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## Facile synthesis of hierarchical Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocubes as visible light photocatalysts



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### ABSTRACT

Hierarchically structured Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocubes have been synthesized by a facile and cost-effective one-pot, solution phase process. Self-assembly of 5 nm Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocrystallites induced through reduction by glucose affords a mesoporous 375 nm cubic architecture with superior visible light photocatalytic performance in both methylene blue dye degradation and hydrogen production from water than conventional non-porous analogues. Hierarchical nanocubes offer improved accessible surface active sites and optical/electronic properties, which act in concert to confer 200–300% rate-enhancements for the photocatalytic decomposition of organic pollutants and solar fuels.

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### 1. Introduction

Semiconductor metal oxides have attracted great interest as photocatalytic materials for wide-ranging technological applications including wastewater remediation [1], solar fuels via both H<sub>2</sub> production [2] and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [3], and microbial disinfection [4–6]. Historically, there has been extensive academic and commercial interest in titania photocatalysts. However the past decade has seen a dramatic surge of interest in alternative oxide and associated composite catalyst systems. Amongst these, copper oxide has featured prominently as an earth abundant and low cost, narrow band-gap (2–2.22 eV) p-type intrinsic semiconductor [7]. In addition to its suitability for visible light excitation, the conduction and valence band energies of Cu<sub>2</sub>O render it a promising photocatalyst for water splitting and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [8]. The photostability of Cu<sub>2</sub>O in aqueous media remains a challenge [9] due to its low reduction potential which lies within the band gap. However this undesirable photocorrosion in water is a strong function of oxide morphology/facet termination [10]. A variety of Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocrystal morphologies and sizes have been synthesised to date, including wires, flowers, octahedra, dodecahedra, cubes and spheres, all of

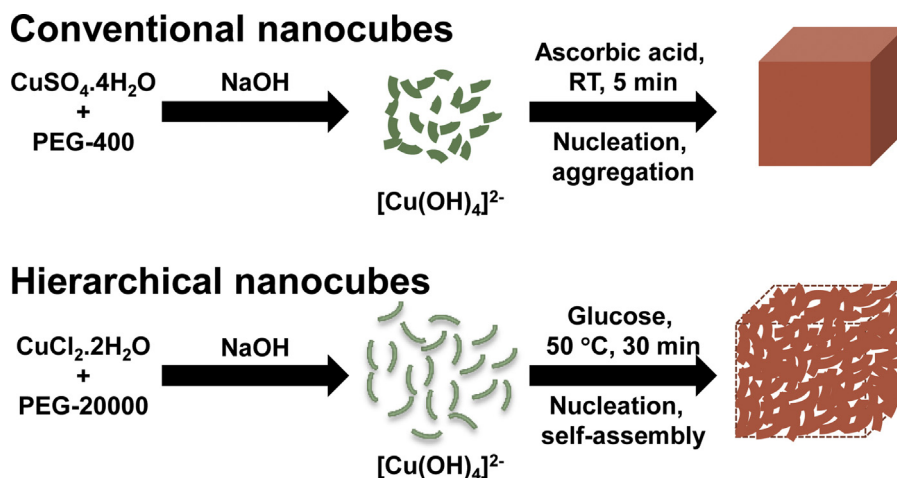
which exhibit good visible light photoactivity for the aqueous phase degradation of organic dyes which serve as models of waste water pollutants [9,11–15].

Functional hierarchical nanostructures (in which superstructures are created through assemblies of smaller units) have also attracted significant recent interest due to their often superior (and tunable) electronic, optical and catalytic properties [16–20]. Hierarchical photocatalysts represent a particularly exciting development, wherein the hierarchy may permit control of mass transport [21], light absorption [22] and heterojunction interfaces in nanocomposites. Hence, it is of interest to explore whether hierarchical Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanostructures also exhibit enhanced photocatalytic properties; pure hierarchical cuprous oxide [18,23] and nanocomposites thereof with e.g. Cu [24] or ZnO [25], have shown promise in the decomposition of model organic waste water pollutants and in solar fuels production.

Herein, we demonstrate the first facile one-pot and low temperature chemical route to the synthesis of hierarchical 375 nm Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocubes comprised of 5 nm sub-units, which exhibit superior visible light photocatalytic performance for methylene blue (MB) decomposition and H<sub>2</sub> production from water.

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**Scheme 1.** Synthetic routes to conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Nanocube synthesis

$\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (ACROS Organics, 99.0%),  $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Sigma 99.0%), Glucose (Sigma), Poly (ethylene glycol) (PEG, average  $M_n$  20,000, Sigma), Poly (ethylene glycol) (PEG, average  $M_n$  400, Sigma), Ascorbic acid (Sigma, 99.9%), NaOH pellets, (Fisher Chemicals), and MB (Sigma, 95.0%) were used as received. All other chemical reagents used in this work were analytically pure and used without further purification.

Conventional  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes were prepared following previous literature reports [26]. In a typical procedure, 0.01 M  $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution (8 ml) was mixed with 32 ml of 0.031 M PEG-400 and stirred for 5 min at room temperature. To this solution, 0.15 M NaOH (ml) was added followed by 0.02 M ascorbic acid (10 ml) drop wise and stirred for 5 min at room temperature. Further the solution was kept undisturbed for 30 min. The resulting precipitate was washed several times with ethanol and dried in vacuum oven at 40 °C for 12 h.

Hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes were prepared by a facile and one pot chemical process. Typically 200 mg PEG-20000 and 200 mg  $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were dissolved in 100 ml of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  separately and stirred for 15 min to ensure that the PEG and  $\text{CuCl}_2$  dissolved completely. The PEG solution was added to  $\text{CuCl}_2$  solution with stirring for 15 min. To this mixture, 3 ml of 3 M NaOH was added, under constant stirring. A blue color solution of  $[\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_4]^{2-}$  was soon produced. After stirring for 15 min, 0.27 g of glucose was added at 50 °C, with constant stirring for 30 min. The blue color gradually turned into a red color. The red color precipitate was centrifuged, washed several times with distilled water, and dried in a vacuum oven at 40 °C for 12 h.

Platinum promoted nanocubes were prepared for water splitting via a photoreduction method. In brief, 25 mg of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes and an appropriate amount of aqueous  $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6$  solution (1 mg  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ ) were dispersed in 20 ml of a 20 vol% aqueous methanolic solution (as a hole scavenger), and then irradiated under a 200 W Hg-Xe light source for 2 h at room temperature. Pt loaded  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes were separated subsequently by centrifugation at 5000 rpm and drying at 60 °C for 4 h in a vacuum oven.

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern was recorded on a Bruker-AXS D8 ADVANCE diffractometer operated at 40 kV voltages and 40 mA current using  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation in the range 10–80°. Surface analysis for the as-prepared products was performed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy using a Kratos Axis HSi spectrometer and monochromated  $\text{Al K}\alpha$  X-ray source operated at 90 W.

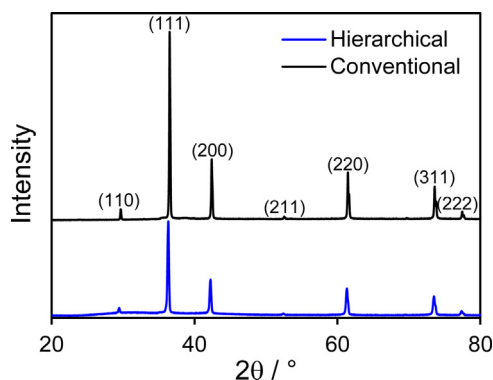
Binding energies were referenced relative to adventitious carbon at 284.6 eV. Spectral processing was performed using CasaXPS version 2.3.16. Catalyst morphology was investigated by field-emission SEM using a JEOL (JSM-7000F) microscope operating at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV. TEM analysis was performed on a JEOL JEM-2100 transmission electron microscope operating at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. Nitrogen adsorption measurements were performed with a Quantachrome NOVA 4000e porosimeter. Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas were calculated over the relative pressure range 0.01–0.2. Pore size distributions were calculated by applying the BJH method to the desorption isotherm for relative pressures >0.35. UV–vis spectra were measured on a Thermo Scientific Evo220 spectrometer. Photoluminescence spectra of the as-prepared samples were recorded on a F-4500FL spectrometer at an excitation wavelength of 560 nm.

### 2.2. Methylene blue photodegradation

Photocatalytic testing of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  samples for the degradation of the MB dye were carried out at room temperature in a sealed 120 ml quartz photoreactor. Test solutions were prepared by mixing 50 ml of MB solution (10 ppm) and 25 mg of either hierarchical or conventionally prepared  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes to form an aqueous dispersion. Prior to irradiation, the test solution was kept in the dark for 60 min under constant stirring to establish the adsorption-desorption equilibrium. Subsequently, the reaction mixture was irradiated by a 200 W Oriel Instruments 66002 Hg-Xe arc lamp employing a 420 nm cut-off filter to remove UV radiation, under stirring. Aliquots of the reaction mixture were periodically withdrawn and centrifuged to separate the catalyst, and UV–vis absorption spectra recorded on the filtrate to monitor the extent of MB reaction.

### 2.3. Hydrogen evolution

Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production was performed over platinumized  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  samples in a sealed 120 ml quartz photoreactor at room temperature using a 200 W Hg-Xe arc lamp whose spectral output is shown in Fig. S1. 25 mg of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  samples was added to 20 ml of 0.5 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  aqueous solution (sulfite as a hole scavenger), and the suspension subsequently ultrasonicated for 5 min to obtain a uniform dispersion. Before each experiment, the reaction mixture was purged with He for 1 h to degas the solution and remove air from the system.  $\text{H}_2$  evolution was measured by gas chromatography (Shimadzu Tracera GC-2010 Plus) with He as a carrier gas and a Barrier Ionization Detector.



**Fig. 1.** Powder XRD patterns of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes. Diffractograms offset for clarity.

### 3. Results and discussion

Hierarchical and conventional  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes, comprising self-assembled nanoparticle aggregates, were synthesised from different copper (II) precursors employing long and short PEG chains respectively as structure-directing agents (Scheme 1). In this one-pot process, electrostatic interactions between  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions and the hydroxyl groups in the PEG control the distribution of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nuclei formed throughout the polymer matrix during the reduction step induced by either glucose (hierarchical) or ascorbic acid (conventional) in the presence of NaOH as a precipitant [23]. This distribution in turn regulates the nanoparticle morphology, and their aggregation into the final superstructure to minimize the total system energy.

The crystallographic structure and phase purity of the nanocubes was first investigated by powder XRD (Fig. 1), which confirmed the exclusive presence of crystalline cubic  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  (JCPDS#73-0687) in both cases, with characteristic reflections at  $29.7^\circ$ ,  $36.6^\circ$ ,  $42.5^\circ$ ,  $52.5^\circ$ ,  $61.6^\circ$ ,  $73.7^\circ$  and  $77.5^\circ$  ascribed to the (110), (111), (200), (211), (220), (311) and (222) planes of cuprous oxide respectively.

Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were subsequently employed to determine the morphology and size of the resultant  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanostructures (Fig. 2). FESEM revealed that both synthetic routes in Scheme 1 yielded uniform nanocubes with mean side lengths around 375 nm. However, higher resolution imaging (Fig. 2a and c inset) showed significant differences in the surface texture of each nanocube type: those prepared by conventional synthesis using the sulfate precursor/ascorbic acid reductant exhibit very smooth facets with clearly defined edges and vertices; in contrast the new synthesis affords rough surfaces constructed from tightly-packed aggregates of individual  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  particles with dimensions <20 nm. Dark field TEM (Fig. 2b and d) highlights these textural differences, with conventional nanocubes appearing extremely smooth and regular, whereas the hierarchical nanocubes have poorly defined edges and vertices consistent with the FESEM images. The volume-averaged  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  crystallite size for the hierarchical nanocubes determined by XRD of around 20 nm was significantly larger than that derived by TEM. This difference may reflect the presence of an inner core within the hierarchical nanocubes which dominates the X-ray diffractogram, and/or the localised nature of high-resolution electron microscopy and concomitant superior ability to discriminate individual  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocrystals present within a larger agglomerate.

High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) of the hierarchical nanocubes shown in Fig. 3 confirms that they are indeed aggregates of many smaller nanocrystallites with mean diameters of approximately 5 nm. The interplanar lattice spacings

of these nanocrystals of 0.242 nm (Fig. 3d) corresponds to the (111) plane of cubic  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  in accordance with XRD phase identification.

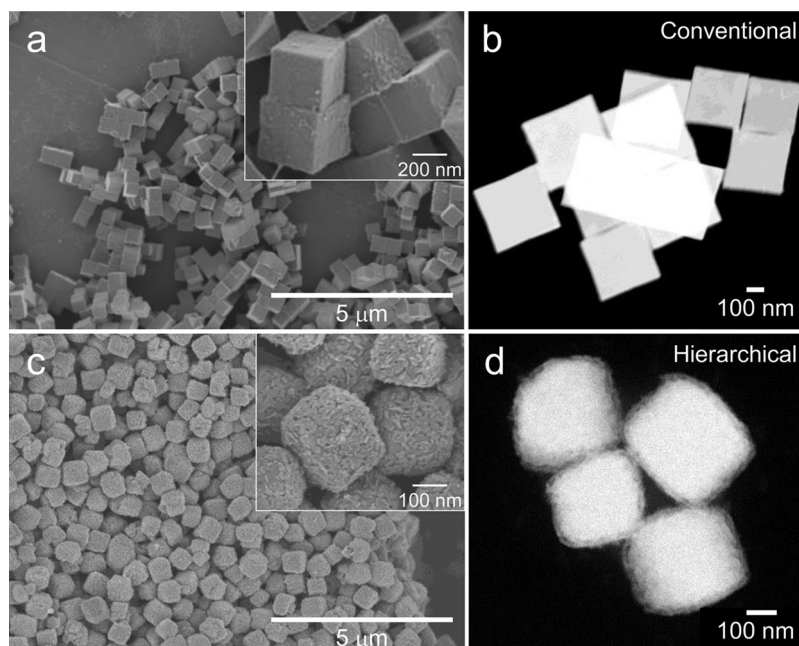
Corresponding DRUVS absorption spectra (Fig. 4a) exhibited a similar band edge for the conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes of ca. 640 nm. The associated band gap was calculated using the following Eq. (1):[27]

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^\eta \quad (1)$$

where  $\alpha$ ,  $h$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $E_g$  and  $A$  are the absorption coefficient, Planck's constant, light frequency, band gap energy, and a proportionality constant respectively. The variable  $\eta$  depends on the nature of the optical transition during photon absorption. For direct band gap materials such as  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ,  $E_g$  can be estimated from a Tauc plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  versus  $h\nu$  wherein  $\eta = 0.5$ , with the optical absorption coefficient obtained from the Kubelka–Munk function, giving  $E_g$ 's of 2.00 and 2.05 eV respectively for conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes (Fig. 4b). The small blue shift for the hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes may reflect quantum size effects due to its smaller constituent particles [28].

Valence band maximum (VBM) edge potentials for conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes were determined by valence band XPS (Fig. 5a) from the intercept of the tangent to the density of states at the Fermi edge as 0.57 eV and 0.55 eV, respectively, in agreement with the literature, [29,30] which in conjunction with the preceding band gap energies yield corresponding conduction band edge potentials of  $-1.43$  eV and  $-1.5$  eV. The more negative conduction edge potential of the hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes may accelerate charge transport during the photodegradation process. The oxidation state of Cu was also probed through Cu 2p core level XPS (Fig. 5b) revealing similar spectra for both nanocube types, with sharp photoemission features at 932.3 and 952.0 eV consistent with the  $2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$  binding energies of either  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  or Cu (which exhibit very similar chemical shifts). [31,32] The  $2p_{3/2}$  spin-orbit component of the hierarchical nanocubes exhibited a slightly lower binding energy than their conventional counterpart, though whether due to initial or final state effects is unclear. Crucially, the 945.0 eV satellite characteristic of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  species was absent for both nanocubes, confirming phase purity [33].

Photoluminescence analysis was subsequently undertaken to examine photoexcited charge carrier lifetimes within the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes. The emission spectra revealed a broad peak at 830 nm (Fig. 6), following 560 nm excitation, for both conventional and hierarchical nanocubes. However the integrated peak intensity of the latter is three times smaller, indicating that hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes exhibit a far slower radiative recombination rate of photoexcited electron-hole pairs. Given the phase purity of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ , and higher surface area:volume ratio of the latter, the slower radiative recombination is tentatively assigned to surface charge trapping of photoexcited charge carriers [34]. Textural properties determined by  $\text{N}_2$  porosimetry (Fig. S2) highlight a very significant increase in the BET surface area of the hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes ( $21 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) compared with the conventional  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes ( $4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ), which should dramatically increase the number of surface active sites available for photocatalytic processes. The five-fold increase in surface area is broadly comparable to the three-fold reduction in recombination, supporting increased charge trapping of photoexcited carriers in the hierarchical material. Since our synthetic protocol does not employ a mesostructured soft template [19], such as the Pluronic surfactants used for ordered mesoporous silicas [35] and alumina [36], neither our conventional nor hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes are expected to exhibit well-defined mesoporosity. This is confirmed by the BJH pore size distributions shown in Fig. S2, which show that the conventional nanocubes are essentially non-porous, while the

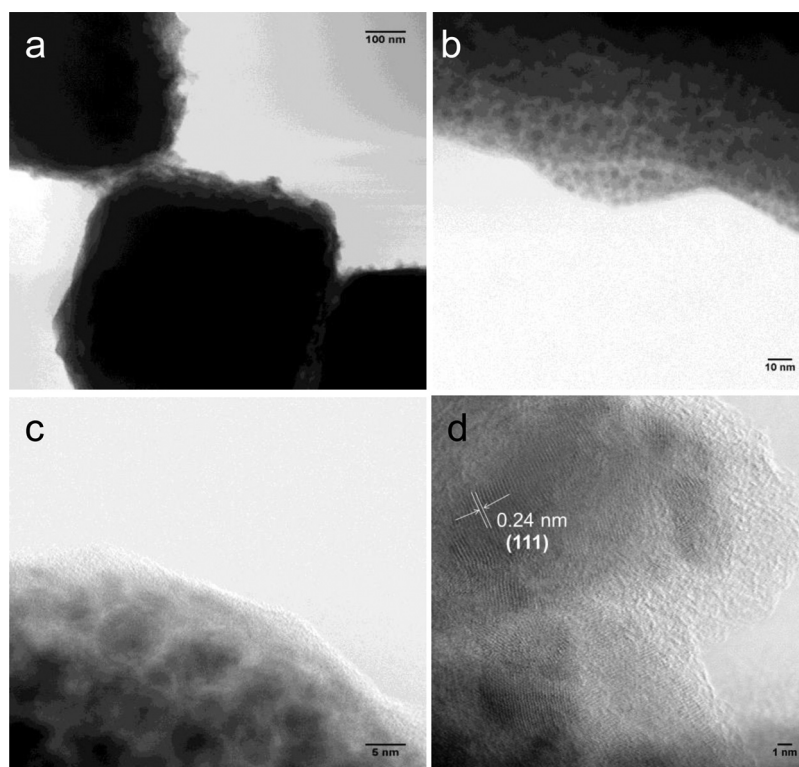


**Fig. 2.** (a,c) SEM and (b,c) dark field TEM images of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes. Insets show magnified images.

hierarchical nanocubes exhibit a broad range of mesopores spanning 1–6 nm and likely associated with interparticulate voids.

The photocatalytic efficacy of both types of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes was explored for MB degradation as a prototypical organic pollutant [37]. Fig. 7a reveals the hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes to be more active than conventional nanocubes towards MB photocatalytic degradation under visible light irradiation. Note that control experiments showed negligible MB photolysis over the same timescale in the absence of catalyst. Photodegradation over both  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$

nanocubes followed pseudo first-order kinetics as expected. [38] Surface area normalised rates of MB degradation (Fig. 7b) compensate for simple geometric differences between the hierarchical and conventional nanocubes, highlighting the former's superior intrinsic activity, which we ascribe to a combination of enhanced light absorption and charge transport properties (Figs. 4 and 6). Quantitative comparisons between different photocatalysts is hampered by the lack of standardization in photocatalytic activity testing, which is contingent on the number of incident/absorbed pho-



**Fig. 3.** TEM and HRTEM images of hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes.

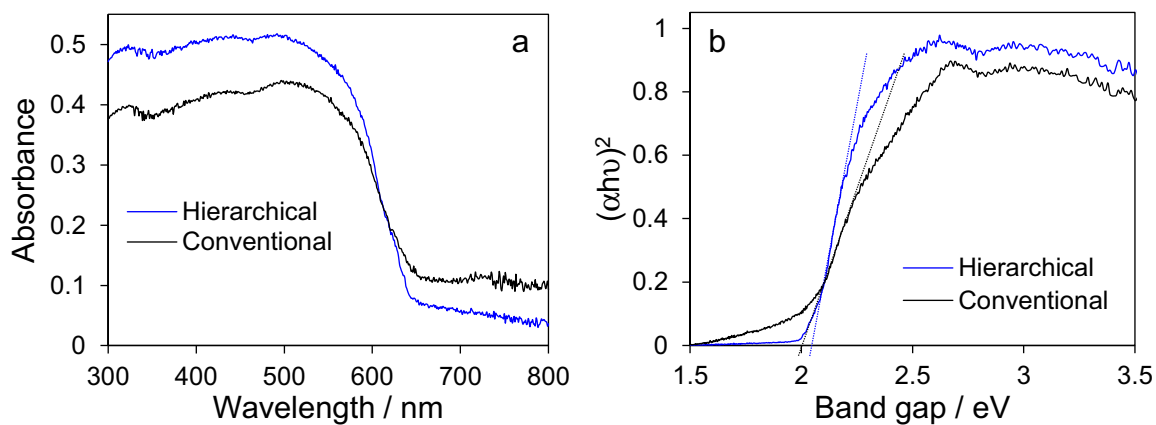


Fig. 4. (a) DRUVS absorption spectra, and (b) Tauc plot to determine optical band gaps of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes.

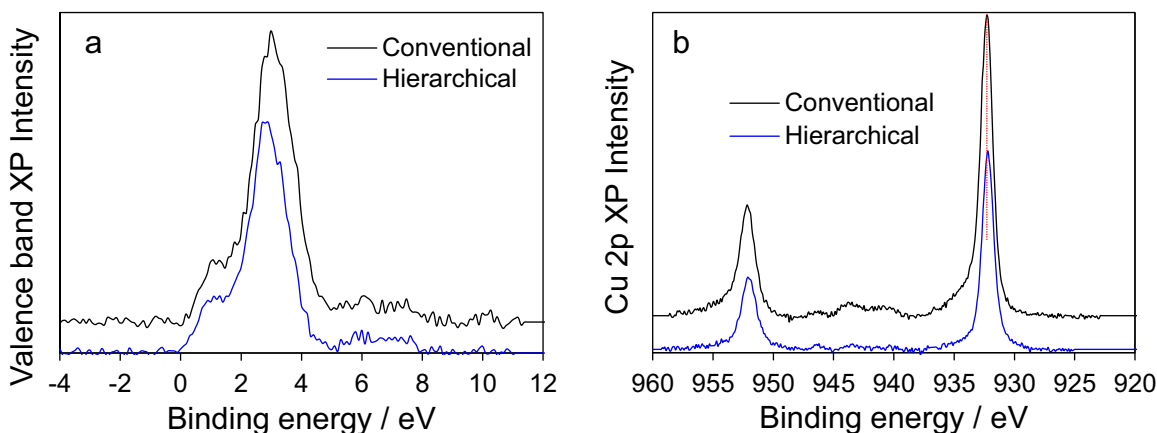


Fig. 5. (a) Valence band, and (b) Cu 2p XP spectra of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes. Spectra offset for clarity.

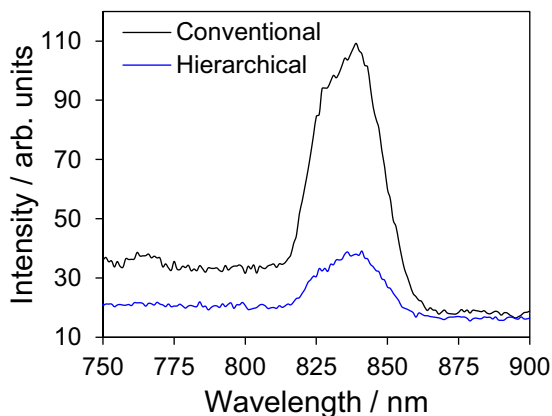
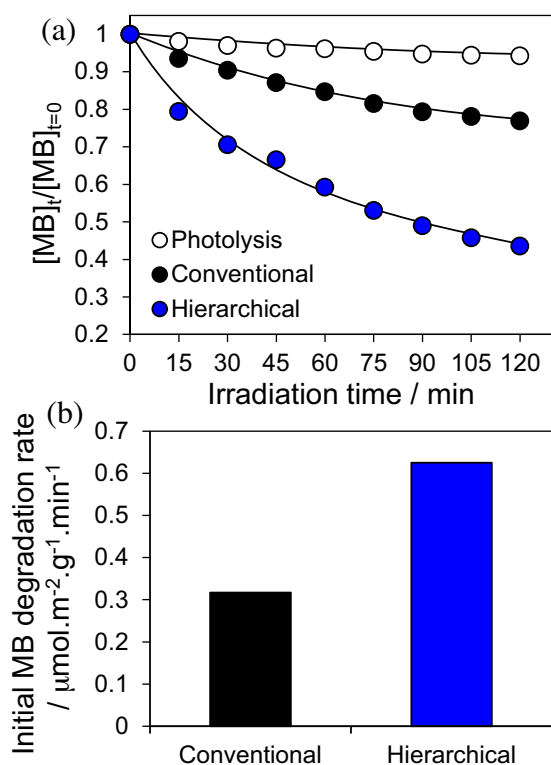


Fig. 6. Photoluminescence spectra of conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes.

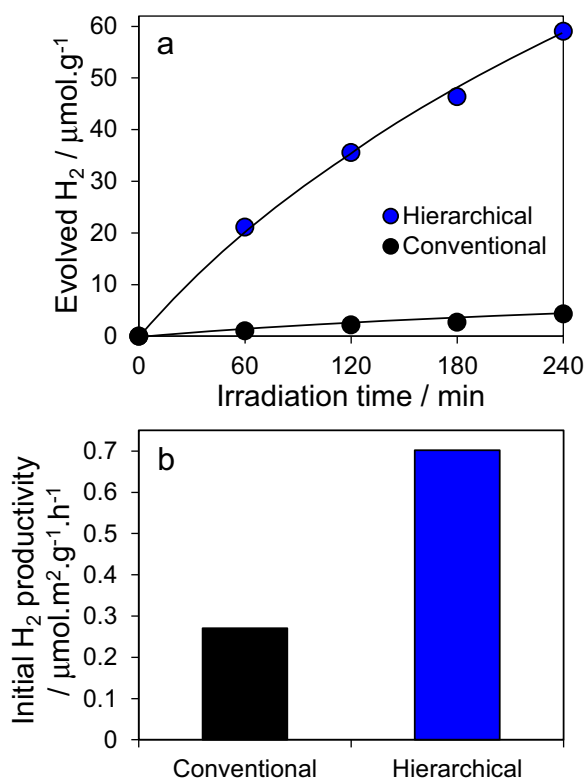
tons, and efficiency of their utilization in chemical conversion. Indeed the vast majority of photocatalytic studies do not report mass and surface area normalized rates. In large part this reflects the wide variance in light source (irradiance and spectral output) and photoreactor design (e.g. size and aspect ratio), which hinders quantification of the light flux impinging on catalysts. As a consequence, the photocatalytic activity for diverse reactions such as dye degradation and  $\text{H}_2$  production, is often reported without reference to the number of incident photons or the surface area, despite the critical role of both. [3,39] Despite these complica-

tions, our hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes perform exceptionally for MB degradation, with an initial rate of 0.6 compared to a rate of  $0.008 \mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}.\text{min}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanowires. [40]

The potential of hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes for  $\text{H}_2$  production from water splitting under visible light irradiation, was also investigated following the addition of 0.6 wt% Pt co-catalyst via wet-impregnation, and employing  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  as a sacrificial hole scavenger [8]. Fig. 8a shows that introduction of the hierarchy of self-assembled nanocrystals confers a striking increase in hydrogen productivity, which translates into a three-fold increase in the surface area normalised initial rate-enhancement (Fig. 8b). TEM of the platinumized nanocubes (Fig. S3) show negligible differences in either Pt particle size or spatial distribution across the two nanocubes, and hence as with MB degradation, the different photoactivities must originate from different electronic/structural properties of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  component. We therefore ascribe the superior intrinsic activity of the platinumized hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes for water splitting to a synergy between the higher energy charge carriers (arising from the slightly larger band gap), and improved visible light absorption and charge separation/transfer to active sites at the surface of Pt nanoparticles for reaction with water (evidenced by the slower charge recombination). As discussed above, quantitative comparisons of photocatalytic activity are hindered by a lack of standardization in the field. However, our rate of  $\text{H}_2$  production and apparent quantum efficiency of  $15 \mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$  and 1.2% respectively, compare very favourably with representative literature values for 300–500 nm  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocrystals of  $0.16 \mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$  and 0.3%. [41] While higher rates of around  $250 \mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$  are reported for 1 wt%  $\text{MoS}_2$  promoted 200–400 nm  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanospheres



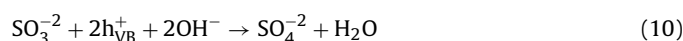
**Fig. 7.** (a) Visible light photocatalytic degradation of MB, and (b) normalised rates of MB degradation over conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes.



**Fig. 8.** (a) Visible light photocatalytic hydrogen production, and (b) normalised rates of hydrogen evolution over conventional and hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes promoted with 0.6 wt% Pt co-catalyst.

[42] and 3 wt% Pt promoted  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposites, [29] these studies employed higher power light sources (350 W and 300 W respectively), and aqueous solutions of alcohols which were likely H-donors (25 vol% MeOH and 10 vol% triethanolamine respectively), while neither reported quantum efficiencies.

The excellent photocatalytic stability of our hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes was evidenced through re-use experiments, which revealed retention of  $\geq 90\%$  of their initial surface area normalised rates of both methylene blue degradation and hydrogen production via water splitting (Fig. S4). Powder XRD further evidences the excellent stability of our hierarchical nanocubes, with the diffractograms of fresh and used catalysts unchanged (Fig. S5), confirming retention of the parent  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  phase (and hence no photooxidation to  $\text{CuO}$ ), and negligible nanocrystal sintering/dissolution. Mechanisms of dye photodegradation and solar  $\text{H}_2$  production from water under visible light irradiation have been widely speculated, and we summarize the consensus in Fig. 9. Absorption of photons with energies equal to or exceeding the band gap of our  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes generates electron-hole pairs (Eq. (1)), with the resulting photoexcited electrons migrating to the conduction band (CB) with holes remaining in the valence band (VB). A fraction of the photogenerated charge carriers may undergo undesired direct recombination and associated fluorescence. Our photoluminescence spectra in Fig. 6 reveals that charge recombination is greatly suppressed in the hierarchical nanocubes relative to the conventional nanocubes, suggesting that photoinduced electron and hole migration to the surface of the hierarchical  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nanocubes (and their subsequent participation in redox catalysis) is much more efficient. For MB degradation, photoinduced holes in the VB readily react with hydroxyl ions (hole acceptors) to form hydroxyl radicals ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) (Eq. (2)), with corresponding photoexcited electrons in the CB reacting with dissolved  $\text{O}_2$  to generate superoxide radicals  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  (Eq. (3)). The resulting  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  can further react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to increase the  $\cdot\text{OH}$  concentration (Eqs. (4)–(8)), with hydroxyl radicals responsible for MB oxidation. [43,44] Chithambararaj and co-workers have performed detailed mechanistic investigations into the photocatalytic bleaching of MB [45]. In addition to direct  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  photoexcitation, dye degradation can also proceed via its sensitization of the semiconductor [46]. MB adsorbed at the surface of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  may undergo photoexcitation (absorption maximum  $\sim 670$  nm), and resultant electron injection into the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  CB, facilitating charge separation. For  $\text{H}_2$  evolution, electrons photoexcited into the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  CB are trapped by nanoparticles of the Pt co-catalyst, and subsequently react with  $\text{H}^+$  from water to produce molecular  $\text{H}_2$  (Eq. (9)). Simultaneously photogenerated holes in the VB are scavenged by  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$  (Eq. (10)).



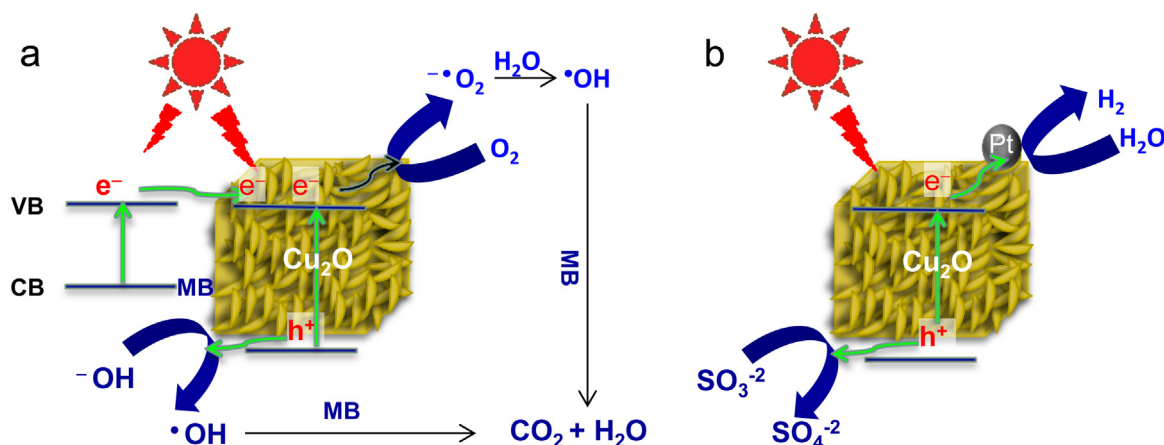


Fig. 9. Proposed mechanism of (a) photocatalytic MB degradation and (b)  $H_2$  evolution under visible light irradiation over hierarchical  $Cu_2O$  nanocubes.

#### 4. Conclusions

Phase-pure  $Cu_2O$  nanocubes with a hierarchical structure were successfully prepared by a one-pot synthesis employing PEG and glucose as a structure-directing agent and reductant respectively. This one-pot hydrothermal method avoids the use of hazardous reagents, e.g. hydrazine, [18,47] long reaction times, [42] or multiple steps e.g. hydrolysis and subsequent high temperature thermal processing. [41] Self-assembly of individual  $Cu_2O$  nanocrystals into hierarchical nanocubes increases their accessible surface active sites and optical/electronic properties compared to a conventional  $Cu_2O$  nanocube synthesis, conferring 100–200% rate-enhancements in the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants and hydrogen production from water splitting, and a good apparent quantum efficiency of 1.2%. Our simple methodology for the bottom-up assembly of ordered  $Cu_2O$  nanoarchitectures may be extendable to other semiconducting metal oxides, and additional photocatalytic reactions such as  $CO_2$  photoreduction, and sensing applications.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.02.038>.

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