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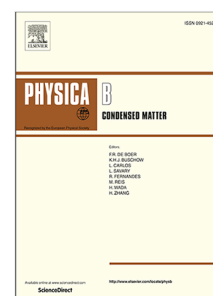
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Highlights

Strain-Induced 11.46% Solar-to-Hydrogen Efficiency in Ga₂SO/WTe₂ Z-scheme Heterostructure

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- Strain-induced solar-to-hydrogen efficiency of **11.46%** (10.55% with field corrections) in Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure, surpassing most reported Z-scheme photocatalysts.
- Direct Z-scheme charge transfer confirmed by differential charge density and Bader analysis, with built-in electric field enabling efficient carrier separation.
- Broad-spectrum absorption (UV to visible) and strain-tunable band alignment overcoming the 1.23 eV thermodynamic limit for water splitting.

Strain-Induced 11.46% Solar-to-Hydrogen Efficiency in Ga₂SO/WTe₂ Z-scheme Heterostructure

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ABSTRACT

We propose a novel Ga₂SO/WTe₂ van der Waals heterostructure as a direct Z-scheme photocatalyst, confirmed through differential charge density calculations and Bader charge analysis. The system exhibits strain-tunable solar-to-hydrogen efficiency, with biaxial strain (-8% to +8%) effectively modulating its electronic properties and achieving maximum η_{STH} and η'_{STH} values of 11.46% and 10.55%, respectively. The Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure exhibits a staggered band alignment while demonstrating strong optical absorption across visible to ultraviolet wavelengths. Furthermore, the constituent monolayers show significant exciton binding energies of 1.12 eV (Ga₂SO) and 0.54 eV (WTe₂). Although our Gibbs free energy calculations reveal that the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure exhibits non-spontaneous oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) thermodynamics, comparative studies highlight its promising catalytic functionality. This work provides a promising route for designing high-efficiency photocatalytic water-splitting catalysts with tunable electronic and optical properties.

1. Introduction

The current reliance on conventional energy sources (e.g., petroleum and fossil fuels) faces growing challenges due to their non-renewable nature and associated greenhouse gas emissions.[1, 2] Photocatalytic water splitting has emerged as a promising alternative since Fujishima and Honda's pioneering demonstration of TiO₂ photocatalysis in 1972.[3] Semiconductor photocatalysts now attract significant attention for solar-driven water splitting and pollutant degradation.[4, 5] An ideal photocatalyst must simultaneously satisfy four critical requirements: (i) an appropriate bandgap for broad solar spectrum absorption, (ii) staggered band alignment for efficient charge separation, (iii) sufficient redox potentials to drive both hydrogen and oxygen evolution reactions (HER/OER), and (iv) excellent operational stability.[6, 7] Two-dimensional (2D) materials have shown particular promise in this regard.[8, 9, 10, 11] However, most single-component 2D materials fail to meet all these criteria simultaneously.

Heterostructure engineering has proven to be an effective strategy to overcome these limitations. By carefully designing van der Waals heterostructures, researchers can precisely tune electronic properties, optimize band edge alignment, and ultimately enhance photocatalytic efficiency.[12, 13, 14] This approach not only addresses the inherent drawbacks of individual 2D materials but also enables the development of next-generation photocatalysts with superior performance. In the construction of heterostructures for photocatalytic water splitting, two predominant band alignment

configurations emerge: the Type-II band structure and Z-scheme heterostructures.[15, 16] The fundamental distinction between Type-II and Z-scheme heterostructures lies in their interfacial charge transfer mechanisms driven by layer coupling effects, leading to divergent built-in electric field directions. In Type-II heterostructures, the built-in field causes photogenerated electrons and holes to accumulate at the conduction band minimum (CBM) and valence band maximum (VBM) of different layers, respectively, participating in redox reactions with weakened potential. Distinct from the Type-II arrangement, Z-scheme systems exhibit an inverted built-in electric field orientation, which drives the recombination of photogenerated carriers between the CBM of one constituent material and the VBM of the other. This charge transfer mechanism effectively segregates the HER to the component with higher CBM potential while localizing the OER at the component with lower VBM potential.[17]Crucially, this architecture preserves the intrinsic redox capabilities of both constituents, thereby overcoming the fundamental 1.23 eV thermodynamic requirement for water splitting.[18, 19, 20] The Z-scheme approach not only enhances photocatalytic efficiency but also significantly expands the range of viable materials for solar energy conversion applications.

By selectively replacing X atoms with oxygen (O) on one side of GaX monolayers, Demirtas *et al.* designed a novel two-dimensional ternary Ga₂XO structure (X = S, Se, Te) through controlled oxidation, demonstrating significant modifications to the electronic structure.[21] The resulting Janus Ga₂XO monolayer exhibits enhanced charge carrier separation efficiency due to its intrinsic asymmetric structure that generates a spontaneous built-in electric field.[22] This symmetry-breaking effect in the 2D material effectively suppresses electron-hole recombination, thereby enhancing

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photocatalytic performance. Recent advances have highlighted two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides (2D TMDs) as ideal building blocks for van der Waals heterostructures.[23, 24, 25] enabling both fundamental studies of novel physical phenomena and practical device applications. Among these, tungsten ditelluride (WTe₂) has emerged as particularly promising, with monolayer samples successfully synthesized via various methods including chemical vapor deposition (CVD)[26, 27] and molecular beam epitaxy (MBE)[28]. Notably, the GaS/WTe₂ van der Waals heterostructure reported by Wan *et al.* demonstrates exceptional photocatalytic water-splitting performance as a direct Z-scheme photocatalyst.[29] Theoretical work by Yang *et al.* systematically investigated the structural, optoelectronic, and photocatalytic properties of g-C₆N₆/WTe₂ heterostructures using first-principles calculations, confirming their Z-scheme characteristics.[30]

In this work, we systematically constructed six distinct configurations of van der Waals Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures through vertical stacking of monolayer WTe₂ and Ga₂SO. *Ab initio* molecular dynamics simulations (AIMD) and phonon calculations confirmed the structural stability of four out of the six investigated configurations. Comprehensive hybrid functional calculations of band structures and charge distribution analysis revealed the formation of a direct Z-scheme photocatalytic system in the optimized Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures. Through biaxial strain modulation (-8% to +8%), we achieved tunable conversion efficiency from solar to hydrogen (STH) up to 11.46% (10.55% with field corrections), demonstrating strain engineering as an effective approach for optimizing photocatalytic performance in Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures. Optical calculations demonstrated that while the Ga₂SO monolayer primarily absorbs in the ultraviolet region, the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure exhibits significantly broadened absorption extending well into the visible spectrum. Thermodynamic analysis of Gibbs free energy changes further verified the feasibility for both HER and OER. These results collectively establish the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure as a strain-tunable Z-scheme photocatalyst with broad-spectrum absorption and efficient redox functionality.

2. Computational Details

First principles calculations were performed using VASP 6.3.3[31] with PAW pseudopotentials[32]. Structural relaxations employed PBE-GGA[33], while optical absorption coefficients were calculated with HSE06[34], and exciton binding energies were obtained via G_0W_0 +BSE[35, 36] (400/200 eV cutoffs for wavefunctions/response functions). The DFT-D3 method[37] accounted for vdW interactions, with a 520 eV plane-wave cutoff, $8 \times 8 \times 1$ Γ -centered k -mesh, and convergence criteria of 10^{-6} eV and 0.005 eV/Å. A > 15 Å vacuum layer was included. Thermodynamic stability was confirmed by AIMD[38, 39] (300 K, 10 ps, $3 \times 3 \times 1$ supercell), and phonon spectra were computed via the finite-displacement method[40, 41].

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Geometrical structures and stability of Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure

Before investigating the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure, we first geometrically optimized the isolated Ga₂SO and 2H-phase WTe₂ monolayers, as shown in Fig. S1 (a) and (c), respectively. The optimized lattice constants are 3.36 Å for Ga₂SO and 3.51 Å for WTe₂, with both monolayers belonging to the P3m1 space group. We employed HSE06 calculations to determine accurate band gap values. As presented in Fig. S1 (b) and (d), both Ga₂SO and WTe₂ monolayers exhibit direct bandgaps of 2.09 eV and 1.60 eV, respectively. The VBM and CBM are located at the Γ point for Ga₂SO and at point K for WTe₂. These calculated lattice constants and bandgaps agree well with previous reports,[42, 43, 44, 45] validating our computational methodology. The work functions were calculated from the energy difference between the vacuum level and Fermi level, with the electrostatic potential shown in Fig. S2. The WTe₂ monolayer shows a work function of 4.88 eV. For Ga₂SO, symmetry breaking creates a 0.51 eV vacuum level difference between surfaces, resulting in work functions of 6.08 eV and 6.59 eV for the two surfaces, respectively.

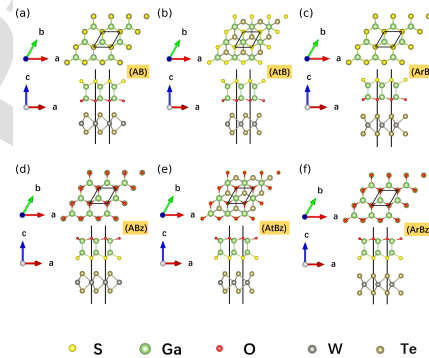


Figure 1: Top and side views of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure. The black rectangle represents the primitive cell used in our calculations.

The lattice mismatch rate of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure was calculated according to the following formula, with a determined value of 4.37%.

$$\delta = 2 \times \frac{|a_1 - a_2|}{a_1 + a_2}$$

where a_1 and a_2 represent the lattice constants of the pristine Ga₂SO and WTe₂ monolayers, respectively. Based on the symmetry of the lattice, we constructed six stacking configurations for the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure, which are designated as AB, AtB, ArB, ABz, AtBz and ArBz, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The formation energy E_F for the six heterostructure configurations was calculated using the

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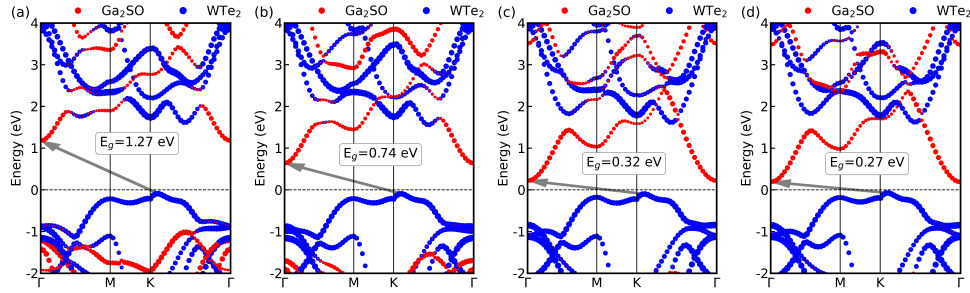


Figure 2: Projected band structures of Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures for different configurations: (a) AB, (b) AtB, (c) ABz, and (d) AtBz.

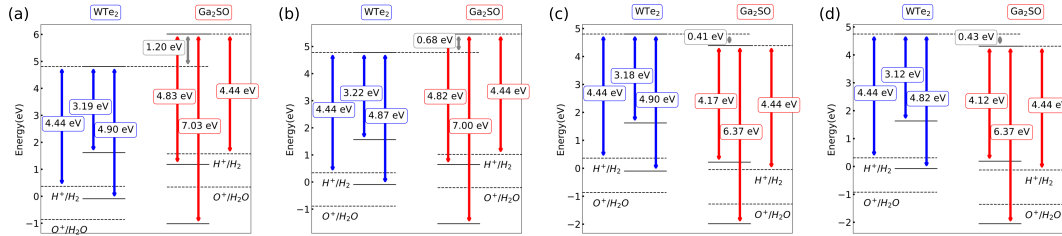


Figure 3: Comparison of band alignment and photocatalytic water splitting energy levels (PH=0) at the vacuum level in the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures: (a) AB, (b) AtB, (c) ABz, and (d) AtBz.

following formula:

$$E_F = E_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2} - E_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}} - E_{\text{WTe}_2}$$

where $E_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2}$, $E_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}}$ and E_{WTe_2} represent the energy of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures, the Ga₂SO monolayer and the WTe₂ monolayer, respectively. The negative value of the formation energy signifies structural stability, where more negative values correspond to higher stability. The optimized lattice constants, interlayer distances and the formation energy of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure are summarized in Table S1. We can observe that the six heterostructure configurations exhibit lattice constants of approximately 3.44 Å, interlayer distance ranging from 2.95 to 3.82 Å, and formation energies between −110.81 eV and −206.56 eV. Notably, the AB configuration demonstrates the smallest interlayer distance and the most negative formation energy, indicating that it is the most stable among the six configurations.

The phonon spectra were calculated for the six configurations of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructure, as illustrated in Fig. S3. AIMD simulations under the canonical NVT ensemble adopted with a Nosé thermostat[38] was performed, as shown in Fig. S4. The Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures of configurations ArB and ArBz exhibit noticeable imaginary frequencies in their phonon spectra at the Γ point, indicating structural instabilities. Furthermore, AIMD

calculations reveal structural distortions of configurations ArB and ArBz during simulations, accompanied by energy fluctuations that deviate significantly from a stable average value. These results collectively demonstrate that the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures of configurations ArB and ArBz are unstable. However, the other four Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures configurations demonstrate both dynamic and thermodynamic stability. Their phonon spectra show no significant soft modes or imaginary frequencies throughout the entire Brillouin zone, except for a negligible imaginary frequency at the Γ point. Moreover, AIMD simulations reveal that these configurations maintain structural integrity with no bond breaking, while the system energy fluctuates consistently around an equilibrium value. Therefore, we will subsequently focus on investigating the electronic and optical properties of Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures with configurations AB, AtB, ABz and AtBz. The mechanical stability of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures was further verified based on the calculation of elastic constants using Born-Huang's criterion[46]. For the hexagonal crystal structure of the Ga₂SO/WTe₂ heterostructures, only two independent elastic constants, C_{11} and C_{12} , need to be calculated, while C_{66} can be derived as

$$C_{66} = \frac{C_{11} - C_{12}}{2}.$$

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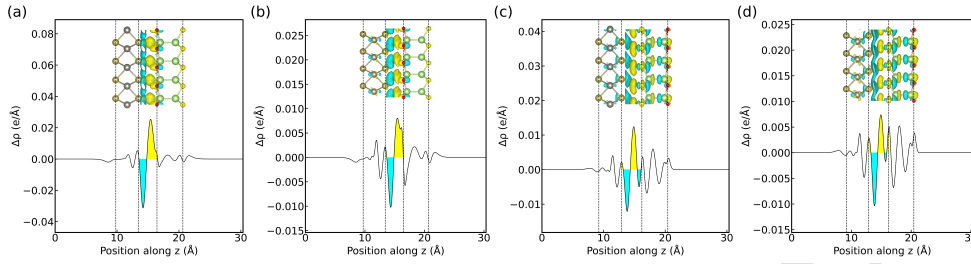


Figure 4: Plane-averaged differential charge density of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure for (a) AB, (b) AtB, (c) ABz, and (d) AtBz configurations. Full lines mark the edge positions of the two monolayers. The yellow and cyan represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

The calculated values for the four configurations are presented in Table S2 of the Supplementary Material. These values satisfy the mechanical stability criteria $C_{11} > 0$ and $C_{11} > C_{12}$, confirming the mechanical stability of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure.

3.2. Electronic properties and built-in electric field in $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure

The band structures of the four stacking configurations of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure, calculated using the HSE06 functional, are shown in Fig. 2. The energy bands of the four types of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures all exhibit indirect band gaps. The band gap values for AB, AtB, ABz, and AtBz are 1.27, 0.74, 0.32, and 0.27 eV, respectively. In the projected band structure depicted in Fig. 2, the red dots signify contributions from the Ga_2SO monolayer, while the blue dots denote contributions from the WTe_2 monolayer. It is evident that across all four configurations of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures, the CBM is predominantly contributed by the Ga_2SO monolayer, and the VBM is primarily contributed by the WTe_2 monolayer. The staggered band alignment is conducive to the transfer of photogenerated electrons, facilitating their movement across the interface and potentially enhancing the efficiency of charge separation in photocatalytic applications.

The electrostatic potential for the four configurations (Fig. S5) reveal a vacuum level difference between the constituent monolayers in the heterostructures. As shown in Fig. 3, the band edge positions of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures do not straddle the redox potentials for photocatalytic water splitting in any of the four configurations. These results indicate that none of these configurations of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure meet the conventional electronic structure requirements for traditional photocatalytic water decomposition.

The direction of the built-in electric fields in the interlayers of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures is determined by the differential charge density ($\Delta\rho$) and further confirmed by Bader charge analysis. The formula for calculating the planar average differential charge density is as follows:

$$\Delta\rho = \rho_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2} - \rho_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}} - \rho_{\text{WTe}_2}$$

where $\rho_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2}$, $\rho_{\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}}$ and ρ_{WTe_2} are the charge density of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures, the Ga_2SO monolayer, and the WTe_2 monolayer, respectively. The results are shown in Fig. 4. It is evident that charge accumulation occurs in the Ga_2SO monolayers, whereas charge depletion is observed in the WTe_2 monolayers. Furthermore, the Bader charge analysis reveals that a charge transfer of 0.031, 0.020, 0.018 and 0.017 $|e|$ occurs from the WTe_2 monolayers to the Ga_2SO monolayer in the AB, AtB, ABz and AtBz configurations, respectively. The minimal interlayer charge transfer values suggest that the interaction between the layers is relatively weak. The higher work function of the Ga_2SO monolayer compared to the WTe_2 monolayer aligns with the observed direction of charge transfer, suggesting that the electronic potential difference drives the charge redistribution between the two monolayers. In conclusion, the built-in electric field in the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures is directed from WTe_2 to Ga_2SO . This field drives the spatial separation of photo-generated carriers, confining holes in Ga_2SO and electrons in WTe_2 while enabling their redox-capable counterparts to recombine. The resulting charge separation preserves strong redox capabilities and suppresses recombination, forming an efficient Z-scheme system.[47, 48]

3.3. Optical absorption, STH and strain engineering control

In the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure, the hydrogen evolution reaction and oxygen evolution reaction take place on the WTe_2 monolayer and the Ga_2SO monolayer, respectively. To understand their individual contributions, we computed the optical absorption coefficients of the two isolated monolayers extracted from the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure using HSE06 method are presented in Fig. 5. The optical absorption coefficient is given:

$$\alpha(\omega) = \sqrt{2\omega} \sqrt{\sqrt{\epsilon_1^2(\omega) + \epsilon_2^2(\omega)} - \epsilon_1(\omega)}$$

where ω is the angular frequency, and $\epsilon_1(\omega)$ and $\epsilon_2(\omega)$ are the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric function, respectively.[49] It can be observed that the separated WTe_2 monolayer exhibits significant optical absorption across both the visible and ultraviolet spectral regions. In contrast, the

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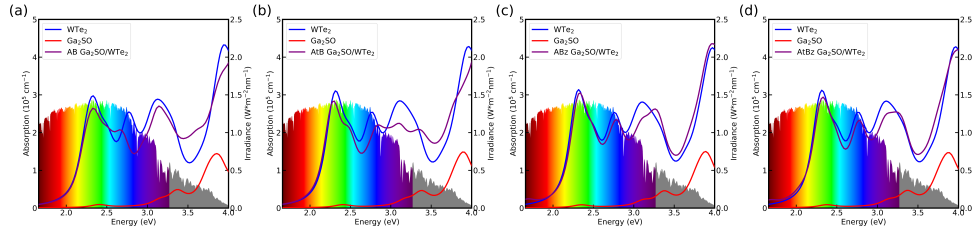


Figure 5: Absorption coefficients for the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures and isolated monolayers extracted from the heterostructure of four configurations.

isolated Ga_2SO monolayer demonstrates relatively weaker absorption in the visible range, with its primary absorption peak occurring predominantly in the ultraviolet region. Furthermore, it can be observed that the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures exhibits excellent light absorption capabilities in both the visible and ultraviolet spectral regions. This is consistent with previous reports where the optical absorption coefficient of heterostructures are generally enhanced compared to their constituent monolayers.[50]

Additionally, the single-shot G_0W_0 +BSE method was employed to determine the quasi-particle band gaps and optical gaps of pristine WTe_2 and Ga_2SO monolayers. Our calculations reveal that the quasi-particle band gaps for the Ga_2SO and WTe_2 monolayers are 3.00 eV and 2.11 eV, respectively, while the corresponding optical gaps are 1.88 eV and 1.57 eV. The exciton binding energies, obtained from the difference between the quasi-particle band gaps and optical gaps, are found to be 1.12 eV for Ga_2SO and 0.54 eV for WTe_2 . The larger quasi-particle bandgap of Ga_2SO monolayer yields a higher exciton binding energy (E_b) than WTe_2 monolayer. Although elevated E_b promotes exciton accumulation, it concurrently intensifies excitonic effects-strengthening Coulomb interactions that may hinder charge separation and thus limit photocatalytic efficiency.[49, 51] The corresponding oscillator strengths are presented in Fig. S6.

The photocatalytic performance of the constructed Z-scheme $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures was quantitatively evaluated using the conversion efficiency from solar to hydrogen (η_{STH}), as proposed by Fu et al.[52, 53]. This metric provides a comprehensive assessment of the system's ability to harness solar energy for hydrogen production, taking into account factors such as light absorption, charge carrier separation, and surface redox reactions. The higher the η_{STH} value, the more efficient the photocatalytic system is in converting solar energy into chemical energy, which is critical for practical applications in renewable energy. The built-in electric field in the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures induces work function differences that significantly influence the photocatalytic water splitting process. To eliminate potential biases, the corrected solar-to-hydrogen efficiency (η'_{STH}) was

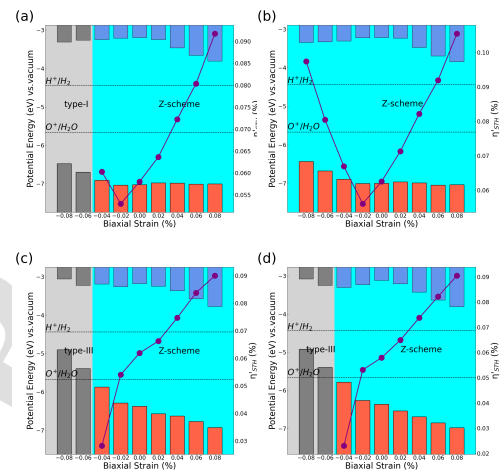


Figure 6: The band edges and corrected solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiencies (PH=0) for the AB, AtB, ABz, and AtBz configurations of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures under biaxial strains ranging from -8% to 8% . The red and blue columns represent the VBM of the Ga_2SO monolayer and the CBM of the WTe_2 monolayer, respectively. The grey columns indicate cases where the band edges fail to satisfy the potential requirements for photocatalytic water splitting.

additionally calculated. We applied strains ranging from -8% to 8% to the structure and calculated changes in the band structure and corrected solar-to-hydrogen efficiency of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure under strain, as shown in Fig. 6 and Table S3-S6. The results reveal that the band structure, η_{STH} and η'_{STH} of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure exhibit significant variations under different strain conditions. Among all strain conditions, the AtB configuration exhibits the highest solar-to-hydrogen efficiencies, with η_{STH} and η'_{STH} reaching 11.46% and 10.55% under 8% tensile strain, respectively. The strain-tunable electronic properties of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure, combined with its high solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency, make it a promising candidate for practical photocatalytic applications.

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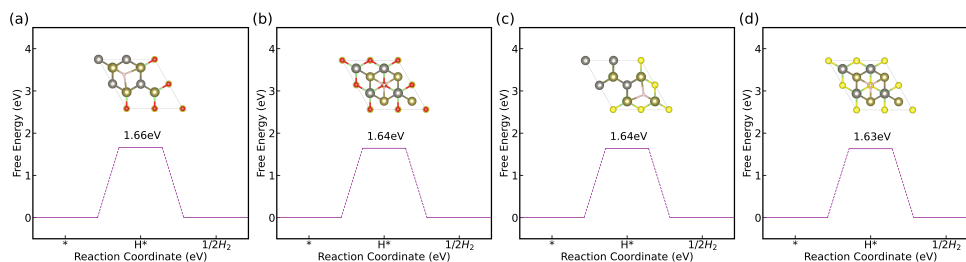


Figure 7: Gibbs free energy changes for the hydrogen evolution reaction on the WTe_2 monolayer in four $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures configurations: (a) AB, (b) AtB, (c) ABz, (d) AtBz.

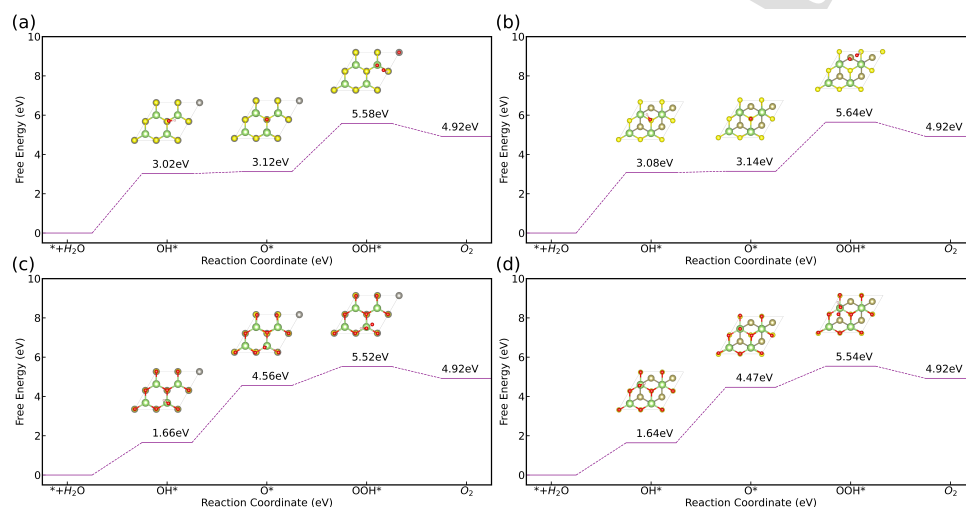


Figure 8: Gibbs free energy changes for the oxygen evolution reaction on the Ga_2SO monolayer in four $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures configurations: (a) AB, (b) AtB, (c) ABz, (d) AtBz.

3.4. Gibbs free energies and thermodynamics feasibility

The Gibbs free energy profiles for both the hydrogen evolution reaction on WTe_2 surfaces and the oxygen evolution reaction on Ga_2SO surfaces were systematically evaluated using density functional theory, as detailed in the Supplementary Materials. This analysis elucidates the thermodynamic feasibility of these reactions driven by the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure as shown in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8. The Gibbs free energy for the hydrogen evolution reaction across the four $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure configurations ranges from 1.63 eV to 1.66 eV. In contrast, the band alignment analysis reveals a photogenerated bias of only 1.22–1.32 eV for HER. This significant discrepancy suggests that the HER process in these $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures cannot proceed spontaneously under the given conditions, as the thermodynamic driving force provided by the photoexcitation is insufficient to overcome the reaction energy barrier. Notably, the Gibbs free energy for the hydrogen evolution

reaction in this work (1.63–1.66 eV) is lower than the experimentally reported values for N-doped Ni_3S_2 (2.7 eV)[54] and graphene/ MoS_2 heterostructures (2.01 eV)[55]. This comparison suggests that the HER activity of $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures may be experimentally achievable, although additional catalytic enhancement might be required to overcome the remaining energy barrier.

The oxygen evolution reaction at the monolayer Janus Ga_2SO interface exhibits configuration-dependent energetics: The AB and AtB configurations show OH^* formation as the rate-determining step (RDS) with ΔG_{RDS} of 3.02 eV and 3.08 eV, respectively, while the ABz and AtBz configurations shift the RDS to O^* formation with $\Delta G_{\text{RDS}} = 2.90$ eV and 2.83 eV, respectively. This transition originates from the symmetry breaking in the Janus Ga_2SO monolayer, which modifies the local adsorption configuration. Although the photogenerated bias for OER in pristine $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructures (1.93–2.59 eV) is insufficient to drive spontaneous oxygen evolution, established doping

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strategies have been proven effective in reducing the thermodynamic overpotential for analogous 2D materials [56, 57]. This precedent supports the experimental feasibility of OER in $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ systems upon appropriate structural modifications, though detailed engineering approaches require further investigation.

4. Conclusion

This study presents the design and characterization of the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ van der Waals heterostructure through first-principles calculations, with systematic investigation of its photocatalytic water-splitting properties. Combined differential charge density and Bader charge analyses reveal an interfacial built-in electric field that establishes a direct Z-scheme charge transfer pathway, enabling both efficient carrier separation and preservation of high-redox-capacity charges. Through systematic strain engineering, the heterostructure achieves maximum solar-to-hydrogen efficiencies of 11.46% (η_{STH}) and 10.55% (η'_{STH}) under optimal biaxial strain conditions, representing superior performance among contemporary photocatalyst systems. Detailed optical calculations reveal that the WTe_2 monolayer exhibits strong absorption across both visible and ultraviolet regions, while the Ga_2SO monolayer shows prominent absorption only in the ultraviolet region. Remarkably, the constructed heterostructure maintains enhanced light absorption spanning the entire visible-to-UV spectrum, which correlates well with its excellent photocatalytic performance. Gibbs free energy calculations reveal thermodynamic limitations for OER/HER in the pristine $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure. However, comparative studies suggest that such energy barriers could potentially be reduced through material engineering approaches, as evidenced in other 2D catalytic systems, making experimental realization feasible. These computational results suggest that the $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ heterostructure represents a promising candidate for photocatalytic water-splitting applications, and further experimental validation would be valuable.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

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Strain-Induced 11.46% Solar-to-Hydrogen Efficiency in $\text{Ga}_2\text{SO}/\text{WTe}_2$ Z-scheme Heterostructure

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Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Supplementary Material Strain-Induced 11.46% Solar-to-Hydrogen Efficiency in Ga₂SO/WTe₂ Z-scheme Heterostructure

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Declaration of interests

☒ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

☐ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: