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Unfolding the Role of *B*-Site-Selective Doping of Aliovalent Cations on Enhancing Sacrificial Visible-Light-Induced Photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ Evolution over BaTaO₂N

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ABSTRACT:

Doping of foreign cations and anions is one of the effective strategies for engineering the defects and modulating the optical, electronic, and surface properties that directly govern the photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution reactions. BaTaO₂N (BTON) is a promising 600-nm-class photocatalyst because of its absorption of visible light up to 660 nm, small band gap (E_g = 1.9 eV), appropriate valence bandedge position for oxygen evolution, good stability under light irradiation in concentrated alkaline solutions, and nontoxicity. Although the photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical water splitting efficiencies of BaTaO2N have been progressively improved, it is still far from the requirements set for practical applications. Here, we employ a 5% B-site-selective doping of aliovalent metal cations (Al3+, Ga3+, Mg2+, Sc3+, and Zr4+) to enhance sacrificial visible-light-induced photocatalytic H2 and O₂ evolution over BaTaO₂N. The results of physicochemical characterizations reveal that no significant change in crystal structure, crystal morphology, and optical absorption edge is observed upon cation doping. Therefore, the difference observed in the O2 and H2 evolution during the photocatalytic reactions over pristine and doped BaTaO2N photocatalysts is explained by involving the optical, electronic, and surface properties. Also, molecular dynamics (MD) is used to gain insights into the respective effect of cation doping on adsorption energy of water molecules and formed intermediates (H* for H₂ evolution and HO*, O* and HOO* for O₂ evolution) on the BaTaO₂N surfaces terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra. Finally, the experimental reaction rates for H₂ and O₂ evolution are correlated well using a linear energy-performance relationship, elucidating the doping and surface-termination trends observed in the BaTaO₂N photocatalysts.

KEYWORDS: Oxynitrides; BaTaO₂N; Doping; Water splitting; Photocatalysis; Molecular modeling; Adsorption energy

1. INTRODUCTION

Unlike their oxide counterparts, mixed-anion compounds exhibit unique electronic and atomic structures and physicochemical properties that can be effectively tuned by changing their anionic features specifically for energy conversion.¹⁻³ Recent studies have discovered various key characteristics of mixed-anion compounds, which cannot be otherwise observed in single-anion analogs.⁴⁻⁶ Among them, transition-metal oxynitrides with perovskite-type structures are an emerging class of mixed-anion compounds with interesting optoelectronic, photocatalytic, photoelectrochemical, dielectric, and magneto-resistive properties that are sensitive to the surface local structure and oxide-nitride anion ordering.⁷⁻¹⁰

As a typical representative of the $AB(O,N)_3$ perovskites, cubic BaTaO₂N is regarded as one of the promising 600-nm-class photocatalysts due to its absorption of visible light up to 660 nm, small band gap (E_g = 1.9 eV), appropriate valence band-edge position for oxygen evolution achieved by a 4-electron transfer (4HO⁻ \rightarrow 4 e^- + 2H₂O + O₂), good stability under light irradiation in concentrated alkaline solutions, and nontoxicity. The Co cocatalyst-modified BaTaO₂N photoanode prepared by a particle transfer method generated a photocurrent of 4.2 mA·cm⁻² at 1.2 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) under simulated sunlight. The FeNiO_x cocatalyst-modified Ta₃N₅-nanorods/BaTaO₂N photoanode fabricated by combining glancing angle deposition and dip coating techniques yielded a photocurrent of ~4.5 mA·cm⁻² at 1.2 V vs. RHE under simulated sunlight. The CoO_x-deposited BaTaO₂N/Ta₂N/Ta photoanodes produced a photocurrent of 4.6 mA·cm⁻² at 1.2 V vs. RHE and exhibited a 9% IPCE at 600 nm during water oxidation under simulated sunlight. Further, an unprecedented photocurrent of 6.5 mA·cm⁻² at 1.23 V vs. RHE was achieved for Ar-annealed BaTaO₂N during sunlight-driven water oxidation.

Although the photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical water splitting efficiencies of BaTaO₂N have been progressively improved, it is still far from the requirements set for practical applications. Therefore, various promising strategies have been developed to improve the photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical water splitting efficiencies of BaTaO₂N, including creating a solid-solution,

developing a new synthesis approach, reducing the defect density, selecting appropriate oxide precursors, controlling the exposed surface, engineering an effective cocatalyst, etc. For instance, Maeda and Domen¹⁶ achieved the solar water splitting to produce H₂ and O₂ above 660 nm using a BaZrO₃-BaTaO₂N solid solution as an anode material in a photoelectrochemical cell with an external bias of 1.0 V (vs. Pt). BaTaO₂N synthesized from the nitridation of (Na_{1/4}Ba_{3/4})(Zn_{1/4}Ta_{3/4})O₃ exhibited an enhanced oxygen evolution activity with an apparent quantum yield of 11.9% at 420 nm. 17 A one-step NH₃-assisted flux growth method was demonstrated to enhance the water-splitting activity of BaTaO₂N via reducing the defect density, which is generally resulted from a long hightemperature nitridation. 18,19 Recent studies on the effect of different exposed surfaces found that the BaTaO₂N crystals with well-developed {111} facets²⁰ and co-exposed {100} and {110} facets²¹ can exhibit a significantly enhanced photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution in comparison to the BaTaO₂N with only {100} facets. Very recently, the sequential decoration of Pt cocatalyst on RbClflux-grown BaTaO₂N particulates by impregnation-reduction followed by a site-selective photodeposition led to over 100 times more efficient H₂ evolution than before, with an apparent quantum yield of 6.8% at 420 nm, and a solar-to-hydrogen energy conversion efficiency of 0.24% in Z-scheme water splitting.²²

One of the effective strategies to enhance the water-splitting efficiency is modifying the physicochemical and photophysical properties by an intentional introduction of foreign cations with different radii and valences into the *A*-site and/or *B*-site of *AB*(O,N)₃ and *AB*O₃ perovskite hosts. In this way, the band-edge position, optical absorption, charge density, charge mobility, charge separation, electrical conductivity, defect density, etc. can be modified to combat low water-splitting efficiency.²³ The SrCl₂ flux-mediated Al doping in SrTiO₃ resulted in an apparent quantum efficiency of 30% at 360 nm in the overall water splitting reaction.²⁴ Recently, Mg-modified BaTaO₂N exhibited an apparent quantum efficiency as high as 2.59% at 420±20 nm due to the stronger Ta–O/N bonds, lower concentration of Ta⁴⁺ defects, and positive shift of band-edge positions.²⁵ The partial substitution of Ta⁵⁺ cations in BaTaO₂N by higher valent Mo⁶⁺ was found to increase the donor density effectively, enhancing the photoelectrochemical water splitting under visible light irradiation.²⁶ On

the other hand, doping of a lower-valent cation to intentionally introduce oxygen vacancies and decrease Ti³⁺-related defects was effective to enhance the photocatalytic activity of SrTiO₃ for water splitting.²⁷

In this context, we demonstrate the effect of *B*-site doping of select aliovalent metal cations of lower valency on enhancing the sacrificial photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution of BaTaO₂N (BTON) under visible light irradiation. Particularly, the present study emphasizes on the elucidation of the respective physicochemical correlation between the photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution reaction rates and adsorption energy of intermediates (obtained from molecular dynamics simulations) for BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts synthesized by the flux method. Therefore, the rationalization of the experimental kinetics data is provided through the adsorption energy-performance plots, which has not been reported previously for the BTON-based photocatalysts. In fact, this highlights the important role of surface properties in complex photocatalytic systems. Specifically, the influence of divalent (Mg²⁺), trivalent (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺, and Sc³⁺), and tetravalent (Zr⁴⁺) cations on optoelectronic properties, adsorption energy of chemical species (H₂O, H⁺, H^{*}, and H₂ for HER and H₂O, HO*, O*, HOO*, and O₂ for OER), and sacrificial photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution on BaTaO₂N is studied.

2. EXPERIMENTAL

2.1. Synthesis

Pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts were synthesized by a flux-mediated ammonolysis method. All reagents used in this study were purchased from FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation. Reagent-grade BaCO₃ (99.9%) and Ta₂O₅ (99.9%) were employed as solute, and KCl (99.5%) was used as flux. Al₂O₃, Ga₂O₃, MgO, Sc₂O₃, and ZrO₂ (>99%) were used as dopant sources. Solute with a concentration of 50 mol%, flux, and dopant (5%) source were dry mixed manually in a stoichiometric ratio (Table S1) for 30 min using an agate mortar and a pestle. The well-homogenized mixture was transferred into a platinum crucible (4.0 cm³), heated at 900°C for 7 h × 2 times, with an intermediate mixing with the KCl flux between heating, at a heating rate of 600°C·h⁻¹ under an NH₃ flow (200 mL·min⁻¹), and cooled naturally. The resulting powder samples were

collected, washed with dilute HNO₃ and deionized water repeatedly, and dried at 100°C for 12 h. According to the dopant type, the BaTaO₂N photocatalysts were denoted as BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr.

2.2. Characterization

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were acquired with a MiniflexII (Rigaku) diffractometer using Cu- K_{α} radiation (λ = 0.15418 nm) in the 2θ scan range from 5° to 80° and compared with entries from the ICDD-PDF-2 powder diffraction pattern database. The nano- and microstructures of the samples were observed using an ARM-200FC transmission electron microscope (JEOL) and a JSM-7600F field-emission-type scanning electron microscope (JEOL) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, respectively. The UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra were measured on a UV-3600 UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer (Shimadzu). The measured reflectance spectra were then converted to the Kubelka-Munk function, and the bandgap values were estimated using the Tauc plots. ²⁸ The surface chemical compositions and chemical states were analyzed by means of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (JPS-9010MC, JEOL) with nonmonochromated Mg- K_{α} radiation (1253.6 eV). The details of density functional theory (DFT) calculations and transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS) measurements are given in Supporting Information.

2.3. Photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution tests

The photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution half-reactions were separately carried out in a Pyrex® side-irradiation-type reaction vessel connected to a gas-closed-circulation system equipped with a gas chromatograph (GC-8A, TCD, Shimadzu) and a vacuum pump. A 300 W Xe arc lamp (Cermax-PE300BF, PerkinElmer) with a UV-cutoff filter (L42, HOYA) and a cold mirror (CM-1, Optline) was employed as a visible-light source, and the irradiance of visible light was 200 mW·cm⁻². For O₂ evolution, 100 mg of CoO_x-loaded photocatalyst, 300 mL of 10 mM AgNO₃ (sacrificial electron scavenger), and 200 mg of La₂O₃ (pH buffer) were used, while 100 mg of Pt-loaded photocatalyst and 300 mL of 10 vol% aqueous methanol solution were employed for H₂ evolution. Pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts were loaded with CoO_x (2 wt% Co) and Pt (0.5 wt%) nanoparticles as O₂ and H₂ evolution cocatalysts by impregnation in aqueous solutions of

Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (>99.5%, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation) and H₂PtCl₆·2H₂O (Kanto Chemicals, 97% Pt), followed by heating at 700°C for 1 h under an NH₃ flow (200 mL·min⁻¹) and reoxidizing at 200°C for 1 h in air and at 200°C for 1 h under H₂ atmosphere, respectively.

2.4. Molecular modeling of adsorption

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were applied to estimate potential energy for the adsorption of water and methanol molecules onto the predominant (110) surface of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N.²⁹⁻³¹ The adsorption energy of the interactions of water and methanol molecules on the predominant (110) surface of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N was calculated by Forcite and Adsorption Locator modules in BIOVIA Materials Studio 2017 software. The simulations were performed with a slab thickness of 5 Å, a supercell of 4×6 , and a vacuum of 20 Å along the c axis in the simulation box with a size of $(16.45 \times 23.26 \times 34.54)$ Å³ in periodic boundary conditions to exclude arbitrary boundary effect. Adsorption on the exposed surfaces with different terminations was studied in the following assumptions: (i) the adsorption surface mainly contains the TaO₆ octahedra, (ii) the adsorption surface mainly contains the TaN₂O₄ octahedra. During the MD simulations, the adsorption-desorption equilibria and effects of different chemical species (H₂O, H⁺, H^{*}, and H₂ for HER and H₂O, HO^{*}, O^{*}, HOO^{*}, and O₂ for OER) were also taken into consideration to understand the relationship between the adsorption and photocatalytic activity of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The XRD patterns of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts are shown in Figure 1a. All samples have identical reflections assignable to the perovskite phase BaTaO₂N with cubic structure with space group $Pm\overline{3}m$ (ICDD PDF 01-084-1748). The absence of emerging reflections attributable to the foreign crystalline phases indicates that pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts with high phase-purity can be successfully synthesized by applying current synthesis conditions. Figure 1b shows the enlarged XRD patterns indicating the change in the 2θ angle position of the (110) reflection. A slight shift of reflections towards a higher 2θ angle is noted when Ta⁵⁺ is partially substituted by Al³⁺ (53.5 pm) or Ga³⁺ (62 pm) in the octahedral coordination, suggesting the lattice

volume contraction due to the introduction of dopants with smaller ionic radii (Figures 1b and 1c). Also, a slight shift of reflections towards a lower 2θ angle is observed when Ta^{5+} (64 pm) is partially substituted by Mg^{2+} (72 pm), Sc^{3+} (74.5 pm) or Zr^{4+} (72 pm) in the octahedral coordination, indicating the lattice volume expansion due to the incorporation of dopants with larger ionic radii (Figures 1d-f). On the contrary, the cosubstitution of Mg^{2+} and Zr^{4+} for Ta^{5+} in Ta_3N_5 was followed by the O^{2-} -to- N^{3-} substitution to compensate the imbalance of ionic charge, and the concurrent substitution of O^{2-} for N^{3-} reduced the extent of lattice expansion.³² Since the content of aliovalent metal cations replacing the Ta^{5+} partially in the octahedral coordination is limited to 5%, small octahedral tilting and structural distortion as well as change in the O:N ratio are expected, which can influence the band structure, band gap, light absorption, and photocatalytic activity.

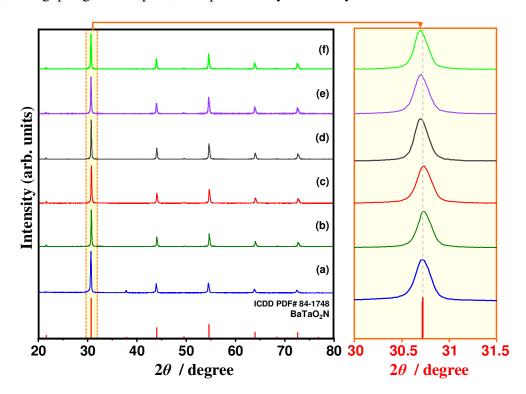


Figure 1. XRD patterns of BTON (a), BTON:Al (b), BTON:Ga (c), BTON:Mg (d), BTON:Sc (e), and BTON:Zr (f).

The effect of doping on overall morphology and particle size of BaTaO₂N photocatalysts was examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figure 2 shows the SEM images and corresponding particle-size distribution histograms of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N

photocatalysts. As shown, the BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts have a similar morphology, where the plate-like submicron-sized structures dominate over other structures having an idiomorphic shape with well-developed crystal facets. Two-dimensional platelike structures are known to provide a short bulk-to-surface travel distance for photogenerated charge carriers, suppressing the recombination, and a large section area for obtaining a sufficient photon flux density, promoting the charge separation and transfer for efficient photocatalytic reactions.³³ Due to its cubic crystal structure, BaTaO₂N commonly crystallizes into a cubic shape even when Ba₅Ta₄O₁₅ with plate-like structures is involved as an intermediate phase. 18 Nevertheless, because of a small lattice mismatch (0.7%) in the atomic arrangements of the Ba₅Ta₄O₁₅ (001) plane and the BaTaO₂N (111) plane, ²⁰ plate-like submicron-sized structures of BaTaO₂N were successfully synthesized under current synthesis conditions, which are advantageous for improving the photocatalytic performance for H₂ and O₂ evolution. Similarly, Luo et al.²⁰ have also synthesized platy BaTaO₂N crystals with well-developed {111} facets via the simultaneous formation and transformation of Ba₅Ta₄O₁₅ using K₂CO₃/KCl binary flux and achieved an excellent photocatalytic performance for H₂ evolution. In contrast, the number of plate-like structures is significantly reduced, and irregular structures with idiomorphic shape become prevailing in the BTON:Mg. This implies that the Mg²⁺ dopant tends to influence the total interfacial free energy and kinetic factors stronger than other dopants. The BTON has an average particle size of 47 nm, which is increased to 162, 165, 127, 163, and 164 nm by introducing the Al3+, Ga3+, Mg2+, Sc3+, and Zr4+ dopants, respectively, indicating the crystal growth promoted by dopants. The bright-field transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts in Figure S1 also confirm the existence of plate-like submicron-sized structures along with idiomorphic crystals. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images show a 0.29-nm spacing between the parallelly adjacent lattice fringes, which agrees well with the {110} lattice spacing of BaTaO₂N, and no clear defects in the analyzed area of the crystallite are noted, corroborating their high crystallinity. Irregular diffraction spots observed in the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns are indexed to the (110), (200), (211), and (220) planes of cubic BaTaO₂N, revealing the randomly oriented nature of crystallites.

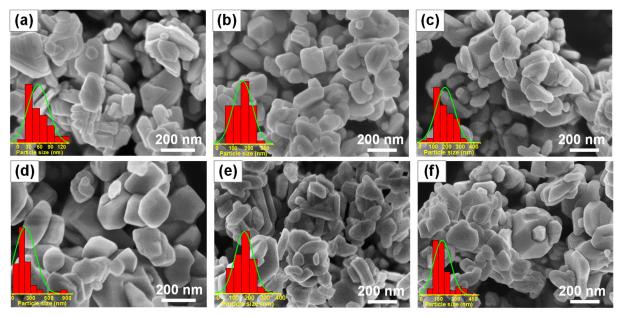


Figure 2. SEM images of BTON (a), BTON:Al (b), BTON:Ga (c), BTON:Mg (d), BTON:Sc (e), and BTON:Zr (f).

Figure 3 shows the UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO2N photocatalysts. The BTON shows an absorption edge at 665 nm, corresponding to the band gap of 1.86 eV. The UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of cation-doped BTON photocatalysts resemble that of BTON, showing a steep onset in light absorption at about 665 nm with a mild change. Accordingly, a slight change in the bandgap energy value, which was estimated by extrapolating the straight-line portion of the absorption spectra to zero absorbance, is observed for BTON:Al (1.84 eV), BTON:Ga (1.85 eV), BTON:Mg (1.91 eV), BTON:Sc (1.86 eV), and BTON:Zr (1.89 eV) photocatalysts. It can be noted in Figure 3 that only the BTON:Mg photocatalyst possesses the brightest reddish-brown color compared to other BTON photocatalysts with a slightly darker reddish-brown color and shows a sub-band gap absorption beyond the absorption edge due possibly to the presence of anion vacancy or variation in the O:N ratio. In general, the bandgap enlargement/diminution is observed by the tilting of the octahedra stemming from the insertion of cations with different sizes.³⁴ Such pronounced trend is not observed here because the changes in the structural distortion and octahedral tilting are relatively insignificant due to a small amount of dopant used and less bond angle variations.^{35,36}

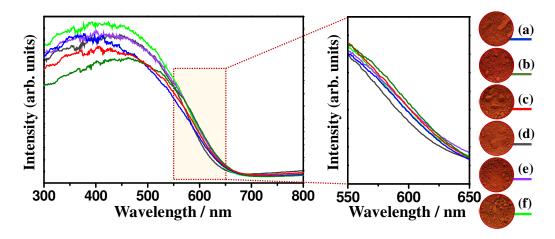


Figure 3. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra and digital photographs of BTON (a), BTON:Al (b), BTON:Ga (c), BTON:Mg (d), BTON:Sc (e), and BTON:Zr (f).

The XPS survey spectra in Figure S2 confirm the presence of Ba, Ta, O, N, Al, Ga, Mg, Sc, Zr, and adventitious carbon in pristine and cation-doped BaTaO2N photocatalysts. The amount of dopant and O:N ratio estimated by EDS and XPS analyses are 0% and 2.27 for BTON, 5.2% Al and 2.17 for BTON:Al, 4.8% Ga and 2.08 for BTON:Ga, 5.1% Mg and 2.50 for BTON:Mg, 4.7% Sc and 2.13 for BTON:Sc, and 4.9% Zr and 2.32 for BTON:Zr, respectively. The XPS valence band (VB) spectra were measured for all photocatalysts after Ar etching to remove surface defects and Pt coating to mitigate surface charge effect. As shown in Figure S3, the XPS-VB spectra corrected using the C 1s peak shifts show the relative positions of the valence band maximum edges of BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr at 1.74, 1.60, 1.50, 1.67, 1.37, and 1.77 eV, respectively. Knowing that $E_g = E_{VB} - E_{CB}$, the relative positions of the corresponding conduction bands (E_{CB}) were estimated, using the bandgap values (E_{g}) measured experimentally by ultravioletvisible spectroscopy and the relative positions of the valence bands (E_{VB}) analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, to be -0.12, -0.24, -0.35, -0.24, -0.49, and -0.12 eV for BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr, respectively (Figure S4). The conduction bands in oxynitride compounds are dominated by the Ta 5d orbitals, while the valence bands are determined by the O 2p and N 2p orbitals with a strong dependence on the energy of the N 2p states.³⁷ In addition, for *n*-type semiconductors, the Fermi level is close to the potential of the conduction band. According to the E_{CB} values estimated for pristine and cation-doped BTON photocatalysts, it should be noted that the modification of BaTaO₂N with divalent (Mg²⁺) and trivalent (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺ and Sc³⁺) cations shifts the respective E_{CB} to more negative values, which is consistent with the partial modification by substitution for Ta⁵⁺. In contrast, modification with a tetravalent cation (Zr⁴⁺) does not change the E_{CB} value compared to that obtained for pristine BTON presumably due to the compensation provided by the change of E_{VB} to more positive values. This is possible if it is considered that the incorporation of a dopant with higher ionic radii (Zr⁴⁺) leads to a greater substitution of O²⁻ for N³⁻ to compensate the ionic charge imbalance³², justifying the change in the E_{VB} in the BTON:Zr.

The effect of the B-site-selective doping of aliovalent metal cations on sacrificial visible-lightinduced photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution was studied. Figure 4 shows the half-reaction time courses for the photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution over pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts loaded with CoO_x and Pt cocatalysts, respectively. The total amount of evolved O₂ reached 503.6, 446.8, 416.2, 316.3, 252.5, and 188.0 µmol for BTON:Mg, BTON:Zr, BTON:Sc, BTON, BTON:Ga, and BTON:Al within 5 h, respectively. This implies that the Mg²⁺, Sc³⁺, and Zr⁴⁺ dopants had a positive effect on improving the photocatalytic O₂ evolution, while the Al³⁺ and Ga³⁺ dopants influenced negatively. In contrast, the BTON showed the lowest H_2 evolution (30.5 μ mol) within 5 h, which was increased to 50.1, 56.7, 61.8, 80.4, and 117.4 μ mol by doping with Ga³⁺, Mg²⁺, Sc3+, Zr4+, and Al3+. Although the BTON:Mg and BTON:Al independently exhibited the highest amounts of evolved O₂ (503.6 µmol) and H₂ (117.4 µmol) among the synthesized BTON photocatalysts, respectively, the BTON:Zr showed the high photocatalytic activities in both O₂ (446.8 μ mol) and H₂ (80.4 μ mol) evolution reactions. Since there is no large difference in crystal structure, particle size, particle morphology, and light absorption, the varying amounts of O₂ and H₂ evolved during the photocatalytic half-reactions over pristine and cation-doped BaTaO2N photocatalysts can be interpreted by involving the optical, electronic, and surface properties.

Kisch and Bahnemann³⁸ stated that for the photocatalytic systems based on suspensions of semiconductor particles in dissolved substrates, the reaction rates are suitable for comparison. In fact, rates must be measured with the same type of photoreactor under identical irradiation conditions, and it is important that the intensity of the incident light is integrated in the same wavelength range. The

following reaction rates were estimated for pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts: 6.59, 21.92, 10.27, 11.59, 12.12, and 16.44 μmol H₂·h⁻¹ for BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr at AM1.5 G illumination (200 mW·cm⁻²), respectively, indicating that the higher H₂ evolution rate was achieved using Al dopant. Maeda and Domen¹⁶ reported a 14.1 μmol H₂·h⁻¹ rate using the BaZrO₃-BaTaO₂N (Zr/Ta=0.05) solid-solution photocatalyst under AM1.5 G illumination using methanol as sacrificial reagent. Using the same photocatalytic reaction system, Domen and coworkers²² achieved an apparent quantum yield (AQY) of 6.8% at 420 nm for BaTaO₂N photocatalyst with an optimized cocatalyst decoration, which generated about 220 μmol H₂·h⁻¹ under AM1.5 G illumination. The reaction rates of O₂ and H₂ evolution over pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts are tabulated in Table S2 in Supporting Information.

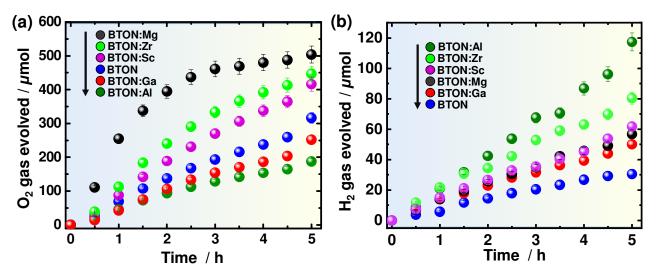


Figure 4. Reaction time courses for photocatalytic O_2 (a) and H_2 (b) evolution over BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr. For photocatalytic O_2 evolution reaction, 100 mg photocatalyst loaded with CoO_x cocatalyst (2 wt% Co), aqueous solution of AgNO₃ (10 mM, 300 mL), and 200 mg La_2O_3 (pH buffer) were used. For photocatalytic H_2 evolution reaction, 100 mg photocatalyst loaded with Pt cocatalyst (0.5 wt%) and aqueous solution of methanol (10 vol%, 300 mL) were used. Light source was 300 W Xe lamp fitted with a cutoff filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm) and a cold mirror (CM-1), and a side-irradiation-type reaction vessel was used in this study.

Exploring the linkage of the photocatalytic activities of pristine and cation-doped $BaTaO_2N$ photocatalysts with the optical, electronic, and surface properties allows to gain insights into the effect of the factors governing the photocatalytic O_2 and H_2 evolution. Considering the UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of pristine and cation-doped $BaTaO_2N$ photocatalysts, presumably there is an

increase in the density of holes with cation doping in our study. 40 As mentioned earlier, the bandgap values vary slightly upon cation doping, indicating only the ability of the photocatalysts to absorb a large proportion of visible light (<665 nm). The results from DFT-HSE12s calculations (Supporting Information) reveal that the p-type doping of aliovalent cations reduces the bandgap value possibly due to the formation of defects and the shift of the top of the valence band toward the conduction band and vice versa (Figure S5), allowing more visible-light photons to be involved in the photocatalytic reactions. Apparently, the p-type doping of BaTaO₂N causes the shift of the Fermi level due to the lack of electrons in the cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts because the charge balance is not compensated ^{41,42} in comparison to the charge compensated models. ⁴³ The direct-type transition of BaTaO₂N was retained when doped with aliovalent cations. The DOS plots in Figure S6 confirm that the valence band predominantly consists of O p and N p states and the conduction band contains Ta d states. Although 12.5 at% dopant was involved during ab initio modeling, the distribution pattern of the electronic states remains primarily unchanged, and the other electron states are insignificant. In all cases, the relative change in the population of electronic states with the modification by cation doping supports the possibility that there are differences in the density of the charge carriers of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts when irradiated.

In fact, it was previously reported that the co-doping of BaTaO₂N with Mg and Zr could result in the generation of high population of long-lived electrons, altering the charge-transfer properties and enhancing the photocatalytic activity.⁴⁰ Then, it is argued that under the same visible light irradiation, the density of holes increases due to the *p*-type doping.²⁶ The higher density of holes is expected to promote the charge transfer and to increase the lifetime,⁴⁰ enhancing the O₂ and H₂ evolution over BTON:Mg and BTON:Zr, respectively. In fact, the results of transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS) measurement confirm that the photocarrier lifetime is increased by cation doping (Figures 5a, 5b, and S7). For H₂ evolution, all cation-doped photocatalysts exhibited a significant improvement in relation to pristine BTON. However, for O₂ evolution, doping the BTON with Al³⁺ and Ga³⁺ resulted in lower yields. Previously, the doping effects of Al³⁺ and Ga³⁺ on various photocatalysts have been reported to change the density of charge carriers.^{24,44,45} Among many factors, the adsorption energies of

intermediates play an important role during the oxidation of water,³¹ which can be relevant to explain the kinetic effect observed in the photocatalytic O_2 evolution over BTON:Al and BTON:Ga (discussed later).

The effect of surface doping of Ta₃N₅ with Mg and Zr in relation to the electronic properties was studied by Seo et al.³² and Wang et al.⁴⁶, and similar reports were made for cation-doped BaTaO₂N surfaces.^{25,26} Figure S4 shows the potentials of the valence and conduction bands of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts synthesized in the present study. Both values of cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts became slightly more negative compared to those of pristine BTON. Presumably, changing these potentials affected the tendency of the electron transfer.³² As an example, an efficient electron transfer in the BaTaO₂N photocatalysts was previously achieved by increasing the photocurrent and lower-onset-potential significantly for water oxidation. ^{12,15,32} The change in the potential values of the valence and conduction bands is a manifestation of the variation of electronic properties that can control the dynamics and transfer of photogenerated charge carriers at the semiconductor-electrolyte interface. Particularly, in the case of Ta₃N₅ modified with Mg and Zr, the potential values of the valence and conduction bands became more negative compared to pristine Ta₃N₅. ³² In addition, doping with Mg²⁺ could also alter the decay of the open circuit potential by interrupting the irradiation of light, leading to the changes in the lifetimes of charge carriers.²⁵ This change is also related to the appearance of mid-gap states associated with the formation of anion defects stemming from the doping of a cation with lower valence. 25,27,46,47 Furthermore, small ionic radii induce a greater distortion of octahedra, resulting in a narrow conduction band, and the longer the Ta-O/N bond distances, the conduction band minimum becomes antibonding.³⁴ Therefore, the higher H₂ evolution over BTON:Al can be justified by the reduction reaction in the conduction band of BTON: Al due to the slowed recombination rate of photogenerated charge carriers. ²⁶ The fact that the host cation induces a decrease in the recombination process, 26,47 allowing to qualitatively understand the trends in the photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution over cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. In all cases, the change in the band structures leads to the valence and conduction bands to have thermodynamically sufficient overpotentials for the oxidation and reduction of water (Figure S4).

The photocatalytic activity of photocatalysts also depends on their surface properties. Recent studies^{25,48} demonstrated the effects of cation doping and the generation of defects in BaTaO₂N. Particularly, the surface properties of photocatalysts reveal how the chemical reactions proceed and how the interactions between the intermediates and the photocatalyst surface occur. Finding the adsorption energy - performance relationships in photocatalysis is important for understanding the reaction kinetics and targeting the requirements set for practical applications.⁴⁰ For that, the adsorption energies of intermediates are first estimated theoretically and then correlated with the experimental reaction rates of H₂ and O₂ evolution. It is well documented that in the case of H₂ evolution, the key intermediate is adsorbed H*, and the intermediates that form during the water oxidation are HO*, O*, and HOO*.^{48,49} The role of the surface properties on enhancing the photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution over pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts is discussed in the following section.

The interaction between water molecules and the photocatalyst surface is one of the key factors affecting directly the reaction pathways of photocatalytic water splitting. Therefore, the interfacial adsorption configuration of water molecules has been studied using various computational methods. For instance, in a single g-C₃N₄ sheet, water molecules can be adsorbed around the intrinsic vacancy at the low coverage of water, whereas the hydrogen bonds between water molecules can assist stabilizing the water adsorption at the high coverage of water, leading to the reduction of the valence and conduction bands.⁵⁰ However, controversies over the modes of the interaction of water molecules on the surfaces of materials and intermediates during the photocatalytic reactions are still being explored in the field of photocatalysis using different computational methods, including density functional theory (DFT).^{49,51-54}

Here, we applied molecular dynamics (MD) calculations to theoretically explore the interactions of water and methanol molecules with the predominant (110) surfaces, terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra, of BTON, BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr using a

field density distribution and close contacts (a scaled sum of van der Waals radii). Table S3 shows the adsorption energy values obtained by MD calculations. Figures S8-S10 show that on the TaO₆-, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂-terminated (110) surfaces, water molecules can be adsorbed in a similar way by forming the clusters around the atoms. On the TaO₆-terminated (110) surfaces, close contacts only in BTON:Mg and high affinity of methanol molecules in BTON:Al and BTON:Zr are observed, while close contacts in BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr and high affinity of methanol molecules in BTON:Al, BTON:Ga, and BTON:Zr are noted on the TaN₆-terminated (110) surfaces. On the TaO₄N₂-terminated (110) surfaces, close contacts in BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr and high affinity of methanol molecules in BTON:Sc and BTON:Zr are remarked. In all TaO₆-, TaN₆-, and TaO₄N₂-terminated (110) surfaces, the BTON:Mg and BTON:Zr show a higher number of close contacts, whereas the BTON:Al and BTON:Zr show a high affinity to methanol molecules. As an example, the close contacts of the TaO₄N₂-terminated (110) surfaces of BTON, BTON:Mg, and BTON:Al are shown in Figure 5c-e, indicating that the dopants can certainly improve the adsorption of water and methanol molecules.

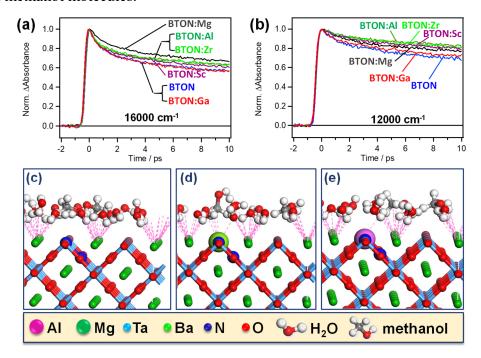


Figure 5. Normalized decay curves of the transient absorptions measured at 16000 cm⁻¹ (a) and 12000 cm⁻¹ (b) for pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. The samples were excited by 2 μJ,

355 nm laser pulse at 500 Hz with 90 fs duration in 20 torr N_2 . Close contacts of the TaO_4N_2 -terminated (110) surfaces of (a) BTON, (b) BTON:Mg, and (c) BTON:Al.

In catalysis and electrocatalysis, interesting correlations have been reported using Sabatier's principle^{55,56} and linear energy correlations.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ For example, the semi-logarithmic plots of the exchange current density for proton reduction vs. the energy of the M–H bond (or Gibbs free energy change, ΔG) result in the so-called volcano-type curve.⁵⁵ It is anticipated that the cation doping of BaTaO₂N can influence the surface chemical termination and improve the interactions of reaction intermediates, which have a significant impact on the kinetics of photocatalytic water splitting.⁴⁸ In a first approximation, molecular dynamics (MD) was applied as a simple, time-saving, and economic calculation method to gain insights into the respective effect of cation doping (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺, Mg²⁺, Sc³⁺ and Zr⁴⁺) on the properties of the BaTaO₂N surfaces terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra.

After having discussed the differences in the photocatalytic O_2 and H_2 evolution and the interactions of water and methanol molecules with the predominant (110) surfaces, terminated with TaO_6 , TaN_6 , and TaO_4N_2 octahedra, of $BaTaO_2N$ above, it is possible to correlate the observed trends in photocatalytic O_2 and H_2 evolution with the energy changes of the adsorbed chemical species on pristine and cation-doped $BaTaO_2N$ photocatalysts. Similar studies have been previously reported for other catalytic systems. Fr.60 Rationalizing these trends using a relative approach to compare the photocatalytic activities of cation-doped $BaTaO_2N$ photocatalysts with respect to that of pristine BTON allows to elucidate the differences in the surface reactions. In fact, by taking into account the relationship between the reaction rates of cation-doped $BaTaO_2N$ (r_{X-BTON}) and that of pristine BTON (r_{BTON}) at the initial stage (Table S4), the effect of the chemical environment during the photocatalytic reactions can be normalized. Then, the resulting magnitude (r_{X-BTON}/r_{BTON}) is proportional to the effect of cation doping in $BaTaO_2N$. The main difference between the synthesized $BaTaO_2N$ photocatalysts in photocatalytic O_2 and O_2 0 evolution is manifested in the reaction rates at the initial stage. In addition, the kinetics is determined by the energetic factors governing the surface chemistry

during the photocatalytic reactions. Thus, the correlation between $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ and the relative energy (*E*) difference at the rate-limiting step (*rls*): $\Delta E^{T} = -(E_{X-BTON} - E_{BTON})$, must be linear, ⁵⁷⁶⁰ where $X = Al^{3+}$, Ga^{3+} , Mg^{2+} , Sc^{3+} or Zr^{4+} . To elucidate this, certain basic chemical kinetic arguments must be invoked.

Equations 1-3 express the H₂ generation according to the Volmer, Heyrovsky and Tafel reactions, respectively:^{51,61,62}

$$H^+ + e^- + * = H^* \tag{1}$$

$$H^* + H^+ + e^- = H_2 + *$$
 (2)

$$2H^* = H_2 + 2^* \tag{3}$$

where * is an active site of the surface and H^* is the adsorbed hydrogen. If the formation of the adsorbed H^* species is the rate-limiting step (rls) (Eq. 1), then the overall rate of H_2 evolution can be expressed as:⁶²

$$r = k_{rls}\theta^*[H^+] \tag{4}$$

and according to the Arrhenius equation, the rate constant is:

$$k_{rls} = k^0 exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E}{RT}\right) \tag{5}$$

where k_{rls} and θ^* correspond to the rate constant of the *rls* and the density of free active sites in the photocatalyst, respectively. ΔE is the energy barrier for the *rls*, k^0 represents the frequency factor, R is the universal gas constant, and T is the absolute temperature. If it is considered that for all photocatalysts, the area available for adsorption is very large and the reaction occurs at the same initial pH, then the ratio of the reaction rates is:

$$\frac{r_{X-BTON}}{r_{BTON}} = \frac{k_{X-BTON}^0}{k^0} exp\left[-\frac{(E_{X-BTON} - E_{BTON})}{RT}\right]$$
 (6)

It supports the proposed linearization: $ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. $-(E_{X-BTON} - E_{BTON})$ plot (see Eq. 7).

$$ln\left(\frac{r_{X-BTON}}{r_{BTON}}\right) = -ln\left(\frac{k_{X-BTON}^{0}}{k^{0}}\right) - \frac{(E_{X-BTON} - E_{BTON})}{RT}$$
(7)

It is expected that the cation doping in BaTaO₂N can change the energy of the *rls* in the following ways: $E_{\text{X-BTON}} < E_{\text{BTON}}$ or $E_{\text{X-BTON}} > E_{\text{BTON}}$, and then, the significant differences are manifested with the changes of the slope in the $\ln[(r_{\text{X-BTON}})/(r_{\text{BTON}})]$ vs. ΔE^{r} plot, where $\Delta E^{\text{r}} = -(E_{\text{X-BTON}} - E_{\text{BTON}})$ is

the relative energy difference of the key adsorbed intermediate. This magnitude is proportional to the energy barrier of the rls. Furthermore, as the ordinate axis is proportional to the relative reaction rate $(\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})])$, it is possible to discriminate the cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts, which exhibited the higher photocatalytic activities than the BTON: $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})] > 0$, and showed a deterioration in the overall photocatalytic activity: $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})] < 0$.

Figures 6a-c show the dependence of $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ on the photocatalytic H₂ evolution over BaTaO₂N photocatalysts as a function of the relative energy difference for $H^*(\Delta E^r_{H^*})$ of the BaTaO₂N surfaces terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra. The appearance of the V-type plot for H₂ evolution shows the differences in pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. First, it should be noted that all cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts are photocatalytically more active than the BTON, which corresponds to the positive values for $\ln[(r_{\text{X-BTON}})/(r_{\text{BTON}})]$. Second, the results are categorized into two groups: (i) $E_{X-BTON} < E_{BTON}$ in the BTON: Al and BTON: Ga photocatalysts yields a negative slope: $d\{\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]\}/d[(\Delta E^r_{H^*})] < 0$ when the atomic number of the dopant is increased, and (ii) $E_{X-BTON} > E_{BTON}$ in the BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts leads to a positive slope: $d\{\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]\}/d[(\Delta E_{+}^r)] > 0$ when the atomic number of the dopant is decreased. It is noteworthy that a satisfactory match for all dopants was obtained for the BaTaO₂N surfaces terminated with TaO₆ octahedra. Nevertheless, the BTON: Zr surface terminated with TaO₄N₂ octahedra and BTON:Mg surface terminated with TaN6 and TaO4N2 octahedra resulted in trend deviations possibly due to simplifications in MD calculations. In addition, the obtained slopes (Table S4) change as a function of the surface chemical termination of BaTaO₂N. For the BTON:Al and BTON:Ga photocatalysts, it is slope $(TaO_6) > slope (TaO_4) > slope (TaO_4N_2)$, and for the BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts, the result is slope $(TaN_6) > slope (TaO_6) > slope (TaO_4N_2)$.

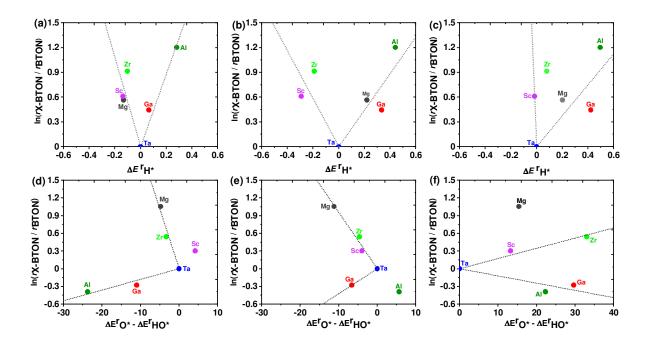


Figure 6. $(top) \ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. $(\Delta E^r_{H^*})$ plots for H₂ evolution of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts with surfaces terminated with (a) TaO₆, (b) TaN₆, and (c) TaO₄N₂ octahedra. Adsorbed intermediate is H*. $(bottom) \ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. $(\Delta E^r_{O^*} - \Delta E^r_{HO^*})$ plot for O₂ evolution of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts with surfaces terminated with (d) TaO₆, (e) TaN₆, and (f) TaO₄N₂ octahedra. Adsorbed intermediates are O* and HO*.

Even though the O_2 evolution involves a more complex mechanism with a greater number of intermediates adsorbed and electrons transferred than the H_2 evolution, it is interesting to explore the trends emerging from the relative kinetic analysis. It is well documented that the difference in Gibbs energies of intermediates O^* and HO^* ($\Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{HO^*}$) can be used as a reaction descriptor to predict the O_2 evolution activity. Hence, it is expected that the correlation using the adsorption energy difference of O^* and HO^* ($\Delta E^r_{O^*} - \Delta E^r_{HO^*}$) allows summarizing the trends in pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Equations 8-11 indicate the O_2 evolution pathways.

$$H_2O + * = HO^* + H^+ + e^-$$
 (8)

$$HO^* = O^* + H^+ + e^- \tag{9}$$

$$O^* + H_2O = HOO^* + H^+ + e^-$$
 (10)

$$HOO^* = O_2 + H^+ + e^- + *$$
 (11)

Figures 6d-f show the $\ln[(r_{\text{X-BTON}})/(r_{\text{BTON}})]$ vs. $(\Delta E^{\text{r}}_{\text{O}^*} - \Delta E^{\text{r}}_{\text{HO}^*})$ plots for O₂ evolution. The positive values of $\ln[(r_{\text{X-BTON}})/(r_{\text{BTON}})]$ correspond to the higher reaction rates of BTON, BTON:Mg,

BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts at the initial stage, while the negative values represent the lower reaction rates of BTON:Al and BTON:Ga photocatalysts. The oxidation of water leads to the formation of hydroxyl radicals, suggesting the possibility of obtaining the linear energy-performance relationships.^{64,65} In fact, the kinetics of photocatalytic O₂ evolution is governed by the number of electrons transferred corresponding to the potential, which is established at the interface.⁶⁶ This depends on the dynamics of holes, their accumulation, and the adsorbed intermediates.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ Furthermore, the oxidation photocurrent was previously reported using the BaTaO₂N-based electrodes, resulting in the limited signals at low overpotentials due to energy losses stemmed from the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers.¹² Thus, the linear trends with respect to O* and HO* in Figure 6 are consistent with slow kinetics during the water oxidation reaction. In fact, in the water splitting reaction using BaTaO₂N photocatalysts, the important role of all adsorbed oxygen species (HO*, O*, and HOO*) was highlighted⁴⁸ in addition to the determining role of electrochemical polarization.^{12,15,22,48,69}

The experimental results of O₂ evolution using BaTaO₂N photocatalysts suggest that although these materials achieve the oxidation of water under visible light irradiation without the need for electrochemical assistance, the reaction rate at the interface is slow and continuously improved with loading a cocatalyst. The linear energy-performance relationship is a consequence of the correlation between the kinetic and thermodynamic effects during the redox reaction. The use of adsorption energy as a descriptor allowed to reveal the effect of cation doping on BaTaO₂N despite the presence of a cocatalyst. In all cases, the chemical nature of the cocatalysts and their interactions with the photocatalyst have an impact on improving the overall photocatalytic performance. Further studies are being conducted to describe the adsorption energy-performance correlation in relation to the effects of defects, cocatalysts, doping content, the coverage of reactive species, and properties of the photocatalysts. It is also observed that the change in slope in Figure 6 reveals the difference between the BaTaO₂N photocatalysts due to the difference in dopant type used and surface chemical termination considered. The deviations observed in the BTON:Sc, BTON:Al, and BTON:Mg photocatalysts with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ surface chemical terminations possibly due to

simplifications and the level of MD calculations. Nevertheless, the linear trends with good correlation and the significant slope changes are resolved for each photocatalyst (Table S4). The results of the slopes in O_2 evolution indicate the changes as a function of surface chemical termination. That is, for the BTON:Al and BTON:Ga photocatalysts, the slopes increase as: slope (TaO₆) < slope (TaO₄N₂), whereas for the BTON:Mg, BTON:Sc, and BTON:Zr photocatalysts, the slopes decrease in the following order: slope (TaO₆) > slope (TaN₆) > slope (TaO₄N₂). As is known, it is necessary to systematize the kinetic improvements in water splitting using TaON- and BaTaO₂N-based photocatalysts. ^{15,22,71} By applying the relative kinetic analysis: $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. ΔE^r , it was possible to distinguish the effects of cation doping (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺, Mg²⁺, Sc³⁺, and Zr⁴⁺) and surface chemical termination (TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂) on the key adsorbed chemical species, specifically O*, HO*, and H*, during the photocatalytic O₂ and H₂ evolution over BaTaO₂N.

Finally, it has been argued that in the water splitting reaction over BaTaO₂N-based photocatalysts, it is possible that the kinetics of electron transfer reactions are slow, and the concentration of minority carriers around the surface is increased to very high values.⁷⁴ This phenomenon would modify the potential drop across the Helmholtz layer in the electrolyte, leading to "unpinning the edge of the band".^{74,75} Then, under these conditions, the phenomena that occur between the photocatalyst surface and the adsorbed intermediates could play a determining role. The role of surface phenomena is evidenced through the linear adsorption energy-performance correlations presented in Figure 6. This can be interpreted as a consequence derived from the dynamics in which the charge carriers are involved in each BaTaO₂N photocatalyst, which agrees well with the changes observed in the results of the transient absorption spectroscopy measurements. The analysis of such physicochemical trends leads to a better understanding of photocatalyst nature, reaction kinetics, and designing the photocatalytic materials for future application.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, BaTaO₂N was modified by a 5% *B*-site-selective doping of aliovalent metal cations (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺, Mg²⁺, Sc³⁺, and Zr⁴⁺) to be effective in sacrificial visible-light-induced photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution. Since no significant changes in crystal structure, crystal morphology, and light

absorption were observed upon doping, the difference in the photocatalytic O_2 and H_2 evolution over pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts was stemmed from the varying optoelectronic and surface properties. Particularly, the BTON:Mg and BTON:Al independently exhibited the highest amounts (in 5 h) of evolved O_2 (503.6 μ mol) and H_2 (117.4 μ mol), respectively, whereas the BTON:Zr showed the high photocatalytic activities in both O_2 (446.8 μ mol) and H_2 (80.4 μ mol) half reactions due to the altered potentials of the valence and conduction bands and an increased density of charge carriers. The highest H_2 reaction rate of 21.92 μ mol·h⁻¹ at AM1.5 G illumination (200 mW·cm⁻²) was achieved using Al dopant. The kinetic V-type plots in H_2 evolution and the linear energy-performance correlations in O_2 evolution were observed using the relative kinetic analysis: $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. $-(E_{X-BTON} - E_{BTON})$ plot. The experimental photocatalytic reaction rates were satisfactorily described using the adsorption energies of intermediates (H* for H_2 evolution and HO* and O* for O_2 evolution) estimated by molecular dynamics calculations, rationalizing the effects of aliovalent metal cation doping (Al³⁺, Ga³⁺, Mg²⁺, Sc³⁺, and Zr⁴⁺) and surface chemical termination (TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂) of BaTaO₂N.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT:

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI:

TEM and HRTEM images and SAED patterns, XPS survey spectra, XPS valence band spectra, and energy-level diagrams of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Computational method, the electronic band structures, and total and partial density of states of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Transient absorption spectroscopy measurements, and transient absorption spectra of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Field density distribution and close contacts (a scaled sum of van der Waals radii) of water and methanol molecules on the predominant (110) surfaces terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Masses of chemical reactants used for the synthesis of pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N photocatalysts. Photocatalytic reaction rates for H₂ and O₂ evolution at the initial stage.

Adsorption energies of H₂O, H₂O+methanol, H₂, O₂, and intermediates (H* for H₂ evolution and HO*, O* and HOO* for O₂ evolution) on pristine and cation-doped BaTaO₂N surfaces terminated with TaO₆, TaN₆, and TaO₄N₂ octahedra. Slopes and R^2 obtained for $\ln[(r_{X-BTON})/(r_{BTON})]$ vs. ΔE^{T} plot in H₂ evolution ($\Delta E^{T} = \Delta E^{T}_{H*}$) and O₂ evolution ($\Delta E^{T} = \Delta E^{T}_{O*} - \Delta E^{T}_{HO*}$).

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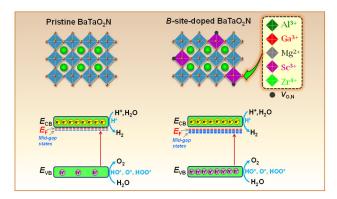
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To enhance sacrificial visible-light-induced photocatalytic H_2 and O_2 evolution over $BaTaO_2N$, 5% B-site-selective doping of aliovalent metal cations was explored. BTON:Mg and BTON:Al independently exhibited the highest amounts (in 5 h) of evolved O_2 (503.6 μ mol) and H_2 (117.4 μ mol), respectively, whereas the BTON:Zr showed the high photocatalytic activities in both O_2 (446.8 μ mol) and H_2 (80.4 μ mol) half reactions.