



# Photoelectrochemistry of two-dimensional and layered materials: a brief review

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## Abstract

Two-dimensional (2D) materials have unique band structure and show a great promise for optoelectronic and solar energy harvesting applications. Photoelectrochemical (PEC) processes are intensively studied employing these materials, due to their high specific surface area, and the possibility of surface modification by defect engineering/catalyst deposition. The PEC activity of different 2D and layered materials was scrutinized for water oxidation/reduction and for inorganic ion oxidation by a statistical analysis to reveal any specific trends. Furthermore, some frequently studied performance improvement strategies (i.e., heterojunctions, tunnelling, and co-catalysts) are also discussed. Overall, exploring novel materials of 2D family, and new directions are both needed to initiate further discussions and additional research activity, which might enable to harness the full potential of these exciting materials.

**Keywords** Chalcogenides · Light harvesting · Nanoflakes · Photoelectrocatalysis · Heterojunction

## Introduction

Conversion of solar energy to valuable chemicals or fuels is a promising approach to contribute solving the problems of global climate change and the depletion of fossil resources. Photoelectrochemical (PEC) methods are feasible for the conversion of basic chemical feedstocks (i.e., water, carbon dioxide, and nitrogen) to clean chemicals or alternative fuels such as, hydrogen, hydrocarbons, and ammonia, while harnessing solar energy [1–6]. The main element in this process is a semiconductor, which absorbs photons to generate charge carriers (electron–hole pairs), and thus requires to possess a high light absorption coefficient ( $10^4$ – $10^5$  cm<sup>-1</sup>) over a broad wavelength range. Two-dimensional (2D) semiconductors have unique properties, such as high carrier mobility ( $10^2$ – $10^5$  cm<sup>2</sup> V<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), tunable bandgap [7, 8], anisotropic carrier transport, and high specific surface area, making these materials attractive for PEC applications. From

a practical perspective, 2D materials can be produced in a scalable manner at low cost [9–13], and they possess elemental abundance and remarkable stability against (photo) corrosion [14].

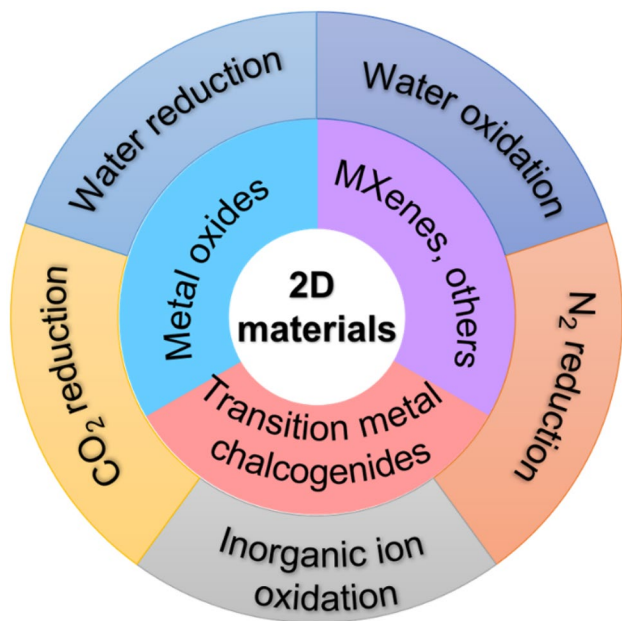
Research on transition metal dichalcogenide bulk single crystals dates back to the early 1980s, achieving high photocurrent density (in the range of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) for the water splitting [15–19]. Since the discovery of graphene [20] more attention is dedicated to i) synthesis (‘bottom–up’) and preparation (‘top–down’) methods to obtain 2D materials, ii) seeking of novel 2D semiconductor materials, iii) novel PEC processes. Corresponding members of 2D materials family with PEC applications highlighted in Fig. 1.

In this review, we summarize the recent progress on the fundamental understanding and applications of 2D and layered semiconductors in PEC processes. Firstly, we investigate the 2D nature of such materials, and define some of their unique advantages, mostly in terms of the optoelectronic properties. Then, we discuss some preparation methods, and summarize their application in PEC processes. We cover both model reversible redox reactions and practically interesting processes, such as water splitting, CO<sub>2</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions. Finally, recently developed strategies for enhancing the performance of 2D semiconductors are presented: i) increase the number of active sites (alignment of

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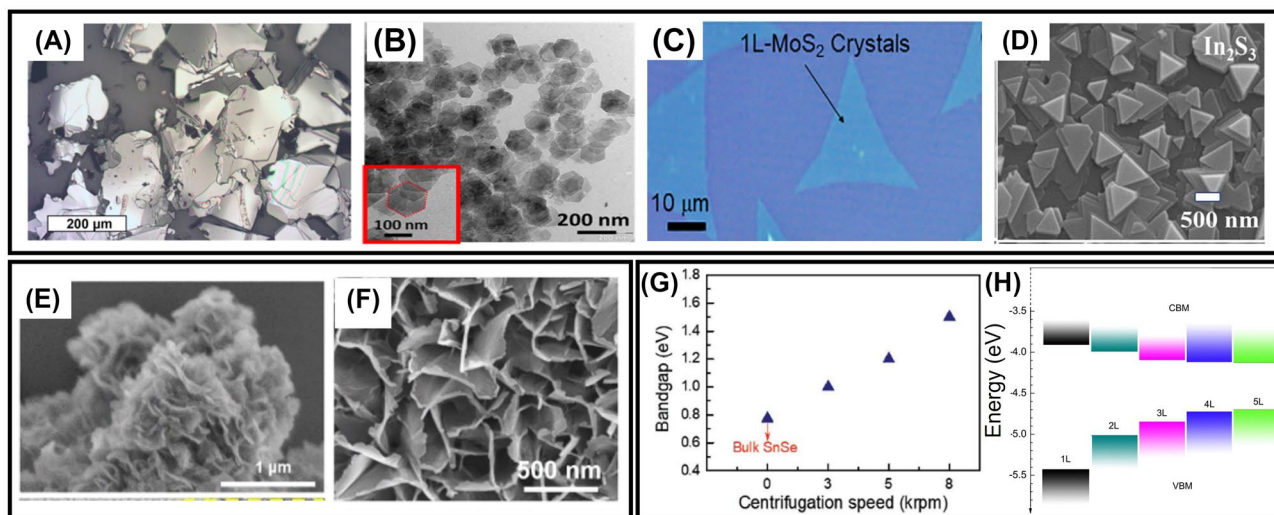
**Fig. 1** Simplified overview of 2D materials and PEC applications covered by this review article

nanoflakes, defect passivation), ii) tuning the band structure (heterostructures, alloying, doping).

## Definition of 2D materials

2D materials are atomically thin sheets with a high aspect ratio between their lateral size ( $\mu\text{m}$ -sized) and thickness ( $< 1 \text{ nm}$ ) [21]. In the corresponding bulk crystals with layered structure

the neighboring layers are connected by van der Waals forces [22]. 2D materials include transition metal chalcogenides (TMCs), metal oxides, transition metal carbides, nitrides, carbonitrides (MXenes), and other materials. 2D TMCs with narrow bandgaps (1.09–1.89 eV) have suitable light absorption in the visible region and their bandgap can be tuned by changing the number of layers [23–25]. 2D TMCs with thin layers (few–to–monolayer) have a high specific surface area and a large portion of surface atoms, which could effectively reduce the distance of charge transport and accelerate PEC processes [26]. The monolayer nature can further assist the photogenerated carriers to reach the active sites and therefore reduce recombination. MXenes are a new type of 2D materials, composed of transition metal carbides and carbonitrides [27]. They have attracted notable attention and are widely studied in many fields, including catalysis, energy storage, and adsorption since their discovery in 2011 [28]. Figure 2A–F presents the morphology of nanoflakes, nanosheets and the film constructed from TMC sheets and metal oxides [29–32]. The optoelectronic properties (i.e., electronic band structure) of most 2D materials are thickness-dependent, because of the strong interlayer coupling and quantum confinement [33–37]. Figure 2G shows the bandgap change of SnSe as a function of the employed centrifugation speed during the synthesis [35], generally obtaining thinner flakes with higher centrifugation speed [38] (i.e., the bandgap is increasing with decrease of flake thickness). Additionally, Fig. 2H gives the same conclusion on the example of few-layer phosphorene with the number of layers (from 1 to 5L). In this case, the valence and conduction band edge positions are changing with the number of layers in the phosphorene few-layers [39].



**Fig. 2** Some examples of morphology of nanoflakes. **A** WSe<sub>2</sub>, **B** SnS<sub>2</sub>, **C** MoS<sub>2</sub>, **D** In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, **E** CoV, **F** ZnO. **G** The change of SnSe bandgap as a function of the centrifugation speed. **H** Variation of valence band maximum (VBM) and conduction band minimum (CBM) positions of the 1L, 2L, 3L, 4L, and 5L of phosphorene determined from HSE06 calculation. Figures adapted with permission from: **A** [9] ©

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## Preparation methods for 2D nanoflakes and thin films

A variety of preparation methods have been developed towards the size and crystallinity control of 2D materials, and they can be categorized as bottom–up or top–down methods [40]. During the bottom–up approaches, the 2D materials are built up from either atoms or clusters to nanoscale structures [41]. For example, chemical vapor deposition, hydrothermal, and spray pyrolysis, can be used for producing 2D materials for commercial and research purposes, but at high cost, because of the required high temperature and vacuum [42–44]. In top–down methods, the 2D materials are obtained from their bulk counterparts, using mechanical, liquid-phase, or chemical exfoliation [41]. The materials yield and quality, however, highly depends on the exfoliation method. Mechanical exfoliation can produce high-quality nanosheets at low cost, but the yields are low, whereas liquid-phase exfoliation (LPE) gives a higher yield but at a higher cost [35, 40, 45].

In this review, we discuss 2D and layered semiconductors in two different configurations: i) nanoflakes prepared by any kind of exfoliation from the bulk counterpart, with lateral size of a few  $\mu\text{m}$  and the thickness in the range of several nm (e.g., mechanically exfoliated few-layer  $\text{MoSe}_2$  flakes with ca. 11 nm thickness and hundred  $\mu\text{m}$  lateral size [46]), and ii) nanosheets or thin films, where the film is composed of the same material with large area ( $\text{mm}^2$  or  $\text{cm}^2$ ) and its thickness lies in the few–tens of nm range (e.g., 5 nm thick  $\text{MoS}_2$  film deposited by thermolysis on p-Si wafer [47]). Table 1 summarizes the commonly used synthesis methods and the application of the as prepared 2D materials with some representative references [30, 48–50].

From a practical point of view, it is desirable to fabricate large–area and continuous thin films of 2D materials to further

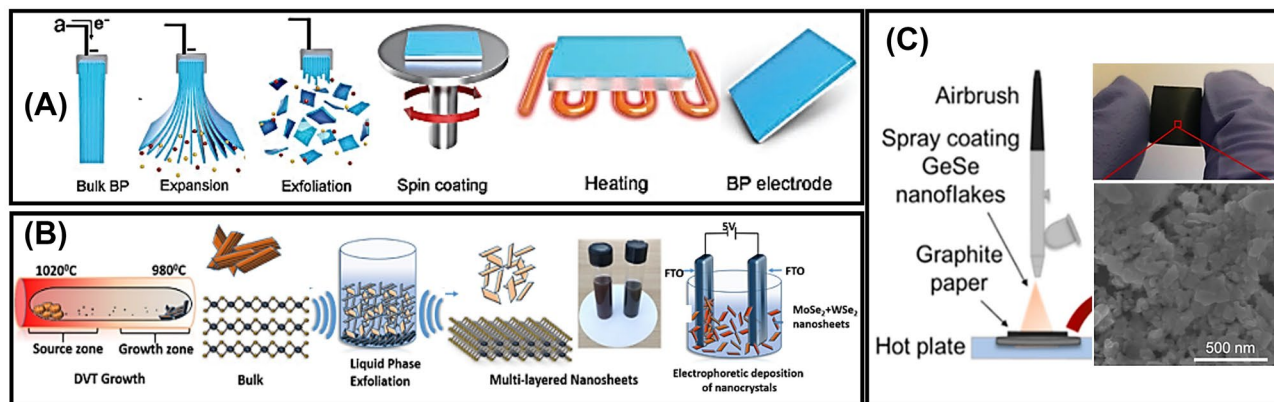
develop solar energy conversion devices. The Langmuir–Blodgett technique offers a versatile way to prepare layers/films in this regard. It consists of the transfer process of a water-insoluble material from the air–water interface onto a solid substrate, by dipping of the solid in the Langmuir monolayer [57]. Adding a stirring procedure during the film preparation [58], or depositing the film without Langmuir–Blodgett trough and film compression [59] can further extend the opportunities. Spin-coating is another conventional technique to fabricate thin layers of 2D materials [60]. As shown in Fig. 3A, first black phosphorus flakes were obtained by using electrochemically exfoliated bulk black phosphorus, and the flakes containing ink was spin-coated on indium tin oxide electrode [61]. A heating step was also introduced, which helps to remove solvent and eliminate the interlayer strain [45]. The film parameters, such as thickness and coverage, can be varied by the spin speed, spin-coating time, substrate size, and the amount of the ink [62].

Bottom–up methods can be employed to either directly grow film on substrate or to form the bulk material [42, 51, 54, 63]. For example, a  $\text{CuInS}_2$  nanosheet was grown on a fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) coated glass, to form nanosheet films via the hydrothermal reaction, by putting clean FTO substrate into Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave before starting the reaction [54].

Figure 3B shows that bulk  $\text{MoSe}_2$  powder was obtained with direct vapor transport method, and subsequently was converted to multi–layer nanosheets by liquid-phase exfoliation, and then formed a  $\text{MoSe}_2$  film on FTO by electrophoresis [12]. Chemical vapor deposition (CVD) is a commonly used approach to prepare 2D materials and films, because of the high-quality and yield of the forming products [31, 51, 52]. Another chemical vapor-phase approach is the atomic layer deposition (ALD), which can be employed to synthesize 2D materials using layer–by–layer growth with good thickness and uniformity control [55, 56, 64].

**Table 1** The preparation methods of 2D materials

Strategy	Methods	Flakes Yield	Cost	Resulted Materials	Application	References
Top–down	Liquid-Phase Exfoliation	High	Moderate-high	TMCs/Oxides	Research/ commercial	[35, 45]
	Chemical Exfoliation	High	Moderate-high	Oxides/TMCs/MXenes	Research/ commercial	[41, 48]
	Mechanical Exfoliation	Low	Low	TMCs	Research	[26, 46]
Bottom–up	Chemical Vapor Deposition	High	High	TMCs/Oxides	Research/ commercial	[51, 52]
	Spray Pyrolysis	High	High	MXenes/Oxides	Research/ commercial	[50, 53]
	Hydrothermal Synthesis	High	Moderate-high	TMCs/Oxides	Research/ commercial	[3, 54]
	Atomic Layer Deposition	High	High	TMCs	Research/ commercial	[55, 56]



**Fig. 3** **A** Illustration of the synthesis of black phosphorous nanosheets electrodes. **B** Schematic diagram of film formation on FTO prepared from bulk materials. **C** GeSe film produced by spray coating depositing the GeSe nanoflakes onto a graphite paper substrate, photograph of

a GeSe photoelectrode, and its corresponding top-view SEM image. Figures adapted with permission from: **A** [61] © 2020, John Wiley and Sons; **B** [12] © 2019 American Chemical Society; **C** [65] published by American Chemical Society under CC BY 4.0 license

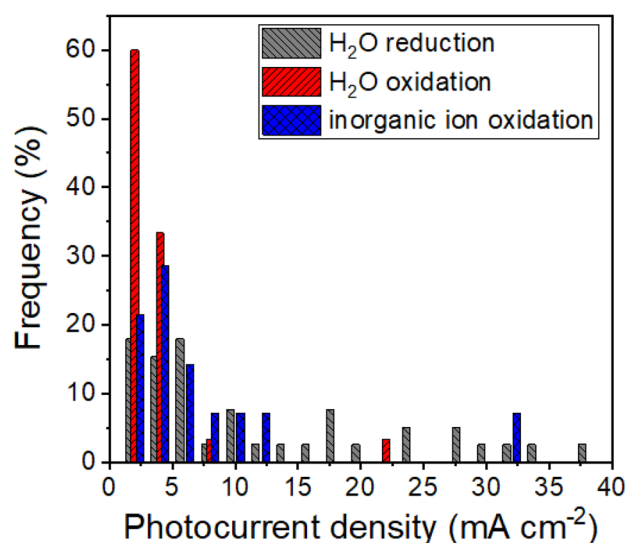
Spray coating is a widely employed technique to prepare films, allowing fast deposition of functional inks onto both rigid and flexible, large-area substrates [65–67]. Figure 3C shows the spray-coating of GeSe nanoflake suspension on a graphite paper [65] using an airbrush. A hotplate was employed to hold the substrate and evaporate the solvent, while also eliminating the interlayer strain during the spraying [45]. The material loading and the film thickness can be tuned by the number of spray coating cycles [68]. The right panels in Fig. 3C show the photograph of a GeSe photoelectrode and the morphology of GeSe film on graphite paper substrate. Notably, the parameters of the electrode preparation techniques determine the thickness, coverage, and orientation of nanoflakes in the film, also dictating their PEC activity.

To obtain 2D materials with specific properties, computational methods are frequently employed. For example, a series of 2D pentagonal transition metal dichalcogenides (2D sheets with pentagonal configuration), namely penta- $MS_2$  ( $M = Mn, Ni, Cu/Ag$  and  $Zn/Cd$ ) monolayers were predicted using density functional theory [69]. Additionally, 2D structures were studied by theoretical calculations for  $CO_2$  photoreduction [70]. In the case of stable monolayers, the proper bandgap, band edge positions, and surface reactivity have been predicted. Further theoretical work is needed to understand how defect engineering and surface treatments can be used to tune the PEC performance and enhance the reactivity.

## Photoelectrochemical processes

The concept of PEC water splitting to produce hydrogen has been investigated for decades since the famous experiment of Fujishima and Honda in 1972 [71]. Semiconductors generate electron–hole pairs (charge carriers) when the illumination power is equal to or higher than their bandgap. In the case

of photocathodes (p-type semiconductors), photoelectrons can transfer from the electrode surface driving the water reduction process (hydrogen evolution reaction—HER). The remaining holes go to the counterelectrode to perform the oxidation reaction. For n-type photoanodes, the charge carriers transfer occurs in the opposite direction, the holes can take part in the water oxidation reaction and electrons move to the counterelectrode to facilitate the reduction process [72, 73]. PEC  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  reduction processes are similar to water reduction, but there are also considerable differences [2, 3, 74]. In  $CO_2$  reduction, more products (CO, methane, ethylene, ethanol, etc.) are produced, and the product selectivity is mainly dependent on the selected catalysts and operating reduction potentials [75]. Additionally, inorganic ion oxidation, namely  $I^-$ ,  $Br^-$ ,  $S^{2-}$ ,  $SO_3^{2-}$  oxidation reactions have lower standard redox potential than water oxidation [13, 44, 76, 77]. Figure 4 shows the histogram of the maximum photocurrent density values (recorded under 1 Sun irradiation) collected from the literature for  $H_2O$  reduction [51, 78–93],  $H_2O$  oxidation [31, 42, 86, 94–109], and inorganic ion oxidation reactions [13, 44, 63, 76, 77, 110, 111]. Only studies reporting photocurrent densities over  $1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  were considered in our detailed analysis (see Fig. 4). As just a few reports were found on using 2D materials for PEC  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  reduction [2–4, 37, 61, 74, 112–114], those are not analyzed here. Compared to the  $H_2O$  oxidation and inorganic ion oxidation reactions, the photocurrent densities recorded for the  $H_2O$  reduction reaction showed much broader distribution. The highest photocurrent value (i.e.,  $60 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) was obtained for  $MoS_2$  in PEC water oxidation and reduction reactions under ca. 6 Sun illumination [115]. These results indicate that 2D materials can be applied for different PEC applications, both in oxidative and reduction reactions, and have ability to give higher performance in water reduction process than in the other ones.



**Fig. 4** Statistical analysis of maximum photocurrent density distribution (under 1 Sun)

## Microelectrodes-based PEC studies

When applying 2D semiconductors in a photoelectrocatalysis, we have to consider the role of defects: steps, edges, cracks, atomic vacancies, anything, where the uniform crystal structure is missing or is modified. The importance of such defects has long been recognized in dictating the electrochemical (EC) behavior of layered materials. The general consensus assumes an increased EC activity of the edge (side or defected part of the 2D sheet) in comparison to the basal plane (smooth, uniform, defect-free part of the 2D sheet), although the exact reason of these differences is still being challenged [25, 46, 116–118]. In the case of bulk transition metal dichalcogenides, the basal plane and edge activity was studied extensively in the 1980s and 1990s [15, 16, 18, 19, 119]. Higher edge plane EC activity and lower PEC activity was found, compared to the basal plane of molybdenum and tungsten disulfides/diselenides. This trend was explained as defects, edges, which create surface states in the bandgap, act as recombination centers for the photogenerated charge carriers.

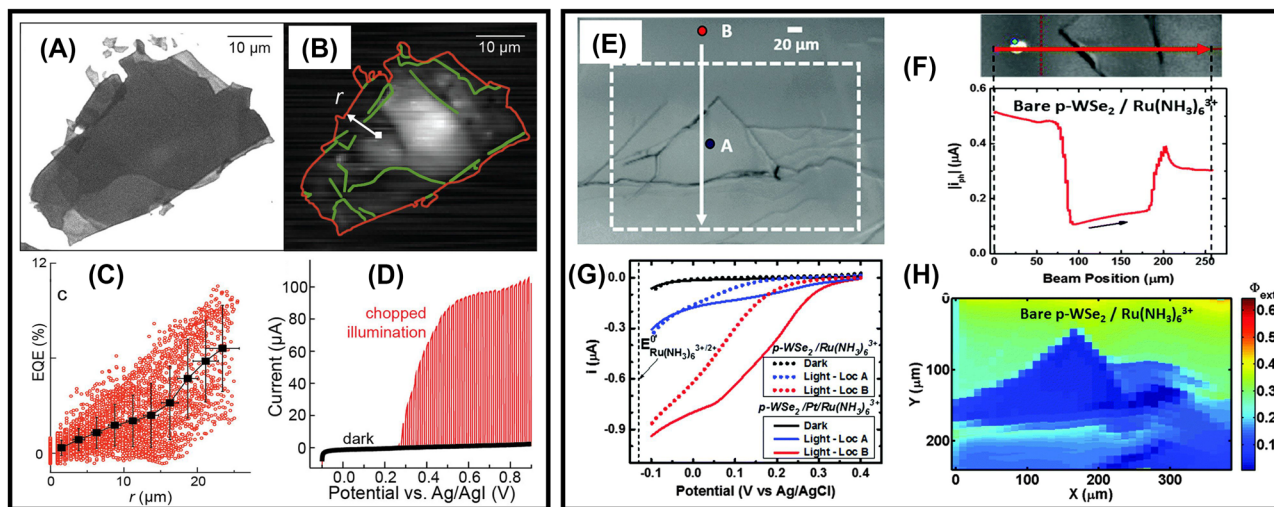
The revolution of 2D materials began in 2004 opened new avenues to understand the effect of structural domains for PEC activity, and to enhance the performance of these 2D semiconductors in photocatalytic processes. The heterogeneous electron transfer rate, the interfacial capacitance, and external quantum efficiency (EQE) have been studied using microscale EC/PEC approaches, including the scanning electrochemical microscopy, scanning electrochemical cell microscopy or microdroplet-based methods demonstrated the role of layer thickness, and structural domains (defects, terraces, edges) on their EC and PEC properties [26, 118,

120–128]. WSe<sub>2</sub> nanoflakes for example, have been investigated by scanning photocurrent microscopy in an electrochemical flow cell, and the photoconversion efficiency decreased on the edge sites because of the increased recombination of photogenerated charge carriers (Fig. 5A–D). LPE increases the defect density, and mostly, these defects refer to the increasing edge density. This trend can be explained by the increasing number of flakes and their decreasing lateral size as a result of the LPE process [118]. The spatial variation of the PEC performance of bare and Pt-decorated p-type WSe<sub>2</sub> photocathodes has also been studied, using in situ scanning photocurrent microscopy. This variation was attributed to a non-uniform distribution of surface and bulk defect states among terraces, particularly chalcogenide vacancies (Fig. 5E–H).

Notably, 2D materials produced by mechanical exfoliation have a large flake size with high purity, while the reproducibility is poor. Both flake and structural features – e.g., defect density – formation occur randomly, therefore a more precise synthesis method is needed. The effect of growth conditions during a chemical vapor-phase deposition of MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers was studied, focusing on the defect formation. It was also scrutinized how these structural defects – point defects, dislocations, grain boundaries, and edges – could influence the electronic properties of the material [129]. These studies highlight the role of defects, and the use of activating agents (i.e., co-catalysts) to enhance the photocurrent density and incident photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) values. They also help to uncover the mechanisms of charge carrier transfer and recombination in 2D semiconductors in a micrometer-scale.

Another body of knowledge accumulated on the effect of edges of MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer on their EC HER properties [121, 130]. Significantly less attention has been dedicated to the PEC performance of 2D materials as a function of their structural features (Fig. 6A, B). The electron transfer kinetics on MoS<sub>2</sub> basal planes was accelerated with the growing number of layers, which was explained by the band structure-dependent photogeneration of charge carriers (Fig. 6C) [26].

We have recently observed the spatial variation of the PEC performance of MoSe<sub>2</sub> and WSe<sub>2</sub> photoanodes in the oxidation of a model redox couple (Fig. 6D–F) [46]. We have also shown that Pt nanoparticles obtained on p-WSe<sub>2</sub> nanoflakes by ALD result in a very high PEC activity in HER. Bulk defects and their migration to the surface were found to play an important role in the PEC activity enhancement. The W(VI) defects generated by heat treatment during the ALD process cause a decrease in the density of states near the valence band of WSe<sub>2</sub>. The ALD deposited Pt nanoparticles i) nucleated primary on the W(VI) defects migrated to the surface, ii) their electron density compensates the decrease in the DOS of WSe<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 6A, B) [131].



**Fig. 5** **A** Bright–field transmission image of a single MoSe<sub>2</sub> nanoflake; **B** EQE map for the nanoflake in **(A)**, the red and green pixels represent perimeter edges and interior steps, respectively. The vector  $r$  represents the distance from a pixel in the EQE map to the nearest perimeter edge; **C** Plot of EQE vs.  $r$  for the nanoflake in **(A)**. **D** Current–potential curves of a 1.3 mm<sup>2</sup> sized MoSe<sub>2</sub> single crystal in 1.0 M NaI, 1 mM I<sub>2</sub> electrolyte under dark (black line) and chopped 20 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> 532 nm laser illumination (red line). **E** Optical image of

a p-WSe<sub>2</sub> electrode; **F** Photocurrent measured as a function of beam position during a line scan as indicated by the white arrow in **(E)**; **G** Linear sweep voltammograms obtained at locations **A** and **B** spots as indicated in **(E)** before and after platinization; **H** Two-dimensional map of EQE for area marked by the dotted rectangle in **(E)** [120]. Figures adapted with permission from: **A–D** [118] © 2018 American Chemical Society; **E–H** [120] published by Royal Society of Chemistry under CC BY-NC 3.0 license

## Macroelectrode-based photoelectrochemical studies

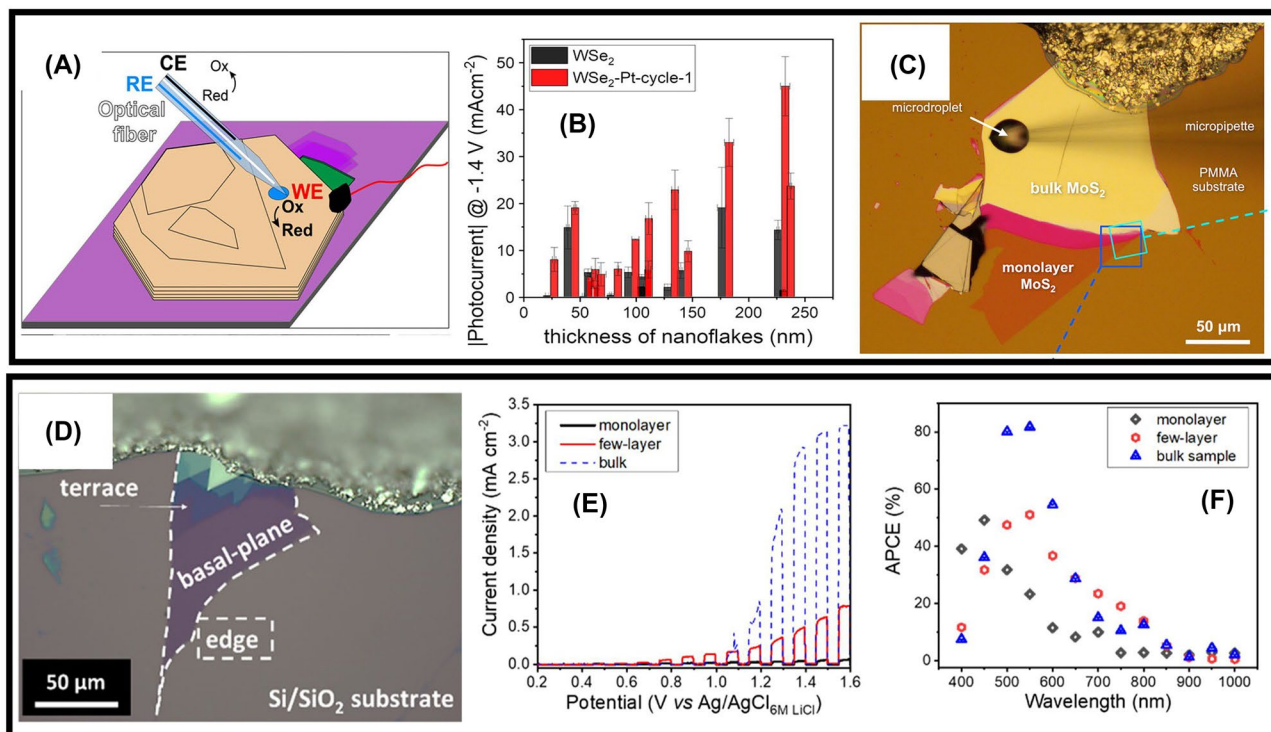
In general, the increase of the photoelectrode area from micrometer-scale to mm<sup>2</sup> or cm<sup>2</sup> size causes a dramatic decrease in the photocurrent (to the μA cm<sup>-2</sup> range) because of the abundant defects [24, 90, 132]. At the same time, regarding to the eventual development of solar energy conversion devices based on 2D materials, it is needed to prepare macroelectrodes. In this regard, a MoS<sub>2</sub>/DHA-PDI (dihexanoic acid-perylene-diimide) hybrid bilayer film was synthesized on FTO using spin-coating [133]. The TEM image in Fig. 7A shows the fiber-like morphology of DHA-PDI, and a flakey structure of exfoliated MoS<sub>2</sub>. The films are optically homogeneous over a large area (Fig. 7B). Bare DHA-PDI and MoS<sub>2</sub> electrodes displayed low anodic photocurrent (0.25–0.45 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) with gradually increasing dark current towards anodic potentials in I<sup>-</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> electrolyte. Subsequently, by combining MoS<sub>2</sub> with DHA-PDI, higher photocurrents were achieved reaching a maximum of 2.6 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. The IPCE was also measured to investigate the light harvesting ability of electrode film (Fig. 7D). The hybrid electrode exhibited higher IPCE values than the single-component electrodes in the visible light range, and the highest efficiency of 8% was observed at 400 nm.

An SnS film was fabricated on FTO via plasma-enhanced CVD method, and it showed 100 nm thickness measured from cross-sectional field–emission scanning electron

microscopy (Fig. 7E). The photovoltammogram, recorded in 0.5 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> under chopped light, suggested that SnS can show both n-type and p-type semiconductor characteristics depending on the applied potentials (Fig. 7F) [86]. Exfoliated WS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorod arrays (TiO<sub>2</sub> NAs), wherein TiO<sub>2</sub> was first deposited on FTO substrate by hydrothermal method, then exfoliated WS<sub>2</sub> was drop-casted on it [99]. As shown in Fig. 7G, WS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are uniformly deposited on the top of TiO<sub>2</sub> NAs, and the TiO<sub>2</sub> NAs are highly ordered with the length of about 3 μm (inset of Fig. 7G). The WS<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> composites had a better PEC activity than the bare TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode towards the water oxidation reaction (Fig. 7H).

## Photoelectrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction on 2D materials

2D materials have been widely studied in PEC applications, however, only a few papers reported on the PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) and N<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (NRR) [3, 5]. In theory, the higher CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity, the better electron transport, and the higher density of active sites make 2D materials better suited for PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR compared to their bulk counterparts [134]. CdSeTe nanosheets (CdSeTe NSs) were deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes by a hydrothermal method [3]. All linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves show a significant increase in the current



**Fig. 6** **A** Scheme of a microdroplet-based PEC setup; **B** Bar chart of the photocurrent values, recorded in 1 M HCl/6 M LiCl solution for the illuminated droplets deposited on various WSe<sub>2</sub>-Pt-cycle-1 nanoflake samples of different thickness. The irradiance was 217 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>. **C** Optical micrograph of MoSe<sub>2</sub> flake on PMMA-coated Si substrate. **D** Optical micrograph of a few-layer MoSe<sub>2</sub> nanoflake, the edges are marked with white dashed lines; **E** PEC behavior of layered MoSe<sub>2</sub> specimens (basal planes), LSVs recorded for the illuminated droplets deposited on mon-

olayer, few-layer, and bulk flakes in 6 M LiCl solution; the sweep rate was 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup>; **F** absorbed photon-to-current efficiency profile, constructed using IPCE data and the estimated absorbance of the flakes. Figures adapted with permission from: **A**, **B** [131] published by John Wiley and Sons under CC BY 4.0 license; **C** [26] published by American Chemical Society under CC BY license; **D–F** [46] published by American Chemical Society under CC BY 4.0 license

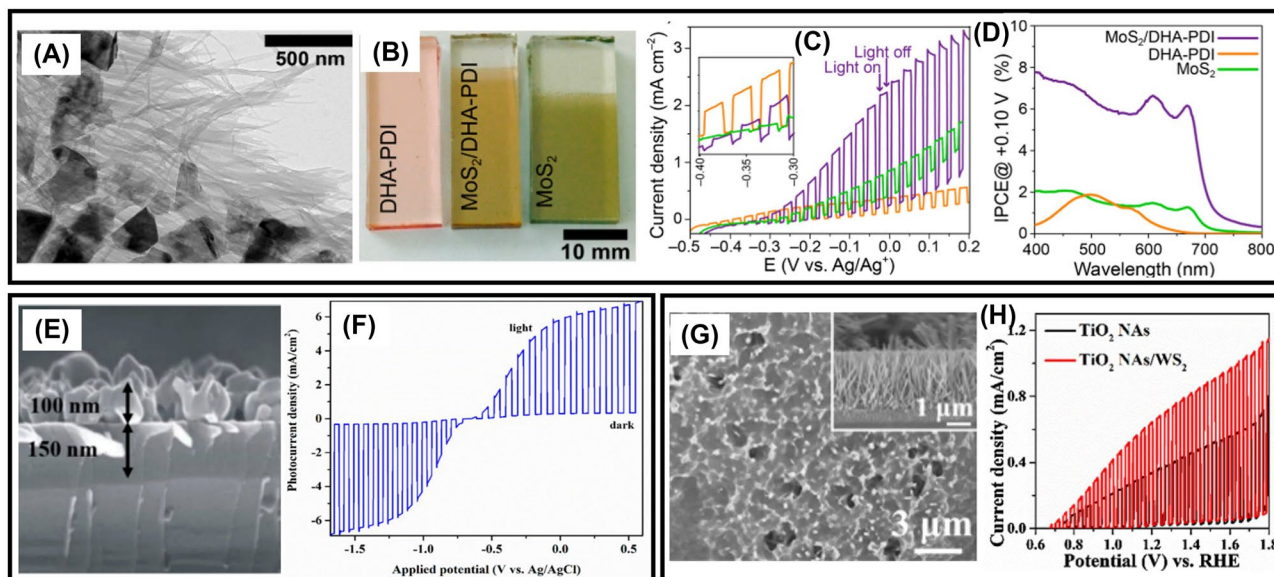
density after  $-0.8$  V because of the competitive water reduction reaction (Fig. 8A).

After coupling the CdSeTe NSs, the current density was higher than in the case of bare TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode in the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated solution, which suggested that PEC reduction performance for CO<sub>2</sub> was improved upon the introduction of the CdSeTe NSs. This improvement can be credited to the flaky structure, which had an excellent electrical conductivity performance [26]. The composite showed smaller resistance (2.21 kΩ) than bare TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode (31.19 kΩ). The main product was methanol and its yield increased firstly and then decreased when the potential was varied from  $-0.6$  V to  $-1.2$  V, and it reached the peak at  $-0.8$  V. The CO<sub>2</sub>RR was dominant at potentials more positive than  $-0.8$  V. When the potential was more negative than  $-0.8$  V, the water reduction became dominant, which decreased the yield of methanol (Fig. 8B, C).

Various 2D materials were employed for PEC NRR, such as MoS<sub>2</sub> [2], WO<sub>3</sub> [6], BiOBr [4] and black phosphorus [61]. A black phosphorus electrode was fabricated by the

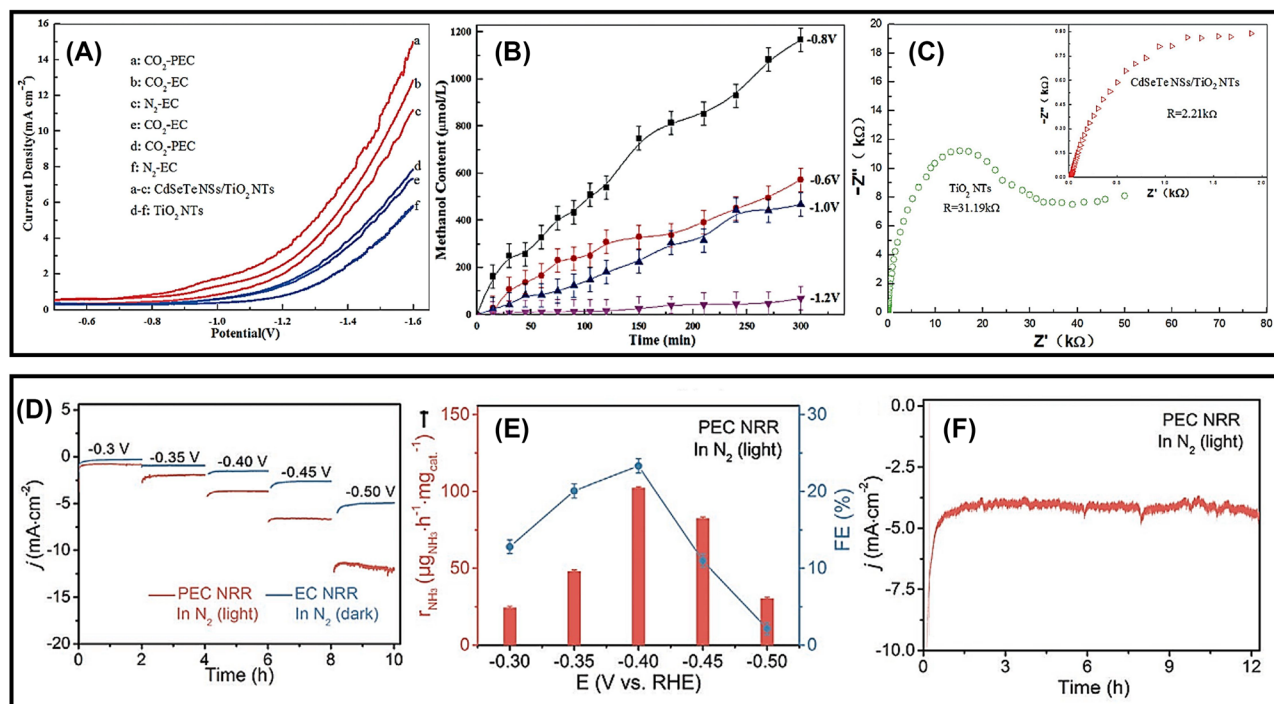
layer-by-layer assembly of electrochemically exfoliated black phosphorus nanosheets, for PEC NRR [61]. Black phosphorus electrode exhibited better PEC performance than EC performance, and the difference was more significant at more negative potentials, as demonstrated in Fig. 8D. The optimal potential was found at  $-0.4$  V vs. RHE, where the highest NH<sub>3</sub> yield of 102.4 μg h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> and Faradaic efficiency of 23.3% were obtained (Fig. 8E). Long-term measurement suggested that black phosphorus electrode can give excellent stability under illumination for 12 h (Fig. 8F).

The fewer reports for 2D materials on PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR (compared to water reduction/oxidation) could be rooted in the following reasons. 1) CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> reductions are complex multi-electron processes, which are more difficult to occur than HER (only 2 electrons needed). 2) The measurement setup for PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR requires more difficult arrangement than the other PEC applications, and the quantitative analyses of products is also rather challenging. Therefore, there is a need to further explore the applicability of 2D materials in PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR.



**Fig. 7** **A** Morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub>/DHA-PDI hybrid bilayer film shown by TEM; **B** photograph of the hybrid and control film deposited on FTO; **C** Current density–potential curves measured with an I<sup>−</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> redox couple under intermittent (1 Sun) illumination; **D** IPCE traces measured at +0.1 V vs Ag/Ag<sup>+</sup> for solution-processed DHA-PDI, MoS<sub>2</sub>, and MoS<sub>2</sub>/DHA-PDI hybrid bilayer electrodes. **E** Morphology of SnS surface visualized by cross-sectional field–emission scanning

electron microscopy image; **F** LSV in 0.5 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, chopped light for the SnS nanosheet photoanode at 50 mV s<sup>−1</sup>. **G** SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> NAs/WS<sub>2</sub> composite; **H** photocurrent density under chopped AM 1.5 G illumination (100 mW cm<sup>−2</sup>). Figures adapted with permission from: **A–D** [133] © 2017 American Chemical Society; **E, F** [86] published by MDPI under CC BY 4.0 license; **G, H** [99] © 2019 Elsevier



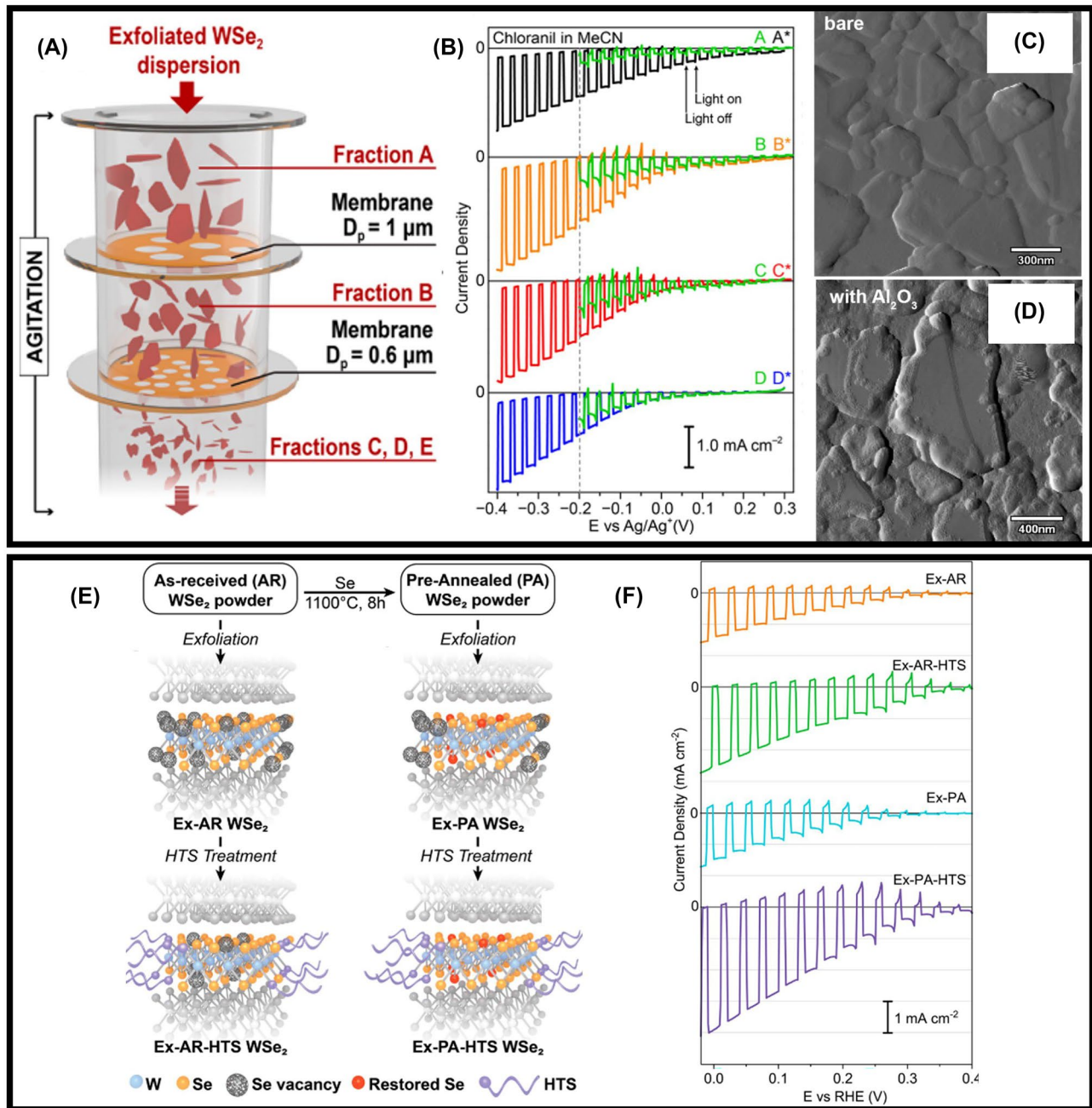
**Fig. 8** **A** Current density vs. potential curves of CdSeTe NSs/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes under 1 Sun irradiation; **B** The time-dependent curves of the methanol concentration at different potentials using CdSeTe NSs/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube photoelectrodes; **C** The electrochemical impedance spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes and CdSeTe NSs/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes. **D** Electrochemical NRR and PEC NRR current–time curves of the black phosphorus electrode at various potentials; **E** PEC ammonia yield rates and Faradaic efficiency; **F** Current–time curve of the black phosphorus electrode recorded at −0.4 V in a N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere under 1 Sun illumination. Figures adapted with permission from: **A–C** [3] © 2014 Royal Society of Chemistry, permission conveyed through Copyright Clearance Center, Inc; **D–F** [61] © 2020 John Wiley and Sons



## The passivation of defect states in 2D materials

Despite the 2D semiconductors are widely studied in PEC applications, the pristine materials generally show low PEC performance. So far, several approaches have been developed

to improve PEC activity, for example the defects passivation, doping [98], loading co-catalysts [87, 88], and constructing heterojunctions [31, 54, 85]. Defects of 2D materials can act as recombination centers of charge carriers, which is detrimental to the PEC performance. Defect passivation by



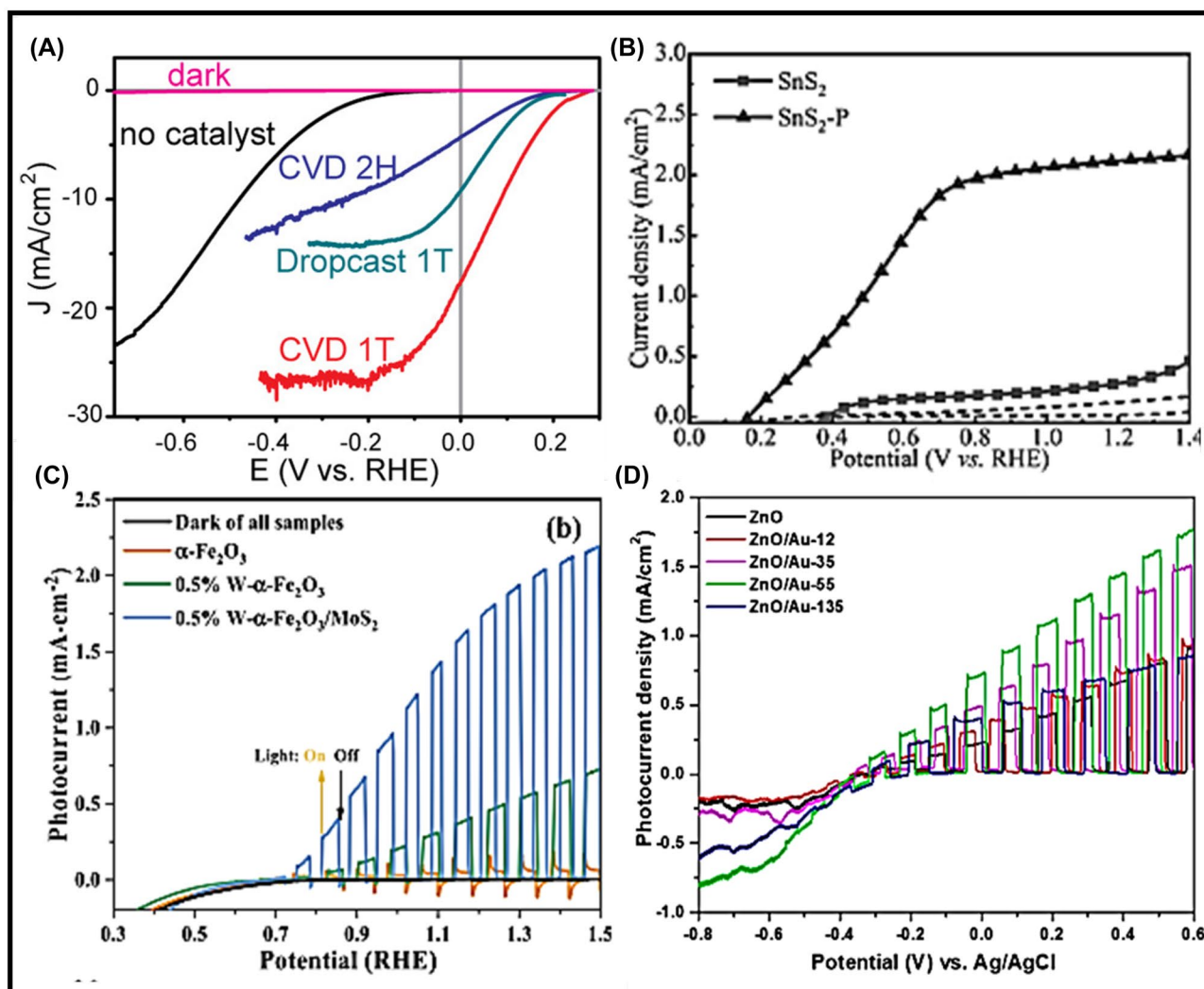
**Fig. 9** **A** Schematic illustration of the multistage track-etched membrane separation column; **B** LSV curves of bare  $\text{WSe}_2$  electrodes (electrodes **A–D**, green curves) and  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ -coated electrodes (Electrodes **A\*–D\***, colored curves) taken at  $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  under intermittent (1 Sun) illumination; Scanning probe microscope amplitude images of a  $\text{WSe}_2$  electrode before (**C**) and after (**D**) ALD of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . **E** Schematic visualization of the  $\text{WSe}_2$  flake treatments and their proposed effect on

defects; **F** PEC characterizations of Pt-Cu-modified  $\text{WSe}_2$  electrodes with preheating or post-passivation treatments or both, LSV curves scanned from positive to negative potentials ( $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ) under intermittent (1 Sun) illumination. Figures adapted with permission from: **A–D** [24] © 2017 American Chemical Society; **E, F** [9] © 2018 American Chemical Society

chemical methods have been explored. A flake size separation method has been employed successfully to isolate the obtained solvent-exfoliated WSe<sub>2</sub> flakes to 4 different fractions (fractions A–D, largest to smallest, Fig. 9A).

WSe<sub>2</sub> electrodes were subsequently prepared, using a modified space-confined self-assembly method [24]. They found that significant recombination happened at flake edge sites and the flake size played a critical role on the extraction of photogenerated charges. ALD-coated Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was used to passivate the defects of the WSe<sub>2</sub> flakes. After passivation, all electrodes (A\*–D\* in Fig. 9B) displayed significantly higher photocurrent density. The scanning probe microscopy in Fig. 9C, D suggests that the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was selectively deposited on the edges of the WSe<sub>2</sub> flakes. The effect of intraflake

and edge defects has been investigated on PEC HER performance, by applying two treatments separately: a pre-annealing before exfoliation and a post-deposition surfactant attachment, as demonstrated in Fig. 9E [9]. LSVs in Fig. 9F showed that exfoliated (Ex-AR) WSe<sub>2</sub> and pre-annealed (Ex-PA) WSe<sub>2</sub> had similar performance, which suggests that pre-exfoliation annealing alone was not effective to improve the PEC performance. After post-deposition surfactant attachment was performed, however, higher PEC performance was achieved in both cases. These results suggest that the pre-annealing treatment is indeed effective at improving the PEC performance when edge states can be passivated.



**Fig. 10** **A** Current density vs. potential (vs. RHE) for CVD-grown 2H-MoS<sub>2</sub>/Si photocathode (CVD 2H), a CVD-grown 1T-MoS<sub>2</sub>/Si photocathode (CVD 1T), and a drop-casted 1T-MoS<sub>2</sub>/Si photocathode (dropcast 1T) measured in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> under AM 1.5G irradiation (100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>). **B** LSV curves of SnS<sub>2</sub> and SnS<sub>2</sub>-P (Ar plasma-treated sample) electrodes. **C** Chopped LSV curves for pure α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 0.5% W:α-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and 0.5% W:α-

Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> under 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> illumination. **D** LSV curves of ZnO and ZnO/Au-*n* (*n*=12, 35, 55, and 135 nm) under chopped 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> illumination conditions. Figures adapted with permission from: **A** [51] © 2014 American Chemical Society; **B** [95] © 2021 American Chemical Society; **C** [98] © 2019 John Wiley and Sons; **D** [97] © 2020 American Chemical Society

## Co-catalysts/heterojunctions/multilayers

The Ti- and Mo-doped WS<sub>2</sub> was synthesized by CVD method on FTO substrate [42]. The WS<sub>2</sub> electrode with Mo-doping and Ti-doping showed more than two times higher PEC performance than the electrode without doping, which is because of the metal ion doping increases the donor density in the WS<sub>2</sub> structure and enhances the electrical conductivity, leading to better charge transport and enhanced photocurrent density. Transition metal dichalcogenides (i.e., MoS<sub>2</sub>, MoSe<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>, and WSe<sub>2</sub>) were deposited on a pre-grown Si nanowire array as co-catalysts for HER [80]. The CVD-grown 1 T-MoS<sub>2</sub>/Si showed a maximum of 26 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> photocurrent density at -0.4 V vs. RHE in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and 17.6 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at 0 V vs. RHE (Fig. 10A).

The enhanced catalytic activity was attributed to the chalcogen vacancies. Hematite is one of the most promising semiconductors for PEC water oxidation reaction, however, the high charge carrier recombination rate limits its performance [111]. Therefore, MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were synthesized by LPE method, and then drop-casted on the surface of W-doped Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrodes constructing W-doped Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanostructures [98]. The PEC behavior displayed in Fig. 10B indicated that the heterojunction electrode had three times higher activity than the W-doped Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> electrode. The improvement was ascribed to the efficient electron-hole separation due to the formed heterojunction [94, 135]. An Ar plasma-assisted strategy was used to treat SnS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which resulted in the partial reduction of Sn<sup>4+</sup> to Sn<sup>2+</sup>, and a SnS/SnS<sub>2</sub> p-n junction was formed [95]. After the Ar treatment electrode showed significantly enhanced photocurrent (Fig. 10C). Besides, the small amount of residual oxygen interacted in Ar plasma chamber with SnS/SnS<sub>2</sub> to form O-S bonds, which greatly reduced the overpotential of PEC water oxidation and enhance carrier transfer, boosting the PEC performance.

Decoration of semiconductor photoelectrodes with metal co-catalysts such as Pt [9, 87], Au [136, 137], and alloy [9, 81], is another viable approach to enhance PEC performance. Au nanoparticles with different sizes were dip-coated on ZnO nanosheets, and studied as photoanodes for PEC water oxidation reaction [97]. The PEC activity was dependent on the Au size (Fig. 10D). The ZnO deposited with 55 nm in diameter Au gave the highest photocurrent density, resulting from the fact that Au nanoparticles with 55 nm on ZnO increased the light absorbance of the material through the scattering effect.

## Conclusions

The development of solar energy conversion devices based on 2D materials needs macroelectrodes, therefore the scale-up of electrode preparation is necessary. Unfortunately, the

TMCs and other layered materials suffer from a dramatic decrease in the photocurrent, with the increase of the photoelectrode area from micrometer-scale to mm<sup>2</sup> or cm<sup>2</sup> size. In this review article, we have scrutinized different PEC processes, where 2D materials based electrodes were employed. These include both reversible model redox reactions and practically interesting processes (i.e., water splitting, CO<sub>2</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions). Both single crystal-based and microscopic approaches-based PEC techniques revealed the role of structural features in determining the PEC performance. In general, pure 2D semiconductors show low PEC performance, therefore different approaches have been developed to improve PEC activity (i.e., defects passivation, doping, co-catalysts, and heterojunctions). Both mono- and dichalcogenides of transition metals, and metal oxides have been studied intensively during the past decades (as discussed here), but importance of novel members of 2D family (i.e., MXenes, and double layer hydroxides) was also highlighted in this review article.

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## Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The adapted figures are used with permission of the publishers.

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