

ZnFe₂O₄ Leaves Grown on TiO₂ Trees Enhance Photoelectrochemical Water Splitting

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TiO₂ has excellent electrochemical properties but limited solar photocatalytic performance in light of its large bandgap. One important class of visible-wavelength sensitizers of TiO₂ is based on ZnFe₂O₄, which has shown fully a doubling in performance relative to pure TiO₂. Prior efforts on this important front have relied on presynthesized nanoparticles of ZnFe₂O₄ adsorbed on a TiO₂ support; however, these have not yet achieved the full potential of this system since they do not provide a consistently maximized area of the charge-separating heterointerface per volume of sensitizing absorber. A novel atomic layer deposition (ALD)-enhanced synthesis of sensitizing ZnFe₂O₄ leaves grown on the trunks of TiO₂ trees is reported. These new materials exhibit fully a threefold enhancement in photoelectrochemical performance in water splitting compared to pristine TiO₂ under visible illumination. The new materials synthesis strategy relies first on the selective growth of FeOOH nanosheets, 2D structures that shoot off from the sides of the TiO₂ trees; these templates are then converted to ZnFe₂O₄ with the aid of a novel ALD step, a strategy that preserves morphology while adding the Zn cation to achieve enhanced optical absorption and optimize the heterointerface band alignment.

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1. Introduction

Photoelectrochemical (PEC) processes offer a direct use of sunlight for a large variety of applications, including hydrogen production for energy storage, as well as hydroxyl radical formation for pollutant degradation.^[1,2] Among the various photocatalysts developed to date, TiO₂ is particularly suited to commercial scale-up because it is abundant, nontoxic, and stable under photochemical conditions.^[3-6] Unfortunately, its large bandgap limits its photoactivity to the ultraviolet (UV) region. As a result, in the best case it can absorb only up to 5% of incident solar photons. This limits its potential to increase further in photoelectrochemical efficiency.

Strategies to expand the TiO₂ optical absorption spectrum into the visible region include the sensitization of TiO₂ with dyes or small-bandgap semiconductors,^[7-9] doping,^[10-13] and coupling TiO₂ with plasmonic nanostructures.^[14-17] The synergistic effects of coupling TiO₂ with another

semiconductor include the enhancement of charge separation, visible light absorption, and photostability. Each of these properties is important for practical use in environmental applications.^[13,18–20] For these reasons, a variety of semiconductors such as metal oxides, metal sulfides, and metal or carbon nitrides have been used to improve the activity of TiO₂ in the visible region.^[21–25]

We took the view that the synergistic combination of TiO₂ with spinel ZnFe₂O₄ stands to augment photocatalytic performance considerably. Spinel ZnFe₂O₄ is a semiconductor with a bandgap of 1.9 eV that forms a type II heterostructure with TiO₂.^[26,27] It has better photochemical stability compared to other small-bandgap materials such as metal sulfides and selenides. Several approaches have been employed to synthesize ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ (ZFO/TiO₂) heterostructures, including electrochemical, hydrothermal, and plasma spray methods.^[26,28,29] These heterostructures exhibit increased photoelectrochemical performance compared to pristine TiO₂ electrodes.

Prior attempts have unfortunately provided limited efficiency gains. We hypothesized that the issue was an architectural one: forming of ZnFe₂O₄ nanoparticles on TiO₂ surface failed to offer the kinds of interfacial areas, and intimate chemical contact between the two constituent materials, required to form efficient heterojunctions.^[26–31] Nanoparticle-covered 1D structures exhibit relatively low multiples of sensitization, as well as suffering from a small reaction area and limited capacity for reagent diffusion for photoelectrochemical reactions.

In seeking an improved architecture, we turned to the structure of plants such as corn and sugarcane – efficient systems for the conversion of solar energy to fuels. Plants begin with 1D trunks that branch into 2D leaves that facilitate sunlight absorption. The role of the 1D portion is to improve the mass transport while the 2D is a surface-area maximizing strategy that facilitates sunlight absorption, photosynthetic reaction area, and the diffusion of reactants.^[32,33]

We reasoned that TiO₂ (1D) TiO₂ nanowires (NWs), already available thanks to multiple prior advances,^[34–38] could be used as a template on top of which to grow heterostructures based on multimetal oxide nanosheets.

Unfortunately, we found that anisotropic 2D shapes are often unstable at the high temperatures, while high temperature is normally required to form a crystalline phase of mixed oxides.^[39] This incompatibility make it challenging to grow 2D shaped multimetal oxide materials.

We report herein a new synthetic route that allows the construction of ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets on TiO₂ templates. Specifically, the ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures are constructed using a combination of solution-phase materials growth techniques and completed with a final atomic layer deposition (ALD) step. The templated growth begins with the realization of FeOOH nanosheets on the surface of TiO₂ nanowires. These we then convert into ZnFe₂O₄ via an ensuing coating of ZnO grown by atomic ALD.

We find that the new heterostructures exhibit photoelectrochemical water splitting performance that is fully 3× higher than relevant controls under visible illumination. These results demonstrate that control over multistep multimaterial

nanostructuring can enhance photoelectrochemical water splitting under sunlight.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Synthesis and Characterization of ZFO/TiO₂ Controlling the Growth of ZFO on TiO₂ NW

The hierarchical ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheet/TiO₂ nanowire structures were synthesized via a two-step approach. First, FeOOH nanosheets templates are obtained via a solution-based 2D crystal growth method. We then use atomic layer deposition of a ZnO surface layer (**Figure 1A**) for conversion.

In detail, TiO₂ nanowire arrays were synthesized on fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass substrate by a hydrothermal method.^[40] TiO₂ nanowire arrays were rinsed with 5×10^{-3} M FeCl₃ solution. After 120 min sonication treatment, the shell layers have a nanosheet structure rather than being a continuous thin film shell on the surface of TiO₂ nanowire arrays (Figure S1, Supporting Information). These nanosheets are FeOOH per prior reports.^[41] The distribution of the shell nanosheets is tuned by controlling the Fe³⁺ treatment time (Figure S2, Supporting Information). Subsequent to the nanosheet formation, a conformal layer of ZnO was deposited on FeOOH/TiO₂ heterostructures using an atomic layer deposition process. Finally, ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures were obtained by 520 °C thermal treatment and 5 M KOH immersion to remove excess ZnO (Figure S6, Supporting Information).

The morphologies of pristine TiO₂ nanowire arrays and ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures were characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The nanowires are tetragonal in shape with square top facets and an average diameter of 30 nm (Figure 1B). Cross-sectional SEM image (Figure S3, Supporting Information) shows that pristine TiO₂ nanowire film consists of dense and vertically aligned nanowire arrays with a length of ≈ 5 μ m. The SEM images of FeOOH/TiO₂ and ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures are shown in Figure 1C,D. The film structure remains uniform over a large area, indicating that the nanowire arrays are intact during the growth of ZnFe₂O₄ (Figure S1B, Supporting Information). High-magnification SEM images (Figure 1E) show that TiO₂ nanowire arrays were uniformly covered with ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets, forming TiO₂-ZnFe₂O₄ core-shell structures on the nanowires with the ZnFe₂O₄ shell having a thickness of 30–50 nm (Figure 1E). To examine the crystalline structure of ZnFe₂O₄ and TiO₂, we used high resolution transmission electron microscope (HR-TEM). TiO₂ nanowires are single-crystalline with [001] orientation (Figure 1F). The observed lattice spacing of 0.32 nm belongs to the [110] interplanar distance of rutile TiO₂. In addition to the pristine TiO₂, a crystalline structure with the lattice fringes of 0.29 nm is also present (Figure 1G), which matches well with the [220] crystallographic plane of spinel ZnFe₂O₄.

To verify the crystal structure of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, we used X-ray diffraction (XRD), which reveals

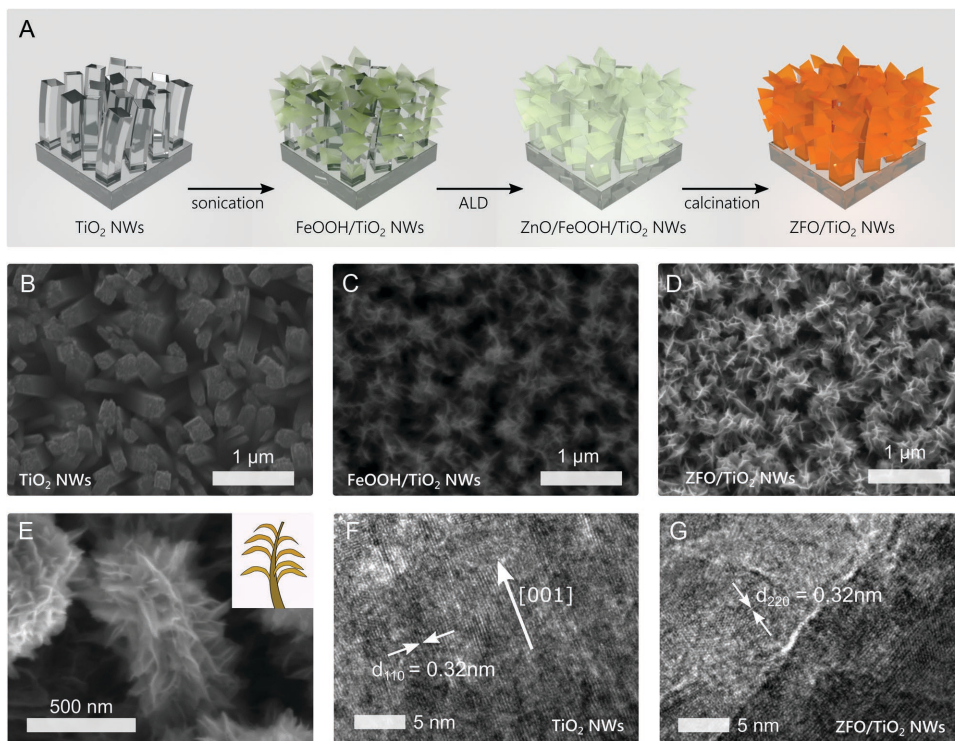


Figure 1. Preparation and morphology characterization of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures. A) Schematic illustration of the multiple steps of the preparation of ZFO/TiO₂. Top-surface SEM images of B) TiO₂ NWs, C) FeOOH/TiO₂ NWs, and D) ZFO/TiO₂ NWs. E) Closer SEM view of a typical ZFO/TiO₂ NW tree and its resemblance with the structure of a corn tree (inset). HRTEM images of F) TiO₂ nanowire arrays and G) ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures.

that (Figure 2A) TiO₂ nanowire arrays have well-defined diffraction peaks typical of highly crystalline rutile TiO₂ (JCPDS 88-1175). In the XRD pattern of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, an additional diffraction peak is present at $2\theta = 30.48^\circ$, which we attribute to the (220) hkl plane of the ZnFe₂O₄ crystal structure.

To investigate the oxidation states of the metal and the surface composition in ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, we employed X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Figure 2B). Two peaks in the Ti 2p XPS spectrum are present at the binding energies of 464.8 and 459.2 eV. These binding energies are in good agreement with those of Ti⁴⁺ oxidation states in pristine rutile TiO₂.^[42] Compared those in pristine TiO₂ nanowires, the Ti 2p peaks become much weaker in the XPS spectrum of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures. This result further confirms that in the ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets cover the surface of the TiO₂ nanowires.

Figure 2C,D shows the Zn 2p and Fe 2p XPS spectra of Zn and Fe in ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, respectively. The two peaks appeared in the Zn 2p XPS spectra (Figure 2C) at the binding energies of 1044.4 and 1022.8 eV are characteristics of Zn 2p_{1/2} and Zn 2p_{3/2}, respectively.^[43] This reveals the oxidation state of Zn²⁺ in the heterostructures. In the case of Fe 2p, the two peaks located at 710.6 and 724.4 eV should be assigned to the spectra of Fe 2p_{3/2} and Fe 2p_{1/2} for Fe³⁺.^[44] The Zn/Fe atomic ratio, calculated from XPS spectra is 1:2, which matches well with that in ZnFe₂O₄ material. The combination of the oxidation states and the atomic ratios confirms the presence of highly stoichiometric ZnFe₂O₄ material in the devices.

2.2. Controlling the Growth of ZFO on TiO₂ NW

To control the growth of ZFO on TiO₂, we systematically modified the FeOOH template by varying the treatment time of TiO₂ NW arrays in the Fe³⁺ solution. As shown in Figure 3A, the color of ZFO/TiO₂ samples changes from light yellow to red orange when the treatment time increases from 60 to 180 min. This indicates that the amount of ZnFe₂O₄ loaded on ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures increases with longer treatment time, which is confirmed by UV-vis absorption spectroscopy (Figure 3B). The absorption band at 600 nm, characteristic of ZnFe₂O₄ with a band gap of 2.1 eV, is also intensified with increasing treatment time, indicative of higher ZnFe₂O₄ content.

We then monitored the change in morphology of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures with different Fe³⁺ treatment times (Figure 3C). Only a small amount of ZnFe₂O₄ is observed on the surface of TiO₂ NWs with 60 min of treatment. Extending the treatment time to 120 min resulted in large ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets growing on the surface of TiO₂ NWs (Figure 1C,D). The slow growth rate of the nanosheets suggests that the growth of ZnFe₂O₄ stem directly from the TiO₂ NW surface. We propose that the higher potential energy barrier originates from the lattice mismatch between TiO₂ and ZnFe₂O₄ crystallites and results in slower growth kinetics of ZnFe₂O₄. After 180 min of Fe³⁺ treatment, the NWs become surrounded by nanosheets as observed in Figure 3D. Blade-like ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets emerge from the center of original TiO₂ NWs. ZnFe₂O₄ nucleates on preexisting nanosheets

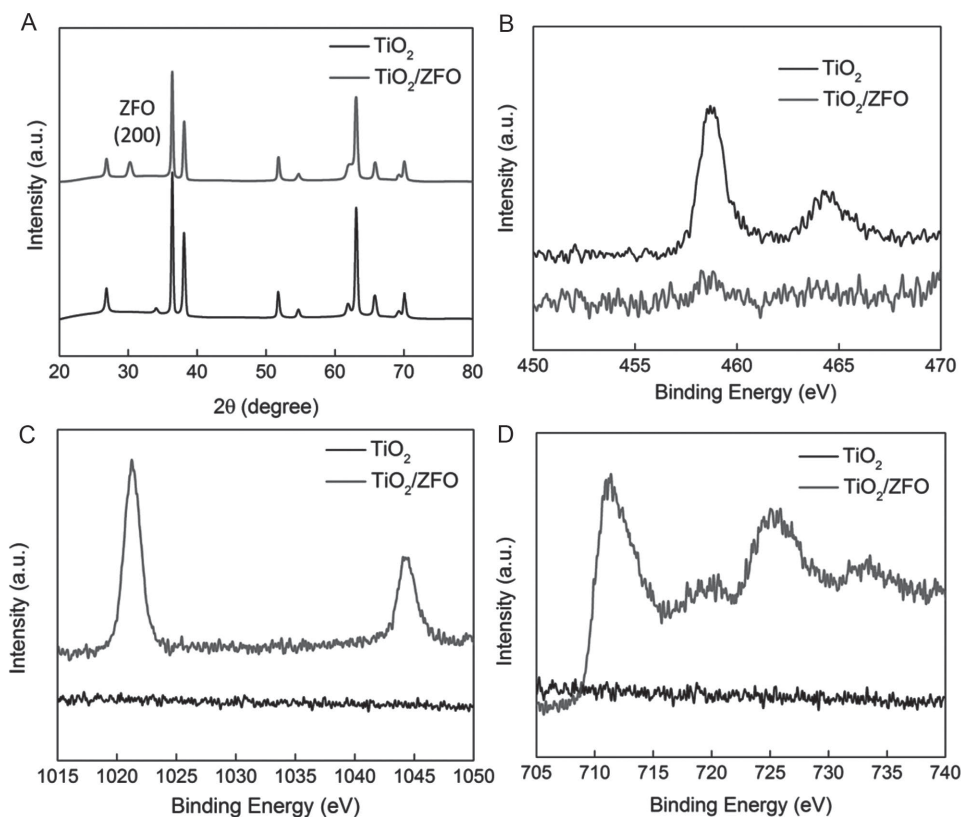


Figure 2. Crystallized structure and valence state of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures. A) XRD patterns of TiO₂ NWs (lower line) and ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets/TiO₂ NWs (upper line) heterostructures. B) Ti 2p XPS spectra (TiO₂²⁺ upper line), C) Zn 2p XPS spectra (TiO₂²⁺ lower line), and D) Fe 2p XPS spectra of the TiO₂ NWs (TiO₂²⁺ lower line) and ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets/TiO₂ NWs heterostructures.

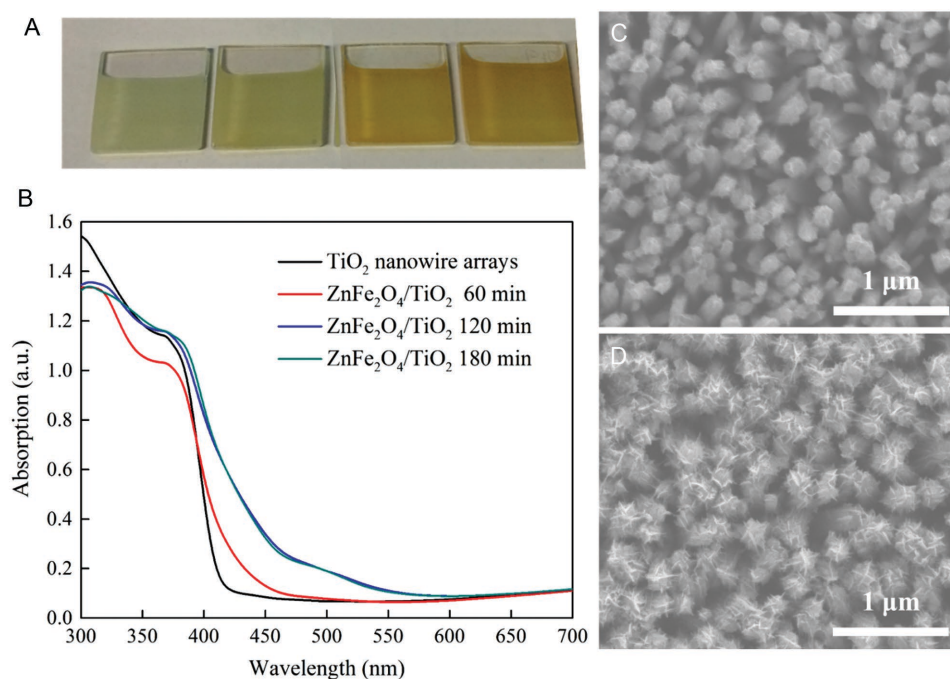


Figure 3. Characterization of ZFO/TiO₂ varying time. A) Photographs and B) UV-vis spectrum of the ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures with varying Fe³⁺ treatment time. SEM images of ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures with Fe³⁺ treatment C) 60 min and D) 180 min, respectively.

that, with a lower energy barrier and better epitaxy, would yield a faster reaction rate.

2.3. Photoelectrochemical Performance of TiO₂ Hybrids

To study the PEC performance of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures with different ZFO loadings and of pristine TiO₂ NW for water splitting, the samples were fabricated as photoanodes with a well-defined area of 1 cm². All PEC measurements were performed in a standard three-electrode electrochemical cell with a Pt wire as the counter electrode, an Ag/AgCl reference electrode, and 1 M KOH as the electrolyte solution. The reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) potential was converted from the Ag/AgCl reference electrode as $RHE = V(Ag/AgCl) + 1.0$ V. Linear sweeps in a potential window between 0.2 and 1.8 V versus RHE collected for ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures and pristine TiO₂ NW under simulated sunlight illumination at 100 mW cm⁻² is shown in **Figure 4A**. The pristine TiO₂ nanowire arrays exhibit a

photocurrent density of 0.5 mA cm⁻² at 1.0 V versus RHE. Coupling TiO₂ NWs with ZnFe₂O₄ increases the current density of TiO₂ NWs (Figure 4A). It also can be concluded that the series resistance is lower for ZnFe₂O₄ samples while the shunt resistance remains unmodified from a function of applied potential versus RHE.

In order to investigate any benefits derived from the nanosheet structure, we synthesized ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures in which ZnFe₂O₄ nanoparticles are grown on TiO₂ NWs nanoparticles (Figure S5, Supporting Information). As shown in Figure 4A, both ZnFe₂O₄ nanoparticles and ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets on TiO₂ NWs heterostructures show increased photocurrent density compared to pristine TiO₂ NW arrays at 1.0 V versus RHE. The highest current density is obtained with ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures with 120 min of sonication treatment, reaching a current density of 0.7 mA cm⁻² at 1.0 V versus RHE, which is 1.4 times higher than that of pristine TiO₂ NWs and 1.2 times higher than that of ZFO nanoparticles/TiO₂ heterostructures. Increasing the treatment time further decreases the performance of ZFO/TiO₂

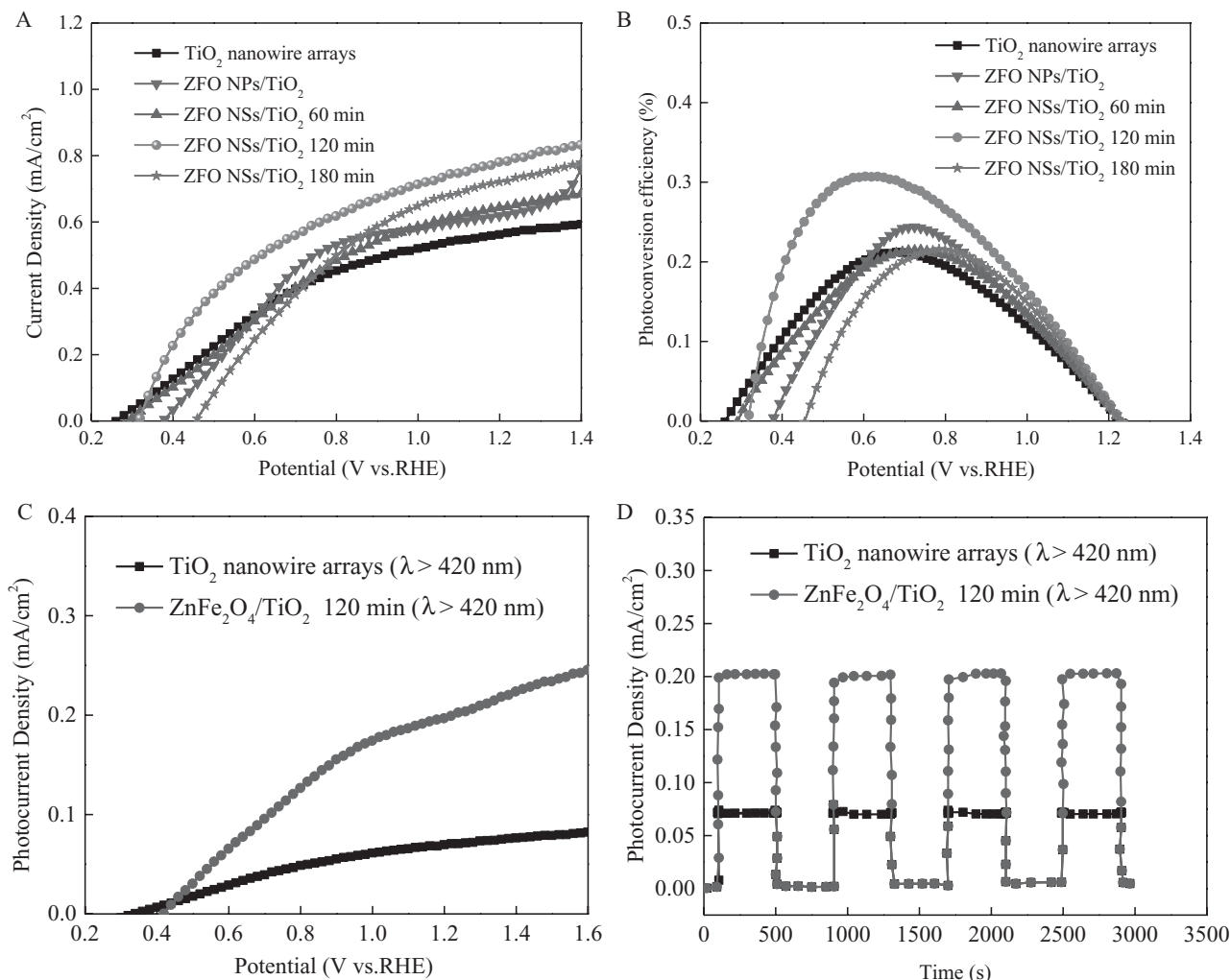


Figure 4. Performance comparison of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures and pristine TiO₂ NWs. A) Variation of photocurrent density and B) photoconversion efficiency versus bias potential (vs RHE) under solar illumination (100 mW cm⁻²). C) Variation of photocurrent density versus bias potential (vs RHE) under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm). D) Time-dependent photocurrent density of TiO₂ NW and ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructure photoanode at repeated on/off cycles of visible light illumination.

heterostructures. Longer treatment time may result in an increase of ZFO size but a constant interface area between ZFO and TiO₂ NWs. The larger size of ZFO may induce charge recombination due to the short diffusion length of ZFO,^[45] leading to a decrease in performance. The amount of ZnFe₂O₄ loaded on TiO₂ affects the onset potentials of resulting ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures. With increasing amount of ZnFe₂O₄ nanosheets on TiO₂, the onset potential is shifted to more positive potentials. This effect could be explained by the change in conduction band of ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures with varying ZnFe₂O₄ amount. In addition, the amount of ZnFe₂O₄ also affects the coverage of TiO₂ nanowire surface which changes the surface activity of the heterostructure in water oxidation. This could also lead to the change in onset potential of the heterostructures.

The photoconversion efficiency η is obtained from

$$\eta(\%) = J_p \left[(1.23 - V_{app}) / I_0 \right] \quad (1)$$

where J_p is the photocurrent density (mA cm⁻²), I_0 is the intensity of incident light (mW cm⁻²), and V_{app} is the applied potential to the photoanode (V versus RHE). Figure 4B shows the total percent photoconversion efficiency η (%) as a function of applied potential (E_{app} vs RHE) for the ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures and pristine TiO₂ nanowire arrays under AM 1.5. A maximum photoconversion efficiency of 0.31% is obtained at an applied potential of 0.60 V versus RHE for the ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures, while it was 0.21% for pristine TiO₂ nanowire arrays at 0.65 V versus RHE. The overall solar to hydrogen conversion efficiency is dependent not only on the light absorption and charge separation efficiency, but also on the catalytic activity of the electrodes. In this case, the catalytic activity of water oxidation on ZnFe₂O₄ limit the overall water splitting efficiency. This could be enhanced by coupling the photoanode heterostructure with superior water oxidation catalyst.

We then sought to investigate the effect of ZFO loading on the photoelectrochemical performance of TiO₂ NWs under visible light irradiation by applying a 420 nm cut-off filter to remove the fraction of the UV light of the simulated solar spectrum. The data (Figure 4C) reveal that ZFO/TiO₂ shows a much higher performance compared to pristine TiO₂ NWs under visible light illumination. At 1.0 V versus RHE, ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures exhibit a current density of 0.18 mA cm⁻². This value is fully three times higher than that of pristine TiO₂ NWs (0.06 mA cm⁻²). The photocurrent on ZFO/TiO₂ under 1.5 AM solar obtained with back side illumination is slightly higher than that obtained with front side illumination. This result could be explained by the fact that the TiO₂ is the main contribution to the photocurrent density of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures. The ZFO on the top of TiO₂ NW array could reflect the UV light when illuminating from the front, leading to a slight decrease in overall performance of ZFO/TiO₂.

To study the chemical and structural stability during PEC water splitting, we carried out time-dependent measurement on ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures and TiO₂ NWs as shown in Figure 4D. The rise and fall of the photocurrent corresponded well to the illumination being switched on and off. When the illumination was interrupted, the current rapidly

dropped to almost zero. Upon illumination, the photocurrent reverted to the original steady state value within a couple of seconds (>90% of the steady state value was obtained instantaneously). The ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures show a highly stable photocurrent density of ≈ 0.2 mA cm⁻² versus 1.2 V RHE with repeated on/off cycles under visible light over the course of 3000 s. This result implies that the formation of a heterojunction between ZFO and TiO₂ increases the separation of photogenerated holes and electrons which prolong the lifetime of generated charges, leading to a higher photoelectrocatalytic activity compared to pristine TiO₂ nanowires. These data suggest that with the high activity and potential long-term stability, ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures could be ideal for visible light driven photoelectrocatalysis.

The mechanism for the enhancement in PEC performance of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures compared to TiO₂ NWs is illustrated in **Figure 5**. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) indicates the work function and valence band maximum level of TiO₂ and ZnFe₂O₄, confirming a type II band alignment in TiO₂/ZnFe₂O₄ heterostructures (Figure 5A,B). The overall conversion process is depicted as follows: ZFO is excited by incident light and generates electron-hole pairs (step 1), and electrons in the conduction band of ZnFe₂O₄ are transferred to conductive FTO through TiO₂ NWs (step 2). At the same time, the holes in the valence band of ZnFe₂O₄ oxidize H₂O to O₂ (step 3). The charge separation between TiO₂ NWs and ZnFe₂O₄ enhances photoelectrochemical performance under solar and visible light illumination. 2D ZnFe₂O₄ with large surface area exposed also contribute to performance of ZFO/TiO₂ heterostructures.

3. Conclusion

We report herein a sequential pathway to the materials synthesis of 2D/1D multimetal oxide nanosheets/TiO₂ nanowire heterostructures. We achieved this by depositing the nanosheets with a mixture of metal oxide precursors using a solution phase method followed by an ALD-based cation introduction. We demonstrate an application of these new materials enabled by growing ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures involving an initial growth of FeOOH nanosheets template on TiO₂ NWs, which we subsequently convert into ZnFe₂O₄ by ZnO ALD deposition and thermal treatment. Our 2D/1D ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterojunctions exhibit 1.4 and three times higher photoelectrochemical performance compared to that of pristine TiO₂ NWs under solar and visible light illumination, respectively. The 2D/1D ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures form a material system that enhances photoelectrochemical water splitting. The strategy may be extended to other mixed-metal oxide nanosheets systems having applications in catalysis, energy storage, and conversion.

4. Experimental Section

Materials: Iron (III) chloride (FeCl₃) and titanium isopropoxide (99% Aldrich) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. All the chemicals were used without further purification.

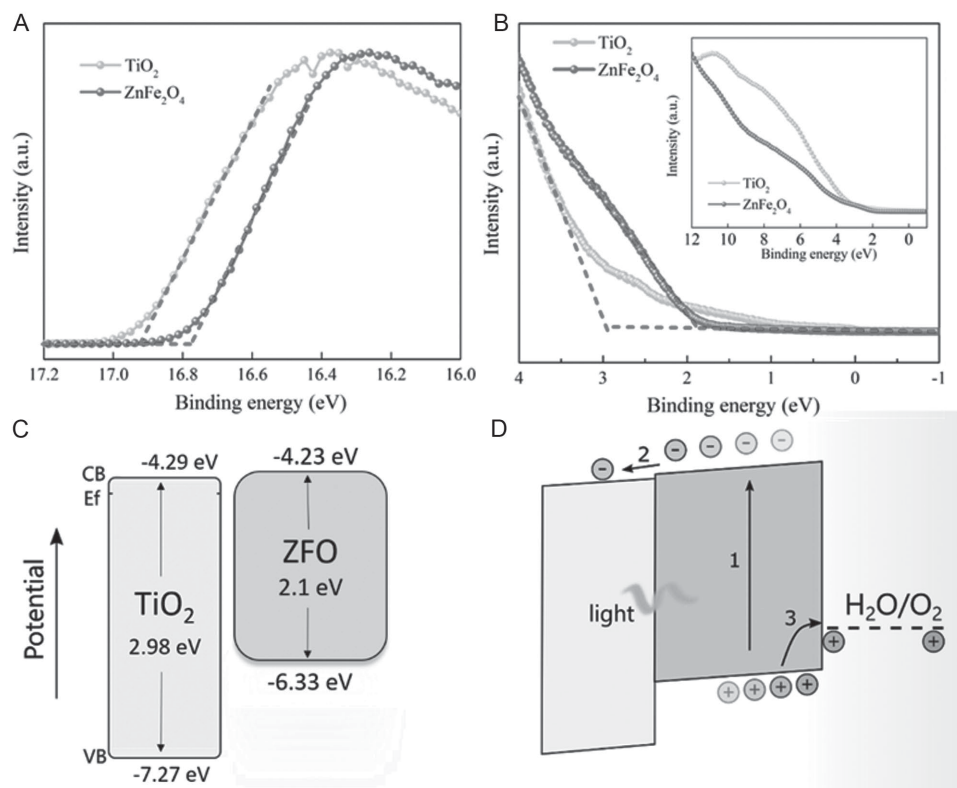


Figure 5. UPS spectra of pure TiO_2 and ZnFe_2O_4 and energy level diagram of the ZFO/TiO_2 heterostructure. A) A detailed spectrum of inelastic cutoff region. It also shows the cutoff energy with a vertical bar. B) Fermi edge region, which is similar to (A). C, D) Energy level diagram of ZFO/TiO_2 before and after contact, respectively. (1) Visible light is absorbed in the ZFO phase. Photogenerated charges are split via drift or diffusion. (2) Electrons get injected into the TiO_2 phase to then recirculate through the external driving circuit. (3) Holes remain at the ZFO to oxidize water. On top of the structural benefit, the heterostructure architecture reduces electron–hole recombination in the ZFO therefore increasing the yield of the reaction.^[31]

Synthesis of TiO_2 Nanowire Arrays on FTO Substrate: In a typical process, the FTO substrates were first cleaned with a mixture of isopropanol and water for 2 h under sonication condition and were then dried with N_2 gas at room temperature. To a mixture of deionized water (15 mL) and hydrochloric acid (15 mL, 36.5 wt%), was added titanium isopropoxide (0.45 mL, 99% Aldrich) under stirring condition. After 1 h of stirring, the mixture was transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave. Cleaned FTO/glass substrates (2 cm \times 2 cm) were immersed into the water/HCl/titanium isopropoxide mixture with the conducting side face down. The autoclave was put in an oven set at a temperature of 160 $^\circ\text{C}$ and was taken out from the oven after 5 h of crystallization. The autoclave was cooled down to room temperature and the TiO_2 NWs grown on FTO substrate were washed several times with ethanol and DI water and were subsequently annealed at 450 $^\circ\text{C}$ in air for 1 h.

Synthesis of 2D/1D ZnFe_2O_4 Nanosheets/ TiO_2 Nanowires Heterostructures: The annealed TiO_2 nanowire arrays substrate were immersed into 5×10^{-3} M FeCl_3 aqueous solution. The mixture was then sonicated for different time. The obtained $\text{FeOOH}/\text{TiO}_2$ composite were cleaned with isopropyl alcohol and DI water followed by a drying step with N_2 gas. ZnO layer was deposited on the surface of $\text{FeOOH}/\text{TiO}_2$ by ALD technique using diethylzinc (99.90%, Strem) and pure DI water as the precursors. 50 cycles of ALD were used to produce ZnO layer with a thickness of 10 nm. Finally, $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ heterostructures were obtained by annealing $\text{ZnO}/\text{FeOOH}/\text{TiO}_2$ at 520 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 3 h followed by a treatment with 5 M KOH solution to remove excess ZnO .

Characterization: Surface SEM and cross-section SEM of TiO_2 nanowires and $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ heterostructures were taken on a Hitachi SU8230 scanning electron microscope operated at 1.0 kV. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and HRTEM images of the samples were taken on a Hitachi HF3300 transmission electron microscope operated at 300 kV. The samples were prepared on carbon-coated copper TEM grids (Ted Pella, Redding, CA) using micropipettes and were dried under ambient condition. Powder XRD patterns were obtained with MiniFlex600 instrument. Data was collected in Bragg-Bretano mode using 0.02° divergence with a scan rate of 0.1° s^{-1} . XPS measurements were carried out in a Thermo Scientific K-Alpha system, with a 300 μm spot size, 75 eV pass energy, and energy steps of 0.05 eV, aluminum anode X-ray excitation. UPS spectra were performed in a PHI5500 Multi-Technique system using nonmonochromatized $\text{He-I}\alpha$ radiation (UPS, $h\nu = 21.22$ eV). All work function and valence band measurements were performed at a take-off angle of 88° , and the chamber pressure was $\approx 10^{-9}$ torr. Work functions (WF) were calculated from the secondary electron cut-off (SEC) using the equation $\text{WF} = 21.22 \text{ eV} - \text{SEC}$. The differences between Fermi levels and valence band maximum, η , were determined from the low binding energy onset. The absorbance of the samples has been obtained using an integrating sphere attachment in a PerkinElmer Lambda900 spectrophotometer to avoid scattering and reflectance. The generation of O_2 during the water splitting has been examined by gas chromatography (PerkinElmer Clarus 680) equipped with Molecular sieve 5A capillary column and thermal conductivity detector (Figure S8, Supporting Information).

Photoelectrochemical Measurement: Photoelectrochemical measurements were performed using a three-electrode system connected to an electrochemical workstation (Autolab PGSTAT302N) in 1 M KOH electrolyte. ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ electrode were used as the working electrode (photoanode). Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) electrode and Pt wire were used as reference electrode and counter electrode, respectively. Photocurrent versus voltage (*I*-*V*) characteristics were recorded from -1 V to +1 V with a scan rate of 1 mV s⁻¹. All experiments were performed at ambient temperature (22 °C ± 2 °C) and electrode potentials were converted to the RHE scale using $E(\text{RHE}) = E(\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl}) + 0.197 \text{ V} + 0.059 \times \text{pH}$. Where $E(\text{RHE})$ is the converted potential versus RHE, and $E(\text{Ag}/\text{AgCl})$ is the measured potential versus Ag/AgCl reference electrode. Transient photocurrent density versus time plots of TiO₂ and ZnFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterostructures were recorded at an applied potential of 1.2 V versus RHE under visible light sources.

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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