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KEYWORDS: photoelectrochemical water splitting, photocathode, photocatalyst

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ABSTRACT

A porous ZnRh₂O₄ electrode was fabricated by an electrophoretic deposition method on a fluorine−doped tin oxide substrate, and photoelectrochemical water splitting under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) was performed. The porous ZnRh₂O₄ electrode exhibited a cathodic photocurrent under visible light irradiation and an extremely positive onset potential at +1.20 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) in aqueous Na2SO4 solution. ZnO necking treatment, by which effective contact between ZnRh₂O₄ particles is formed, afforded a significant increase in the photocurrent. The incident photon to current efficiencies (IPCEs) of the ZnRh₂O₄ and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes were calculated to be ca. 8% and ca. 13% at 400 nm, respectively, at 0 V vs. RHE in aqueous Na₂SO₄ solution. H₂ evolution under visible light (λ >420 nm) was demonstrated using the ZnRh₂O₄ and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes combined with a Pt electrode under an applied bias (0 V vs. RHE).

Introduction

Photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting utilizing semiconductor electrodes has attracted considerable attention as a potential means of converting solar energy into chemical energy in the form of usable hydrogen, which is a clean and renewable energy. **1-5** This research field was inspired by a report in 1972 by Fujishima and Honda, who demonstrated water splitting on a $TiO₂$ single crystal as a photoanode and a platinum counter electrode with an external bias under UV light irradiation.**⁶** Since almost 50% of the solar energy incident on the earth's surface falls within the visible−light energy range, recent research in this field has resulted in the development and fabrication of semiconductor electrodes capable of absorbing visible light. One goal of PEC water splitting is direct generation of H₂ over a *p*−type semiconductor electrode (photocathode) in combination with an *n*−type semiconductor electrode (photoanode) for O₂ generation from water without applying an external voltage under sunlight illumination. There have been many studies on high–efficiency visible light–responsive photoanodes such as WO₃,^{7,8} TaON,^{9, 10} Fe₂O₃, ¹¹⁻¹³ and BiVO₄,¹⁴⁻¹⁷ but there have been few reports on photocathodes. Examples of the latter include $Cu₂O₂$ ^{18, 19} Rh-doped SrTiO₃²⁰ and CaFe₂O₄ photocathodes²¹ which are *p*-type semiconductors with visible light responses.

The spinel oxide ZnRh₂O₄ with a band gap of ~2.1 eV is a unique material as a *p*−type metal oxide semiconductor.²² The band gap of ZnRh₂O₄ originated from the ligand field splitting of octahedral–coordinated Rh³⁺ (Rh d^6 electronic configuration) between fully occupied t^6 _{2g} and empty $e_{\rm g}^0$ orbitals, which correspond to valence band (VB) and conduction band (CB), respectively. Irie *et al.* reported photocatalytic H₂ evolution from water involving sacrificial reagents (formaldehyde HCHO) by using powdered ZnRh2O4 without any co−catalyst, and they experimentally suggested the band potential; the CB bottom and the VB top are located at ca. −1.1

V and ca. +0.1 V vs. SHE, respectively,**²³** which is more negative than typical oxide semiconductors. Thus, ZnRh_2O_4 has sufficient potential as a photocathode for generation of H_2 from water. However, as far as we know, there has been no report on PEC water splitting by using a ZnRh2O⁴ electrode. The present research was carried out from this stand point.

We fabricated a porous $ZnRh₂O₄$ electrode by an electrophoretic deposition method on a fluorine−doped tin oxide (FTO) substrate, and demonstrated PEC water splitting under visible light irradiation. The porous $ZnRh₂O₄$ electrode exhibited cathodic photocurrent under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm), and the photocurrent reached $-100 \mu A/cm^2$ at 0V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) in aqueous Na₂SO₄ solution. Moreover, we introduced the ZnO necking treatment as a very suitable technique for improvement of photocurrent response of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode. The ZnO thin layer over ZnRh₂O₄ forms a space charge depletion region at the solid−solid interface (*p*−*n* heterojunction),**24,25** which results in better separation of the charge carriers. In addition, the ZnO thin film allows improved electrical contact between ZnRh_2O_4 particles. The incident photon to current efficiencies of ZnRh₂O₄ and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes were calculated to be ca. 8% at 400 nm and ca. 13% at 400 nm, respectively, at 0 V vs RHE in aqueous $Na₂SO₄$ solution. In this report, the PEC property of the $ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathode is described, and the significant effect of ZnO necking treatment is discussed in conjunction with the structural and optical properties.

Experimental

Synthesis of ZnRh2O⁴ powder

 $ZnRh₂O₄$ powder was synthesized by a solid state reaction method. ZnO (Wako, 99.0%) and $Rh₂O₃$ (Wako, >98.0%) as starting reagents were weighed stoichiometrically and mixed together thoroughly. The mixture was calcined at 800 °C for 24 h in air. The obtained ZnRh_2O_4 powder was a brown color and the surface area was ca. $17 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$.

Fabrication of a ZnRh2O⁴ electrode

The porous ZnRh₂O₄ electrode was fabricated by an electrophoretic deposition method on fluorine−doped tin oxide (FTO) substrate (Asahi Glass Co.). Electrophoretic deposition method was carried out in acetone (40 mL, Wako, 99.0%) containing $\text{ZnRh}_{2}\text{O}_4$ powder (50 mg) and iodine (30 mg, Wako, 99.8%), which was dispersed by sonication for 30 min. Two FTO electrodes (15 $mm \times 30$ mm) were immersed parallel in the solution with a distance between them of 10 mm, and 6 V of bias was then applied between the electrodes for 3 min. After that, the electrodes were annealed at 400 °C for 1 h in air. The average amount of ZnRh_2O_4 deposited on FTO was 0.6 mg (area: 15 mm \times 20 mm) by this electrophoretic deposition method. It should be noted that the electrophoretic deposition discribed above was optimized in the present study.

Necking treatment by ZnO precursor solution

The $ZnRh_2O_4$ electrode was coated with a ZnO thin film by sol–gel method,^{26,27} using the following procedure. The zinc acetate $Zn(CH_3COO)_2.2H_2O$ (Wako, 99.9%) was first dissolved in a 2−methoxyethanol (Wako, 99.0%) and monoethanolamine (Sigma−Aldrich, >99.0%) solution at room temperature. The molar ratio of monoethanolamine to zinc acetate was kept at 1.0 and the concentration of zinc acetate was 0.5 M. The mixed solution was stirred at room temperature for 24 h to obtain a clear and homogeneous ZnO precursor solution. The 50 μ L of the ZnO precursor solution was dropped on the porous ZnRh_2O_4 electrode and then excess precursor solution was removed by spin−coating (1000 rpm, 30 sec). The electrode was dried in air at 200 ℃ for 5 min on a hotplate. After this process had been repeated for a maximum of 7 times, the electrode was calcined in air at 400 °C for 1 h for crystallization of ZnO. Then the $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathode was obtained.

Characterization

The crystalline phases were characterized by using a powder X−ray diffraction (XRD) instrument (MiniFlex II, Rigaku Co.) with CuK α (λ =1.5418 Å) radiation (cathode voltage: 30 kV, current: 15 mA). The absorption properties of ZnRh_2O_4 (powder state) were measured using the diffuse reflection method with a UV/VIS/NIR spectrometer (V570, JASCO Co., Japan) attached to an integral sphere at room temperature. X−ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed by using a Kratos AXIS Nova spectrometer (Shimazu Co.) with a monochromatic Al Kα X−ray source. The binding energy was calibrated by taking the carbon (C) 1s peak of contaminant carbon as a reference at 284.6 eV. Ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy (UPS) was also carried out by using a Kratos AXIS Nova spectrometer. The UPS spectra were measured using He I excitation (21.2 eV) and recorded with a constant pass energy of 5 eV in the ultrahigh vacuum chamber of the XPS instrument. Applied bias was calibrated by determining the Fermi level of Au, which was deposited on the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode.

Photoelectrochemical (PEC) measurement

The PEC performance of the ZnRh₂O₄ and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes was investigated in a three−electrode configuration using a silver−silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) reference electrode and a Pt coil counter electrode. The electrolyte was 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH 6). The electrolyte was stirred and purged with Ar gas for 30 min before measurement. The measured potential vs.

Ag/AgCl was converted to RHE by Nernst's equation ($E_{RHE} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + 0.059$ pH + 0.197). Linear sweep voltammetry and chronoamperometry measurements were carried out by using an automatic polarization system (HSV−110, Hokuto Denko Co.) under a Xe lamp equipped with an L−42 cut−off filter (SCF−50s−42L, SIGMAKOKI Co., Ltd.). The scan rate for the linear sweep voltammetry was 10 mV s⁻¹. The wavelength dependence of incident photon to current efficiency (IPCE) was measured by using a Xe lamp equipped with a band−pass filter centered at 400 nm, 450 nm, 500 nm, 550 nm, 600 nm, and 700 nm, respectively (All band−pass filters were purchased from Asahi Spectra Co., Ltd., and full width at half maximum was 10 nm.). The IPCE at each irradiation wavelength was calculated by the following equation:

$$
I PCE [%] = 1240 \times J [mA/cm2] \times 100 / (\lambda [nm] \times J [mW/cm2]),
$$

where *J* is photocurrent density, λ is irradiation wavelength of the light–emitting diodes and *I* is irradiation intensity of incident light.

Analysis of products

 PEC water splitting was performed in a gastight three−electrode configuration cell in which the ZnRh2O⁴ or ZnO/ZnRh2O⁴ photocathode, Pt wire and silver−silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) electrode were used as a working electrode, counter electrode and reference electrode, respectively. The electrolyte solution was 0.1 M Na₂SO₄, which was purged with Ar gas for ca. 40 min prior to the start of measurement. The cell was immersed in a cooling water bath to maintain solution temperature at 288 K during photoirradiation (Xe lamp, λ > 420 nm). Evolved H₂ gas was detected by an on−line gas chromatograph (GC) with a thermal conductivity detector (Agilent Technology Co. MicroGC) equipped with MS−5A column. It should be noted that the PEC water splitting was carried out by using flow reactor. Ar gas was used as the carrier gas.

Results and discussion

Structural, optical, and photoelectrochemical properties of the ZnRh2O4 electrode

Figure 1 shows the XRD pattern of the $ZnRh_2O_4$ electrode. All of the diffraction peaks coincide with those of the cubic phase of ZnRh₂O₄ (JCPDS 00–041–0134) and FTO substrate, with no other impurity phases being detectable. The calcination temperature of ZnRh_2O_4 was optimized in the present study (800℃−24h); at higher calcination temperatures (> 900℃), Rh2O³ was deoxidized into metal Rh, leading to a remarkable decrease of photocurrent of ZnRh_2O_4 electrode. At lower calcination temperature ($\langle 700^{\circ}$ C), unreacted Rh₂O₃ and ZnO remained.

Figure 2 shows a cross-sectional SEM photograph of the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode. A porous structure can be seen. The electrolyte solution will therefore penetrate into the pores of the $ZnRh₂O₄$ film. The $ZnRh₂O₄$ particles were ca. 200 nm in diameter with a thickness of ca. 2 μ m. The ZnRh₂O₄ electrode prepared by the electrophoretic deposition method was easily peeled off by scratching with a nail and a spoon. Therefore, we annealed the ZnRh_2O_4 electrode at 400°C for 1 h after the electrophoretic deposition method, resulting in a good adhesion property of the film due to the connection between ZnRh₂O₄ particles and the FTO substrate.

Figure 3 shows a UV−vis absorption spectrum of the ZnRh2O4 powder. The UV−vis spectrum has an absorption edge at around 600 nm, which corresponds to the optical band gap of ZnRh₂O₄. According to previous reports, ZnRh₂O₄ is an indirect energy gap material.^{28,29} The optical absorption edge of ZnRh₂O₄ could be estimated from a Tauc plot $((F(R\infty)hv)^n$ vs. *hv*, where $n = 0.5$ for an indirect bandgap (see **Fig. 3 inset**)), and the optical band gap of ZnRh_2O_4 was estimated to be ca. 2.0 eV, which is consistent with the early reports $(\sim 2.2 \text{ eV})$. ^{22,28}

To clarify the VB and CB band potentials, we measured the UPS spectrum of the ZnRh_2O_4 electrode in this study. Usually, band potential can be measured by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, which can directly measure the capacitance of the Schottky junction. However, impedance measurements could not be completed for the porous ZnRh_2O_4 electrode because the electrolyte penetrated down to the FTO substrate. In this situation, UPS is a useful technique because the correlation between electrochemical potential and absolute potential of electrons has already been established.**³⁰ Figure 4** shows the UPS spectrum measured at 0 V and –9.2 V electrical bias. The cutoff of the UPS spectrum with the sample bias of 0 V could not be clearly observed, and a negative electrical bias was therefore applied. Applied bias was calibrated by determining the work function of Au, which was deposited on the ZnRh_2O_4 . The features in the valence band and the entire spectrum remained unchanged with respect to the applied bias. The UPS spectrum started to rise near the Fermi energy, and a relatively sharp band that appeared at around 2 eV, which corresponds to the top of the valence band, was associated with *d* electron states, mostly likely the t_{2g} set of octahedral–coordinated Rh^{3+} . The work function of ZnRh₂O₄ was estimated to be 4.53 eV, which is good agreement with an early report.²² Since the difference between work function and VB top is -0.50 V, the VB top and CB bottom potentials of ZnRh_2O_4 are considered to be located at ca. +0.6 V and –1.4 V vs. NHE (pH 0), respectively (see **Fig .5**).

Figure 6 shows current−potential curves of the ZnRh2O4 electrode in Ar−gas purged 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH 6) under chopped visible light irradiation (Xe lamp, λ 420 nm, 100 $mW/cm²$). The ZnRh₂O₄ electrode exhibited a cathodic photocurrent in response to irradiation of visible light, indicating that ZnRh2O4 is a *p*−type oxide semiconductor. The cathodic photocurrent of ZnRh_2O_4 was increased with an increase in the applied potential, and its photocurrent density reached $-110 \mu A/cm^2$ at 0 V vs. RHE. As shown in the inset figure, onset potential of ZnRh₂O₄

was ca. +1.20 V vs. RHE, which compares favorably with any *p*−type semiconductor oxide such as Cu₂O (ca. +0.55 V vs. RHE),^{18,19} CaFe₂O₄ (+1.24 V vs. RHE),²¹ and CuBi₂O₄ (+1.05~1.1 V vs. RHE). **31**

Figure 7 shows the time courses of the cathodic photocurrent from the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution purged with Ar gas at 0 V vs. RHE under visible light irradiation (Xe lamp, λ 420 nm, 100 mW/cm²).). When the electrode was exposed to incident light, a cathodic photocurrent rapidly flowed and then gradually decreased with time. After switching off the incident light, the current retuned to the initial state. Although there was a tendency for the photocurrent to decrease with time, observed amount of H_2 was agreed closely with the theoretical value based on Faraday's law, indicating that the cathodic photocurrent is due to the water reduction to produce, as will be discussed later (see **Fig. 14**). To clarify the stability of the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode, XPS measurement was done before and after the PEC reaction, as shown in **Fig. 8**. The peak positions of Zn *2p*, Rh *3d* and O *1s* were almost unchanged after the reaction. Moreover, we also analyzed the metal cation species in the electrolyte by ICP−AES after 1 h of PEC reaction. No detection of Zn and Rh ions indicated that those ions were not leached from $ZnRh₂O₄$ particles, implying that $ZnRh₂O₄$ is stable under PEC reaction.

Effect of ZnO necking treatment

As mentioned in the above section, we revealed that the porous ZnRh_2O_4 electrode acted as a photocathode and was applicable to PEC water splitting under visible light irradiation. However, in general, the photocurrent efficiency of a porous semiconductor electrode is limited due to the resistance loss at grain boundaries. This problem can be solved by necking treatment; that is, bridging semiconductor particles with binder materials for carrier conduction. Indeed, the water

oxidation photocurrent generated from a porous $LaTiO₂N$ electrode was improved by $TiCl₄$ necking treatment, where binder TiO_{2-x} layer leading to a decrease in resistance between LaTiO₂N particles and/or the substrate.**³²** Similar improvement of the photocurrent by necking treatment of TaON (TaCl₅ + NH₃ flow, or TiCl₄),³³⁻³⁵ SrNbO₂N (NbCl₅ + NH₃ flow),³⁶ and BaTaO₂N (TaCl₅ + NH³ flow)**³⁷** electrodes has been reported.

We attempted to do necking treatment over the $ZnRh₂O₄$ electrode by using a zinc oxide (ZnO) precursor solution for further improvement of the photocurrent. Since *p*−*n* heterojunction diodes composed of p –type ZnRh₂O₄ and n –type ZnO have been reported,^{24,25} the following two significant effects was anticipated by ZnO necking treatment: (1) bridging $ZnRh₂O₄$ particles with ZnO for smooth carrier conduction, and (2) a depletion layer formed at the $\text{ZnRh}_2\text{O}_4/\text{ZnO}$ *p*–*n* junction could also assist in extracting photo–generated electrons from ZnRh_2O_4 . We prepared the ZnO precursor solution by sol–gel method and then drop–casted it onto the ZnRh_2O_4 electrode with calcination. **Figure 9** shows the photocurrent response of the ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathode when the ZnO precursor solution was drop–casted 1 time. The ZnO/ ZnRh_2O_4 photocathode exhibited a photocurrent density of $-250 \mu A/cm^2$ at 0 V vs. RHE under visible light irradiation (λ >420 nm), which was ca. two-fold higher than that obtained on a bare electrode. The sharp rise beyond the onset potential and the tendency for photocurrent saturation in the high−potential region indicated that efficient charge carrier transfer has occurred by ZnO necking treatment. Taking into consideration that the onset potential was barely changed after ZnO necking treatment, it was highly possible that enhancement of photocurrent was due to an improvement of electrical contact between ZnRh2O4 particles by ZnO necking treatment rather than a formation of depletion layer at the $\text{ZnRh}_2\text{O}_4/\text{ZnO}$ *p-n* junction, as will be discussed later.

To clarify the irradiation wavelength dependence of the photocurrent in bare and $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathodes, the action spectrum was acquired by determining the IPCEs at 0 V vs. RHE as a function of the irradiation wavelength (see **Fig. 10**). For the bare electrode, the IPCE action spectrum was blue−shifted by ∼100 nm relative to the optical absorption edge, and each IPCE was ca. 1%, 4%, and 8% with irradiation wavelengths at 500 nm, 450 nm, and 400 nm, respectively. Such a discrepancy between IPCE action spectrum and absorption spectrum has been observed in CuNbO3 photocathode (blue−shifted by ca.∼150 nm), and the reason was suggested to be that band−edge electrons much less efficiently migrate to and transfer across the electrode interfaces.³⁸ According to the results of first−principles calculations of ZnRh₂O₄, the energy bands for VB maximum and CB minimum have a flat non−dispersed character, which contribute to the large density of states around the Fermi level and account for the large carrier effective mass and the small polaron mobility.**²⁸** Therefore, the discrepancy between the IPCE action spectrum and absorption spectrum is considered to be caused mainly by recombination of photo−generated carriers near the absorption edge, as in the case of $CuNbO₃$ photocathode. For the $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathode, the IPCE action spectrum was in agreement with the optical absorption spectrum, and each of the IPCEs was increased to ca. two−fold higher than that of the bare electrode. These results suggested that the observed photocurrent in ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathode was due to light absorption by ZnRh_2O_4 rather than ZnO (bandgap \sim ca. 3.4 eV), and the ZnO necking treatment could assist the flow of electrons from ZnRh2O⁴ toward electrode−electrolyte interface, resulting in an improvement of IPCE.

To clarify the effect of necking treatment, we further investigated the physicochemical properties of the ZnRh2O4 electrode after the ZnO necking treatment. **Figure 11** shows the dependence of XRD patterns on the number of drop−casts (0, 1, 3, 5, and 7 times) of the ZnO

precursor solution. The ZnO diffraction peak intensities increased with an increase in the number of drop−casts, indicating that a crystalline ZnO phase could be formed on the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode by necking treatment. No ZnO diffraction peak were observed when the ZnO precursor solution was drop–casted 1 time, suggesting that ZnO on the $ZnRh₂O₄$ electrode were too small to be detected by XRD analysis. To further confirm the ZnO phase, we have investigated the XPS spectra of ZnO/ZnRh2O4 photocathodes (Fig. S1 in ESI). The XPS intensities of Zn *2p3/2* and *2p1/2*, which peaked at 1022.4 eV and 1045.5 eV, respectively, were increased with an increase in the number of drop−casts, suggesting that the ZnO could be formed on ZnRh₂O₄ surface even when ZnO precursor solution was drop–casted 1 time.

Figure 12 shows top−view SEM images of the ZnRh2O4 electrodes before and after drop−casting of the ZnO precursor solution. Although there were many spaces among ZnRh2O⁴ particles in the untreated electrode (see Fig. 11c), the spaces were gradually filled with an increase in the number of drop−casts of the ZnO precursor solution (see Fig. 11d~e). The morphology of the ZnRh2O4 electrode was almost unchanged after drop−casting 1 time (see Fig. 11d). This suggested that most of the ZnO particles produced thin layers on the surfaces of ZnRh₂O₄ particles, which formed bridges between the ZnRh_2O_4 particles.

The cathodic photocurrent from the $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathode was strongly dependent on the number of drop−casts of the ZnO precursor solution. **Figure 13** shows the dependence of the photocurrent from the ZnRh2O4 electrode on the number of drop−casts (1, 3, 5, and 7). Increasing the number of drop−casts up to 7 times decreased the cathodic photocurrent and tended to cause a negative shift in the onset potential of the photocurrent. Basak *et al.* have been studied the effect of thickness on electrical property of ZnO thin films, which prepared by sol−gel method;**³⁹** as thickness of the ZnO thin film was increased, the ZnO film became more porous and hence the

amount of adsorbed oxygen at the grain boundary was increased, resulting in more carriers being trapped and an increase in resistivity increased. Therefore, we consider that an effect of ZnO necking treatment is mainly to bridging ZnRh_2O_4 particles for carrier conduction, similar to dyesensitized solar cells.**⁴⁰** Moreover, ZnO thin film coating is an important role for enhancement of photocurrent of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode because of smooth carrier conduction.

Finally, the Faradaic efficiencies of bare and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes were evaluated by analysis of evolved H_2 gases. **Figure 14** shows the time courses of H_2 evolution over bare and $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathodes under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) at 0 V vs. RHE. For both sample, the amount of H_2 evolved was slightly less than half of the electrons passing through the outer circuit (e[−] /2, shown as a dotted line), possibly due to backward reaction on the Pt counter electrode and/or an induction period. The Faradaic efficiencies of bare and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes were estimated to be ca. 77% and ca. 85%, respectively. These results show that bare and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes can actually work for water splitting in PEC cell, and ZnO necking treatment promotes H₂ evolution under visible light irradiation. The durability of ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathode was tested for 1.5 h (the current was measured simultaneously with the gas evolution as in the inset). The initial photocurrent of $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ (ca.−0.4 mA) decreased with time and reached about ca.−0.05 mA after 1.5 h. This does not represent a good durability of $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ and appears to be a characteristic of ZnO because bare $ZnRh₂O₄$ electrode was stable upon PEC reaction (Fig. S2 in ESI). Indeed, we analyzed the metal cation species in the electrolyte by ICP−AES after 1.5 h of PEC reaction. Although no Rh ions were detected in the electrolyte, the Zn ions were detected. Moreover, XPS analysis of $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathode revealed that the peak intensities of Zn *2p3/2* and *2p1/2* were decreased after 1.5 h of PEC reaction (Fig. S3 in ESI), suggesting that ZnO was dissolved into electrolyte upon PEC

reaction, resulting in a decrease of photocurrent with time. Thus, the ZnO necking treatment improves the PEC performance of the ZnRh₂O₄ electrode, while there are still issues about stability. Further research is required to improve the PEC performance avoiding degradation processes of ZnO/ZnRh2O4 photocathode by loading the hydrogen−evolving catalyst such as Pt, MoS2+x and $RuO₂$.

Conclusions

A porous ZnRh₂O₄ electrode was fabricated by an electrophoretic deposition method on a fluorine−doped tin oxide substrate, and it showed photoelectrochemical water splitting under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) for the first time. The porous ZnRh₂O₄ electrode exhibited a cathodic photocurrent under visible light irradiation and its photocurrent density reached –110 μ A/cm² at 0 V vs. RHE in aqueous Na₂SO₄ solution. Furthermore, we introduced the ZnO necking treatment as a very suitable technique for improvement of photocurrent response of ZnRh_2O_4 electrode; the photocurrent of ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathode was enhanced to ca. two-fold higher than that of the bare electrode. The incident photon to charge carrier efficiencies (IPCEs) of the ZnRh₂O₄ and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ photocathodes were calculated to be ca. 8% and ca. 13% at 400 nm, respectively, at 0 V vs. RHE in aqueous Na₂SO₄ solution. The hydrogen evolution from ZnRh₂O₄ and $ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄$ photocathodes was confirmed with the faradaic efficiency of ca. 77% and ca. 85%, respectively.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Prof. Shintaro Ida of Kyushu University for valuable contributions to this study. The authors also thank Prof. Tetsuya Haruyama, Prof. Naoya Murakami, Dr. Keisuke Hamada, and Mr. Kai Tanaka of Kyushu Institute of Technology for their valuable contributions to this study. This work has been supported by a grant from Advanced Catalytic Transformation program for Carbon utilization (ACT−C), Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST).

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Figure 1. XRD pattern of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode.

Figure 2. Cross−sectional SEM image of ZnRh2O⁴ electrode.

Figure 3. UV−vis spectrum of ZnRh2O⁴ powder. Optical band gap was determined by Tauc

plots, as shown in the insets.

Figure 4. UPS spectra of ZnRh2O⁴ electrode measured at non−bias (solid line) and −9.2 V

(dotted line).

Figure 5. Band position of ZnRh₂O₄ determined by UPS measurements.

Figure 6. Current−potential curves in aqueous 0.1 M Na2SO4 solution (pH 6) under chopped visible light irradiation (λ = 420 nm, 100 mW/cm²) for ZnRh₂O₄ electrode.

Figure 7. Time course for the photocurrent of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH 6) at 0 V vs. RHE under visible light irradiation (Xe lamp, λ > 420 nm, 100 mW/cm²).

Figure 8. XPS spectra of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode before and after 1 h of photoirradiation (λ = 420 nm, 100 mW/cm²) in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH 6) at 0 V vs. RHE.

Figure 9. Current−potential curves in aqueous 0.1 M Na2SO4 solution (pH 6) under chopped visible light irradiation (λ 420 nm, 100 mW/cm²) for ZnRh₂O₄ electrode and ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ electrode (ZnO precursor solution was drop–casted 1 time).

Figure 10. IPCE dependence on the wavelength of (a) ZnRh₂O₄ and (b) ZnO/ ZnRh₂O₄ photocathode at 0 V vs. RHE in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution.

Figure 11. XRD pattern of (a) bare ZnRh₂O₄ electrode, (b) ZnO precursor solution was dropcasted 1 time, (c) 3 times, (d) 5 times, and (e) 7 times.

Figure 12. SEM image of (a) FTO substrate, (b) 1 times ZnO drop−casted FTO substrate, (c) bare ZnRh2O4 electrode, (d) ZnO precursor solution was drop–casted 1 time (e) 3 times, and (f) 7 times.

Figure 13. Current−potential curves in aqueous 0.1 M Na2SO4 solution (pH 6) under chopped visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm) of ZnRh₂O₄ electrode when ZnO precursor solution was drop– casted (a) 1 time, (b) 2 times, (c) 3 times, (d) 5 times and (e) 7 times. Electrode aera was ca. 2 cm^2 .

Figure 14. Time courses of gas evolution for (a) ZnRh₂O₄ electrode and (b) ZnO/ZnRh₂O₄ electrode, combined with Pt-wire counter electrode and Ag/AgCl reference electrode, in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH 6) with applied bias 0 V vs. RHE under visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm). The insets indicate the time courses of the cathodic photocurrent, where electrode aera was ca. 3 cm^2 .