Water Splitting



High-Yield Electrochemical Production of Large-Sized and Thinly Layered NiPS₃ Flakes for Overall Water Splitting

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Achieving large-sized and thinly layered 2D metal phosphorus trichalcogenides with high quality and yield has been an urgent quest due to extraordinary physical/chemical characteristics for multiple applications. Nevertheless, current preparation methodologies suffer from uncontrolled thicknesses, uneven morphologies and area distributions, long processing times, and inferior quality. Here, a sonication-free and fast (in minutes) electrochemical cathodic exfoliation approach is reported that can prepare large-sized (typically ≈150 µm²) and thinly layered (≈70% monolayer) NiPS₃ flakes with high crystallinity and pure phase structure with a yield ≈80%. During the electrochemical exfoliation process, the tetra-n-butylammonium salt with a large ionic diameter is decomposed into gaseous species after the intercalation and efficiently expands the tightly stratified bulk NiPS₃ crystals, as revealed by in situ and ex situ characterizations. Atomically thin NiPS₃ flakes can be obtained by slight manual shaking rather than sonication, which largely preserves in-plane structural integrity with large size and minimum damage. The obtained high quality NiPS3 offers a new and ideal model for overall water splitting due to its inherent fully exposed S and P atoms that are often the active sites for hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER). Consequently, the bifunctional NiPS₃ exhibits outstanding performance for overall water splitting.

characteristics.^[1] Among the MPTs, largesized and thinly layered (LSTL) NiPS3 flakes with high quality, which have distinctive properties due to an atomically thin structure, are the most sought-after materials in the scientific community. The remarkable charge-discharge performance, magnetic ordering property, intermediate range of bandgaps ($\approx 1.6 \text{ eV}$), and preeminent electrochemical activity of this material, facilitate a wide range of applications in batteries,^[2] electronics,^[3] optoelectronics,^[4] and catalysis.^[5] However, despite tremendous effort, the production of LSTL NiPS₃ with high quality remains a formidable challenge because of production difficulties, i.e., the inability to produce on a large scale, at an acceptable expenditure and in a reproducible manner.

The chemical vapor deposition method reported by He and coworkers is the predominant approach for directly preparing LSTL NiPS₃ on a laboratoryscale.^[4,5f] Unfortunately, the scope of this technique is limited because of the lack of large-scale fabrication and layer-

2D ternary metal phosphorus trichalcogenide (MPT) materials have received tremendous attention in recent years because of their distinctive structures and novel physical/chemical controlled growth, and large number of defects (up to 7.6% S vacancies).^[5f] Mechanical exfoliation using Scotch tape can produce NiPS₃ flakes with high quality and crystallinity; these

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flakes are mainly used for fundamental studies.^[6] Nevertheless, practical applications of this method are greatly restricted because of the lack of scalability and random thickness and size of the obtained NiPS₃ flakes. Liquid-phase exfoliated bulk 2D crystals has recently emerged as an effective measure for preparing high-quality and atomically thin 2D flakes, such as Li intercalation,^[1a,7] and ultrasonic methods.^[8] The approach of Li intercalation requires large amount of time, and the process is extremely sensitive to ambient conditions. In addition, this approach may induce a phase transition, and the residual Li can promote a doping effect in the products. To date, the ultrasonic method is the unparalleled approach to harvest monolayer NiPS₃ flakes.^[2,5a,b,d,e,9] Unfortunately, this method generally involves prolonged interaction of forces at all directions, ineluctably disintegrating the bulk crystals into an undersized area distribution (commonly <0.06 μ m²) with extensive defects, uneven morphology and inferior quality. Hence, the design and development of a feasible and scalable technique to produce large quantities of high-quality and solution-processable LSTL NiPS₃ is highly desired.

Herein, for the first time, we report the massive production of large-sized and monolayered NiPS3 flakes with high quality by electrochemical cathodic exfoliation of bulk NiPS3 crystals. The exfoliated NiPS3 flakes have unprecedented sizes (area $\approx 150 \ \mu m^2$) with an atomic level thickness (monolayer ratio: \approx 70%) and have extremely low degree of oxidation and defects with the intrinsic structure preserved. In comparison with other fabrication techniques, this electrochemical method has several merits, such as scalable production, structural integrity with large size, affordable cost, solution-processability, and reproducibility. More importantly, exfoliated NiPS₃ flakes via cationic intercalation are not contaminated with oxygen groups. To the best of our knowledge, until now, this is the first MPT material that can be successfully exfoliated using an electrochemical technique without lithium ion intercalation. Due to fully exposed P and S atoms, the LSTL NiPS₃ flakes possess abundant active sites on the basal planes. By combining the experimental results with density functional theory (DFT) calculations, it is interesting to find that the S and P atoms on the basal planes of LSTL NiPS3 are the active sites for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER), respectively.

The layered NiPS3 crystallizes in the space group C2/m (No. 12) with a triclinic unit cell of a = 5.812 Å, b = 10.070 Å, c = 6.632 Å, and V = 371.2 Å³. The model representing a lamella in both the normal direction and along the NiPS3 layer stacking direction is illustrated in Figure S1 (Supporting Information). To acquire LSTL NiPS₃, bulk NiPS₃ materials with a large crystalline size is a prerequisite. Our prepared bulk NiPS₃ crystals by chemical vapor transport (CVT) method were highly crystalline with a closely stacked lamellar architecture with a maximum length of up to ≈ 1 cm (Figure 1a; Figures S2-S3, Supporting Information). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the bulk NiPS3 crystals exhibited an intense grain orientation along the c axis, and the peak positions matched well with the planes of the standard XRD data (JCPDS no. 01-78-0499) (Figure S4, Supporting Information), manifesting the layered crystal structure along the c axis and the pure phase of the NiPS₃ crystals.

Electrochemical exfoliation of bulk NiPS3 crystals was performed in a two-electrode system (Figure 1b). An in-house electrochemical cell combined with optical microscopy (Figure S5. Supporting Information) was established to in situ monitor the intercalation and expansion process by implementing a constant voltage via chronoamperometry. The morphology changes in the NiPS3 crystals were also monitored by ex situ scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Figure 1f) and optical photographs (Figure S6, Supporting Information), and the corresponding mechanism are described in Figure 1e. First, bulk NiPS₃ crystals displayed tightly stratified architectures (Figure 1f; Figure S6a, Supporting Information). Then, tetran-butylammonium salts, which possess larger ionic diameters and could be used for exfoliating 2D materials, such as graphene, black phosphorus and phase-pure semiconducting nanosheets (MoS2, WSe2, Bi2Se3, NbSe2, In2Se3, and Sb₂Te₃),^[10] were selected as the salts for intercalation. When applying a constant negative bias (-3 V) to the working electrode for few seconds, the tetra-*n*-butylammonium tetrafluoroborate were intercalated into the interlamination of the bulk NiPS₃ crystals. These salts significantly weakened the van der Waals interactions between the layers and expanded the lattice to a greater extent (Figure 1f). Second, after applying a voltage for more time, the intercalated tetra-n-butylammonium salts were electrochemically decomposed into gaseous species, generating the driving force for gigantic and ultrafast volume expansion of the tightly stratified bulk NiPS3 crystals together with edge wrinkling and roughening (Figure 1f; Movie S1, Supporting Information), followed by dissociation and dispersion into N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF) (Figure S6b-h, Supporting Information). The observed massive gas bubbles around the working electrode proved the decomposition of the intercalants. Finally, exfoliated NiPS3 with unprecedentedly sizes and quality (Figure S7, Supporting Information) was detached from bulk NiPS3 crystals by slight manual shaking, which supplied very weak hand-driven forces, forming LSTL NiPS3 with preserved in-plane structural integrity. The in situ cyclic voltammograms (CV) measurement related to the intercalation and deintercalation of tetra-n-butylammonium salt was shown in Figure S8 (Supporting Information). DMF was selected as the nonaqueous electrolyte because of its low boiling point, high dispersion capability for the generated LSTL NiPS₃, much better than other commonly used solvent, such as propylene carbonate, dimethyl sulfoxide, and acetonitrile (Figures S9-S11, Supporting Information). After removal of the unexfoliated NiPS₃, the dispersion was filtered under vacuum and washed with a copious amount of DMF. The collected LSTL NiPS₃, after being redispersed in DMF exhibited the conspicuous Tyndall effect (Figure 1c). A high yield of ≈80% was determined by calculating the mass ratio of dried LSTL NiPS₃ and the starting bulk specimens. After electrochemical exfoliation, only the (001), (002), and (004) reflections of LSTL NiPS3 was observed in XRD pattern, and the intensity was significantly smaller than that of bulk NiPS₃ crystals (Figure 1d). In addition, the peaks of the (130), (131), (221), (-133), (060), and (005) reflections disappeared for the exfoliated LSTL NiPS₃ (Figure S12, Supporting Information). These results pinpoint the successfully exfoliation of bulk NiPS₃ crystals into atomically thin NiPS₃ flakes.





Figure 1. Mechanism of the electrochemical cathodic exfoliation. a) Photographs of the single crystal bulk NiPS₃ specimens. b) Schematic illustration of the experimental setup for electrochemical exfoliation. c) Images of (left) expanded NiPS₃ in DMF after electrochemical charging at -3 V for \approx 20 min; (center) dispersion of expanded NiPS₃ via manual shaking; and (right) final LSTL NiPS₃ dispersion exhibiting the Tyndall effect. d) XRD patterns of the bulk and LSTL NiPS₃ samples with a standard JCPDS pattern (01-78-0499). The wide peak \approx 20–30° was assigned to the silicon substrate. e) Mechanism illustration of electrochemically exfoliating bulk NiPS₃ crystals in tetra-*n*-butylammonium salts solution. f) Ex situ SEM images of NiPS₃ after applying a bias voltage of -3 V for 0, 30, and 60 s in tetra-*n*-butylammonium salts solution.

To study the morphology and structure of LSTL NiPS₃, optical microscopy, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and atomic force microscope (AFM) were performed. Figure 2a depicts the optical microscope image of high-coverage LSTL NiPS₃. The low-magnification optical microscope and TEM images showed that ample intertangling and crinkles were on the surface of LSTL NiPS₃ (Figure 2b,c). Subsequently, the atomic lattice of LSTL NiPS3 was analyzed via high resolution TEM (HRTEM). The distance between adjacent lattice fringes was measured to be 2.87 Å, which exactly matched the theoretical value (Figure 2d). High-angle annular dark field-scan TEM (HAADF- STEM) of the (131) plane was further conducted, and the results are shown in Figure 2e. A homogeneous and almost defect-free structure was verified across the entire single crystal domain. In addition, the pattern was consistent with the image simulation along the *c* axis. The pattern revealed three sets of lattice fringes with spacings of 1.62, 1.68, and 1.62 Å, which corresponds well to the (330), (060), (330) planes of LSTL NiPS₃, respectively. All the consequences highlighted the atomic

structure of LSTL NiPS3 with intact phase structure and excellent crystalline quality. Furthermore, the TEM-electron energy loss spectrometer (EELS) mapping revealed a uniform distribution of Ni, P, and S elements over the entire exfoliated flake (Figure S13, Supporting Information). To ascertain the accurate thickness of LSTL NiPS₃, representative AFM images of LSTL NiPS₃ were exhibited in Figure 2f. The topographic height was \approx 0.92 nm, which can be assigned to a monolayer of NiPS₃. The statistical analysis based on large-area AFM measurements (Figure 2g) indicated that the monolayer ratio of LSTL NiPS3 was ≈70% (Figure 2h; Figure S14, Supporting Information). The parameter comparison of LSTL NiPS₃ and other reported NiPS₃ specimens is provided in Figure 2i and Table S1 in the Supporting Information. To the best of our knowledge, the electrochemical exfoliation reported here is the highest efficiency pathway for the preparation of large quantities of high-quality NiPS₃ with a large area and atomical thickness.^[2,4–6,9]

Subsequently, a structural comparison between bulk $NiPS_3$ and LSTL $NiPS_3$ was implemented. An X-ray photoelectron

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Figure 2. Morphological and structural characterization of LSTL NiPS₃. a) Typical optical microscope image of high-coverage LSTL NiPS₃ on mica substrate. b) Representative optical microscope image of single LSTL NiPS₃ on SiO₂/Si substrate. c) TEM, d) HRTEM, e) HAADF-TEM images of LSTL NiPS₃. f) AFM image of large-sized and monolayer NiPS₃ on SiO₂/Si substrate. g) High-coverage AFM image of LSTL NiPS₃ on mica substrate. h) Statistical analysis of length, width, and thickness distribution of LSTL NiPS₃. The total number of LSTL NiPS₃ for statistics was about 200. i) Parameter comparison of LSTL NiPS₃ and other previously reported NiPS₃. "1-11" stands for published paper.^[2,5,6]

spectroscopy (XPS) spectrum revealed distinct signals of Ni, P, and S in LSTL NiPS₃ (Figure S15, Supporting Information). The atomic percentages of Ni (15.8 at%), P (25.1 at%), and S (59.1 at%) were estimated. The resolved Ni 2p spectrum illuminated the spin-orbit doublets for the 2p_{3/2} (854.43 eV) levels of the typical Ni²⁺ species along with three satellite peaks at 856.5, 859.5, and 864.4 eV (Figure 3a).^[2b] In the P 2p spectrum (Figure 3b), two peaks at 131.95 and 132.79 eV of covalent P–S in the PS₃ units were ascribed to P $2p_{3/2}$ and P $2p_{1/2}$, respectively.^[5c] The S 2p spectrum also displayed double peaks at 162.46 and 163.64 eV, attributed to Ni-S and P-S, respectively (Figure 3c).^[5c] Notably the XPS results revealed that LSTL NiPS3 obtained by electrochemically cathodic exfoliation only exhibited characteristic peaks of P $2p_{3/2},$ P $2p_{1/2},$ S $2p_{3/2},$ and S $2p_{1/2}$. The peaks centered at ≈ 134.5 eV and ≈ 167.8 eV associated with oxidized P and S were not observed,^[1a,11,12] suggesting the negligible oxidation degree of LSTL NiPS₃. In contrast, traditional exfoliation methods always suffered from the production of 2D materials with an unwanted high oxidation degree.^[11,12] The Ni 2p, P 2p, and S 2p peaks also display a slight redshift in the binding energy compared to those of the bulk crystals (Figure S16, Supporting Information), probably originating from the thickness change in NiPS₃ during electrochemical exfoliation (Figure S17, Supporting Information).

The variations in the coordination environment for Ni atoms were probed by X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) analysis. The Ni K-edge X ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) (Figure 3d) and Fourier transformed (FT) $k^3\chi(k)$ function extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra (Figure 3e) and also their corresponding $k^3\chi(k)$ oscillation curves (Figure S18, Supporting Information) of the obtained LSTL NiPS₃ exhibited similar but different features compared with



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Figure 3. Structure comparison between bulk NiPS₃ crystals and LSTL NiPS₃. High-resolution XPS spectra of the a) Ni 2p, b) P 2p, and c) S 2p regions of electrochemically exfoliated LSTL NiPS₃. Ni-K edge d) XANES, e) FT-EXAFS spectra of the bulk NiPS₃ crystals and LSTL NiPS₃. f) Raman spectra of the bulk NiPS₃ crystals and LSTL NiPS₃. f) Raman spectra of the bulk NiPS₃ crystals and LSTL NiPS₃ in the range from 100 to 1250 cm⁻¹.

bulk NiPS3 crystals. The Ni K-edge XANES spectra presented a Ni oxidation state (Figure 3d). The results for the energy of the absorption edge combined with the intensity of the white line demonstrated that the valence of Ni in LSTL NiPS3 was higher than that in bulk structure, which indicated a more abundant coordinate environment for LSTL NiPS₃.^[13] The peak positions that corresponds to the Ni-S coordination for NiPS₃ exhibited the same radial distance (2.00 Å) as that of bulk structure (Figure 3e). Moreover, the second coordination shell peak intensity of LSTL NiPS3 decreased significantly (11%) compared to that of bulk crystals, demonstrating the obvious structural distortion and the dimension reduction of NiPS₃ crystals.^[7c] A curve fitting was also conducted to obtain the detailed structure parameters (Table S2, Supporting Information). The Ni-S bond in LSTL NiPS₃ showed supersaturated coordination, giving a higher coordination number (CN) of 5.6 (Ni-S) than that of the bulk crystals (CN = 5.4 for the Ni–S). Moreover, the fitted bond length results suggested that there was an obvious structural distortion in LSTL NiPS3 because of the increasing Ni-S bond length. The supersaturated coordination and structural distortion of LSTL NiPS₃ likely resulted from the highly exposed supersaturated-coordinated edge sites,^[14] further clarifying the atomic thin 2D character for LSTL NiPS₃.

Raman spectroscopy measurements of bulk NiPS₃ crystals and LSTL NiPS₃ excited by 532 nm laser on a SiO₂/Si substrate were also systematically performed. As displayed in Figure 3f, the three in-plane E_g modes, three out-of-plane A_g modes, and two second-order A_g modes were detected. $A_{1g}^{(1)}$ was dominated by the in-plane motions of the sulfur planes, while $A_{1g}{}^{(2)}$ and $A_{1g}{}^{(3)}$ were assigned to the vertical components of their sulfur plane vibrations. $E_{1g}{}^{(1)}$ was attributed to Ni^{2+} metal ions, and the 434 cm $^{-1}$ peak was attributed to the P–P bond vibrational mode. $^{[4,5b,6]}$ For LSTL NiPS3, only $E_{g}{}^{(1)}$ and $E_{g}{}^{(2)}$ were detected, which was ascribed to a weakening of the interlayer interaction with a reduction in flake thickness. $^{[4]}$ Moreover, compared with bulk NiPS3, the Raman modes of LSTL NiPS3 revealed a distinct shift toward lower wavenumbers (inset of Figure 3f), which was attributed to the phonon confinement effect because of the ultrathin thickness. $^{[5c,6]}$

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Recently, numerous outstanding 2D electrocatalysts have been established for the half reaction of water splitting. For example, transition metal sulfides (e.g., NiS_x , MoS_2) and phosphides (e.g., Ni_2P) have shown promising HER and OER performance, whereas S-atoms and P-atoms are often suggested as the active sites for HER and OER, respectively.^[15–18] However, most 2D catalytic materials have only a single-functional activity site that can only be used for a single half reaction. Thus, it remains an enormous challenge to exploit brand-new 2D materials with multifunctional activity sites to realize overall water splitting. Herein, LSTL NiPS₃ with high crystallinity and pure phase structure produced by electrochemical exfoliation perfectly combine the fully exposed S and P atoms in one 2D material, which offers an ideal model to exploit their inherent reactivity for overall water splitting.

In the atomic structure of NiPS₃, Ni atoms on the basal planes immobilized the $[P_2S_6]^{4-}$ framework and were



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Figure 4. Chemisorption models and calculated free energy. a–i) Chemisorption models of the H and OH intermediates on the P and S sites in NiPS₃ for the HER and OER respectively. The corresponding adsorbed configurations in the NiPS₃ (100) direction were shown in Figure S20 (Supporting Information). i–k) Calculated free energy diagram on the NiPS₃ (001) surfaces for the HER and OER at equilibrium (applied potential U = 0) with the adsorbed configurations shown in (a–i), and the proposed mechanisms of the dissociation of H₂O, OH on LSTL NiPS₃. The blue balls represent Ni atoms, red for P, yellow for S, white for H, and cyan for O.

sandwiched by the S layers;^[1c] thus, they could not be exposed and serve as active sites, which is similar to MoS_2 .^[16,18,19] To accurately clarify the effect of P and S atoms on the OER and HER, DFT was utilized to calculate the chemisorption free energies of hydrogen ($\Delta G_{\rm H}$) and hydroxide ($\Delta G_{\rm OH}$). Figure 4a–c,j show that $\Delta G_{\rm H}$ value was 1.03 eV for the P sites and 0.51 eV for the S site, respectively. Distinctly, the adsorption of H atoms on the S sites was much more favorable, namely, the S atoms on the basal planes of LSTL NiPS3 were the active sites of HER. Considering water dissociation process in alkaline solution, we further performed transition state calculation related to the water dissociation step. The energy barrier in-between was located via searching for transition states by climbing image-nudged-elastic band method. As shown in Figure S19 (Supporting Information), when the kinetics of water dissociation from the Volmer step was considered, the S sites in 2D NiPS₃ exhibited a significant water dissociation barrier ($E_a = 1.48$ eV), substantively lower than that on P sites in 2D NiPS₃ ($E_{\rm b}$ = 3.41 eV). Therefore, from the kinetic viewpoint, the S atoms on the basal planes of LSTL NiPS₃ were the active sites of HER, which was consistent with the result in Figure 4j. Figure 4d–i,k also display the calculated free energy along the OER pathway for the P and S sites. The adsorption of OH⁻ onto the S atom needs an energy of 0.59 eV, which is energy unfavorable and prohibits continuing the OER. Furthermore, the conversion of O* to OOH*, which needs the largest uphill energy, is the rate-determining step for both P (1.06 eV, O* \rightarrow OOH*) and S (1.97 eV, O* \rightarrow OOH*). Obviously, P atoms on the basal planes possess the lower reaction energy barrier than S atoms, indicating its great potential as active sites for OER.

Due to abundant fully exposed multifunctional active sites on the basal planes (Figure S21, Supporting Information), a superhigh electrochemically active surface area (Figure S22, Supporting Information), and improved mass/electron transport (Figure S23, Supporting Information), LSTL NiPS₃ could be employed as bifunctional electrocatalysts for water splitting. Thus, LSTL NiPS₃ immobilized on commercial nickel foam


Figure 5. HER, OER, and overall water-splitting performance of LSTL NiPS₃. a) Steady-state LSV curves at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. b,c) Chronoamperometry curves of these electrodes at a high current density of 50 mA cm⁻². d) LSV curves of LSTL NiPS₃, and RuO₂ (+) // Pt/C (–) for overall water splitting in a two-electrode configuration. Inset: photograph of bubble overflow on LSTL NiPS₃ during overall water splitting. e) Chronopotentiometry curves of LSTL NiPS₃ under a current density of 30 mA cm⁻². Inset: LSV curves of LSTL NiPS₃ before and after chronopotentiometry measurement.

served as the working electrode to catalyze the HER and OER (Figure S24, Supporting Information). Bulk NiPS₃ crystals, commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ catalysts were also investigated for comparison. As illustrated in the left panel of Figure 5a, LSTL NiPS₃ displayed high activity for the HER, and the onset potential was ≈ 100 mV, much lower than that of bulk NiPS₃ (200 mV). To realize a current density of 10 mA cm⁻², an overpotential of only 158 mV was required for LSTL NiPS₃, but

250 mV was required for bulk NiPS₃ crystals. In addition, when the overpotential exceeded 290 mV, the HER activity of LSTL NiPS₃ was observably superior to commercial Pt/C. Such performance transcended many of the previously reported nonprecious metal HER electrocatalysts (Table S3, Supporting Information). Furthermore, the catalytic kinetics were assessed from the Tafel plots.^[20–22] The Tafel slope value of LSTL NiPS₃ was ≈95 mV dec⁻¹, which was lower than the bulk NiPS₃



crystals (159 mV dec⁻¹) (Figure S25, Supporting Information), signifying its superior HER rate.

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Subsequently, the OER performance of these materials were studied. As revealed in the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves in the right panel of Figure 5a, the oxidation peak associated with the transition from Ni²⁺ to Ni³⁺ occurred between 1.35 and 1.45 V.^[13] Therefore, a backward CV scan was employed to estimate the OER performance of LSTL NiPS₃. As displayed in Figure S26 (Supporting Information), LSTL NiPS₃ exhibited an extraordinarily low onset potential (1.45 V), which was significantly lower than the bulk NiPS₃ crystals (1.60 V) and even superior to commercial RuO₂ (1.48 V). To realize a current density of 10 mA cm⁻², LSTL NiPS₃ required an overpotential of only 300 mV, outperforming bulk NiPS3 crystals and commercial RuO₂. The Tafel slope of LSTL NiPS₃ was 88 mV dec⁻¹, which was also obviously lower than that of the bulk NiPS3 crystal (152 mV dec⁻¹, Figure S25, Supporting Information). This excellent OER performance of LSTL NiPS3 was superior to that of many transition metals and even some noble-metal electrocatalysts (Table S4, Supporting Information).

Long-term stability is another significant parameter for both the electrocatalytic HER and OER. As depicted in Figure 5b,c, a current density of 50 mA cm⁻² for the HER (overpotential: 239 mV) and OER (overpotential: 350 mV) could be maintained for more than 24 h with a trivial current decline of 6.4% and 2.8%, respectively. However, both commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ catalysts with the same mass loading were unstable under the same test conditions, and the current densities of 50 mA cm⁻² showed a significant decrease of merely 54.6% and 15.2% maintaining, respectively. The decline in the stability of RuO₂ was probably because of the oxidation of RuO₂ to watersoluble RuO4²⁻ or other solvated Ru^{VI} ions under alkaline conditions.^[23] The decrease in Pt/C stability was mainly attributed to Pt particles largely peeling off the support, caused by the generated H₂ bubbles during long reaction times.^[24] The morphology and chemical composition of the LSTL NiPS₃ after the HER and OER stability tests was displayed in Figures S27-S28 (Supporting Information).

Inspired by the remarkable HER and OER performances, we assembled a water electrolyzer in 1.0 M KOH by applying LSTL NiPS₃ as both the anode and cathode electrode for overall water splitting. As indicated in Figure 5d, the overall water splitting performance of LSTL NiPS₃ was much better than the RuO_2 -Pt/C couple. To deliver a current density of 10 mA cm⁻², \approx 1.56 V was required, that is, a combined overpotential of ≈330 mV for electrochemical overall water splitting. The electrocatalytic overall water splitting activity at 30 mA cm⁻² was also monitored (Movie S2, Supporting Information). The results revealed that massive H₂ and O₂ bubbles were rapidly generated on both LSTL NiPS3 electrodes. More importantly, LSTL NiPS3 exhibited outstanding stability with an insignificant decline in a 24 h galvanostatic electrolysis at 30 mA cm⁻² (Figure 5e). The comparison of the overall water splitting performance in a 1.0 M KOH solution for LSTL NiPS3 with other bifunctional electrocatalysts is displayed in Table S5 (Supporting Information), which further highlights its robust catalytic performance.

In summary, we have successfully demonstrated that largesize and atomically thin NiPS₃ flakes with high crystallinity and pure phase structure can be prepared by a sonication-free and fast (in minutes) electrochemical cathodic exfoliation approach with a high yield. With the help of tetra-*n*-butylammonium salt with large ionic diameter and gas releasing nature, atomically thin monolayer or few-layer NiPS₃ can be obtained by slight manual shaking after the electrochemical intercalation. Due to the fully exposed P and S catalytic active site without contamination of oxygen groups, the exfoliated NiPS₃ flakes possess ultrahigh electrochemically active surface area and extremely low reaction resistance, which deliver a robust HER, OER and enable efficient overall water-splitting performance. The successful electrochemical cathodic exfoliation of NiPS₃ provides the possibility for the scalable preparation of other MPT and 2D materials and facilitates the development of 2D-based applications.

Experimental Section

Chemicals: Red phosphorus powder (99.999%), tetra-*n*butylammonium tetrafluoroborate (99%), RuO_2 (99.95% metal basis), and Nafion (0.5 wt%) were purchased from Alfa Aesar. Sulfur powder (99.999%) and nickel powders (99.99%) was purchased from Adamas-beta. DMF (99%) and KOH were purchased from Macklin. The commercial Pt/C (20 wt%) catalysts were obtained from Johnson Matttey (Shanghai, China). Water was purified through a Millipore system.

Synthesis of Bulk NiPS₃ Crystals: Bulk NiPS₃ crystals were prepared by the CVT method. High-purity nickel, phosphorus and sulfur powders (total mass: ≈ 2 g) with a stoichiometric mole ratio (1:1:3) were fully mixed and grinded in a glove box. Then, powders were sealed in an evacuated quartz tube (length: 25 cm; external diameter: 13 mm; wall thickness: 1 mm) under a vacuum of 10⁻⁵ Pa using an oxygen/hydrogen welding torch by Partulab device (MRVS-1002, Partulab Technologies, China). Next, the sealed tube was placed in a two-zone furnace. Then, the temperature in the reaction and growth zone were programmed to 700 °C and 650 °C with a heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹, and the corresponding temperature was maintained for 7 days to generate a temperature gradient for the growth of the bulk crystals. Finally, the twozone furnace was cooled naturally to ambient temperature, and the bulk NiPS₃ crystals were collected.

Electrochemical Exfoliation of Bulk NiPS₃ Crystals: The electrochemical exfoliation of bulk NiPS₃ crystals was performed by using an electrochemical workstation (CHI 760E, Shanghai Chenhua Instrument Factory, China) consisting of a two-electrode system. The obtained bulk NiPS₃ crystals were clamped to a Pt clip and were employed as the working electrode. A Pt sheet (length: 10 mm; width:10 mm) electrode was utilized as the counter electrode and was installed \approx 1.5 cm away from the bulk NiPS₃ crystals. A DMF solution (60 mL) consisting of 0.05 M tetra-*n*-butylammonium tetrafluoroborate was used as the electrolyte.

The electrochemical exfoliation of bulk NiPS₃ crystals to LSTL NiPS₃ was performed by executing a static bias of -3 V on the working electrode. After the exfoliation process was accomplished, the obtained suspension was manually shaken for ≈ 20 s, and then the dispersion was centrifuged to precipitate unexfoliated NiPS₃. The top part of the dispersion was filtered through a nylon membrane filter (Agela Technologies, 47 mm, 0.45 μ m) and washed with plenty of DMF by vacuum filtration to remove the residual tetra-*n*-butylammonium salts. Finally, the collected LSTL NiPS₃ was redispersed in DMF for characterization and application.

Electrode Preparation: Nickel foam served as the 3D scaffold, which was sonicated and washed in acetone, ethanol, 0.5 M HCl solution and water. Subsequently, the 2 mL LSTL NiPS₃ dispersion (2 mg mL⁻¹) containing a 200 μL Nafion (0.5 wt%) aqueous solution was uniformly dispersed onto the dried nickel foam (1 × 2 cm²) and then dried in a vacuum drying oven. Thus, the loading weight of LSTL NiPS₃ on the nickel foam was ≈1.0 mg cm⁻². For comparison, commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ catalysts were loaded on nickel foam with the same loading

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(1.0 mg $\rm cm^{-2})$ and acted as both the cathode and anode electrode, respectively.

Electrochemical Tests: The electrochemical HER and OER activities were investigated in a three-electrode system equipped with a proton exchange membrane (Nafon-117 membrane). A saturated Ag/AgCl electrode in 3.0 M KCl solution and a Pt sheet served as the reference and counter electrodes, respectively. All the potentials were converted to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) scale via the Nernst Equation (1)

$$E_{\rm RHE} = E_{\rm SHE} + 0.0591 \times pH = E_{\rm APPL} + \phi_{\rm Ag/AgCl} + 0.0591 \times pH$$
(1)

in which, E_{SHE} is the potential versus standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) potential, E_{Appl} is the applied potential versus Ag/AgCl reference, and $\phi_{Ag/AgCl}$ is the electrode potential of the KCl-saturated Ag/AgCl reference electrode (0.198 V vs SHE). Unless otherwise noted, all potentials used refer to the RHE via calibration. All current densities were normalized using the geometrical area of the nickel foam immersed in solution (2 cm⁻²).

The HER and OER performances were investigated in 1.0 \mbox{M} KOH by the LSV method within the range of -0.5 to 0.5 V and 1.0-1.8 V, corrected by iR-compensation (80%) for the ohmic potential drop losses. For the OER, a flow of O₂ was employed to ensure the O₂/H₂O equilibrium at 1.23 V. For the HER, a flow of Ar was used to purge the electrolyte. The overpotentials (η) at 10 mA cm⁻² were ascertained based on the Equation (2), and the Tafel slope (b) was calculated according to Tafel Equation (3)

$$\eta = E(\text{versusRHE}) - 1.23 \tag{2}$$

$$\eta = a + b \log \left| \int \right| \tag{3}$$

Chronopotentiometry and chronoamperometry measurements were performed to evaluate the stability. Electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) were recorded at 1.51 V from 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz with amplitude 5 mV in O₂-saturated 1.0 m KOH solution. The electrochemically active surface areas of bulk NiPS₃ and LSTL NiPS₃ were estimated by using CV in an O₂-saturated 1.0 m KOH solution at different scan rates (20, 40, 60, 80, and 100 mV s⁻¹).

Material Characterization: The NiPS₃ suspension prepared by electrochemical exfoliation was dispersed onto a superthin carboncoated porous copper grid for TEM, a frosted glass for XRD, clean silicon substrates for SEM, optical microscopy and XPS, a clean SiO₂/ Si substrate for Raman characterization, a mica substrate for AFM. XRD (Ultima IV, Rigaku Corporation, Japan) measurements were performed with Cu-K α radiation as the X-ray source ($\lambda = 1.5418$ Å). The TEM, HRTEM, and HAADF-STEM images were obtained by employing probe Cs-corrected TEM equipment (FEI Titan ChemiSTEM, USA). Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy was utilized to characterize the elemental mapping of LSTL NiPS₃. SEM images were acquired by employing a field emission SEM (Zeiss SUPRA 55, Carl Zeiss, Germany). AFM images were acquired by employing a Bruker Dimension FastScan Atomic Force Microscope (Bruker L01F4C8, USA) in tapping mode in air. Optical imaging of bulk NiPS3 and LSTL NiPS3 on the SiO2/Si and mica substrate was conducted using an optical microscope (Nikon ECLIPSE LV100ND, Japan). Raman spectra and mapping were recorded at room temperature using a WITec (Alpha 300R, Germany) Raman Microscope with laser excitation at 532 nm. XPS measurements were obtained using an ESCALAB 250Xi (Thermo Fisher, UK) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy instrument. The sample analysis chamber pressure was ${\approx}5~{\times}~10^{-10}$ mbar during the spectrum acquisition. X-ray absorption spectra were collected at Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF) on beamline BL14W1. The storage ring was operated at electron energy of 2.5 GeV with a beam current of 250 mA. A Si (111) double-crystal monochromatic was applied. The beam size used at the sample position was $\approx 900 \times 300 \ \mu\text{m}^2$. All the data were collected at ambient temperature applied in the transmission mode. More details are shown in Note S4 in the Supporting Information.

Computational Details and Models: DFT calculations were carried out using the plane-wave technique with exchange-correlation interactions

modeled by GGA-PBE functional,^[25] as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP).^[26] The ion-electron interactions were described by the projector augmented plane wave approach and the cutoff energy was set to 500 eV.^[27] Structural optimizations were performed by minimizing the forces on all the atoms to below 0.02 eV $Å^{-1}$ and minimizing the energy to below 10^{-5} eV. The Monkhorst-Pack method was adopted to sample the k-space with an $8 \times 4 \times 8$ mesh for the bulk and a $4 \times 4 \times 1$ mesh for the surface of the NiPS₃ system. To describe the strongly correlated d electrons of a Ni atom, the GGA + U (U = 4 eV) scheme introduced by Dudarev et al was employed.^[28,29] The van der Waals correction was included using Becke-Jonson damping with function parameters of the D3 method by Grimme et al.^[30] To explore the catalytical performance of NiPS₃, a (2×1) slab of the (001) surface was constructed with a vacuum layer of 15 Å to avoid the interaction between neighboring images. Additionally, the dipole corrections were employed in all slabs calculations. All the atoms in the slab were relaxed during the geometrical optimization process. The free energy analyzing method developed by Nørskov et al was used to predict the reaction activity.^[31] In the end, the Equation (4) was adopted to evaluate the adsorption free energy of H on different sites of the NiPS3 surface, where the $\Delta E_{\rm H^{\star}}$ is the adsorption energy of a H atom

$$\Delta G_{\mathrm{H}^*} = \Delta E_{\mathrm{H}^*} + 0.24 \,\mathrm{eV} \tag{4}$$

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords

2D materials, bifunctional, electrochemical exfoliation, $\mathsf{NiPS}_3,$ overall water splitting

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