p–n Heterojunction photoelectrodes composed of Cu2O-loaded TiO2 nanotube arrays with enhanced photoelectrochemical and photoelectrocatalytic activities†

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Cu2O/TiO2 p–n heterojunction photoelectrodes were prepared by depositing different amounts of p-type Cu2O nanoparticles on n-type TiO2 nanotube arrays (i.e., forming Cu2O/TiO2 composite nanotubes) via an ultrasonication-assisted sequential chemical bath deposition. The success of deposition of Cu2O nanoparticles was corroborated by structural and composition characterizations. The enhanced absorption in the visible light region was observed in Cu2O/TiO2 composite nanotubes. The largely improved separation of photogenerated electrons and holes was revealed by photocurrent measurements. Consequently, Cu2O/TiO2 heterojunction photoelectrodes exhibited a more effective photoconversion capability than TiO2 nanotubes alone in photoelectrochemical measurements. Furthermore, Cu2O/TiO2 composite photoelectrodes also possessed superior photoelectrocatalytic activity and stability in the degradation of Rhodamine B. Intriguingly, by selecting an appropriate bias potential, a synergistic effect between electricity and visible light irradiation can be achieved.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been significant interest in controlling environmental pollution and utilizing solar energy. Semiconductor photocatalysis is one of the advanced physicochemical processes applied in the photodegradation of environmental organic pollutants and toxic compounds.1 Among various oxide semiconductor photocatalysts, TiO2 has received immense attention due to its outstanding properties, including chemical stability, strong oxidizing activity, corrosion resistance, and nontoxicity.2–5 Highly ordered TiO2 nanotube arrays (TiO2 NTAs) can be readily fabricated by electrochemical anodization of titanium in fluorine-containing electrolytes6–8 for use in photocatalysis,9–18 photocatalysis,19–21 dye-sensitized solar cells12,13,22–24 and biological applications.25–29 However, TiO2 NTAs used in environmental photocatalysis have two main disadvantages that lead to low utilization efficiency of solar energy. One is the lack of effective absorption in the visible light region due to its wide bandgap \( E_g = 3.2 \) eV. The other is that the electron–hole pairs can easily recombine. To this end, a variety of strategies have been developed to improve the visible light absorption, such as doping with metal30–32 and non-metal,33–35 and coupling with narrow bandgap semiconductors.36–40 In the latter context, narrow bandgap semiconductors act as sensitizers and facilitate the electron transfer to large bandgap TiO2 in narrow bandgap semiconductor/TiO2 heterojunction nanocomposites, thereby efficiently separating photogenerated charge carriers. As a result, the visible light absorption of TiO2 NTAs and the separation rate of photogenerated electron–hole pairs are substantially increased.
Cuprous oxide (Cu$_2$O) represents an important class of metal oxide semiconductor. It has many advantageous characteristics, such as nontoxicity, low cost, and unique optical and electrical properties, for use in hydrogen production, sensors, superconductors, solar cells, and photocatalysis. Cu$_2$O is a relatively narrow bandgap ($E_g = 2.17$ eV) p-type semiconductor, in which both the conduction and the valence bands lie above those of TiO$_2$. Thus, when TiO$_2$ is conjugated with Cu$_2$O, the photo-generated electrons transfer from the conduction band of Cu$_2$O to that of TiO$_2$ to form Ti$^{3+}$ center, which extends the lifetime of photogenerated carriers. Moreover, the photosresponse of Cu$_2$O-conjugated TiO$_2$ extends into the visible light region.

Herein, we present a simple yet robust ultrasonication-assisted sequential chemical bath deposition (S-CBD) technique to yield p-type Cu$_2$O nanoparticles on n-type TiO$_2$ NTAs. The photoelectrochemical performance of the resulting Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ p–n heterojunction composite nanotubes was systematically explored in terms of the amount of Cu$_2$O loaded on TiO$_2$ NTAs under both full spectrum and visible light irradiation. Interestingly, by selecting a proper bias potential, a synergistic effect between electricity and visible light irradiation can be reached. Consequently, the photoelectrochemical measurements revealed that Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ heterojunction photoelectrodes exhibited a more effective photocconversion capability than TiO$_2$ photoelectrodes alone. Under an appropriate loading of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles and bias potential, high photoelectrocatalytic activity of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ composite photoelectrodes was achieved. The correlated mechanisms of photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) under visible light irradiation were scrutinized. The superior stability of these heterogeneous photocatalysts was examined.

2 Experimental section

2.1 Synthesis of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ composite nanotube arrays

The highly ordered TiO$_2$ NTAs were prepared by electrochemical anodization of Ti foil (0.1 mm thickness, 99.6% purity) in 0.5 wt% HF aqueous solution. Prior to the anodization, Ti foils were ultrasonically cleaned in acetone, alcohol, and distilled water sequentially. The anodization was performed at 20 V for 30 min in a two-electrode cell with Ti foil as the working electrode and platinum foil as the counter electrode at room temperature. After anodization, samples were immediately rinsed with deionized water and dried in air. In order to convert the amorphous phase to the crystalline form, samples were annealed at 500 °C in air for 2 h with a heating rate of 5 °C min$^{-1}$ and a cooling rate of 2 °C min$^{-1}$. Cu$_2$O nanoparticles were deposited on the crystalline TiO$_2$ NTAs by an ultrasonication-assisted sequential chemical bath deposition (S-CBD) method. First, copper acetate (Cu(CH$_3$COO)$_2$)$_2$H$_2$O, 0.14 g) was dissolved in absolute ethanol (30 mL). After dark blue solution was formed, polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP-K30, 0.4 g) was added to the solution and mixed by an ultrasonic generator (KQ2200DB, Kunshan Ultrasonic Instrument Co., Ltd) with a frequency of 99 kHz and an ultrasonic intensity of 2.4 kW m$^{-2}$ for a few minutes. The resulting solution was heated to 40 °C in the water bath. Subsequently, TiO$_2$ NTAs were immersed into the solution, followed by the addition of glucose aqueous solution (0.4 g). NaOH (0.14 g) was added to the solution 1 min later. After ultrasonication for different times, the samples were rinsed with distilled water to remove CH$_3$COO$^-$, glucose, and NaOH. Finally, the samples were dried under vacuum at a temperature of 60 °C for 2 h.

2.2 Characterization

The morphologies of TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs were examined by a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, Hitachi S4800) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM 2100). The crystalline structure of samples was measured by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Philips, Panalytical X’pert, Cu K$_\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.5417$ Å)). The composition of samples was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, VG, Physical Electronic Quantum 2000 Scanning Esca Microprob, Al K$_\alpha$ radiation). The binding energies were normalized to the signal for adventitious carbon at 284.8 eV. UV-visible diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of samples were recorded using a UV-vis-NIR spectrophotometer (Varian Cary 5000). Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were obtained using a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Hitachi F-7000) equipped with a xenon lamp as an excitation source ($\lambda_{ex}$ = 368 nm).

2.3 Photochemical and photoelectrochemical measurements

Photocurrent density was measured with an Ivium (Compact Stat) using a standard three-electrode configuration composed of the sample as the working electrode, Pt foil as the counter electrode, and saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference electrode in 0.1 M Na$_2$SO$_4$. A 300 W Xe lamp with and without a UV-light filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm) was employed as the light source.

2.4 Photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic measurements

The visible-light photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic activities of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs were evaluated using 5 mg L$^{-1}$ Rhodamine B (RhB) aqueous solution as a model pollutant in a quartz glass reactor. The reactor was equipped with a water jacket to control the reaction temperature. A 500 W tungsten-halogen was utilized as the light source. An optical filter was used to allow visible light (>$420$ nm) to pass through. At the beginning 10 mL RhB aqueous solution was fed to the reactor. During the measurement, the air was bubbled through the gas disperser into the reactor, and RhB aqueous solution was continuously stirred at 30 °C. After 1 h mixing to establish the adsorption/desorption equilibrium of RhB on the photocatalyst surface, the measurement was initiated by irradiating the light onto the samples. The changes in RhB absorbance were monitored by measuring the maximal absorption at $\lambda = 557$ nm using an UV-vis spectrophotometer (Unico UV–2102 PC, USA). Photoelectrocatalytic measurements were performed in a standard three-electrode configuration with a Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs electrode as the working electrode, Pt wire as the counter electrode, and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference
electrode, using 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution as the electrolyte. All electrodes were connected to a DJS-292C potentiostat.

3 Results and discussion

An ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD method was employed to deposit Cu₂O nanoparticles into vertically aligned TiO₂ nanotubes as well as the interstitial space between nanotubes, yielding the Cu₂O/TiO₂ p–n heterojunction composite nanotubes. The stepwise formation of Cu₂O nanoparticles on TiO₂ NTAs is illustrated as follows. Copper acetate (0.14 g) and polyvinylpyrrolidone (0.4 g) were firstly mixed and formed a blue solution. Subsequently, TiO₂ NTAs were immersed in the solution. Under ultrasonication the air was expelled from the nanotubes, and Cu²⁺ ions diffused and penetrated into the nanotubes. After the addition of glucose and NaOH, Cu²⁺ ions were reduced to Cu⁺. Cu₂O nanoparticles were thus formed as depicted in eqn (1).

\[
\text{HOCH}_2(\text{CHOH})_4\text{CHO} + \text{Cu}^{2+} + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{HOCH}_2(\text{CHOH})_4\text{COOH} + \text{Cu}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad (1)
\]

Fig. 1 shows the SEM images of TiO₂ NTAs before (Fig. 1A–B) and after the deposition of Cu₂O at different times using an ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD approach (Fig. 1C–F). The self-organized TiO₂ layer consisted of a dense array of vertically aligned nanotubes with an average tube diameter of 100 nm and a tube length of approximately 400 nm (Fig. 1A and B). After the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for 4 min, only a few Cu₂O nanoparticles at the entrance of TiO₂ NTAs were observed (Fig. 1C). The corresponding cross-sectional SEM image (Fig. 1D) showed that Cu₂O nanoparticles (marked with arrows) were deposited inside the TiO₂ nanotubes. After the S-CBD for 9 min (Fig. 1E), the amount of Cu₂O nanoparticles deposited on the nanotubes markedly increased. As time progressed to 19 min (Fig. 1F), Cu₂O nanoparticles aggregated to form mulberry-like Cu₂O nanoclusters; some TiO₂ nanotubes were blocked by big nanoclusters. The EDX spectrum reveals that the Cu₂O nanoparticle-loaded TiO₂ NTAs prepared by the S-CBD for 9 min were composed of Cu, Ti, and O elements, where Ti and O peaks resulted from TiO₂ NTAs, and the Cu peak originated from Cu species (Fig. S1, ESI†).

The low magnification TEM image of Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs prepared by the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for 4 min showed that Cu₂O nanoparticles were successfully formed on the TiO₂ nanotubes (Fig. 2A and B). The average diameter of Cu₂O nanoparticles was 18 nm. Fig. 2C depicts the high resolution TEM image of the selected area, where the lattice fringes of 0.246 nm and 0.351 nm corresponded to the reflections from the (111) plane of Cu₂O and the (101) plane of anatase TiO₂, respectively. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern taken from the nanoparticles in Fig. 2C revealed that Cu₂O nanoparticles were polycrystalline (Fig. 2D).

The XRD patterns of TiO₂ NTAs and Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs are shown in Fig. S2.† The diffraction peaks of TiO₂ NTAs can be indexed to anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS no. 21-1272) and Ti (JCPDS no. 41-1049). For Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs, a new diffraction peak at 2θ = 36.9° was observed, which can be ascribed to the (111) plane of cubic Cu₂O (JCPDS no. 05-667). The average size of Cu₂O crystals was 14.2 nm, calculated from the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the (111) plane using the Scherrer’s equation. No Cu and CuO phases were detected in the Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs.

Fig. 1  SEM images of (A and B) TiO₂ NTAs, and (C–F) Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs prepared by the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD of Cu₂O nanoparticles on TiO₂ NTAs for (C and D) 4 min, (E) 9 min, and (F) 19 min. The insets in (C), (E), and (F) are the close-ups of Cu₂O-loaded TiO₂ NTAs. Top view: (A), (C), (E), and (F). Side view: (B) and (D).

Fig. 2  (A) Low magnification TEM image of Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs prepared by the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for 4 min (top view). (B) Close-up of the selected area marked in (A). (C) The high resolution TEM image of Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs. (D) The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of Cu₂O taken from the nanoparticles in (C).
In order to determine the chemical composition of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ composite nanotubes and identify the chemical state of the Cu element in the samples, XPS characterization was performed, from which only Ti, O, C and Cu elements were observed (Fig. 3A). The emergence of the C element can be attributed to adventitious carbon from the sample fabrication and/or the XPS instrument itself. Fig. 3B displays the Cu 2p core level spectrum. The Cu 2p$_{3/2}$ and Cu 2p$_{1/2}$ spin-orbital photoelectrons were located at binding energies of 932.5 eV and 952.4 eV, respectively, which are in good agreement with the reported values of Cu$_2$O (i.e., the characteristic peaks of Cu 2p$_{3/2}$ for Cu(0), Cu(I), and Cu(II) are at 932 eV, 932.7 eV, and 933.6 eV, respectively). Obviously, the deposited nanoparticles were Cu$_2$O rather than Cu or CuO. Furthermore, the Cu L$_{3}$VV Auger spectrum of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs showed a main peak that appeared at 917.2 eV (Fig. 3C), which was in good agreement with Cu$_2$O instead of CuO and Cu,$^{47}$ further corroborating that the nanoparticles deposited on TiO$_2$ NTAs were Cu$_2$O.

The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs prepared at different ultrasonication times are shown in Fig. 4. Clearly, the absorption onset of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs was at approximately 390 nm, which agreed well with the bandgap of bulk anatase ($E_g$ = 3.2 eV, corresponding to $\lambda$ = 387 nm). Three additional absorption peaks were observed. The trapped hole exhibited an absorption maximum at $\lambda$ = 410 nm, while the trapped electron showed other two absorption maxima at $\lambda$ = 540 nm and 690 nm, which can be attributed to the sub-bandgap states of TiO$_2$ NTAs.$^{48}$ Due to the narrow bandgap of Cu$_2$O ($E_g$ = 2.17 eV), all Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs displayed red shifts in the bandgap transition and an enhanced absorption in the visible-light region. The optical absorption onsets of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs shifted to the lower energy region with the increased time of ultrasonication-assisted deposition, which may have resulted from the increased amount of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles formed on TiO$_2$ NTAs. This suggested that the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ composite nanotubes could absorb light over a quite broad spectral range in the visible region, which is a prerequisite for the utilization of visible light for photocatalysis. Therefore, good photochemical and photocatalytic activities of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs under visible light irradiation are expected.

The photochemical and photoelectrochemical behaviors of TiO$_2$ NTAs before and after the deposition of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles were explored by measuring the photocurrent response. Fig. 5A presents the photocurrent density-time characteristics of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs at a 0 V bias vs. saturated calomel electrode (SCE) with a pulse of 50 s under intermittent Xe lamp irradiation (i.e., UV and visible light irradiation). No significant photocurrent density was observed in the dark for all samples. It is clear that the photocurrent densities of all electrodes increased upon illumination. Moreover, the photocurrent densities of all Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrodes were higher than that of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs. The higher photocurrent density of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrodes signified an improved optical absorption capability and enhanced separation of photogenerated electrons and holes as compared with Cu$_2$O instead of CuO and Cu.$^{47}$

Fig. 3 (A) A XPS survey spectrum of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs. (B) The high resolution XPS spectrum of Cu 2p. (C) The Cu L$_{3}$VV Auger spectrum.

Fig. 4 UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs prepared by the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for different ultrasonication times.
to TiO$_2$ NTAs. For the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTA photoelectrodes, the photocurrent densities increased first and then decreased with an increase of Cu$_2$O nanoparticle loading, suggesting that the amount of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles loaded on TiO$_2$ NTAs can be readily optimized. The highest steady photocurrent density (i.e., 1.83 mA cm$^{-2}$; curve a in Fig. 5A) was yielded from the 4 min deposition sample, in which only a trace amount of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles was formed; this was roughly 2.7 times that of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs (i.e., 0.67 mA cm$^{-2}$; curve e in Fig. 5A). The photocurrent was composed of three steps: (i) the photocurrent appeared promptly, (ii) the photocurrent decreased sharply, and (iii) the photocurrent reached a steady state. They are associated with (a) the photogenerated electrons under UV and visible light irradiation, (b) the recombination of photogenerated electron–hole pairs, and (c) the balance of generation and recombination of photogenerated electron–hole pairs, respectively.

The effect of applied potential on the photocurrent response was also investigated by potentiodynamic scans on TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs. Fig. 5B shows the photocurrent density of the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrode obtained from the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for 4 min (i.e., the sample possessing the highest photocurrent density; curve a in Fig. 5A) and the pure TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrode under UV and visible light irradiation as the function of applied potential. The photocurrent densities of these two electrodes increased with the increase of bias potential ranging from −0.7 V to 2.0 V vs. SCE. The saturated photocurrent density of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs (i.e., 5.45 mA cm$^{-2}$) was approximately 1.56 times that of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs (i.e., 3.49 mA cm$^{-2}$) at 2.0 V.

Photoelectrochemical behaviors of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs prepared by ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for 4 min with and without a 1.0 V bias potential (vs. SCE) are shown in Fig. 5C. Similarly, no photocurrent was observed in the dark. Under UV and visible light irradiation, average photocurrent densities measured on Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs with and without a 1.0 V bias potential were 3.98 mA cm$^{-2}$ and 1.78 mA cm$^{-2}$, respectively; while on TiO$_2$ NTAs they were 2.21 mA cm$^{-2}$ and 0.69 mA cm$^{-2}$, respectively. It is not surprising that at the 1.0 V bias potential, average photocurrent densities of the samples apparently increased, which is indicative of much more enhanced charge separation and longer lifetime of photogenerated electron–hole pairs. More importantly, under the 1.0 V bias potential, a steady photocurrent was reached during the entire illumination period for both Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs and pure TiO$_2$ NTAs, suggesting that the bias potential can greatly promote the separation of photogenerated electron–hole of the photocatalyst.

It is noteworthy that the DRS measurements on the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs samples revealed that they exhibited significant visible light response (Fig. 4). Accordingly, the photoelectrochemical behaviors of the TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrode and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrodes were examined by measuring their photoresponse under the visible light irradiation. The transient photocurrent densities of pure TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs measured at 0 V bias vs. SCE with a visible light pulse of 50 s are shown in Fig. 6A. The pure TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrode showed no photoresponse under the visible light irradiation due to its wide bandgap. Similarly, as the loading of Cu$_2$O nanoparticles increased, the photocurrent densities of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs photoelectrodes increased first and then decreased, which was in good accordance with the results obtained under UV and visible light irradiation (Fig. 5).

Likewise, the 4 min deposition sample of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs possessed the best photoelectrochemical activity (i.e., curve a in Fig. 6A). The potentiodynamic scans from −0.01 V to 1.00 V vs. SCE were performed on pure TiO$_2$ NTAs and Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs.
The increase in the photocurrent densities was observed with the increase of applied potential, and the increase in the photocurrent density for Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs was much more pronounced than that for TiO₂ NTAs. The saturated photocurrent density of the Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs photoelectrode (i.e., 2.86 mA cm⁻²) was about 5.6 times that of the TiO₂ NTAs sample (i.e., 0.51 mA cm⁻²) in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄. An applied potential of 0.5 V vs. SCE was selected as the proper bias to examine the effect of bias potential on Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs and pure TiO₂ NTAs. Similar to the observations in Fig. 5C, under the visible light irradiation the photocurrent densities of the Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs remained stable after photoelectrochemical measurements (Fig. S4†).

The photocatalytic activities of Cu₂O/TiO₂ p–n heterojunction photoelectrodes on the degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) under visible light irradiation were also evaluated. Fig. 7A shows the relative concentration variation of RhB solution with different irradiation times for pure TiO₂ NTAs and Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs prepared by the ultrasonication-assisted S-CBD for different times. In general, TiO₂ NTAs display the low photodegradation rate of the organic pollutant under visible light irradiation due to its wide bandgap. However, when RhB was used as the model pollutant, it can be degraded by TiO₂ NTAs as a result of the photosensitization effect of RhB. After 120 min irradiation, 5.40% self-degradation of RhB was seen; while the concentration of RhB was reduced by approximately 10.36%, 25.33%, 31.34%, 19.54%, and 24.96% for TiO₂ NTAs and Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs obtained from ultrasonication deposition of Cu₂O nanoparticles for 1, 4, 9, and 19 min, respectively. The linear relationship of ln(C/C₀) as a function of time (Fig. 7B) suggested...
that the photocatalytic degradation of RhB followed pseudo-first-order kinetics, which can be expressed by ln(C/C₀) = kt, where |k| is the apparent first-order reaction constant, and C₀ and C are the initial and reaction concentrations of RhB, respectively. The reaction constants, k, for photocatalytic degradation of RhB by pure TiO₂ NTAs and Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs prepared by ultrasonication deposition of Cu₂O nanoparticles for 1, 4, 9, and 19 min, were 0.000938, 0.00182, 0.00312, and 0.00236 min⁻¹, respectively. An obvious increase of the RhB degradation rate was found upon the surface modification of TiO₂ NTAs with Cu₂O nanoparticles by ultrasonication for 4 min. However, the RhB degradation rate decreased rapidly when ultrasonication time increased to 9 and 19 min. Clearly, the Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs sample obtained from the ultrasonication deposition of Cu₂O nanoparticles for 4 min yielded the optimal photocatalytic performance and had an increase of |k| by about 3.32 times as compared to pure TiO₂ NTAs. The decrease in the photocatalytic activity of the samples prepared after longer ultrasonication time (i.e., 9 and 19 min) suggested that the larger Cu₂O nanoparticles and nanoclusters may act as the electron–hole recombination center, rather than facilitate charge separation, and partially block the channels of TiO₂ nanotubes. The latter was substantiated by SEM measurements (i.e., Fig. 1E and F) and correlated well with the results of photochemical measurements. The blockage of TiO₂ nanochannels reduced the surface area of the photocatalyst, and impeded the wetting of RhB aqueous solution inside the nanotubes. In other words, the deposition of fewer Cu₂O nanoparticles on the TiO₂ nanotubes (i.e., the 4 min deposition) may lead to an effective increase in surface area, thereby promoting photocatalysis (i.e., enhanced photocatalytic activity) together with the enhanced photochemical activity discussed above. The Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs and TiO₂ NTAs were further characterized by Photoluminescence (PL) spectra (Fig. S3). Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs showed a much lower PL intensity, indicating that Cu₂O loading resulted in a decrease in the recombination of electron–hole pairs, which could also explain the reason why Cu₂O/TiO₂ NTAs have better photocatalytic activity.

The enhanced photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ NTAs was probably attributed to largely improved visible light absorption and Cu₂O nanoparticle/TiO₂ nanotube heterostructures which favored the charge separation of photogenerated electron–hole pairs after depositing Cu₂O nanoparticles on the TiO₂ NTAs. The charge transfer behaviors during the degradation are schematically illustrated in Fig. 8. The reaction process can be represented in eqn (2)–(13).45,50,51

\[
\text{RhB} + \text{visible light} \rightarrow \text{RhB}^* \quad (2)
\]

\[
\text{RhB}^* + \text{TiO}_2 \rightarrow \text{RhB}^+ + \text{TiO}_2 (e^-) \quad (3)
\]

\[
\text{Cu}_2\text{O} + \text{visible light} \rightarrow \text{Cu}_2\text{O} (e^-) + \text{Cu}_2\text{O} (h^+) \quad (4)
\]

\[
\text{Cu}_2\text{O} (e^-) + \text{TiO}_2 \rightarrow \text{TiO}_2 (e^-) \quad (5)
\]

\[
\text{Cu}_2\text{O} (h^+) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \cdot \text{OH} + \text{H}^+ \quad (6)
\]

\[
\text{Cu}_2\text{O} (h^+) + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \cdot \text{OH} \quad (7)
\]

\[
\text{Cu}_2\text{O} (e^-) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \cdot \text{O}_2^- \quad (8)
\]

\[
\text{TiO}_2 (e^-) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \cdot \text{O}_2^- \quad (9)
\]

\[
\cdot \text{O}_2^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \cdot \text{OH} + \text{OH}^- \quad (10)
\]

\[
\cdot \text{OOH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \quad (11)
\]

\[
\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \cdot \text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \cdot \text{OH} + \text{OH}^- \quad (12)
\]

\[
\text{RhB}^* + \text{O}_2 + \cdot \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{products} + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad (13)
\]

RhB can be excited by visible light due to photosensitization.46 When TiO₂ NTAs were used as the photocatalyst, RhB molecules were absorbed on the Ti³⁺ sites of TiO₂ NTAs. As the conduction band of TiO₂ is more positive than the oxidation potential of RhB,47 under the visible light irradiation the excited RhB injected electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂, and RhB molecules became RhB⁻ and underwent further reaction to yield final products (eqn (2), (3) and (13)). The electron transfer between RhB and TiO₂ efficiently prevented the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes and promoted the degradation of RhB. Meanwhile, the p–n heterojunction between n-type TiO₂ nanotubes and p-type Cu₂O nanoparticles was formed after the deposition of Cu₂O nanoparticles on the TiO₂ nanotubes. As Cu₂O with narrow bandgap energy (Eₚ = 2.17 eV) can be easily excited by visible light, and the conduction band of TiO₂ lies more positive than that of Cu₂O, the electrons from the photoexcited Cu₂O can readily transfer to the conduction band of TiO₂ (eqn (4) and (5)), thus favoring prevention of the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes and facilitating the degradation of RhB. Holes accumulated in the valence band of Cu₂O were consumed by participating in oxidation (eqn (6) and (7)). Accumulated electrons in the conduction band of TiO₂ were transferred to oxygen adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂ to form a superoxide radical anion (·O₂⁻), which combined with H⁺ to form hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) (eqn (8)–(11)). Ultimately, H₂O₂ reacted with ·O₂⁻ and was reduced to hydroxyl radicals (·OH), which further converted RhB⁺ to final products (eqn (12) and (13)).

Recently, much attention has been paid to the photoelectrocatalytic approaches to degrade organic pollutants under the UV light irradiation using TiO₂ films as the electrode.52,53 Under the applied bias potential, the photogenerated electrons move toward the counter electrode, which prevents the recombination of electrons and holes, and thus markedly enhancing
the degradation rate of organic pollutants. Apparently, it is of key importance to choose an appropriate bias potential to increase the degradation rate. To this end, in the present study the most appropriate bias potential for Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs was selected to achieve the synergistic effect of the light irradiation and the electricity (i.e., photocell) during the photoelectrocatalytic degradation of organic dye pollutants. As shown in Fig. 6A, the saturated photocurrent density of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs was achieved at 0.8 V. In order to utilize more light energy and less electric energy, the bias potential ranging from 0.2 V to 0.6 V was chosen to degrade RhB. The photocatalysis, electrocatalysis, and photoelectrocatalysis of RhB over Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs under visible light irradiation for 15 min were performed. Fig. 9A shows the photocatalysis, electrocatalysis, and photoelectrocatalysis of RhB over Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs that were prepared by ultrasonication deposition for 4 min under the visible light irradiation for 15 min. When the bias potential ranging from 0.2 V to 0.4 V was applied, the degradation efficiency of RhB in both electrocatalysis and photocatalysis processes remained unchanged. However, when the bias potential increased from 0.5 V to 0.6 V, the electrocatalytic degradation efficiency became extremely high. Fig. 9B compares the photoelectrocatalytic degradation percentage of RhB with the sum of the photocatalytic and electrocatalytic processes. It is clear that when the bias potential was 0.5 V, the degradation rate of RhB in the photoelectrocatalytic process was much faster than the expected sum of the electrochemical and photocatalytic processes separately. Accordingly, there was an obvious synergistic effect between the visible light irradiation and the electricity. This synergistic effect can be attributed to the change of the depletion layer of Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs. After Cu$_2$O nanoparticles were deposited on the TiO$_2$ nanotubes, the depletion layer could form at the heterojunction interface, which hindered the movement of photogenerated electrons and holes by making them pass through it. However, when a positive bias was added on the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTA photoelectrodes, the depletion layer could become thinner or even disappear, making photogenerated electrons and holes to pass easily. Moreover, the positive bias increased the band bending at the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ junction and also facilitated the photo-carrier collection. Therefore, 0.5 V was chosen as the bias potential in the subsequent measurements. Fig. 10 compares the photocatalytic, electrocatalytic, and photoelectrocatalytic degradation of RhB under visible light for Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs prepared by ultrasonic-assisted deposition for 4 min. After irradiated under the visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm) for 20 min, 84.29% of RhB was degraded at a bias potential of 0.5 V, while only 1.45% of RhB was self-degraded and 5.00% of RhB was degraded with the same photocatalyst in the absence of an applied bias potential. In electrocatalytic degradation, 41.07% of RhB was degraded. Obviously, the degradation rate of RhB was improved tremendously by photoelectrocatalysis. The proposed photoelectrocatalytic mechanism is depicted in Fig. 11. When Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs immersed in RhB were irradiated with visible light, Cu$_2$O nanoparticles and RhB were excited, and the photogenerated electrons collected from both Cu$_2$O and RhB were transferred to the surface of TiO$_2$ nanotubes. With an applied positive bias potential, the photogenerated electrons travelled vectorially along the long axis of TiO$_2$ nanotubes and passed the TiO$_2$/Ti interface to the external circuit, leaving the photogenerated holes in the valence band of Cu$_2$O and RhB$^\cdot$. As a result, the degradation rate of RhB was greatly improved.

In addition, the potential reusability and stability of the Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs p–n heterojunction photoelectrode in the reaction medium was checked by ten photoelectrocatalytic cycles using Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ NTAs prepared by ultrasonic-assisted
deposition for 4 min that exhibited the highest activity (Fig. 7), which is depicted in Fig. S5.† The removal rate of RhB did not vary significantly after ten cycles. The degradation rate of RhB after the tenth cycle was almost the same as that of the first cycle (Fig. S6†). Fig. S7 and S8,† show the high-resolution XPS spectrum of the Cu window and the SEM image of Cu2O/TiO2 NTAs after ten photoelectrocatalytic cycles, respectively. Cu in the Cu2O/TiO2 NTAs sample still existed in the form of Cu2O, and no appreciable change in the surface morphology can be observed. The above results indicated that the Cu2O/TiO2 NTA photoelectrodes can remain active for long-term service without much activity degradation, that is, they exhibit excellent photoelectrocatalytic stability.

4 Conclusion

In summary, we crafted Cu2O/TiO2 p–n heterojunction photoelectrodes composed of p-type Cu2O nanoparticles deposited on n-type TiO2 NTAs by capitalizing on the ultrasonication-assisted sequential chemical bath deposition technique. The visible light response of TiO2 NTAs was enhanced by the loading of Cu2O nanoparticles. Notably, the photocatalysts with a small amount of Cu2O nanoparticles loaded on TiO2 nanotubes (i.e., obtained from the ultrasonication deposition of Cu2O nanoparticles for 4 min) exhibited the largest photocurrent and photoconversion efficiency under both UV and visible light irradiation, as well as the highest visible light photocatalytic degradation rate of RhB. In particular, when 0.5 V bias potential was applied, Cu2O/TiO2 NTA photoelectrodes were found to possess superior photoelectrocatalytic efficiency due to a synergistic effect of electricity and visible light irradiation, making them promising candidates for environmental applications in wastewater treatment and the photoinduced splitting of water into hydrogen.

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Notes and references