

Interfacial Metal Nanocluster Conduits Direct Charge Transfer for Record Unassisted Solar Water Splitting

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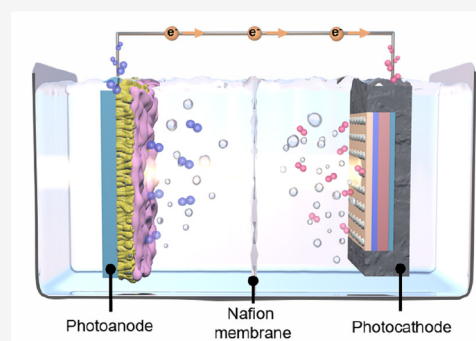
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ABSTRACT: Photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting offers one of the most promising solutions for sustainable solar-to-chemical fuel conversion. However, sluggish charge migration across the photoelectrode interface fundamentally limits the PEC efficiency. Herein, we design and engineer an atomic-scale interfacial charge conduit by inserting metal nanoclusters between the cocatalyst and semiconductor. The distinct work-function differences among the cocatalyst, metal nanoclusters, and semiconductor induce interfacial band bending, enabling the selective, directional transport of photogenerated carriers from the semiconductor to the cocatalyst. Particularly, bismuth (Bi) nanoclusters synthesized through a universal laser-induced *in situ* growth strategy on 29 distinct bismuth-based semiconductors induce the formation of metal/semiconductor Schottky junctions and directionally steer electron migration into the semiconductor conduction band while effectively suppressing electron–hole recombination. Benefiting from the Bi nanoclusters and CoFe cocatalyst, the large-area ($3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$) earth-abundant CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode achieves a photocurrent of 26 mA at 1.1 V versus RHE, maintaining stable performance for 600 h. For practical application, an all-oxide-semiconductor tandem PEC device combining a CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode and a Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode records an unassisted 4.8% solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency under AM 1.5G light illumination for 70 h. This work demonstrates the atomic-scale engineering of interfacial charge conduits for high-efficiency solar energy conversion.



INTRODUCTION

Solar energy-driven photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting provides a sustainable and renewable approach for green hydrogen production.^{1,2} However, various semiconductor photoelectrodes, such as Si,³ TiO₂,⁴ α -Fe₂O₃,⁵ BiVO₄,⁶ Ta₃N₅,⁷ and WO₃,⁸ present intrinsic drawbacks with high defect-state densities, sluggish surface reaction kinetics, and restricted carrier mobilities,^{9,10} hindering solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency. To address these problems, metal/semiconductor interface engineering has emerged as an effective strategy.^{11–14}

In conventional PEC devices, metal/semiconductor contacts typically form Schottky or ohmic junctions, depending on the work-function difference.^{15–17} However, in practice, surface states and interfacial defects often pin the Fermi level of semiconductor photoelectrodes, rendering the Schottky junction insensitive to the metal work function. In general, work-function difference compensation is governed by surface-state charges rather than space charges (Figure 1a).^{18,19} Consequently, the nature of metal/semiconductor contacts and their potential barriers significantly affect the band structure of the semiconductor and thus charge transfer. Noble metals (e.g., Au, Pt, and Pd) are commonly employed in interface construction through atomic layer deposition, wet

chemical reduction, or photoreduction.^{20–23} Yet, precisely regulating interface contact and enabling directional charge transport remain challenging.

Herein, we design an atomic-scale interfacial charge conduit to induce directional photogenerated charge transfer via metal nanoclusters inserted between the cocatalyst and semiconductor in an integrated photoanode. Notably, the work-function difference of the cocatalyst, metal nanoclusters, and semiconductor results in band bending at the photoanode surface, expediting charge transfer. Concurrently, the cocatalyst promotes the extraction of photogenerated holes and accelerates water oxidation kinetics. In particular, we develop a universal laser-induced *in situ* growth method to deposit metallic Bi nanoclusters on the surface of Bi-based semiconductor photoanodes (29 distinct Bi-based semiconductor photoanodes are studied). A large-area ($3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$) CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ nanoarray photoanode with incorporated Bi nano-

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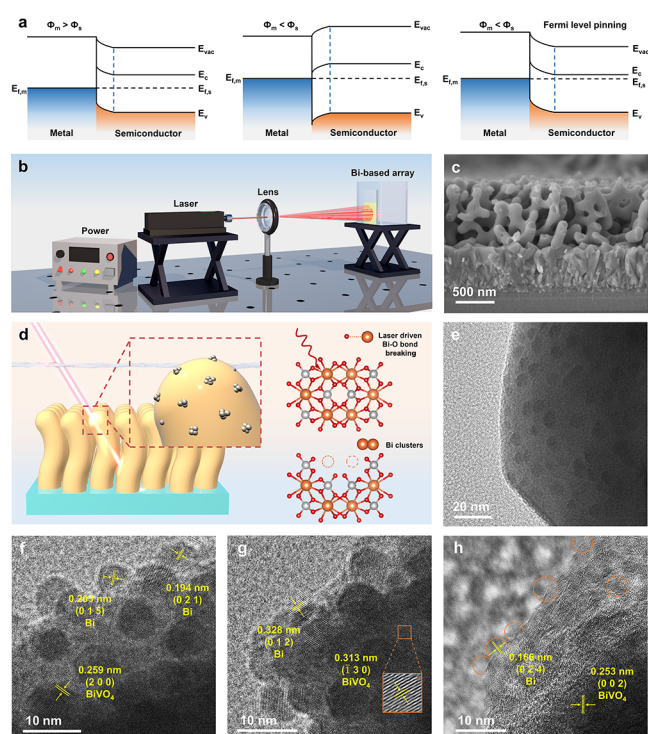


Figure 1. Laser-induced *in situ* growth of Bi nanoclusters. (a) Band diagrams showing the interactions between different metals and semiconductors. (b) Schematic illustration showing the experimental apparatus. (c) High-resolution cross-sectional SEM image of Bi/BiVO₄. (d) Schematic illustration of the *in situ* grown Bi nanoclusters on a BiVO₄ nanoarray. TEM images of Bi/BiVO₄ prepared after (e, f) 20 min and (g) 30 min of laser irradiation at a laser intensity of 550 mW cm⁻² and after (h) 20 min of laser irradiation at a laser intensity of 250 mW cm⁻².

clusters is able to deliver a photocurrent of 26 mA at 1.1 V versus reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) for over 600 h. When coupled with a Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode, the tandem PEC device records a 4.8% solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency under AM 1.5G light illumination for 70 h. This work opens a new direction for interfacial charge transfer engineering to achieve high-efficiency solar energy conversion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Laser-Induced *In Situ* Growth of Bi Nanoclusters

Bi nanoclusters were formed on the surface of the BiVO₄ photoanode by a laser-induced *in situ* growth method (Figure 1b). During the growth process, the Bi–O bond was partially broken under infrared laser irradiation at a wavelength of 1064 nm, facilitating the *in situ* growth of Bi nanoclusters (Figure 1d). No characteristic peaks of metallic Bi are observed in the XRD pattern due to the low content of Bi nanoclusters (Figure S1). All diffraction peaks for BiVO₄ and Bi/BiVO₄ nanoarrays can be assigned to monoclinic BiVO₄ (JCPDS PDF #14-0688).²⁴ The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of BiVO₄ and Bi/BiVO₄ (laser intensity of 550 mW cm⁻² for 10 min) in Figures 1c and S2 present no discernible morphological differences, but some Bi nanoclusters are observable in Bi/BiVO₄ from the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) measurements shown in Figure S3. Extending the laser irradiation time to 20 min increased the

number of Bi nanoclusters (~6 nm) (Figure S6), which were homogeneously dispersed on the surface of the BiVO₄ nanoarray. The lattice fringes of 0.194 and 0.203 nm observed in the high-resolution TEM image correspond to the (021) and (015) crystal planes of Bi clusters (JCPDS PDF #44-1246) (Figure 1e,f). Further extending the laser irradiation time to 30 min caused the aggregation of Bi nanoclusters (Figure 1g). On the other hand, lowering the laser intensity to 250 mW cm⁻² decreased both the density and size of the Bi nanoclusters on the BiVO₄ surface (Figure 1h), while prolonging the laser irradiation time and increasing the laser intensity led to agglomeration of the Bi nanoclusters as well as damage to the BiVO₄ surface (Figure S4). Consequently, the size and density of Bi nanoclusters can be properly controlled on the BiVO₄ surface by adjusting the laser intensity and irradiation time. Compared with conventional Bi deposition methods, the laser-induced *in situ* growth method offers a much more convenient approach to grow high-density and uniformly sized Bi nanoclusters on BiVO₄ (Figure S5).

A Universal Strategy to Grow Bi Nanoclusters on Bi-Based Semiconductors

To examine the generalizability of the laser-induced *in situ* growth method for depositing Bi nanoclusters, we fabricated 29 different Bi-based oxide and oxyhalide semiconductor nanoarrays. TEM characterizations reveal the uniform formation of Bi nanoclusters on the surfaces of all 29 Bi-based semiconductors (Figures 2 and S7–S38), indicating a universal strategy for the laser-induced method to grow Bi nanoclusters.

The structural symmetry dependent Bi–O bonding characteristics fundamentally govern Bi nanocluster formation. p-BiVO₄ exhibits a higher Bi–O binding energy than its n-type counterpart, attributed to the enhanced structural symmetry.^{25,26} As a result, the average size of the Bi nanoclusters synthesized on p-BiVO₄ (~5.0 nm) is smaller than that of the Bi nanoclusters synthesized on n-BiVO₄ (~6.0 nm) (Figures 2m and S34). This trend extends to Aurivillius-phase Bi₂MO₆ (M = W, Mo, Cr), where the Bi–O binding energy scales with the M-site electronic configuration: Bi₂WO₆ > Bi₂MoO₆ > Bi₂CrO₆. The interaction of Cr–O in Bi₂CrO₆ weakens the bonding energy of the Bi–O bond.^{27–29} This results in a larger Bi nanocluster size on Bi₂CrO₆ than on Bi₂WO₆ (Figures 2o,p and S9–S11). Notably, van der Waals layered BiOX (X = Cl, Br, I) displays a Bi–O binding energy inversely correlating with the X⁻ ionic radius and electronegativity.^{30–32} Enhanced chemical bonding networks and strengthened van der Waals interactions are found to increase the Bi–O bond stability, thus suppressing Bi nanocluster growth (Figures 2a,i,j and S29–S31). The findings presented above reveal the widespread applicability of the laser-induced *in situ* growth method for forming Bi nanoclusters on Bi-based semiconductors.

Laser-Induced *In Situ* Growth Mechanism of Bi Nanoclusters

The laser-induced *in situ* growth process may involve an “excitation-removal” sequence initiated by a 1064 nm far-infrared laser (Figure 3a). Multiphoton absorption under far-infrared laser excitation could lead to an optical resonance effect.³³ In the presence of ethylene glycol as a reducing agent, this effect facilitates the escape of Bi atoms from the surface. Taking n-BiVO₄, p-BiVO₄, Bi₂WO₆, and BiOCl as representative examples, high-resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis of the Bi 4f spectra reveals the presence of

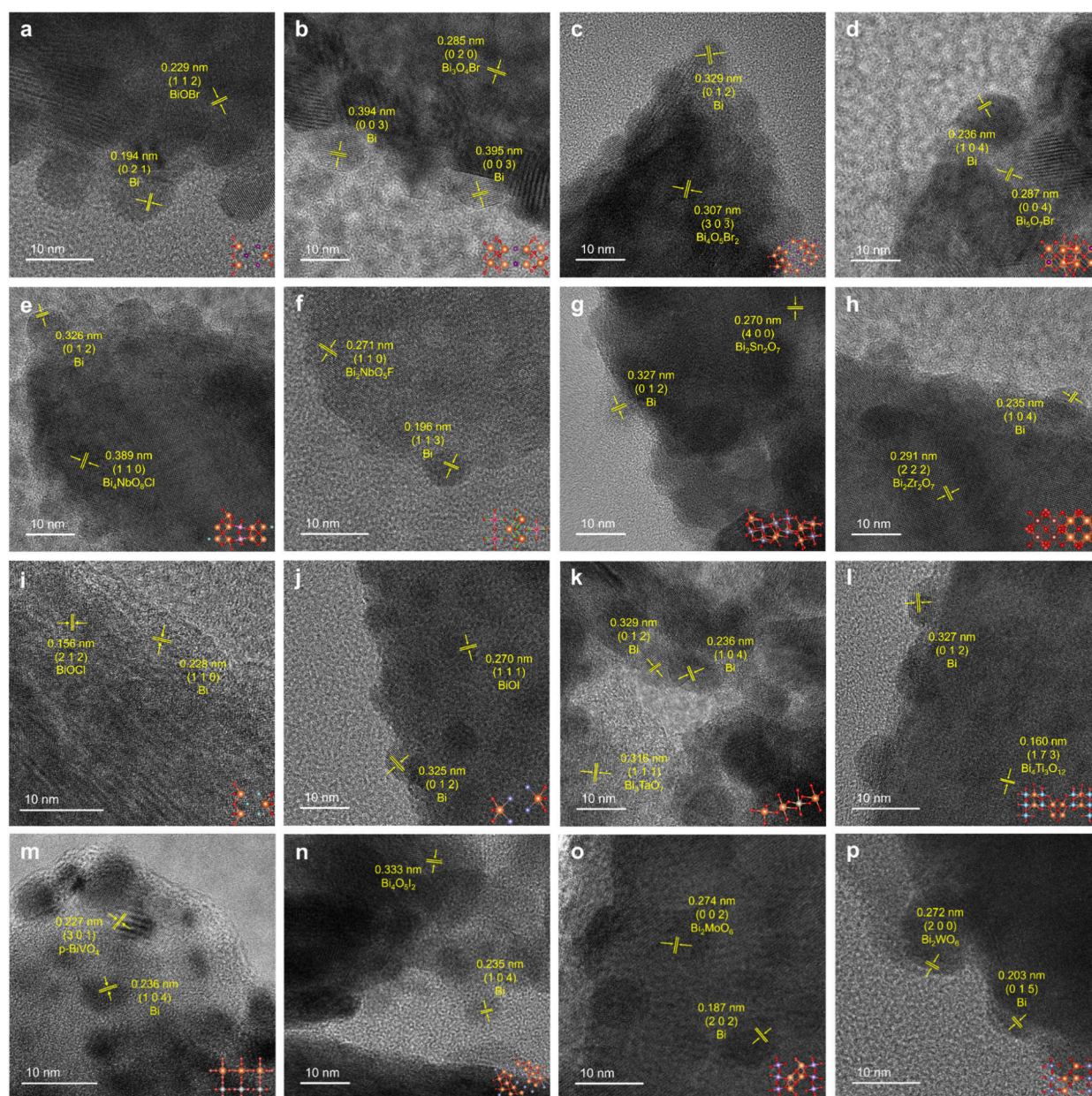


Figure 2. A universal strategy for forming Bi nanoclusters on Bi-based semiconductors. HRTEM images of (a) Bi/BiOBr, (b) Bi/Bi₃O₅Br, (c) Bi/Bi₄O₅Br₂, (d) Bi/Bi₅O₇Br, (e) Bi/Bi₄NbO₈Cl, (f) Bi/Bi₂NbO₅F, (g) Bi/Bi₂Sn₂O₇, (h) Bi/Bi₂Zr₂O₇, (i) Bi/BiOCl, (j) Bi/BiOI, (k) Bi/Bi₃TaO₇, (l) Bi/Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂, (m) Bi/p-BiVO₄, (n) Bi/Bi₄O₅I₂, (o) Bi/Bi₂MoO₆, and (p) Bi/Bi₂WO₆ prepared by laser-induced *in situ* growth at a laser intensity of 550 mW cm⁻² for 20 min.

Bi⁰ on these Bi-based semiconductors after the laser-induced *in situ* growth process (Figures S39–S42). As shown in Figure 3c,e,g,i, two characteristic peaks are observed in the O 1s XPS spectra. The peak centered at ~530 eV is assigned to lattice oxygen. The peak at ~531.5 eV is attributed to surface hydroxyl species or defect associated oxygen environments, which are commonly correlated with oxygen vacancy related surface states. The formation of oxygen vacancy related defects was further validated by electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy. As shown in Figure 3d,f,h,j, the EPR signals at $g = 2.003$ correspond to electrons trapped at oxygen vacancies.^{40,41} As schematically illustrated in Figure 3b, oxygen atoms can be more readily removed at the Bi nanocluster/Bi-based semiconductor interface to generate oxygen defects.^{34–39} Figure 3k–n shows the oxygen vacancy formation process over

n-BiVO₄, p-BiVO₄, Bi₂WO₆, and BiOCl during laser-induced *in situ* growth of Bi nanoclusters.

PEC Performance

To elucidate the role of metal nanoclusters in charge transport across the metal/semiconductor interface, we compared the work-function evolution, band structure modification, and charge carrier dynamics in Bi/BiVO₄, Au/BiVO₄, Pt/BiVO₄, and Pd/BiVO₄ systems with those of Bi, Au, Pt, and Pd nanoclusters. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) reveals an increased apparent work function in BiVO₄ for all M/BiVO₄ (M = Au, Pt, Pd) due to their higher intrinsic work functions relative to that of BiVO₄ (Figures S43–S46). Pt/BiVO₄ exhibits the largest increase, consistent with the highest work function of Pt.^{42–45} However, owing to the low intrinsic work function of Bi, the apparent work function of BiVO₄

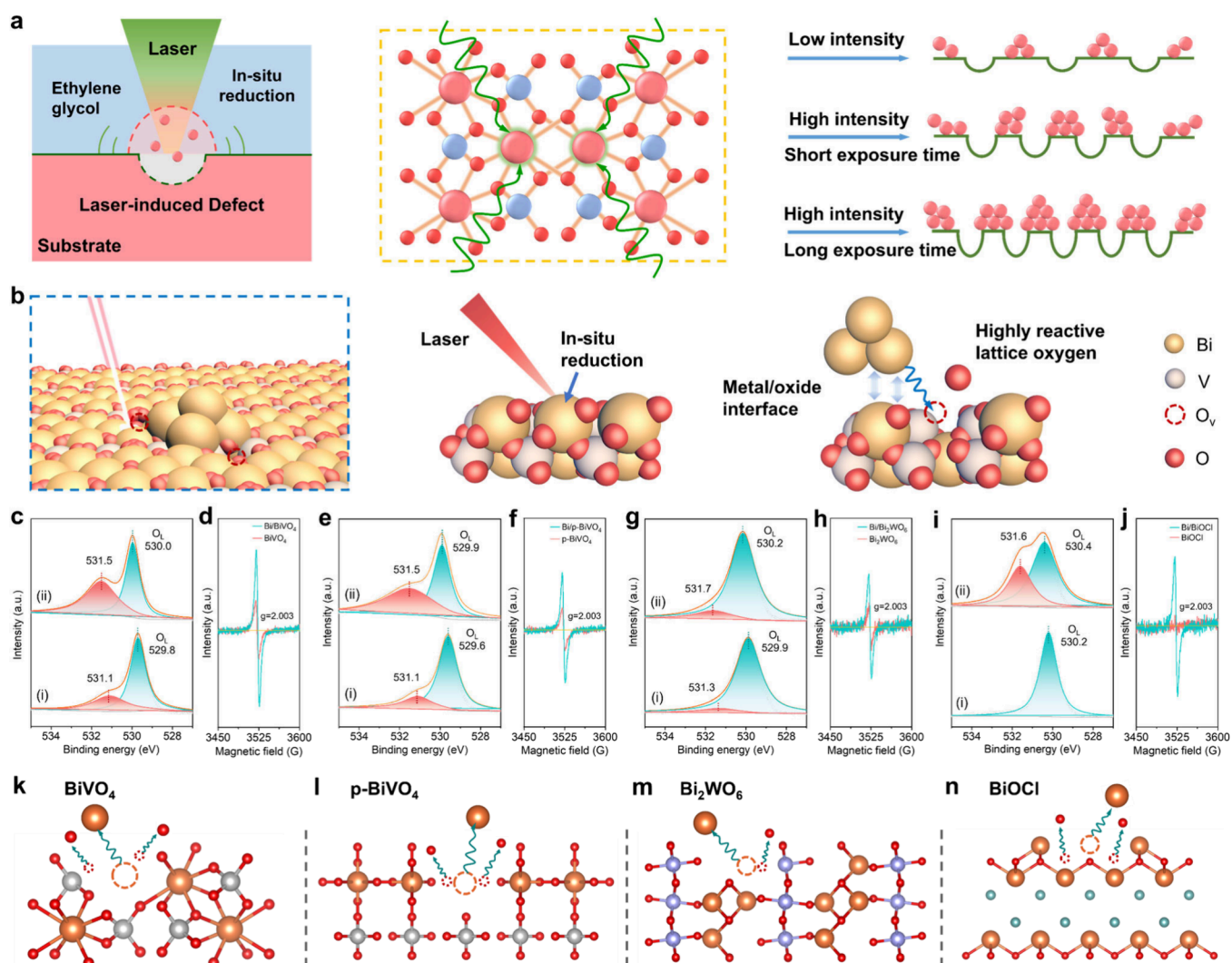


Figure 3. Laser-induced *in situ* growth mechanism of Bi nanoclusters. (a) Schematic illustration showing laser-induced *in situ* synthesis of Bi nanoclusters. (b) Schematic illustration showing the oxygen vacancy formation mechanism. High-resolution O 1s XPS spectra and EPR signals recorded over (c, d) Bi/BiVO₄, (e, f) Bi/p-BiVO₄, (g, h) Bi/Bi₂WO₆, and (i, j) Bi/BiOCl in comparison with pristine semiconductors. Structural illustration showing the formation process of oxygen vacancies on (k) BiVO₄, (l) p-BiVO₄, (m) Bi₂WO₆, and (n) BiOCl.

increases marginally in Bi/BiVO₄ (Figure S47), and the electrons can be transferred to the conduction band of BiVO₄ through Bi nanoclusters.

Moreover, the charge carrier dynamics in metal/BiVO₄ were probed. To enhance hole extraction for water oxidation, a CoFe-MOF cocatalyst (CoFe) was deposited onto the metal/BiVO₄ substrates (Figures S48–S53). The photoluminescence (PL) spectrum of CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ displays the lowest PL intensity (Figure S54) in comparison to CoFe/Au/BiVO₄, CoFe/Pd/BiVO₄, and CoFe/Pt/BiVO₄, revealing the suppressed radiative recombination in CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄. The overall recombination dynamics were further elucidated by time-resolved photoluminescence (TR-PL) and photoelectrochemical analyses. The TR-PL spectrum of CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ shows a longer τ_2 value and average charge carrier lifetime (τ_{ave}) compared to CoFe/Au/BiVO₄ and CoFe/Pd/BiVO₄, indicating reduced recombination, whereas CoFe/Pt/BiVO₄ exhibits the shortest charge carrier lifetime, comparable to that of CoFe/BiVO₄ (Figures 4d and S55, Table S1). Mott–Schottky (M-S) measurements reveal an enhanced carrier concentration in CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ (Figure S56 and Table S2).

PEC measurements disclose negligible photocurrent enhancement for CoFe/Au/BiVO₄ and CoFe/Pd/BiVO₄ compared to CoFe/BiVO₄, with CoFe/Pt/BiVO₄ exhibiting an even slightly decreased photocurrent (Figure S57). Moreover, controlled experiments were conducted to elucidate the role of oxygen vacancy related defects. The results indicate that while Bi nanoclusters and oxygen vacancy related defects individually contribute to improved charge separation (Figures S58–S61), the superior performance of CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ arises from their synergistic integration via the laser-induced *in situ* growth process, which enables uniformly dispersed Bi nanoclusters and the optimal interfacial defect environment that suppresses charge recombination and promotes selective electron transport. Taken together, the band alignment and charge transport mechanisms in metal/BiVO₄ and CoFe/metal/BiVO₄ are shown in Figures 4a–c and S62–S67. In detail, the incorporation of a CoFe cocatalyst with a higher work function than pristine BiVO₄ induces strong band bending at the semiconductor/cocatalyst interface. The enlarged space charge region and suppressed electron–hole recombination promote the extraction of photogenerated holes. Moreover, noble

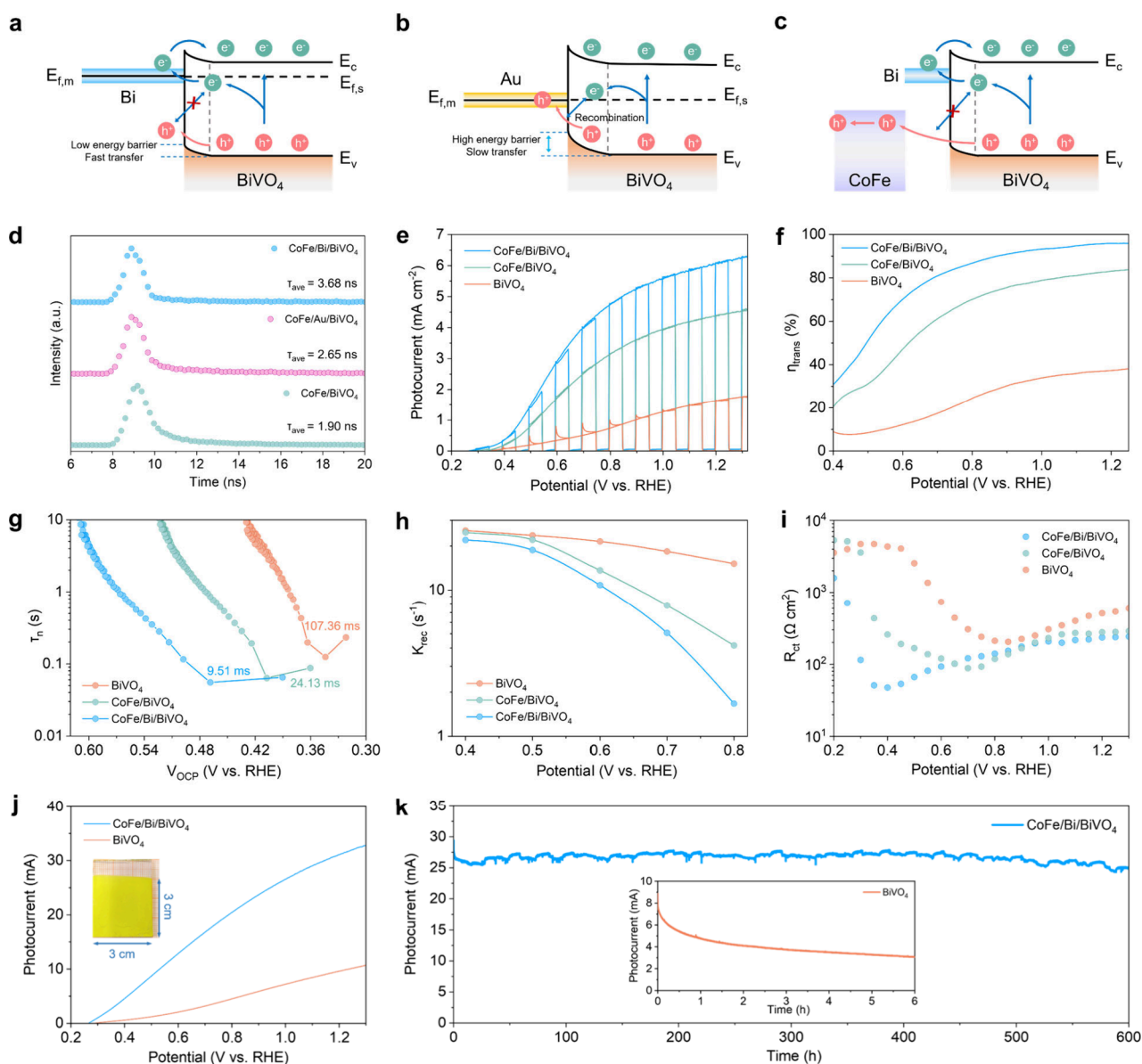


Figure 4. Band diagrams of (a) Bi/BiVO₄, (b) Au/BiVO₄, and (c) CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄. (d) TR-PL decay profiles of CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄, CoFe/Au/BiVO₄, and CoFe/BiVO₄. (e) LSV curves, (f) charge transfer efficiencies, (g) OCP-derived charge carrier lifetimes, (h) K_{rec} at various potentials extracted from IMPS measurements and (i) R_{ct} as a function of applied potential from PEIS for BiVO₄, CoFe/BiVO₄, and CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄. (j) LSV curves of the 3 × 3 cm² BiVO₄ and CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanodes. (k) $J-t$ curves of the 3 × 3 cm² BiVO₄ and CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanodes recorded at 1.1 V versus RHE.

metals such as Pt, Pd, and Au at the interlayer between the CoFe cocatalyst and BiVO₄ still serve as the hole transfer layer, adding negligible contribution toward boosting PEC performance owing to the excellent hole extraction capability of the CoFe cocatalyst. In contrast, Bi nanoclusters at the interlayer can facilitate electron transfer into the conduction band of BiVO₄ and thereby further suppress charge recombination, while the oxygen vacancy related defects facilitate assist charge separation and selective carrier transport. Thus, the synergistic contribution of Bi nanoclusters, oxygen vacancies, and CoFe cocatalysts in the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode significantly enhances the PEC performance.

By finely tuning the laser intensity and laser exposure time, the optimized CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode (laser intensity: 550 mW cm⁻²; laser exposure time: 20 min) with structural characterization shown in Figures S68–S73 reaches the highest

photocurrent density of 6.07 mA cm⁻² at 1.23 V versus RHE (Figures 4e, S74, and S75). Figures S76 and S77 display the incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) and applied bias photon-to-current conversion efficiency (ABPE) curves. The CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode improves the charge separation and charge transfer efficiencies across the entire examined voltage range (Figures 4f and S78). From transient open-circuit potential (OCP) decay measurements (Figure S79), the charge transfer time in CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ is found to be significantly reduced (Figure 4g). The intensity-modulated photocurrent spectra show a reduced charge recombination constant (K_{rec}) for CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄, accompanied by an increased charge transfer constant (K_{trans}) (Figures 4h, S80, and S81). The calculated charge diffusion coefficient (D_n) for CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ (1.73×10^{-6} cm² s⁻¹) is more than twice that for BiVO₄ (6.69×10^{-7} cm² s⁻¹) (Figures S82 and S83). From

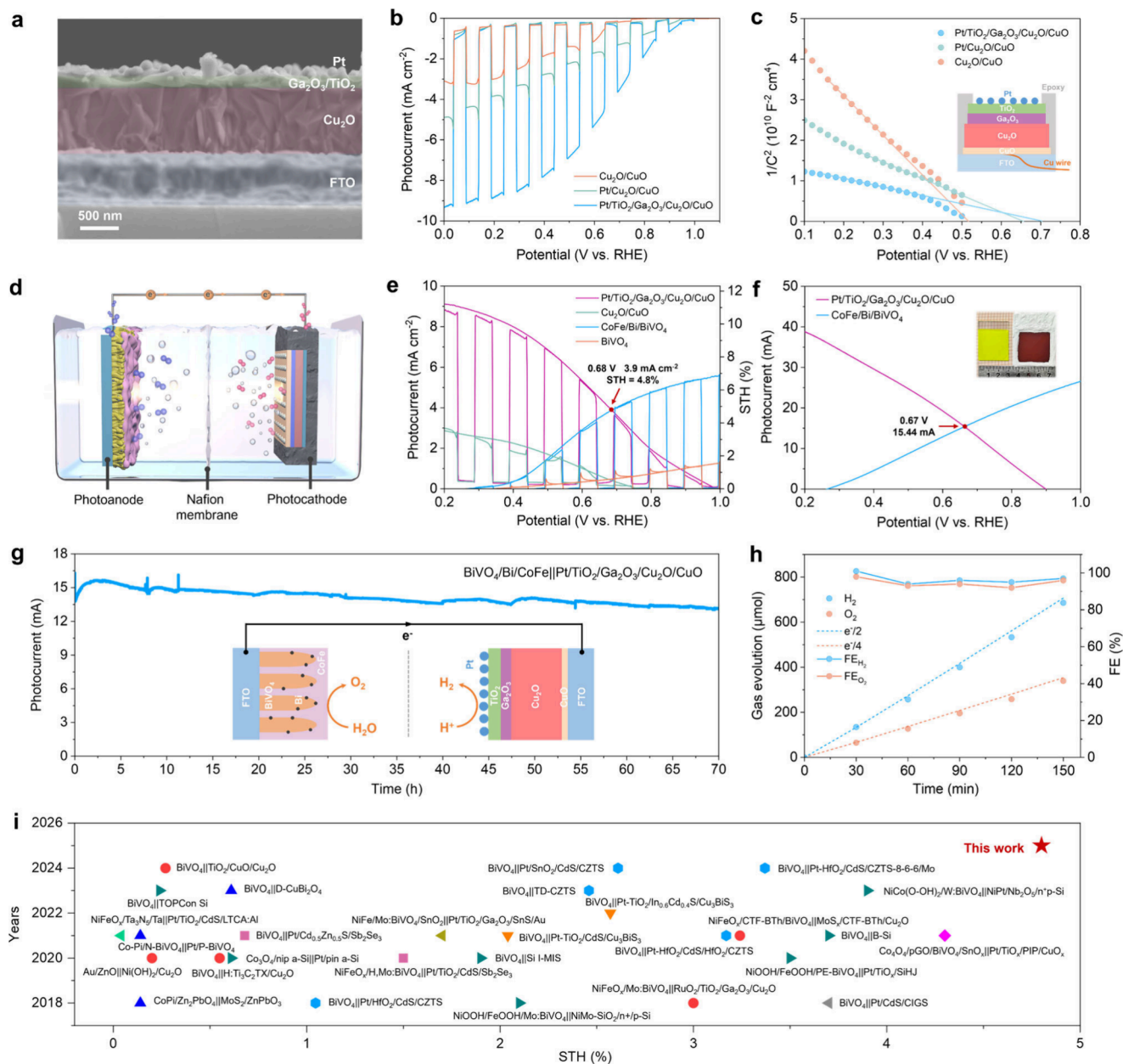


Figure 5. Unassisted PEC water splitting. (a) Cross-sectional SEM image of Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO. (b) LSV curves and (c) Mott–Schottky plots of Cu₂O/CuO, Pt/Cu₂O/CuO, and Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO. (d) Schematic illustration showing an unassisted PEC water splitting device. (e) Chopped current–potential curves of different BiVO₄-based photoanodes and Cu₂O-based photocathodes with a 1 × 1 cm² working area. (f) Current–potential curves of the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode and Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode with a 3 × 3 cm² working area. (g) *J*–*t* curve showing the unassisted PEC water splitting device comprising a 3 × 3 cm² CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode and a 3 × 3 cm² Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode. Inset shows a schematic illustration. (h) Time dependent H₂ and O₂ evolution and the corresponding Faradaic efficiencies. (i) Performance comparison of unassisted PEC water splitting devices based on semiconductor photoelectrodes. Detailed information for each point is given in Table S3.

Figures 4i and S84–S86, the analyses of surface capacitance (C_s) and interface charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) in the photoelectrochemical impedance spectroscopy (PEIS) spectra indicate that the C_s displays a typical Gaussian behavior for BiVO₄, which increases along with a decrease in R_{ct} , suggesting that the interfacial charge transfer of water oxidation occurs through surface states, in agreement with the cyclic voltammetry (CV) results shown in Figure S87.^{46,47} In contrast, the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode exhibits a potential independent surface capacitance profile. This suggests the formation of a surface layer capacitance arising from the

adsorption of oxy/hydroxyl species during the photocharging process, revealing a more complex surface state comprising both oxygen vacancies and adsorbed species.^{48,49} The above collective analysis demonstrates that the greatly enhanced PEC performance of CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ originates from the construction of a Bi/BiVO₄ Schottky electron-blocking layer and interfacial oxygen vacancies, which effectively inhibits electron–hole recombination and facilitates efficient charge separation; meanwhile, the CoFe cocatalyst accelerates hole extraction to promote the water oxidation kinetics.

To assess the practical application potential, a $3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$ CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode was fabricated, which delivers an impressive photocurrent of 31.6 mA in comparison to 9.9 mA over a $3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$ pristine BiVO₄ photoanode. Notably, the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode retains 93.8% of the initial photocurrent at 1.1 V versus RHE after 600 h of continuous operation (Figure 4j,k), indicating its excellent PEC stability. Furthermore, post characterization based on XRD, XPS, and Raman spectroscopy indicated minimal structural changes of the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode after PEC water oxidation reaction at 1.1 V versus RHE (Figures S88–S92).

Development of an Unassisted PEC Water Splitting Device

In the pursuit of practical solar-driven H₂ production, it is essential to develop an unassisted PEC device that can operate without external energy input. Such an unassisted PEC water splitting device can be constructed by coupling the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode to a suitable photocathode. Cu₂O-based photocathodes display a suitable Fermi level, and therefore, a Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode (Figure 5a) was fabricated, in which CuO acted as a back layer on fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) to enhance hole transfer; Ga₂O₃ was incorporated as a buffer layer to facilitate band alignment; TiO₂ served as a protective layer; and Pt nanoparticles acted as the cocatalyst for the hydrogen evolution reaction (Figures S93 and S94). Under AM 1.5G light illumination, the Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode obtains a maximum photocurrent density of 9.3 mA cm⁻² at 0 V versus RHE (Figure 5b), displaying a p-type semiconductor characteristic (Figure 5c).

An unassisted PEC water splitting cell was fabricated by connecting the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode to the Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode by using a conductive wire (Figure 5d), in which solar light was irradiated from the photoanode to the photocathode. Figure 5e shows the chopped current–potential curves of the CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode and the Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode with a $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ working area, which intersect at a photocurrent density of 3.9 mA cm⁻², giving an estimated solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency of 4.8% for the unassisted PEC water splitting device.^{50,51} This value is among the best values in the literature for unassisted PEC water splitting devices based on earth-abundant semiconductors (Figure 5i and Table S3). Importantly, this predicted operating point was further validated by a two-electrode measurement of the integrated tandem system under zero external bias, which exhibited a consistent bias-free photocurrent density (Figure S95). A larger working area ($3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$) CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ + Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO device exhibits an operating photocurrent density of 15.44 mA (Figure 5f), which can be stably operated for 70 h without obvious photocurrent decay (Figure 5g). The decrease in photocurrent density and STH efficiency upon area enlargement can be mainly attributed to scale-up related factors, including increased series resistance, non-negligible ohmic losses in the electrolyte and current collectors, as well as more pronounced mass transport limitations and gas-bubble accumulation over a larger electrode surface.^{52–54} The PEC reaction products were quantified by gas chromatography (GC), giving a stoichiometric ratio (2:1) of hydrogen to oxygen with nearly 100% Faradaic efficiencies (Figure 5h).

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have developed a simple laser-induced *in situ* growth method to construct Bi nanocluster interfacial charge conduits over Bi-based semiconductors, which effectively tailor band bending and steer directional charge transfer, greatly boosting the PEC performance. A $3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$ CoFe/Bi/BiVO₄ photoanode delivers a photocurrent of 26 mA at 1.1 V versus RHE under AM 1.5G light illumination for over 600 h. Connecting to a Pt/TiO₂/Ga₂O₃/Cu₂O/CuO photocathode, the all-oxide-semiconductor tandem PEC device achieves unassisted water splitting under solar light irradiation, recording a 4.8% solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency. This work provides new insights for interfacial charge transfer engineering toward achieving high-efficiency solar energy conversion.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.6c01306>.

Detailed experimental procedures, photoelectrochemical measurements, XRD spectra, SEM and TEM images, XPS spectra, PEC tests, UV–vis spectra, and PEC data summary (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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