**Research Article** 

# Remarkably enhanced piezo-photocatalytic performance in BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures for organic pollutant degradation

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**Abstract:** Introducing polarization field of piezoelectric materials is an effective strategy to improve photocatalytic performance. In this study, a new type of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure catalyst was designed and synthesized to achieve high piezo-photocatalytic activity through the synergy of heterojunction and piezoelectric effect. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure shows a significantly enhanced piezo-photocatalytic degradation efficiency of organic pollutants compared with the individual BaTiO<sub>3</sub> nanowires (NWs) and CuO nanoparticles (NPs). Under the co-excitation of ultrasonic vibration and ultraviolet radiation, the optimal degradation reaction rate constant *k* of polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure on methyl orange (MO) dye can reach 0.05 min<sup>-1</sup>, which is 6.1 times of photocatalytic rate and 7 times of piezocatalytic rate. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure with remarkable piezo-photocatalytic behavior provides a promising strategy for the development of high-efficiency catalysts for wastewater purification, and it also helps understand the coupling mechanism between piezoelectric effect and photocatalysis.

Keywords: piezotronics; photocatalysis; polarization; heterostructure

# 1 Introduction

The ever-increasing energy crisis and environmental pollution have seriously threatened the sustainable development of society [1-5]. As a promising technology to solve these problems, photocatalysis has attracted

great interest. Semiconductor photocatalytic technology can directly convert solar energy into chemical energy, and realize the degradation of organic pollutants and water splitting, which is a "green" way to apply solar energy directly [6–8]. Nevertheless, one of the most serious problems hindering the practical application of semiconductor photocatalysts is the low catalytic efficiency due to the recombination of photo-generated electron–hole pairs [9–11]. To improve photocatalytic performance, it is important to accelerate the separation

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of photo-generated carriers both in the bulk and on the surface. To date, many strategies have been developed to overcome these limitations, such as ion doping, constructing heterostructure, co-catalyst loading, and nanostructure design [12–16]. Although the recombination of photo-generated carriers on the surface is suppressed by these methods, it is still hard to be eliminated in the bulk at present [17–19]. That is, the low photocatalytic activity is because only a small number of carriers reach the surface of photocatalyst to work for catalysis. Therefore, it is still a challenge to find an effective way to inhibit the recombination of photo-generated carriers.

Recently, it has attracted increasing attention to introduce the piezoelectric effect into the photocatalysis to improve catalytic activity [20–23]. In this process, a built-in electric field is established by piezoelectric effect to promote the separation of photo-generated electrons and holes. For example, Wang and Wu [24] reported a highly efficient hydrogen evolution reaction in ferroelectric R3c LiNbO3-type ZnSnO3 nanowires (NWs) through the piezo-phototronic effect because the mechanical force-induced spontaneous polarization drives photo-generated electrons and holes in opposite directions, thereby enhancing the redox process. Wang et al. [25] demonstrated that the organolead halide perovskite CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> possesses markedly enhanced hydrogen generation under simultaneous ultrasonic and visible light illumination. Hu et al. [26] illustrated the enhanced oxygen reduction reaction performance of Bi<sub>4</sub>NbO<sub>8</sub>Br single-crystalline nanoplates owing to the piezo-phototronic effect. Furthermore, since the construction of semiconductor heterostructures has been proven to achieve many excellent characteristics, the photocatalytic performance can be significantly optimized in the heterostructures with piezoelectric polarization. For instance, Guo et al. [27] obtained an enhanced H<sub>2</sub> evolution rate and 4-nitrophenol degradation activity in the piezo-photocatalyst of Al/BaTiO<sub>3</sub> heterostructure. Hong et al. [28] achieved an extremely high piezo-photocatalytic activity in CuS/ZnO heterostructured nanowire arrays, far beyond pure ZnO. Although these results confirmed the promotion of piezoelectric polarization on photocatalytic performance, there is still great space to develop novel piezophotocatalysts towards higher catalytic efficiency.

In this study, we designed and fabricated a piezophotocatalyst of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure consisting of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO nanoparticles (NPs). As a typical n-type ferroelectric material, BaTiO<sub>3</sub> provides driving force to separate electron-hole pairs through the built-in electric field caused by spontaneous polarization. BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs were chosen because the piezoelectric potential is greater than that of NPs due to the easier deformability that can effectively regulate the migration and separation of internal carriers to improve the photocatalytic performance [29]. Among the various heterogeneous photocatalysts, CuO is an excellent cocatalyst with other semiconductors due to the advantages of narrow band gap, low cost, nontoxicity, and high stability. Coupling BaTiO<sub>3</sub> with CuO to form p-n junctions is an effective way to enhance photocatalytic performance because it not only extends light absorption into the visible region but also effectively inhibits the recombination of photogenerated electronhole pairs [30-34]. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO composites exhibit superior photocatalytic degradation ability for methyl orange (MO), much higher than that of each individual. Moreover, after being polarized by corona, the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/ CuO nanocatalyst realizes a much faster degradation of dve pollutants in water upon concurrent light and mechanical stimulations.

# 2 Experimental

# 2.1 Synthesis of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs

BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs were prepared by a two-step hydrothermal reaction. First, 1.45 g TiO<sub>2</sub> was added into 10 M sodium hydroxide solution and stirred for 30 min. The solution was sealed in the Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and heated at 240 °C for 24 h to synthesize Na<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> NWs. The obtained Na<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> NWs were soaked in 0.2 M HCl with a slow stirring rate for 4 h to form H<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> NWs, which were converted to BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs by a second hydrothermal reaction. Then 0.15 g H<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> NWs were dispersed in 70 mL of mixed Ba(OH)<sub>2</sub> aqueous solution, and the mixed suspension was transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and kept at 210 °C for 85 min. After that, the obtained BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs were collected, washed, and then dried at 80 °C for 12 h.

# 2. 2 Synthesis of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures

 $BaTiO_3/CuO$  heterojunction structures were fabricated by a wet impregnation method. Typically, the synthesized  $BaTiO_3$  NWs are compounded with CuO NPs in molar ratios of 1:0.2, 1:0.4, 1:0.6, 1:0.8, and 1:1 by adding different amounts of Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O and dispersing in ethanol solution. After ultrasound dispersion at 30  $^{\circ}$ C for 30 min, the suspension was dried at 75  $^{\circ}$ C to obtain solid powders. Then, they were calcined in air at 300  $^{\circ}$ C for 2 h to synthesize BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure.

# 2.3 Characterization

The phase compositions of the synthesized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, CuO, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure samples were characterized by the X-ray diffractometer (XRD; Rigaku, Japan) using the Cu Ka radiation. The morphologies of the samples were observed on a scanning electron microscope (SEM; Supra 55, Germany). The element analysis was carried out through an energy dispersive X-ray spectroscope (EDS; Supra 55, Germany). The microstructures of the nanocrystallites were observed through a field emission transmission electron microscope (FETEM; JEM-2100F, Japan) with the acceleration voltage of 200 kV. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data was obtained by using a Kratos AXIS SUPRA (UK) with monochromatic Al Ka radiation. The photocurrent was measured with an electrochemical system (CHI 700E, China) and a conventional threeelectrode battery. In photocurrent measurement, the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO powders were drop casted on a platinum electrode. The UV-Vis absorption spectroscopy was performed by a UV-3600 spectrophotometer equipped with an integrated sphere. The local piezoelectric response was characterized using the piezoelectric force microscope (PFM; Cypher ES, UK) with a dual alternating current resonance tracking (DART) mode. The fluorescence intensity of catalysts was recorded using the fluorescence spectroscope (FLS 980, UK). The generation of reactive species involved in the piezoelectric catalytic process was further investigated by the electron spin resonance (ESR; Bruker A300-10-12, Germany) technique.

#### 2.4 Catalytic activity measurement

For the catalytic degradation of MO, 0.1 g of the synthesized sample was dispersed in 100 mL of  $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  MO aqueous solution. After the suspension was continuously stirred in the dark for 30 min to reach an adsorption equilibrium, the ultraviolet irradiation with a 200 W xenon lamp and an ultrasonic cleaner (KQ-100DE, Kunshan Ultrasonic Instrument, China) for ultrasonic vibration were used. The reaction system was kept at ~30 °C. At a fixed time interval of 15 min,

5 mL of the suspension was taken for sampling. After centrifugal powder removal, the concentrations of MO solutions were determined by the absorption spectra (Shimadzu UV-3600, Japan).

In addition, the cyclic stability of piezo-photocatalytic was evaluated. The MO degradation experiment was repeated by using the recycled BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO sample. After the completion of a piezo-photocatalytic experiment, the remaining BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO sample was centrifuged from the solution by a high-speed centrifuge and washed by deionized water for several times before dried at 100 °C. Then the sample was directly polarized by the corona polarization method. Finally, the polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO sample was employed again for the piezo-photocatalytic degradation of MO solutions.

# 3 Results and discussion

The crystal structures of pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, pure CuO NPs, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures with different molar ratios were investigated by XRD, and the results are illustrated in Fig. 1. The positions and relative intensities of all the diffraction peaks of pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and pure CuO NPs are perfectly indexed to the tetragonal phase of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS Card No. 81-2203) and the monoclinic phase of CuO (JCPDS Card No. 05-0661). There is no diffractive peak of impurity for individual BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs, indicating that they have high purity. The sharp and intense diffractive peaks of pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs indicate that they have high crystallinity. For the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures, the spectra only indicate the tetragonal phase of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and the monoclinic phase of



**Fig. 1** XRD patterns of CuO NPs, BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures.

CuO NPs without any other phase. The diffractive peaks of the CuO NPs in the composite samples have very low intensities because their small particle sizes significantly broaden the Bragg reflections in comparison to pure CuO NPs.

The morphologies of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures are characterized by both SEM and TEM. Figure 2(a) shows that BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs have smooth, straight, and elongated nanostructures with a length of a few microns and a diameter of about 250 nm. When CuO NPs were deposited, a large number of small particles were observed on the surface of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, as shown in Fig. 2(b). The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterojunction is shown in Figs. 2(c) and 2(d). The lattice fringes of 0.253 and 0.405 nm clearly belong to the (002) crystal plane of monoclinic CuO and the (001) crystal plane of tetragonal BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, respectively. It indicates that it is the CuO NPs that adhere to the

surface of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs. Besides, the energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) result (Fig. 2(f)) further confirms the chemical composition of the CuO/BaTiO<sub>3</sub> heterostructures. The atom ratio of Ba to Ti is about 1:1, which is consistent with the composition of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>. The elemental mapping images (Fig. 2(e)) clearly show that the Ba, Ti, and O elements uniformly distribute in the whole BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and the Cu and O elements distribute more on the surface of NWs, indicating that CuO NPs are successfully loaded on the surface of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs.

In order to further verify the chemical state and the surface composition of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures, the XPS measurement was carried out, and the survey spectrum of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO is shown in Fig. 3(a). No peak of elements other than C, Ba, Ti, O, and Cu is observed, indicating that no impurity is in the sample. In Figs. 3(b) and 3(c), the peaks at 778.51, 793.79, 458.33, and 464.03 eV are attributed to Ba  $3d_{5/2}$ , Ba  $3d_{3/2}$ , Ti  $2P_{3/2}$ , and Ti  $2P_{1/2}$ , respectively, which correspond



**Fig. 2** SEM images of (a) BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and (b) BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO heterostructures; (c) TEM and (d) HRTEM images of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO; and (e) EDS spectra and (f) corresponding elemental mappings of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO.



**Fig. 3** XPS spectra of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO: (a) survey, (b) Ba 3d, (c) Ti 2p, (d) O 1s, and (e) Cu 2p; (f) UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures; and PFM strain–voltage hysteresis loop of (g) amplitude and (h) phase for BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO.

to the characteristic values of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>. The XPS spectra of O 1s peak for BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO in Fig. 3(d) are fitted by three separated peaks of 529.5, 531.1, and 532.6 eV, which belong to lattice oxygen, oxygen vacancies, and chemical-absorbed oxygen, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3(e), the peaks at 933 and 953 eV confirm the oxidation state of Cu ions as 2+. The appearance of two shakeup satellite peaks, which is the feature evincing the partially filled d-orbital (3d<sup>9</sup> in Cu<sup>2+</sup>), further confirms the presence of Cu<sup>2+</sup>.

The optical absorption properties of the pure  $BaTiO_3$  NWs, CuO NPs, and fabricated hybrid photocatalysts are characterized by UV–Vis absorption. As illustrated in Fig. 3(f), the pure  $BaTiO_3$  NWs only absorb UV

light with an absorption edge around 395 nm, whereas pure CuO NPs have a wide absorption range from UV to visible light. Compared to pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures exhibit significant light absorption in the visible region from 400 to 800 nm and gradually increase with increasing CuO loading, which also indicates that CuO NPs loaded on BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs. The piezoelectric property of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO heterojunctions was verified by the PFM measurement with a DART mode. Figures 3(g) and 3(h) display a typical strain–voltage hysteresis loop of ferroelectric material. The amplitude curve exhibits a typical butterfly loop in the voltage range from -15 to +15 V, and the continuous variation with the applied electric field verifies a good local piezoelectric response. Meanwhile, the phase difference between opposite signals approaches 180°. These data suggests that the as-synthesized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO heterostructure shows good piezoelectric feature.

The separation and transfer of photogenerated carriers directly affect the photocurrent, which is also essential for photocatalytic reactions. Figure 4(a) represents the transient photocurrent response of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, CuO NPs, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures with different CuO contents. All the samples display stable and reversible photocurrent responses when the light is on and off, respectively. The BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.8CuO electrode demonstrates the largest photocurrent, which is 2.5 and 30 times higher than those of pure  $BaTiO_3$ NWs and pure CuO NPs, respectively. This outcome suggests that the introduction of CuO NPs greatly enhances the charge separation efficiency of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs under the irradiation of UV light. To further evaluate the photocatalytic performance of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures, the MO degradation experiment was conducted under different UV light irradiation time. When there is no photocatalyst or only photocatalyst without UV irradiation (Figs. S1(a) and S2 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)), the MO degradation is hardly observed, which reveals that the irradiation of UV light and the adsorption of catalysis have a negligible influence on dye decomposition. In Figs. 4(b)-4(d) and Fig. S3 in the ESM, under the irradiation of UV light, the pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs exhibit a low degradation rate of MO solution, demonstrating the inherent poor photocatalytic performance of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs. In contrast, the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/ CuO heterostructures exhibit a significantly enhanced photocatalytic degradation of MO degradation. It is attributed to the construction of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures that provides an effective channel to facilitate the separation of electronhole pairs, which extends the lifetime of photogenerated carriers, and boosts the formation of reactive oxygen species and oxidation of MO. As shown in Fig. 4(e), the degradation rate of MO solution increases from 10% to 78% with the increase of CuO loading, and the photocatalytic efficiency exhibits saturation in the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.8CuO sample. When the CuO loading further increases, the photocatalytic activity turns to decrease. This is because the excess CuO covers the active sites on the BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NW surface, resulting in a decrease in



**Fig. 4** (a) Transient photocurrent response of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, CuO NPs, and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–CuO heterostructures under UV irradiation. UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO solutions undergoing different UV irradiation time for (b) CuO NPs, (c) BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and (d) BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO. (e) Comparison of photocatalytic activity of MO degradation and (f) corresponding reaction rate constant of photocatalytic.

photocatalytic activity. This result is consistent with that of the photocurrent. The catalysis reaction rate can be evaluated by a pseudo-first-order equation as follows:

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

where  $C_0$  and C are the maximum absorption peaks of MO with  $\lambda_{max} = 464$  nm at 0 and t, respectively. The rate constant k of reaction is obtained from the slope of the  $\ln(C_0/C)$ -t curve, as shown in Fig. 4(f). The k value of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.8CuO composite is calculated as 0.0153 min<sup>-1</sup>, which is 13.9 and 38.2 times higher than those of pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and pure CuO NPs, respectively.

Whereafter, the performance of the piezocatalytic degradation of MO is characterized under ultrasonic vibration. It is noted that a slight decolourisation of the MO dye solution occurs without any piezoelectric catalyst under ultrasonic activation for 90 min, which is attributed to the activation of water under ultrasound, but this is negligible for the complete degradation of dye molecules in this work (Fig. S1(b) in the ESM). In contrast, as shown in Figs. 5(a) and 5(b), after the addition of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, the decomposition ratio of MO dye is significantly enhanced. When BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs are laid in the MO dye solution under ultrasonic

excitation, the removal efficiency of the MO dye solution reaches 69% after 90 min. It is much higher than that of the photocatalysis due to its excellent piezoelectric properties. Whereas, after the addition of CuO, there is almost no degradation for MO solutions due to the lack of piezoelectricity of CuO. These results demonstrate that the piezoelectric potential induced in the piezoelectric materials under ultrasound plays a key role in the piezocatalysis of dye degradation. When BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs are combined with CuO NPs, the reduction in their overall piezoelectricity will lead to an inevitable limitation in their piezocatalytic performance. As depicted in Figs. 5(c) and 5(d) and Fig. S4 in the ESM, the piezocatalytic performance of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures decreases with the increase of CuO loading.

The piezo-photocatalytic performance of the as-prepared samples was then exploited under simultaneous light illumination and ultrasonic vibration. Inspiringly, the catalytic activity of the obtained catalysts is significantly enhanced under both light and ultrasound irradiation, as shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. S5 in the ESM. As mentioned above, there are still many residual MO dye molecules over BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs



**Fig. 5** UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO solutions undergoing different vibration time for (a) CuO NPs, (b) BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and (c) BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO. (d) Comparison of piezocatalytic activity of MO degradation.



**Fig. 6** UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO solutions undergoing different UV irradiation and vibration time for (a) CuO NPs, (b) BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and (c) BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO. (d) Comparison of piezo-photocatalytic activity of MO degradation.

and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures in the photocatalytic and piezocatalytic processes for 90 min, while the degradation of MO dyes on BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/ CuO heterostructures is dramatically accelerated in the piezo-photocatalytic process. It demonstrates that the piezo-photocatalytic performances of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures are much higher than those of individual piezocatalysis and photocatalysis. The comparison of degradation rate constants of MO dye in the presence of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures under photocatalysis, piezocatalysis, and piezo-photocatalysis for 90 min is shown in Fig. 7(f). The piezo-photocatalytic reaction rates of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures are much greater than the sum of photocatalytic and piezocatalytic reaction rates. Moreover, the decomposition of MO dye molecules is almost complete within 90 min with a supreme degradation rate of 0.035 min<sup>-1</sup> over BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.6CuO composites, which is significantly higher than that of pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs. These results imply that the synergistic effect of the heterojunction between BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs and the internal build-in field caused by piezoelectric polarization can effectively accelerate the photoexcited electron-hole pair separation and transfer in piezo- photocatalytic reactions, resulting in the involvement of more charge carriers in photo-redox catalysis. Furthermore, when CuO NPs are excessively loaded, the piezo-photocatalytic activity drops. It is because excessive CuO NPs may (1) cover the active sites on the surface of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, which prevents the migration of charge carriers, and (2) hinder the mechanical vibration of piezoelectric material.

As a ferroelectric material, BaTiO<sub>3</sub> has multiple spontaneous polarization directions. In order to keep the energy at a low level, domains are usually formed in the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, and adjacent domains usually have different orientations. The presence of these domains with different orientations results in the electrical neutrality BaTiO<sub>3</sub> apparently and the absence of overall piezoelectricity. It needed to rearrange these domains in a uniform direction by electric field to achieve a significant improved piezoelectric property. Hence, the poling process has an impact on the piezo-photocatalytic activity. The as-prepared BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO samples were poled by a corona-poling method, as shown in Fig. 7(a). The catalytic performance of the polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs is much better than that of the nonpolarized sample (Fig. 7(c)), while there is no obvious change in that of CuO after polarization (Fig. 7(b)). It implies that the key role of electric polarization



**Fig. 7** (a) Illustration of the corona-poling system. UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO solutions undergoing both different UV irradiation and vibration time for (b) poled CuO NPs, (c) poled BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs, and (d) poled BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO. (e) Comparison of piezo-photocatalytic activity of MO degradation with poled hybrid catalysts. (f) Comparison of degradation rate constant *k* for degradation of MO under various catalytic conditions (S refers to ultrasonic vibration, L refers to UV light irradiation, L & S refers to both ultrasonic and UV light, and P refers to the poled samples).

originates from the ferroelectric feature of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs. From Figs. 7(d) and 7(e) and Fig. S6 in the ESM, the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.6CuO composite shows the best catalytic performance, achieving 90% MO degradation within 45 min. The color of MO solution exhibits an obvious change with the prolongation of reaction time, as shown in Fig. S7 in the ESM. The MO degradation for all kinds of catalysts is summarized in Fig. 7(f). By comparing the piezo-photocatalytic effect of the samples before and after poling process, it is found that the electric polarization plays an important role in enhancing the piezo-photocatalysis. Figure S8 in the ESM shows the photoluminescence spectra of unpoled BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.6CuO and poled BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.6CuO to evaluate the charge separation ability. The lower fluorescence emission intensity implies a higher efficiency of electronhole pair separation. When the sample is poled, the fluorescence emission intensity is significantly reduced. It demonstrates that the polarization effectively enhances the charge separation. The rate constant k of optimal catalysis reaches  $0.05 \text{ min}^{-1}$ , which is 6.1 times that of photocatalytic rate and 7 times that of piezocatalytic rate. Moreover, the comparison of degradation efficiencies

with other piezo-photocatalysts is shown in Table S1 in the ESM, where the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures exhibit excellent competitiveness [26,35–42].

From the perspective of pollutant degradation, it is necessary to determine the main reactive species in the catalytic process by adding different scavengers: disodium ethylene diamine tetra-acetate dehydrates (EDTA-2Na, hole scavengers), tert-butyl alcohol (TBA, hydroxyl radical scavengers), and benzoquinone (BQ, superoxide radical scavengers). Figure 8(a) illustrates the effects of these scavengers on the MO degradation with the polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>-0.6CuO heterostructures as catalyst under both UV irradiation and ultrasound vibration. The decomposition rate of MO decreases to various degrees after adding scavengers, especially for superoxide radical scavengers and hole scavengers. It suggests that  $h^+$  and  $O_2^-$  act as the main reactive species in the piezo-photocatalysis of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO for MO degradation. To further identify the reactive species in the piezo-photocatalytic process, ESR experiments were carried out using DMPO and TEMP as capture reagents. As shown in Figs. S9(a) and S9(b) in the ESM, the ESR signals obtained with DMPO in aqueous



**Fig. 8** (a) Piezo-photocatalytic degradation of MO by poled  $BaTiO_3$ -0.6CuO heterostructures in the presence of holes, electron hydroxyl radicals, and superoxide radical scavengers. UV–Vis absorption spectra of (b) methylene blue (MB) and (c) rhodamine B (RhB) aqueous solutions at different reaction time over poled  $BaTiO_3$ -0.6CuO heterostructures. (d) Relative intensity of the maximum absorption at 464 nm as a function of reaction time in four recycling processes.

and methanolic dispersions of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO correspond to hydroxyl and superoxide radicals, respectively. Apparently, no signs of free radicals were detected prior to the ultrasonic and UV illumination treatment. After 10 min of UV illumination and ultrasonic vibration, characteristic peaks for DMPO–·OH and DMPO–·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> are detected. The results demonstrate that ·OH and ·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals are generated during piezo-photocatalysis. As displayed in Fig. S9(c) in the ESM, since TEMPO acts as a radical scavenger for h<sup>+</sup>, the reduction of the TEMPO signal indicates that TEMPO is oxidized by h<sup>+</sup>, revealing the generation of h<sup>+</sup> during piezo-photocatalysis.

In catalyst applications, the catalytic universality and cycle stability are highly desired. In Figs. 8(b) and 8(c), the piezo-photocatalysis activity of the polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>–0.6CuO heterostructures is further examined by the degradation of other organic dyes including MB and RhB. The absorbance of different dye solutions gradually decreases with the prolongation of catalytic reaction time, which confirms a wide universality of piezo-photocatalytic activity in the polarized BaTiO<sub>3</sub>– 0.6CuO heterostructures. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 8(d), after 4 times of continuous cycles, the degradation efficiency only exhibits a very slight decrease, indicating a good piezo-photocatalytic reusability. These results confirm the promising potential of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructure to treat organic pollutants by the joint use of solar and mechanical energy.

A possible piezo-photocatalytic mechanism of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures is proposed and revealed in Fig. 9. First of all, the heterostructure of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/ CuO has a certain contribution to photocatalytic performance. When the catalyst is illuminated, the electrons located in the valence band (VB) are excited by light to transition to the conduction band (CB), and holes are formed in the VB at the same time. Due to the difference in the energy level positions of the CB and VB of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs, the holes in the VB of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs are transferred to the VB of CuO NPs through the interface and are accumulated. The smooth transfer of holes effectively inhibits the recombination of photo-generated electron-hole pairs. When the mechanical vibration is added, the piezoelectric effect of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs produces a large number of positive and negative charges on the opposite surface of the wire, which promotes the transfer of photogenerated electrons and holes. The piezoelectric property of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs is significantly improved by electrical



Fig. 9 (a) Proposed photocatalytic and (b) piezo-photocatalytic degradation mechanisms of BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO hybrid catalysts.

polarization, so do the piezocatalytic and piezophotocatalytic properties. By comparing the piezophotocatalytic performance before and after poling process, it is found that the piezoelectric effect plays a significant role in enhancing the piezo-photocatalytic performance.

# 4 Conclusions

In summary, a novel BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterojunction piezo-photocatalyst is proposed and successfully prepared. Compared with the pure BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and CuO NPs, the catalytic performance of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures to degrade organic pollutants is significantly improved under the synergistic effect of light and mechanical vibration. The optimal degradation reaction rate constant k is 0.05 min<sup>-1</sup>, which is about 6.1 times and 7 times higher than that only under light and only ultrasonic vibration, respectively. The enhancement of the piezo-photocatalytic activity is attributed to the bias field generated by the piezoelectric effect of BaTiO<sub>3</sub> NWs and the built-in electric field of the BaTiO<sub>3</sub>/CuO heterostructures, which effectively separates photogenerated electrons and holes. This work provides a new strategy for using the piezoelectric effect to enhance photocatalysis and shows a bright future in pollution control.

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## **Electronic Supplementary Material**

Supplementary material is available in the online version of this article at https://doi.org/10.1007/s40145-021-0544-4.

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