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# 3D core-shell WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode modified by ultrathin FeOOH layer for enhanced photoelectrochemical performances



ALLOYS AND COMPOUNDS

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#### 1. Introduction

#### ABSTRACT

The solar light absorption efficiency as well as the carrier separation and transfer efficiency in the bulk and on the surface of the photoanodes are still the main challenges for efficient photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting. Hence, in this work, a 3D core-shell WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode modified by ultrathin FeOOH layer was designed and fabricated for the first time to maximize respective merits of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> (excellent electron transport pathways),  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (strong visible light absorption) and FeOOH (a hole transfer) to achieve efficient PEC performances. As a result, the as-fabricated WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode exhibits a 120 mV negatively shift in onset potential and yields a photocurrent density of 1.12 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE, which is 1.72 and 3.73 times than that of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub> photoanodes, respectively. Moreover, this work may provide an effective strategy of maximizing the advantages of each component in the composite photoelectrode to achieve effective PEC performance.

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Since the pioneering work of photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting using TiO<sub>2</sub> as the photoanode under solar irradiation was reported by Honda and Fujishima in 1972 [1], the PEC system based on nano-semiconductors working as the workhorse to convert solar energy into hydrogen has acquired interest because it is of great significance to solve environmental crisis and realize sustainable development [2,3]. Consequently, a large number of nanosemiconductor materials have been explored as photoelectrodes for PEC water splitting, especially for the metal oxides (ZnO [4], WO<sub>3</sub> [5,6],  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [7,8], etc) which have been extensively studied because of their earth abundance, low cost and low toxicity [9].

Among them, WO<sub>3</sub> with a band gap of 2.5–2.8 eV possesses a moderate hole diffusion length (~150 nm), excellent electron mobility ( $12 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and the positive valence band edge (3.0 V vs. NHE) for water oxidation, making it emerge as a promising

candidate for PEC water splitting [10-12]. However, hindered by its visible light absorption and high carrier recombination efficiency, PEC performances of the single WO3 photoanodes are still far below that expected. Therefore, coupling WO<sub>3</sub> with the narrow energy band gap semiconductors to construct heterojunction is deemed as an effective way to address the above issues [13]. For example, Liu el al [14] prepared a high quality BiVO<sub>4</sub>/WO<sub>3</sub> photoanode using an in situ transformation approach, which showed the excellent visible light response and a good photostability. The photocurrent density was up to 2.92 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.81 V vs. RHE owing to the  $BiVO_4/WO_3$ heterojunction structure which is beneficial for charge separation as well as the extended photoresponse range. Similarly, the widely concerned single  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode still suffers from rapidly electron-hole recombination, leading to low PEC performances [15]. Fortunately,  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has a narrow bandgap ( $E_g = 2.1$  eV), which makes it have a strong absorption of visible light, that is, 40% of solar energy can be utilize theoretically [16,17]. Hence, it is necessary to couple WO<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to form heterojunction structure to exert respective advantages to improve the PEC performances.

In addition, depositing effective water oxidation catalysts including noble metal oxides ( $IrO_x$  and  $RuO_x$ ) and metal-based



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materials (Fe, Co, Ni, Mn and Cu) to improve the sluggish oxygen evolution kinetics, resulting in significantly increased PEC performances [18,19]. Particularly, iron oxyhydroxide (FeOOH) has acquired interest due to its earth-abundant, chemically stable, environmentally friendly and higher oxygen evolution reaction activity [20,21]. For instance, Zhang el al [22]. grew the highly crystalline ultrathin  $\beta$ -FeOOH cocatalyst with abundant oxygen vacancies onto BiVO<sub>4</sub> photoanode via a facile solution impregnation, and the resulting BiVO<sub>4</sub>/FeOOH photoanodes exhibited a remarkable photocurrent density of 4.3 mA/cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE. Kuang and his colleagues deposited FeOOH on the surface of  $Fe_2TiO_5$  treated with  $AI^{3+}$  (Al-Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub>) to improve the PEC performances of Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub> photoanode [23]. As a result, the Al–Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub>/ FeOOH showed a photocurrent density of 0.52 mA/cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE, which is about 2.8 and 1.6 times than that of Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub> and Al–Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub>, respectively, which can be attributed that the surface Al<sup>3+</sup> treatment accelerates charge transport and the FeOOH layer improves catalytic activity.

Motivated by the above concerns, the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorices were deposited on the surface of one-dimensional (1D) WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods through a hydrothermal method and annealing treatment, followed by depositing FeOOH layer via a facile chemical bath deposition (CBD) method. The novel 3D WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanodes can make greater use the individual merits of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> (excellent electron transport pathways),  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (strong visible light absorption) and FeOOH (a hole transfer) to achieve efficient PEC performances. Moreover, the 3D WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction structure can decrease carrier recombination efficiency and increase carrier separation efficiency. Furthermore, this work is helpful for the design of efficiency photoelectrodes which can improve the efficiency of carrier separation and transfer in the bulk and on the surface as well as extend the response range to achieve enhanced PEC performances.

#### 2. Experimental section

#### 2.1. Synthesis of WO<sub>3</sub> films

The WO<sub>3</sub> films were fabricated on the FTO substrates by hydrothermal method and annealing treatment [24]. In brief, the mixture aqueous solution containing Na<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (2.0 mmol), K<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O (0.9 mmol) and HCl (2 mL) was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (25 mL) and heated at 180 °C for 12 h. After cooling down to room temperature naturally, the samples were washed with deionized water and then annealed at 550 °C for 2 h.

# 2.2. Synthesis of $WO_3@\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films

The WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were synthesized through a hydrothermal method and annealing treatment. The precursor solution was prepared by mixing FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (0.15 M) and NaNO<sub>3</sub> (1 M) in deionized water and using magnetic stirring at room temperature. Then the mixture was transferred into the Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave heated at 100 °C for 4 h, in which a piece of above obtained sample was leaned against the inner wall. Afterwards, the obtained sample was rinsed with deionized water and then annealed at 550 °C for 2 h to convert FeOOH to  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

# 2.3. Synthesis of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH films

The WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH films were fabricated by a facile chemical bath deposition (CBD) method. The as-obtained WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film was immersed in a hot aqueous solution (100 °C) of FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (0.15 M) and NaNO<sub>3</sub> (1 M) for 5 min. Then, the samples

were gently rinsed with deionized water and dried at 60 °C for 10 h. The schematic preparation process of the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH composite structure is illustrated in Fig. 1.

### 2.4. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded by an X-ray diffractometer (D/Max-2500, Rigaku) with Cu Ka radiation. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were collected with a fieldemission scanning electron microscope (JEOL JSM-7400F) attached with the energy dispersive spectrum (EDS). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were performed on a transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM-2100). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was applied using a Thermo system (ESCALAB 250XI) with Al-Ka radiation. UV-visible (UV-Vis) absorption spectra were recorded on a DU-8B UV-vis double-beam spectrophotometer. Surface photovoltage (SPV) plots were recorded on a surface photovoltage spectrometer (PL-SPS/IPCE1000). The PEC measurements were carried out using a three-electrode system comprised of asprepared samples as the working electrode, an Ag/AgCl reference electrode and a Pt counter electrode in 0.2 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution. A xenon lamp with calibrated intensity of 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> (AG 1.5G) was utilized as the light source. The Ag/AgCl potential can be converted into the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) potential using the following equation (1) [25]:

$$E_{RHE} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + 0.0591pH + 0.1976V \tag{1}$$

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) spectra were collected with an AC voltage amplitude of 5 mV in the dark. Mott-Schottky (M - S) plots were obtained at a frequency of 1000 Hz in the dark.

#### 3. Results and discussion

The XRD patterns of WO<sub>3</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/ FeOOH are shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. S1 to investigate their crystalline structure phase. Apart from the diffraction peaks marked with the symbol of "•" corresponding to SnO<sub>2</sub> originated from the FTO substrate, the peaks collected from WO<sub>3</sub> in Fig. 2a can be well indexed as monoclinic WO<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS: 72-0677). It can be clearly observed from Fig. 2b that the peaks marked with the symbol of "\*" at 33.15° and 35.61° correspond to the (104) and (110) planes of rhombohedral phase  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS 33-0664). Besides, the remarkably increased peak at 24.13° is well agreement with  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Noteworthy, there is no new phase formation after



Fig. 1. Schematic illustration for the synthetic route of WO\_3@ $\alpha$ -Fe\_2O\_3/FeOOH composite.



Fig. 2. XRD patterns of WO<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite. Bottom lines are standard diffraction peaks of SnO<sub>2</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

introduction of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. These proof the successful fabrication of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. However, the diffraction peaks of FeOOH cannot be observed in Fig. S1 due to its amorphous phase [26].

SEM images of as-prepared samples are shown in Fig. 3 to characterize their surface morphologies. The WO<sub>3</sub> exhibits typically vertical smooth-faced nanorods (NRs) morphology with an average diameter of 200–300 nm and height of 2.56  $\mu$ m approximately (Fig. 3a). As shown in Fig. 3b, the rice-like  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with average length of 300–400 nm and diameters of about 50–100 nm decorate uniformly on the surface of WO<sub>3</sub> NRs, suggesting the successful formation of 3D core-shell WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> structure. After

depositing FeOOH layer, the surface morphology keeps almost unchanged, illustrating that the subsequent CBD process has no effect on its morphology. In order to further reveal the microstructures of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH, the TEM and HRTEM imagines are obtained in Fig. 4 and Fig. S2. The lattice fringes with spacing of 0.369 nm and 0.269 nm can be assigned to the (200) plane of WO<sub>3</sub> and (104) plane of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The amorphous FeOOH layer with the thickness of approximately 2 nm is observed in Fig. S2, and it is highly uniform. Moreover, the EDS elemental mapping images (Fig. 4e) and corresponding elemental analysis spectrum (Fig. 4f) indicate the even distribution of W, O and Fe elements in WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH.

Specifically, the XPS measurement was conducted to investigate the surface compositions and valence states in  $WO_3@\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/ FeOOH, and the high-resolution spectra of individual elements were obtained in Fig. 5. In Fig. 5a, three peaks located at 284.8 eV, 286.3 eV and 288.5 eV correspond to sp2 bonded carbon (C-C), carbonyls (C=O) and carboxyl (O=C-O) functional groups, respectively [27]. The high resolution in W 4f spectra (Fig. 5b) displays two peaks at 37.7 eV and 35.6 eV corresponding to  $4f_{5/2}$ and  $4f_{7/2}$  of W<sup>6+</sup> [28]. The XPS spectrum of Fe 2p in Fig. 5c exhibits a peak at 710.7 eV for Fe  $2p_{3/2}$ , 724.6 eV for Fe  $2p_{1/2}$ , and a satellite peak, which are precisely assigned to the binding energies of Fe<sup>3+</sup> in  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> phase [29]. In Fig. 5d, the O1s peaks at 529.9 eV and 531.4 eV can be attributed to the lattice oxygen  $(O^{2-})$  and surfaceabsorbed O species (-OH) [30]. These results along with the XRD patterns and HRTEM imagines demonstrate the formation of WO<sub>3</sub>@a-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH composite.

Subsequently, the UV–Vis spectras of all samples are obtained to illustrate their optical properties, and the optical band gap  $(E_g)$  can be calculated by the following equation (2) [31]:

$$(\alpha h\nu)^n = A(h\nu - Eg) \tag{2}$$

where  $\alpha$ , h, v and A are the absorbance coefficient, the Planck's constant, the vibration frequency and a constant, respectively. Besides, n is the vibration frequency of WO<sub>3</sub> (n = 2) due to its direct



Fig. 3. (a1-a2) Top and (a3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>. (b1-b2) top and (b3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. (c1-c2) top and (c3) cross-sectional view images of WO<sub>3</sub>.



Fig. 4. (a) TEM image of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH. (b) HRTEM image of the areas selected in (a). HRTEM images: (c) α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and (d) WO<sub>3</sub>. (e, f) EDS elemental analysis spectrum and corresponding elemental mapping images of W, O, and Fe, respectively.



Fig. 5. High-resolution XPS: (a) C 1s, (b) W 4f, (c) Fe 2p and (d) O 1s.

band gap. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that the absorption edge of WO<sub>3</sub> locates at about 460 nm, corresponding to a band gap of 2.75 eV. Compared with WO<sub>3</sub>, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> shows a red-shift absorption range and increased visible light harvesting capability. It is worth noting that the bandgap of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (2.16 eV) is very close to that of reported individual  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (2.1 eV) [32,33],

suggesting that  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> works as primary light absorber in 3D WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite. After the deposition of ultrathin FeOOH layer, the absorption edge of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH hardly changes.

As shown in Fig. 7a, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibits an enhanced photocurrent density of 0.65 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE compared with WO<sub>3</sub> (0.30 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>). The WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH yields the



Fig. 6. (a) UV–Vis absorption spectrum of WO<sub>3</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH. (b) Corresponding Tauc plots of WO<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>



Fig. 7. (a) LSV plots of WO<sub>3</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanodes measured in 0.2 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution under AM 1.5 G illumination. (b) Calculated applied bias photon-to-current efficiency (ABPE) curves. (c) Transient photocurrent density versus time (I–T) curves. (d) Time-dependent photocurrent density curves measured at 1.23 V vs RHE under illumination.

highest photocurrent density value of 1.12 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE. Besides, the photoanode exhibits a 120 mV negatively shifts in onset potential. Accordingly, the applied bias photon-to-current efficiency (ABPE) is calculated by equation (3) [33]:

$$\eta(\%) = J(1.23 - V) / P \times 100\%$$
(3)

where J is the measured photocurrent density (mA/cm<sup>2</sup>), V is the applied bias (RHE) and P is the incident irradiance (100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>).

As expected, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH achieves a maximum of 0.32% at a potential of 0.65 V vs. RHE (Fig. 7b). Moreover, the transient photocurrent density versus time (I-T) curves of all photoanodes are measured at 1.23 V vs RHE. As shown in Fig. 7c, the photocurrents of all the photoanodes quickly rise up and drop down once the light turns on and off, demonstrating their excellent transient photoresponse. Particularly, the sharp "spike" of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can be observed in Fig. 7c which represent the accumulation of carriers at the moment of switching on and off the light,

indicating the slow water evolution oxygen dynamics of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [34]. After depositing ultrathin FeOOH layer, the "spike" of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH is smaller, suggesting the improved water evolution oxygen dynamics and charge transport properties. Furthermore, the stability tests of all photoanodes were measured at 1.23 V vs RHE under AM 1.5G illumination. In Fig. 7d, no obvious decays of photocurrent density were observed during the rest, suggesting their excellent stability.

Afterwards, in order to investigate the effect of the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on increased photocurrent, the SPV measurement was firstly carried out. To the best of our knowledge, SPV technology is used to characterize the surface density of photogenerated charges in the interface between WO<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, in other words, the stronger

SPV signal means higher charge separation and transfer efficient [35]. In Fig. 8a, the WO<sub>3</sub> exhibits a weak positive SPV signal, which indicates the low separation efficiency of the photogenerated charges in WO<sub>3</sub>. The significantly increased SPV signal can be observed after introduction of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which indicates that more photo-excited holes migrate to the irradiation side after separation, confirming that the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction could promote photo-excited electron-hole pairs separation and transfer. Based on the above results along with the reported band energy position of WO<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the charge separation and transfer process in WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction are shown in Fig. 8b. The conduction band position and valence band position of WO<sub>3</sub> are more positive than those of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which are favorable for the formation of



**Fig. 8.** (a) SPV spectroscopy of the photoanodes with front illumination. (b) Schematic diagram of the charge separation and transfer process in WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction. (c) EIS plots (d) the corresponding equivalent circuit. Charge separation efficiency (e) in the bulk ( $\eta_{bulk}$ ) and (f) on the surface ( $\eta_{surface}$ ).

type-II heterojunction structure. Under solar light excitation, the electron-hole pairs will be photoexcited both in WO<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, the photogenerated electrons can easily transfer from the conduction band (CB) of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to the CB of WO<sub>3</sub>, whereas the photogenerated holes of WO<sub>3</sub> are tend to injected to the valence band (VB) of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Hence, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction can facilitate the charge separation and transfer. It is noteworthy that the 1D WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods exhibit superior charge transport properties because they can offer the direct electron transport pathways with reduced grain boundaries, which further boost the charge separation and transfer [36]. Therefore, the 3D WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction structure shows an enhanced photocurrent density compared with WO<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 7a).

Hereafter, in order to conduct the role of ultrathin FeOOH layer, the EIS plots were obtained in Fig. 8c to elucidate the charger transfer resistance at the interface of electrode/electrolyte. Besides, an equivalent circuit model in Fig. 8d is adopted to fit the EIS data, in which R<sub>s</sub>, R<sub>ct</sub> and CPE are the electrolyte resistance, the charge transfer resistance at the photoelectrode/electrolyte interface and the constant phase element, respectively, and the consponding parameters are shown in Table S1. As shown in Fig. 8c, the lower charge transfer resistance can be observed in WO<sub>3</sub>@a-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> compared with WO<sub>3</sub> due to the heterojunction between WO<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which can reduce the electron-hole recombination rate and accelerate the charge transfer. The WO3@a-Fe2O3/FeOOH shows the smallest R<sub>ct</sub> value, illustrating that charge can across photoelectrode/electrolyte interface more easily after depositing of ultrathin FeOOH layer, which can be attributed that the FeOOH acts as a hole transfer can promote the photogenerated holes shift to the electrode/electrolyte interface, avoiding the accumulation of photogenerated holes, thus, boosting the PEC performances.

To further quantify the effect of FeOOH layer, the charge separation efficiency in the bulk ( $\eta_{bulk}$ ) and on the surface ( $\eta_{surface}$ ) were determined by adding 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> hole scavenger into 0.2 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte solution based on equation (4) [12]:

$$J_{H_2O} = J_{abs} \times \eta_{bulk} \times \eta_{surface} \tag{4}$$

where  $J_{H2O}$  is the measured photocurrent density (Fig. 7a) and  $J_{Na2SO3}$  is the photocurrent density measured in the 0.2 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte solution via adding 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> hole scavenger (Fig. S3). Notably, the charge separation efficiency on the surface is estimated to be 100% withe the presence of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> as a hole scavenger. Thus, the  $\eta_{bulk}$  and  $\eta_{surface}$  can be expressed as equations (5) and (6) [17,37]:

$$\eta_{\text{bulk}} = J_{\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3} / J_{abs} \tag{5}$$

$$\eta_{\text{surface}} = J_{H_2O} / J_{Na_2SO_3} \tag{6}$$

In Fig. 8e, the  $\eta_{bulk}$  values of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode are much higher than those of WO<sub>3</sub> over the entire potential range, which could be attributed that the built-in electric field in the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction improves the charge separation efficiency. It can be seen that the  $\eta_{sep}$  value of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode reaches 35.57% at 1.23 V vs. RHE, which is almost 1.75 times than that of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (20.31% at 1.23 V vs. RHE). Besides, the  $\eta_{surface}$  value of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH is 78.77% at 1.23 V vs. RHE, which is about 1.57 and 2.02 times than that of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The great enhancement can be attribute to the ultrathin FeOOH layer acts as the hole transfer could accelerate the migration of holes to the photoelectrode/electrolyte interface to participate in the water oxidation reaction, decreasing the carrier recombination, thus, resulting in the improved photocurrent

generation and onset potential shift for WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode in Fig. 7a.

In order to determine the carrier concentration  $(N_d)$  of all photoanodes, the M – S plots are obtained in Fig. 9. The  $N_d$  value can be calculated based on the following equations (7) and (8) [38]:

$$\frac{1}{C^2} = \left(\frac{2}{e\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 N_d A^2}\right) \left(V_{\rm A} - V_{\rm FB} - \frac{kT}{e}\right) \tag{7}$$

$$N_d = \frac{2}{e_{\varepsilon\varepsilon_0}A^2} \left[ \frac{d(1/C^2)}{dV} \right]^{-1}$$
(8)

where C, V<sub>A</sub>, V<sub>FB</sub> and A are the space charge capacitance of semiconductor (F·cm<sup>-2</sup>), the applied potential (V), the flat band potential (V) and the photoactive area, respectively. e is elementary charge (e =  $1.602 \times 10^{-19}$  C),  $\varepsilon$  is the relative permittivity of WO<sub>3</sub>,  $\varepsilon_0$  is the permittivity of the vacuum ( $\varepsilon_0 = 8.834 \times 10^{-12}$  F/m), and k is Boltzmanns constant (k =  $1.38 \times 10^{-23}$  F/m). As shown in Fig. 9, all the photoanodes show positive slopes corresponding to their ntype semiconductor characteristics. It can be seen that the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode shows much higher carrier concentration than that of WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which is in line with the photocurrent values in Fig. 7a. This demonstrate that the ultrathin FeOOH layer as a hole transfer rapidly extract the holes at the surface of photoanode, which accelerates the water oxidation kinetics and further promotes the photogenerated electron-hole pairs separation and transfer.

On the basis of the above context, the mechanism of charge separation and transfer in WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode is proposed in Fig. 10. Under visible light irradiation, the photogenerated electrons in the conduction band of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can easily transfer to WO<sub>3</sub> [39], at the same time, the photo-generated holes in the valence band of WO<sub>3</sub> inject into that of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [40], driven by the internal electric field in WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction. Moreover, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction exerts respective advantages of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> (excellent electron transport pathways) and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (strong visible light absorption). Thus, an efficient spatial separation and transfer of electrons-hole pairs can be realized, which can be proved by SPV plots in Fig. 8a. After the deposition of ultrathin FeOOH hole transfer layer, the holes would further



Fig. 9. Mott-Schottky (M – S) plots of WO<sub>3</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanodes measured at a frequency of 1 kHz in dark.



Fig. 10. Mechanism of charge separation and transfer in  $\mathsf{WO}_3@\alpha\text{-}\mathsf{Fe}_2\mathsf{O}_3/\mathsf{FeOOH}$  photoanode.

transfer to FeOOH to the electrode/electrolyte interface quickly, which avoids the accumulation of photogenerated holes at the surface and reduces the charge-transfer barrier (Fig. 8c), leading to the great promoted separation efficiency on the surface in Fig. 8d. Consequently, the WO<sub>3</sub>@ $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode yields significantly enhanced PEC performances under visible light.

### 4. Conclusion

In this work, a 3D core-shell WO<sub>3</sub>@a-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> photoanode modified by ultrathin FeOOH laver was designed and fabricated for efficient PEC performances. The  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorices were firstly decorated on the surface of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods to form 3D core-shell WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> heterojunction through a hydrothermal method and annealing treatment, then the ultrathin FeOOH layer was deposited via a facile chemical bath deposition (CBD) method. As expected, the WO<sub>3</sub>@a-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH photoanode exhibits a 120 mV negatively shifts in onset potential and yields a photocurrent density of 1.12 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.23 V vs. RHE, which is 1.72 and 3.73 times than that of WO<sub>3</sub>@α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub> photoanodes, respectively. The great enhancement can be attributed to the WO<sub>3</sub>@a-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/FeOOH composite, which can exert respective advantages of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> (excellent electron transport pathways), α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (strong visible light absorption) and FeOOH (a hole transfer) to boost visible light capture capability as well as the carrier separation and transfer efficiency in the bulk and on the surface, thus, leading to the significantly improved PEC performances.

# **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

# **CRediT** authorship contribution statement

Jin Zhang: Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. Gangqiang Zhu: Conceptualization, Methodology. Weiguo Liu: Resources. Yingxue Xi: Project administration. D.A. Golosov: Formal analysis. S.M. Zavadski: Investigation. S.N. Melnikov: Validation.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

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