Impact of Ordering on the Reactivity of Mixed Crystals of Topological Insulators with Anion Substitution: Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂

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Abstract

Topological insulators (TIs) are among the most intriguing materials of the 21st century. Tetradymite type binary chalcogenides of bismuth and antimony, as well as their mixed crystals, belong to prototypical TIs. Potential device applications of these materials require in-depth knowledge of their stability in the ambient atmosphere and other media maintained during their processing. Here we investigated the reactivity of mixed crystals with anion



substitution, $Bi_2(Se_{1-x}Te_x)_3$ and $Sb_2(Se_{1-x}Te_x)_3$, towards molecular oxygen using both *in situ* and *ex situ* X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. The results indicate that, in contrast to cation substitution, partial substitution of tellurium by selenium atoms leads to anomalously high surface reactivity, which even exceeds that of the most reactive binary constituent. We attribute this effect to anion ordering that essentially modifies the bond geometry, especially the respective bond angles as modeled by DFT.

Introduction

The discovery of topological insulators (TIs) is one of the most prominent events in 21st century physics [1,2]. Novel physical phenomena observed for TIs construct a platform for creating entirely new electronic devices [3-6]. In contrast to trivial insulators, the appearance of spin-polarized electronic states inside the bulk band gap at the surface or interface with a trivial insulator is caused by band inversion due to strong spin-orbit coupling. The surface of such materials is highly conductive, and the surface electrons that move in the opposite directions also have opposite spins, which allows managing electronic and spin transport. The surface states are protected by the time-reversal symmetry; they are not influenced by any perturbations such as surface defects or non-magnetic impurities.

One of the most studied classes of TIs is tetradymite type compounds with a single Dirac cone located at the Γ point of the surface Brillouin zone, such as Bi₂Te₃, Bi₂Se₃, Sb₂Te₃, as well as various ternary compounds and solid solutions with a similar structure [7]. Solid solutions are of special interest because all relevant parameters such as the Dirac point position, Fermi level energy, and bandgap can be tuned precisely by varying their composition [8-11]. This approach has been successfully applied to produce materials with low bulk conductivity: Bi₂SeTe₂, Sb₂SeTe₂, Bi₂Te₂S, Bi_{1.5}Sb_{0.5}Te_{1.7}Se_{1.3}, Bi₂Te_{1.6}S_{1.4} [9,11-21], which is a prerequisite to implement the topological properties in electron transport phenomena. Anion substitution from a certain perspective appears to be more promising than the cation one since it grants a better possibility to increase the band gap [9,11].

In addition to the low bulk conductivity required for TI applications, the Bi₂SeTe₂ phase is of interest for detailed investigation due to a number of unique properties; for instance, a monolayer of Bi₂SeTe₂ has the smallest thermal conductivity among 2D materials [22]. For a similar antimony compound, Sb₂SeTe₂, large linear magnetoresistance with extremely low mobility was measured [17, 23-24]. Based on Sb₂SeTe₂ nanoflakes, a high-performance visible light photodetector was designed [19].

Upon mixing, the atomic positions can either be statistically filled or ordered in a certain way. For a layered structure in an extreme case of specific stoichiometry and 100 % occupation of positions within the individual layers, ternary compounds can be formed; for example, the tetradymite phase of Bi₂STe₂. Generally, for any ternary mixed crystals, either with cation or anion substitution, the situation may vary from pure statistical occupation to a complete ordering depending on the composition and a thermodynamically predetermined ordering tendency. The absence of any cation ordering has been demonstrated earlier, for instance, for the Bi₂Te₃-Sb₂Te₃ solid solutions [25]. It is not surprising since all cation positions are equivalent, and from the thermodynamics viewpoint, mixed crystals belong to the ideal solid solution. In contrast to this, anion ordering is typically observed for solid solutions with the tetradymite structure [7, 16]. In the structure, there are two different anion positions (1/3 of inner positions inside of the quintuple layer (QL) and 2/3 of outer positions); the intralayer position is more energetically favorable for smaller anions [7, 26] as schematically presented in Fig. 1a. Despite an ideal and complete mixing in the Bi₂Se₃-Bi₂Te₃ system (see Fig.1b) and linear concentration dependence of the lattice parameter a (Fig. 1c), the Bi₂SeTe₂ phase is formed where almost all intralayer anion positions are occupied by Se atoms, while the positions at the surface of the QLs are occupied by Te (there is some disordering between the positions though it does not exceed 10% [13]). In another system with anion substitution, Sb₂Se₃-Sb₂Te₃, the solubility is limited; mixed crystals exist in the range of 40-100 mol.% Sb₂Te₃, as it is shown in Fig.2a. Such solid solutions show ideal behavior as it follows from the fact that lattice constant variation in Fig. 2b obeys Vegard's rule. Similar to the Bi-based system, it is reasonable to assume that a Sb₂SeTe₂ compound forms with Se occupying the intralayer position, although there have been no experimental confirmations so far [7].

Device applications of these materials require deep knowledge of their stability towards the ambient atmosphere and other media used in material processing. It has already been well established that the reactivity of Bi₂Se₃ to oxygen is very low so that a freshly cleaved surface would show bright RHEED and ARPES patterns [27-29]. Bi₂Te₃ and especially Sb₂Te₃ are much more reactive [29-31]. Therefore, their preparation and processing conditions should be carefully controlled. For mixed crystals with cation substitution, the reactivity can be predicted, as we showed in Ref. [25]; it is an intermediate between the counterparts. In particular, it is determined by the number of anion atoms in the very surface layer bonded to at least one more reactive cation (Sb) atom.

Although certain fragmentary reports on the surface oxidation of the mixed crystals with anion substitution are available [32,33], their reactivity has not yet been evaluated comprehensively. One can expect sophisticated behavior taking into account the ordering, which leads to the prevalence of the more reactive (Te) anion in the very surface layer. Here we focus on the correlation between the reactivity of the mixed crystals and that of their binary constituents, as well as on the anion ordering effect if any. For this reason, the compositions corresponding to the maximum ordering, Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂, were under our particular interest.



Fig. 1. (a) Crystal structure, (b) Phase diagram of the $Bi_2Se_3-Bi_2Te_3$ system [35-38]; (c) Dependence of the *a* and *c* unit cell parameters on the composition of the $Bi_2Se_3-Bi_2Te_3$ solid solutions (our experimental and literature data [36-38]); (d) Bi_2Te_3 fraction distribution along the Bi_2SeTe_2 crystal length according to the XRF data.

Methods

≈10 g Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ crystals were grown from the melt by the Bridgman method using a procedure similar to that described in Ref. [34]. The melt composition was adjusted to Bi_{2.1}(Te_{0.75}Se_{0.25})₃ based on the liquidus and solidus lines in the equilibrium phase diagrams (Figs. 1b and 2a). In the case of Sb₂SeTe₂ we used a Sb₂(Te_{0.7}Se_{0.3})₃ melt taking into account the fact that for this solid solution, the crystal composition is always close to the melt composition due to the tendency to melt overcooling by analogy with (Bi,Sb)₂Te₃ [42]. The crystal growth took up to 7-9 days and was performed at a pulling rate of 0.75 cm/day. The temperature gradient during growth was set to be 10 K/cm. In addition, a single crystal of Bi₂(Se_{1-x}Te_x)₃ (x=0.33) (a solid solution, not a compound) was grown under conditions similar to the above-described ones as a comparison sample for the surface reactivity studies; the corresponding Sb₂(Se_{1-x}Te_x)₃ is two-phase according to the phase diagram in Fig. 2a and, therefore, was not investigated. Furthermore, reference crystals of binary compound Bi₂Te₃, Bi₂Se₃, Sb₂Te₃, and Sb₂Se₃ were also grown using a similar procedure from melts containing 60.6 at.%Te, 60 at.%Se, 56 at.%Se, 60 at.%Se, correspondingly.

The crystals obtained were characterized by XRF and additionally by XRD. The XRF measurements were performed using a Bruker Mistral-M1 microfocused system equipped with an XFlash 30mm² detector; the concentrations were determined using XSpect software by determining the area of individual peaks using the external standard model. 4-7 measurements were taken for each crystal. The average composition distribution along the crystal length for Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ determined by XRF is illustrated in Figs. 1d and 2c; it appears to vary gradually for Bi₂SeTe₂. Therefore, an excess of Bi does not provide a uniform distribution of crystal composition as we expected by analogy with Ref. [34]. For further oxidation experiments, we used the initial part of the ingot, where the composition due to kinetic reasons. The Sb₂Te₃ content in the grown crystal is somewhat higher (around 71%) than that of Sb₂SeTe₂ (67%); however, there are no indications of any second phase in either XRD or TEM data (see below for more detail). Therefore, excessive Te is probably present in small quantities within the inner layer. Both crystals possess a high carrier concentration of ~10¹⁸ cm⁻³, with Bi₂SeTe₂ being *n*-type and Sb₂SeTe₂ being *p*-type.



Fig. 2. (a) Phase diagram of the $Sb_2Se_3-Sb_2Te_3$ system [39-41]; (b) Dependence of the a and c cell parameters on the composition of the $Sb_2Se_3-Sb_2Te_3$ solid solutions (our experimental and literature data [40-41]); (c) Sb_2Te_3 fraction distribution along the Sb_2SeTe_2 crystal length according to the XRF data;

For the high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF–STEM) imaging and energy- dispersive X-ray (EDX) mapping, cross-sectional samples were prepared on a Cu support by focused ion beam (FIB) milling. The HAADF-STEM and EDX data were acquired on an aberration-corrected Thermo Fischer Scientific Titan transmission electron microscope operating at 200 kV and equipped with a Super-X four EDX detector. We performed a detailed EDX investigation to obtain a rough estimate of the layer occupation in Te/Se layers. We followed a similar procedure described by Lu et al. [43,44], using the Sb-L (6.603 keV), Te-L (3.767 keV), and Se-K (11.210 keV) lines. First, we average the atomic resolution map to increase the signal to noise ratio. Next, we fit the line profile of the elemental maps of the mixed positions with a combination of Gaussian functions using the program Fityk [45] The FWHM of the Gaussian peaks for each element was constrained to have the same value for the different layers. Small differences can occur because the FWHM depends on the beam spreading and channeling, which on its own depends on the chemical distribution of the column [44]. However, thin film conditions weaken the dependence. The fitted FWHM of Te-L is 0.27 nm and of Se-K is 0.25 nm. Then, we determine our own k factors of the Cliff-Lorimer method [46] -assuming thin film conditions- which is the scaling factor between the concentration ratio of two elements, C_{Te}/C_{Se} , and their corresponding characteristic X-ray intensity ratio I_{se}/I_{Te} : $\frac{C_{Te}}{C_{Se}} = k_{Te,Se} \frac{I_{Te}}{I_{Se}}$. The counts ratio I_{Te}/I_{Se} is determined by taking the ratio of the sum of the areas under the Gaussian peaks of Te and Se. The concentration ratio in atomic percent, C_{Te}/C_{Se}, was obtained from the STEM-EDX data. Knowing the k factors we can use the formulae $\frac{C_{Te}}{C_{Se}} = k_{Te,Se} \frac{I_{Te}}{I_{Se}}$ combined with ' $C_{Te}+C_{Se}$ =1' to determine the layer composition of the chemically different Te/Se layers. The error is calculated through error propagation with the k factor variation $\Delta k/k \sim 0.1$ and assuming that the error on the counts is equal to \sqrt{I} . The count variation ($\Delta I/I$) is thus negligible compared to the k factor variation when using a reasonable amount of counts per element.

Polycrystalline homogeneous alloys (2g samples) of $Bi_2(Se_{1-x}Te_x)_3$ and $Sb_2(Se_{1-x}Te_x)_3$ were prepared in the whole range of compositions by direct melting of grounded elemental substances (5-6N purity) in evacuated sealed ampoules with subsequent quenching and annealing at $T=T_m$ -50K during a week for homogenization. For XRD, the powdered samples were additionally annealed in evacuated sealed ampoules at 300°C to eliminate mechanical stress. They were investigated by XRD using a PANalytical Empyrean diffractometer equipped with a PSD Pixel3D detector in the 2 θ range of 9-100° with a step of

0.013⁰. The obtained data were treated within the WinXPow software package using the ICDD PDF-2 database.

The core-level photoemission studies were carried out using several facilities of Helmholtz–Zentrum Berlin (HZB), Germany. The NAP XPS *in situ* data were obtained at the ISISS beamline using a station equipped with a SPECS Phoibos 150 NAP analyzer under the oxygen pressure of 0.5 mbar. The crystals were cleaved in vacuum, and then oxygen was admitted to the system. The Sb 3d, Te 3d, Bi 4f, Se3d, and O 1s spectra were recorded at an electron kinetic energy of 200 eV. We used the same kinetic energy for all elements to quantify composition correctly important and to find a quantitative correlation between the spectral components related to different elements at the same depth. The kinetic energy of 200 eV provides high surface sensitivity. It is crucial that 200 eV corresponds to the minimal energy at which the theoretical cross sections of Yeh and Lindau work [47].

For *ex situ* measurements, where the reaction is considered as "frozen" in UHV, the crystals were cleaved under atmospheric conditions and exposed to air at controlled humidity of 44% at room temperature with the total exposure time varying between 30 min and 2000 h. The Bi 5d, Se3d, Te 4d, and O 1s spectra were recorded with high surface sensitivity at the Russian–German beamline of HZB using photoelectron kinetic energies of 50 and 100 eV. The XPS spectra acquisition was performed using a SPECS Phoibos 150 electron energy analyzer.

Besides, for extensive *ex situ* studies at high exposures, we did not use sequential exposures to air of the single sample, but a separate sample was prepared for each time point to exclude (to average) possible influence of cleavage accuracy and keeping in UHV. The X-ray photoelectron spectra were taken using a Thermo Scientific K-Alpha laboratory XPS system that employs a monochromated Al K α X-ray source. The spectra of analytical lines (Bi 4f, Se 3d, Te 3d_{5/2}, Sb 3d, O 1s) were taken at the pass energy of 20 eV.

All photoemission spectra were fitted by Gaussian/Lorentzian convolution functions with simultaneous optimization of the background parameters using Unifit 2014 software. The background was modeled using a combination of Shirley- and Tougaard-like backgrounds.

Theoretical modeling was performed within the DFT approach using the PW-GGA method (VASP code [48–50]). Lattice vectors and positions of all atoms were optimized. The first Brillouin zone integrations were made using the Monkhorst–Pack approximation [51]; a 7x7x7 k-points mesh was used for calculations without a supercell, 3x7x7 – for calculations with a 2x1x1 supercell. Core-level shifts were calculated in the initial-state approximation as a variation of electrostatic potentials at the atomic centers. The plane-wave energy cutoff was chosen as 400 eV. Both cell and ion relaxation were performed until residual forces fell below 10^{-3} eV Å⁻¹.

Results and Discussion

The *in situ* results obtained for Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ at a constant oxygen pressure of 0.5 mbar are shown in Figs 3, 4. The experiments were performed under conditions similar to our earlier *in situ* oxidation study of Bi₂Te₃ and Sb₂Te₃ binary compounds [25, 29]. Typically, the *in situ* oxidation results do not indicate the presence of any induction period, and oxidation proceeds faster compared to the *ex situ* experiments due to additional oxygen activation by photons.

Fig. 3a-c demonstrates examples of typical *in situ* spectra corresponding to certain oxygen exposure times. In detail, the oxidation leads to an appearance of an intense Te II component in the Te 3d spectra with a chemical shift (ChS) of +3.52 eV compared to the unoxidized state Te I; Te II corresponds to the Te⁺⁴ state. The chemical shifts for all elements are collected in Table 1. Another weak component, Te III with a chemical shift of +1.36 eV, can be deconvoluted, which corresponds to an intermediate (>0) tellurium oxidation state; its fraction does not exceed 10% at any point of time, it appears at the beginning of the oxidation process and fully disappears after 1h of the experiment. This feature may correspond to the situation when a single oxygen atom is bonded to tellurium [52]. In contrast to Bi₂Te₃ and Sb₂Te₃ [25], no Te⁰ (described earlier as having a chemical shift of +0.6 -0.8 eV) is observed during the Bi₂SeTe₂ oxidation. The Bi 4f spectra (Fig. 3b) reveal a single additional component shifted by +0.8-1.1 eV compared to the clean surface feature Bi I; its binding energy is close to Bi₂O₃ fully in line with what we observed earlier for Bi₂Te₃ [29]. The Bi II shift relatively to Bi I initially increases but stabilizes at +1.1 eV after approximately 0.5 h of oxidation. Although this behaviour can be described by the introduction of the additional component, we consider it as the permanent variation of Bi effective charge upon oxidation, which is typical for cations in contrast to anions. It should be noted that the Se 3p line overlaps the Bi 4f spectra, but its intensity is negligible under the given experimental conditions. Some selenium oxidation is observed during the experiment (Fig. 3c), with two new components arising: a weak intermediate Se III (+1.63 eV shift relative to the unoxidized state) and Se II (+4.96 eV). The Se III binding energy corresponds to an intermediate oxidized state (similar to Te III), while Se II corresponds to Se⁺⁴. It appears that the oxidation of selenium atoms begins later than that of Bi and Te atoms (see Fig. 2d-f). First, only the Se III component is observed. However, its fraction does not change with time; during further oxidation, only the Se II content rises. The O 1s spectrum (see Fig. S1 in the SI file) includes two intense components related to oxide species (529.9 and 530.8 eV) and a third minor component at about 532 eV observed at the earlier stages of the oxidation and probably associated with some peroxide species. It should be noted that the overall selenium content in the oxidized layer is minimal and does not exceed 1.5% (see Fig. 3g). At the same time, the layer of Bi₂SeTe₂ near the oxide-crystal interface becomes enriched in Se as it follows from composition quantification based on intensities of components Bi I, Se I, Te I (see Fig. S2 in the SI file). Therefore, redistribution of Se and Te takes place between the crystal near the interface and the oxide layer; the latter is enriched in a more reactive component due to the higher benefit of the Te-O bond formation (SeO₂ has a formation enthalpy of -226 kJ/(mole Se) [53] against –(284-289) kJ/(mole Bi) for Bi₂O₃ [53,54] and -321 kJ/(mole Te) for TeO₂ [55]). It should be noted that similar redistribution behavior was observed earlier for the $(Bi_{1-x}Sb_x)_2Te_3$ mixed crystals where the oxide layer is enriched in Sb, while the underlying crystal contains more Bi at the interface than in bulk [25,56].



Fig. 3. *In situ* oxidation results for Bi_2SeTe_2 at an oxygen pressure of 0.5 mbar and *T*=298K; kinetic energy is 200 eV: (a)-(c) Te $3d_{5/2}$, Bi $4f_{7/2}$, Se 3d spectra at similar oxygen exposures 0.5 h (top) and 2 h (bottom), respectively; (d)-(f) Variation of the spectral component fraction with time; (g) Time dependence of the surface composition; (h) Time dependence of the oxidized layer composition; (i) Oxide layer thickness vs. oxidation time as compared to similar results obtained for Bi_2Te_3 under same conditions [25].

	Bi I	Bi II	Sb I	Sb II	Te l	Te II	Te III	Te IV	Se I	Se II	Se III	Se IV
Bismuth compounds - in situ data												
Bi ₂ SeTe ₂	0	1.1	n/a	n/a	0	3.5	1.4	-	0	5.0	1.6	-
Bi ₂ Te ₃	0	1.4	n/a	n/a	0	3.8	1.3	0.8	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Bismuth compounds - <i>ex situ</i> data												
Bi ₂ SeTe ₂	0	1.1	n/a	n/a	0	3.6	-	-	0	5.0	-	-
Bi ₂ Se ₃	0	1.3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0	5.0	1.6	-
Bi ₂ Te ₃	0	1.5	n/a	n/a	0	3.8	-	-	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Antimony compounds - in situ data												
Sb ₂ SeTe ₂	n/a	n/a	0	1.4	0	3.8	1.1	0.6	0	-	-	0.85
Sb ₂ Te ₃	n/a	n/a	0	1.6	0	3.8	1.1	0.6	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Antimony compounds - ex situ data												
Sb ₂ SeTe ₂	n/a	n/a	0	1.4	0	3.8	_	0.7	0	-	-	0.7
Sb ₂ Se ₃	n/a	n/a	0	1.2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0	-	1.4	0.6
Sb ₂ Te ₃	n/a	n/a	0	1.6	0	3.8	-	0.7	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Table 1. Chemical shifts for spectral features that arise during the oxidation calculated relative to the clean surface (eV)

Fig. 3g presents the surface composition variation during the oxidation process; a quick oxygen content rise is observed, while tellurium oxidizes slower than bismuth. As a result, the surface is enriched in Te compared to Bi and especially to Se. The oxidized layer composition calculated from all oxidation-related spectral components stabilizes after 0.5-1 h of oxidation and further remains constant; it can be approximately described as Bi₂Te₃O₁₁. The oxygen content somewhat exceeds that expected for a mixed Bi₂O₃-TeO₂ oxide. The oxide layer thickness was calculated using the modified Hill equation similar to [25, 29]:

$$d = L_o \ln(\frac{a_s L_s I_o}{a_o L_o I_s} + 1), \tag{1}$$

where *d* is the oxidized layer thickness; a_o , a_s is the element (Te) fraction in the oxide and the substrate, respectively; L_o , L_s corresponds to the inelastic mean free path (IMFP) in the oxide and the substrate, respectively; I_o , I_s are photoemission line intensities for the oxide (Te II, Te III) and the substrate (Te I).

The obtained oxide layer thickness variations illustrated in Fig. 2i evidence that Bi_2SeTe_2 is more reactive towards oxygen than Bi_2Te_3 , which is surprising and appears to be anomalous as the surface reactivity increases when a much less reactive component, Bi_2Se_3 , is added. The bismuth selenide surface is known to be oxidation resistant at room temperature during *ex situ* studies, in dry air it does not oxidize even after 1 year of exposure [27, 29] (see Supporting Information file). In contrast to this, for cation substitution, e.g., for the $(Bi_{1-x}Sb_x)_2Te_3$ solid solutions [25], as mentioned above, there is no such effect, and the solid solutions have intermediate reactivity compared to the respective binary compounds.

In the case of Sb₂SeTe₂, the typical spectra are illustrated in Fig. 4a-c. Upon oxidation, three additional spectral features, Te II-IV, appear with chemical shifts of +0.6 (Te IV), +1.1 (Te III), and +3.8 eV (Te II). Te III and Te IV are related to intermediates, as discussed above for Bi₂SeTe₂. Remarkably, Te II corresponding to the +4 state arises with some delay; this behavior is similar to Sb₂Te₃. In the Sb 3d spectra, the Sb II component has binding energy close to that in Sb₂O₃. In the Se 3d spectra, the intermediate Se IV component is intense, whereas Se III and Se II are absent, which is quite different from the Bi₂SeTe₂ oxidation products. The O 1s peak positioned at 530.3 eV is observed, which corresponds to oxide species. Like for Bi₂Te₃, the oxide layer is enriched in Sb compared to the pure surface, and its composition is approximately described by the Sb₃Te₂O₁₂ stoichiometry. Based on the obtained results, it appears that the oxidation products for Bi₂SeTe₂ are close to those of Bi₂Te₃, while for Sb₂SeTe₂ they somewhat resemble those of Sb₂Te₃.

One should stress that the Sb₂SeTe₂ oxidation proceeds remarkably faster than that of Sb₂Te₃, similar to the anomalous effect observed for Bi₂SeTe₂ against Bi₂Te₃. At the same time, Sb₂Te₃ is much more reactive than Sb₂Se₃, as it follows from the *ex situ* data presented in Fig.5a, where all binary compounds are compared in their reactivity.



Fig. 4. *In situ* oxidation results for the Sb₂SeTe₂ crystal surface at an oxygen pressure of 0.5 mbar and kinetic energy of 200 eV: (a)-(c) Te $3d_{5/2}$, Bi $4f_{7/2}$, Se 3d spectra at similar oxygen exposures; (d)-(f) Variation of the spectral component fraction with time; (g) Time dependence of the surface composition; (h) Time dependence of the oxidized layer composition; (i) Oxide layer thickness vs. oxidation time as compared to similar results obtained for binary and other ternary compounds measured under similar conditions [25].

It should be noted that, of course, NAP XPS grants the best possibility to study the reaction mechanisms and evaluate the reactivity of any solid materials towards gases. However, it has certain restrictions mostly related to beam activation of the gas molecules (see ESI, Fig. S3). To verify our main finding of *in situ* experiments described above concerning enhanced reactivity of mixed crystals with anion substitution, we performed long-term *ex situ* measurements. For comparison purposes, Bi₂Te₃ surface oxidation was also investigated under the same conditions. The typical spectra and their description are provided in the ESI file, Figs. S4-S6.

Generally, although the oxidation rate is much slower, the spectral features for the spectra obtained *ex situ* are similar to those for the *in situ* experiments (see Table 1) with the exception that some intermediate species were not detected, which is natural and has been observed earlier for binary systems. This correspondence is very important to confirm that the reaction mechanism does not change due to the beam effect.

Our *ex situ* data presented in Fig. 5b (in logarithmic time scale due to significant exposure time range) confirm that the reactivity of Bi_2SeTe_2 (i.e., the exposure at which the oxidation starts) is higher than for both binary constituents, Bi_2Te_3 and Bi_2Se_3 , since the oxidation starts earlier and proceeds faster up to the oxide thickness of 1 nm in this case. Furthermore, the oxidation rate is similar to or just slightly lower than that of Bi_2Te_3 . For higher Se concentration (see the $Bi_2(Se_{0.67}Te_{0.33})_3$ data provided for comparison in Fig. 5b), the reactivity is remarkably lower, as Se atoms start to fill in the positions in the outer layers of the QL.



Fig. 5. Oxidation kinetics for the binary compounds (a) and $Bi_2(Se_{1-x}Te)_x$ as compared with $Bi_2Te_3(b)$

The upper layer of Bi₂SeTe₂, as mentioned earlier, includes Te atoms with a minor amount (up 10%) of Se atoms [13]; therefore, its reactivity is expected to be similar to that of Bi₂Te₃ or slightly lower. The central layer of each quintuple layer consists of less reactive Se mostly, which, however, does not decrease the reaction rate. For higher Se concentration, the Se atoms also occupy outer positions, and the reactivity decreases as it demonstrated with Bi₂(Se_{0.67}Te_{0.33})₃ crystal (see Fig. 5b). We find it intriguingly interesting that the reactivity of both Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ even slightly enhances that of the most reactive counterpart. The possible reason for such unexpected behavior of Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ may be lattice distortion caused by the fact that Se and Te occupy individual layers whereas the lattice constants have intermediate values, which reflect both Te layer contraction and Se layer expansion. One should note that covalent bonds are between these layers, and bond lengths may preserve under the contraction/expansion.

To analyze the distortion of the bond geometry cases by ordering for the Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ phases, we simulated them as well as Bi₂(Te_xSe_{1-x})₃ and Sb₂(Te_xSe_{1-x})₃ solid solutions of various compositions by DFT with full structural optimization including the lattice constants(see Figs 1b,2b); the obtained results were compared to the literature data for the respective binary compounds (Bi₂Te₃, Bi₂Se₃, Sb₂Te₃; Sb₂Se₃ was not considered as it belongs to a different crystal system). We have considered Bi₂SeTe₂ and Sb₂SeTe₂ phases as fully ordered.

As it was mentioned above, atomic mixing in Bi₂SeTe₂ does not exceed 10 % according to data [13]. For Sb₂SeTe₃, this issue was not studied before. We performed a detailed EDX investigation to obtain a rough estimate of the chemical layer composition of the chemically different Te/Se layers. The results are presented in Fig. 6. For the first look, Se atoms occupy solely central positions in the quintuple layer, whereas Te atoms prefer the outer positions. However, the quantitative analysis performed as described

in the experimental section, reveals some disordering for the occupation of anion positions. In detail, the outer layer contains $14\pm4\%$ Se, whereas the inner layer is composed of $70\pm3\%$ Se instead of an ideal 100%. Generally, the disorder level is relatively low and difficult to model. Therefore, as a reasonable simplification for our purpose, the disordering in occupation was disregarded.



Fig.6. (a) HAADF-STEM cross-sectional image and EDX mapping of the Sb₂SeTe₂ surface, (b) averaged atomic resolution map; (c) Intensity profiles obtained for the averaged map in (b), (d) comparison between the averaged experimental HAADF-STEM image and simulated HAADF-STEM image, simulations are performed with populations given in (b) and using QSTEM [57].

For the compositions of solid solutions other than $(Bi/Sb)_2SeTe_2$, the anion positions in a supercell were populated as follows: Se atoms were substituted in the inner positions first; after the inner positions were fully occupied, substitution in the outer layers started. Since the symmetry of such artificial structure drops, we used mean values of the structural parameters. The lattice constants for the calculated structures are presented in Figs 1c and 2c. Although the absolute values deviate from the experimental ones (since vdW interactions were not included), the computed structures reproduce the linear behavior of lattice constant *a* fully in line with the experimental observations made by us and also indicated in the literature [36-38,40,41]. The *c* parameter demonstrates a deviation from Vegard's law for $Bi_2(Te_xSe_{1-x})_3$. The maximum difference corresponds to the Bi_2Se_2Te composition according to the experimental data in Fig. 1c (presumably due to specific anion ordering in the *c* direction).

The results illustrating the comparison of bond geometry for Bi_2SeTe_2 are presented in Fig. 7 and for Sb_2SeTe_2 in ESI, Fig. S7. In detail, for Bi_2SeTe_2 the Bi-Te bond length is 3.075 Å, which is 0.021 Å (0.7%) shorter than in pure bismuth telluride; the Bi-Se bond length is 3.124 Å, which is 0.018 Å (0.6%) larger than in pure bismuth selenide, respectively. Changes in the bond angle values for the corresponding bonds are much more pronounced: the Te-Bi-Te bond angle changes from 91.74° to 89.87° for the ternary compound, while the Se-Bi-Se angle increases from 84.90° to 88.08°. In the case of Sb₂SeTe₂, the respective bond length changes are even more pronounced: the Sb-Te bond length is 3.009 Å, which is 0.032 Å (1.05%) less than in pure Sb₂Te₃; the Te-Sb-Te angle also decreases from 92.40° to 89.71°. The unit cell parameter *a* for Bi_2SeTe_2 , when compared to Bi_2Te_3 and Bi_2Se_3 , is 0.4% less than the value calculated according to the Vegard's law, while the *c* parameter is +0.6% as compared to calculated value.

If we compare these results with cation substitution in the $(Bi_{1-x}Sb_x)_2Te_3$ mixed crystals where there is less difference in the *a* cell parameters of the binary constituents (\approx 3%), and different cations are statistically distributed [25]. For Bi₂(Te_xSe_{1-x})₃, the difference in the *a* cell parameters for the binary constituents, namely, Bi₂Te₃ and Bi₂Se₃, amounts to \approx 6%, which can cause the above-described calculated bond geometry distortion. The same behavior is observed for Sb₂SeTe₂; the corresponding data are presented in the ESI file.



Fig. 7. Bond geometry in Bi₂SeTe₂ as compared with parent compounds

Conclusions

Anomalously high reactivity in reaction with molecular oxygen was observed for the $Bi_2(Te_xSe_{1-x})_3$ and $Sb_2(Te_xSe_{1-x})_3$ solid solutions based on *in situ* and *ex situ* photoemission experiments: while Bi_2Se_3 is known to be resistant to oxygen at room temperature and Bi_2Te_3 has medium reactivity, Bi_2SeTe_2 surfaces have higher reactivity than that of bismuth telluride. Similar results were obtained for Sb_2SeTe_2 . We attribute this effect to cation ordering, which modifies essentially bond geometry, especially bond angles, as modeled by DFT.

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Author contributions

Lada V. Yashina and Andrey A. Volykhov created general concept and did planning of experiment. Nadezhda V. Vladimirova and Eugene Gerber performed sample preparation and characterization. Andrey A. Volykhov performed DFT calculations and XPS data treatment. Alexander S. Frolov, Vera S. Neudachina, Nikolay O. Khmelevsky, Lada V. Yashina and Jaime Sánchez-Barriga performed photoemission studies. Carolien Callaert, Joke Hadermann did TEM works. Lada V. Yashina, Vera Neudachina, Andrey A. Volykhov, Alexander S. Frolov, Axel Knop-Gericke contributed to the discussion and manuscript writing.

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