

Organic Semiconductor g-C₃N₄ Modified TiO₂ Nanotube Arrays for Enhanced Photoelectrochemical Performance in Wastewater Treatment

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g-C₃N₄ sensitized TiO₂ nanotube arrays (g-C₃N₄/TNTs) were fabricated by using a simple solid sublimation and transition (SST) method using urea as precursor. The photoelectrochemical (PEC) performances were evaluated in this work. It is proposed that the g-C₃N₄ layer can play dual roles: surface sensitization and passivation of TNTs surface trap states to inhibit charge recombination. The g-C₃N₄/TNTs exhibited significantly improved PEC performance compared with TNTs under blue light (460 nm) irradiation. The g-C₃N₄/

TNTs prepared from 3 g urea showed the highest photocurrent density of approximately 65 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$, which is almost 10 times as high as that of TNTs. Furthermore, g-C₃N₄/TNTs showed enhanced photoelectrocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB) under the blue light irradiation. The stable performance of degradation of MB in multicycle tests suggests that the hybrid g-C₃N₄/TNT electrode could be used as a low-cost photoelectrode material for wastewater treatment processes.

Introduction

In recent years, semiconductor photo(electro)-catalysis has been widely studied in solar energy driven environmental remediation and energy conversion processes such as organic pollutants degradation^[1–3] and H₂ generation.^[4–6] TiO₂ is considered as one of the most widely used photocatalysts due to its superior optical and electronic properties, high chemical stability, low toxicity, and low cost. Among various nanostructures of TiO₂, highly ordered TiO₂ nanotube arrays (TNTs) fabricated through electrochemical anodization of titanium foils attract much interest because of the large specific surface area and precisely oriented nature of the nanotube arrays, which improve the charge-collection efficiency by promoting faster electron/hole transport and slower recombination.^[7] Besides, TNTs on a titanium substrate can be easily recycled after using as a photocatalyst or photoelectrode, compared with free standing TNTs. However, the wide band gap of TiO₂ (3.0–3.2 eV) allows it to be activated only by the UV light, which accounts for only 4–5% of solar energy. To broaden the photoresponse of TNTs into the visible light region and enhance the separation rate of photo-induced electrons and holes, a number of approaches have been attempted, such as the addition of non-metal atoms (N,^[8] C,^[9] B,^[10,11] etc.), doping with metal ions (Fe,^[12] Zr,^[13] Cr^[14]), decoration with noble metals (Ag,^[15] Pt,^[16] Au^[17] etc.), and modification with inorganic semiconducting materials with narrower band-gaps such as CdS,^[18] CdSe,^[19] Cu₂O,^[20] Fe₂O₃,^[21] and SrTiO₃.^[22] On the other hand, many surface defects normally exist on the TNT electrodes prepared by the electrochemical anodization and thermal annealing processes, which act as recombination centers for charge carriers. Surface passivation of nanostructured photoelectrodes by a thin layer of metal oxides is an effective method to inhibit charge recombination induced by surface defects. For example, a thin coating of an

alumina layer onto hematite electrodes significantly improved the water oxidation performance in PEC water splitting.^[23]

Recently, polymeric graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) was reported as a novel metal-free organic photocatalyst by Wang et al.,^[24] and it has attracted intense interest for its applications in photocatalytic hydrogen production and degradation of organic pollutants under visible light, considering its suitable band gap energy (≈ 2.7 eV) and high conduction band (CB) level (≈ -1.3 eV at pH 7 vs NHE).^[25,26] The g-C₃N₄ powder can be synthesized by thermal annealing of different precursors such as cyanamide, dicyandiamide, and melamine.^[27] Besides, urea has also been used as a low-cost precursor to prepare g-C₃N₄.^[28,29] Following the pioneering work by Wang et al., some efforts have been devoted into coupling g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ photocatalysts for enhanced visible light activity. For example, Yan et al. fabricated a TiO₂-g-C₃N₄ composite by ball-milling of the mixture TiO₂ and C₃N₄

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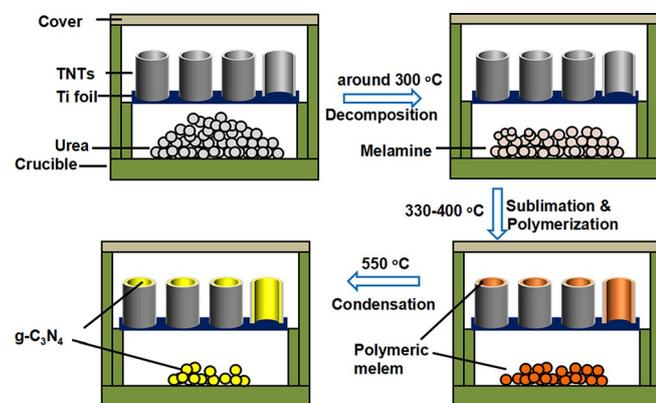
powder,^[30] whereas Wang et al. prepared g-C₃N₄ modified TiO₂ nanorod arrays by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) using melamine as precursor.^[31] To our best knowledge, there are no reports on the fabrication of organic g-C₃N₄ semiconductor-modified TNTs as a photoelectrode.

In this work, a novel and facile method for preparing g-C₃N₄ modified TNTs was developed using melamine sublimation-based solid sublimation and transition (SST). A tube-in-tube structure was formed by coating the TNT walls with thin layer amorphous g-C₃N₄ using the SST process with urea as precursor. The surface coating of g-C₃N₄ onto the TNTs plays dual roles: surface sensitization of TNTs and passivation of the TNT surface trap states, which enhances the PEC performance of the TNTs. Compared with the bare TNTs, the organic-inorganic hybrid g-C₃N₄ and TNT composite (g-C₃N₄/TNTs) shows much higher photocurrent density and decoloration towards methyl blue (MB) dye in aqueous solution under blue light (460 nm) irradiation powered by a 5 W light-emitting diode (LED) lamp. The low-power LED lamp illumination-assisted photoelectrochemical decoloration of MB dye on the g-C₃N₄/TNTs electrode may provide a promising tool for wastewater treatment, in combination with other advanced technologies (e.g., adsorption, biological degradation).

Results and Discussion

Morphology and structure of materials

The organic g-C₃N₄ layer was deposited onto the inside walls of TNTs using urea powder as precursor as shown in Scheme 1. According to the literature,^[32] urea decomposes to ammonia and isocyanic acid upon fast heating from 300 °C; furthermore, the isocyanic acid is able to convert to cyanamide, which can trimerize to melamine in the presence of in situ generated NH₃ gas. As the sublimation point of melamine is approximately 335 °C,^[24] it is reasonable to expect that some portion of melamine would sublime into the gas phase in the partially sealed crucible and further diffuse into the TNTs during the thermal treatment. Upon further ther-



Scheme 1. Embedding g-C₃N₄ into TNTs by using SST with urea powder as precursor (cross-sectional view).

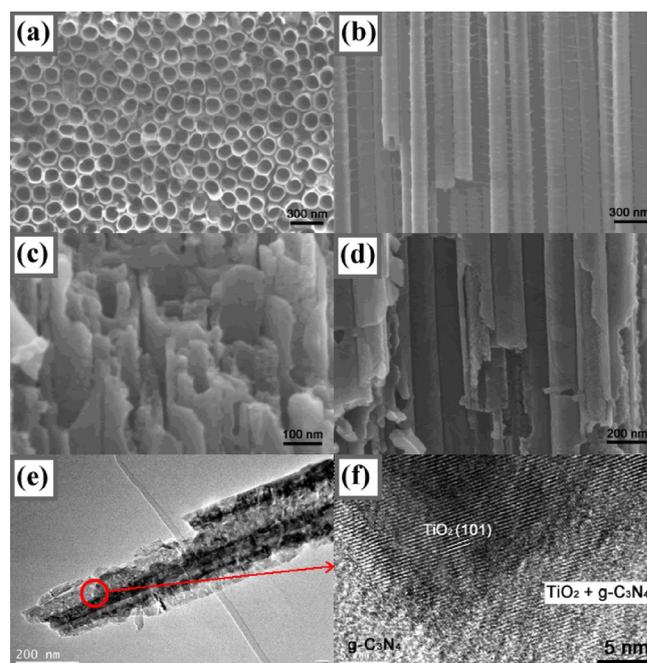


Figure 1. a, b) FESEM images of TNTs; c, d) FESEM images of g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g); e, f) HRTEM images of g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g).

mal treatment at approximately 400 °C, melamine is converted into polymeric melem. Prolonged heating at 550 °C produces a polycondensed g-C₃N₄ network. The sublimated melamine gas is adsorbed on the rough surfaces of the TNT walls and further condensed into a thin g-C₃N₄ coating layer. The SST deposition of g-C₃N₄ onto TNTs was confirmed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). Figure 1 shows the morphologies of the as-prepared TNTs and g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g) examined by field emission SEM and HRTEM. From the images of the TNTs (Figure 1a,b), the highly ordered TNTs synthesized by the electrochemical anodization of the Ti foil show an average inner diameter of approximately 125 nm, wall thickness of 15 nm, and length of 5 μm. The representative SEM images of crushed g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g) are shown in Figure 1c,d. A thin layer of g-C₃N₄ was grafted onto the inner TNT walls at a thickness of approximately 23 nm, forming the tube-in-tube structure. The tube-in-tube structure of the corresponding g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g) sample was further identified by TEM and HRTEM as shown in Figure 1e,f. The light-gray parts confined inside of crystallized TiO₂ nanotube are assumed as g-C₃N₄ in accordance with the observation from SEM. From the HRTEM image in Figure 1f, the lattice spacing of the crystallized TNTs wall was observed to be approximately 0.352 nm, which corresponds to the (101) plane of anatase TiO₂ (JPCDS 21-1272). The amorphous phase shown in the left-bottom area is assigned to g-C₃N₄ according to reported results.^[33] The overlapped crystalline and amorphous regions in the right-bottom area are assumed to be the amorphous g-C₃N₄ wrapped inside of TNTs.

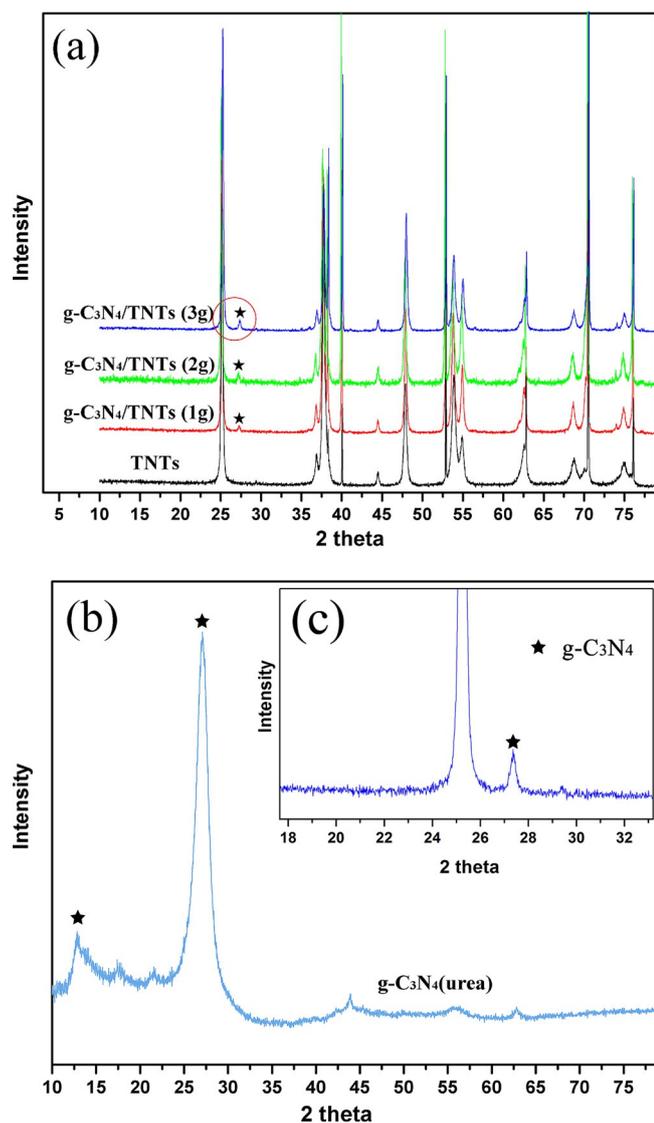


Figure 2. XRD spectra: a) TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (1 g, 2 g, 3 g); b) residual powder $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ after SST processing; c) magnified image of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g).

Figure 2 shows the XRD patterns of bare TNTs, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (1 g, 2 g, 3 g), and residual $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ powder remaining on the crucible after SST processing. As observed in Figure 2a, the as-prepared bare TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ show similar crystallized anatase patterns, which are in accordance with the HRTEM results. Compared to bare TNTs, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (1 g, 2 g, 3 g) all have tiny broad diffraction peaks at approximately 27.4° , which can be clearly observed from the enlarged image in Figure 2c. In comparison with the XRD patterns of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ residual powder as shown in Figure 2b, this small peak at approximately 27.4° is assumed identified as $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ buried into nanotubes, as $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (urea) shows the characteristic peaks of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at 13.1° and 27.4° , which are due to the stacking of conjugated aromatic system, as in graphite.^[24] Upon increasing the amount of urea from 1 to 3 g, the peak intensity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ appears stronger, which indicates that a larger amount of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was formed. The X-

ray diffraction (XRD) results indicate that $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was successfully deposited into the TNT nanotubes by using urea as a precursor.

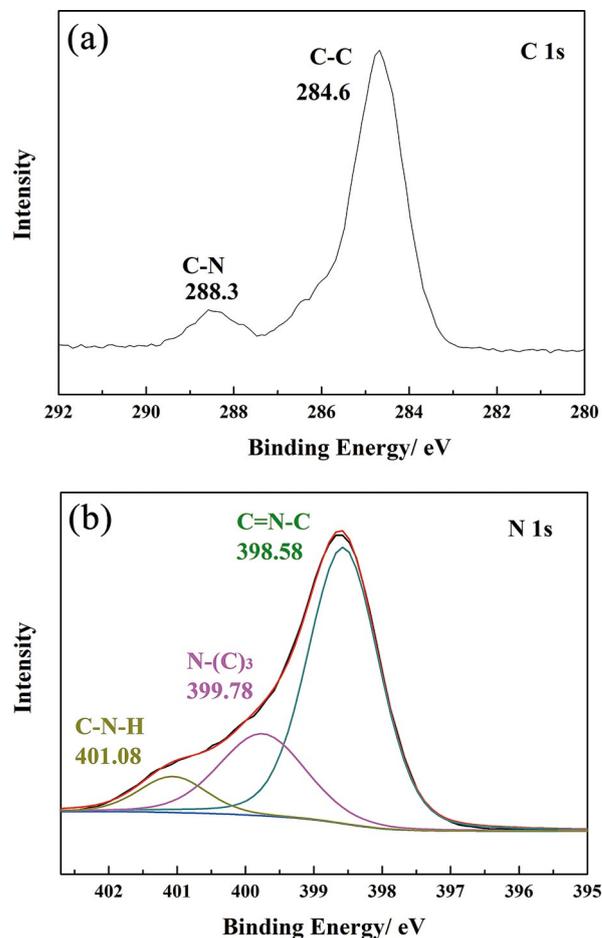


Figure 3. XPS spectrum of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2\text{-TNTs}$ (3 g): a) C 1s; b) N 1s.

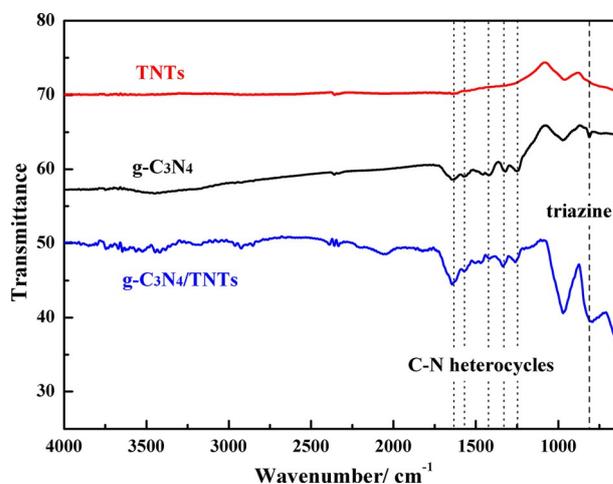


Figure 4. FTIR spectra of TNTs, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g).

Chemical composition of materials

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and FTIR analysis were used to confirm the amorphous $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ coating on the TNTs, as shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4. From the XPS spectrum of C1s shown in Figure 3a, two peaks can be distinguished centered at 284.6 and 288.3 eV, respectively. The peak at 284.6 eV is assigned to the adventitious hydrocarbon from the XPS instrument, and the other at 288.3 eV is identified a C–N–C coordination.^[34] In the N1s spectrum (Figure 3b), the peaks at 398.58, 399.78, and 401.08 eV are assigned as sp^2 hybridized nitrogen (C=N–C), sp^3 tertiary nitrogen (H–N–(C)₃), and amino functional groups with a hydrogen atom (C–NH_x), respectively.^[28]

Figure 4 illustrates the FTIR spectra of TNTs, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g). Compared with TNTs, in the FTIR spectra of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g), there are several strong bands in the 1200–1650 cm^{-1} region with peaks of at approximately 1263, 1335, 1415, 1570, and 1640 cm^{-1} , which correspond to the typical stretching mode of CN heterocycles. The band near 808 cm^{-1} is attributed to out-of-plane bending modes of C–N heterocycles. A broad band near 3140 cm^{-1} corresponds to the stretching modes of terminal NH₂ or NH groups at the defect sites of the aromatic ring. Based on the results from the XPS and FTIR spectra, it is concluded that the material coated onto the TNT walls is organic $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

UV/Vis spectra

The UV/Vis spectra of the samples are shown in Figure 5. TNTs primarily absorb ultraviolet light below 390 nm, which is ascribed to the intrinsic band gap absorption of TiO₂ (≈ 3.2 eV). However, a broad absorption tail appeared in the range of 400–600 nm, which can be assigned to the surface defect sites created during the thermal annealing process as well as light scattering by the pores.^[35,36] After $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ modification, the absorption tail in the visible region was slightly reduced for all of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ samples, probably because the thin layer of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ coated onto the TNTs reduced

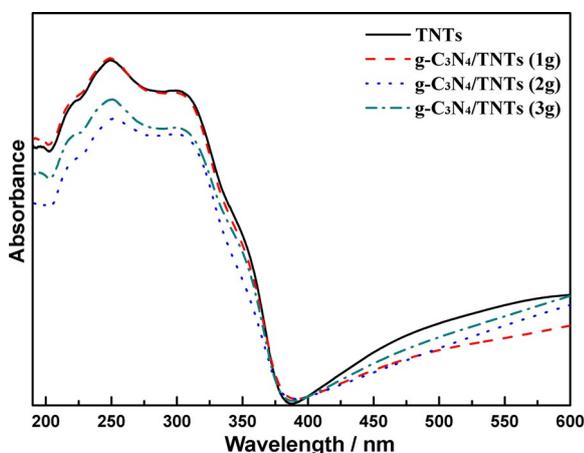


Figure 5. UV/Vis spectra of TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (1 g, 2 g, 3 g).

the defect sites on the TNT surfaces. However, the clear shift of the absorption edge by incorporation of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ into TNTs was not observed. One possible explanation is that the mass of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ loaded into TNTs compared to the TNTs matrix is not sufficient enough to induce the clear band-gap change. On the other hand, the light scattering by the TNT walls may also account for this.

Photoelectrochemical studies

The photoelectrochemical performance was measured using a three-electrode system with the as prepared samples (TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$) as working electrodes, a Ag/AgCl electrode as reference electrode, and a Pt mesh as counter electrode. A 5 W LED ModuLight with monochromatic light was used as visible light source with a 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution as the supporting electrolyte. The photocurrent of the TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ with an active area of 1 cm^2 was measured at a scanning rate of 20 mV s^{-1} from -0.5 V to 1.0 V under blue light (460 nm). From Figure 6a the photocurrent of the TNT electrode was observed to be lower due to the poor visible light absorbance of TiO₂. The surface defects induced a small photocurrent under visible light irradiation.

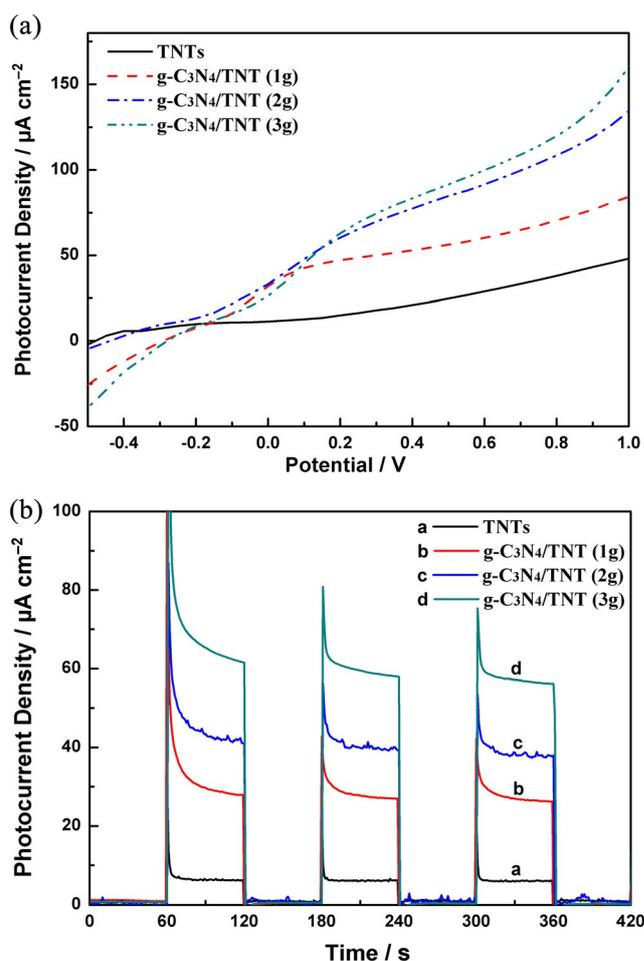


Figure 6. a) Photocurrents and b) transient photocurrents of TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (1 g, 2 g, 3 g).

tion. In comparison to the bare TNTs, the photocurrent responses of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ are markedly enhanced. The enhancement in the photocurrent is ascribed to the dual roles of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ coating: surface sensitization and passivation of surface defects. It is known that the CB level of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is more negative than the CB level of TiO_2 . Upon photo-excitation by the 460 nm illumination, the generated electrons transfer from the CB of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to the CB of TiO_2 , which induces the visible light photoelectrochemical activity. On the other hand, some surface defect sites were created on the TNTs during the thermal treatment process as shown in the UV/Vis spectra. These defect sites would be removed as recombination centers for charge carriers by loading a thin layer of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. As a result, the overall PEC performance of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ under visible light is significantly enhanced. It is observed that increasing the amount of urea precursor (1 g to 3 g) leads to enhancement of the photocurrents. The highest photocurrent was obtained from the sample prepared using 3 g urea as precursor in which more $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ powder was deposited onto the TNTs walls by the SST process. However, further increasing the urea loading did not enhance the photocurrent significantly. The transient photocurrent response of the electrodes was also tested under blue light illumination with a light on/off circle of 60 s at a bias potential of 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl electrode. As shown in Figure 6 b, a fast and steady photocurrent response was observed for each switch on and off on all of the electrodes, and the photocurrent response was totally reversible. The photocurrent density of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g) is almost 10 times as that of TNTs. The great enhancement can be ascribed to the improved charge separation and transportation efficiency through the interaction between the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and TNTs.

Figure 7 shows the time profiles of photoelectrochemical decolorization of MB with different TNTs and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ samples. The photoelectrocatalytic degradation processes were performed at a bias potential of 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl electrode under blue light (460 nm). In Figure 7a, we observe that the decolorization rate for TNTs is approximately 18% after illumination for 10 h. After modification with $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, all of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ samples show much higher decolorization efficiencies, which are in accordance with the results of photocurrent response. The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g) shows the highest decolorization rate ($\approx 55\%$), which is improved by approximately 3.0 times against bare TNTs. For comparison, the electrochemical decolorization (3 g-electro) and photocatalytic decolorization (3 g-photo) of MB were performed under identical conditions without photo-illumination or applying a bias potential, respectively. Without light illumination, there was no decolorization at all. Under photo-illumination, the concentration of MB was only slightly decreased. As shown in Scheme 2, the mechanism of the photoelectrocatalytic decomposition of the MB dye can be described as follows: upon visible light illumination, the organic $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was excited and electron-hole pairs were generated. As mentioned previously, the CB of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is more negative than the CB of TiO_2 , and the photoinduced electrons directly transfer to the CB of TiO_2 , which results in an effective separation of the photoinduced electrons and holes. Besides, the external electric field forced the electrons to move from working electrode to the counter electrode, the rest of the photogenerated holes reacted with H_2O to produce OH radicals, which are responsible for the oxidation of organic compounds. The enhanced photoelectrocatalytic performance of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ is ascribed to the construction of a heterojunction of two semiconductors as well as the applied bias potential voltage, both of which facilitated the separation of photoinduced electron-hole pairs and charge transfer. To assess the stability of the electrodes, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g) were

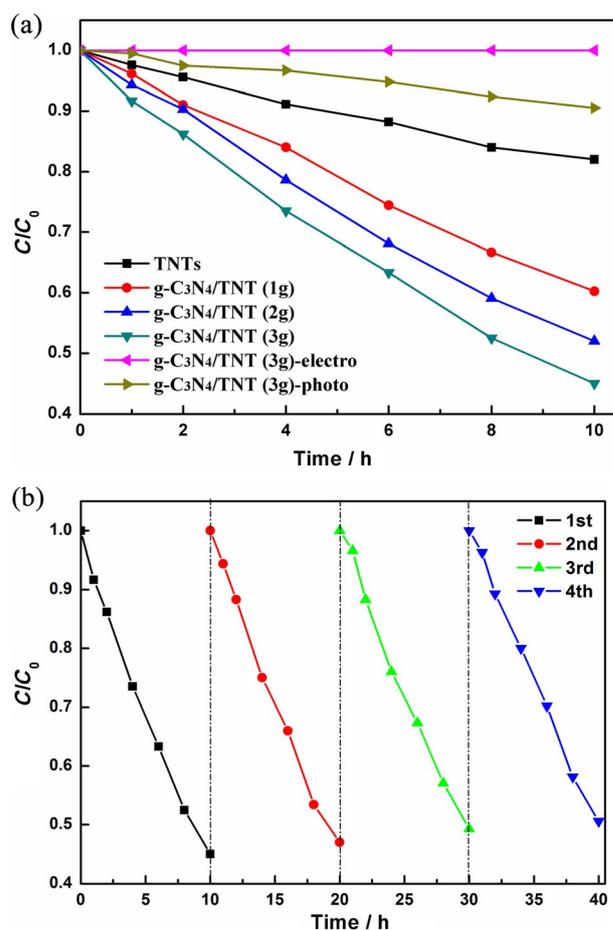
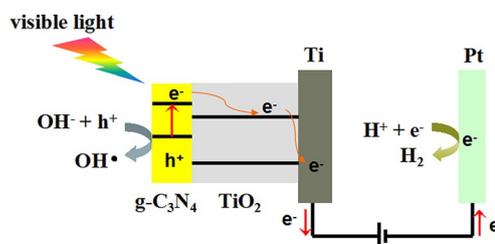


Figure 7. a) The photoelectrochemical decolorization of MB dye using TNTs and different $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$; b) multicycle tests of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g) for the decolorization of MB.



Scheme 2. Charge-transfer process at the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ photoelectrode for photoelectrocatalytic degradation of MB.

ration of the photoinduced electrons and holes. Besides, the external electric field forced the electrons to move from working electrode to the counter electrode, the rest of the photogenerated holes reacted with H_2O to produce OH radicals, which are responsible for the oxidation of organic compounds. The enhanced photoelectrocatalytic performance of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ is ascribed to the construction of a heterojunction of two semiconductors as well as the applied bias potential voltage, both of which facilitated the separation of photoinduced electron-hole pairs and charge transfer. To assess the stability of the electrodes, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TNTs}$ (3 g) were

tested four times for the photoelectrocatalytic decolorization of MB. As shown in Figure 7b, the decolorization rate of MB for each cycle varies only slightly, which indicates the good stability of g-C₃N₄/TNTs. The stable performance during the multicycle tests suggests that the hybrid g-C₃N₄/TNT electrode could be used as a low-cost photoelectrode material in the advanced wastewater treatment processes.

Conclusions

The organic semiconductor g-C₃N₄ was successfully deposited onto TiO₂ nanotubes (TNTs) using urea as precursor by simple and facile solid sublimation and transition (SST). The thin amorphous organic g-C₃N₄ layer plays dual roles: surface sensitization and passivation of TNTs surface trap states to inhibit the charge recombination, which enhances the photoelectrochemical (PEC) performance under visible light irradiation. All of the modified samples show higher photocurrent responses and degradation rates towards methylene blue (MB) under blue light (460 nm) as compared to bare TNTs. The g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g) exhibited the highest photocurrent response and its photocurrent density was approximately 65 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$, which is up to 10 times that of pure TNTs. In accordance, g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g) showed the highest photoelectrocatalytic degradation rate and stability towards the decolorization of MB.

Experimental Section

Fabrication of TNTs

Highly ordered TNTs were fabricated by potentiostatic anodization. Titanium foils (0.1 mm thickness, 99.6% purity) were degreased by sonication in acetone, highly pure water, and ethanol for 15 min, 10 min, and 5 min successively, then dried in air. A two-electrode configuration including a titanium foil acting as the anode and a piece of highly pure graphite (50 × 30 × 5 mm³) as the cathode was used. The electrolyte consisted of 0.1 M NH₄F dissolved in ethylene glycol (EG) with water content of 10 vol%. The anodization was performed at a constant voltage of 60 V for 2 h. All experiments were performed at room temperature unless otherwise stated.

After anodization, to wipe off the debris on the surface of the TNTs, the samples were sonicated in EG for 60 s and then rinsed with highly pure water and dried in air. Then the samples were annealed in air at 550 °C for 2 h with a heating/cooling rate of 2 °C min⁻¹.

Synthesis of g-C₃N₄/TNTs

Deposition of g-C₃N₄ into TNTs was obtained using a facile SST process with urea as precursor, as shown in Scheme 1. Different amounts of urea (1.0, 2.0, and 3.0 g) were added in a home-made aluminum crucible, and the TNTs were placed 1 cm above the urea powders. The crucible was covered by aluminum foil and then heated at 550 °C for 4 h at a ramping rate of 8 °C min⁻¹ in a muffle furnace. During the SST process, only a small amount of g-C₃N₄ polymer was successfully deposited into the TNTs, whereas the majority of as-prepared g-C₃N₄ powders remained on the bottom of crucible. The g-C₃N₄/TNTs made from 1.0, 2.0,

and 3.0 g urea were denoted as g-C₃N₄/TNTs (1 g), g-C₃N₄/TNTs (2 g), and g-C₃N₄/TNTs (3 g), respectively.

Characterization of TNTs and g-C₃N₄/TNTs

The morphology of TNTs and g-C₃N₄/TNTs was characterized by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, FEI Sirion 200) and transmission electron microscopy (FETEM, JEM-2100F). X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to characterize the structure of the samples. The chemical states of the samples were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB250). The Fourier transform infrared spectra (FTIR) of the samples were recorded using an FTIR spectrometer (Nicolet 67). The UV/Vis spectra were recorded using a UV/Vis spectrometer (V-650).

Photoelectrochemical measurement

The photoelectrochemical performance was measured using a three-electrode system with the samples as working electrode, a Ag/AgCl electrode as reference electrode, and a Pt mesh as counter electrode. A 5 W LED ModuLight with monochromatic light was used as the visible light source. A 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution was chosen as the supporting electrolyte. The photocurrents of the TNTs and g-C₃N₄/TNTs with an active area of 1 cm² were measured at a scanning rate of 20 mV s⁻¹ from -0.5 V to 1.0 V under blue light (460 nm) and the instantaneous photocurrent response was measured at a bias potential of 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl electrode under blue light. The photoelectrocatalytic degradation of methyl blue (MB) was performed by inserting the electrode into a 70 mL MB solution (10 μM) with an illuminated area of 6 cm², also at a bias potential of 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl electrode under blue light. Before light irradiation, the working electrode was put into the target MB solution in the dark for 30 min to allow the system to reach adsorption equilibrium. Sample aliquots were withdrawn at intervals for quantitative analysis by using a UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Lambda 35).

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Keywords: electrochemistry • photocatalysis • methylene blue • titanium dioxide • wastewater treatment

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