

Role of Graphene Oxide as a Sacrificial Interlayer for Enhanced Photoelectrochemical Water Oxidation of Hematite Nanorods

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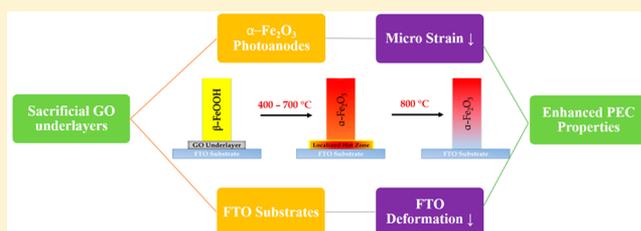
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Photoelectrochemical cells (PECs) with a structure of F-doped SnO₂ (FTO)/graphene oxide (GO)/hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) photoanode were fabricated, in which GO serves as a sacrificial underlayer. In contrast to low-temperature sintering carried out under a normal atmosphere, high-temperature sintering was carried out for the GO underlayer-based hematite photoanodes. The photocurrent density of the PECs with GO underlayers gradually increased as the spin speed of the FTO substrate increased. In particular, GO at a spin speed of 5000 rpm showed the highest photocurrent of 1.3 mA/cm². The higher performance of the GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes was attributed to the improved FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. When sintered at 800 °C for activation of the hematite (FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃) photoanodes, the GO layers before being decomposed act as localized hot zones at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. These localized hot zones play a very crucial role in reducing the microstrain (increased crystallinity) which was confirmed from the synchrotron X-ray diffraction studies. The sacrificial GO underlayer may contribute to relaxing the inhomogeneous internal strain of the α -Fe₂O₃ nanorods and reducing the deformation of FTO to an extent. In other words, the reduction of the microstrain minimizes the lattice imperfections and defects at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, which may enhance the charge collection efficiency, as demonstrated by the impedance measurements. From the EXAFS analysis, it is clearly evident that the sacrificial GO underlayer does not affect the structure of α -Fe₂O₃ in the short range. The effects of the GO sacrificial layers are restricted to the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, and they do not affect the bulk properties of α -Fe₂O₃.



INTRODUCTION

Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) is a promising photoanode material for solar water splitting which is abundant, nontoxic, chemically stable, and low cost and has an optimum bandgap of \sim 2.2 eV.^{1–4} The above properties make α -Fe₂O₃ the most studied metal-oxide semiconductor photoanode for photoelectrochemical cell (PEC) water splitting. Charge recombination is a major issue in PECs which limits the device performance.⁵ Transparent conducting oxide (TCO)/photoanode interfaces are highly prone to charge recombination.⁶ The charge transport resistance of the TCO/photoanode interface plays an important role in the charge collection efficiency and, consequently, in the overall device performance.⁷ The charge collection efficiency is simply the ratio of the short-circuit current and the total light-generated current. The charge collection depends on two main factors, namely, recombination and diffusion.⁸ When there is a better electron pathway (1-D nanostructures), the TCO/photoanode interface plays a crucial role in the determination of charge collection.⁹ Recently, great effort has been devoted toward the introduction of a metal oxide semiconductor as the underlayer at the interface of the

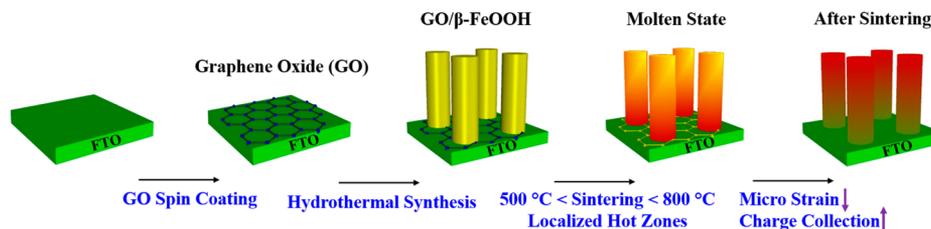
SnO₂:F (FTO) substrate and α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes.¹⁰ Metal oxide underlayers such as SiO₂,^{7,11} TiO₂,^{7,12} Ga₂O₃,¹³ and Nb₂O₅⁷ enhance the photoactivity of hematite photoanodes. The metal oxide underlayer physically blocks the recombination of the photoinjected electrons at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface.¹⁴ Recently, we demonstrated TiO₂ underlayers for water splitting with enhancement of the photocurrent at both 550 and 800 °C, as the TiO₂ underlayer acts as a recombination barrier and also as a source for Ti⁴⁺ dopants.¹² Graphene-based photoanodes are widely used in photovoltaics, organic light-emitting diodes, and PEC cells¹⁵ due to their higher electron mobility, transparency, and flexibility.^{16,17} Zhang et al.¹⁸ reported that a graphene interlayer inserted into inverse opal α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes enhanced the photoactivity by reducing the charge recombination and, at the same time, acts as an electron transport layer. Sintering conditions have been carefully controlled such that the deposited Fe⁰ is successfully

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Scheme 1. Effect of Sacrificial GO Underlayers on Hematite Photoanodes Subjected to High-Temperature Sintering



converted into α - Fe_2O_3 without damaging graphene underlayers as graphene is not stable above 525 °C.¹⁸ However, a high sintering temperature (~ 800 °C) is required for the activation of hematite photoanodes.¹⁹ Most graphene-based underlayer/interlayer photoanodes are sintered either at a low temperature or at a high temperature under an inert atmosphere in order to preserve the graphene-based underlayer in the final device.²⁰ It is widely known that GO-based materials are not stable at 800 °C under normal atmospheric conditions due to the thermal oxidation of carbon compounds into CO_2 .¹⁸ Yoon et al. reported a two-step sintering process at 350 °C for 4 h and 750 °C for 1 h under an Ar atmosphere in order to preserve the graphene-based underlayer in the final device after activation. The performance of such devices is found to be dependent on the sintering temperature and atmosphere. However, such devices have not been sintered at high temperature in oxidizing conditions, where thermal oxidation of GO can act as a “heat zone” and could influence the crystallinity of the oxides, thereby influencing the interfacial behavior. Hence, we explored sintering FTO/GO/ α - Fe_2O_3 photoanodes at 800 °C in oxygen atmosphere (Scheme 1), and to our surprise, we found that sintering at such conditions enhanced the device performance by 30%. This performance enhancement could be explained based on the changes in the microcrystallinity^{21,22} of α - Fe_2O_3 in the interface as observed by synchrotron XRD measurements. This phenomenon opens the possibility of using GO as a sacrificial layer in devices that require high-temperature sintering in oxidative atmospheres.

Herein we report that the GO underlayers enhance the solar water splitting performance of α - Fe_2O_3 photoanodes even though the GO underlayer disappeared (sacrificial layer) due to thermal oxidation when sintered at a high temperature (800 °C). This performance enhancement was mainly due to improved interfacial properties (FTO/ α - Fe_2O_3) due to the presence of a sacrificial GO underlayer. During the thermal oxidation of GO sacrificial underlayers, the GO layers act as localized hot zones at the FTO/GO/ α - Fe_2O_3 interface, which minimizes the lattice imperfections (reducing the microstrain) of α - Fe_2O_3 nanorods and deformation of FTO substrates (charge transfer resistance across the interface between FTO/ α - Fe_2O_3), as confirmed from the synchrotron X-ray studies and impedance measurements, respectively. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of sacrificial GO underlayers playing a dual role of enhancing the charge collection efficiency and lowering the microstrain at the FTO/ α - Fe_2O_3 interface, leading to an enhanced photocurrent density.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Graphite oxide was synthesized from graphite powder (SP-1, 30 μm nominal particle size, Bay Carbon, Bay City, MI) by a modified Hummers method,²³ in which preoxidation of graphite was followed by an oxidation step²⁴ using the

Hummers method. Graphite oxide prepared using the modified Hummers method,²⁵ was exfoliated in ethanol using sonication to form graphene oxide (GO), and GO (30 mg of GO dispersed in 15 mL of ethanol) was coated onto the FTO substrates by spin coating at various spin speeds (3000–6000 rpm). Hematite nanorods on FTO- and GO-modified FTO substrates were prepared by a simple hydrothermal method as reported by Vayssieres et al.²⁶ High-temperature sintering (800 °C for 10 min) is carried out, which is believed to be important for activation of the hematite photoanodes.²⁷ X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of all the samples were collected using an X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku RINT 2500) with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation. The effect of the GO underlayer on the crystallinity and strain variation of both the hematite nanostructures and FTO film substrate was investigated by high-resolution X-ray diffraction measurement. X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) experiments were carried out on the 7D beamline of Pohang Accelerator Laboratory (PLS-II, 3.0 GeV). The synchrotron radiation was monochromatized using a Si(111) double-crystal monochromator. At room temperature, the spectra for the Fe K-edge ($E_0 = 7112$ eV) were taken in a fluorescence mode. The incident beam was detuned by 30% for the Fe K-edge in order to minimize contamination of higher harmonics, and its intensity was monitored using a He-filled IC SPEC ionization chamber. The fluorescence signal from the sample was measured with a passivated implanted planar silicon (PIPS) detector mounted in a He-flowing sample chamber. ATHENA in the IFEFFIT suite of programs was used to analyze the obtained data for the local structure study of Fe in FTO/ α - Fe_2O_3 and FTO/GO/ α - Fe_2O_3 .²⁸ The X-ray wavelength was 1.0716 Å (11.57 keV) for the scattering measurements which were performed at SA materials science beamline at the Pohang Light Source II (PLS-II) in Korea. The surface morphology of the samples was analyzed using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, JEOL JSM 700F). Raman spectra were acquired using an excitation energy of 2.4 eV at room temperature. All photoelectrochemical measurements were carried out in 1 M NaOH (pH = 13.8) electrolyte using an Ivium compactstat potentiostat with a platinum coil as counter electrode and Ag/AgCl as reference electrode. Photocurrent–potential (J – V) curves were swept at 50 mV s^{-1} from -0.7 to $+0.7$ V vs Ag/AgCl. Impedance spectroscopy measurements were performed using an impedance analyzer (Ivumstat). The impedance spectra were measured over a frequency range of 1×10^{-2} to 3×10^6 Hz at 25 °C under open-circuit conditions with amplitude of 10 mV and under a bias illumination of 100 mW cm^{-2} .

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To fabricate the FTO/GO/ α - Fe_2O_3 photoanodes, GO was synthesized using the modified Hummers method described elsewhere²⁵ by spin-coating onto FTO substrates and further

used to synthesize α -Fe₂O₃ nanorod photoanodes by a hydrothermal method.¹⁹ Figure 1(a) shows the photocurrent

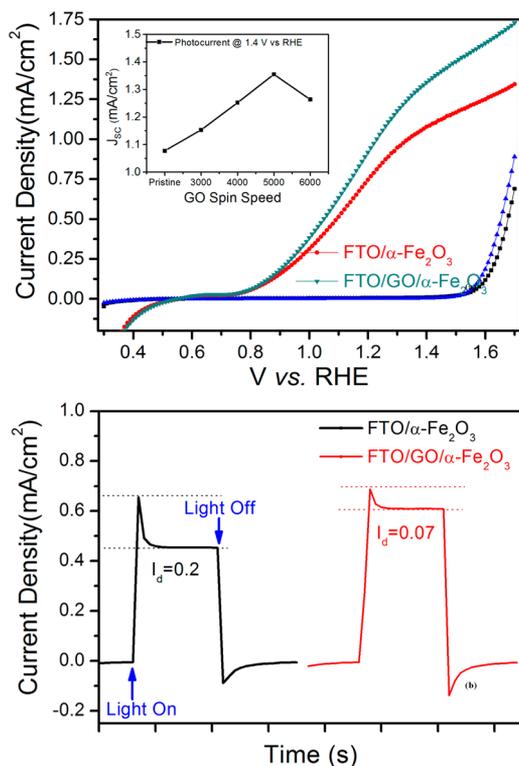


Figure 1. (a) Photocurrent–potential (J – V) curves and (b) transient photocurrent measurement for the PEC water oxidation reaction with and without GO-based α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes in FTO substrates sintered at 800 °C. 1 M NaOH was used under 1 sun standard illumination conditions, and the inset shows the photocurrent densities of the hematite photoanodes with and without GO underlayers at 1.4 V vs RHE under 1 sun standard illumination conditions.

density as a function of the applied potential (I – V measurements) of α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes with and without a GO underlayer for various spin speeds, demonstrating the importance of controlling the amount of GO present in the interfacial layer. The photocurrent density is enhanced for all of the GO underlayer photoanodes compared to the pristine hematite photoanodes. Varying the spin speed from 3000 to 6000 rpm leads to an improved photocurrent (30% increase) from 1 to 1.3 mA/cm² at 1.4 V vs RHE, representing a strong dependence on the spin speed (Figure S1). In previous reports,^{18,29} the enhancement of device performance with graphene-based underlayers resulted from reduced charge recombination at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. Transient photocurrent measurement of FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes as a function of constant applied potential (1.1 V vs RHE) in 1 M NaOH electrolyte is shown in Figure 1(b). At a constant potential (1.1 V), the current decay (I_d) (difference between the initial current (I_i) and final current (I_f); $I_d = I_i - I_f$) decreases from 0.2 to 0.07 mA/cm² for FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes compared to FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes. Enhanced electron transport results in a suppressed current decay which is in good agreement with the dark current measurements and impedance spectra. We will discuss the critical factors affecting the device performance as a function of the presence of an underlayer.

It is very important to understand why GO underlayers enhance the PEC properties of α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes after the oxidation process of GO layers at high-temperature sintering. The critical process factors responsible for enhanced performance include the following. The effects of GO underlayers on the morphology and crystal growth were characterized first. The structural analysis confirms that there are no obvious changes either in the crystal phase (Figure S2) or in the morphology (Figure 2(a) and (b)) of the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes synthesized with and without a GO underlayer. Although both α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes with and without a GO underlayer displayed similar XRD patterns with a predominant (110) diffraction peak (Figure 2(d) and (e)), the photoanodes with a GO underlayer had a relatively narrow peak width. To separate the size and microstrain effects on the peak broadening, a Williamson–Hall plot was developed and is depicted in Figure 2(e).^{30,31} Obviously, the photoanode with a GO underlayer has a smaller slope, indicating reduced microstrain on the hematite nanorods. However, a clear peak shift was observed on the FTO substrate with the GO underlayer toward lower scattering angles, as depicted in Figure S3. This angle shift implies that additional compressive strain was applied to the FTO substrate. In the meantime, no peak shift occurred on the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes. The parameters including the crystallite size (D), mean microstrain (ϵ), and d -spacing of the hematite (220) and FTO (400) peaks are summarized in Table 1, where the d -spacing variation was calculated by $\delta = (d_{GO} - d_{Pris})/d_{Pris}$ in the same manner as the lattice misfit. A decrease of the microstrain represents a lower number of lattice imperfections and defects.^{32,33} The GO-based photoanodes show a 33% lower microstrain compared to the pristine hematite photoanodes.

XAFS is an element-specific and bulk local structure-determining probe. Figure 3 displays X-absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectra and Fourier-transformed spectra of extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) functions for Fe K-edges of FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃. The XANES spectra for the samples are exactly the same as that of reference α -Fe₂O₃, where the pre-edge peak denoting a quadrupole transition of $1s \rightarrow 3d$ is observed at 7115 eV and the absorption rising feature and energy positions are also the same. EXAFS spectra do not exhibit any significant difference when the samples are compared with the reference α -Fe₂O₃ in powder. The minor difference is an increase in the intensities of the peaks at 0.8–2.0 and 2.1–3.9 Å. It is due to the enhanced ordering of the nearest Fe–O bond and complicated Fe–Fe and Fe–O bonds, respectively, which is generally observed for the films on substrate. In summary, the graphene oxide layer may not affect in the structure of α -Fe₂O₃ in an angstrom order. It was further confirmed from the EXAFS analysis that the GO underlayer does not affect the structure of α -Fe₂O₃ in the angstrom range. With fewer lattice imperfections and defects, we expect higher crystalline photoanodes, which may be a crucial factor for enhanced photocurrent, as reported earlier.³⁴ The FESEM images of the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes with and without a GO underlayer (Figure 2(a) and (b)) show very similar nanorod morphologies. Thus, the GO underlayer does not affect the growth conditions of the α -Fe₂O₃ nanorods on FTO substrates. The sintering conditions for the graphene oxide-based samples are crucial factors for the fabrication of devices. Carbon-based samples are highly unstable above 500 °C in an air atmosphere. Sintering them at high temperatures results in a loss of a relatively high amount of carbon as CO₂.¹⁸ However, a high sintering temperature (~800 °C) is required

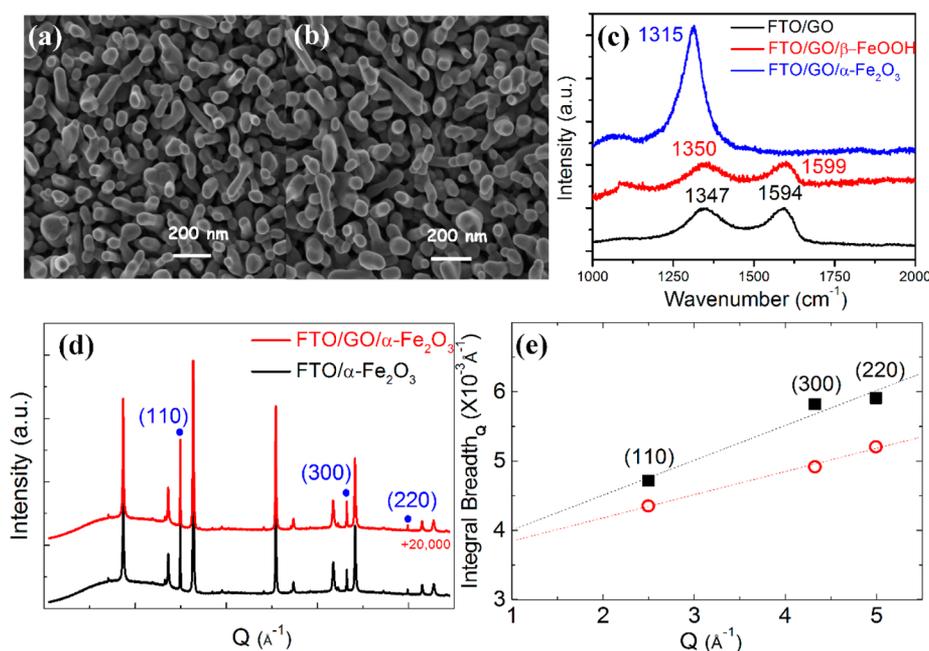


Figure 2. FE-SEM images of photoanodes (a) without and (b) with a GO underlayer. (c) Raman spectra of FTO/GO, FTO/GO/ β -FeOOH, and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes sintered at 800 °C. (d) Synchrotron X-ray diffraction patterns of α -Fe₂O₃ (marked in blue) photoanodes on FTO substrates (remaining peaks) sintered at 800 °C without (black line) and with a GO (red line) interlayer. (e) Williamson–Hall plots of the hematite peaks denoted as blue dots in (d). The dashed lines represent linear regressions.

Table 1. Hematite Photoanode Parameters of Crystallite Size (D) and Mean Microstrain (ϵ) Determined from the Williamson–Hall plot from Figure 2(b)^a

	D	ϵ	d -spacing	d -spacing
	crystallite size	microstrain	hematite (220)	FTO (400)
FTO/ α -Fe ₂ O ₃	~169 (20) nm	$5.04 (1.0) \times 10^{-4}$	1.2590	1.1907
FTO/GO/ α -Fe ₂ O ₃	~169 (05) nm	$3.35 (0.3) \times 10^{-4}$	1.2590	1.1913
variation		33% ↓	<0.001%	0.05% ↑

^aThe values in the brackets represent fitting error. Lattice plane distances (d) were obtained from the peak position in Figure 2(b).

for the activation of hematite photoanodes.¹⁹ Further information on the changes in GO during activation of hematite was characterized using Raman spectra. Figure 2(c) shows the Raman shift in the range of 1000–2000 cm⁻¹, which covers the characteristic bands of graphene-based materials. The FTO/GO samples show two distinct peaks positioned at ~1350 and ~1600 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the D- and G-bands, respectively.³⁵ The presence of GO after hydrothermal synthesis (FTO/GO/ β -FeOOH) was confirmed in the Raman spectra. Sintering at 800 °C for the activation of hematite (FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃) photoanodes decomposes the GO layer into CO₂ since carbon-based materials are unstable when sintered above 500 °C under an oxidative atmosphere. The D-band is induced by the local basal plane derivatization and the edge sites that create sp³ distortion, and the G-band arises from the sp²-hybridized graphitic carbon atoms. The Raman spectrum of the FTO/GO/ β -FeOOH photoanode shows the presence of characteristic D- and G-bands, indicating the presence of a GO underlayer after the hydrothermal synthesis. The FESEM images further confirm the presence of GO dispersed on the FTO substrates before hydrothermal synthesis (Figure S4). Figure S5 shows the elemental mapping of C (GO) on the FTO substrates after spin-coating. However, when FTO/GO/ β -FeOOH photoanodes were sintered at a high temperature for activation of the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes,

GO in the FTO/GO/ β -FeOOH photoanodes is thermally oxidized, which can be confirmed from the absence of characteristic graphene bands in the Raman spectra of the FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes. The distinct new peak at 1315 cm⁻¹ arises from the two phonon scatterings of α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes.³⁶ These results confirm that the GO underlayer acts as a sacrificial layer during the formation of α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes. Inhomogeneous GO underlayers cause minimum or no physical damage to the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanode when sintered at 800 °C (Figures S6 and S7). This resulted in the highest observed photocurrent of 1.3 mA/cm² at 1.4 V vs RHE, which is 30% higher than the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanode without a GO underlayer.

The analysis of the FTO/hematite interface will provide additional information to clarify how this GO sacrificial layer enhances the photocurrent. Using electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), the charge transport kinetics and interfacial properties of the α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes with and without a GO underlayer were evaluated. Nyquist plots obtained (Figure 4) from EIS are fitted with an equivalent circuit using ZView, and the following electrochemical parameters are derived from the fitting. R_s is the series resistance, which includes mainly the sheet resistance of the FTO substrates. The parallel R_{CT1} and CPE₁ represent the charge transfer resistance and the double-layer capacitance at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, whereas R_{CT2}

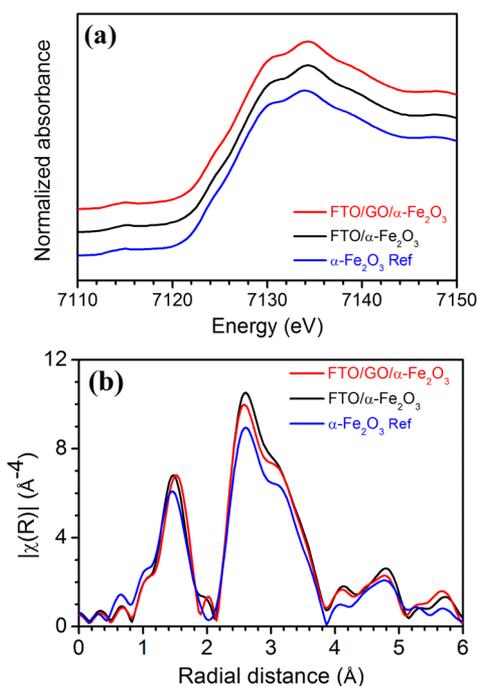
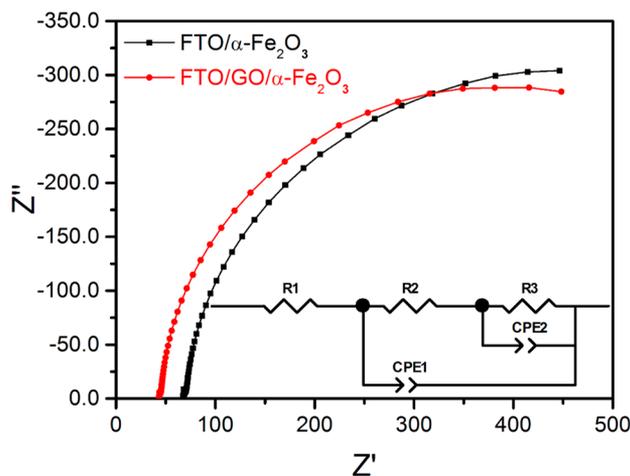


Figure 3. (a) XANES spectra and (b) k^3 -weighted Fourier transforms of EXAFS functions for Fe K-edges of FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃. XAFS is an element-specific and bulk local structure-determining probe.



(R/Ω) (CPE/F)	FTO/ α -Fe ₂ O ₃	FTO/GO/ α -Fe ₂ O ₃	Variation	Remarks
R _s	66.28	42.51	35% ↓	FTO Deformation ↓
R _{CT1} CPE ₁	19.53 1.98 × 10 ⁻⁵	13.62 1.8 × 10 ⁻⁵	30% ↓ 9% ↓	Interface Enhanced
R _{CT2} CPE ₂	680.1 1.56 × 10 ⁻⁶	656.2 1.45 × 10 ⁻⁶	3% ↓ 7% ↓	No change in bulk properties

Figure 4. Nyquist plots and output of the equivalent circuit model of pristine and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes sintered at 800 °C using 1 M NaOH under 1 sun standard illumination conditions.

and CPE₂, respectively, represent the charge transport resistance of α -Fe₂O₃ and the double-layer capacitance of the α -Fe₂O₃/electrolyte interface. From the EIS measurements, the

electron transport properties at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface can be experimentally deduced.^{19,37} For the hematite photoanodes with a GO underlayer, the charge transport resistance across FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃, R_{CT1}, was found to decrease from 19 to 13 Ω. The sheet resistance, R_s, decreased from 66 to 42 Ω (Figure S8), while the bulk α -Fe₂O₃ properties remained the same. It is clearly evident from the Nyquist plots obtained for the FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes that the sacrificial GO layer suppresses the electron recombination by facilitating charge transport across the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, as GO is a good thermal and electronic conductor. This suggests that the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface remains enhanced even after the thermal oxidation of GO during activation of the hematite photoanodes. The enhanced FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface was further confirmed by the decrease of the dark current (Figure S9). Such a variation of the dark current may be attributed to improvements of the electron transport properties at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface due to an enhanced interface which facilitates the electron transfer from hematite to the FTO conducting substrates,^{12,38} which was further confirmed from the incident photon-to-electron conversion efficiency (IPCE) measurements (Figure 5). In comparison to the pristine α -Fe₂O₃

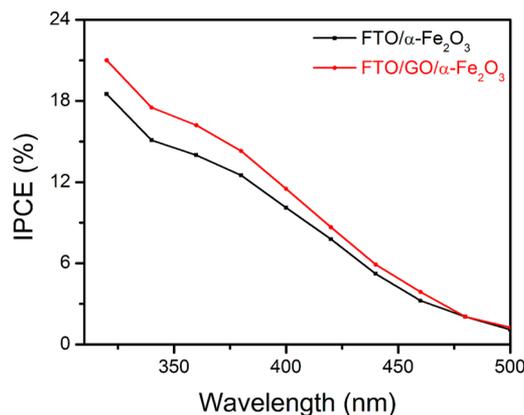


Figure 5. Comparison of IPCEs for α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes with and without GO-based in FTO substrates sintered at 800 °C, collected at the incident wavelength range from 320 to 500 nm at a potential of 1.23 V vs RHE.

photoanodes sintered at 800 °C, GO sacrificial layer samples showed uniformly higher IPCE values in the whole visible region. The above results are consistent with the difference of photocurrent densities observed. IPCE is a product of the rate of light-harvesting efficiency (η_{LHE}), the charge separation efficiency of the photogenerated carriers (η_{SEP}), and charge injection efficiency (η_{INJ})³⁹

$$\text{IPCE} = \eta_{\text{LHE}} \times \eta_{\text{SEP}} \times \eta_{\text{INJ}} \quad (1)$$

During high-temperature sintering, the effect of the GO sacrificial layer is evident only at the FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, and this does not affect the η_{LHE} and η_{INJ} factors as they are dependent on the surface properties more than interfacial properties. Thus, the increase in IPCE can be solely attributed to the enhancement in charge separation efficiency, in other words, to enhanced charge transport kinetics.

Mott–Schottky plots of the hematite photoanodes with and without a GO underlayer are shown in Figure S10 and Table S1. By comparing the slopes of the Mott–Schottky plots, the carrier concentrations calculated for the hematite photoanodes

with and without a GO underlayer were found to be unchanged. Thus, the GO layers only enhance the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface and do not impact the bulk properties such as the carrier concentration of the hematite photoanodes.

It is well-known that graphene-based materials exhibit extraordinary high thermal conductivities which depends on the number of layers present in a device. With increasing number of layers, the thermal conductivity of graphene-based materials decreases, approaching that of bulk graphite.⁴⁰ When sintered at 800 °C for activation of the hematite (FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃) photoanodes, the GO layers before being decomposed act as localized hot zones at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. Thermal oxidation of the GO sacrificial layer may induce a deformation or structural fracture at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface at the nanoscale, which is usually caused by residual stress/strain. This residual stress/strain may have a positive impact on the material properties of α -Fe₂O₃ nanorods during the activation step (800 °C sintering). As the crystallization of α -Fe₂O₃ from β -FeOOH occurs, Sn diffusion into the α -Fe₂O₃ lattice from the FTO substrates and thermal oxidation of GO sacrificial layers takes place at the FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface at the same time. Observing and characterizing the thermal oxidation of the GO sacrificial layer at the FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface at the nanoscale during the activation step is challenging as the other physical properties such as the morphology, bulk crystal structure, carrier concentration, elemental composition (Figure S11), and electron transport resistance remained the same. Localized hot zones formed by the GO underlayer during thermal oxidation play a very crucial role in the reduction of microstrain, as confirmed from the synchrotron X-ray studies. The sacrificial GO underlayer does not affect the structure of α -Fe₂O₃ in short-range order, as confirmed from the EXAFS analysis. Thus, the effects of GO sacrificial layers are only restricted to the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. As a result, the sacrificial GO underlayer may contribute to relaxing inhomogeneous internal strain of α -Fe₂O₃ nanorods and reduce deformation on the FTO substrate. In other words, reduction of the microstrain minimizes the lattice imperfections and defects at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface, which may enhance the charge collection efficiency as demonstrated by the impedance measurements.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a GO layer was prepared by a spin-coating method and used as a sacrificial interlayer between α -Fe₂O₃ nanostructures and the FTO substrate. We showed that the GO interlayer enhanced the PEC water oxidation performance of α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes. This performance enhancement was mainly due to improved interfacial properties (FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃) and minimized lattice imperfections due to the presence of a sacrificial GO underlayer. When α -Fe₂O₃ photoanodes are sintered at a high temperature for activation, the GO underlayer is thermally oxidized leaving few localized hot zones at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. These localized hot zones play a crucial role in minimizing lattice imperfections in the crystallinity of hematite photoanodes by reducing the microstrain by 33%. The sacrificial GO underlayer not only enhances the charge collection efficiency but also increases the crystallinity with reduced microstrain at the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ interface. However, the exact nature of the sacrificial GO interlayers for improved PEC performance still needs further detailed investigation.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jpcc.5b06450.

Information on XRD, FE-SEM, EDX, EIS, and XPS of the FTO/ α -Fe₂O₃ and FTO/GO/ α -Fe₂O₃ (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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