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

# **PCCP**

# ARTICLE

Received 00th January 20xx, Accepted 00th January 20xx

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

**www.rsc.org/** 



Dandan Yu, Yanyu Liu, Lili Sun, Ping Wu, Wei Zhou\*

The effects of metal element X-doping on the electronic and optical properties of single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> were investigated based on density functional theory. The results show that the doping is energetically favorable under S-rich conditions than under Sn-rich conditions. For Li and Mg doping, there is existence of ionic bonding between the dopants and adjacent S atoms, and the systems exhibit magnetic ground states. However, a covalent bonding character is observed in Al-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>, and the system exhibits non-magnetic ground states. The results of optical properties show that the optical absorptions are anisotropic for all doping cases. The X doping not only results in the red shift of absorption edges, but also enhances the effective utilization in the near-infrared light region. Additionally, the Li-doped single-layer SnS2 can be active for overall water splitting under visible light radiation whereas Mg and Al-doped SnS<sub>2</sub> are only suitable for oxygen evolution.

# **1. Introduction**

In recent years, the graphene with two-dimensional (2D) honeycomb structure has received particular attention because of its outstanding thermal conductivity, high charge mobility, and excellent mechanical properties.<sup>1-5</sup> However, its intrinsic "zero band-gap" characteristic hinders its applications in the fields of semiconductor devices and integrated circuits.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, many researchers have focused on developing the novel materials that not only have analogous graphene layered organization, but also exhibit the excellent band structures, such as BN,  $6,7$  GaN,  $8$  GaS,  $9$  $\text{SnS}_2$ ,  $^{10-12}$  and  $\text{MoS}_2$ .  $^{13-15}$  Among them, being earth-abundant, nontoxic, and environment-friendly semiconductor,  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  has been widely reported for applications in lithium battery, water splitting, and field effect transistor.<sup>16-19</sup> In particular, due to its band gap of 2.18-2.44 eV and good stability in acid and neutral aqueous solution,  $^{17,18}$  SnS<sub>2</sub> is currently thought to be a fascinating candidate for visible light sensitive photocatalyst.

Experimentally,  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  with 2D structure has been synthesized, such as nanoparticles, nanoplates and nanosheets. $20-23$  Especially, the single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  exhibits more preeminent photocatalytic properties in comparison with their three-dimensional (3D) counterparts. For instance, Sun et al.<sup>22</sup> synthesized SnS<sub>2</sub> singlelayers with three atom thickness and observed that the visible-light conversion efficiency of 38.7 % is much higher than that of 3D bulk SnS<sub>2</sub>. Wei *et al.*<sup>23</sup> also prepared the ultrathin SnS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, in which the photocatalytic activity is significantly enhanced due to the 2D sheet-like nanostructure. Although the photocatalytic

activity of single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is improved with respect to its bulk phase, there exists the restriction for the visible optical absorption and hydrogen production from solar water splitting.<sup>24</sup> More recently, in addition to explore the electronic and optical properties of SnS<sub>2</sub>, doping of foreign species in pristine single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> has been carried out to solve the above mentioned problems. An *et*  al.<sup>25</sup> prepared transition metal Cu-doped SnS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet, in which the visible-light-driven activity is 7 times higher than blank  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ nanosheets. Besides that, the n- and p-type anion doping was also investigated to understand the conductivity mechanism of  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ nanosheets based on first principle calculations.<sup>26</sup> However, to the best of our knowledge, there have been no systematical reports about the hole doping at cation sites in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  until now. And the cation doping is usually easier realized than that of anion doping in experiments. It is very imperative to explore the optical mechanism of low valence metal doping single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>. Besides, Peng et al.<sup>27</sup> pointed out that there was a correlation between defect-induced ferromagnetism and hole doping for semiconductors. That is to say, the influence of cation-site dopinginduced hole on the magnetism of single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  also should be considered. Therefore, in the present work, the metal element X ( $X=Li$ , Mg, and Al) was chosen as dopant in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . Based on the density functional theory (DFT), the effects of X doping with different hole density on the electronic structure and optical properties of single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  were systematically investigated. And the magnetic and photochemical behaviors of X-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ monolayer were detailed analyzed.

# **2. Computational methods**

All the calculations were performed on the basis of DFT method with the projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials as implemented in the Vienna *ab initio*

YAL SOCIETY<br>**CHEMISTRY** 

Department of Applied Physics, Institute of Advanced Materials Physics, Tianjin Key Laboratory of Low Dimensional Materials Physics and Preparing Technology, Faculty of Science, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, People's Republic of China. E-mail address: weizhou@tju.edu.cn; Tel.: +86 02227406852.

# approximation (GGA) was employed to model the exchange and correlation interactions.<sup>30</sup> The valence electron configurations considered in this work were Li  $(1s^22s^1)$ , Mg  $(3s^2)$ , Al  $(3s^23p^1)$ , Sn  $(4d^{10}5s^25p^2)$  and S  $(3s^23p^4)$ , respectively. For the supercell model, a 4×4×1 (48 atoms) single layer of SnS<sub>2</sub> supercell was used, and a vacuum space of 14 Å was added to eliminate interaction between the layers. A kinetic energy cutoff of 450 eV was adopted in the plane-wave expansions, and the Monkhorst-Pack *k*-point grid was 3×3×1 for Brillouin Zone integrations. A larger 5×5×1 (75 atoms) supercell was used to test the effects of finite size on the characteristics of doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  monolayer. The formation energy obtained from the larger supercell only differs in a fraction of meV from the calculation using the 4×4×1 (48 atoms) supercell and the magnetic moments are similar to the  $$ results using the 4×4×1 supercell, which indicates that the respectively.

supercell size adopted in our work is reasonable. To precisely reproduce the experimental band gap of  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , the on-site coulomb interaction of *U*=9 eV was applied only to Sn 3d orbitals, which has also been reported in other literatures.  $26,31$ During the geometrical optimization, all atomic positions and lattice constants were relaxed until the residual forces on atoms were less than 0.01 eV/Å, and the convergence criterion of total energy was set to be  $10^{-5}$  eV/atom. In addition, for the bulk SnS<sub>2</sub>, the van der Waals interaction was considered by using Grimme's DFT-D2 method $32$  to better describe the nonbonding interaction between the layers of bulk  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ .

Simulation Package (VASP) code. $28,29$  The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) parametrization of the generalized gradient

# **3. Results and discussion**

## **3.1. Structural optimization and formation energies**

The crystal structure of bulk  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is firstly optimized with the PBE and PBE+*U* methods to probe the accuracy and applicability of the calculated parameters adopted in this work. The calculated structural parameters, bond lengths and band gaps *E*<sup>g</sup> are summarized in Table 1. Compared to the results obtained from PBE calculations, the optimized lattice constants and the band gap by the PBE+*U* method are in much better agreement with the experimental values. $33$  Moreover, we also perform the structural optimization of the single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> using the PBE+*U* approach. The obtained lattice parameter (a = 3.481 Å), the S-Sn bond length ( $d_{S}$ - $_{Sn}$ =2.437 Å) and the band gap ( $E_g$ =2.240 eV) are also close to the reference data.<sup>22</sup> Therefore, the above calculated results indicate that the PBE+*U* method and the parameters adopted are reliable and believable.

The low valence metal X doping in the single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is modeled by replacing the Sn site with one X atom (X=Li, Mg, and Al)  $(X_{\text{Sn}})$  in the supercell. The top view and side view of the optimized  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  monolayer are shown in Fig. 1. In order to explore the bonding nature in X-doped single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , the difference charge density near the dopant X is simulated and plotted in Fig. 2. For pure singlelayer SnS<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2(d)), there is apparently existence of covalent



Fig. 1. The top view (a) and side view (b) of the optimized X-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>. Yellow, dark and red spheres represent the S, Sn and X (X=Li, Mg, Al) atoms,

Table 1. Calculated structural parameters  $a$ ,  $c$ , the bond lengths  $d_{Sn-S}$ and band gaps  $E_{\rm g}$  for SnS<sub>2</sub> bulk and monolayer compared to those of experiments, respectively.



bonding between Sn and S atoms. For X-doped single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , it is easy to find that the covalence character of X-S bond is gradually weakened while the ionic character is enhanced with the increase of hole density (from Fig. 2(c) to Fig. 2(a)). Furthermore, a significant ionic bonding behavior is observed between the Li and adjacent S atoms in Li-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . To further understand the chemical bond characteristic, the Bader charge<sup>34</sup> is calculated to analyze the charge transfer of every atom and the related X-S bond length is also presented, as summarized in Table 2. Positive and negative values indicate the loss and gain of charge, respectively. As can be seen, the valence electron on the Li atom is almost lost, which shows that obvious ionic bond character is easy to form in Lidoped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . Besides, the charge transfer rate presents a decreasing tendency with the decreasing hole density introduced by the doping, indicating that the electron transfer becomes increasingly unobvious and thereby resulting in the ionicity being weakened. This is in agreement with the above analysis of difference charge density. In addition, the results in Table 2 show that the bond length of the X-S (X=Li, Mg, and Al) is larger than that of Sn-S in the pristine single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>. It is well known that the strength of covalent bond is stronger than the ionic bond strength. Consequently, a possible reason for above conclusion is the existence of strong Sn-S covalent bond relative to Li (Mg)-S ionic bond and slightly weak Al-S covalent bond. In particular, combining the results of Table 2 and Fig. 2, it can be seen that the ionicity of the Li-S bond is much stronger than that of the Mg-S bond and thus leading to the shorter length for Li-S bond (2.540 Å) than the Mg-S bond length (2.567 Å).

In order to check the relative stability of the doped systems, the formation energy of X substitution with charged state *q* is calculated according to the following formula

 $E_f = E(\text{doped}) - E(\text{pure}) + \sum n_i \mu_i + q(E_F + \varepsilon_{\text{VBM}} + \Delta \nu)$  $(1)$ where *E*(doped) and *E*(pure) denote the total energies of the Xdoped and pure single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The  $n_i$  (i=Sn, S and X)

**Journal Name ARTICLE ARTICLE** 





**Fig. 2**. Charge density difference near the dopant X and adjacent host atoms for (a) Li-, (b) Mg-, (c) Al-doped SnS<sub>2</sub>, and (d) pure single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>, respectively.

is the number of atoms removed  $(n_i > 0)$  or added  $(n_i < 0)$  to the system, and  $\mu$ <sub>i</sub> is the chemical potential of the corresponding species.  $E_F$  is the Fermi energy level with respect to the energy position of the valence band maximum ( $\varepsilon_{VBM}$ ) of the perfect singlelayer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ .  $\Delta v$  is the correction for the shift in average electron static potential of the 1s core level energy of a Sn atom (located far away from the defect site) between the neutral and charged states. As is well known, the formation energy depends on the growth conditions, which may be either Sn-rich or S-rich conditions. Conventionally,  $\mu_i = \mu_i^{\text{bulk}} + \Delta \mu_i$ , where  $\mu_i^{\text{bulk}}$  is defined as the chemical potential of the elemental bulk solid, and Δ*μ*<sup>i</sup> denotes the chemical potential change of defects under different growth conditions. To avoid the precipition of SnS or  $Sn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>$  in SnS<sub>2</sub> phase, we set constraints on the chemical potentials of the type  $m\Delta\mu_{\rm Sn}$  +  $m\Delta\mu_S \le \Delta H(\text{Sn}_m\text{S}_n)$ ,<sup>35</sup> in which  $\Delta H(\text{Sn}_m\text{S}_n)$  is the formation enthalpy of the Sn<sub>m</sub>S<sub>n</sub>. And we obtain  $-3.54 \text{ eV} \le \Delta \mu_{\text{Sn}} \le$  $-0.06 \text{ eV}$  from the constraints. The value  $\Delta \mu_{\text{Sn}} = -0.06 \text{ eV}$ corresponds to Sn-rich environment, whereas  $\Delta \mu_{\rm Sn} = -3.54 \text{ eV}$ characterizes the Sn-poor (S-rich) condition. Then  $\mu_{\text{\tiny S}}$  is computed by the equilibrium condition in  $SnS_2$ :  $\mu_{Sn} + 2\mu_S = \mu_{SnS_2}$ . In addition, during the metal element X doping process, the restriction  $m\Delta\mu_X + n\Delta\mu_S \le \Delta H(X_mS_n)$  is further considered to prevent the formation of pahses Li<sub>2</sub>S, MgS, and  $Al_2S_3$  between the dopant and host atoms. According to Eq. (1), the neutral formation energies of X doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  are calculated under different conditions, as summarized in Table 3. The results show that the formation energies are lower under S-rich condition than that under Sn-rich condition for all doping cases, which implies that the doping is energetically favored under S-rich condition. In particular, there exists the lowest formation energy (*E*<sup>f</sup> ) when the Sn site is substituted by Al atom, which shows that the Al doping is easier to achieve compared with the Li and Mg doping. Besides, the  $E_f$  shows a decreasing trend with the decreasing hole density. The values of



Fig. 3. The formation energies of X substitution  $(X_{S_0})$  as a function of the Fermi level under the S-rich conditions.

*E*f are in the order Li > Mg > Al, which is consistent with the order of ionic radius  $Li > Mg > Al$  but not in agreement with that of electronegativity Li (0.98) < Mg (1.31) < Al (1.61). This indicates that the influence of the ionic radius on the *E*<sup>f</sup> exceeds the electronegativity so that the suitable ionic size plays a significant role on the feasibility of doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  in experiments. Meanwhile, to investigate the transition energy level between the neutral and charged defects, the formation energies of X-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  monolayer in different charged states under the S-rich growth conditions are calculated. Fig. 3 shows the formation energies as a function of the Fermi level E<sub>F</sub>. It can be seen that the calculated (0/-1) transition energy levels are 0.61 eV, 0.60 eV and 0.68 eV above the VBM for Li, Mg and Al-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>, respectively. These large values of transition energy level indicate that the X doping are deep acceptor impurities.

On the other hand, another issue that should pay attention is the formation of compensating defects, which can kill the holes carriers, for instance the formation of S vacancy  $(V<sub>S</sub>)$ . This hole killing mechanism has been already observed in the DFT+*U* studies of Cu-doped ZnS reported by Wang *et al*.. <sup>36</sup> Therefore, the complex defect of  $X_{Sn} + V_S$  is introduced to explore whether it is more favorable or challenging to form p-type characteristics in X-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  monolayer. Based on our calculations, the formation energies of the complex defect of  $X_{Sn} + V_S$  under S-rich conditions are 12.15 eV, 8.38 eV and 5.06 eV for Li, Mg and Al-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , respectively, which are much higher than that of separated neutral and charged  $X_{Sn}$  and  $V_S$  defects. It indicates that the  $V_S$  related defects are difficult to form in this situation. That is to say, this mechanism of hole compensation could be less pronounced in eliminating the holes carriers, thereby making the p-type doping for  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  more favorable.

### **3.2. Electronic properties**

To investigate effects of the doping on the characteristics of electronic structure of SnS<sub>2</sub>, we present the total density of states (TDOS) and partial density of states (PDOS) of single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  with X doping in Fig. 4. For comparison, the TDOS and PDOS of pure  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ 

**ARTICLE Journal Name**



Fig. 4. Calculated TDOS (a)-(d) and PDOS (e)-(h) for pure and X-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>. The vertical dash line indicates the  $E_F$  position.

monolayer are also calculated and displayed in Fig. 4(a) and 4(e). As can be seen, for the pristine single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , the valence band (VB) mostly comprises the S 3p states, while the conduction band (CB) is mainly dominated by the hybridization of the S 3p and Sn 5s states. These results are in accordance with previous experimental and theoretical calculations, $22,26,33$  which further indicates our calculated method is reasonable.

For metal elements Li and Mg doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , as shown in Fig. 4(b) and 4(c), the Fermi level  $(E_F)$  penetrates into the VB which indicates the p-type doping. The remarkable difference compared to the TDOS in Fig. 4(a) is that the incorporation of Li or Mg atom leads to the occurrence of defect states located above the valence band maximum (VBM). In addition, the PDOS of Fig. 4(f) and  $4(g)$  show that the VB is still mainly dominated by the S 3p states and the CB is composed of the mixtures between S 3p and Sn 5s states. The Li or Mg dopant has almost little contribution to the constitution of the VB and CB, but it has a major influence on the adjacent atoms and changes their density of states distribution, thereby resulting in the hybridization between most S 3p orbital and a small part of Sn 4d orbital to form the defect states. These defect states are spin-polarized hole states, which makes the spinup and spin-down TDOS asymmetric and causes the spin splitting. This implies that the single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  doped with Li or Mg atom exhibits the magnetic ground states. Fig. 4(d) and 4(h) present the TDOS and PDOS of AI doping in the single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . Similar to the Li and Mg doping cases, the components of VB and CB have no obvious changes, and the injection of Al atom also introduces



Fig. 5. Spin density distribution for Li-doped (a) and Mg-doped (b) single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>

Table 3. The total magnetic moments M  $(\mu_B)$ , and formation energies E<sub>f</sub> (eV) of X-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> under Sn-rich and Srich conditions.

	$E_f$ (eV)	
M $(\mu_{\rm B})$	Sn-rich	S-rich
3.00	5.18	3.57
1.75	4.92	3.18
0	1.32	0.45

defect states of S 3p orbital character in the band gap. However, one can see that the spin-up and spin-down TDOS are symmetric, which suggests that the Al-doped single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  exhibits nonmagnetic ground states.

Table 3 lists the calculated total magnetic moments of doped systems. They are 3.00  $\mu_{\text{B}}$ , 1.75  $\mu_{\text{B}}$ , 0  $\mu_{\text{B}}$  for Li, Mg and Al doped SnS<sub>2</sub>, respectively. We notice that the induced magnetic moments exhibit a monotonous decreasing trend, which may be ascribed to the decrease of hole density introduced by doping. In particular, although one hole is injected when the Al substitutes for Sn atom, the system is non-spin-polarized. The reason can be explained as follows. It is well known that the hole-doped system becomes spin polarized if it satisfies the Stoner criterion D ( $E_F$ )*J* > 1, where D ( $E_F$ ) is the density of states at the Fermi level and *J* denotes the strength of the exchange interaction.<sup>27</sup> As can be seen from the TDOS, the values of D ( $E_{\rm F}$ ) are 8.94, 7.55 and 0.79 states/eV for Li, Mg, and Al doping, respectively. This value for Al doping is relatively small compared to that for Li and Mg doping. Consequently, the relative low D (E<sub>F</sub>) will result in the Stoner criterion unlikely to be satisfied and thereby no magnetic moment in Al-doped single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . In order to more intuitively observe the distribution of magnetic moments, the spin density distributions of Li and Mg doped systems are plotted in Fig. 5. Obviously, the spin density is mainly located on the nearest-neighbor and third-neighbor S atoms. The dopant Li or Mg has no spin polarization, which differs from the results of nonmetal doping in the SnS<sub>2</sub> monolayer<sup>26</sup> in which the induced spin polarizations are almost located on the defect site. The above results suggest that the dopant only plays a key role to provide S atom with holes and the spontaneous magnetization in the systems is induced by the hole of S 3p orbital character, which is consistent with the analysis of density of states.

### **Journal Name ARTICLE ARTICLE**

# **3.3. Optical properties and photochemical energy conversion applications**

As a promising material in the fields of photovoltaic devices and photocatalyst, it is indispensable to explore the effects of X doping on the optical properties of single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . In our calculations, the optical absorption coefficient *α*(*ω*) is obtained from the expression:

$$
\alpha(\omega) = \sqrt{2}(\omega) \left[ \sqrt{\varepsilon_1^2(\omega) + \varepsilon_2^2(\omega)} - \varepsilon_1(\omega) \right]^{1/2},\tag{2}
$$

where the imaginary part  $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$  is directly associated with optical absorption and the real part  $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$  is calculated from  $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$  by the Kramer-Kronig transformation:<sup>37</sup>

$$
\varepsilon_2(\omega) = \left(\frac{4\pi^2 e^2}{m^2 \omega^2}\right) \sum_{i,j} \int \langle i|MJ| \rangle^2 f_i (1-fj) \delta \left(E_f - E_i - \omega\right) d^3k. \tag{3}
$$

In Fig. 6, we present the optical absorption spectra of X-doped single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  as a function of photon energy. As a reference, the optical absorption coefficient of pure  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  monolayer is also calculated and plotted in Fig. 6. Moreover, different optical incident light polarization directions, parallel (**E**∥*z*) and perpendicular (**E**⊥*z*) to the *z*-axis, are taken into account in this work for each doping case. As can be seen from Fig. 6, the characteristics of the optical absorption coefficients along **E**∥*z* and **E**⊥*z* directions are different, which indicates that the optical absorption presents anisotropic for doped systems. This is owing to the different dielectric response caused by the hexagonal structure of doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . The optical



**Fig. 6**. The optical absorption coefficients as a function of photon energy along the directions of perpendicular (a) and parallel (b) to the *z* axis for X doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ .



Fig. 7. Energy level diagram of pure and X-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> with respect to the standard reduction and oxidation potentials of water. The red and blue solid lines indicate the thermodynamic reduction and oxidation potentials, respectively.

anisotropy is also observed in  $Sn_{1-x}Ti_xS_2$  ternary alloys.<sup>31</sup> Besides, for all doping cases, the absorption along **E**⊥*z* direction is stronger than that along **E**∥*z* direction. Thus, in order to enhance the efficiency of solar spectrum, the growth direction perpendicular to the *z*-axis should be chosen for the low valence metal X-doped single-layer  $SnS_2$ . In Fig. 6(a), we can see that the absorption edges of three doped systems exhibit obvious red-shift with respect to the pure SnS<sub>2</sub>, which is associated with the decrease of band gap. It indicates that the low valence metal X doping is beneficial to improve the optical absorption in the visible light activity range. Furthermore, a broad absorbance peak from 0 to 2 eV occurs for each doping case, which is advantageous to improve the capacity of absorption in the low energy region. From the density of states analysis in Section 3.2, the appearance of the peak is directly related to the intraband transition caused by the unoccupied S 3p states located above the  $E_F$ . That is to say, the low valence metal X doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  can enhance the effective utilization of solar spectrum, especially in the near-infrared light.

In order to evaluate the effects of X-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  on the photocatalytic water splitting, the energy levels of doped systems are calculated and compared with the standard reduction and oxidation potentials of water. In our work, the energy zero is set to the reduction potential of  $H^{\dagger}/H_2$ , and the valence and conduction band-edge positions are estimated from the calculated density of states. As a reference, the energy level diagram of pure single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub> is also given in Fig. 7. Apparently, the VBM of pristine SnS<sub>2</sub> monolayer is below the oxidation potential of  $H_2O/O_2$  while the CBM does not lie across the reduction potential of  $H^+/H_2$ . This indicates that the pure single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is only favorable for oxygen evolution but not for hydrogen evolution, which agrees with the theoretical results of Ref. 24. For X- (Mg and Al) doped the singlelayer SnS<sub>2</sub>, the values of VBM lie more negative than the oxidation level of water and the CBM values still lie within the reduction level of water, which shows that they are active only for photo-oxidation of water. However, for Li doping in  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , the VBM lie more negative than the oxidation potential of  $H_2O/O_2$  and the CBM is about 0.03 eV higher than the reduction potential of  $H^+/H_2$ , which indicates that the doped system is beneficial for both the photo-reduction and photo-oxidation of water. Furthermore, the stability of semiconductors in the aqueous solution is also important for the

photocatalytic ability of materials, in addition to the band edge alignment. As reported by Wang *et al.,*<sup>38</sup> whether the semiconductor is resistant to the photocorrosion depends on the alignment of thermodynamic oxidation  $(\varphi^{\circ x})$  and reduction potentials (φ<sup>re</sup>) relative to the water redox potentials. The φ<sup>ox</sup> and *φ* re should be taken into account for the choice of candidate photocatalytic materials. Therefore, in order to investigate the stability of doped systems in aqueous solution, the thermodynamic potentials were estimated with the model proposed by Wang *et al*., as shown in Fig.7. As can be seen, the  $\varphi^{\text{ox}}$  is lower than the oxidation potential of  $H_2O/O_2$  for Mg (or Al)-doped single-layer SnS<sub>2</sub>, which shows that this material is stable with respect to the hole oxidation. For Li-doped  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ , the  $\varphi^{ox}$  is lower than the oxidation potential of  $H_2O/O_2$  and the  $\varphi$ <sup>re</sup> is higher than the reduction potential of  $H^{\dagger}/H_2$ , indicating this doped system is stable with respect to both the hole oxidation and electron reduction. Thus, the Li doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is expected to be a potential candidate for overall water splitting under visible light radiation.

# **4. Conclusions**

The first-principles calculations were performed to investigate the electronic and optical properties of low valence metal X (X=Li, Mg and AI) doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$ . The results show that the doping is energetically favored under S-rich condition with respect to Snrich condition, and the Al doping is easier to realize than Li and Mg doping. There is an ionic bonding character for Li-S and Mg-S bonds while covalent bonding behavior for Al-S bond. The defect states of S 3p character are introduced in the band gap, leading to a total magnetic moment of 3.00  $\mu_{\text{B}}$  and 1.75  $\mu_{\text{B}}$  for Li and Mg-doped SnS<sub>2</sub>, respectively. However, the system with Al doping exhibits the nonmagnetic ground states, which is due to the low hole density around the Fermi level. The calculations of optical properties show that the optical absorption along the *xy* plane is stronger than that along *z* direction, and the red shift of absorption edges are observed for all doping cases, which accordingly improves the photocatalytic ability in visible light range. Also, the effective utilization in the near-infrared light is enhanced because of the defect states. In addition, the Li doping in single-layer  $SnS<sub>2</sub>$  is expected to be a potential candidate for overall water splitting whereas the Mg and Al doping is suitable only for oxygen evolution.

# **Acknowledgements**

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51074112) and (11247224), and the supercomputing resources were supported by High Performance Computing Center of Tianjin University, China.

# **References**

- 1 K. S. Novoselov, A. K. Geim, S. V. Morozov, D. Jiang, Y. Zhang, S. V. Dubonos, I. V. Grigorieva and A. A. Firsov, *Science*, 2004, **306**, 666–669.
- 2 P. Avouris, Z. Chen and V. Perebeinos, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, 2007, **2**, 605.
- 3 A. K. Geim and K. S. Novoselov, *Nat. Mater.*, 2007, **6**, 183.
- 4 C. N. R. Rao, K. Biswas, K. S. Subrahmanyam and A. Govindaraj, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2009, **19**, 2457.
- 5 C. N. R. Rao, A. K. Sood, K. S. Subrahmanyam and A. Govindaraj, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2009, **48**, 7752.
- 6 D. Golberg, Y. Bando, Y. Huang, T. Terao, M. Mitome, C. C. Tang and C. Y. Zhi, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **4**, 2979-2993.
- 7 A. Pakdel, X. B. Wang, C. Y. Zhi, Y. Bando, K. Watanabe, T. Sekiguchi, T. Nakayama and D. Golberg, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2012, **22**, 4818-4824.
- 8 C. Xia, Y. Peng, S. Wei and Y. Jia, *Acta Mater.*, 2013, **61**, 7720- 7725.
- 9 C. H. Ho, M. H. Hsieh and C. C. Wu, *Rev. Sci. Instrum.*, 2006, **77**, 113102.
- 10 Y. C. Huang, C. Y. Ling, H. Liu, S. Y. Wang and B. Y. Geng, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2014, **118**, 9251-9260.
- 11 R. Wei, J. Hu, T. Zhou, X. Zhou, J. Liu and J. Li, *Acta Mater.*, 2014, **66**, 163-171.
- 12 D. M. Guzman and A. Strachan, *J. Appl. Phys.*, 2014, **115**, 243701.
- 13 W. Z. Bao, X. H. Cai, D. Kim, K. Sridhara and M. S. Fuhrer, *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, 2013, **102**, 042104.
- 14 Y. Ge, W. Wan, W. Feng, D. Xiao and Y. Yao, *Phys. Rev. B*, 2014, **90**, 035414.
- 15 S. Das , H. Y. Chen , A. V. Penumatcha and J. Appenzeller , *Nano Lett.*, 2013, **13**, 100.
- 16 P. Chen, Y. Su, H. Liu and Y. Wang, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces*, 2013, **5**, 12073-12082.
- 17 D. Ma, H. Zhou, J. Zhang and Y. Qian, *Mater. Chem. Phys.*, 2008, **111**, 391-395.
- 18 Y. C. Zhang, Z. N. Du, S. Y. Li and M. Zhang, *Appl. Catal. B.*, 2010, **95**, 153-159.
- 19 J. Yu, C. Y. Xu, F. X. Ma, S. P. Hu, Y. W. Zhang and L. Zhen, *Appl. Mater. Interfaces*, 2014, **6**, 22370-22377.
- 20 S. H. Chaki, M. P. Deshpande, D. P. Trivedi, J. P. Tailor, M. D. Chaudhary and K. Mahato, *Appl. Nanosci.*, 2013, **3**, 189.
- 21 J. Seo, J. Jang, S. Park, C. Kim, B. Park and J. Cheon, *Adv. Mater.*, 2008, **20**, 4269.
- 22 Y. Sun, H. Cheng, S. Gao, Z. Sun, Q. Liu, Q. Liu, F. Lei, T. Yao, J. He, S. Wei and Y. Xie, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2012, **51**, 8727.
- 23 R. Wei, J. Hu, T. Zhou, X. Zhou, J. Liu and J. Li, *Acta Mater.*, 2014, **66**, 163-171.
- 24 H. L. Zhuang and R. G. Hennig, *Phys. Rev. B*, 2013, **88**, 115314.
- 25 X. An, C. Y. Jimmy and J. Tang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, **2**, 1000.
- 26 C. X. Xia, Y. T. Peng, H. Zhang, T. X. Wang, S. Y. Wei and Y. Jia, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **16**, 19674.
- 27 H. W. Peng, H. J. Xiang, S. H. Wei, S. S. Li, J. B. Xia and J. B. Li, *Phys. Rev. Lett.,* 2009, **102**, 017201.
- 28 G. Kresse and J. Hafner, *Phys. Rev. B*, 1993, **47**, 558.
- 29 G. Kresse and J. Furthmuller, *Phys. Rev. B*, 1996, **54**, 11169.
- 30 J. P. Perdew, K. Burke and M. Ernzerhof, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 1996, **77**, 3865-3868.
- 31 C. Xia, J. An, T. Wang, S. Wei and Y. Jia, *Acta Mater.*, 2014, **72**, 223-228.
- 32 S. Grimme, *J. Comput. Chem.*, 2006, **85**, 1787-1799.
- 33 S. K. Arora, D. H. Patel and M. K. Agarwal, *Cryst. Res. Technol.*, 1993, **28**, 623-627.
- 34 R. F. W. Bader, *Atoms in Molecules: a Quantum Theory*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1990.
- 35 B. D. Malone, A. Gali and E. Kaxiras, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **16**, 26176-26183.
- 36 H. H. Pham, G. T. Barkema and L.-W. Wang, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2015, **17**, 26270-26276.
- 37 C. M. I. Okoye, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter*, 2003, **15**, 5945.
- 38 S. Chen and L.-W. Wang, Chem. Mater., 2012, **24**, 3659-3666.