

Tuning the photoelectrochemical properties of hierarchical TiO₂ nanostructures by control of pulsed laser deposition and annealing in reducing conditions

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Abstract

Nanostructured TiO₂ films with hierarchical morphology were synthesized by Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD) and tested as photoanodes for photoelectrochemical water splitting. The tuning of their photoresponse was addressed by employing oxygen-poor conditions both during the growth and the post-deposition annealing of the material: depositions were performed in different Ar/O₂ background gas mixtures from both TiO₂ and Ti targets, while thermal treatments, after standard air annealing for crystallization, were performed in a Ar/H₂ mixture. By testing the double-annealed photoanodes in a three-electrode cell with solar simulator illumination, clear trends with optimal synthesis conditions for each target material appeared; for these conditions, also the effect of vacuum annealing was studied. The morphological, structural and optical properties were investigated by SEM, Raman spectroscopy and UV-visible-IR spectroscopy. From these observations, it emerged that the films deposited in the presence of oxygen do not show substantial differences in their morphology/structure, on the contrary of pure Ar-deposited films; thus, the trends in photoresponse can be related to differences in the defect concentration of the material, induced by depositions in the different Ar/O₂ atmospheres and by annealing in Ar/H₂ mixture or vacuum. In particular, the reported results suggest that some degree of oxygen shortage in the deposition process leads to a better photoelectrochemical performance, and a combination between improved charge transport and surface hydrogenation/reduction effect, leading to enhanced photoresponse, is suggested. This work elucidates the possibility of an accurate tuning of the material photoactivity by control of the deposition and annealing conditions.

Keywords

TiO₂; hierarchical nanostructures; pulsed laser deposition; photoelectrochemical water splitting; reducing deposition/annealing conditions.

1. Introduction

Since the pioneering work by Fujishima and Honda [1], titanium dioxide (TiO_2) has been extensively studied as photocatalytic material for hydrogen production by water splitting [2–4]. However, this material still shows intrinsic limitations, such as a light absorption process basically restrained just to the UV range and a limited quantum efficiency for the water splitting process. For this reason, many efforts are still being carried out to improve its performance. Several experimental approaches have been proposed to overcome TiO_2 intrinsic limitations: i) exploitation of nanostructured morphologies such as nanotubes [5,6] and hierarchical nanostructures [7], to increase the active surface, minimize charge recombination and manage light scattering; ii) introduction of extrinsic dopants or sensitization [8], to shift absorption towards the visible range; iii) introduction of surface disorder and/or intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancies, Ti interstitials) with thermal treatments in hydrogen or other reducing atmospheres [9,10], to increase the photocatalytic activity; iv) integration with noble metal plasmonic nanoparticles [11,12], to harvest photons in the visible range or increase the generation of electron/hole pairs in the semiconductor; v) combination with co-catalysts, to favour the charge separation [13,14]. In addition, TiO_2 has also been employed in combination with other photoactive materials as protective layer [15,16] or interlayer for increasing the charge collection [17–19].

One-dimensional (1D) or quasi-1D nanostructured forms of TiO_2 are particularly interesting due to their possibility to preferentially transport the photogenerated electrons towards the back-contact [20,21]. From the synthesis point of view, among several physical vapor deposition techniques, Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD) enables to tune the morphological, structural, chemical and functional properties of the deposited materials by properly adjusting the process parameters [22,23]. Thanks to these advantages, some of us and other groups have exploited this technique to synthesize hierarchical TiO_2 nanomaterials and study their application as photoanodes for dye-sensitized solar cells [24–26], for photocatalysis experiments [27] and for photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting [28–30].

1D nanostructures have been recently combined with surface disorder/defects by performing hydrogenation/reduction treatments [10] after the encouraging results obtained with TiO_2 nanopowders [9]; for instance, rutile nanowires have shown extensive photocurrent enhancement after hydrogen annealing at 350°C [31]. Based on these results and on the morphological peculiarity of vertically-oriented, hierarchical TiO_2 nanostructures prepared by PLD, we have recently studied their hydrogenation/reduction both during deposition and post-annealing steps [32]. We found that deposition in oxygen-poor conditions was critical to obtain a significant enhancement of photoactivity of the film, when followed by a double thermal treatment (in air and then in Ar/H_2); this was ascribed to defects introduced both by the deposition atmosphere as well as by the annealing treatments. Consequently, in order to obtain a more precise and effective tuning of the material photoactivity, it is mandatory to investigate more in detail the role of oxygen during deposition and the role of the annealing atmosphere, such as vacuum as an alternative to Ar/H_2 mixture [33,34].

For these reasons, in this work we extensively investigate the effect of deposition parameters (target material, i.e. TiO_2 or metal Ti, and atmosphere composition, i.e. oxygen content) and, for selected

samples, of the annealing atmosphere (Ar/H₂ mixture at atmospheric pressure or vacuum) on the structure and photoresponse of PLD-deposited TiO₂ hierarchically grown photoanodes.

2. Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of TiO₂ photoanodes

TiO₂ nanostructured films have been deposited by ablating a TiO₂ (99.9%) or Ti (99.99%) target with a ns-pulsed laser (Nd:YAG, 2nd harmonic, $\lambda = 532$ nm, repetition rate 10 Hz, pulse duration 5-7 ns). The laser fluence on the target was set at about 3.5 J/cm² and the laser pulse energy was 170 mJ. Silicon (100), soda-lime glass and titanium plates were used as substrates, mounted on an off-axis rotating sample holder at a fixed target-to-substrate distance of 50 mm. The depositions were all performed at room temperature. Titanium plate substrates of 2×1 cm² were half masked during deposition in order to leave a clean surface for the electrical contacts of the photoelectrochemical measurements. The depositions were performed at a fixed background gas pressure of 5 Pa in different Ar/O₂ mixtures, from pure O₂ to pure Ar, as illustrated in Table 1. The nominal film thickness was set at about 1300 nm (the actual thickness, measured by SEM, varied between 1000 and 1400 nm). The deposited mass ranged between 0.15 and 0.35 mg/cm², as estimated from quartz microbalance measurements, and the deposition rate ranged between 3 and 11 nm/min, depending on the specific conditions.

Table 1: set of the different deposition conditions explored and corresponding sample names.

Atmosphere	TiO ₂ target	Ti target
100% O ₂	O ₂ -TiO ₂	O ₂ -Ti
75% O ₂ , 25% Ar	Ar/O ₂ (25:75)-TiO ₂	Ar/O ₂ (25:75)-Ti
50% O ₂ , 50% Ar	Ar/O ₂ (50:50)-TiO ₂	Ar/O ₂ (50:50)-Ti
25% O ₂ , 75% Ar	Ar/O ₂ (75:25)-TiO ₂	Ar/O ₂ (75:25)-Ti
100% Ar	Ar-TiO ₂	Ar-Ti

According to the results of our previous work [32], two kinds of annealing treatments were performed ex-situ on the samples: a reference air annealing in a Lenton muffle furnace (4°C/min heating ramp, 2 hours dwell at 500°C), hereinafter labelled as **[Air]**, and a double annealing, i.e. air annealing followed by a thermal treatment in an Ar/H₂ (97%-3%) mixture at atmospheric pressure in a home-made furnace (10°C/min heating ramp, 3 hours dwell at 500°C), labelled as **[Air+Ar/H₂]**. In addition, for the thin films showing the highest photoresponse (as shown in the Results section), the second step in Ar/H₂ mixture was substituted with a thermal treatment with the same temperature program in vacuum ($P < 3 \times 10^{-4}$ Pa), labelled as **[Air+Vac]**.

2.2 Morphological, structural and optical characterization

SEM analyses (top view and cross-sectional) were performed on samples grown on silicon substrates with a ZEISS Supra 40 FEG-SEM without any sample preparation.

TEM images were acquired using a FEI Tecnai F20 microscope operated at 200 kV and equipped with a OneView camera.

Raman spectra were collected from samples grown on silicon or glass substrates using a Renishaw InVia micro Raman spectrophotometer with 514.5 nm laser excitation wavelength and power on the sample of about 1 mW.

X-Ray diffraction patterns were collected using a Bruker D8 Advance X Ray diffractometer, operating in reflection mode with Ge-monochromated Cu K α 1 radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) and a linear position-sensitive detector; with a 2θ range $10\text{--}70^\circ$, a step size 0.038° and time/step 1.5 sec. Samples were mounted in sample holder with motorized z-position (4.3 mm). Diffraction patterns were collected at room temperature. The peak position and the full-width at half maximum height (FWHM) of the peaks were then obtained using TOPAS software (Bruker). The crystallite sizes were estimated through the Scherrer formula [35].

Optical transmittance (in the range 250 – 2000 nm) and reflectance spectra (in the range 290 – 600 nm) were evaluated with a UV-vis-NIR PerkinElmer Lambda 1050 spectrophotometer with a 150 mm diameter integrating sphere. All the acquired spectra were normalized with respect to the glass substrate contribution by setting to 1 the intensity at the glass/film interface.

2.3 Photoelectrochemical experiments

Photoelectrochemical (PEC) measurements were carried out in aqueous KOH solution (0.1 M) with a three-electrode cell equipped with a flat quartz window. TiO₂ films on Ti substrate photoanodes (working area of 1 cm²) were used as the working electrode while a platinum grid and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were used as counter and reference electrode, respectively. The light source was a solar simulator (Lot Quantum Design LS0306) equipped with a 300 W xenon arc lamp and AM1.5G filter (Lot Quantum Design LSZ389). The incident light intensity was measured prior to the experiments using a light meter HD2302.0 (Delta OHM). The performance of the TiO₂ photoanodes was evaluated by measuring the photocurrents under an external bias [36–39], provided by a potentiostat (Amel 7050) performing potential ramps from -0.8 V to about 0.5 V , with a scan rate of 5 mV/s . PEC measurements were also performed under constant light illumination and fixed bias potential (0.4 V) for 6 hours, in order to evaluate the photoanodes' stability [40–42].

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Photoelectrochemical response

In search of a photoresponse optimization of TiO₂ nanostructured films prepared by PLD for water splitting applications, all the photoanodes presented in Table 1 were tested in a photoelectrochemical cell in the presence of 0.1 M KOH electrolyte.

Fig. 1 shows the photocurrent results for films deposited from TiO₂, annealed in [Air+Ar/H₂] (Fig. 1A) and in [Air] (Fig 1B) in all the investigated Ar/O₂ mixtures. The photocurrent density values reported in Figs. 1A and B were used to calculate the photoconversion efficiency ($\eta\%$) according to equation (1), which takes into account not only the power light, but also the external potential applied to the electrode [43]:

$$\eta(\%) = \frac{J(E^0 - |E_{app}|)}{I} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where J is the photocurrent density ($\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$), $E^0=1.23$ V is the standard reversible potential for water splitting, $|E_{app}|$ is the external applied potential, evaluated as the difference between the measured potential (V) vs. SCE and the Open Circuit Voltage (OCV) under the irradiated power light, and I is the incident light power density ($96000 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$). Figs. 1C and D show the variation of $\eta(\%)$ as a function of the measured potential for films annealed in [Air+Ar/H₂] and in [Air], respectively.

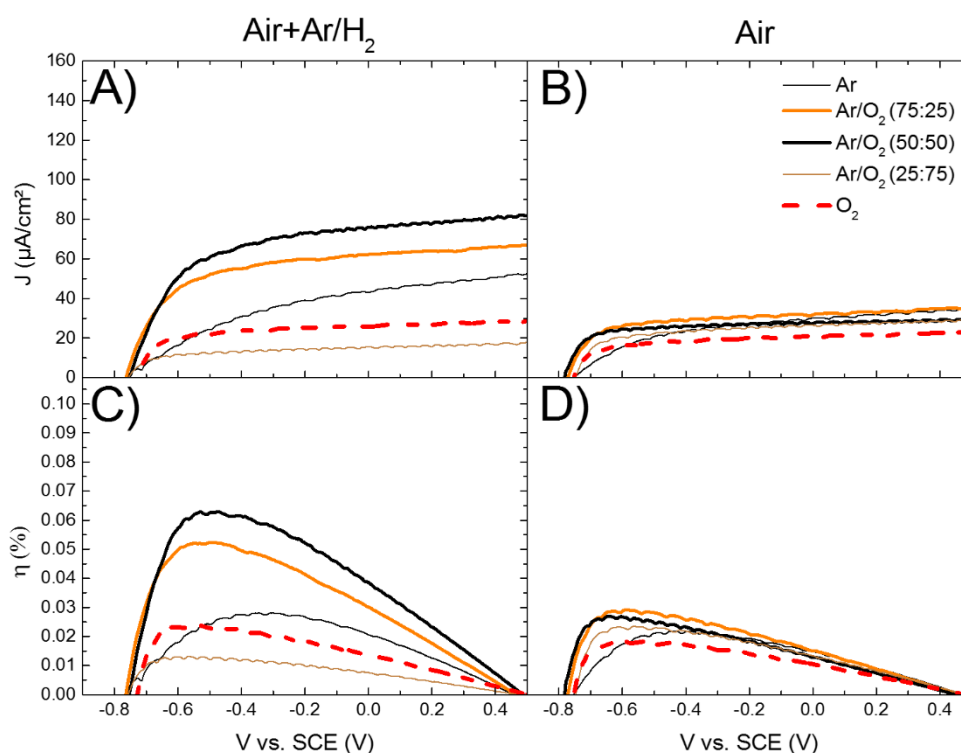


Figure 1: Effect of the deposition atmosphere on the performances for photoanodes prepared starting from TiO₂ target annealed with [Air+Ar/H₂] (A and C) and with [Air] (B and D): photocurrents (A and B) and photoconversion efficiencies (C and D) results. **The legend placed in B refers to all the subfigures.**

As expected, all the films exhibit negligible anodic photocurrents (less than $5 \mu\text{A/cm}^2$) under dark conditions (not shown) over the whole investigated potential range, indicating that negligible photoelectrochemical water oxidation occurs at the anode surface. On the contrary, under

illumination, photocurrent generation is recorded because of the efficient charge carriers (i.e. electron-holes pairs) generation from the incident light and the subsequent water oxidation occurring at the photoanodes by holes.

In the case of films deposited from TiO₂ target and then annealed in [Air+Ar/H₂] (Fig. 1A) the photocurrent onset potential is observed near -0.75 V; then the photocurrent density gradually increases with the applied potential because of the increased charge carriers separation under the effect of the applied bias [44–46]. The films deposited with the highest oxygen contents (i.e. 100 and 75% O₂) in the background atmosphere show the lowest photoresponse: low photocurrent densities are measured through all the potential window, i.e. reaching values near 30 and 20 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V, respectively. The photoresponse increases for films deposited with lower oxygen amounts (i.e. 50 and 25% O₂): higher photocurrent densities are measured in the whole potential range, i.e. reaching values near 80 and 70 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V, respectively. Besides, deposition in pure Ar (i.e. Ar-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂]) results in a significant decrease of the photoresponse, with a photocurrent density of about 50 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V and a different shape of the photocurrent characteristic. This outcome indicates, for films deposited from TiO₂ target, the existence of an optimal O₂ concentration (i.e. 25-50% O₂) in the deposition atmosphere leading to an improved photoactivity. This is confirmed by the corresponding photoconversion efficiencies, plotted in Fig. 1C. Indeed, the highest photoconversion efficiencies are measured for the Ar/O₂ (50:50) and Ar/O₂ (75:25) films, i.e. near 0.06 and 0.05%, respectively.

Considering the films deposited from TiO₂ target and then annealed in [Air] (Fig. 1B), the photoresponse is significantly lower than those annealed in [Air+ArH₂]. In fact, for all samples, low photocurrent densities are measured through all the potential window, i.e. approaching values in the range of 20-35 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V. Nevertheless, also in this case the highest photoconversion efficiencies are measured for the Ar/O₂ (50:50) and Ar/O₂ (75:25) films, i.e. near 0.03 %.

In the case of photoanodes prepared from Ti target with annealing in [Air+Ar/H₂] (Fig. 2A), different trends of photoactivity as a function of preparation conditions are observed, if compared to those deposited from TiO₂. For the Ar/O₂ (75:25)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] and Ar/O₂ (50:50)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] films, the photocurrent onset potential is observed at about -0.8 V (i.e. lower than films deposited from TiO₂ target) and photocurrent density reaching a value near 60 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V is measured. The photoresponse increases for samples deposited in oxygen-rich mixtures (i.e. Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] and O₂-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] photoanodes) for which the highest photocurrent results are achieved, i.e. reaching values near 120 and 110 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V, respectively. In this case, the negative shift of the photocurrent onset, together with the higher photocurrent response, indicate a more efficient generation and transfer of photogenerated charge carriers and minor recombination losses, as well [47–49]. Accordingly, the highest photoconversion efficiencies of ca. 0.1 and 0.09% are obtained (see Fig. 1D). The film deposited in pure argon (i.e. Ar-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂]) instead shows a photocurrent onset potential near -0.65 V and a photocurrent density gradually increasing with the applied potential up to ca. 35 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 0.5 V; the qualitative different behavior of this film should be related to the different morphology, crystallinity and composition of this sample, as discussed in the following (see Section 3.2).

Of note, also for films deposited from Ti target and then annealed in [Air] (Fig. 2B) the photoresponse is significantly lower than those annealed in [Air+ArH₂], but the same trends of

photoactivity as a function of preparation conditions are observed. Accordingly, samples deposited in oxygen-rich mixtures (i.e. Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] and O₂-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] photoanodes) achieve the highest photoconversion efficiencies of ca. 0.05%. Conversely the sample deposited in pure argon shows the lowest values of maximum efficiencies, i.e. near 0.02%.

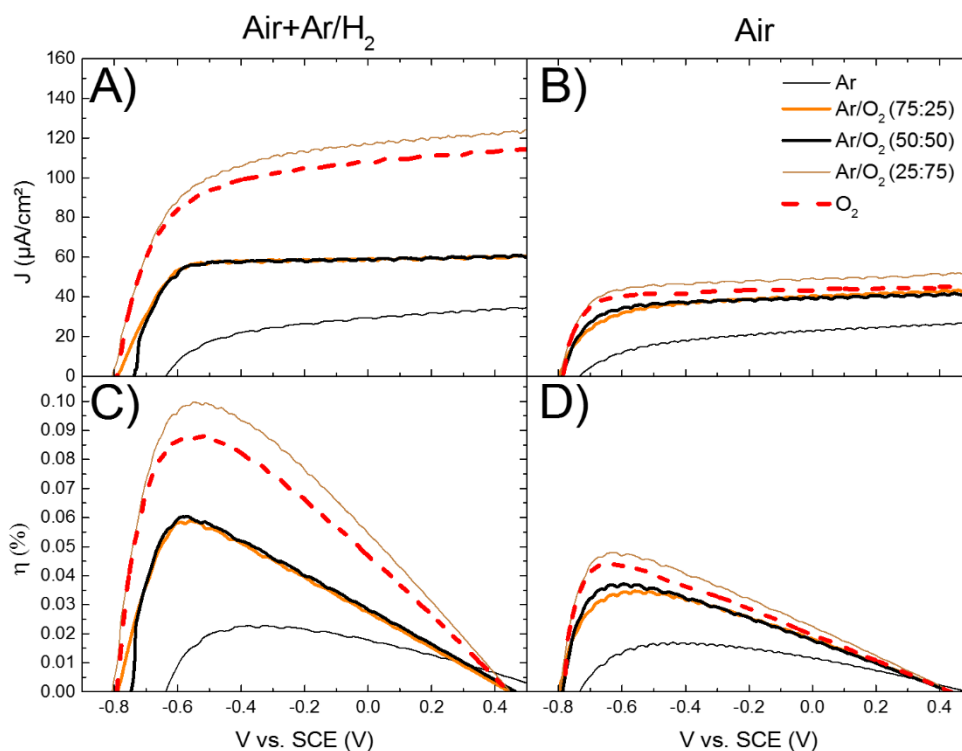


Figure 2: Effect of the deposition atmosphere on the performances for photoanodes prepared starting from Ti target annealed with [Air+Ar/H₂] (A and C) and with [Air] (B and D): photocurrents (A and B) and photoconversion efficiencies (C and D) results. The legend placed in B refers to all the subfigures.

In the literature, only a few examples concerning the hydrogenation of TiO₂ in Ar/H₂ or N₂/H₂ mixture at atmospheric pressure have been reported (instead of the more investigated high purity H₂ treatment); in these cases a photoresponse enhancement with respect to air annealing has already been reported [50–56]. For instance, the photocurrent values reported in ref. [54] are the closest to our study; however, a direct comparison between these values is not straightforward due to differences in experimental conditions (e.g. electrolyte, illumination) or in material properties (e.g. thickness, crystalline phase, morphology).

In order to analyze the above results more in detail, the maximum photoconversion efficiency values are reported in Fig. 3A as a function of the different deposition background gas mixtures for films deposited from both TiO₂ and Ti targets. Of note, photocurrent measurements were repeated over several months, obtaining very similar results as those presented in Figs. 1 and 2 (not shown) which indicates the good reproducibility of the experiments and provides a first indication of the sample structural stability as well as performance stability for PEC water splitting. Accordingly, the data points and error bars in Fig. 3A depict the average and standard deviation values over at least six measurements.

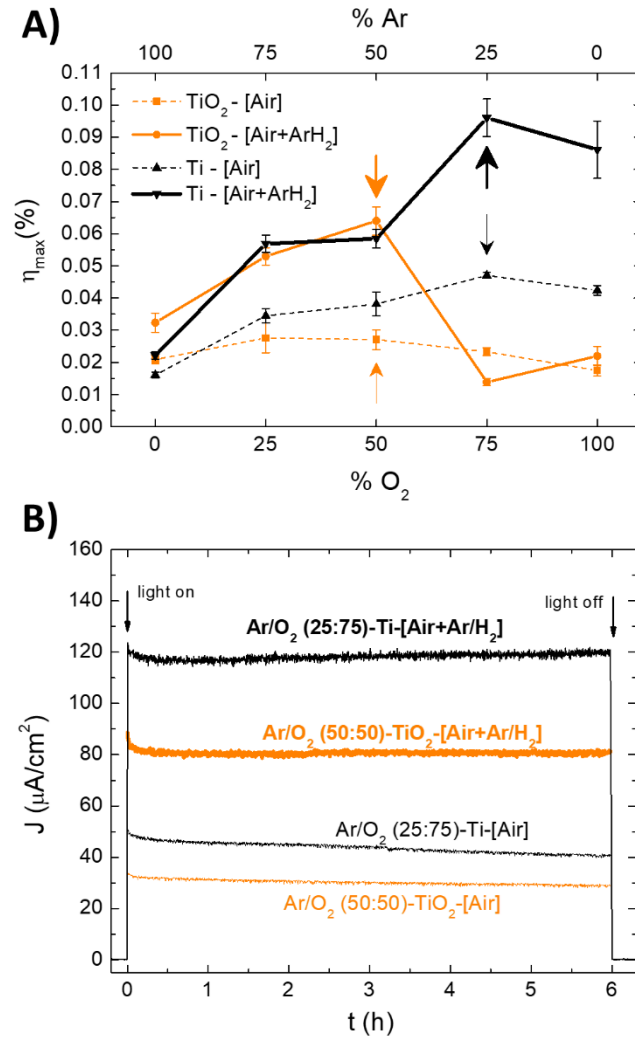


Figure 3: **A)** Effect of the deposition atmosphere (i.e. from pure O_2 to pure Ar) on the maximum photoconversion efficiency for photoanodes prepared from TiO_2 target annealed in [Air] (dotted-orange) and in [Air+Ar/H₂] (solid-orange) and from Ti target annealed in [Air] (dotted-black) and in [Air+Ar/H₂] (solid-black). **B)** Photostability of the optimal photoanodes, marked with an arrow in A, measured by photocurrent over time with applied bias potential of 0.4 V vs SCE.

Considering the films deposited from Ti target, Fig. 3A points out that the photoresponse increases upon increasing the oxygen content in the deposition atmosphere up to the 75%, both for films annealed in [Air] and in [Air+Ar/H₂]. Besides, it is clear that photoanodes annealed in [Air+Ar/H₂] outperform those annealed in [Air]. In the case of films deposited from TiO_2 target, the photoresponse is maximized for a 50% oxygen content in the deposition atmosphere; again, the photoactivity is higher for films annealed in [Air+Ar/H₂] than for those annealed in [Air]. Considering the target effect, the best performing films deposited from Ti target (i.e. prepared in O_2 -rich atmospheres and with [Air+Ar/H₂] annealing) show higher photoactivities than those deposited from TiO_2 target.

The photostability of the Ar/O₂ (50:50)- TiO_2 -[Air+Ar/H₂] and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] films (i.e. the photoanodes that showed the best performances) was further investigated. Fig. 3B shows the photocurrents measured over six hours with applied bias potential of 0.4 V. As it clearly appears, under dark conditions (before $t = 0$ and after $t = 6$ h) negligible photocurrents are observed, indicating that no reaction occurred at the photoanodes in the absence of light

illumination. On the contrary, under irradiation, photocurrent evolution is observed as a result of water oxidation occurring at the photoanodes. In line with the above results, the film deposited from Ti target shows a higher photoresponse than that deposited from TiO₂: as a matter of fact, upon illumination (at $t = 0$), the current densities increase at ca. 120 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ and 80 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ for the samples obtained by Ti and TiO₂ targets, respectively. Moreover, the film deposited from Ti target shows a slightly better photostability. In fact, after 6 h of continuous illumination the photocurrent drops by about 8% and 4% for films prepared from TiO₂ and Ti targets respectively. For comparison purpose, the same photostability tests were performed over the same films (i.e. Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti) annealed in [Air]. In this case, a lower stability is observed: after 6 h of continuous illumination the photocurrent drops by about 17 and 19% for films prepared from TiO₂ and Ti targets, respectively.

Finally, for the most promising films (i.e. Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti samples), the effect of a double [Air+Vac] thermal treatment on the photoresponse was also investigated. Figs. 4A and B show the photoresponse (in terms of photoconversion efficiencies) for films deposited from TiO₂ and Ti targets, respectively. For comparison purpose, the results obtained for the same films annealed in [Air] and [Air+Ar/H₂] are also reported. The vacuum thermal treatment shows a different effect on the photoanodes performance depending on the employed target material. A positive effect is observed for the film deposited from TiO₂ target: a maximum photoconversion efficiency close to 0.08% is obtained after the [Air+Vac] annealing, higher than that obtained after [Air+Ar/H₂] and [Air] thermal treatments (Fig. 4A). On the contrary, for the film deposited from Ti target (Fig. 4B) no increase in the photoconversion efficiency is observed with respect to the [Air]-annealed film; in addition, the efficiency values are obtained with an applied potential higher than that for the [Air]-annealed film, which is undesirable for practical application.

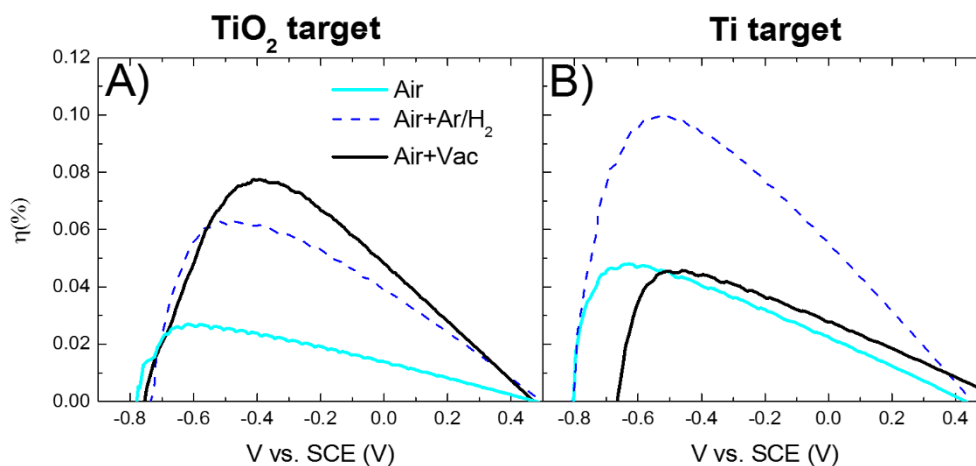


Figure 4: Photoconversion efficiency curves for Ar-O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ (A) and Ar-O₂ (25:75)-Ti (B) photoanodes annealed in [Air] (light blue), [Air+Ar/H₂] (dotted blue), and [Air+Vac] (black).

3.2 Photoanode structure and morphology

As shown in the previous section, two optimal depositions conditions, respectively from TiO₂ and Ti target, have been found, i.e. Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti. Accordingly, the full characterization of these films is presented in this section; all the other depositions in Ar/O₂ mixtures and in pure O₂ show similar morphological/structural features to the optimal ones (for further details, see Supporting Information). On the contrary, SEM and Raman spectra for pure Ar

depositions (i.e. Ar-TiO₂ and Ar-Ti films) are included, since they show a different behaviour from the other films, as discussed below.

The films grown in Ar/O₂ mixture at 5 Pa show a porous hierarchical organization, as shown in Fig. 5, and they are composed by nanoparticles, as evidenced by Fig. 6, in which higher magnification SEM images are reported. In addition, the different target material (Figs. 6A, D and 6B, E) or annealing treatments (Figs. 6A, B and 6D, E) do not globally change the overall morphology. On the other hand, films grown in Ar gas at 5 Pa are more compact (Figs. 6C and F) and exhibit a lower degree of porosity, in particular, the one deposited using the Ti target. In addition, the Ar-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] film (Fig. 6F) is characterized by a rougher and more irregular surface with respect to the other films.

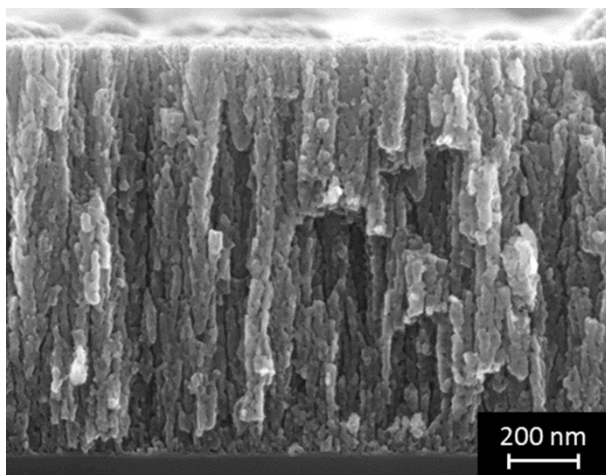


Figure 5: SEM image of Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂] sample; the whole film grown on Si substrate can be observed.

The more compact morphology obtained when depositing in pure Ar atmosphere (with respect to O₂-containing atmospheres) is in agreement with previous reports [57,58] and with optical emission spectra of the plasma plume produced by ablation of a TiO₂ target in 5 Pa of Ar, which indicate that the kinetic energy of Ti ions is higher than that of Ti ions ablated in 5 Pa of pure O₂ [59]. On the other hand, provided that some O₂ is present in the background gas (in our case at least 25%), the same hierarchical morphology of the O₂-TiO₂ film is achieved, regardless the precise relative composition of the gas atmosphere (see Figs. S1 and S2, Supporting information).

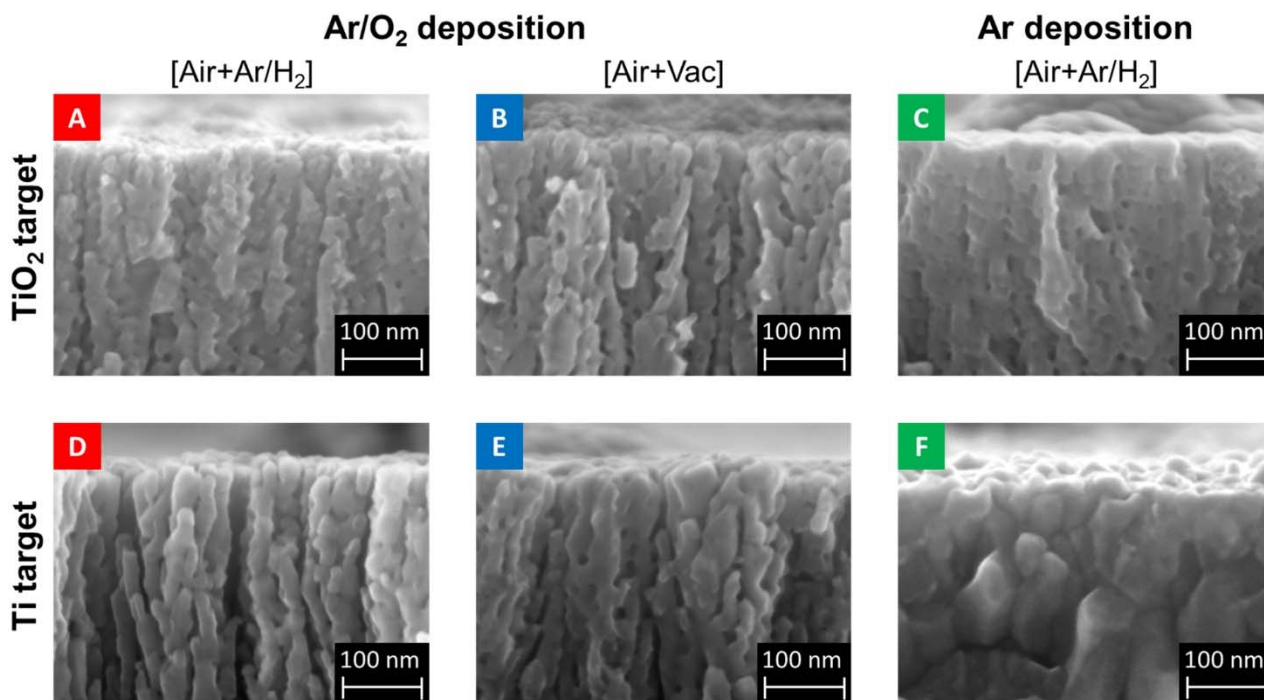


Figure 6: SEM images of TiO₂ films deposited from TiO₂ target (first row) and from Ti target (second row). **A)** Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂]; **B)** Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂-[Air+Vac]; **C)** Ar-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂]; **D)** Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂]; **E)** Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Vac]; **F)** Ar-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂].

For the Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂], i.e. the most photoactive film, a more detailed morphological analysis with high resolution TEM images was carried out, comparing this film with the [Air]-annealed one (Fig. 7). Both the [Air]-annealed film (Fig. 7A) and the [Air+Ar/H₂]-annealed one consist of an assembly of nanocrystals with approximate size of tens of nm; however, the [Air+Ar/H₂]-annealed film shows apparently larger crystals having a more regular shape and surfaces; this effect can be ascribed to the second annealing step experienced by the [Air+Ar/H₂]-annealed film.

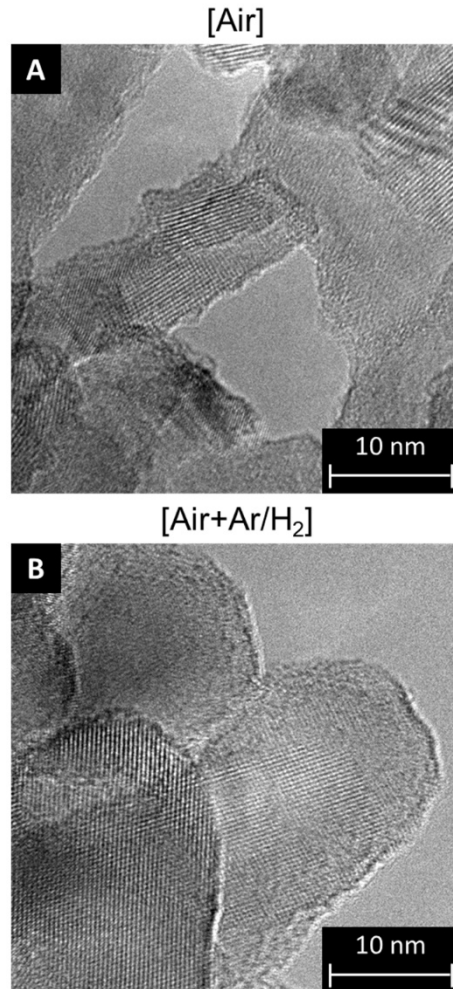


Figure 7: TEM images of annealed Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti. **A)** [Air]; **B)** [Air+Ar/H₂].

The crystalline structure of annealed TiO₂ films was evaluated by Raman spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction, as presented in Fig. 8 (as-deposited films in these experimental conditions are amorphous, as already discussed in ref. [32]). In Raman spectra, the photoluminescence background has been removed for the sake of clarity (the occurrence of this background was already discussed in our previous work [32] and was ascribed to defect levels in the bandgap induced by the reducing treatment).

Fig. 8A shows spectra of the films presented in Figs. 6A–C, i.e. deposited from TiO₂ target; the five characteristic peaks of anatase phase at 144, 198, 399, 517 and 639 cm⁻¹ are present in all the spectra, irrespectively of the annealing process ([Air+Ar/H₂] vs. [Air+Vac] for Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ film) as well as of the deposition gas choice (Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ vs. Ar-TiO₂, both with [Air+Ar/H₂] annealing). This effect confirms our previous observations on similar TiO₂ films [32]. Fig. 8B, on the other hand, shows Raman spectra of the films presented in Figs. 6D–F, i.e. deposited from Ti target. In this case, the Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti films with [Air+Ar/H₂] annealing and with [Air+Vac] annealing still show the characteristic Raman spectrum of anatase, with no evident peak shift or broadening, similarly to films deposited from TiO₂ target; instead, the Ar-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] film is characterized by weak and broad Raman peaks, corresponding to a mixture of anatase and rutile phase (see the rutile E_g and A_{1g} peaks at 440 cm⁻¹ and 610 cm⁻¹, respectively) [60] with a large degree of disorder and consistent with a partially oxidized film. This observation

can be related to the fact that the deposition of Ar-Ti film occurs in the absence of oxygen (apart from possible impurities), so that the as-deposited film is metallic and undergoes partial oxidation during the annealing process.

The structural information gained with Raman spectroscopy has been confirmed with XRD measurements, as shown in Figs. 8C and 8D. Most of the investigated films, indeed, exhibit the presence of the anatase phase, with a crystal domain size, estimated through the Scherrer formula for the (004) peaks, between 30 and 40 nm (see Table S1); in addition, no evident peak shift is present, confirming a good crystallinity of the material. On the contrary, the Ar-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] film, shows very weak and broadened peaks, corresponding to both anatase and rutile phases, but the low signal/noise ratio prevents the evaluation of a crystallite size in this case; this is consistent with a strongly under-oxidized and disordered material.

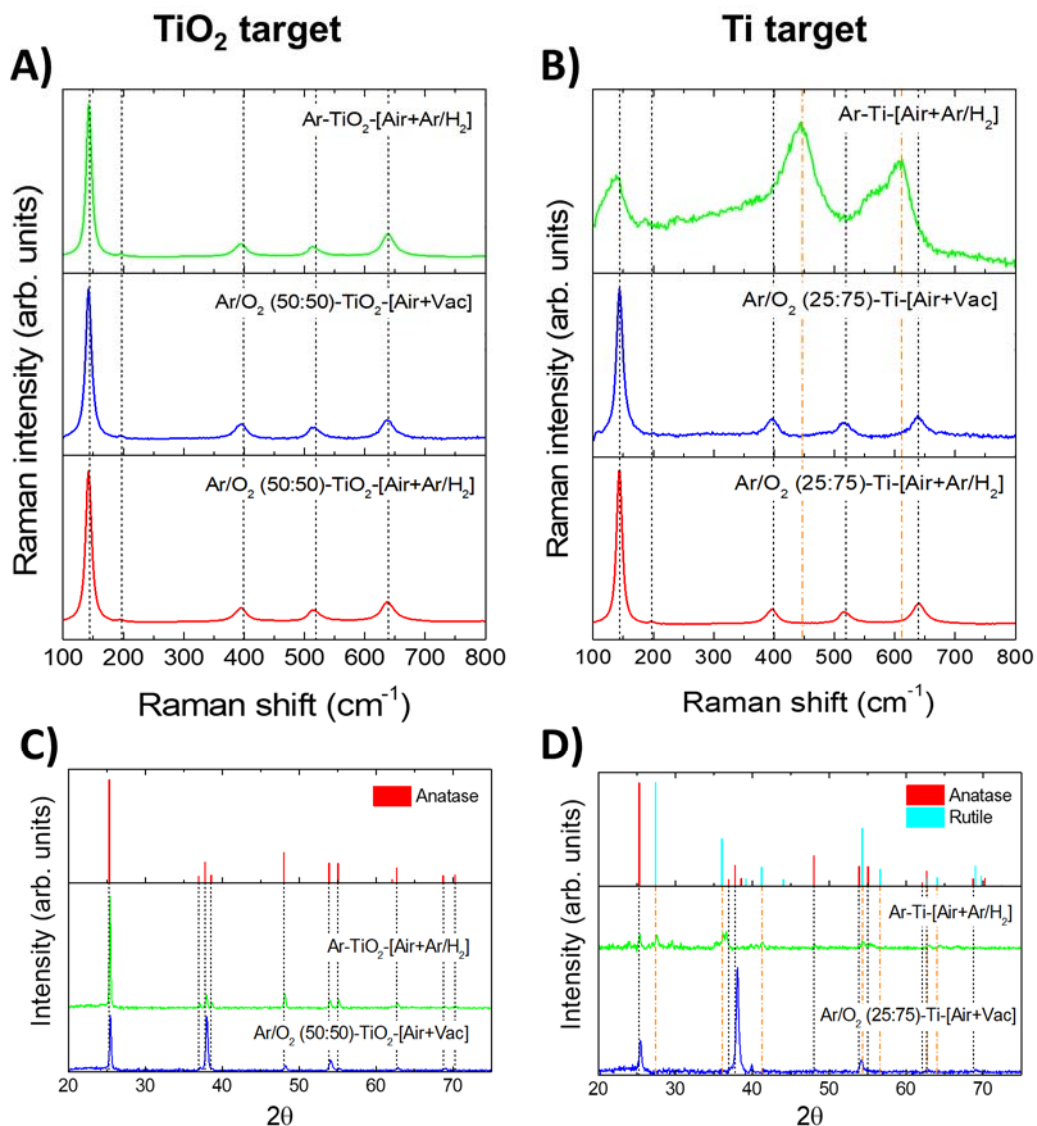


Figure 8: Structural characterization of annealed TiO₂ films: Raman spectra (A and B) and XRD patterns (C and D) of films deposited from TiO₂ target (A and C) and from Ti target (B and D). Vertical dotted lines (black) and dashed-dotted lines (orange) are also reported as reference to anatase and rutile peaks, respectively (XRD anatase and rutile reference spectra, on top of C and D, have been taken from a database [61]).

The optical properties of the optimal depositions (see Fig. 3A) were investigated with transmittance and reflectance spectra in the UV-vis-NIR region (Fig. 9; the inset shows the absorbance profile). Considering the Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ film (Fig. 9A), it can be observed that both the [Air+Ar/H₂]- and [Air+Vac]-annealed films show an absorption tail extending into the visible range (see inset). Evaluating the mean transmittance in the visible range (400 – 700 nm), for the two mentioned films one obtains $T_{vis} = 79.6\%$ and 75.0% . A similar behavior is observed for films deposited by ablation of the Ti target, i.e. Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti (Fig. 9B). In general, the visible transmittance T_{vis} is lower for films deposited with Ti target, i.e. about 73.6% for the [Air+Ar/H₂] annealed one and 71.2% for the [Air+Vac] annealed one. Finally, the bandgap of all the mentioned films, evaluated with the Tauc plot method from transmittance and reflectance spectra in the 290-600 nm region (Figs. S3 and S4, see Supporting information), does not differ from the typical value of anatase (3.2 eV).

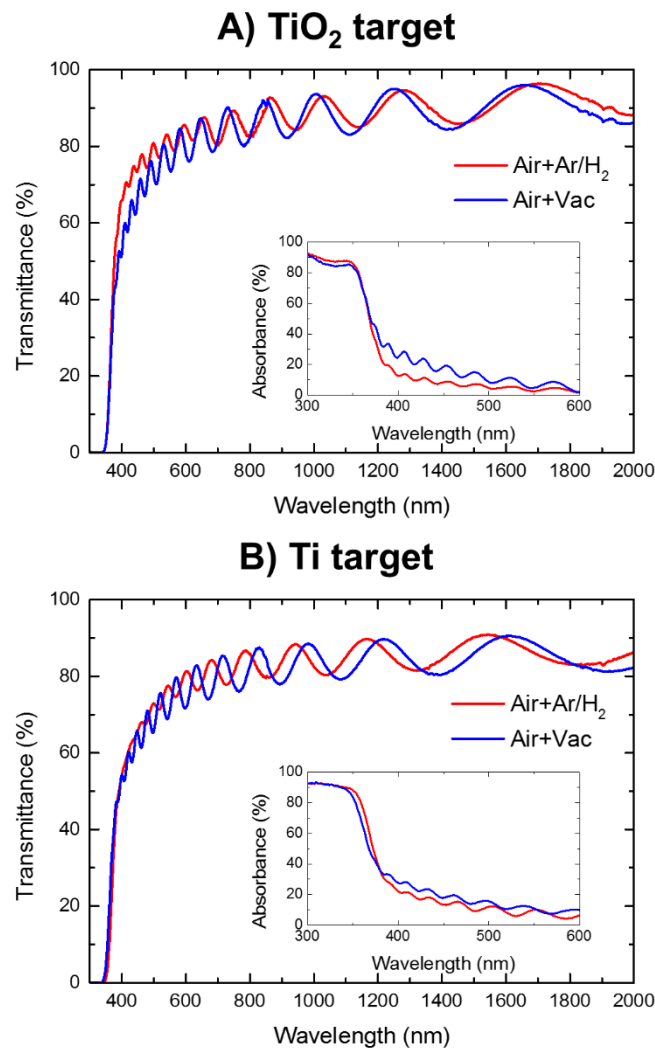


Figure 9: Optical analysis of annealed Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ (A) and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti films (B) (red: [Air+Ar/H₂]; blue: [Air+Vac]).

3.3 Discussion

Two sets of symmetric PLD experiments were performed, i.e. ablation from TiO₂ and Ti targets in background atmospheres with constant pressure and different O₂ content, from pure O₂ to pure Ar, followed by different thermal treatments in oxidizing and reducing conditions; we were thus able to study in detail the effects of the preparation parameters on the final photoresponse of TiO₂

photoanodes tested in a PEC water splitting cell. For selected films (the most photoactive ones), the effect of annealing in vacuum, as alternative reducing atmosphere to Ar/H₂, was also considered to improve the material photoactivity after the standard air annealing.

First, we discuss the effects of Air+Ar/H₂ annealing. As a general remark, several defects can be formed in hydrogen-treated TiO₂ depending on the annealing conditions, also leading to different effects on different forms of TiO₂ nanomaterials [9,10]; this is also suggested by theoretical studies [62–65]. Considering mainly Ar/H₂ annealing at atmospheric pressure, it is reported that it leads to the formation of oxygen vacancies (V_O)/Ti³⁺ sites and/or a surface disordered layer on rutile 1D nanostructures [51,54,55]; Wang et al. [53], in addition, report that annealing rutile nanowires in N₂/H₂ atmosphere increases their donor density (by means of V_O). An increase in electrical conductivity in anatase nanotubes after Ar/H₂ annealing is also suggested by different authors [52,66,67], which is favorable for a thin film in a PEC arrangement. Liu and coworkers, however, compare the Ar/H₂ annealing with a high-pressure pure H₂ treatment and show that only the latter leads to open-circuit photocatalytic activity without the need of a co-catalyst, which is ascribed to paramagnetic Ti³⁺ defects acting as intrinsic co-catalytic centers [52]; in the seminal work on *black titania* by Chen and coworkers, however, a Pt co-catalyst on hydrogenated anatase nanoparticles was still employed in photocatalytic tests [68]. Differently, surface disorder, but with the presence of bridging –OH sites rather than Ti³⁺, has been reported by Li *et al.* [69] in rutile ultra-small nanoparticles without any hydrogenation treatment, leading to bandgap narrowing and visible-light photocatalytic activity.

In our case, annealing in Ar/H₂ atmosphere generally improves the photoresponse of the [Air]-annealed photoanodes tested in this study (Fig. 3A), consistently with our previous work [32]. However, defects are hardly detectable by our investigations and, moreover, they are still a debated issue in the literature, as briefly pointed out above. For this reason, it is out of the scope of this work to study the precise atomistic effect of hydrogen annealing, but we can hypothesize that a surface disorder/defectivity can explain the general photocurrent improvement from the [Air]-annealed photoanodes to the [Air+Ar/H₂]-annealed ones in this study, similarly as in our previous one [32]. This is supported by the increase of quantum efficiency in the UV range [32], as reported also in other works [31,50,67,70].

In the following, we discuss the effects of the deposition conditions on the photoelectrochemical response of photoanodes. For the films deposited in pure Ar, a more compact morphology is observed (see Figs. 6C and 6F) and a lower oxygen content is expected, which does not prevent the formation of a crystalline anatase phase for the Ar-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂] film (see Figs. 8A-C) but leads to a less ordered structure for the Ar-Ti film (see Figs. 8B-D), which, moreover, has zero transmittance (not shown). These observations can suggest an excessive amount of defects in the material, which in turn can account for the moderately low efficiency of these photoanodes. Considering, instead, all the Ar/O₂-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂] films, it can be observed that they show an increased photoresponse with respect to the ones deposited in pure O₂ (O₂-TiO₂) or in pure Ar (Ar-TiO₂), confirming our previous findings on Ar/O₂ deposition [32]. Moreover, a clear trend is observed, as the maximum photoconversion efficiency is measured for the Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂-[Air+Ar/H₂] photoanode (see Fig. 3A). A similar effect appears also for all the Ar/O₂-Ti-[Air+Ar/H₂] films, but in this case the optimum is found in correspondence to a higher percentage

of oxygen in the deposition background gas mixture, i.e. Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti film, and the pure O₂ deposition shows a high photocurrent. These findings can be discussed by considering the deposition process: the oxygen content in the film is both related to the target material and the background gas mixture in the case of depositions from TiO₂ target, but only to the gas mixture in the case of depositions from Ti target, so a higher concentration of oxygen in the gas is needed in the second case. These results, thus, suggest that some degree of oxygen shortage in the deposition process (and thus a slight oxygen sub-stoichiometry in the film) leads to a better photocatalytic performance, as indicated by our previous investigation [32]. The oxygen-related effect during deposition is not affected by the subsequent first annealing step in [Air], so it is reasonable to expect that it mainly concerns the nanoparticles core (while the hydrogenation step mainly affects the surface, as discussed above). The beneficial effect can be tentatively ascribed to a better conductivity within the slightly reduced material constituting the film [71].

Finally, we considered the effect of vacuum annealing on the two optimal films, i.e. Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ and Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti (see Fig. 4). The [Air+Vac] thermal treatment, rather than a “direct” vacuum annealing, was chosen on the basis of other works in literature, such as ref. [33], and of the results of our previous work [32], as a first crystallization and sintering step was fundamental to obtain a final increase in photoresponse. For the Ar/O₂ (50:50)-TiO₂ sample an increase in photoresponse is observed with respect to the [Air]-annealed film; moreover, a higher efficiency for the [Air+Vac]-annealed film with respect to the [Air+Ar/H₂]-annealed film emerges. The opposite occurs for the Ar/O₂ (25:75)-Ti film: the [Air+Vac]-annealed does not substantially differ from the [Air]-annealed one in terms of photoconversion efficiency. While, in the first case, the increase in photoresponse can be motivated with similar arguments as for the [Air+Ar/H₂] annealing, in the second case this effect is unclear. Further investigations are needed to investigate the structural and functional effects of vacuum treatment with respect to hydrogenation.

To summarize, these observations show that the material defectivity can be adjusted by finely tuning the deposition conditions and the annealing treatments, achieving a control on the functional properties, as shown by photocurrent measurements in water splitting cells.

4. Conclusions

The possibility to tune the photoresponse of hierarchical TiO₂ nanostructured films was explored by controlling the synthesis condition, i.e. the material growth parameters with Pulsed Laser Deposition (TiO₂ and Ti targets with Ar/O₂ background gas mixtures) as well as the second annealing step in reducing conditions (following a standard air annealing necessary for crystallization in anatase phase). Since from the morphological and structural point of view no major differences between the films emerge, we suggest that defects related to the deposition or annealing reducing conditions are responsible for the different material photoactivity. The photoresponse dependence on the synthesis process is evident both for the air-annealed films and, particularly, for those annealed in Ar/H₂ mixture, which generally show a higher photoactivity. In particular, two optimal deposition strategies emerge starting from TiO₂ and Ti target, respectively, even though vacuum annealing shows a different effect for these films; further studies should be necessary to address the comprehension of this relevant aspect.

The results presented in this work show that hierarchical TiO₂ nanostructured films with a tunable photoresponse can be obtained by exploiting the versatility of Pulsed Laser Deposition and annealing treatments in Ar/H₂ at atmospheric pressure easily available at the laboratory scale. This suggests the possibility of further optimizing these materials for PEC water splitting applications as well as others, such as photocatalysis, solid-state dye-sensitized solar cells and lithium storage devices.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the FARB project of the Department of Energy, Politecnico di Milano.

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