

# MoS<sub>2</sub>/Au sensitized TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays with core-shell nanostructure for hydrogen production

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**ABSTRACT:** Herein, a TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoanode was constructed with the intention to fulfill the efficient transfer of photo-generated carriers to the photoelectrode's surface. Au nanoparticles were decorated by a drop casting method and the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer was deposited above the Au nanoparticles using a photoreduction-annealing process. Au nanoparticles were well dispersed on the inner wall of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes and covered by MoS<sub>2</sub> layer, forming a core-shell nanostructure. The MoS<sub>2</sub> layer significantly improved the attachment between Au nanoparticles and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs resulting in increased PEC stability and performance. Attributed to the excitation of Au nanoparticles' LSPR effect and visible light utilization of MoS<sub>2</sub>, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoanode exhibits greatly enhanced photocurrent density. An increase from 67  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  to 234  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  under Xe lamp illumination and from 2.6  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  to 12.6  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  under visible light illumination ( $\lambda > 420$  nm) compared with the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs was observed.

**KEY WORDS:** nanostructures; photoelectrochemical property; hydrogen production

## INTRODUCTION

In recent years, semiconductor photocatalysts have attracted great scientific interest for their relevance to renewable energy storage and potential for providing energy without the emission of carbon dioxide [1]. Photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting on semiconductor photocatalysts is a prospective solution for fulfilling this purpose [2, 3]. Since Fujishima *et al.* reported n-type titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) as a photocatalyst for water splitting [4], TiO<sub>2</sub> has been widely researched due to its remarkable stability in electrolyte, high photocatalytic ability and low cost [5]. However, the applications of TiO<sub>2</sub> as photocatalyst are still limited by its wide bandgap (only photo-responsive under UV illumination) and poor photo-generated carrier separation [6]. Recently, one dimensional (1D) TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes and vertically oriented TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays (TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs) have attracted much attention for their highly ordered surface morphology and improved photocatalytic activity compared with traditional TiO<sub>2</sub> films and nanoparticles [7,8]. Molybdenum sulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>), as one kind of layered transition metal dichalcogenides, has been identified as one of the most attractive candidates for photocatalysis due to its catalytically active over a wide range of pH values, excellent morphologies, visible light response and good electronic properties [9]. To date, MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts have been incorporated with other semiconductors by different methodologies such as: drop casting [10], electrodeposition [11], sulfidization of Mo or thermal decomposition [12]. Heterostructures with good photocatalytic properties have been successfully synthesized by coupling MoS<sub>2</sub> with energy band matched semiconductors such as CdS [13], MoO<sub>3</sub> [14] and SnO<sub>2</sub> [15]. In particular, an enhanced photocatalytic 3D hierarchical heterostructure was reported by coating a MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet layer on to TiO<sub>2</sub> nanobelts [16]. Tandem photoelectrodes comprising a wider bandgap semiconductor and a smaller bandgap one

connected in series, just like the TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> heterostructures, have been shown to be efficient for improving the utilization of solar light. However, the photocurrent is usually limited due to the blocked transfer of photo-generated carriers at the interface between the semiconductors. Noble metal gold nanoparticles (Au NPs) with localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) effect have been proposed to enhance the efficiency of photo-generated carriers' transfer, such as reported in WS<sub>2</sub>-Au-CuInS<sub>2</sub>, ITO-Au-PZT, CdS-Au-SrTiO<sub>3</sub>, and Au-SrTiO<sub>3</sub> photocatalysts recently [17-21].

These previous literature works have motivated us to combine MoS<sub>2</sub> with TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs to improve the photocurrent under visible light and apply Au NPs to enhance the transfer of the photo-generated carriers at the TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface. Therefore, we have constructed a TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> photoelectrode by anodization, drop casting and photoreduction-annealing methods. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> photoelectrode shows a core-shell nanostructure and a considerable enhancement of photocurrent. The coating of MoS<sub>2</sub> also forms a bound layer, which significantly improved the attachment between Au NPs and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs results in improved PEC stability and performance.

## EXPERIMENTAL

### Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> photoelectrodes

TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs were fabricated by anodization of titanium (Ti) sheets similar to the previously reported method [22]. Prior to anodization, Ti sheets (>99% purity, 15×15 mm<sup>2</sup>) of 0.1 mm thickness were chemically etched in a mixed solution (HF : HNO<sub>3</sub> : H<sub>2</sub>O=1 : 4 : 5 in volume ratio) for 3 min, followed by rinsing with deionized (DI) water. The etched Ti sheets were then ultrasonically cleaned in acetone, ethanol, DI water for 10 min each. Anodization was performed in a two-electrode cell with a Ti sheet as anode and a graphite sheet as cathode. The electrodes were parallelly immersed in about 100 ml ethylene glycol (EG) solution containing 3 vol% H<sub>2</sub>O and 0.3 wt% NH<sub>4</sub>F at a distance of 6 cm. 60 V of voltage was applied between the electrodes for 2 hours by a DC power supply. After anodization the Ti sheets were cleaned with DI water and dried in air. The Ti sheets were then annealed in an oven at 450 °C for 3 hours with a heating rate of 1 °C /min under air atmosphere.

For TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au, the Au NPs were deposited on the Ti sheets (after anodization but without annealing process) by a drop casting method. About 50 μL of the Au NPs (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.99% purity) solution (20 mM) was dropped onto the Ti sheet and dried at 80 °C in air. After that, the Ti sheets with Au NPs were annealed in an oven at 450 °C for 3 hours under air atmosphere. After the annealing process, Au NPs were formed within the wall and on the surface of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs; we call this TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au photoelectrode.

The MoS<sub>2</sub> layer was synthesized by a photoreduction-annealing process on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au. First, a bath solution consisting of 0.017 M aqueous solution of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>[MoS<sub>4</sub>] was prepared by adding 44 mg (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>[MoS<sub>4</sub>] (Alfa Aesar, 99.95% purity) into 10 mL N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF). The as-prepared (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>[MoS<sub>4</sub>] solution was sealed in a dark bottle and kept under Argon atmosphere until use. Before coating, the (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>[MoS<sub>4</sub>] solution was sonicated for 10 min and the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au samples were put on a conductive sample stage. Approximately 0.5 mL of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>[MoS<sub>4</sub>] solution was dropped onto TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au surface. Then, the sample was irradiated under 300 W Hg lamp illumination for 15 min. To exclude the high-energy irradiation from Hg lamp, an optical low pass filter with a cut-off of 400 nm was used. Subsequently, the sample was annealed at 400 °C in a nitrogen atmosphere (3 Pa) for 2 hours to form the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoelectrode. As control samples, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> was prepared by coating MoS<sub>2</sub> layer on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs by the same photoreduction-annealing process.

### Photoelectrochemical measurement

For PEC measurements, all the photoelectrode samples were cut into 1.5 ×1.5 cm<sup>2</sup> squares. Tinned copper wire

was connected to the Ti sheet substrate by gallium-indium eutectic (Sigma-Aldrich). The exposed backside and edges of the samples were sealed with an industrial epoxy (PKM12C-1, Pattex). The Photocurrent density-time (J-t) curves of the photoelectrodes were measured by an electrochemical workstation (CHI660D, CH Instrument) with a Xe lamp (Oriol, Newport Co.) as light source and 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution as electrolyte. The photo response was evaluated under chopped light irradiation with a long pass filter (cut-off wavelength: 420 nm) to simulate visible illumination. The intensity of the light source was calibrated with a spectroradiometer (Newport 1918) to simulate AM 1.5 illumination (100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>). During the measurement, photoelectrodes served as working electrode, platinum (Pt) wire as the counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode. The photocurrent was measured under zero applied bias voltage.

### Sample characterization

The samples were characterized by a Rigaku D/MAX 3C X-ray diffractometer using Cu K<sub>α</sub> radiation. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) surface and cross-section images of samples were observed by a Hitachi SU8010 Field-Emission SEM and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI Tecnai G2F20) at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed at room temperature using a spectrometer hemispherical analyzer (ESCALAB 250Xi, Thermo). All XPS microprobe with binding energies were referenced to adventitious carbon at 284.6 eV. UV-vis absorption spectra was measured on an Agilent Cary 300 spectrometer.

### Hydrogen evolution measurement

The hydrogen evolution by water splitting was conducted in an air-tight photo-reactor made of quartz glass. In the photo-reactor, the sample photoelectrode and the Pt counter electrode were separated in different tubular chambers, which avoid the mixing of hydrogen generated on the Pt electrode and oxygen on the photoelectrode. The measurement was conducted in a solution containing 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> under 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> Xe lamp illumination. The amount of hydrogen was determined by gas chromatography equipped with TCD (Tianmei, GC 7890T). The Faradic efficiency for the hydrogen production is calculated by dividing the determined amount of hydrogen into half the amount of electrons passed through outer circuit during the water splitting reaction.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

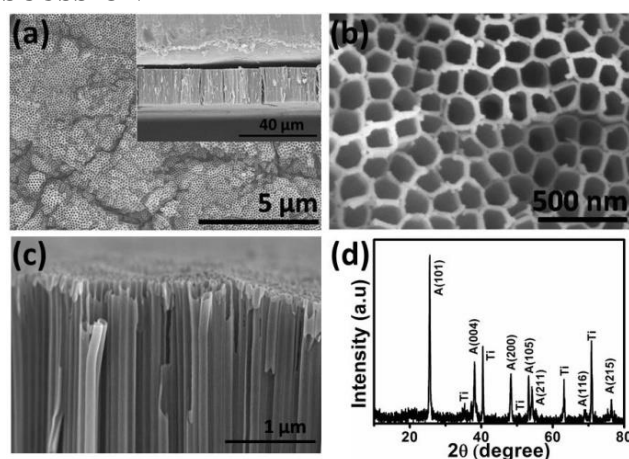


Fig. 1. Top-down (a) and (b), cross sectional (c) SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. (d) XRD pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs.

### Morphological characterization and X-ray diffraction

Fig. 1(a) and (b) presents the top-down view SEM images of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs exhibits

vertically oriented tubular array with an average diameter of about 120 nm and a wall thickness of 10 nm. The morphology features of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs fabricated by anodization were the same as previously reported [22]. From the cross-sectional SEM image shown in the inset of Fig. 1(a), we can see the length of the open on top TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs is about 20 μm. Highly ordered and aligned nanotubes with well-defined tubular structures and smooth walls can be clearly observed in Fig. 1(c). As we can see in Fig. 1(d), the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs shows obvious diffraction peaks assigned as (101), (004), (200), (105) together with some weak peaks assigned (211), (116) and (215), which are in good agreement with the standard JCPDS cards No. 21-1272 and match the characteristics of anatase phase TiO<sub>2</sub>.

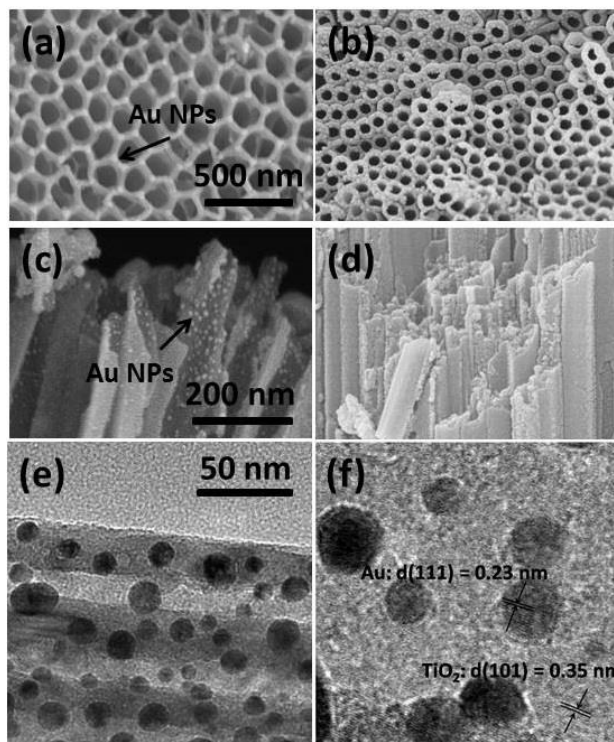


Fig. 2. Top-down and cross sectional SEM image of (a), (c) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au and (b), (d) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>. (e), (f) TEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au.

Fig. 2(a) and (c) show the distribution of Au NPs on the wall of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. The fine Au NPs are highly dispersed on the inner wall of tubes which is much clearer in the TEM image of Fig. 2(e). The Au NPs can be clearly observed with good uniformity in the distribution (diameters from 10 nm to 20 nm). From the High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image as shown in Fig. 2(f), the (111) planes of Au NPs with a lattice spacing of 0.23 nm were observed. The (101) planes of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs with a lattice spacing of 0.35 nm were also easily observed in this image. During our experiment, the deposition of Au NPs is fabricated by a drop casting and annealing process. As TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs has a much larger pore size than the diameter of Au NPs, the Au NPs can move into the TiO<sub>2</sub> tubes. Besides, during the annealing process, the Au NPs acquired thermal energy and were able to migrate, which is governed by the surface energies at interfaces. At the final equilibrated state, the surface attains the morphology with the smallest possible surface area to volume ratio. That is why the Au NPs dispersed on the inner wall rather than aggregating on the top and blocking the tubes. As for TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, the wall of nanotubes roughened and the mean diameter of nanotubes decreased (about 60 nm), but retained the open top. A uniform and well-attached MoS<sub>2</sub> layer stacked around the tube mouth as we can see in Fig. 2(b). In Fig. 2(d), a thin layer of continuous MoS<sub>2</sub> is formed on the inner tube wall and fully covers the tube inner surface, which reveals that the photoreduction-annealing process does not damage the ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs structures but forms core-shell nanostructure.

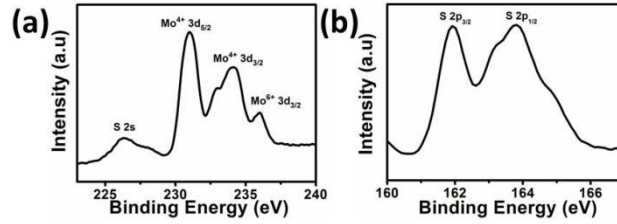


Fig. 3. XPS spectra of (a) Mo 3d and (b) S 2p of MoS<sub>2</sub> in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>.

### XPS analysis

The XPS analysis for MoS<sub>2</sub> layer in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> fabricated by a photoreduction-annealing process is performed and presented in Fig. 3(a) and (b), which further confirms the composition of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoanode. The XPS spectra peaks at 229.4 and 232.6 eV in Fig. 3(a) are related to Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> orbitals, respectively. S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and S 2p<sub>1/2</sub> orbitals of divalent sulfide ions (S<sup>2-</sup>) at 161.5 and 162.7 eV are also shown Fig. 3(b). This results are in good agreement with the reported values for MoS<sub>2</sub> [12, 23, 24]. The peak of 6<sup>+</sup> oxidation state of Mo can be found at 235.9 eV, which can be attributed to MoO<sub>3</sub> [12].

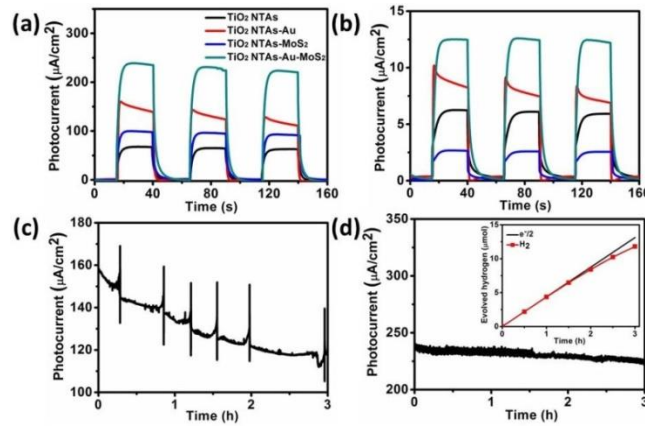


Fig. 4. J-t curves of photoelectrodes under (a) Xe lamp light (100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) and (b) visible light illumination ( $\lambda > 420$  nm). Dependence of the photocurrent on time for (c) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au and (d) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, inset is the hydrogen production on time measured.

### PEC properties measurement and hydrogen evolution

In Fig. 4(a), we present the photocurrent density versus time (J-t) curves for the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> photoelectrodes. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs photoelectrode exhibits a small anodic photocurrent, 67  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ , which is due to TiO<sub>2</sub> intrinsic absorption properties. As for the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au, an obviously increased but gradually declining photocurrent (158  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  at the beginning) can be observed. The increased photocurrent is caused by the LSPR effect of Au NPs [17]. When we add a MoS<sub>2</sub> layer on the surface of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs, the photocurrent increases to 98  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ . When the Au NPs are incorporated into the interface of TiO<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>, an enlarged anodic photocurrent of 234  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  can be observed. To further understand the principle of the photocurrent increase, we measured the photocurrent of photoelectrodes using a wavelength cut-off filter of 420 nm in order to separate the contribution from the visible light where TiO<sub>2</sub> is not excited. Fig. 4(b) shows that the photocurrent coming from the visible light ( $\lambda > 420$  nm) for the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs is 2.6  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ , which is just above the background dark current due to the weak absorption of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs in the visible region. The photocurrent increases to 9  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ , but in a state of instability as we can see, for TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au. When MoS<sub>2</sub> layer is deposited on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs surface, the visible light photocurrent increases to 6.2  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ . This is

consistent with the light absorption of MoS<sub>2</sub>, which can absorb visible light, implying in this case the photocurrent is mainly determined by MoS<sub>2</sub> [25]. As expected, an obvious photocurrent density enhancement is observed on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoelectrode, reaching 12.6 μA/cm<sup>2</sup> under the same visible light illumination, which is nearly 5 times larger than TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. Such enhanced PEC performance originates from the following two factors: the visible light absorption of the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer and the presence of Au NPs at TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface. Although those two factors both contribute to the enhancement of photocurrent observed, comparing Fig. 4(a) and 4(b) we believe that there are different carrier transfer mechanisms in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, which will be discussed in detail later. Fig. 4(c) shows the long time J-t curves of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au. As we can see, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au exhibits unstable PEC performance, decreasing from 158 μA/cm<sup>2</sup> to less than 110 μA/cm<sup>2</sup> in 3 hours continuous PEC reaction. The main reason for this decrease of photocurrent is the loose attachment between Au NPs and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. With the increasing PEC reaction time, the Au NPs become detached, which brings about the decrease of photocurrent density. On the other hand, a sustained photocurrent is observed for TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> up to 3 hours of continued PEC reaction as shown in Fig. 4(d) indicating excellent stability. We believe the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer significantly improved the attachment between Au NPs and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs resulting in increased PEC stability. The inset figure of Fig. 4(d) shows the time course of hydrogen evolution from the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoanode–Pt mesh (as cathode) electrode system. The water splitting reaction was conducted in hydrogen saturated 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution under 0 V vs. Ag/AgCl reference electrode with illumination of 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> Xe lamp. The evolution of hydrogen gas during the water splitting reaction was measured and the photocurrent during the reaction was also recorded to calculate the amount of electrons passing through the outer circuit. During the measurement, the amount of hydrogen evolved was close to half of the calculated electrons passing through the outer circuit but the Faradic efficiency slightly decreased with increasing time. In our case, the water splitting reactor is small in volume and the amount of evolved hydrogen is on the μmol scale. Such small amounts of hydrogen are quite easily dissolved in the electrolyte solution and cannot be detected by the gas chromatograph equipment. That is why the Faradic efficiency for the hydrogen production decreased to nearly 90% after 3 hours water splitting reaction.

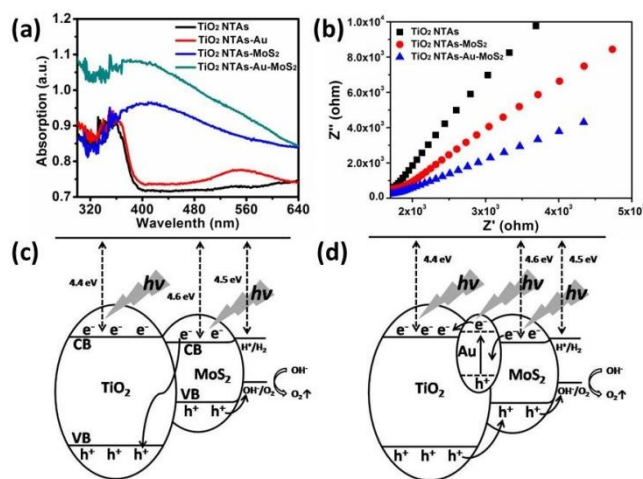


Fig. 5. (a) UV-vis absorption spectra and (b) EIS spectra of the photoelectrodes. The energy band structure of (c) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and (d) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>.

### UV-vis absorption, EIS analysis and energy band structure

To understand the observed increase of photocurrent, the UV-vis absorption spectra of different photoelectrodes were measured and compared in Fig. 5(a). The absorption spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs has a clear edge around 387 nm, which corresponds to the bandgap of TiO<sub>2</sub> (~3.2 eV). Above the bandgap energy of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs, an

obvious enhancement of light absorption is observed with a broad peak centered around 550 nm in the absorption spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au. This absorption peak corresponds to the LSPR effect of Au NPs [26]. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> has obvious absorption above 360 nm, which matches the narrow bandgap of MoS<sub>2</sub> [25]. This implies narrow bandgap MoS<sub>2</sub> can improve absorption in the visible light spectrum. As for TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, an obviously enhanced optical absorption from UV to visible light spectrum can be observed. In order to see whether the carriers' separation and transfer are enhanced at the photoelectrodes' surface simultaneously, we depict in Fig. 5(b) the corresponding electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) spectra. All the photoelectrodes show pronounced arcs at higher frequencies, whose diameters manifest the reaction rate occurring at the surface [27]. Comparing with the different photoelectrodes, the semicircle decreases with the order of TiO<sub>2</sub>NTAs, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>. As we can see, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> shows the smallest EIS semicircle, indicates it to be the best for carriers' separation and transfer, consistent with the observed enhanced PEC properties shown in Fig. 4(a) and (b).

On the basis of above PEC results, the schematic energy band diagrams of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> are displayed in Fig. 5(c) and (d) to illustrate the carrier migration principle. In general, TiO<sub>2</sub> has a wide bandgap with the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) edges at 4.4 and 7.6 eV below the vacuum level respectively, which can be referred to a n-type semiconductor. While MoS<sub>2</sub> is a narrow bandgap (~1.8 eV) n-type semiconductor with high conductivity [13, 28, 29]. The CB and VB edges of MoS<sub>2</sub> are located at 4.6 and 6.4 eV below the vacuum level respectively [25]. Since the CB edge of TiO<sub>2</sub> is situated higher than that of MoS<sub>2</sub>, a barrier forms at TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface, which impedes the photo-generated electrons moving from the CB of MoS<sub>2</sub> to the CB of TiO<sub>2</sub> as illustrated in Fig. 5(c). Upon light illumination, the photo-generated electron-hole pairs are promptly excited in both TiO<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>. The electrons in the CB of MoS<sub>2</sub> could migrate to the VB of TiO<sub>2</sub> and combine with the holes from TiO<sub>2</sub> there. This recombination of electron-hole pairs at the VB of TiO<sub>2</sub> acts as an electron receiver, which promotes the interfacial carriers' transfer and separation efficiency leads to the photocurrent enhancement of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-MoS<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, the electrons from the CB of TiO<sub>2</sub> would migrate to the bottom electrode. There is also a barrier at MoS<sub>2</sub>/electrolyte interface. The built-in electric field induced by this barrier contributes to separation and transport of the photo-generated carriers. The holes from the VB of MoS<sub>2</sub> would move in the opposite direction to the electrolyte and oxidize water into oxygen, which explains the photoanodic property in TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composites. In this case, TiO<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub> are connected in series, like other tandem photoelectrode systems [30, 31], and the photocurrent is inevitably limited by the lower performing component, which in our case is MoS<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, a relatively small photocurrent is observed as illustrated above. When TiO<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub> are interfaced by the Au NPs, a barrier at TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface and two ohmic tunneling contacts at MoS<sub>2</sub>/Au and TiO<sub>2</sub>/Au interfaces are established. In this case, the photo-generated electrons from the CB of MoS<sub>2</sub> will migrate to Au NPs and be pumped to the CB of TiO<sub>2</sub> by LSPR effect. The photo-generated electrons from both MoS<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> will subsequently move to the bottom electrode together as depicted in Fig. 5(d). Since the heterojunction at the TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface provide a favorable energy level alignment for photo-generated holes from the VB of both TiO<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>, they move to the electrolyte together. In this case, the photocurrent is not be limited by MoS<sub>2</sub> which leads to the obviously enhanced photocurrent.

## CONCLUSION

In summary, a TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs-Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell photoanode was constructed by simple drop casting and photoreduction-annealing methods. Au NPs can restrain the combination of photo-generated electron-hole pairs and provide a stronger electron-extraction to drive the photo-generated carriers out of the photoelectrode. With the addition of the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer, the Au NPs are firmly attached to the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs, causing a synergistic increase in PEC performance and stability. A photocurrent density of 234  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  was obtained under zero bias vs. Ag/AgCl and

100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> Xe-lamp illumination in Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte, where 12.6 μA/cm<sup>2</sup> is from visible light illumination (λ>420 nm), which is nearly 5 times larger than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTAs. Through comparing with the PEC properties of different photoelectrodes and energy band analysis, a physical mechanism was proposed to explain the synergistic effect of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Au NPs.

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