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# Surface modification of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays with metal copper particle for high efficient photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI)

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#### ABSTRACT

Highly ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays (NTs) have been widely used for photocatalysis application. In this study, to further improve the photocatalysis activity of  $TiO_2$  NTs,  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs were prepared through an anodic oxidation and impregnation-reduction method. The morphology and crystalline phase of the pure  $TiO_2$  NTs and  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs were characterized by SEM and X-ray diffraction. The photocatalytic performance of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was evaluated by photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) under UV light. The rate constant of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) on  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs which had the optimal Cu loading content was 9.5 times higher than that on unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. And the experiment results of different initial concentration of Cr(VI) and pH demonstrated that they greatly influenced the removal efficiency of Cr(VI). The photoelectric properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs with Cu particle loading were investigated by photoelectrochemical characterization, including photocurrent response, open-circuit voltage, electro-chemical impedance spectroscopy Nynquist plots, and Mott-Schottky plots. The enhancement of the photocatalytic performance of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs indicated that the electrons could transfer faster and be utilized more easily due to the formation of Schottky barrier on the interface of Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub>. The detailed electrons transfer mechanism of  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs was proposed.

Keywords: Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs; Cr(VI); Photocatalytic reduction

### 1. Introduction

Hexavalent chromium is a common universal metal pollutant in natural waters, which is seriously harmful for human health. The principal source of chromium is from industrial processes, such as alloying, metal electroplating, and the application of chemistry [1]. Due to its high toxicity and strong

carcinogenicity, the Cr(VI) level for drinking water is below 0.05 mg L<sup>-1</sup> according to the World Health Organization [2]. However, Cr(III) is less toxic than Cr(VI) and can be readily precipitated as Cr(OH)<sub>3</sub> in alkaline or neutral solutions [3–5]. Recently, the semiconductor photocatalysis technology for reduction of Cr(VI) to less harmful Cr(III) has obtained considerable attention because of its high effectiveness, chemical stability, and low toxicity [6–12]. The use of TiO<sub>2</sub>

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has been most frequently among all semiconductor materials [13–15].

However, there are two major factors limiting the application of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the field of photocatalysis due to  $TiO_2$  intrinsic defects [16–18]. The first factor is the high band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub> (3.0–3.2 eV) which indicates that TiO<sub>2</sub> can be excited by UV light that is only 3% of the solar spectrum [19]. To extend the absorption range of the solar spectrum, researchers make efforts on combination with narrow-band-gap semiconductors, for example some chalcogenide semiconductor such as PbS [20,21], CdS [22-24] and Bi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> [25] or some metallic oxide such as Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [26], Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [27,28], and Cu<sub>2</sub>O [29–31]. The second factor is low electron transfer rate on the interface and high recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes pairs. To suppress the electrons and holes recombination and enhance the charge separation efficiency [32], some noble metals have been explored to be in contact with TiO<sub>2</sub>, such as Ag [33,34], Pt [35], and Au [36]. The obtained results suggest that electrons can transfer from TiO<sub>2</sub> to the metal particles when the Fermi level of metals is more negative than the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub>. A Schottky barrier can form at the metal-semiconductor contacting region, which can act as electron scavengers to avoid effectively the electron-hole recombination [37]. Although TiO<sub>2</sub> modified by noble metals has high photocatalytic activity, the high cost restricts their practical application in the field of wastewater treatment. Therefore, TiO<sub>2</sub> modified by non-precious metal for improving its photocatalytic activity has a promising future in practical application.

Some authors have reported effective TiO<sub>2</sub> modified by non-precious transition metals, such as Fe, Zn, Cu, Ni, and so on. Xiao et al. [38] reported that the photocurrent response of TiO2 nanotube arrays (NTs) electrodes loaded with Zn nanoparticles has increased to 50% under high-pressure mercury lamp illumination when compared with pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The Fe/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites can retain both the dechlorination and degradation of organic pollutants under UV light since Fe has a strong reducing power [39]. Liu et al. [40] reported that Ni-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles showed better photocatalytic activity than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> on the degradation of methyl orange. Copper is a promising metal which has more negative Fermi level (Fermi level of Cu is -4.7 eV, Fe is -4.5 eV, Zn is -4.3 eV vs. vacuum level) and good electronic conductivity only after Ag. Kim et al. [41] reported that the catalyst of Cu-modified TiO<sub>2</sub> powder showed the highest photocatalytic activity for cyanide conversion than Ni, Co, and Ag. And Cu is a relatively abundant and cheap metal when compared with other transition metals [42]. Moreover, Cu has stable property which

is favorable to improve the service life of the catalyst. The low cost and good electron transfer ability make copper a better choice for modification of  $TiO_2$ .

The nanostructure materials have attracted great interest as most promising architectures due to the special architecture, high charge transport rate, and significant light-harvest property [43]. Self-organized anodic titania NTs have been extensively regarded as an efficient nanostructure to improve the photocatalytic activity because of their large specific surface area, highly ordered structure, and outstanding photocatalytic properties. Moreover, TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs can be easily operated and recycled in the practical application comparing with the TiO<sub>2</sub> powders which need filtration after a period of photocatalytic reaction [44]. However, few works focus on the Cu-modified TiO<sub>2</sub> TNs catalyst by now.

In this paper, highly ordered  $TiO_2$  TNs were prepared by anodization, followed by annealing treatment. Then, the copper particle coating was fabricated by an impregnation-reduction method for reduction of the precursor Cu<sup>2+</sup> to Cu using UV irradiation on TiO<sub>2</sub> TNs. The Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were characterized by scanning electrons microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD). And then, Cr(VI) was selected as the typical heavy metal ions and degraded for photocatalytic reduction with varied loading content Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs under UV light. The photoelectrochemical behaviors of Cu/TiO2 NTs were evaluated by photocurrent response, open-circuit potential (OCP), electro-chemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), and Mott-Schottky analysis. Furthermore, the mechanism of the photocatalytic on Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was studied.

### 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Preparation of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

The Ti sheets (0.5 mm thickness, 99.6% purity, Japan) were used as the substrate for highly ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs electrochemical anodic oxidation. The chemical reagents were all of analytical grade and purchased from the Tianjin Kermel Chemical Company, China. Prior to the anodization, Ti sheets went through mechanical polishing, degreasing in a 10% NaOH solution at 85°C for 1 h, and etching in a 10% oxalic acid solution at 85°C for 2 h. And then pretreated Ti sheets were cleaned using distilled water. The electrochemical anodization process was performed in a two-electrode system with Ti sheets as both the working electrode and the counter electrode under magnetic agitation at room temperature. The electrolyte was the mixed ethylene glycol solution of 0.2 mol  $L^{-1}$  NH<sub>4</sub>F and 3 vol% H<sub>2</sub>O. The anodization consisted of two periods under a 60 V anodic potential. The Ti sheet was first anodizated for 0.5 h and ultrasonically cleaned in 2 vol% hydrochloric acid for 10 min aimed at removing irregular initial TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube layer. The second period is constant for 1 h and then ultrasonically cleaned with ethanol solution and dried in the air. The amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were annealed in an oven at 500 °C for 1 h in the air atmosphere.

The Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were prepared by an impregnation-reduction method [45]. Two steps are as follows: (1) To prepare Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs with different Cu loading content, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were impregnated in 0.005, 0.01, 0.03, and 0.05 mol  $L^{-1}$  CuSO<sub>4</sub> as a Cu precursor for 6 h at vacuum condition in order to make more Cu<sup>2+</sup> enter the interior of the tube, and then dried in the air for 1 h. The  $Cu_x/TiO_2$  NTs refer to the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs impregnating in  $x \mod L^{-1}$  CuSO<sub>4</sub> solution. (2) The samples were irradiated by a 80 W UV light  $(\lambda = 365 \text{ nm})$  in methanol solution which is regarded as a hole scavenger for 6 h sufficient to induce photocatalytic reduction of Cu<sup>2+</sup> ions to metallic Cu particles. Finally, the obtained samples were washed gently with distilled water and dried naturally in the air atmosphere.

# 2.2. Characterization and photoelectrochemical measurements

The morphological investigation of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was scanned by scanning electron microscope (INSPECT S50, MAKE FEI). XRD (Rigaku D/Max2500) was performed with a Cu K $\alpha$  radiation at 40 kV and 150 mA to obtain the crystalline patterns of samples.

The photoelectrochemical experiment was performed in a conventional three-electrode system recorded by an electrochemical workstation (SP-240, BioLogic Science Instruments, France). The prepared Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes served as the working electrode with a test area of  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ . A platinum sheet ( $2 \times$ 2 cm<sup>2</sup>) and saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were used as a counter and a reference electrode, respectively. The electrolyte was 0.25 mol L<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution and an 8 W UV lamp was used as the UV light source  $(\lambda = 365 \text{ m})$ . EIS was conducted in a range of  $10^4$ –  $10^{-1}$  Hz at OCP with an amplitude signal of 5 mV in the dark and under UV illumination. Mott-Schottky plots for testing the capacitance behavior were acquired under UV illumination ranged from -0.1 to 1.0 V with potential steps of 5 mV at frequency of 1 kHz.

### 2.3. Photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) under UV light

The photocatalytic activity was evaluated by the reduction of Cr(VI) under UV illumination using an

80 W UV lamp ( $\lambda = 365$  m). The working electrode area is 2 × 2 cm<sup>2</sup>. The reduction experiments were performed in 100 mL containing K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> aqueous solution. The pH was adjusted using H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution. The Cr(VI) concentrations were measured by UV/vis spectrophotometer using the diphenylcarbazide method at 540 nm.

#### 3. Result and discussion

## 3.1. Characterization of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

From the SEM image of  $TiO_2$  NTs (Fig. 1(a)), the pure  $TiO_2$  NTs grow vertically on the titanium



Fig. 1. The SEM images of (a)  $TiO_2$  NTs, insert: higher magnification and (b)  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs, insert: EDS-mapping of  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs.

substrate and the nanotubes were highly ordered, uniform with an average diameter of approximately 130 nm and a wall thickness of about 40 nm. After Cu was loaded on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, no obvious change of the morphologies was observed on the top. The Cu/ TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were still with high orientation. And the top was opened without losing their architectures (Fig. 1(b)). The EDS result suggests the atom percentage of Cu element on Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is 1.5%. X-ray dot-mapping was used for analyzing the distribution of coating elements. From Fig. 1(b) inset, it showed a uniform distribution of Cu on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs surface. From the SEM image, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs have stable structure with uniform size, high orientation, large particular surface area, which can increase the active sites on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The BET surface area of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is 90 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, which is higher than TiO<sub>2</sub>-P25 of  $50 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  [46]. N<sub>2</sub> adsorption and desorption isotherms were shown in Fig. S1. At the same time, the uniform distribution of Cu on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs can effectively suppress the electrons and holes recombination and improve the charge separation efficiency, which can result in high photocatalytic activity of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs.

The morphology of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was further investigated by TEM. The TEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs are shown in Fig. 2. It clearly displays the tubular structure of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs with open ends in Fig. 2. The diameter of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is about 130 nm. Fig. 2(b) shows that some small Cu particles with size of 20–40 nm attached to the walls of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. From the electron diffraction (SAED) patterns, several diffraction rings can be indexed to Cu (1 1 1) (2 0 0) (2 2 0) (Fig. 2(b) inset). Fig. 2(c) shows that lattice spacing of 3.50 Å corresponds to the (1 0 1) plane of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub>.

The crystal structures of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs samples were compared by XRD measurement, as shown in Fig. 3. The diagrams display the diffraction peaks which are corresponding to the Ti substrate, anatase, and metallic copper (noted T, A and C, respectively). The peaks of metal Ti phase resulted from the Ti substrate of samples. When the samples were annealed at 500°C for 1 h, the peaks of TiO<sub>2</sub> were all ascribed to the anatase phase without the rutile phase. In fact, the well-crystallized anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> phase shows higher catalytic activity and easily photo-generates electron-hole pairs due to the instability under UV light. After Cu loaded on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, three peaks at  $2\theta = 43.3^\circ$ ,  $50.4^\circ$ , and  $74.1^\circ$  were clearly exhibited which correspond to the characteristic peaks of metallic Cu (111) (200) (220) [47]. Also, the diffraction peaks of the TiO2 NTs were almost



Fig. 2. TEM images of (a)  $TiO_2$  NTs and (b)  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs; HRTEM of (c)  $TiO_2$  NTs.



Fig. 3. (A) XRD patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs; XPS spectra of  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs, (B) a survey scan, (C) Cu 2p, and (D) Ti 2p.

unchanged with on observable shift after the Cu photo-deposition, indicating that Cu was not incorporated into the lattice and was physically attached on the surface of  $TiO_2$  NTs. The morphology and crystalline phase of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs are both advantageous for efficient photocatalytic activity.

In addition, the XPS spectra of  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs are presented in Fig. 3(B). In particular, Ti 2p (Fig. 3(C)) and Cu 2p (Fig. 3(D)) are also shown. In the Ti 2p spectrum, the peaks located at 458.6 and 464.4 eV correspond to Ti  $2p_{3/2}$  and Ti  $2p_{1/2}$ . And the splitting of 5.8 eV between the two peaks indicates that Ti<sup>4+</sup> exists in the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs [48]. In the Cu 2p spectrum, two peaks at the binding energies of 932.8 and 952.8 eV were observed, respectively, corresponding to Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  and Cu  $2p_{1/2}$ . The satellite peak at about 934.3 eV characterizing for Cu<sup>2+</sup> could not be seen, indicating that the absence of CuO. The XPS results further demonstrate that the sample contains pure Cu(0) rather than Cu<sup>2+</sup> [49,50].

#### 3.2. Photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI)

# 3.2.1. Effect of different Cu loading content on photocatalytic property

The photocatalytic activity of different loading content Cu/TiO2 NTs was investigated by photocatalvtic reduction efficiency of Cr(VI). The effect of different Cu loading content on photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) under UV light (365 nm) is shown in Fig. 4. The removals of Cr(VI) on  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs were much higher than that of unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, indicating that the Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs exhibit higher photocatalytic activities, which was owed to the fast electrons and holes separation rate and the rapid charge transfer from the conduction band to Cu particles. The fastest removal of Cr(VI) on Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was 99% while that on unmodified TiO2 NTs was 37% at pH 2.5 for the initial Cr(VI) concentration of 10 mg  $L^{-1}$ . The removal of Cr(VI) had 62% significant enhancement on Cu-modified TiO2 NTs. Additionally, the photocatalytic activity of different loading content Cu/rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was also investigated (the rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were obtained through annealing amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs at 700°C for 1 h). And the photocatalytic efficiencies were lower than those of Cu/anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs (see Fig. S2 in Supporting Information).

As shown in Fig. 4(B), the kinetic data calculated from the relationship between Cr(VI) concentration and irradiation time are fitted to a rate expression of a pseudo-first-order reaction:



Fig. 4. Effect of different Cu loading on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) solution (pH 2.5,  $[Cr(VI)] = 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ): (a) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (b) Cu<sub>0.005</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (c) Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (d) Cu<sub>0.03</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and (e) Cu<sub>0.05</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs.

$$\ln(C_t/C_0) = kt \tag{1}$$

where  $C_t$  is the concentration of Cr(VI) at time t,  $C_0$  is the initial concentration of Cr(VI), k is the pseudo-first-order rate constant represented by the slope of the fitting line. The fitting results are listed in Table 1.

As illustrated in Table 1 and Fig. 4(B), the rate constant of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) improves with the increasing of the Cu loading content until reaching the highest value, and then has a decrease when continuing to increase the Cu loading content.

Table 1 Rate constants of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI)

Sample	Reaction rate, $k$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	$R^2$
TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	0.0039	0.963
Cu <sub>0.005</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	0.0055	0.928
Cu <sub>0.01</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	0.0369	0.986
Cu <sub>0.03</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	0.0234	0.995
Cu <sub>0.05</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	0.0087	0.968

With very small amounts of Cu doping, there will be very few active sites available to conduct a photocatalytic reaction. In contrast, higher Cu doping reduces the surface area, leading to the continuous loss of confinement of the photogenerated charges by the localized regions and thereby decreased photocatalytic activity. The highest rate constant was 0.0369 min<sup>-1</sup> obtained on Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, which was 9.5 times higher than that on unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs (0.0039 min<sup>-1</sup>). It confirms that the optimal soaking condition is 0.01 mol L<sup>-1</sup> CuSO<sub>4</sub>.

To further investigate the effect of different Cu loading on photoelectrochemical property, the linear sweep voltammetry curves carried out under UV-light (365 nm) irradiation for the  $TiO_2$  NTs and  $Cu/TiO_2$ NTs electrodes at a scan rate of 10 mV/s (Fig. 5(A)). When the UV light is open, it means photogenerated hole-electron pairs begin to separate, and the photocurrent gradually increases with the increasing of the applied potential. The photocurrent response of Cu/TiO2 NTs for different loading content was all higher than that of unmodified TiO2 NTs. And the maximum photocurrent density of Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was  $0.66 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  under 2.0 V bias (vs. SCE). The increase in the photocurrent may imply that a Schottky barrier can form on the interface of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Cu, which can play a role for charge rectification like a diode to enhance the separation efficiency of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and accelerate the rate of electron transfer. The mechanism of photogenerated electron-hole transfer will be further detailed.

The corresponding photoconversion efficiency is shown in Fig. 5(B). The photoconversion efficiency means the light energy to chemical energy conversion efficiency, which is evaluated by the following equation [51]:

$$\eta(\%) = [(\text{total power output} - \text{electrical power input})/\text{light power input}] \times 100 = j_p (E_{\text{rev}}^0 - |E_{\text{app}}|)/I_0 \times 100$$
 (2)



Fig. 5. (A) Photocurrent density of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs vs. applied potential curves and (B) the corresponding photoconversion efficiencies: (a) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (b) Cu<sub>0.005</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (c) Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, (d) Cu<sub>0.03</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and (e) Cu<sub>0.05</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs.

In above equation,  $j_{\rm p}E^0_{\rm rev}$  stands for the total power output,  $j_{\rm p} | E_{\rm app} |$  stands for the electrical power input, and  $I_0$  is the power density of incident light in mW cm<sup>-2</sup>.  $j_{\rm p}$  is the photocurrent density in mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.  $E^0_{\rm rev}$  is the standard reversible potential which is 1.23 V (vs. NHE).  $E_{\rm app}$  is the applied potential ( $E_{\rm app} = E_{\rm meas} - E_{\rm aoc}$ , where  $E_{\rm meas}$  is the electrode potential (vs. SCE) of the working electrode at which the photocurrent was measured under illumination, and  $E_{\rm aoc}$  is the electrode potential (vs. SCE) of the same working electrode at an open circuit under the same conditions).

The maximum photoconversion efficiency for pure  $TiO_2$  NTs,  $Cu_{0.005}/TiO_2$  NTs,  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs,  $Cu_{0.03}/TiO_2$  NTs, and  $Cu_{0.05}/TiO_2$  NTs were 2.46, 10.34, 14.84, 11.86, and 10.64%, respectively. The

highest photoconversion efficiency of 14.84% for Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs achieved at 0.3 V vs. SCE was 6 times higher than pure TiO2 NTs. The increase in photoconversion efficiency for Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs can be attributed to the high efficiency of charge separation through charge rectification and faster interfacial electrons transfer due to well-dispersed copper particles. However, excessive Cu particles-loaded TiO2 NTs result in a lower photocurrent. The reason is that excessive Cu particles may decrease the distance of charge carrier space and the recombination centers which could increase recombination. Another reason is that the excess of Cu particles may cover active point on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs leading to reduced photocurrent response [52]. In the case of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the recombination can easily happen due to the photogenerated electron-hole pairs. The trend for the photoelectrochemical measurement on TiO2 NTs of different Cu loading content is corresponding with the removal and the rate constants of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI). It further confirms that the  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs have optimal photocatalytic activity, so the following experiment of different effect factors was carried out on  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs.

# 3.2.2. Effects of initial concentration Cr(VI) and pH on photocatalytic property

The pH and initial concentration Cr(VI) of the solution are important parameters in photocatalytic reduction process. The effect of the initial Cr(VI) concentration on the removal efficiency of Cr(VI) was investigated at pH 2.5 with different initial concentrations of Cr(VI) in the range of 10–40 mg  $L^{-1}$ . When the initial concentration of Cr(VI) is low, it is easy for the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III). The maximum reduction efficiency reached 100% for an initial concentration of Cr(VI) of 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at a reaction time of 50 min. Also, the reduction efficiency was only 63.6% at an initial concentration of Cr(VI) of 40 mg  $L^{-1}$ . From the kinetic data (Fig. 6(B)), the curves showed a good linear relationship. The rate constants of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) were calculated to be 0.0759, 0.0387, 0.0329, and 0.0166 min<sup>-1</sup> for initial Cr(VI) concentration 10, 20, 30, and 40 mgL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Therefore, the reduction efficiency of Cr(VI) decreases with the increase in the initial concentration of Cr(VI). Due to the amount of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the active sites are limited. Too many Cr(VI) ions may cover the active sites as adsorbed on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, which could result in the decrease of the reduction efficiency of Cr(VI).





Fig. 6. Effect of the initial Cr(VI) concentration on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) solution (pH 2.5, ethanol as hole scavenger): (A) Removal efficiency of Cr(VI) and (B) plot of  $-\ln (C_t/C_0)$  vs. time of Cr(VI).

Fig. 7(A) shows the reduction of Cr(VI) at different pH. Obviously, there is a vital influence of the variation of pH on the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III). The photoreduction efficiency is higher when performed in acidic solutions than that in alkaline solutions. At pH 2.5, it showed a fast reduction with Cr(VI) reduction efficiency of 100% in 60 min. However, with the pH increasing, the efficiency decreased to 84.5 and 5.5% at pH 6.5 and 12.5.

The rate constants of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) were calculated to be 0.0387, 0.0310 and 0.0009 min<sup>-1</sup> for pH 2.5, 6.5, and 12.5, respectively. The effect of the varied pH was in accordance with previous studies [53]. Because the dominant chromium species is  $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$  at low pH, the overall reduction reaction can be described as follows:

Fig. 7. Effect of pH on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) solution ([Cr(VI)] = 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, ethanol as hole scavenger): (A) Removal efficiency of Cr(VI) and (B) plot of  $-\ln (C_t/C_0)$  vs. time of Cr(VI).

$$Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 14H^+ + 6e^- \Longrightarrow 2Cr(III) + 7H_2O$$
 (3)

According to the equation, the higher concentration of  $H^+$  will result in Eq. (1), shifting to the right-hand side, which cause high Cr(VI) reduction efficiency. In addition, the reduction potential of chromium ions at low pH is more positive than that of the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> [54].

# 3.3. Photoelectrochemical characterization and electron transfer mechanism investigation

The open-circuit photovoltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) is considered as the accumulation of photogenerated charge transferring to TiO<sub>2</sub>/electrolyte interface. As shown in Fig. 8, the photovoltage of Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was



Fig. 8. The open-circuit photovoltage vs. time curves of (a)  $TiO_2$  NTs and (b)  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs.

0.32 V, which was higher than that of unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> for 0.23 V upon illumination. It indicated that there were more photogenerated electrons accumulated on the surface of the Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. When stopping the illumination, the potential decayed slowly as the accumulated photoelectrons begin to leak out of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs to dissipate gradually. The Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs showed the slower decay, which was indicated a long lifetime of hole–electron pairs and a high photocatalytic activity during photoreaction. The result manifested that the Cu–TiO<sub>2</sub> Schottky barrier can prevent the recombination of the holes and electrons effectively.

EIS is an effective technique for evaluating the charge transfer and recombination processes at the contact interface between the electrode and electrolyte solution [55]. Fig. 9(A) displayed the EIS Nynquist plots of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs under dark and UV-light irradiation conditions. They were measured in aqueous 0.25 mol L<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution using the amplitude of 5 mV at OCP. It can be seen clearly that the curve radii are both reduced with the UV-light irradiation on the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs, which is due to the separation of photogenerated electrons and holes. Moreover, the curve radius of  $Cu_{0.01}/TiO_2$  NTs was smaller than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs either in dark or under UV-light irradiation. The results indicated that the Schottky barrier formed on Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs could improve the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and decrease the charge transfer resistance, which lead to a fast interfacial transfer of electrons.

The Mott–Schottky plots of the potential range (-1.0 to 1.0 V) for the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>



Fig. 9. (A) EIS response of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs electrodes measured at OCP in the dark and under UV irradiation, respectively and (B) Mott–Schottky plots of: (a) TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and (b) Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs electrodes at potential range of -1.0-1.0 V vs. SCE.

NTs under UV light are shown in Fig. 9(B). The Mott–Schottky plots can confirm the type of semiconductor and evaluate the electron-transfer of semiconductor interface. From Fig. 9(B), positive slopes could indicate that the photoelectrodes are n-type semiconductors. The capacitance C was related to the charge carrier density according to the following equation [55]:

$$\frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2}{e\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 N_{\rm D}} \left( E - E_{\rm FB} - \frac{KT}{e} \right) \tag{4}$$

where *e* is the elementary electron charge,  $\varepsilon$  is the permittivity of the semiconductor,  $\varepsilon_0$  is the permittivity of vacuum,  $N_D$  is the charge carrier density, *E* is the applied potential,  $E_{\text{FB}}$  is the flat band potential, *k* is the Boltzmann constant, and *T* is the temperature.

Meanwhile, the carrier density  $N_D$  could be calculated from the following equation:

$$N_{\rm D} = \frac{2}{e\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 m} \tag{5}$$

where *m* is the slope of the Mott–Schottky plot,  $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ ,  $\varepsilon_0 = 8.86 \times 10^{-14}$  F cm<sup>-1</sup>, and  $\varepsilon = 80$  for TiO<sub>2</sub> [44]. Therefore, the charge carrier density of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was estimated to be  $1.39 \times 10^{19}$  and  $3.78 \times 10^{19}$ , respectively. The higher  $N_D$ of Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs indicated a faster charge transfer on the interface of Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub>, and an enhanced photocatalytic performance.

From the analysis above, the Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs exhibit enhanced photoelectrochemical properties and photocatalytic activity due to the uniform distribution of Cu particles with good stability. Thus, the principle of the electron and hole transferring on Cu/TiO2 NTs is summarized in Fig. 10. TiO<sub>2</sub> is an n-type semiconductor with wide band gap (3.2 eV). When UV irradiation is used on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the photogenerated electrons will promptly transfer from its valence band to conduction band and leave the hole in valence band. However, the lifetime is very short and the electronhole pairs will recombine rapidly. Since the Fermi level of metals such as Cu ( $E_f = -4.7 \text{ eV}$  vs. vacuum level) is more negative than the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Cu particles can be regarded as receiving device for the photogenerated electrons that can transfer from the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> to metal Cu after Cu is loaded on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. Until the two Fermi levels are equal, the Cu particles get more electrons which almost disappear on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>. At the same



Fig. 10. Illustrative diagrams of the electron and hole transfer in  $Cu/TiO_2$  NTs.

time, the band of TiO<sub>2</sub> bends up towards the surface to form a space charge layer called "carriers depleted" [56]. A Schottky barrier that forms on the interface of Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub> can make a good fluidity due to its diode property for accumulated electrons transferring from TiO<sub>2</sub> to Cu particles. The reduction from Cr(VI) to Cr(III) will occur by the electrons accumulated at Cu particles and holes accumulated in the valence band of the TiO<sub>2</sub> can react with H<sub>2</sub>O or OH<sup>-</sup> to form hydroxyl radicals (OH<sup>-</sup>). The processes can be depicted as following reaction (2)–(5):

$$\mathrm{TiO}_2 + hv \to \mathrm{TiO}_2(e^-) + \mathrm{TiO}_2(h^+)$$
(6)

$$TiO_2(e^-) + Cu \rightarrow TiO_2 + Cu(e^-)$$
(7)

$$Cr(VI) + 3e^{-} \rightarrow Cr(III)$$
 (8)

$$TiO_2(h^+) + H_2O \to H^+ + OH^{\bullet}$$
(9)

The semiconductor-metal system can suppress the recombination of electrons and holes effectively and the photogenerated electron will continuously transfer from semiconductor to metal, resulting in efficient electron-hole separation and high photocatalytic activity.

#### 4. Conclusions

The highly ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were fabricated by electrochemical anodic oxidation and Cu particles were loaded on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs using an impregnation-reduction method. Compared with the unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs showed a much higher photocatalytic reduction for Cr(VI). The maximum rate constant of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) on Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs was 9.5 times higher than that on unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs have enhanced photocurrent, more negative open-circuit voltage, and higher charge transfer rate. The results can be attributed to the Schottky barrier formed on the interface of Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub> which can improve the electron-hole separation and suppress the recombination. The high photocatalytic efficiency, low cost, and less pollution of Cu/TiO2 NTs may have potential application in environmental remediation.

#### Supplementary material

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