electronic configurations (e.g. density of states) have typically been calculated in these studies. New electronic states can form as the graphene and $TiO₂$ interact with each other, which can potentially improve photocatalytic properties of the graphene/TiO₂ system¹⁶. It was also found that strong interactions between adsorbed molecules, such as H_2 or CO, occur with the composite materials¹⁹⁻²¹. A recent paper modeled Fe-doped $TiO₂$ nanostructures (up to 48 atoms) over graphene and found strong binding between the graphene and $TiO₂$ at graphene carboxylate sites²³.

Still another set of other papers has modeled extended $TiO₂$ surfaces interacting with pristine (meaning defect-free herein) graphene sheets^{13, 24-29}. These studies have employed periodic boundary conditions to model surfaces of $TiO₂$ (either anatase or rutile phases) and have provided many details on the electronic structure of such graphene composites. These previous DFT results show that new electronic bands (compared to $TiO₂$ or graphene alone) may occur in $TiO₂/graph$ ene composites, and these states may explain the increased photo-activity of $TiO₂/graphene$ composites. Charge separation (which leads to more photoexcitation yield) may occur due to physically separated electronic bands on the two materials^{13, 24, 27}. The band gap of composite may also be reduced, leading to potential photoabsorption in the visible region of light^{25, 27, 30}. Another paper³¹ modeled graphene/glycine/TiO₂ systems, and also modeled graphene oxide in the vicinity of glycine or $TiO₂$. Thin-layer anatase over graphene and graphene oxide have also been simulated³². These DFT papers have provided much insight on graphene/ $TiO₂$ systems, but full details on the effect of graphene defects or surface functional groups in

these composites are still unknown. Several papers even present contradictory results (such as in photoexcitation analysis)^{25, 27, 32}, further confusing our understanding of these materials.

Indeed, defects and surface groups may be very prevalent in many graphene systems. There are several methods to synthesize graphene, involving chemical, physical, and mechanical approaches³³⁻³⁵. The properties of graphene sheets may vary depending on the type and quantity of defects and surface groups^{36, 37}. A common approach³⁸ forms graphene oxide (which consists of graphene with various chemical groups such as hydroxyls, carboxyls, or epoxides) from pure graphite. Exfoliated or separated graphene oxide sheets are further reduced to form reduced graphene oxide (rGO). The aim of producing rGO is to obtain sheets as close as possible to pristine graphene. rGO however may have a significant number of defects and surface species. Previous literature results also indicate that the O content may be significant in reduced graphene oxide³⁸⁻⁴⁰. Graphene oxide/TiO₂ composites have also been shown to be promising photocatalysts^{41,} 42 .

The current paper was motivated to understand many of the details of the interface between $TiO₂$ and non-pristine graphene (i.e. containing defects or oxygencontaining groups). Several of the $TiO₂$ cluster/graphene studies¹⁶⁻²¹ considered graphene with vacancies, hydroxyls, or oxygen-containing groups, but only modeled small $TiO₂$ molecular species. The work on $TiO₂$ slabs/graphene systems has tended to only consider pure graphene. The current paper provides more details on $TiO₂/graphene$ composites by using DFT to model TiO₂ clusters in various sizes (up to \sim 1 nm in size or 45 atoms) and graphene. Interactions between large $TiO₂$ clusters and graphene have not been

previously performed. We consider in this work pure graphene, as well as graphene sheets with hydroxyl groups, epoxy groups, and C vacancies. We modeled several $TiO₂$ clusters over graphene. Our work highlights the important role that graphene defects and surface groups may play in graphene/ $TiO₂$ systems.

2. Computational Methodology

We performed spin-polarized DFT calculations with the mixed Gaussian and plane wave (GPW) approach⁴³ to optimize the graphene/TiO₂ structures. A double zeta basis set⁴⁴ was used for all atom types to treat valence electrons, while pseudopotentials of the Goedecker-Teter-Hutter type^{45, 46} were used for core electrons. The exchangecorrelation functional used was the Perdew, Burke, Ernzerhoff (PBE) functional⁴⁷. Van der Waals forces were approximated using the correction of Grimme⁴⁸. All geometry relaxations were performed with the CP2K code^{49, 50}, utilizing periodic boundary conditions. Only the gamma point was sampled in reciprocal space. Calculations were spin-polarized.

Once optimized geometries were found using the CP2K code, single point calculations using the Vienna *ab initio* software package (VASP)⁵¹⁻⁵⁴ were performed to obtain accurate electronic structures and density of states (DOS). The VASP calculations used a 4x4x1 *k*-point mesh with a 400 eV energy cutoff for the plane-wave basis set. Core electrons were treated by planewave augmented wavefunction (PAW) potentials^{55,} ⁵⁶. We applied a U correction on the VASP calculations in order to get more accurate electronic states. We used the approach of Dudarev et al.⁵⁷ and a U value of 4.5 eV applied to the Ti d states. In our previous work⁵⁸ we used a U value of 4.5 eV for plane

wave calculations, which is similar to the 4.2 eV value utilized by Morgan and Watson^{59,} ⁶⁰ and Shibuya et al⁶¹. A U value of 4.5 eV has also been used by other work^{62, 63}.⁶⁴, particularly since this U value. One paper⁶⁵ modeled $TiO₂$ clusters and indicated that a U value of 4.5 eV was suitable for such work. Our choice of 4.5 eV for the U value is therefore in alignment with previous literature values. Overall, this combination of CP2K and VASP allowed fast, efficient optimization (CP2K) combined with accurate calculations of electronic structure (VASP).

The structures of (TiO_2) _n clusters were taken from the work of Qu and Kroes⁶⁶ for n=1, 3, 5, and 8, and from Hamad et al.⁶⁷ for the $n = 15$ cluster. Structures from these reports were re-optimized using CP2K and are shown in Figure 1. This last cluster of n=15 had a diameter near 9 Å, or \sim 1 nm. The adsorption energies of clusters bound to the graphene surfaces were defined as follows:

$$
E_{adsorption} = E_{(TiO_2)n+graphene} - (E_{(TiO_2)n} + E_{graphene})
$$
 (1)

A graphene (6x6) surface supercell was constructed for the simulations and had dimensions of 14.82 Å x 14.82 Å x 25.00 Å with two non-orthogonal surface vectors. This supercell is shown in Figure 3a. The graphene lattice parameter was determined by minimization of the lattice parameter with respect to energy, and found to be 2.47 \AA , in good agreement with the experimental value of 2.46 Å. Various defects were added to the sheet, as discussed further. The large vacuum spacing of 25 Å ensured that graphene sheets did not interact with each other.

As Figure 3 shows, the graphene surface has a honeycomb shape where each carbon atom is bound to three surrounding carbon atoms. There are three high-symmetry adsorption sites, being top over a carbon atom, bridging between two carbon atoms, and

Page 7 of 42 Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics

over a hollow site surrounded by six carbon atoms. The inclusion of defects or surface groups further complicates the adsorption process. Our strategy for adsorption of the $TiO₂$ clusters was to place the clusters at several initial configurations and allow full geometry optimization. This approach gave several stable adsorption sites for each cluster. We report only the most stable sites in the main body of the text.

Figure 1. Illustration of (TiO_2) _n clusters modeled in the current work. We considered clusters with $n=1,3,5,8$, and 15. Ti atoms are represented by grey spheres while O atoms are represented by red spheres.

We performed several tests to determine the accuracy of our method. We adsorbed $(TiO₂)₁$ and $(TiO₂)₃$ clusters over pristine graphene surfaces and compared with literature values. We calculated adsorption energies of -1.15 eV and -1.57 eV for n=1 and $n=3$ clusters, respectively. For the $n = 1$ cluster, several adsorption energies in the literature have been reported: -0.8 eV¹⁷, -1.22 eV¹⁸, -1.27 eV²⁰, and -1.55 eV¹⁹. Geng et al.¹⁶ calculated an adsorption energy of -1.08 eV for an $n=3$ cluster. Our current

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript

computational approach gives adsorption energies in reasonable agreement with previous literature values, which were largely based on calculations using a plane-wave basis set while we used a Gaussian basis set. We also calculated band gaps of the bare lone $TiO₂$ clusters and compare with literature values in Figure 2. Our band gaps were calculated using the VASP program since VASP provides robust k-point sampling, a necessity for accurate electronic structures. The reference DFT values were taken from various papers in the literature^{66, 68, 69}. Two of the papers shown in Figure 2^{66} , ⁶⁸ used the B3LYP exchange correlation functional (see References 70, 71 for further details on the B3LYP functional) and Gaussian basis set, which could explain why these two data sets disagree by 1 to 2 eV from our calculated band gaps. Values from Calatayud and Minot⁶⁹ were performed using VASP, although with ultrasoft pseudopotentials^{72, 73} and a different functional, PW91 74 . Some geometries also differed from our paper and that of Calatayud and Minot, in part due to the difficulty in identifying ground-state structures for such clusters. Our band gap results, however, do show good agreement with these previous DFT calculations and the overall trends with regards to cluster size are consistent across the different calculations. We further note that the current work utilized the PBE functional which is a common generalized gradient approximation (GGA) functional while other previously-mentioned work may have used other functionals, such as B3LYP or PW91. Thus we do not expect the calculated numbers (whether binding energies or band gaps) to agree exactly when comparing our results with all other work. But even when using different functionals the calculated binding energies or band gaps should give similar answers, at least similar order of magnitude or having similar trends. Our analysis

here indicates that our work is consistent with previous work, giving confidence to our results.

Figure 2. Calculated band gaps of gas-phase clusters from the current work compared to results from the literature^{66, $68, 69$}.

We also briefly discuss the van der Waals correction used in this work. As a matter of practicality we have used the Grimme-type corrections⁴⁸ since this method was the van der Waals method implemented in the CP2K version we started this work with. Newer corrections have become available in subsequent versions that specifically include nonlocal additions to the exchange correlation functional to account for dispersion, namely the DF⁷⁵ and DF2⁷⁶ functionals. We ran select calculations with the n = 1 to 5 clusters over graphene surfaces to test the how these different van der Waals corrections could affect our results. Table 1 gives a summary of these calculations. The results show

hysical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript

that the Grimme-type corrections overbind the clusters in all cases compared to the nonlocal functional methods but that the differences however are typically on the order of 0.2-0.3 eV, a relatively small difference. There are a variety of other functionals that account for dispersion and it is unclear which approach should be used in the current system. The trends in adsorption and overall conclusions however are not affected by the use of the Grimme-type corrections, and we therefore used this method in the current work.

surfaces with various van der waars corrections.					
TiO ₂ Cluster					
$n=5$					
-0.36					
-1.24					
-0.94					
-0.94					

Table 1. Adsorption energies in eV for the $n = 1$ to 5 TiO₂ clusters over pristine graphene surfaces with various van der Waals corrections.

* Used in the current work.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 TiO2 Clusters

We first optimized lone $(TiO_2)_n$ clusters as presented in Figure 1. We modeled clusters with $n = 1, 3, 5, 8$, and 15; or 3, 9, 15, 24, or 45 total atoms respectively for the clusters. For each given cluster size there are a number of possible structural isomers. We only considered the most stable, as identified by the works of Qu and Kroes⁶⁶ for $n \leq 8$ and Hamad et al.⁶⁷ for $n = 15$. In bulk TiO₂ Ti atoms bond to six O atoms, and O atoms bond to three Ti atoms. Because of their small size, a number of atoms in the clusters are under-coordinated, especially the surface atoms. Generally under-coordinated atoms tend to be the most reactive.

The clusters we used in this study can be described as follows. The n=1 cluster had a bent geometry with the Ti atom bond to two O atoms, designated Ti_{2c} to indicate coordination, while the O atoms only bond to one Ti atom, designated O_{1c} or onecoordinated. The n=3 cluster had two Ti_{3c} and one Ti_{2c}, as well as O_{1c} , O_{2c} , and O_{3c} . In the n=5 cluster all Ti atoms were four-coordinated, while there were two O_{1c} , one O_{4c} , and seven O_{2c} . In the n=8 cluster all Ti atoms were four-coordinated, with the exception of one Ti which was three-coordinated. The O atoms were all two-coordinated, except one O atom which was one-coordinated. Finally, in the $n=15$ cluster there were one Ti_{6c} , eight Ti_{5c} , and six Ti_{4c} . All the O atoms were two-coordinated, except three atoms which were three-coordinated and three others which were four-coordinated. Thus, as cluster sizes increased, the atoms tend to adopt higher coordination, and eventually will adopt bulk coordination with appropriate cluster size.

3.2 Graphene surfaces

We considered four different graphene surfaces in this work: pure graphene, graphene with a hydroxyl defect, epoxide defect, and C vacancy. The surfaces are shown in Figure 3. Epoxide defects were introduced into the supercell by adsorbing single oxygen atoms on the surface and in the relaxed geometry the oxygen atom prefers to occupy a bridge site. Hydroxyl defects on the graphene surface were modeled by adsorbing an OH group at a top site. Such geometries for hydroxyl and epoxide groups have been shown previously (see for example Ref. 77). We also modeled surfaces with a single C vacancy, a defect experimentally observed that leads to a slight distortion around the vacancy site³⁶. The rationale behind using these surfaces was to model how the $TiO₂$ would interact with flat graphene sheets as well as defects that are expected to form during typical synthesis procedures.

Figure 3. Illustration of graphene surfaces used in the current work. (a) pristine graphene. (b) graphene with C vacancy. (c) graphene with epoxide. (d) graphene with hydroxyl. C atoms are represented by dark grey spheres, O atoms are represented by red spheres, and H atoms are represented by white spheres.

3.3. TiO2 over pristine graphene

We modeled adsorption of the various $TiO₂$ clusters over pristine (defect-free) graphene, as shown in Figure 4. These results were obtained utilizing the CP2K program, and notably PBE exchange correlation functional and Grimme-type van der Waals corrections. All the $TiO₂$ clusters were bound to the surfaces with adsorption energies in

the range of -1.15 and -1.57 eV (see Table 1), and binding distances (either lowest Ti-C or O-C distances) varied between 2.43 and 2.87 Å. The $n = 1$ cluster had an adsorption energy of -1.15 eV, and was bound through a Ti-C interaction where the Ti atom was slightly off from the top site. The smallest Ti-C distance was 2.51 Å while the smallest O-C distance was 3.10 Å. There were a number of adsorption geometries (not shown) with similar adsorption energies (within 0.05 eV) indicating poor adsorption site selectivity. Cluster sizes of $n=3$ and 5 showed similar results with Ti-C distances being 2.43 and 2.67 Å (2.99 and 2.89 Å for O-C distances), while most stable adsorption energies were calculated to be -1.57 and -1.24 eV, respectively. For the n=1,3, and 5 clusters at least one Ti atom (see Figure 4) appears to bind with the graphene surface. We mention previous DFT studies that modeled $TiO₂$ clusters over pristine graphene. Adsorption energies for the $n = 1$ cluster have been reported to be -0.8 eV¹⁷, -1.22 eV¹⁸, -1.27 eV²⁰, and -1.55 eV¹⁹. These values are similar to calculated adsorption energy of -1.15 eV. For $n = 3$, values of -1.08 eV¹⁶ and -3.43 eV²² have been reported. This latter value is inconsistent with the current results (calculated to be -1.57 eV), and this same reference indicated that van der Waals corrections had negligible effect on their adsorption energy, which is also inconsistent with the current results (discussed below). Results for larger clusters (n of 5 or greater) are unavailable in the literature to the author's best knowledge.

Figure 4. Most stable adsorption sites of TiO₂ clusters over pristine graphene. Results are for clusters of size (a) $n=1$, (b) $n=3$, (c) $n=5$, (d) $n=8$, and (e) $n=15$. Color scheme is same as Figures 1 and 3 with light grey spheres representing Ti atoms. The numbers indicate the adsorption energies.

the TDE exercities correlation functional and van der Waals corrections of Orminic.				
TiO ₂ Cluster	Pristine		Graphene with Graphene with Graphene with	
Size	Graphene	C Vacancy	Epoxide	Hydroxyl
	-1.15	-4.60	-2.47	-2.88
	-1.57	-2.36	-2.93	-3.59
	-1.24	-1.50	-2.48	-2.40
	-1.20	-1.75	-2.53	-2.75
	-1.09	-2.35	-2.93	-3.05

Table 2. Calculated adsorption energies for the $TiO₂$ clusters over various graphene surfaces. Values are given in eV. Results were obtained with the CP2K program utilizing the PBE exchange correlation functional and van der Waals corrections of Grimme.

We further explored the adsorption energy landscape for the $n = 1$ cluster by moving the cluster across the surface, fixing the Ti atom's x- and y-coordinates while allowing the rest of the surface and cluster to relax. In this manner we were able to further quantify how the $TiO₂$ cluster may interact with a graphene surface. A plot showing adsorption energies with the Ti atom fixed at different locations on the surface can be found in Figure 5. The different adsorption positions of the $TiO₂$ cluster differ at most by only 0.05 eV. This plot shows that the adsorption energy landscape is very flat, and that the $TiO₂$ cluster can freely move across the graphene surface and is rather mobile. Similar results were reported by Ayissi et al.¹⁸ The lack of strong distinctive adsorption sites on the surface suggests that strong chemical bonding (e.g. covalent) between $TiO₂$ and pristine graphene is not occurring.

Figure 5. Calculated binding energies of the $n=1$ TiO₂ cluster to graphene at various locations on a pristine graphene surface. (a) Indication of sites where the cluster was adsorbed. Site A is at the hexagonal site (in middle of graphene hexagon) while site E is on top of a C atom. (b) Calculated adsorption energies corresponding to the different sites.

Indeed, the bonding mechanism between the pristine graphene and $TiO₂$ appears to primarily involve van der Waals forces. We confirmed this by running adsorption calculations without van der Waals forces. Our original calculations included van der Waals corrections⁴⁸, and when we re-ran the calculations without these corrections the adsorption energies declined significantly, as shown in Figure 6. The adsorption energies without the van der Waals corrections varied between -0.98 (n=3) and -0.29 (n=8) eV. The small clusters had adsorption energies of -0.77 eV (n=1) and -0.98 eV (n=3). The larger clusters had much smaller adsorption energies of -0.36 eV (n=5), -0.29 eV (n=8), and -0.37 eV (n=15). The larger clusters were less bound to the graphene surface by \sim 1 eV without van der Waals corrections. Smaller clusters have more under-coordinated surface atoms, and therefore are more reactive than larger clusters, which explains why

strong adsorption energies are observed for the small clusters even without van der Waals corrections but not for the large clusters. Because it is defect-free, the pristine surface does not provide adsorption sites for strong binding of $TiO₂$ since the C atoms of graphene essentially have filled $sp²$ orbitals. In summary, our calculations show that over pristine graphene van der Waals forces are the dominant mechanism of adhesion for TiO2, and that strong covalent bonding is largely absent.

Figure 6. Comparison of TiO2 adsorption energies over pristine graphene with and without van der Waals corrections.

3.4. TiO2 over Graphene with vacancies

Carbon vacancies in graphene are one common defect. We appropriately modeled a graphene sheet with one carbon vacancy and adsorbed $TiO₂$ clusters in the vicinity of this defect site. Figure 7 and Table 2 show the results of these calculations. The $n = 1$

cluster had the strongest adsorption energy, being -4.60 eV. One O atom bonded to a nearby C atom, while the Ti atom filled the vacancy site between two C atoms. The closest Ti-C distance was 2.08 Å (a typical bond distance), while the closest O-C distance was 1.32 Å. The C atoms bonded to the $TiO₂$ cluster had significant distortions after adsorption, being pulled out of the plane of the graphene sheet. The C atom bonded to the O atom for instance rose \sim 1 Å above the graphene plane upon bonding with the TiO₂ cluster.

We observed similar results for the $n=3$ to 15 clusters upon adsorption near a C vacancy, but the distortions and adsorption energies were not considerable as those for the n=1 cluster. Adsorption energies varied between -1.50 and -2.36 eV for these clusters. Our calculated adsorption energy for the $n = 3$ cluster (-2.36 eV) over a C vacancy is very close to the value reported by Geng et al. $(-2.43 \text{ eV})^{16}$. Ti-C and O-C bond distances also

Figure 7. Most stable adsorption sites of $TiO₂$ clusters over graphene with a single C vacancy. Results are for clusters of size (a) $n=1$, (b) $n=3$, (c) $n=5$, (d) $n=8$, and (e) $n=15$. Color scheme is same as Figures 1 and 3. The numbers indicate the adsorption energies in eV.

varied from 2.08 to 2.42 Å, and 1.32 to 2.85 Å, respectively. The more stable adsorption energies for the clusters near C vacancies compared to the pristine graphene indicate that that covalent bonding may be taking place since the C atoms near the vacancy have unsaturated bonds. This point is further illustrated in Figure 8, which shows the density of states for several carbon atoms, including a carbon atom in pristine graphene, the two carbon atoms near a C vacancy (no cluster adsorbed), and the carbon atom that is bonded to the $(TiO₂)₁₅$ cluster over a surface with carbon vacancy (see Figure 7). This latter atom bonds to the cluster and is raised significantly above the surface. The density of states illustrates that carbon atoms near a vacancy have very different electronic structure than carbon atoms in pristine graphene, which is understandable since the carbon vacancy creates a deficiency in bonds to these atoms. However, upon $TiO₂$ adsorption, the carbon atom that bonds to the cluster develops an electronic structure very similar to carbon atoms in pure graphene (see top and bottom plots in Figure 8). The bonding of this carbon atom to the $TiO₂$ cluster allows the carbon atom to achieve three stable bonds with neighboring atoms, essentially leading to a stable configuration. Furthermore, we analyzed the ratio of the number of s electrons to p electrons in these carbon atoms. Carbon atoms in pure graphene have $sp²$ hybridization and integrating the density of states indicates a calculated s:p ratio of 2.06, very close to the optimal value of 2. However for the carbon atoms near the vacancy, values of 1.87 and 1.84 were calculated. In contrast, the carbon atom near the vacancy that is bonded to the $TiO₂$ cluster has a calculated s:p ratio of 2.02, very similar to the ratio in pure graphene which is fully bonded.

Figure 8. Density of states for various C atoms, including pure graphene, two carbon atoms near a C vacancy, and the C atom bonded to the $n = 15$ cluster in a surface with C vacancy.

We note that similar results of strong binding in C vacancies have been observed for metal clusters binding to graphene, where it has been shown that C vacancies can serve as anchoring sites for metals with significant distortion around the vacancy site^{78, 79}. In contrast, adsorption energies for metal clusters can be much higher in magnitude than the metal oxide clusters. For example the adsorption energy was calculated to be -7.45 eV for a Pt cluster over a C vacancy in graphene⁸⁰. While strong bonding can occur between metal oxide cluster and graphene surface, the ionic nature of the metal oxide clusters leads to relatively weaker bonding compared to the covalent bonding between metal cluster and graphene.

3.5. TiO2 over graphene with epoxides

Introduction of epoxide defects leads to the possibility of strong interactions between O atoms from the graphene surface with Ti atoms in the $TiO₂$ clusters. Our results show adsorption energies between -2.47 and -2.93 eV (Table 2), which are generally larger in magnitude than over pristine graphene or graphene with C vacancy. Indeed, for all the most stable clusters, the O atoms of graphene and Ti atoms of the clusters formed bonds that strongly anchored the clusters to graphene. The Ti-C bond distances ranged between 3.04 and 3.18 Å, which are much larger than previous results reported herein. The Ti-Oepoxide distances however were between 1.86 and 2.00 Å, a distance equivalent to Ti-O bond lengths in $TiO₂$ systems.

Figure 9 shows that the epoxide O atoms serve as anchor sites for the $TiO₂$ clusters. The surface Ti atoms of the clusters are under-coordinated and prefer to bond to O atoms, hence the strong bonding to the epoxide O atoms. Similar behavior was seen in previous DFT studies. Ayissi et al.¹⁸ observed stronger bonding for the $n = 1$ cluster over an edge epoxide site compared to pristine graphene by ~ 0.6 eV, while Geng et al.¹⁶ calculated the binding energy to stabilize by \sim 2.1 eV for the n = 3 cluster over an epoxide compared to pristine graphene. A number of papers have indicated that reduced graphene oxide, a common form of graphene, may have oxygen-containing surface groups, particularly epoxide groups, even after synthesis^{38, 40, 81, 82}. Graphene oxide is another promising photocatalytic material that has an abundant number of epoxide groups and may be interfaced with $TiO₂⁸³⁻⁸⁵$. Our results thus indicate that $TiO₂$ (or other metal oxides) are likely to bind to graphene surface through epoxide groups that may be present

due to the synthesis approach or material. Since $TiO₂$ is so mobile over pristine graphene (see Figure 5), a $TiO₂$ particle may traverse the graphene surface until it encounters a defect, such as epoxide or vacancy, and will become immobile through strong binding to that site. This would indicate that defects and epoxide groups may play an important role in TiO2/graphene heterostructures.

Figure 9. Most stable adsorption sites of $TiO₂$ clusters over graphene with a single epoxide. Results are for clusters of size (a) $n=1$, (b) $n=3$, (c) $n=5$, (d) $n=8$, and (e) $n=15$. Color scheme is same as Figures 1 and 3. The numbers indicate the adsorption energies in eV.

3.6. TiO2 over Graphene with hydroxyls

The last case we considered was adsorption of $TiO₂$ clusters over graphene with surface hydroxyls. Different than previous graphene surfaces studied so far, adsorption of $TiO₂$ clusters led to formation of oxidized $(TiO₂)_nOH$ clusters. The calculated adsorption energies varied between -2.40 and -3.59 eV, similar in magnitude to the epoxide case (see Figure 10). The hydroxyls, however, do not stay bound to the graphene upon transfer to TiO₂. The epoxide O atoms bridged the TiO₂ clusters and graphene (anchoring the TiO₂ to the surface), but no such behavior is observed for the OH groups. The OH groups clearly are part of the $TiO₂$ cluster rather than part of the graphene surface. Indeed, many of the newly formed clusters appear detached from the graphene surface, which we further examine.

We examined the reaction of the OH group with the $TiO₂$ clusters in further detail by considering two different processes, those indicated in Equations 2 and 3.

$$
(\text{TiO}_2)_n + \text{OH}_{\text{graph}} \rightarrow (\text{TiO}_2)_n \text{OH}_{\text{ads}} \quad (2)
$$

$$
(TiO2)nOHads \rightarrow (TiO2)nOHgas
$$
 (3)

Equation 2 represents the energy released upon adsorption/reaction and these energies are shown in Figure 10. Once a $(TiO_2)_nOH$ cluster forms it may desorb into gas phase (Equation 3). If the interactions between the hydroxylated cluster and graphene are favorable, then the process in Equation 3 will be endothermic, whereas if these interactions are negligible the process will be exothermic or of low magnitude. We calculated the desorption energies for the $(TiO₂)_nOH$ clusters by moving these clusters away from the surface (8 to 10 Å away), and the calculated desorption energies for the different clusters were calculated to be 0.84, 1.30, 1.19, 1.41 and 1.34 eV for the $n = 1, 3$,

5, 8, and 15 clusters, respectively. The negative of these energies are essentially the adsorption energies for $(TiO_2)_nOH$ clusters over pristine graphene; such energies are comparable in size to the adsorption energies of $(TiO₂)_n$ clusters over pristine graphene. This would indicate that van der Waals forces are the main binding force between graphene and the $(TiO_2)_nOH$ clusters. Distances between the graphene surface and $(TiO₂)_nOH$ clusters (defined as closest atom in cluster to C atom of graphene) varied between 1.50 and 2.77 Å, of similar magnitude as the distances for $(TiO₂)_n$ clusters over pristine graphene. Our analysis thus indicates that hydroxylated clusters interact similarly to graphene as non-hydroxylated clusters over graphene, and that the energies released when $TiO₂$ clusters interact with hydroxylated graphene may be considered a sum of (a) reaction between OH and $TiO₂$ cluster where OH binds to uncoordinated Ti sites, and (b) van der Waals interactions that keep the cluster bound to the graphene surface.

Figure 10. Most stable adsorption sites of $TiO₂$ clusters over graphene with a single hydroxyl. Results are for clusters of size (a) $n=1$, (b) $n=3$, (c) $n=5$, (d) $n=8$, and (e) $n=15$. Color scheme is same as Figures 1 and 3. The numbers indicate the adsorption energies in eV.

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript **Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript**

3.7. Electronic Nature of TiO2/Graphene

Beyond analyzing the binding structures of the $TiO₂$ clusters to graphene surfaces we also analyzed the electronic structure of these systems in order to better understand their photocatalytic properties and the nature of such composite systems. As mentioned in the methodology, these results were obtained using the VASP program with a high number of k-points (4x4x1 k-point mesh) to ensure accuracy. We first calculated Bader charges^{86, 87} for the clusters over the various surfaces. For the case of the surfaces with epoxide and hydroxyls we included the O/OH groups in the analysis since the geometries denote that these groups became part of the $TiO₂$ clusters upon adsorption. Table 2 shows these results and indicates that electron transfer is occurring from graphene to the $TiO₂$ clusters as all clusters were negatively charged. This charge transfer from graphene surfaces to $TiO₂$ has previously been observed and rationalized based on the work functions of the two components¹³. Little charge transfer occurs over the pristine graphene surfaces and slightly more charge transfer occurs over the surfaces with C vacancies. The clusters with epoxide or hydroxyl have significantly more negative charge, largely due to the presence of the extra O/OH . O atoms in $TiO₂$ have nominal charges of -2 so inclusion of an extra O atom in the $TiO₂$ clusters understandably lowers the charge. In the case of the clusters with hydroxyl the clusters have significant negative charge. The presence of hydrogen atom (which has nominal charge of $+1$) however leads to less negative charge compared to the epoxide clusters. Overall, the calculated charges indicate electron transfer occurs from graphene to $TiO₂$ cluster and that the amount of charge can roughly be correlated with binding energy (pristine $\leq C$ vacancy \leq epoxide \approx hydroxyl).

We also performed charge density difference analysis of the $n = 15$ clusters to further identify the nature of the bonding between graphene and $TiO₂$ clusters. These results are shown in Figure 11. The charge density difference is calculated by taking the electron density of the combined graphene/ $TiO₂$ system and subtracting the densities of the lone $TiO₂$ and graphene parts, albeit in the same geometry as the combined system. Such calculations indicate how electrons shift (either adding or subtracting) in certain regions of the system, and thus are indicative of bonding patterns. In the case of the graphene with hydroxyl we considered the OH to be part of $TiO₂$ since it has clearly migrated to the cluster, and so the graphene system in this case only contains carbon atoms. Our results show that very little electron density changes upon adsorption over pristine $TiO₂$, suggesting that no true chemical bonding is taking place, in agreement with our previous results. However, over graphene with a defect and graphene with epoxide there is significant electron density shift. For both these cases in the region of the C vacancy or bridging epoxide (lower left region of $TiO₂$ particle) the electron density is strongly changed, indicating that strong bonding occurs in this region, since the C

vacancy or O atom bind the TiO₂ particle to the surface. For the hydroxylated $TiO₂$ cluster very little electron density change is observed, and the hydroxylated particle essentially interacts weakly with the graphene surface.

Figure 11. Charge density different plots for the $(TiO₂)₁₅$ clusters over (a) pristine graphene, (b) graphene with C vacancy, (c) graphene with epoxide, and (d) graphene with hydroxyl. Shown are contours for $4.2*10^{-7}$ e/ \AA ³. Blue contours correspond to negative electron density difference while yellow contours correspond to positive electron density difference. The figure was made with the VESTA 3 program 88 .

We also calculated density of states (DOS) for the various graphene- $TiO₂$ systems. We present in Figure 12 the case for $n = 15$. The $n = 15$ cluster is representative of a larger, typical particle that may occur in graphene/ $TiO₂$ systems¹² and is the focus of our following analysis. In the plots the graphene DOS only contain the carbon atoms, while the $TiO₂ DOS$ includes any surface groups (epoxide/hydroxyl). A number of features are observed in the DOS plots. Since the number of electrons in the $TiO₂$ cluster is much larger than in the graphene surface, the $TiO₂ DOS$ dominates the plots. The

Page 31 of 42 Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics

graphene DOS remain relatively the same throughout the different systems, with slight changes in the peak/edge positions due to changes in the Fermi level upon formation of the heterostructures. The $TiO₂ DOS$ appear to have modest changes. For instance, in gas phase, the unoccupied DOS for $TiO₂$ show two peaks (top panel), whereas upon adsorption these peaks appear to merge together for several of the systems. The general structure however of the $TiO₂ DOS$ remain unchanged, except for changes in peak positions, shifting of the valence/conduction bands, and introduction of gap states.

Figure 12. Density of states for the $(TiO₂)₁₅$ cluster in gas phase (top plot) and adsorbed over various graphene surfaces (as indicated in the figure). Also shown is the graphene density of states for the various systems. Zero eV corresponds to the Fermi level of each system.

There are changes in the band gap regions of the $TiO₂$ clusters. For adsorption of $TiO₂$ over pristine graphene and over the surface with C vacancy gap states arise that may affect photoabsorption. These gap states may potentially lower the band gap by changing the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) or lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO). Similar behavior was observed for crystalline $TiO₂$ interfaced with disordered $TiO₂⁸⁹$. The latter disordered phased introduced gap states which served as LUMO states. Gap states however may also negatively impact charge recombination by acting as charge trapping sites; the more localized the gap state the more likely it is to trap charge and act as a recombination center. The observed gap states over $TiO₂/graphene$ systems appear delocalized, so it is unclear as to how much they would affect recombination. Moreover, the difficulty in determining band gaps from DOS plots is deciding the exact location of HOMO/LUMO. These edges are sensitive for instance to choice of smearing parameters/method used to obtain the DOS. Nonetheless, we chose these edges for DOS lower than a value of 1.5 electrons/eV (in comparison highest peaks were near 50 electrons/eV). We have summarized the band gap changes for the $TiO₂$ clusters upon adsorption in Table 3 which shows that small changes are observed for the band gaps, with the largest change occurring for the cluster adsorbed over a C vacancy. The band gap for the $TiO₂$ cluster decreases by 0.31 eV in this case. Interestingly, the band gaps for all $TiO₂$ clusters slightly increase for the epoxide/hydroxyl surfaces. A small decrease (0.14 eV) in the band gap of TiO₂ occurs over the pristine surface. Previous DFT papers^{16, 18} observed little change in the band gap for $TiO₂$ upon contact with graphene, in agreement with our work.

3.8. Implications on the Photocatalytic Behavior of TiO2/Graphene

Several explanations exist as to why $TiO₂/graphene$ composites are so photocatalytically active. Experimental results⁹⁰ suggest that due to the high charge mobility of graphene, charge can be transferred to graphene and increase their mobility/lifetime. Visible light photoexcitation is observed in $TiO₂/graphene$ materials¹¹⁻ 13 , which increases photoexcitation efficiency. Other results suggest that TiO₂ may be photosensitized in the presence of graphene oxide, decreasing the observed band gap⁴². A still, largely unexplored potential reason is that new active reaction sites may be created at/near the interface.

A variety of previously reported DFT results are available in the literature on the electronic transitions between graphene and $TiO₂$. Calculations^{13, 24} indicate that a rutile slab in contact with graphene could lead to greater photoexcitation yield as valence electrons in graphene may be excited to conduction levels in $TiO₂$, requiring less energy for photoexcitation than the pure band gap of rutile. In contrast other DFT calculations²⁵ showed the opposite for an anatase slab over graphene; $TiO₂$ valence electrons may be photoexcited to graphene conduction bands. Still another set of calculations^{27, 32} for anatase over graphene predicted that electrons predominantly localized in graphene can be photoexcited to states predominantly localized in $TiO₂$. Other work²⁶ on anatase over graphene observed broad gap states that may improve photoexcitation. This quick overview of DFT studies illustrates the difficulty with $TiO₂/graphene$ materials, since many different (sometimes contrary) results can be obtained. Likely the choice of system size and simulation parameters all contribute to different results. For instance, several studies used the local density approximation (LDA) exchange correlation functional, which is generally not as accurate as generalized gradient approximation (GGA) functionals. Small simulation cells used in some studies may be more computationally tractable, but introduce unrealistic strain. The advantage of the current results are that we utilize the GGA exchange correlation functional in combination with a van der Waals correction and the +U correction, as well as a large simulation cell, to give accurate energies/electronic structure with no strain-related errors.

As indicated in the previous section, modest changes are observed in the band gap of TiO₂ upon graphene adsorption and we therefore do not expect TiO₂ valence to conduction band electronic excitation to explain the improved capability of $TiO₂/graphene$ materials. Synergy between $TiO₂$ and graphene however can lead to new photoexcitation properties. Figure 13 shows a close-up of the gap region of for the $n =$ 15 clusters adsorbed over various surfaces. For $TiO₂$ adsorbed over pure graphene we observe that excitation from graphene to $TiO₂$ is possible, since the bands below the Fermi level are predominantly on graphene, while bands above the Fermi level are centered on TiO₂ (in agreement with previous results^{13, 24}). For TiO₂ over a C vacancy there is much more overlap between the various bands; near the Fermi level it is hard to distinguish the dominating bands since the two materials have such similar bands. This

suggests that it is hard to distinguish whether excitation may occur from either graphene/TiO₂ to graphene/TiO₂. For TiO₂ over the surface with epoxide photoexcitation may occur from $TiO₂$ to graphene. Finally for $TiO₂$ over the surface with hydroxyl photoexcitation may occur from $TiO₂$ to graphene. Our results show a variety of possible photoexcitation events, with the surface structure determining what direction electrons may flow. We acknowledge that our analysis of charge transfer between $TiO₂$ and graphene is based on overlap of the density of states, and that the transition probability between the two materials must be taken into account. Other time-dependent DFT results²⁴, however showed that rapid electron transfer occurs between $TiO₂$ and graphene, suggesting a high transition probability between the two materials. Our results nonetheless will certainly have important implications on $TiO₂/graphene$ catalysts since charge separation is a key phenomena associated with these materials. For instance, $TiO₂$ bound by epoxide may have electrons transferred to graphene, leading to increased charge separation since graphene has high electrical conductivity and such electrons may move away from $TiO₂$.

Figure 13. Density of states for the $(TiO₂)₁₅$ cluster in gas phase (top plot) and adsorbed over various graphene surfaces (as indicated in the figure) in the region of the band gap. Also shown is the graphene density of states for the various systems. Zero eV corresponds to the Fermi level of each system. Note that the x and y axis scales are not the same as those in Figure 12 since the current figure shows the close-up details of the gap region.

Various publications have indicated that intimate contact between $TiO₂$ and graphene gives better photocatalytic activity^{12, 91, 92}. Indeed, functionalization of graphene through various surface groups is one approach to better $TiO₂/graphene$ materials since such surface groups may be nucleation sites for $TiO₂⁹³$. This concept is consistent with our current work, which demonstrates that oxygen-containing groups or defects significantly enhance interactions between graphene and $TiO₂$ and strongly bind nanoparticles. Still, more work is needed to understand these composite materials. Experimental work^{91, 94}, for instance, suggests that defects (such as those present in

reduced graphene oxide) may impede $TiO₂/graph$ ene activity since this lowers the electrical conductivity of graphene. These defects may be undesirable for purposes of charge transport in graphene (lowered charge transport or increased charge trapping) and therefore affect charge recombination/mobility negatively. However increased defects and surface groups may lead to greater photocatalyst stability as well as more charge transfer between graphene and $TiO₂$. More work is needed to understand the counter-play between these two effects and the ideal state for fast charge mobility in graphene and good contact/stability between $TiO₂$ and graphene.

4.0. Conclusions

In this work we simulated the adsorption of $TiO₂$ clusters onto several graphene surfaces, including pristine surfaces and surfaces with C vacancies, epoxide groups, and hydroxyl groups. "Real" graphene surfaces often have various defects or surface groups, depending on synthesis procedure. Adsorption over pristine graphene surfaces had the weakest adsorption energies and was driven by van der Waals interactions between $TiO₂$ and graphene. However, adsorption of $TiO₂$ over graphene with C vacancies or epoxide groups leads to strong binding. When $TiO₂$ interacts with a surface hydroxyl, full transfer of the hydroxyl to the $TiO₂$ cluster is observed and the process is highly exothermic. These results suggest that different surface inhomogeneities on graphene may serve to anchor $TiO₂$ to its surface, while $TiO₂$ over pure graphene may more freely move or slide across the surface. Analysis of the electronic properties of these composites indicates that photoexcitation between $TiO₂$ and graphene can occur in various ways, depending on the graphene surface structure. Over pure graphene, for instance, graphene to $TiO₂$ electronic

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript

excitation can occur, while over surfaces with epoxides or hydroxyls $TiO₂$ to graphene electronic excitation can occur. Our work highlights the important role of graphene surface structure in these composites.

Acknowledgments

We wish to thank Sia Najafi of WPI for his help in using the WPI computers. We also thank the Environmental Molecular Science Laboratory (EMSL) at Pacific Northwest National Laboratory in Richland, WA for providing computational resources. EMSL is a DOE Office of Science User Facility sponsored by the Office of Biological and Environmental Research and located at Pacific Northwest National Laboratory.

References

- 1. X. Q. An and J. C. Yu, *RSC Advances*, 2011, **1**, 1426-1434.
- 2. D. A. C. Brownson, D. K. Kampouris and C. E. Banks, *Chemical Society Reviews*, 2012, **41**, 6944-6976.
- 3. H. Chang and H. Wu, *Energy & Environmental Science*, 2013, **6**, 3483-3507.
- 4. D. Chen, H. Zhang, Y. Liu and J. Li, *Energy & Environmental Science*, 2013, **6**, 1362-1387.
- 5. C. Huang, C. Li and G. Shi, *Energy & Environmental Science*, 2012, **5**, 8848- 8868.
- 6. H. Y. Mao, S. Laurent, W. Chen, O. Akhavan, M. Imani, A. A. Ashkarran and M. Mahmoudi, *Chemical Reviews*, 2013, **113**, 3407-3424.
- 7. Y. B. Tan and J.-M. Lee, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2013, **1**, 14814- 14843.
- 8. N. Mahmood, C. Zhang, H. Yin and Y. Hou, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2014, **2**, 15-32.
- 9. S. Morales-Torres, L. Pastrana-Martínez, J. Figueiredo, J. Faria and A. T. Silva, *Environ Sci Pollut Res*, 2012, **19**, 3676-3687.
- 10. P. T. Yin, T.-H. Kim, J.-W. Choi and K.-B. Lee, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2013, **15**, 12785-12799.

38

- 11. H. Zhang, X. J. Lv, Y. M. Li, Y. Wang and J. H. Li, *Acs Nano*, 2010, **4**, 380-386.
- 12. M. Long, Y. Qin, C. Chen, X. Guo, B. Tan and W. Cai, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2013, **117**, 16734-16741.
- 13. A. Du, Y. H. Ng, N. J. Bell, Z. Zhu, R. Amal and S. C. Smith, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry Letters*, 2011, **2**, 894-899.
- 14. R. K. Upadhyay, N. Soin and S. S. Roy, *RSC Advances*, 2014, **4**, 3823-3851.
- 15. R. Leary and A. Westwood, *Carbon*, 2011, **49**, 741-772.
- 16. W. Geng, H. Liu and X. Yao, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2013, **15**, 6025-6033.
- 17. M. Favaro, S. Agnoli, C. Di Valentin, C. Mattevi, M. Cattelan, L. Artiglia, E. Magnano, F. Bondino, S. Nappini and G. Granozzi, *Carbon*, 2014, **68**, 319-329.
- 18. S. Ayissi, P. A. Charpentier, N. Farhangi, J. A. Wood, K. Palotás and W. A. Hofer, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2013, **117**, 25424-25432.
- 19. M. I. Rojas and E. P. M. Leiva, *Physical Review B*, 2007, **76**, 155415.
- 20. E. H. Song and Y. F. Zhu, *Nanoscience and Nanotechnology Letters*, 2013, **5**, 198-203.
- 21. L. Wang, J. Zhao, L. Wang, T. Yan, Y.-Y. Sun and S. B. Zhang, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2011, **13**, 21126-21131.
- 22. Y. Yuan, X. Gong and H. Wang, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2015, **17**, 11375-11381.
- 23. N. Farhangi, S. Ayissi and P. A. Charpentier, *Nanotechnology*, 2014, **25**, 305601.
- 24. R. Long, N. J. English and O. V. Prezhdo, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 2012, **134**, 14238-14248.
- 25. H. Gao, X. Li, J. Lv and G. Liu, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2013, **117**, 16022-16027.
- 26. N. Yang, Y. Liu, H. Wen, Z. Tang, H. Zhao, Y. Li and D. Wang, *ACS Nano*, 2013, **7**, 1504-1512.
- 27. X. Li, H. Gao and G. Liu, *Journal*, 2013, **1025**, 30-34.
- 28. J. Tang, Y. Zhang, B. Kong, Y. Wang, P. Da, J. Li, A. A. Elzatahry, D. Zhao, X. Gong and G. Zheng, *Nano Letters*, 2014, **14**, 2702-2708.
- 29. G. Mogilevsky, O. Hartman, E. D. Emmons, A. Balboa, J. B. DeCoste, B. J. Schindler, I. Iordanov and C. J. Karwacki, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*, 2014, **6**, 10638-10648.
- 30. S. Umrao, S. Abraham, F. Theil, S. Pandey, V. Ciobota, P. K. Shukla, C. J. Rupp, S. Chakraborty, R. Ahuja, J. Popp, B. Dietzek and A. Srivastava, *RSC Advances*, 2014, **4**, 59890-59901.
- 31. M.-h. Wang, Y.-n. Guo, Q. Wang, X.-s.-y. Zhang, J.-j. Huang, X. Lu, K.-f. Wang, H. p. Zhang and Y. Leng, *Chemical Physics Letters*, 2014, **599**, 86-91.
- 32. Y. Masuda, G. Giorgi and K. Yamashita, *physica status solidi (b)*, 2014, **251**, 1471-1479.
- 33. W. Choi, I. Lahiri, R. Seelaboyina and Y. S. Kang, *Critical Reviews in Solid State and Materials Sciences*, 2010, **35**, 52-71.
- 34. Y. Zhu, S. Murali, W. Cai, X. Li, J. W. Suk, J. R. Potts and R. S. Ruoff, *Advanced Materials*, 2010, **22**, 3906-3924.
- 35. M. J. Allen, V. C. Tung and R. B. Kaner, *Chemical Reviews*, 2009, **110**, 132-145.
- 36. F. Banhart, J. Kotakoski and A. V. Krasheninnikov, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **5**, 26-41.
- 37. J. Ito, J. Nakamura and A. Natori, *Journal of Applied Physics*, 2008, **103**, -.
- 38. S. Stankovich, D. A. Dikin, R. D. Piner, K. A. Kohlhaas, A. Kleinhammes, Y. Jia, Y. Wu, S. T. Nguyen and R. S. Ruoff, *Carbon*, 2007, **45**, 1558-1565.
- 39. C. Mattevi, G. Eda, S. Agnoli, S. Miller, K. A. Mkhoyan, O. Celik, D. Mastrogiovanni, G. Granozzi, E. Garfunkel and M. Chhowalla, *Advanced Functional Materials*, 2009, **19**, 2577-2583.
- 40. A. Bagri, C. Mattevi, M. Acik, Y. J. Chabal, M. Chhowalla and V. B. Shenoy, *Nat Chem*, 2010, **2**, 581-587.
- 41. T.-F. Yeh, J. Cihlář, C.-Y. Chang, C. Cheng and H. Teng, *Materials Today*, 2013, **16**, 78-84.
- 42. C. Chen, W. Cai, M. Long, B. Zhou, Y. Wu, D. Wu and Y. Feng, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **4**, 6425-6432.
- 43. G. Lippert, J. Hutter and M. Parrinello, *Theoretical Chemistry Accounts*, 1999, **103**, 124-140.
- 44. J. VandeVondele and J. Hutter, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2007, **127**.
- 45. S. Goedecker, M. Teter and J. Hutter, *Physical Review B*, 1996, **54**, 1703-1710.
- 46. M. Krack, *Theoretical Chemistry Accounts*, 2005, **114**, 145-152.
- 47. J. P. Perdew, K. Burke and M. Ernzerhof, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 1996, **77**, 3865-3868.
- 48. S. Grimme, *Journal of Computational Chemistry*, 2006, **27**, 1787-1799.
- 49. http://www.cp2k.org, *CP2K developers home page*, 2015.
- 50. J. VandeVondele, M. Krack, F. Mohamed, M. Parrinello, T. Chassaing and J. Hutter, *Comput Phys Commun*, 2005, **167**, 103-128.
- 51. G. Kresse and J. Hafner, *Physical Review B*, 1993, **47**, 558-561.
- 52. G. Kresse and J. Hafner, *Physical Review B*, 1994, **49**, 14251-14269.
- 53. G. Kresse and J. Furthmuller, *Comput. Mater. Sci.*, 1996, **6**, 15-50.
- 54. G. Kresse and J. Furthmuller, *Physical Review B*, 1996, **54**, 11169-11186.
- 55. G. Kresse and D. Joubert, *Physical Review B*, 1999, **59**, 1758-1775.
- 56. P. E. Blöchl, *Physical Review B*, 1994, **50**, 17953-17979.
- 57. S. L. Dudarev, G. A. Botton, S. Y. Savrasov, C. J. Humphreys and A. P. Sutton, *PHYSICAL REVIEW B*, 1998, **57**, 1505-1509.
- 58. J. C. Garcia, M. Nolan and N. A. Deskins, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 2015, **142**, 024708.
- 59. B. J. Morgan and G. W. Watson, *Surface Science*, 2007, **601**, 5034-5041.
- 60. B. J. Morgan and G. W. Watson, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2010, **114**, 2321-2328.
- 61. T. Shibuya, K. Yasuoka, S. Mirbt and B. Sanyal, *Journal of physics. Condensed matter : an Institute of Physics journal*, 2012, **24**, 435504-435504.
- 62. A. Iwaszuk, P. a. Mulheran and M. Nolan, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2013, **1**, 2515-2515.
- 63. A. Iwaszuk and M. Nolan, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2011, **115**, 12995-13007.
- 64. A. Iwaszuk and M. Nolan, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2013, **1**, 6670- 6670.
- 65. A. Iwaszuk and M. Nolan, *Physical chemistry chemical physics : PCCP*, 2011, **13**, 4963-4973.
- 66. Z. W. Qu and G. J. Kroes, *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 2006, **110**, 8998- 9007.
- 67. S. Hamad, C. R. A. Catlow, S. M. Woodley, S. Lago and J. A. Mejías, *The journal of physical chemistry. B*, 2005, **109**, 15741-15748.
- 68. M. n. Calatayud, L. Maldonado and C. Minot, *Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2008, **112**, 16087-16095.
- 69. M. n. Calatayud and C. Minot, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2009, **113**, 12186-12194.
- 70. A. D. Becke, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 1993, **98**, 5648-5652.
- 71. P. J. Stephens, F. J. Devlin, C. F. Chabalowski and M. J. Frisch, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry*, 1994, **98**, 11623-11627.
- 72. D. Vanderbilt, *Journal*, 1990, **41**, 7892-7895.
- 73. G. Kresse and J. Hafner, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter*, 1994, **6**, 8245-8257.
- 74. J. P. Perdew, J. Chevary, S. Vosko, K. A. Jackson, M. R. Pederson, D. Singh and C. Fiolhais, *Physical Review B*, 1992, **46**, 6671.
- 75. M. Dion, H. Rydberg, E. Schröder, D. C. Langreth and B. I. Lundqvist, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 2004, **92**, 246401.
- 76. K. Lee, É. D. Murray, L. Kong, B. I. Lundqvist and D. C. Langreth, *Physical Review B*, 2010, **82**, 081101.
- 77. D. W. Boukhvalov and M. I. Katsnelson, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 2008, **130**, 10697-10701.
- 78. M. M. Ugeda, D. Fernández-Torre, I. Brihuega, P. Pou, A. J. Martínez-Galera, R. Pérez and J. M. Gómez-Rodríguez, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 2011, **107**, 116803.
- 79. D.-H. Lim, A. S. Negreira and J. Wilcox, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2011, **115**, 8961-8970.
- 80. D.-H. Lim and J. Wilcox, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2011, DOI: 10.1021/jp205244m, 111102112458009-111102112458009.
- 81. P. V. Kumar, M. Bernardi and J. C. Grossman, *ACS Nano*, 2013, **7**, 1638-1645.
- 82. S. Pei and H.-M. Cheng, *Carbon*, 2012, **50**, 3210-3228.
- 83. V. Stengl, S. Bakardjieva, T. M. Grygar, J. Bludska and M. Kormunda, *Chemistry Central Journal*, 2013, **7**, 41.
- 84. K. Krishnamoorthy, R. Mohan and S.-J. Kim, *Applied Physics Letters*, 2011, **98**, 244101.
- 85. T. N. Lambert, C. A. Chavez, B. Hernandez-Sanchez, P. Lu, N. S. Bell, A. Ambrosini, T. Friedman, T. J. Boyle, D. R. Wheeler and D. L. Huber, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2009, **113**, 19812-19823.
- 86. R. F. W. Bader, *Accounts of Chemical Research*, 1985, **18**, 9-15.
- 87. G. Henkelman, A. Arnaldsson and H. Jonsson, *Comput. Mater. Sci.*, 2006, **36**, 354-360.
- 88. K. Momma and F. Izumi, *Journal of Applied Crystallography*, 2011, **44**, 1272- 1276.
- 89. X. Chen, L. Liu, P. Y. Yu and S. S. Mao, *Science*, 2011, **331**, 746-750.
- 90. N. J. Bell, Y. H. Ng, A. Du, H. Coster, S. C. Smith and R. Amal, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2011, **115**, 6004-6009.
- 91. Y. Zhang, N. Zhang, Z.-R. Tang and Y.-J. Xu, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2012, **14**, 9167-9175.
- 92. Y. Zhang, Z.-R. Tang, X. Fu and Y.-J. Xu, *ACS Nano*, 2011, **5**, 7426-7435.
- 93. F. Sordello, G. Zeb, K. Hu, P. Calza, C. Minero, T. Szkopek and M. Cerruti, *Nanoscale*, 2014, **6**, 6710-6719.
- 94. Y. T. Liang, B. K. Vijayan, K. A. Gray and M. C. Hersam, *Nano Letters*, 2011, **11**, 2865-2870.