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# **KPFM work function characterization of ongoing reduction and oxidation of transition metal oxide crystals on examples of SrTiO<sub>3</sub> and TiO nanowires**

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## **Abstract**

Controlling the work function of transition metal oxides is of key importance towards future energy production and storage. As majority of applications comprise the use of heterostructures, the most suitable experimental technique is Kelvin Probe Force Microscopy, providing excellent energetic and lateral resolution. In this paper we demonstrate the possibility of the precise work function characterization using the example of artificially formed crystalline titanium monoxide TiO nanowires on strontium titanate SrTiO<sub>3</sub> surfaces providing a sharp atomic interface. The measured value of 3.31(21) eV is the first experimental work function evidence for a cubic TiO phase, being additionally subjected to significant variations among different crystallographic facets. Despite the remarkable height of the formed TiO nanowires, FM-KPFM proved to be able to achieve high lateral resolution of 15 nm, which is close to the topographical limits. In this study we show also the unique possibility of obtaining conductivity and work function maps on the same area, by combining contact and non-contact atomic force microscopy. As most of real applications require ambient operating conditions, we have additionally checked the impact of air venting on the work function of the TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) heterostructure, proving the surface re-oxidation occurs and results in work function increases of 0.9 eV and 0.6 eV for SrTiO<sub>3</sub> and TiO, respectively. In addition, the influence of physisorbed species was estimated to contribute 0.4 eV and 0.2 eV to the work function of both structures. The presented method of the KPFM (and LC-AFM) employment for the work function characterization of transition metal oxides may help to understand the reduction and oxidation impact on electronic properties, which is of high importance towards the development of effective sensing and catalytic devices.

## **Keywords**

Work function; transition metal oxides; FM-KPFM, Kelvin Probe Force Microscopy; reduction and oxidation; TiO; SrTiO<sub>3</sub>

## Introduction

Transition metal oxides are viewed today as most promising materials in many fields, ranging from (photo)catalysis [1], through hydrogen production [2], resistive switching [3] and organic electronics [4],[5] to so-called thermoelectric power generators [6]. The performance of all of abovementioned applications is extremely sensitive to the work function (WF) of the active oxide layer. As a vast majority of applications is nowadays based on oxide heterostructures, not only macroscopic information of the work function is needed (which may be provided by averaging techniques like UPS) but also spatial resolution on the scale of single nanometers. Driven by its remarkable lateral and energetic resolution, Kelvin Probe Force Microscopy (KPFM, also known as Scanning Kelvin Probe Microscopy, SKPM) is a tool of choice for the precise measurements of WF across oxide heterostructures, which have not been fully exploited up to date. In recent years KPFM proved to be superior for many cases of both fundamental research and applications, like the identification of adsorption geometries of molecules on oxide surfaces [7], probing energetics of electron transfers within single molecules [8] and operation of prototypical electronic devices, like perovskite solar cells [9] or Ti/TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti memristive devices [10]. Out of two operation modes of KPFM, frequency modulation (FM) proves to be more suitable for investigation of oxide nanostructures, due to the higher lateral resolution than in amplitude modulation (AM) [11]. Therefore, in our study we present the advantages and limits of the FM-KPFM technique using the example of a newly discovered TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) (metal/insulator) heterostructure, which have a potentially high technological relevance [12].

Now it would be justified to introduce both TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> oxides, highlighting differences and similarities between those two structures. Judging on the electronic conduction, most transition metal oxides could be classified as insulators or semiconductors. However, due to the plenty of available valence states in which a cation can be, many transition metal oxides may also exhibit metallic conductivity. Here, a huge advantage over other materials is the possibility of oxides self-doping via introduction of oxygen vacancies [13], which is simultaneously a reason that there are not many reliable experimental studies on the work function of transition metal oxides [14]. SrTiO<sub>3</sub> is a perfect example of an insulator with a wide bandgap of 3.2 eV and also a model perovskite oxide. Ti<sup>4+</sup> cations provide no electrons for the d-band, which can participate in conductivity. Strontium titanate finds many applications as dielectric ceramic material [15] but also in various heterostructures, e.g. in the search of exotic electron states (2DEG gas on the interface with LaAlO<sub>3</sub> [16], [17]). On the other side of the transition metal oxides spectrum lies titanium monoxide TiO, in which the titanium atoms adopt the valence state 2+, contributing to the formation of d<sup>2</sup> electrons. Hence, TiO is a d-band conductor, with a room temperature conductivity of 3500 Ω<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, slowly decreasing with temperature [18]. There is a growing interest in metallic oxides as reduced TiO nanostructures exhibit strong absorbance of light in a broad spectrum, which is of potential use in novel tumor therapy [19]. In the previous year many works were published on superconductivity of various TiO structures [20],[21]. According to those, rock-salt TiO is a type-II superconductor with superconductivity transition temperature

( $T_c$ ) of 5.5 K, which is higher than previously reported results [22]. Due to its interesting electronic structure, titanium monoxide nanoparticles find application in heterogeneous catalysis, e.g. for the hydrogenation of styrene [1].

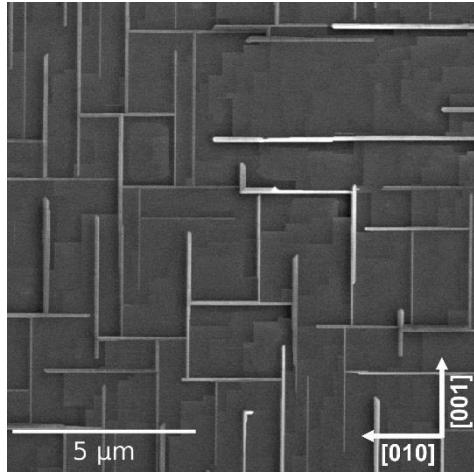
Here we show the properties of a bulk-like crystalline rock-salt TiO phase, unlike previous studies on the crystallography and electronic structure of TiO, which were based on defective thin films formed on various surfaces e.g. TiC(100) [23] or TiO<sub>2</sub>(110) [24].  $\gamma$ -TiO is the high-temperature phase with a NaCl-type (rocksalt-type, B1) cubic structure (Fm $\bar{3}$ -m,  $a=4.184$  Å), displaying a wide range of nonstoichiometry [25]. Our study contains first measurements of electrical conductivity and WF of crystalline TiO and its response to the ambient air re-oxidation. All above is compared to the work function of another relevant oxide SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100), showing similarities and differences between those two structures.

The presented manuscript is organized as follows: after the introduction of our TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) system, a combined conductivity and work function study from the same surface area is presented, showing the possibility of obtaining full information on electronic properties, when KPFM is accompanied by conductive AFM. It is followed by the discussion of apparent variations of WF within cubic TiO nanowires, the estimation of the KPFM resolution and the differences between TiO<sub>2</sub> and SrO terminations of SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100). The last part of the study is dedicated to discuss the work function response of both TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> surfaces upon oxidation via ambient air exposure, in order to provide an impression of oxygen, water and carbon dioxide interaction and also mimic operation conditions in real applications.

## Results and Discussion

Thermal reduction of SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) under reduced oxygen partial pressure (UHV conditions + an oxygen getter), assured by the ELOP (extremely low oxygen partial pressure) process, results in the formation of a network of ordered TiO nanowires on the (100) surface as shown in Fig. 1 a). Heavily reducing conditions enable not only the oxygen excorporation from the crystal but additionally trigger an incongruent sublimation of strontium, leaving the titanium enrichment of the surface [26]. This general process has been observed also for the broader class of transition metal oxides, such as CaTiO<sub>3</sub> or BaTiO<sub>3</sub>. Titanium monoxide surface layer crystallizes in form of nanowires oriented along the main crystallographic directions of SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100), having a length of up to 10  $\mu$ m, a width of a few hundred nm and a height of tens of nm. Their size could be easily tuned either by the temperature or time of reduction [12]. Perfect crystallographic order of TiO nanostructures is confirmed by the TEM measurements in the HAADF-STEM mode as we have recently shown in Ref. [12]. A closer look on TiO reveals the  $\gamma$ -TiO structure in a Fm-3m space group and 2.1 Å unit cell, which stands in agreement with literature values [27]. The high level of crystallinity of these nanowires is the result of the formation mechanism, which comprises incongruent strontium effusion from SrTiO<sub>3</sub> and then a TiO structure growth via crystallographic

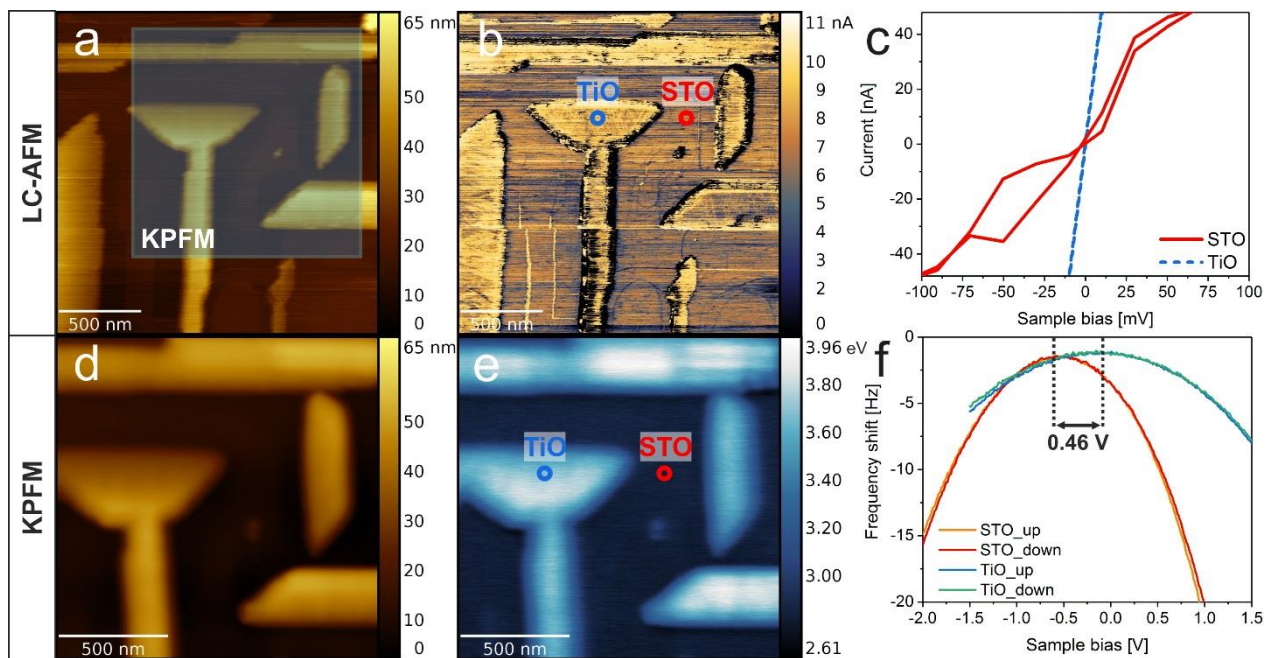
shearing and diffusion (more details can be found in [12]). The abrupt TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> interface and the Ti<sup>2+</sup> to Ti<sup>4+</sup> transition thereof makes such a transition metal oxide heterostructure a promising candidate for various electronic properties and charge transfer investigations.



*Fig. 1. SEM SE picture of an oriented network of titanium monoxide (TiO) nanowires on SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100). In-between terrace structure of STO could be seen.*

Despite the similarities (both structures have cubic crystallographic phase), there are profound differences in the electronic structure between band insulator SrTiO<sub>3</sub> and metallic TiO. Here there are two 3d electrons per one Ti<sup>2+</sup> divalent titanium ion, partially filling the metallic d-band in the energy diagram. From the orbital perspective, high conductivity is a consequence of the d-orbitals overlap from the neighbouring Ti sites. In the case of cubic TiO, the Ti-Ti distance is slightly above 2Å, which is enough to have a significant overlap given the d-orbitals extension. On the other hand, in the ideal SrTiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite there are no d-electrons on Ti sites. Thus a TiO network on SrTiO<sub>3</sub> constitutes a metallic nanowire array embedded in an insulator and to properly disentangle electronic properties of both structures a nanoscale resolving technique is needed. Indeed with the use of the LC-AFM technique the conductivity of the developed nanostructures at the nanoscale can be characterized providing a unique possibility of obtaining current maps as well as I/V characteristics at a given spot. Fig. 2a) and b) show topography and current maps of the TiO nanowire network on SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100). Apparently, TiO has a higher conductivity than the surrounding STO surface (areas at nanowires' rims of no current are due to technical reasons, such as wear of coating of the conductive probe). To better illustrate the differences, I/V characteristics of TiO and STO were collected and are presented in Fig. 2c). Given the apparent ohmic behavior at the TiO nanowire, the conductance of a whole system (tip + contact + TiO nanowire + interface + STO bulk + bottom electrode) could be estimated to  $G_{\text{LC-AFM}} = 10 \mu\text{S}$ . In contrast, the STO surface exhibits one order of magnitude lower current of a rather semiconducting nature. It is noteworthy that the STO(100) surface had been beforehand thermally reduced up to 1150°C in UHV, resulting in the formation of a high concentration of

oxygen vacancies. Therefore the conductivity is much higher than that of a pristine crystal, which have been estimated via a comparable LC-AFM study to be around  $10^{-16}$  S [28]. Here the observed changes of conductivity on the surface correlate directly with the work function differences as provided by the KPFM measurements taken at the very same area. It could be made possible by forcing the same conductive contact AFM tip to oscillate at higher harmonics to enter FM-KPFM mode (more details can be found here [29]). Fig. 2 d), e) present topography and work function of the same area. Differences in WF are as high as 900 meV between TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub>, in favour of TiO, however there is also a certain variation within the TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> structures, which will be discussed later. Bias sweep measurements presented in Fig. 2f) show reproducible Kelvin parabolae with negative curvature for both structures. As up and down bias sweeps appear to be the same, there is no sign of charging or charge transfer. A comparative study of LC-AFM and KPFM of TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> structure enables a clear distinction between two materials of comparable conductivity but much different work functions. Although undoped SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) is a band insulator, it could be easily self-doped with oxygen vacancies upon thermal reduction [28], [30]. Reduction preferentially occurs at the surface, resulting in the reconstruction transformation from (1x1) to ( $\sqrt{5}\times\sqrt{5}$ )R26.6°, and in the vicinity of extended defects in a crystal (dislocations) which act as easy conduction paths for electrons. Oxygen vacancies formation and therefore Ti<sup>3+</sup> valence, results in the appearance of new t<sub>2g</sub> electron states within Ti 3d, below the conduction band of SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) [31]. Consequently a decrease of WF is expected, as it was previously reported for 900°C thermal annealing under UHV, where WF of SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) yielded 3.478(64) eV [30]. Hence, here a high conductivity of a reduced SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) is measured and a work function of 3.12(18) eV, which is almost 1 eV lower than previous XPEEM and UPS studies for untreated oxide – 4.13 and 4.2 eV [32], [33].



*Fig. 2. Electrical properties of a TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) heterostructures. a), b) LC-AFM topography and current (PtIr coated PPP-ContPt tip, +1 mV sample bias), c) I/V characteristic (up and down sweeps) of marked areas on TiO nanowire and STO surface, d), e) KPFM topography and work function measurement of the very same area, f) Kelvin parabola at the same TiO and STO structures.*

As stated before, KPFM investigations reveal certain variations in the work function value of TiO nanostructures. To illustrate this properly a 3D topography overprinted image with color scale representing the WF is shown in Fig. 3a). The WF of titanium monoxide varies as high as 300 meV, even within one nanowire. This is not an imaging artifact but rather a morphological-related feature, which is proved by the two profiles obtained for the same nanowire and shown in b) and c). Nanowires' edges have apparently different work function than a top surface. It is supposedly a consequence of different facets of a cubic TiO crystal exposed. Such an effect of facets having different WF was to date observed for many structures – differences could be as high as 255 meV measured for the case of (-1-1-2) and (110) surfaces of CuGaSe<sub>2</sub> [34]. For the case of transition metal oxide crystals XPEEM studies proved that the WF of the SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(111) face is higher than that of the (100) face by no less than 210 meV [32]. Smaller differences in the range of 70 meV were reported for the case of titanium dioxide (110) and (100) faces [35]. In the present case the differences could be higher due to the fact that whole sample with TiO nanostructures were annealed up to 1150°C and thus a possible reduction-driven non-stoichiometry occurs. From a geometrical perspective low index faces of cubic TiO, like (100), (110) or (210) have an equal number of protruding oxygen and titanium atoms, in contrary to the (111) face, where a whole plane is formed by either titanium or oxygen. Up to our knowledge there are no literature studies on the stability or work function on such faces but it is justified to assume certain differences between those facets, which are also influenced by the preferential removal of oxygen during thermal reduction. As TiO nanowires have a height of tens of nm and tip convolution may play a role, a precise evaluation of steep facets of a higher WF seen in Fig. 3 is difficult. Basing on the relative slope of a TiO surface it seems that the top adopts typically (100) plane but it needs further proofs.

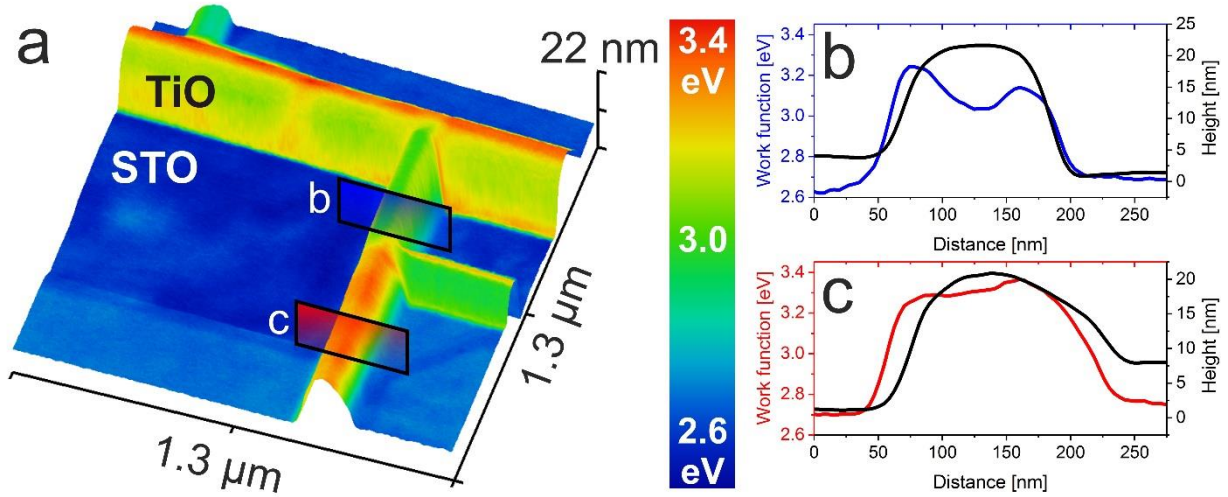


Fig. 3. TiO facets influence on the nanoscale work function. a) 3D view of the combined topography and WF of TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub>. b), c) topography and work function profiles of two areas on the same TiO nanowire.

An overlayer of work function on topography shown in Fig. 3a) provides additional information on the high lateral contrast of KPFM. WF and morphology matches almost completely, although height variations are of tens of nm. To investigate the resolution limits of the KPFM imaging of oxide heterostructures with a complex topography a set of images of parallel TiO nanowires was investigated and the results are presented in Fig. 4. As a measure of the potential resolution we have used the ratio between the CPD decrease in-between the TiO nanowires and the full CPD of TiO with respect to STO. For an ideal case, when the CPD reaches the value of STO in the gap between parallel nanowires, this measure adopts 1, and 0 if there is no drop in CPD. The dependence of this value on TiO nanowires separation, plotted in Fig. 4 d) provides information on the resolution limit. Apparently it follows an asymptotic behavior and the correct CPD values are measured when TiO nanowires are separated by more than 40 nm. This stands in a perfect agreement with the real tip radius of 15 nm, which was measured for the same cantilever in HR-SEM (see Fig. 4d) insets). Here, the use of uniformly PtIr-coated tips, enables avoidance of the topography correlated artifacts, unlike some previous studies [36]. Taking into account the opening angle of about 40 degrees and the nanowires' average height of 18(8) nm, the tip diameter at the level of nanowires top surface would be about 40 nm, meaning that the CPD resolution is approaching the topography resolution which is the ultimate physical limit of FM-KPFM technique [11]. Similar results were obtained for the resolution estimation for KBr nanoislands of monoatomic thickness, where a resolution of 0.5 was obtained for 20 nm separation, as it is in following study [37]. CPD resolution at TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> transition is insensitive to nanowires' height, following the same asymptotic behavior (see Fig. 4 d), unlike the situation for C60 islands on HOPG, where spread of 50 nm was reported, while topography resolution yielded 10 nm [38].

From our results we can set the limit of the smallest separation of oxide nanostructures at 15 nm to obtain any CPD difference. As for the CPD resolution, the estimated value would be below 5 meV, due to the high mechanical stability and good conductivity of both platinum silicide and PtIr-coated tips.



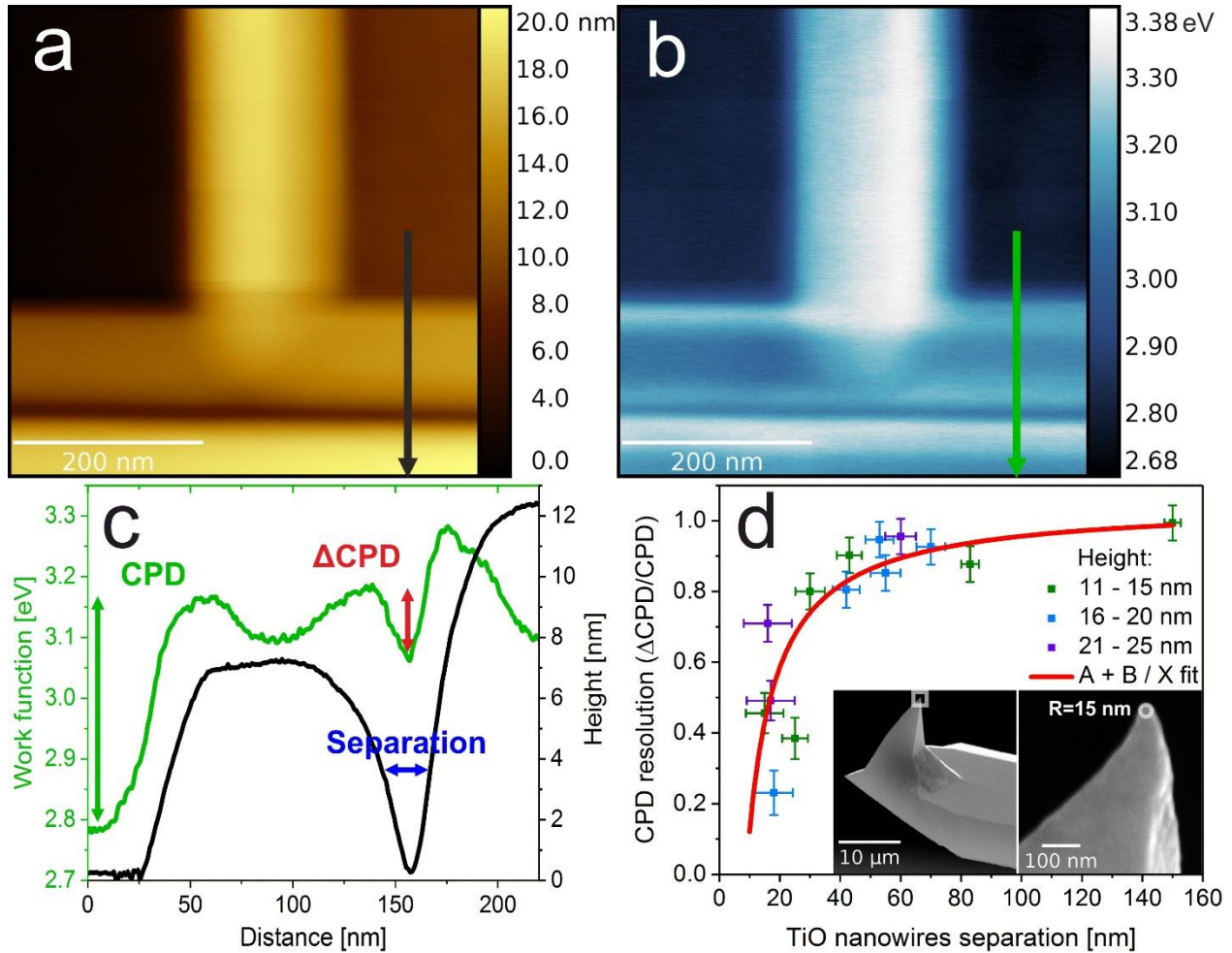


Fig. 4. KPFM lateral resolution on high TiO/STO structures. a) Topography and b) Work function of TiO nanowire array on SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100), c) Height (black line) and work function (green line) profiles of two adjacent TiO nanowires, showing high KPFM contrast, d) Dependence of the CPD resolution (estimated as  $\Delta\text{CPD}/\text{CPD}$ , see c) ) on separation between TiO nanowires, with A + B/X asymptote fit. Insets show SEM images of the actual PtSi cantilever used in the experiments with a tip radius of 15 nm.

Apart from the work function difference between the TiO and STO materials we have found also that the CPD/WF mapping of the STO(100) itself exhibits a nonuniform nature. This has been associated with two different possible surfaces, as SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) perovskite structure has two stable non-polar terminations: SrO and TiO<sub>2</sub>, which both are present on the pristine surface, although TiO<sub>2</sub> being more stable [39]. When annealed under reducing conditions, the TiO<sub>2</sub> termination is promoted. Upon heavy reduction there is a further oxygen depletion which results in the formation of the  $(\sqrt{5}\times\sqrt{5})R26.6^\circ$  reconstruction, which we recently proved to be Ti-enriched layer on TiO<sub>2</sub> terminated SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) [30], [40]. The electronic structures of both terminations are much different – DFT calculated work function values are 1.92 eV and 4.48 eV for SrO and TiO<sub>2</sub> respectively [14], obtained however for the pure surfaces, without vacancies.

In the present case of thermally reduced SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100), the majority of surface adopts  $(\sqrt{5}\times\sqrt{5})R26.6^\circ$  reconstruction on TiO<sub>2</sub> termination, as shown in the inset in Fig. 5a). Bright features seen in the STM picture are either oxygen vacancies/vacancy clusters or Sr adatoms,

according to the model [30]. KPFM reveals a non-homogeneous landscape of work function - higher values are measured on terraces, whereas areas near edges have reduced work function (see Fig. 5b). It could be directly represented by the histogram shown in Fig. 5c). A clear difference of 23 meV could be measured between two areas. Supposedly the higher values are related to the TiO<sub>2</sub> termination, which is dominant and lower to SrO-enriched terrace edges. This assignment is supported by the measured KPFM difference of air-annealed SrTiO<sub>3</sub> terminations of approx. 10 meV [41]. This difference is not likely to be caused by the electronic depleted layer at step edges, since it stretches out from the edges up to 100 nm, which is too far to be attributed to local dipoles.

In terms of absolute work function of TiO<sub>2</sub>-terminated SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100), the obtained value of 3.12(18) eV, averaged across a number of images, is close to those postulated by the DFT for TiO<sub>2</sub> termination with oxygen vacancies in the surface layer – 3.39 eV [14]. On the other hand, the measured values at SrO-rich terrace edges are higher compared to the reported value of 2.5-3.0 eV for single terminated SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) [42]. It is most likely a result of high defective state of those regions, which are thought to be more unstable and reactive compared to TiO<sub>2</sub>-termination [42].

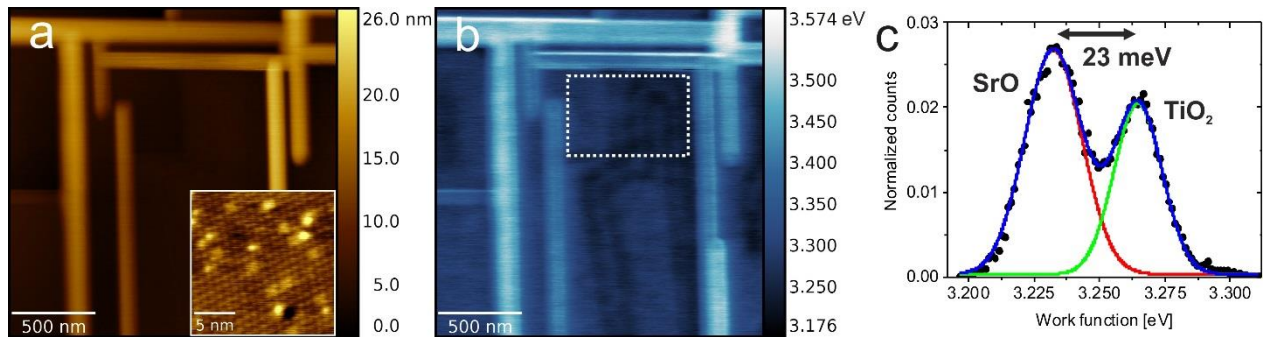


Fig. 5. Identification of the SrTiO<sub>3</sub> termination via KPFM. a) Topography of a TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> structure ( $\Delta f = -20$  Hz); inset shows the TiO<sub>2</sub>-based ( $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ )R26.6° reconstruction (STM empty states, +1.5V, 10 pA), b) Corresponding work function map from KPFM, c) Work function histogram from the selected area in b).

### Ambient air re-oxidation of TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub>

As a vast majority of applications of transition metal oxides is related to the oxygen activity and redox reactions on surfaces, the next experiment was aimed to study the work function dependence upon controlled re-oxidation of reduced oxides.

Transition metal oxide nanostructures find manifold applications especially in various (photo)catalytic processes, e.g. water splitting [1][43][44]. For industrial uses samples have to be exposed to ambient conditions, therefore it is necessary to investigate impact of an air exposure on electronic surface properties. Moreover, transition metal oxides are often regarded as promising materials for sensing applications, due to the strong response to gaseous pressures, especially oxygen and water [45]. A tool of choice, which provides information of subtle changes in the work function is KPFM, which has been used to date for research on the photocatalytic

activity of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based doped and undoped nanofibers [46], [47] and for the understanding the operation of nanostructure electrochemical sensors [48].

Thus, we focused on the systematic approach of the influence of ambient air on the work function of TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100). Fig. 7a) shows topography and work function of representative TiO nanowire networks before and after ambient air exposure. Additionally, the impact of low temperature annealing (230°C) in UHV is presented. After venting of the vacuum chamber, the TiO nanowires still had a much higher work function than the SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) surface, however the absolute values for both materials rose. It is widely known that water molecules present in the ambient air form a dipole layer, which can give rise to the effective surface potential [49].

To reduce the impact of weakly-interacting physisorbates, in the next step the sample underwent *in situ* UHV annealing, which implicated in WF decrease of both TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> by about 0.3 eV. This is regarded as a limit value of physisorbed adsorbates binding energy. To illustrate the experimental findings better, three histograms of reduced, air oxidized and outgased work functions are plotted in Fig. 7b). It is immediately visible that the general three-peak nature of STO, lower and higher TiO values of WF is preserved, however the offset changes, as illustrated in Fig. 7c). STO(100) work function increases by 0.9 eV due to the air exposure, similarly as for the case of oxygen re-oxidation [30]. A conclusion can be drawn that the most active gas is oxygen which refills vacancies of the reduced ( $\sqrt{5}\times\sqrt{5}$ )R26.6° surface and locally oxidizes titanium cations to regain 4+ valence state.

Vented TiO nanowires have a work function higher by 0.65 eV, independent on face, which is almost 0.5 eV higher than for the case of pure oxygen (not shown). It is a footprint of the high catalytic activity of TiO surface, which was previously postulated for the case of TiO/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles [44]. Reduced titania TiO<sub>1.23</sub> proves to be a promising candidate for electrochemical water splitting [50]. As catalytic activity of a crystalline rock-salt TiO phase has not been yet studied, this is a first indirect observation of a high potential of such structure.

After *in situ* annealing to 230°C, the work function of TiO nanowires drops by 0.2 eV, in contrary to a 0.35 eV decrease for SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) surface. A temperature of 230°C was chosen to enable desorption of physisorbed adsorbates, leaving however chemisorbed species. Numerical calculations suggests that H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> species in air saturate almost all free adsorption sites on TiO<sub>2</sub>-terminated SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) [51]. The low Redhead desorption temperatures of H<sub>2</sub>O (CO<sub>2</sub>) of 233–283 K (428–523 K) calculated by Baniecki et al. [51] suggest that our surface, which is predominantly TiO<sub>2</sub>-terminated is cleaned of those adsorbates after annealing, hence the 0.35 eV difference in WF.

The lower response of TiO to annealing is a hint of higher adsorption energy of interacting gases. It suggests chemisorption of H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> and of their dissociation products, stemming from profound catalytic activity of TiO phase.

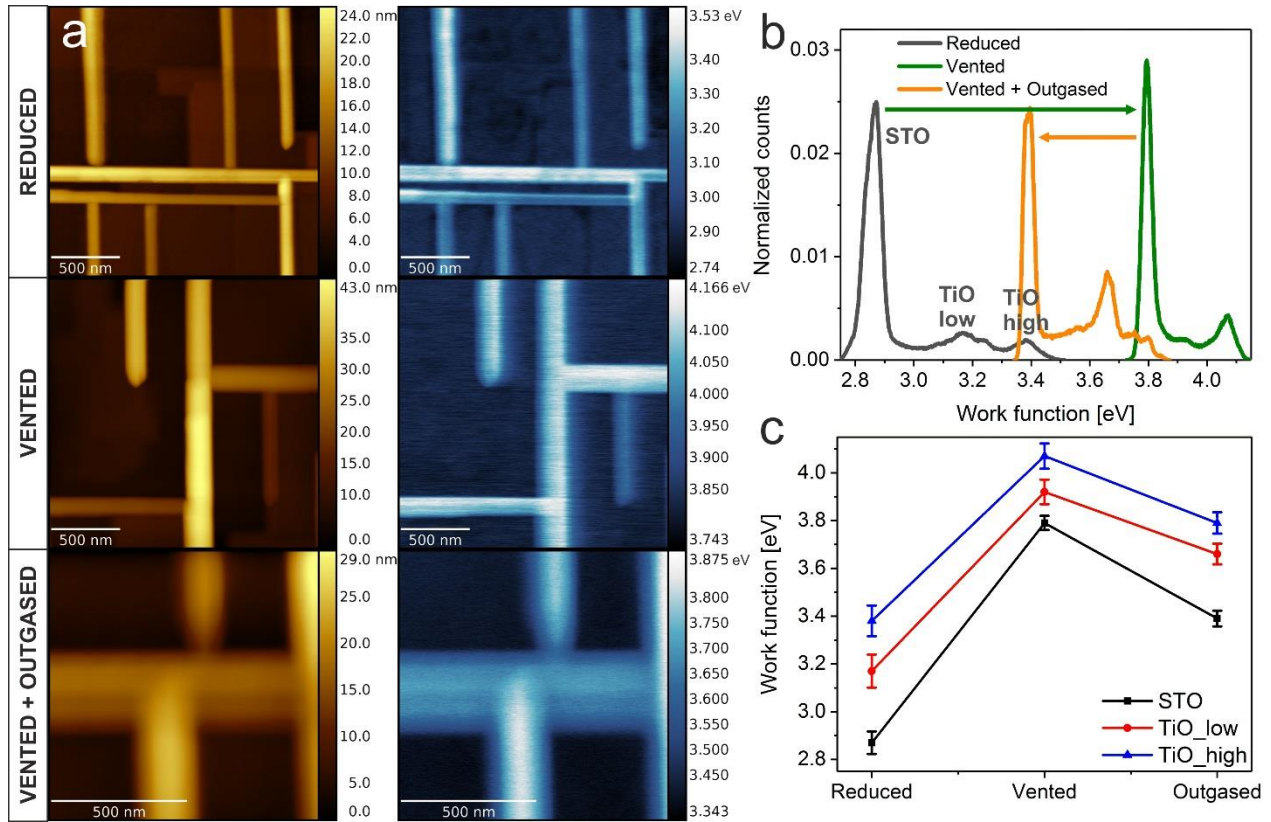


Fig. 6. Influence of the air exposure on TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> work function. a) KPFM topography and work function of TiO/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> heterostructure ( $\Delta f = -40$  Hz) after reduction (first row), exposed to ambient air (second row) and after annealing up to 230°C (third row). b) Work function histograms of presented cases. c) Evolution of the work function value for SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) surface (black), lower TiO facets (red) and higher (blue).

To wrap up our experimental findings of the KPFM study of TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) crystals a comparison between obtained work functions as well as literature values is presented in Table 1. The first direct work function measurement of cubic  $\gamma$ -phase of TiO yields 3.31(21) eV for the as-grown (reduced in UHV at 1150°C) and 3.75(11) eV for vented and outgased, which is most likely close to the value for pristine TiO crystal. Up to date only values for TiO WF are coming from polycrystalline samples (films, nanoparticles) and from laterally averaging method of UPS, thus it cannot be reasonably compared with our findings. WF value obtained for the reduced SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) surface – 3.12(18) eV follows the trend of decreasing work function upon reduction and increasing due to re-oxidation [30]. It is worth mentioning that substantial discrepancies between measured WF for transition metal oxides, besides different quality of samples, could stem from the non-optimal conditions during preparation, e.g. holder materials can act as oxygen getters, influencing the reduction state of a sample [12].

Material	Sample	WF [eV]	Method	Reference
<b>TiO</b>	TiO nanoparticles (14 nm)	3.01	UPS	[44]
	TiO thin polycrystalline film	~ 4.5	UPS	[52]
	TiO cubic $\gamma$ -phase (nanowires):		KPFM	<b>This study</b>
	• Reduced	3.31(21)		
• Air-exposed	3.92(17)			
	• Air-exposed and annealed	3.75(11)		
<b>SrTiO<sub>3</sub></b>	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100)	4.13	XPEEM	[32]
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (110)	4.32		
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (111)	4.34		
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100)	4.2	UPS	[33]
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100) reduced at 900°C	3.478(64)	KPFM	[30]
	TiO <sub>2</sub> -terminated SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100)	4.2 – 4.3	Macroscopic	[42]
	SrO-terminated SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100)	2.5 – 3.0	Kelvin probe	
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100) (single crystal):		KPFM	<b>This study</b>
	• Reduced at 1150°C	3.12(18)		
• Air-exposed	3.835(72)			
	• Air-exposed and annealed	3.41(11)		
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100) BHF etched, air annealed (1000°C)		KPFM	[41]
	• $\phi_{\text{TiO}_2} - \phi_{\text{SrO}}$ difference	~10 meV		
	SrTiO <sub>3</sub> (100) reduced in UHV at 1150°C		KPFM	<b>This study</b>
	• $\phi_{\text{TiO}_2} - \phi_{\text{SrO}}$ difference	23(5) meV		

Table 1. Comparison between literature values and obtained experimental results of TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> work functions.

## Conclusions

We have presented a thorough study of the Kelvin Probe Force Microscopy investigations on electronic properties of a cubic TiO formed on SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) single crystal surface. To our best knowledge, this is the first measurement of the crystalline TiO work function and its dependence on a gaseous pressure of air, in comparison to SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) response. The rock-salt cubic  $\gamma$ -phase, with a high crystallographic order, has a work function of 3.31(21) eV with significant variations on the surface, which are supposedly related to different facets exposed. Higher work function of TiO compared to STO(100) is accompanied with higher conductivity, with an Ohmic behavior, which was checked by simultaneous LC-AFM measurements. Full ambient venting results in a 0.6 eV rise in the TiO work function, being a hint of ongoing catalyzed dissociation of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O present in ambient air. The work function of TiO decreases by 0.2 eV as a result of 230°C UHV annealing, being a measure of amounts of physisorbed species. Air exposure of ( $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ )R26.6° TiO<sub>2</sub>-terminated SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) surface results in 0.9 eV increase in work function, which is similar to the rise for the re-oxidation in pure oxygen. Annealing causes decreases of 0.4 eV due to the desorption of weakly bonded CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O species.

Our study contains also an estimation of the KPFM lateral resolution, which supposedly enabled for reliable measurements of TiO nanowires separated by 40 nm, proving suitability of the KPFM

technique for transition metal oxide structures investigation, even with remarkable topographical variations.

Concluding, our results acquired for crystalline TiO and SrTiO<sub>3</sub> phases give an important information of the work function values itself but also on the oxygen and air interaction, towards development of reliable transition metal oxide catalytic and sensing devices.

## Experimental

We investigated Verneuil-grown epi-polished SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) crystals, provided by the Crystec company. Crystals were mounted onto Omicron direct heating holders and introduced into the UHV chamber, with a base pressure of  $5 \times 10^{-10}$  mbar, maintained by use of turbomolecular, ion and sublimation pumps. In order to produce a TiO nanowires network on the surface of STO(100) the Extremely Low Oxygen Partial Pressure (ELOP) method of perovskite decomposition was adapted (for more information see [26],[12]). The SrTiO<sub>3</sub>(100) single crystal ( $10 \times 3 \times 0.5$  mm<sup>3</sup>) sample was mounted on a n-doped Si(111) single crystal, which acted as an oxygen getter, allowing for reaching the extremely low effective oxygen partial pressures on the STO surface (below  $10^{-20}$  mbar). As a result of high-temperature reduction (1150°C, 1h) under such conditions, a macroscopic network of nanowires was formed. After slow cooling down to room temperature, samples were transferred *in situ* to the microscope chamber of an Omicron RT STM/AFM system, where Kelvin Probe Force Microscopy (KPFM), Local-conductivity Atomic Force Microscopy (LC-AFM) and Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM) measurements were performed. The KPFM operating in FM mode was used with a single-pass method, with three feedback loops maintaining oscillation amplitude, phase and frequency shift [53]. The real oscillation amplitude was in the range of 10 nm. In order to obtain the CPD signal an AC modulated bias was applied to the bottom electrode, where a sample was mounted. The modulation frequency and amplitude was set to 315 Hz and 500 mV, respectively.

In order to ensure reproducible FM-KPFM results two different types of AFM cantilevers were used: PPP-ContPt (PtIr coated) and PtSi-FM (platinum silicide tips), both from Nanosensors. Such cantilevers are widely used as conducting tips in a contact mode AFM, allowing for a high lateral resolution in conductivity measurements. Remarkable mechanical stability of selected cantilevers allowed for the non-contact mode measurements (with a Kelvin loop) using the very same tip, maintaining oscillations at the higher harmonics of the fundamental frequency (approx. 75 kHz). Hence, in order to record current and CPD maps from the very same sample area, at first KPFM measurements were performed, with the soft cantilever forced to oscillate at higher harmonics, then tip was retracted tens of nm from the surface, all feedback loops were turned down and a contact mode AFM scan was performed when approached, with a single loop maintaining deflection setpoint of 10-30 mV. High conductivity of both TiO and STO materials enabled for use of low sample bias of +1 mV for the LC-AFM measurements.

Real work function values were calculated from recorded CPD maps after calibration against material of a known work function, here highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG), annealed *in situ* up to 300°C, in order to remove water and other physisorbates. After each set of KPFM measurements a HOPG surface was scanned, using the same experimental parameters and a  $V_{\text{CPD}}(\text{HOPG})$  was obtained. Assuming HOPG work function of  $\phi_{\text{HOPG}} = 4.5$  eV (literature values:  $4.6 \pm 0.1$  eV [54],  $4.4 \pm 0.1$  eV [55]), work function of TiO/STO was evaluated using formula:  $\phi_{\text{TiO/STO}} = V_{\text{CPD}}(\text{TiO/STO}) - V_{\text{CPD}}(\text{HOPG}) + \phi_{\text{HOPG}}$ .

Ambient air exposure was realized by venting the sample in the load-lock and then introducing again into UHV system. Subsequent annealing up to 230°C for 1h hour enabled for the estimation of physisorbed species' content at the surface.

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