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To cite this version:

Yun-Lai Zhu, Jun-Hui Yuan, Ya-Qian Song, Kan-Hao Xue, Sheng Wang, et al.. Promising photocatalysts with high carrier mobility for water splitting in monolayer Ge2P4S2 and Ge2As4S2. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2019, 44, pp.21536 - 21545. 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2019.06.068. hal-03488247

HAL Id: hal-03488247 <https://hal.science/hal-03488247v1>

Submitted on 20 Jul 2022

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Promising photocatalysts with high carrier mobility for water splitting in monolayer Ge2P4S2 and Ge2As4S²

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Abstract

Monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ are proposed as a new type of efficient photocatalyst for water splitting, based on first-principles calculations. Monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ exhibits a direct band gap of 1.89 eV (based on HSE06 calculation), while monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ is an indirect gap semiconductor that can turn into direct band gap by applying 3% compressive strain. Moreover, the band edge positions of monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ perfectly cover the redox potentials of water. Remarkably, the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers possess rather high

carrier mobilities $({\sim}10^{3}$ -10⁴ cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹), and have moderate optical absorption performance in the range of visible light. In addition, the adsorption and decomposition of water molecules on monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ are explored to illustrate the mechanism of photocatalytic hydrogen formation. These results demonstrate that the monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ hold great potential for photocatalytic water splitting.

Keywords:

2D Materials; Photocatalysts; Direct band gap; Carrier mobility; Water splitting

1. Introduction

Photocatalytic water splitting to produce hydrogen and oxygen has been considered as a potential means for resolving the serious energy and environment problems [1–6]. Thus far, enormous works have been performed since the discovery of $TiO₂$ as an effective photocatalyst for water splitting [7–15]. A primary requirement for such photocatalyst is that the conduction band minimum (CBM) should stay above the hydrogen reduction potential (H^+/H_2) , while the valence band maximum (VBM) should lie below the water oxidation potential (H_2O/O_2) [16,17]. Consequently, its band gap must be larger than the 1.23 eV threshold, but nevertheless lower than 3.00 eV for the purpose of efficient solar energy harvesting [18,19]. Therefore, an intermediate band gap around 1.8 eV is considered ideal for visible-light photocatalytic water splitting [20–23].

Two-dimensional (2D) materials have been extensively investigated for photocatalytic water splitting, due to their distinct properties such as high specific surface areas, high photon-harvesting efficiency in the visible light region, and small charge transport distances [18,24–26]. All these reduce the probability of electron-hole recombination, bringing about enhanced photocatalytic performance. For example, monolayer ZnSe exhibits a great photocurrent density up to 2.14 mA cm^2 , which is about 195 times higher than that of its bulk [27]. Besides, plenty of 2D

materials have been synthesized experimentally or predicated theoretically for photocatalyst application, such as transition metal dichalcogenides [28], g-C₃N₄ [29–31], group-III mono-chalcogenides [32], and so forth. However, achieving both fast carrier migration and effective separation of photo-generated electrons and holes in these 2D materials remains challenging.

Recently, Jing *et al.* proposed 2D GeP₃ with the buckling blue phosphorene-type honeycomb structure, showing strong interlayer quantum confinement and high carrier mobility up to 8.84×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ $s⁻¹$ for the bilayer [33]. Thereafter, a series of monolayer metal phosphides such as GaP₃ [34], InP₃ [35], SnP₃ [36] and TlP₅ [37], with high carrier mobilities have been theoretically predicted, which are candidates for optoelectronic applications. However, these 2D materials are not suitable for photocatalytic water splitting, because of their small band gap values or improper CBM/VBM positions. For example, monolayer SnP₃ only has an indirect band gap of 0.83 eV, albeit possessing very high carrier mobilities in the range of 3000-7000 cm² $V⁻¹$ s⁻¹ [38]. On the other hand, through proper element substitution, certain ternary compounds can be designed to fulfill the desired electronic properties. Typical examples involve $Si₂BN$ [39], $P₂SiS[40]$ and $BNBe₃$ [41]. Hence, it is expected that the band gap of monolayer GeP_3 can be intentionally adjusted by neighboring elements substitution.

In this work, two isoelectric monolayer compounds based on $GeP₃$ and GeAs₃ are designed, where part of the P/As atoms are replaced by S atoms. The resulting monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ well meet the desired band gap value and band edge positions required by water redox potentials. Through thermodynamic and kinetic stability as well as carrier mobility studies, we shall show the great potential of monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ in photocatalytic water splitting.

2. Computational methods

All calculations were based on density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in the Vienna *Ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP) [42]. The electrons considered as valence were 3d, 4s and 4p for Ge; 3s and 3p for P; 3s and 3p for S; 4s and 4p for As; 2s and 2p for O; 1s for H. Core electrons were replaced by projector augmented-wave (PAW) pseudopotentials [43]. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) within the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional form [44] was adopted for the exchange-correlation energy. The plane-wave kinetic energy cutoff was fixed to be 500 eV. The geometric structures were fully relaxed with the force convergence criterion set to 0.001 eV \AA ⁻¹, while all self-consistent electronic loops were regarded as convergent when the energy difference between two consecutive steps became less than 10^{-7} eV. A vacuum space of \sim 20 Å along the *z* direction was used to minimize the undesired interaction between the atomic layer and its periodic images. The Brillouin zone sampling was carried out using equal spacing Γ-centered 11×11×1 *k*-point mesh for structural relaxation. The Heyd-Scuseria-Ernzerhof (HSE06) screened exchange hybrid functional [45] was also adopted to characterize the electronic and optical properties more precisely. The phonon dispersion relations were calculated with the density functional perturbation theory as implemented in the PHONOPY code [46,47]. In addition, *ab initio* molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations were performed to assess the thermodynamic stability of the structures, where canonical ensembles (NVT) were used [48].

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Atomic structures and stability analysis

As shown in **Figs. 1a and 1b**, the optimized structure of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ $(Ge₂As₄S₂)$ monolayer is similar to the recently investigated GeP₃ [33], where only two P atoms in the hexagonal unit cell of $GeP₃$ are replaced by S atoms. Detailed geometric data are further listed in **Table 1**. The optimized lattice constant of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ is 6.77 Å with a buckling height of 1.91 Å, while the lattice constant of $Ge_2As_4S_2$ increases to 7.10 Å, accompanied by a corresponding 1.85 Å buckling height. The

visualization of the electron localization function (ELF) [49] is conducted to investigate the nature of the chemical bonding in $Ge_2P_4S_2$ (see **Fig. 1c**). The ELF values of 1, 0.5 and 0 correspond to fully localized electrons, free electron gas and the absence of electrons, respectively. A substantial concentration of electrons is found to reside along the Ge-P and Ge-S bonds, while the difference in the ELF values of various atoms exists, indicating the coexistence of covalent bond and ionic bond for Ge-P and Ge-S. The Bader charge analysis [50] further reveals that in $Ge_2P_4S_2$ the Ge/P atom has lost 0.54/0.02 e, while the S atom has gained 0.57 e; in $Ge₂As₄S₂$ the amount of electron loss is 0.43/0.12 e for the Ge/As atom and the amount of electron gain is 0.66e for the S atom. Subsequently, we calculated the cohesive energy *EC*, which is defined by $E_c = -[E_{total} - n_1 E(\text{Ge}) - n_2 E(\text{P/As}) - n_3 E(\text{S})]/(n_1 + n_2 + n_3)$ [51]. Here E_{total} stands for the energy of $Ge_2P_4S_2(Ge_2As_4S_2)$ per unit cell, $E(Ge)$, $E(P/As)$, and $E(S)$ are the energies of free Ge, $P(As)$ and S atoms, and n_1 , n_2 and n_3 are the numbers of Ge, $P(As)$ and S atoms per unit cell. We find E_C to be 3.40 eV/ atom for $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and 3.15 eV/atom for $Ge_2As_4S_2$, which are comparable with blue phosphorene (3.29 eV/atom) [52]. Hence, it is possible to experimentally synthesize monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ from an energetic point of view.

Fig. 1 (a) Top view and (b) side view of $Ge_2P(As)_{4}S_2$ monolayers in a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell. (c) Visualization of the electron localization function for monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$.

Table. 1 Calculated lattice constant *a*, buckling height *h*, cohesive energy *E*c, amount of charge transfer T_B between different atoms, band gaps E_g (at both PBE and HSE06 levels) of Ge2P4S2 and Ge2As4S2 monolayers.

	$a(\AA)$	$h(\AA)$	$E_{\rm c}$	$T_{\rm B}(e)$				$E_{\rm g}$ (eV)	
			(eV/atom)	Ge	S	P(As)		PBE HSE06	
$Ge_2P_4S_2$	6.77	1.91	3.40		-0.54 $+0.57$ -0.02		1.12	1.86	
$Ge2As4S2$	7.10	1.85	3.15		-0.43 $+0.66$ -0.12		1.21	1.89	

In addition, the phonon spectra of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers were calculated to examine their kinetic stability, as shown in **Figs. 2a and 2b**. No appreciable imaginary vibrational frequency modes are observed in the entire Brillouin zone for both $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers, proving that both two monolayers are kinetically stable. The thermal stability, however, can be tested by AIMD simulations at finite

temperatures, where in our case the simulations were carried out at 500 K for 6 *ps*, with a time step of 1 *fs*. As shown in **Figs. 2c and 2d**, no obvious disruption of the geometries is found and the total energies fluctuate in a narrow range, suggesting robust thermodynamic stability of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers up to 500 K. The mechanical stability of $Ge_2P_4S_2/Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers was further verified by calculating their linear elastic constants. As listed in **Table S1**, the elastic constants satisfy the corresponding mechanical stability conditions based on the Born criteria [53]: $C_{11} > 0, C_{44} > 0, C_{11} - C_{12} > 0$. The kinetic, thermodynamic and mechanical stabilities pave the way for experimental realization of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers.

Fig. 2 Phonon band structures of (a) $Ge_2P_4S_2$, and (b) $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers. The total energy fluctuations during AIMD simulations are shown for (c) $Ge_2P_4S_2$, and (d)

 $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers at 500K. The insets show snapshots of the structures after the 6 *ps* simulation time, in a 3×3 supercell.

Fig. 3 Electronic band structure and projected density of states (PDOS) of (a) $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and (b) Ge2As4S2 monolayers, calculated with the screened exchange HSE06 hybrid functional (solid line) and the PBE functional (dotted line). The pentagram points refer to VBM (blue) and CBM (red) locations, respectively.

3.2 Electronic structures and the strain effect

Figures 3a and 3b demonstrate the electronic band structures as well as the projected density of states (PDOS) of $Ge_2P_4S_2/Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers. Monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ is a semiconductor with an indirect band gap of 1.85 eV according to our HSE06 calculation. The PBE-predicted gap value is 1.12 eV, which is also indirect, though with the well-known band gap underestimation. The VBM lies at the *K* point whereas the CBM is at the Γ point. Unlike the Ge₂P₄S₂ monolayer, however, the Ge₂As₄S₂ monolayer presents direct band gap feature with VBM/CBM both located at Γ. The band gap value is 1.89 eV based on the HSE06 calculation (1.21 eV for PBE). A PDOS analysis (the right column of **Fig. 3)** reveals that

the conduction and valence bands involve contributions from all atoms in both materials. The VBM of $Ge_2P_4S_2(Ge_2As_4S_2)$ mainly consists of P 3*p* (As $4p$), Ge $4p$, S $3p$ and Ge $4s$ states, while the CBM of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ (Ge₂As₄S₂) mainly stems from S $3p$, P $3p$ (As $4p$) and Ge $4p$ states. In our electronic structure calculations, the spin-orbit coupling (SOC) effect was neglected, since we observed little impact on the band diagrams through turning on SOC, as confirmed by the band diagram comparison in **Fig. S1**.

Strain engineering is a feasible method to tune the band structure of 2D materials [54–58]. Hence, we further studied the evolution of band gap values upon the application of biaxial strain, using the PBE functional. Notwithstanding the issue of band gap underestimation, the consequence of strain on the band structure can be well described by PBE-calculations. Figure 4 shows that the band gap increases gradually and then drops slowly upon varying the applied strain from -6% to 6%. Notably, the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ monolayer turns into a direct gap semiconductor by adding an extra 3% compressive strain (**Fig. 4a**), while the $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayer becomes indirect band gap with an applied tensile strain of 1% (**Fig. 4b**). Moreover, the calculated strain energy as a function of the biaxial strain is also given in these figures. The band structure evolution upon applying biaxial strain is reasonable (**Figs. 4c and 4d**), thus applying strain is an effective way to delicately tune the electronic properties of $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers.

Fig. 4 Effect of strain effects on band gap and total energy (in energy variation ∆E) of (a) monolayer Ge2P4S2, and (b) monolayer Ge2As4S2. (c) The electronic band structure of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ with 3% compressive strain. (d) The electronic band structure of Ge2As4S2 with 1% tensile strain using the screened exchange HSE06 hybrid functional (solid line) and the PBE functional (dotted line). The Fermi level is set to zero energy and the pentagram points indicate the VBM (blue) and CBM (red) locations, respectively.

3.3 Band alignments and optical properties

As the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers possess suitable band gaps (>1.23 eV), it is worthwhile to explore their application potential as

visible light photocatalysts. Yet, certain criteria of suitable band edges should be complied with, namely the position of CBM must be higher than the hydrogen reduction potential H^+ / H_2 (-4.44 eV) while the VBM must be lower than the water oxidation potential of H_2O/O_2 (-5.67 eV). Our calculation results shown in **Fig. 5a** verify that the band edges of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers perfectly cover the redox potentials of water, fulfilling the thermodynamic requirements for water splitting. Moreover, the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ monolayer with 3% compressive strain also has favorable band edge positions for water splitting, and the direct gap feature would make it more beneficial over the strain-free counterpart.

Fig. 5 (a) VBM and CBM locations of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers with respect to the vacuum level (labeled as zero energy). The positions of the reduction potential of H^+ to H_2 and the oxidation potential of H_2O to O_2 are indicated by the blue dashed lines. (b) The calculated optical absorption coefficients of $Ge_2P_4S_2/Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers using the screened exchange HSE06 hybrid functional.

To efficiently harvest solar energy is another important requirement for photocatalysts. Hence, we further explored the optical properties of $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers by calculating the in- and out-of-plane absorption spectra using the HSE06 functional. The transverse dielectric function $\varepsilon(\omega) = \varepsilon_1(\omega) + i\varepsilon_2(\omega)$ is used to describe the optical properties of materials, where ω is the photon frequency, $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$ and $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$ are the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric function, respectively. The absorption coefficient can be evaluated according to the expression [59]

$$
\alpha(\omega) = \frac{\sqrt{2\omega}}{c} \left\{ \left[\varepsilon_1^2(\omega) + \varepsilon_2^2(\omega) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} - \varepsilon_1(\omega) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.
$$
 As shown in **Fig. 5b**, the absorption coefficients of monolayer Ge₂P(As)₄S₂ reach the order of 10⁵ cm⁻¹, which is comparable to that of the crystalline silicon for solar cells [60].
Out-of-plane absorption is larger than in-plane absorption in the invisible light region from 100 nm to 160 nm, while smaller than the latter in the wavelength region from 160 nm to ~600 nm. Overall, the Ge₂P(As)₄S₂ monolayers have considerable absorption in both ultraviolet and visible light regions.

3.4 Carrier mobility

Subsequently, we systematically calculated the carrier mobility (electrons and holes) based on the deformation potential (DP) theory proposed by Bardeen and Shockley [61]. The acoustic phonon-limited carrier mobility of homogeneous 2D materials can be evaluated by the following equation

[62–64]
$$
\mu_{2D} = \frac{e\hbar^3 C_{2D}}{k_B T m^* m_d (E_1^i)^2}
$$
, where \hbar is the reduced Planck constant, k_B

is the Boltzmann constant, *m** is the effective mass in the direction of transport, m_d is the average effective mass determined by $m_d = (m_d^* m_b^*)^{1/2}$, and *T* is the temperature (*T* = 300 K). The elastic modulus C_{2D} of the longitudinal strain in the propagation direction is derived from $(E - E_0)/S_0 = C_{2D} (\Delta l / l_0)^2 / 2$, where *E* is the total energy of the 2D structure, and S_0 is the lattice area of the equilibrium supercell. The deformation potential constant E_i^i is defined as $E_i^i = \Delta E_i / (\Delta l / l_0)$. Here ΔE_i is the energy change of the *i*th band under proper cell compression and dilatation (calculated using a step of 0.5%), l_0 is the lattice constant in the transport direction and Δl is the deformation of l_0 .

As summarized in **Table 2**, the effective masses of electrons and holes for Ge₂P₄S₂/Ge₂As₄S₂ monolayers along the *a* direction are 0.202/0.209 m_e and 1.669/0.123 m_e (m_e is the free electron mass), while those for the *b* direction are 0.395/0.836 *m*e (for electrons) and 1.656/0.418 *m*e (for holes), respectively. The elastic moduli are slightly anisotropic with the value of 54.14/48.46 N m⁻¹ and 43.72/42.55 N m⁻¹ for $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and Ge₂As₄S₂ monolayers along the *alb* directions, respectively. The deformation potential constants E_1 are small for $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$, except for the hole of $Ge_2As_4S_2$ along the *a* direction (7.54 eV). Based on the values of m^* , C_{2D} and E_1 , we estimated the carrier mobilities of $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers according to the Bardeen-Shockley formula. The electron

mobilities of monolayer Ge₂P₄S₂ are as high as $1.22/1.56 \times 10^4$ cm²V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along *a*/*b* directions. In contrast to the high electron mobilities, the hole mobilities are relatively low with the value of $0.08/4.20 \times 10^3$ cm²V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along *a*/*b* directions, respectively. The low hole mobilities mainly stem from their large effective masses. For monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$, the electron and hole mobilities are 2.03/4.45 and $0.59/45.68 \times 10^3$ cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along *a*/*b* directions, respectively. Note that for both materials the hole mobilities show great anisotropy, which implies that the homogeneous approximation is questionable, rendering the application of Bardeen-Shockley formula improper.

Therefore, we re-calculated the acoustic phonon-limited mobilities of Ge₂P(As)₄S₂ monolayers using a new formula proposed by Lang *et al.*, which considers the scattering from the other direction in 2D semiconductors [65]. The carrier mobility along the *a*-axis of anisotropic 2D materials can be calculated using the following equation [65]

$$
\mu_a = \frac{e\hbar^3 \left(\frac{5C_a^{2D} + 3C_b^{2D}}{8} \right)}{k_B T (m_a)^{\frac{3}{2}} (m_b)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{9E_a^2 + 7E_{ba}E_{1b} + 4E_{1b}^2}{20} \right)^2}.
$$

Through this formula, one can take into the account the anisotropic elastic constants or deformation potential constants, which in general tends to reduce the strong anisotropy stemming from the Bardeen-Shockley formula [66,67]. For monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$, Lang *et al.*'s formula yields

electron mobilities of 1.61×10^4 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 1.02×10^4 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along the *a* and *b* directions, respectively. For holes, the large anisotropy is greatly diminished, yielding 150 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 280 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along the *a* and *b* directions, respectively. Compared with monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$, however, the hole mobilities of monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ are homogenized to 1.24×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 760 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along the *a* and *b* directions, respectively. And for electrons, the mobilities are 3.42×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 1.37×10^3 cm²V⁻¹ s⁻¹ cm²V⁻¹ s⁻¹ along the *a* and *b* directions, where the *a*-direction now becomes the fast-transport direction. After fixing the treatment of carrier mobility anisotropy, the generally high carrier mobilities are still confirmed in $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers.

Table 2. Calculated effective mass m^* (unit: m_e), deformation potential constant $|E_1^i|$ (unit: eV), elastic modulus C_{2D} (unit: N m⁻¹), carrier mobility μ_{2D} (unit: 10^3 cm² V⁻¹s⁻¹) for monolayer Ge2P4S2/Ge2As4S2 along the *a* and *b* directions. For mobility, two distinct values are listed in the format of α/β, where α was obtained directly from the Bardeen–Shockley formula while β (underlined) was obtained using the new theory proposed by Lang *et al*. [65].

	Materials Carrier type m_a^* m_b^* $\left E_{1a}\right $				$ E_{1b} = C_a^{2D} = C_b^{2D}$	μ^{2D}_a	μ_b^{2D}
$Ge_2P_4S_2$	Electron					0.202 0.395 1.29 0.77 54.14 48.46 12.24/16.06 15.59/10.23	
	Hole					1.669 1.656 2.35 0.30 54.14 48.46 $0.08/0.15$	4.20/0.28
$Ge_2As_4S_2$ Electron		0.209				0.836 2.29 0.76 43.72 42.55 2.03/3.42	4.45/1.37
	Hole	0.123	0.418 7.53			0.46 43.72 42.55 0.59/1.24	45.68/0.76

3.5 Water adsorption and decomposition on the surface of 2D

Ge2As4S²

Last but not least, we have investigated the stability of $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers in liquid water, which is essential for their practical implementation as photocatalysts. To this end, AIMD simulations were performed at room temperature (300 K) with a time scale of 6 *ps*. Owing to the structural similarity, monolayer $Ge₂ As₄S₂$ was chosen to be the representative model system for both materials. Our results in **Fig. S2** demonstrate that monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ is still thermodynamically stable in liquid water at room temperature. The redox reactions of water on monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ were also investigated to further reveal the mechanism of photocatalytic hydrogen evolution. The adsorption energy of a species or functional group X on a 2D surface can be defined as

$$
E_{\text{ad}} = E(2D-X) - E(2D) - \mu_{\text{x}}
$$

where $E(2D-X)$ and $E(2D)$ are the total energies of the 2D material with and without the adsorbed X, respectively; μ_X is the chemical potential of X. We specify the chemical potential of water as the total energy of an isolated H_2O molecule. Yet, the chemical potentials of $-H$ and $-OH$ suffer from uncertainties. Here, two schemes are proposed: (1) their chemical potentials equal the total energies of isolated neutral H and OH function groups; (2) μ _H is chosen as a half of the H₂ molecule energy, while μ _{OH} satisfies $\mu_{OH} + \mu_{H} = \mu_{water}$. The first scheme is consistent with several previously published works [20,68–71], but the second scheme considers

that the source of surface –H and –OH is mainly water molecules. According to Scheme 1, the adsorption energies of H, OH and H_2O on monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ are -1.71 eV, -2.58 eV and -0.30 eV, respectively, favoring their surface adsorption. Using Scheme 2, we find the corresponding adsorption energies of H and OH become 0.56 eV and 0.52 eV, while the adsorption energy of H_2O is the same (-0.30 eV) by definition. It should be noted that the reaction energy of subsequent water decomposition on monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ is from -0.30 eV to 0.71 eV, indicating an endothermic reaction, which is similar to the water decomposition reaction on anatase $TiO₂$ surface [72]. In addition, the remotely separated hydrogen adatoms prefer to migrate close to each other, forming hydrogen molecules, when the photo-generated hydrogen atoms are adsorbed on monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ (Fig. 6b). It is beneficial that the endothermic reaction energy required for removing one H_2 molecule from monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ is only 0.05 eV, facilitating the release of produced H_2 from the surface, which is similar to the case of Zr_2CO_2 [20] and GeS [69]. These encouraging results list monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ as an excellent candidate for photocatalytic water splitting.

Fig. 6 (a) Adsorption configurations of H, OH, and H₂O, and decomposition mechanism of H₂O on monolayer Ge₂As₄S₂. (b) Interaction between two hydrogen adatoms, showing the formation and releasing of hydrogen molecules on/from monolayer Ge₂As₄S₂.

4. Conclusion

To summarize, the structural, electronic and optical properties of $Ge_2P_4S_2/Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers were investigated systematically through density functional theory calculations. The cohesive energy, phonon dispersions as well as AIMD simulation results demonstrate the high stability of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers. Monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ has a direct Γ-Γ band gap of 1.89 eV, while monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ is an indirect band gap semiconductor with 1.85 eV gap value, which can become direct band gap by applying 3% compressive strain. Attractively, the band

edge positions of $Ge_2P(As)_4S_2$ monolayers perfectly meet the requirement of the reduction and oxidation levels for water splitting. Moreover, the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers show great anisotropy, and the highest acoustic phonon-limited electron mobilities are 1.606×10^4 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 3.42×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively. Their high carrier mobilities and moderate optical absorption in the visible-light wavelengths add to their application potential in photocatalytic water splitting.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant No. 11704134, and the Hubei "Chu-Tian Young Scholar" program. K.-H. Xue received support the China Scholarship Council (No. 201806165012).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

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Support Information for

Promising photocatalysts with high carrier mobility for water splitting in monolayer Ge2P4S2 and Ge2As4S²

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The 2D elastic constants matrix components *C*11*, C*12*, C*²² and *C*44 of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers are calculated, as listed in **Table S1**. For 2D materials, the corresponding mechanical stability conditions based on the Born criteria¹ are $C_{11} > 0, C_{44} > 0, C_{11} - C_{12} > 0$.² Obviously, the elastic constants stratify above mentioned conditions, suggesting that the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers are mechanically stable. Furthermore, the Young's modulus $E_x(E_y)$ is defined as $E_x = C_{11} - \frac{C_{12}^2}{C_x}$, $E_y = C_{22} - \frac{C_{12}^2}{C_x}$ $T_{11} - \frac{C_{12}}{C_1}, E_y = C_{22} - \frac{C_{12}}{C_2}$ 22 C_{11} $E_x = C_{11} - \frac{C_{12}^2}{C_1}, E_y = C_{22} - \frac{C_2}{C_1}$ C_{22} C $=C_{11} - \frac{C_{12}}{G}$, $E_v = C_{22} - \frac{C_{12}}{G}$.³ It can be observed that E_x and E_y are very close both for the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and

 $Ge₂As₄S₂$ monolayers, indicating the weak structural anisotropy. The

Young's modulus of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ monolayer along the *x* and *y* direction are 46.89 and 49.84 N m-1, while that is 42.12 (*x* direction) and 43.45 N m-1(*y* direction) for $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayer, respectively. Compared to other 2D materials, the Young's modulus of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers are smaller than that of graphene $(344.2 \text{ N m}^{-1})^{-4}$ and MoS_2 $(130 \text{N m}^{-1})^5$ monolayers, indicating that the $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers are rather flexible material.

Table S1 Effective independent elastic constants $(C_{ii}$, in N m⁻¹), and Young's moduli $(E_x, E_y, \text{ in N m}^{-1})$ of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ and $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers.

		C_{11} C_{12} C_{22} C_{44} E_x E_y		
$Ge_2P_4S_2$ 47.59 5.94 50.48 21.48 46.89 49.84				
$Ge_2As_4S_2$ 43.37 7.48 44.74 18.20 42.12 43.45				

Fig. S1 The band structures of monolayer (a) $Ge_2P_4S_2$; and (b) $Ge_2As_4S_2$ with/without spin-orbit coupling (SOC) effects using HSE06 functional.

Fig. S2 The vibration of the total energies for $Ge₂ As₄S₂$ monolayers during *ab initio* molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations in the water environment at 300K. The insets show snapshots of the structures after the 6 ps simulation time with 3×3 supercell with six water molecule.

Fig. S3 (a) Crystal structure and (b) the corresponding first Brillouin zone with high symmetry points of Ge₂P(As)₄S₂ monolayers in an orthogonal

supercell.

Fig. S4 (a) Electronic band structure of $Ge_2P_4S_2$ monolayer in an orthogonal supercell; (b) Total energy difference between the unstrained and strained $Ge_2P_4S_2$ monolayers along the *a* and *b* directions; (c) Energy shift of VBM and CBM for monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ with respect to the lattice dilation and compression along the *a* direction; (d) Energy shift of VBM and CBM for monolayer $Ge_2P_4S_2$ with respect to the lattice dilation and compression along the *b* direction.

Fig. S5 (a) Electronic band structure of $Ge₂ As₄S₂$ monolayer in an orthogonal supercell; (b) Total energy difference between the unstrained and strained $Ge_2As_4S_2$ monolayers along the *a* and *b* directions; (c) Energy shift of VBM and CBM for monolayer $Ge_2As_4S_2$ with respect to the lattice dilation and compression along the *a* direction; (d) Energy shift of VBM and CBM for monolayer $Ge₂ As₄S₂$ with respect to the lattice dilation and compression along the *b* direction.

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