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*Corresponding author: Robert H. Coridan, Materials Science and Engineering Program, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR 72701, USA, and Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR 72701, USA; e-mail: rcoridan@uark.edu

Hamed Mehrabi: Materials Science and Engineering Program, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR 72701, USA

Caroline G. Eddy, Thomas I. Hollis, Jalyn Vance: Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR 72701, USA

# These authors contributed equally to this work

Dedicated to Professor Richard Dronskowski on the Occasion of his 60th Birthday
Abstract: Ultra-thin film coatings are used to protect semiconductor photoelectrodes from the harsh chemical environments common to photoelectrochemical energy conversion. These layers add contact transfer resistance to the interface that can result in a reduction of photoelectrochemical energy conversion efficiency of the photoelectrode. Here, we describe the concept of a partial protection layer, which allows for direct chemical access to a small fraction of the semiconductor underlayer for further functionalization by an electrocatalyst. The rest of the interface remains protected by a stable, inert protection layer. CuO is used as a model system for this scheme. Atomic layer deposition (ALD)-prepared TiO$_2$ layers on CuO thin films prepared from electrodeposited Cu$_2$O allow for the control of interfacial morphology to intentionally expose the CuO underlayer. The ALD-TiO$_2$ overlayer shrinks during crystallization, while Cu$_2$O in the underlayer expands during oxidation. As a result, the TiO$_2$ protection layer cracks to expose the oxidized underlying CuO layer, which can be controlled by preceding thermal oxidation. This work demonstrates a potentially promising strategy for the parallel optimization of photoelectrochemical interfaces for chemical stability and high performance.

Keywords: protection layers, atomic layer deposition, cupric oxide, titanium dioxide, electrodeposition

1 Introduction

Photoelectrochemical (PEC) energy conversion is the process by which light energy is converted into chemical energy at a semiconductor-electrolyte interface. Photoelectrodes for these applications are designed with specific reactions and electrolyte conditions in mind, such as the hydrogen evolution (HER) or oxygen
evolution (OER) reactions that combine for the full water splitting reaction. Semiconductors with appropriate band edge energies for the target reaction may not be stable under otherwise desirable electrolyte conditions (1 M HCl or 1 M KOH, for example) or corrode under photoelectrochemical bias [1]. One solution to this problem has been the development of ultra-thin film protection layers (< 200 nm). A protection layer prevents direct contact between the semiconductor and the electrolyte while maintaining relative optical and electronic transparency. Atomic layer deposition (ALD) is a particularly useful method for preparing pinhole-free protection layers with precise thickness and composition [2]. A common material for these protection layers is amorphous TiO$_2$, which has a wide bandgap (>3.2 eV) and allows a relatively simple ALD deposition from water and organometallic precursors at temperatures below 200 C. TiO$_2$ layers are stable in many electrolytes, including extremely acidic or alkaline aqueous solutions. TiO$_2$ is intrinsically n-type which allows for electron conduction. However, the amorphous nature of the low temperature ALD-prepared TiO$_2$ may generate defect states that allow for hole transport through the layer as well [3]. ALD-TiO$_2$ protection layers have been used to stabilize a number of relevant semiconductor-electrolyte interfaces as they support charge transfer to electrocatalyst coatings [4–10]. Protection layers are not a panacea for perfecting PEC materials, however. The layer itself adds an additional interface and related resistances that are detrimental to device performance. Each additional layer may present a new set of limitations for further processing or functionalization. For example, the amorphous phase of TiO$_2$ crystallizes at temperatures that may be necessary for the chemical transformation of other functional components (oxidation or reduction of electrocatalysts layers). ALD-derived,
Al-doped ZnO (Al:ZnO) is included to improve interfacial resistances in TiO$_2$ protection layers but loses conductivity at relatively low annealing temperatures [8, 11, 12]. This suggests that it would be advantageous to develop strategies for partial protection layers, where the light absorber under the protection layer is partially exposed, allowing for further direct functionalization. An electrocatalyst can be added in direct electrical contact between the electrolyte and the light absorber layer through partially exposed regions. The rest of the material is protected by an inert overlayer rather than depending on carrier conductivity properties of the protection layer.

Here, we explore the partial protection of a CuO thin film as a model system for partial protection layer strategies. CuO is of interest as a hydrogen-evolving photocathode for solar-driven water splitting because it is composed of earth-abundant materials and has a relatively small band gap compared to other metal oxides (1.3 eV) [13]. It can be prepared by air annealing electrodeposited Cu$_2$O thin films. CuO is unstable under most electrolyte conditions relevant to PEC water splitting and needs an additional co-electrocatalyst (Pt, for example) to produce hydrogen under illumination. A conformal layer of Pt could protect the CuO layer from dissolution but will generate parasitic absorption and potentially disrupt the photovoltage-generating semiconductor-liquid junction [14]. As has been shown to be the case for Cu$_2$O, an ALD-derived full protection layer requires both Al:ZnO and TiO$_2$, which allows for high short-circuit photocurrents but results in a loss of a significant fraction of the possible open-circuit photovoltage compared to a plain, unprotected photocathode [11]. A CuO-based photocathode can potentially benefit from partial protection that appropriately balances direct light-absorber/electrocatalyst contact and the chemical stability of the interface.
More fundamentally, the combination of materials offers insight into the formation of three-dimensional composites from a one-dimensional, intentionally layered heterostructure. When annealed in air, Cu$_2$O transforms into CuO (a 5.9% volume increase per Cu atom based on the densities of each compound) while amorphous, ALD-derived TiO$_2$ (denoted ALD-TiO$_2$) contracts by roughly 7% upon annealing [15]. This raises the question of how the morphology of the layered Cu$_2$O/ALD-TiO$_2$ heterostructure transforms under these opposing mechanical strains and whether that may result in a useful strategy for the partial protection of CuO. Herein, we describe the resulting morphological transformation of air-annealed heterostructures of electrodeposited Cu$_2$O coated by ALD-TiO$_2$. We find that air-annealing results in the individual transformation of each layer (Cu$_2$O to CuO and amorphous TiO$_2$ to anatase) rather than the formation of a ternary compound such as CuTiO$_3$. The contraction of the TiO$_2$ layer displays a morphological transformation similar to desiccation crack formation in drying mud [16, 17]. The CuO expands through these cracks, becoming partially exposed to the electrolyte interface. These results suggest that the exploitation of dissimilar mechanical behaviors under annealing conditions is a strategy for the partial protection in this combination of materials.

2 Materials and methods

Water (HPLC grade, VWR), acetone (99.5%, EMD Millipore Corp), methanol (HPLC grade, Merck) and isopropanol (HPLC grade, Merck) were used as received. Copper sulfate pentahydrate (>98.0%, Sigma-Aldrich), lactic acid (reagent grade, >85%, Sigma-Aldrich) and NaOH (50% (w/w), VWR) were used as received. Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO)-coated substrates (TEC-15 glass, 12–14 Ω sq, MTI Corp.) were cut to roughly 1
cm x 2 cm pieces, rinsed sequentially in acetone, methanol, isopropanol, and water, then dried under nitrogen before electrodeposition.

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were performed using a Rigaku Mini-Flex II Diffractometer with CuKα radiation (λ = 1.54 Å). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed with a FEI Nova Nanolab SEM equipped with a Bruker Quantax Energy-dispersive X-ray Spectrometer (EDX). X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed with a Phi Versaprobe XPS instrument using a monochromated AlKα source (E = 1486.6 eV). The X-ray spot size was 100 μm x 100 μm for each XPS measurement. All absolute energies for XPS measurements were calibrated to the adventitious carbon feature at 284.8 eV from C 1s spectra measured for each sample [18].

2.1 Electrodeposition of Cu₂O

Cuprous oxide was electrodeposited on FTO electrodes by methods described in detail elsewhere [19, 20]. The electrodeposition bath was initially prepared as a 40. mM solution of CuSO₄•5H₂O in 3 M aqueous lactic acid. NaOH was slowly titrated into the solution to increase the pH to 10.0. Cu₂O films were prepared by potentiostatic electrodeposition (Bio-Logic SP-50) in a three-neck flask submerged in a water bath to maintain the electrodeposition bath temperature at 45 °C. The FTO glass working electrode was held at –0.4 V vs. an Ag/AgCl reference electrode (saturated KCl; BASi, Inc.) with a Cu wire counter electrode. The thickness of the Cu₂O layer was controlled by the duration of the electrodeposition, which was 15 minutes unless otherwise noted. CuO was prepared by annealing electrodeposited Cu₂O in air in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for the noted time (3 K min⁻¹ ramp rate).
2.2 Atomic layer deposition of TiO$_2$

Thin films of ALD-TiO$_2$ were deposited onto electrodeposited Cu$_2$O and CuO thin films by atomic layer deposition in a commercial ALD reactor (Gemstar XT-6; Arradiance). The reaction chamber was heated to 150 °C under a constant 20 sccm flow of ultra-high purity N$_2$ (99.999%; AirGas). The ALD-TiO$_2$ was deposited from the sequential exposure of the substrates to vapors of tetrakis(dimethylamido)titanium (TDMAT; 98%, Strem) and water. The TDMAT precursor bottle was heated to 78 °C to provide sufficient vapor pressure for the deposition. The ALD deposition was performed by repeating the following sequence for the desired number of exposures: 100 ms TDMAT pulse, 25 s reactor purge, 15 ms water pulse, 25 s reactor purge. Electrodes were rinsed with water before being inserted into the reactor chamber. All post-ALD deposition annealing steps were performed by heating the samples in air in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for 1 hour (3 K min$^{-1}$ ramp rate).

3 Results and Discussion

Air oxidation of ALD-TiO$_2$ layers is not expected to form a stable ternary compound with CuO as other metal oxides do (CuFeO$_2$, CuWO$_4$, CuBi$_2$O$_4$, and others) [21–27]. CuO and TiO$_2$ have a eutectic point at temperatures greater than 900 °C, which can then be quenched to form metastable Cu-Ti-O compounds [28, 29]. We were not able to find similar characterization for the composite product(s) formed from the thermal oxidation of Cu$_2$O and TiO$_2$. Figure 1 shows the results of powder diffraction measurements of Cu$_2$O electrodes coated with 1500 cycles (60 nm) of ALD TiO$_2$ before and after annealing in air for 1 h at 500 °C. No crystalline phases of TiO$_2$ were observed, and Cu$_2$O (ICDD PDF 01-071-4310) was the only form of copper oxide present before
annealing. This was consistent with the expectation of a layered Cu$_2$O-amorphous ALD-TiO$_2$ heterostructure. After annealing, the Cu$_2$O was oxidized completely to CuO (ICDD PDF 00-044-0706), and the ALD-TiO$_2$ crystallized to anatase TiO$_2$ (ICDD PDF 00-001-5062), as indicated by the appearance of intensity at 25.2º, which corresponds to the (101) anatase Bragg reflection. No peaks indicating the formation of ternary compounds were observed, nor was the Cu$_2$O protected from oxidation at this relatively modest temperature. For comparison, a CuO electrode was coated with 1500 cycles of ALD-TiO$_2$ and annealed in air. Prior to the annealing, CuO was the only crystalline phase observed other than the substrate. After the annealing step, anatase TiO$_2$ was visible in the diffractogram.

We used XPS to track the interfacial migration of the layers due to the annealing process (Figure 2). The XPS Ti 2p intensity was consistent across the surface and on multiple samples before annealing, but after the annealing step, the feature varied in intensity across the surface of the same electrode. We also observed CuO at the surface. Based on the powder diffraction results (Figure 1), the surface was a CuO-TiO$_2$ composite. SEM imaging before (Figure 3a,b) and after (Figure 3c,d) the annealing step showed that the CuO emerges from cracks in the anatase TiO$_2$ layer. The CuO emerges through the separation between crystalline TiO$_2$ domains, which forms when the layer shrinks. The morphology of the extruded layer of CuO is generated by the noted volume increase in the layer as the precursor Cu$_2$O is oxidized. While the ALD-TiO$_2$ layer remained at the interface as a partial protection layer, the morphology of the extruded CuO caused significant exposure of the underlayer to the interface. Driving CuO to the surface through the extreme volume change that occurs for the oxidation of
Cu₂O is not likely an effective strategy for synthesizing a partial protection layer for the CuO light absorber. A thinner ALD-TiO₂ layer showed a more dramatic exchange of CuO for TiO₂ at the interface (Figure 4). When the Cu₂O was coated with a relatively thin ALD-TiO₂ layer (300 cycles, or 12 nm), only the XPS signal of Ti (IV) was observed [30]. This indicated that the overlayer was thick enough to prevent the detection of the underlying Cu₂O via XPS. After annealing, we observed an interface devoid of any TiO₂ and entirely composed of CuO. The TiO₂ was no longer observed in the XPS measurements. EDX spectra of the heterostructure showed that the quantity of Cu and Ti in the film was effectively identical before and after the annealing step (Figure 5). This is consistent with the migration of CuO to the surface, driven by expansion during oxidation. These results suggest that the TiO₂ layer becomes enshrouded by the expanding CuO forming underneath. The TiO₂ is hidden from the surface and no longer serves as a protection layer.

Annealing the Cu₂O to form CuO prior to the ALD-TiO₂ deposition resulted in more conservative control over the morphological transformation of the interface. The powder diffractograms of a CuO film (prepared by annealing Cu₂O for 3 h) coated with 1500 cycles of ALD-TiO₂ before and after air annealing are shown in Figure 1. The CuO remained unchanged while the ALD-TiO₂ crystallized to anatase during the annealing. On some portions of the heterostructure, the desiccation-like cracks had formed in the TiO₂ overlayer after annealing with minor extrusion of the CuO from underneath (Figure 6a). In some regions of the heterostructure, cracks did not form (Figure 6b). Point EDX spectra (Figure 6c) showed a more intense Cu signal and reduction in the Sn signal on
the ‘ridge’ versus the planar ‘plateau’ in the region from Figure 6a. The amount of TiO$_2$ was the same in both spectra. This indicates that the CuO was thicker in this region and had physically extruded through the TiO$_2$ overlayer. The CuO in the underlayer does not expand due to oxidation as the Cu$_2$O films do. We hypothesize that cracks form where some remaining interfacial Cu$_2$O is present to drive the crack formation rather than solely relying on the contraction of the TiO$_2$ overlayer.

To test this hypothesis, we reduced the duration of the Cu$_2$O-to-CuO annealing step to 1 h to increase the amount of residual Cu$_2$O. We observed that the TiO$_2$ layer uniformly generated the desiccation-like cracking throughout the entire film (Figure 7a). Additionally, we observed the growth of blooms of material extruding through the surface layer (Figure 7b,c). The EDX spectrum (Figure 8) of the material in the bloom region (green cross in Fig 7b) shows roughly four times the Cu compared to the EDX in the plateau (magenta cross in Fig. 7b). The Sn signal is negligible in the bloom region spectrum, which indicates that the blooms are a significant Cu-containing growth that is so thick that it obscures the FTO substrate. These bloom points are another accessible functionalization target for directly addressing the CuO layer underneath the TiO$_2$ layer. The magnitude of desiccation-like cracking was significantly reduced for CuO layers that were annealed for longer times. Figure 8 shows the interface for a heterostructure where the CuO underlayer was prepared by annealing Cu$_2$O in air for 24 h prior to the deposition of 1500 cycles of ALD-TiO$_2$. The complete heterostructure was then annealed for 1 h, consistent with the other samples reported here. Some slight desiccation-like cracking was observed, though the characteristic size of the plateau regions (> 4–5 μm diameter) was increased compared to CuO formed from 1 h (Figure
7) and 3 h (Figure 6) oxidation steps (< 2 μm diameter). The crack formation was relatively uniform across the entire interface, and no blooming was observed on the surface of the material. This suggests that the mechanical forces driving the cracking and extrusion process had been diminished by increasing the oxidation time for the CuO base layer and a reduction in the amount of residual Cu₂O. This is consistent with our hypothesis that the expansion of residual Cu₂O in the base layer affects the formation of cracks and the degree of exposure through the ALD-TiO₂ protection layer. Here, we have shown that the morphology and composition of the interface of a CuO-TiO₂ heterostructure can be controlled by the thermal annealing process both during the CuO formation from Cu₂O and in post-ALD processing. The rationale for controlling this structure is to provide partial access to the base CuO layer while maintaining significant surface coverage from the ALD-TiO₂ overlayer. The exposure of the underlying CuO provides a route for further functionalization while maintaining a significant fraction of TiO₂-protected surface area. For example, the TiO₂ protection layer can act as a blocking layer for electrodeposition or electroless deposition of Pt or other electrocatalyst materials. The added electrocatalyst can potentially make direct contact to the functional CuO light absorber while being limited to minimize coverage. This partial protection scheme balances the formation of direct semiconductor-electrocatalyst interfaces with protection that avoids the parasitic absorption and deleterious effects to the photovoltage-generating barrier height of the semiconductor-electrolyte contact [14]. The specific approach to the CuO-TiO₂ composite takes advantage of their inability to form a single, ternary compound under the relatively low temperatures studied here. More general approaches to partial protection schemes will require the identification of
other routes to develop structural exposure such as area-selective ALD processing [31–33].

4 Conclusion

In summary, we have studied the structural transformations of layered copper oxide/ALD-TiO$_2$ heterostructures under oxidative annealing. The interfacial structure and morphology of the post-annealed structure can be controlled by the choice of solid-state precursors prior to annealing. The ALD-TiO$_2$ overlayer forms cracks due to the oxidative contraction from an amorphous oxide to the anatase phase. An initial Cu$_2$O layer is oxidized to CuO, which causes the underlayer to expand and extrude to the surface through the cracks in thick anatase TiO$_2$. For thin overlayers, the extrusion of CuO results in an enveloped TiO$_2$ layer, hiding it from the interface. Thermal control over structure and morphology of the interface can potentially be useful for photoelectrochemical applications. Of note, we posed the strategy of a partial protection layer, where annealing yields a small exposure of the light-absorber underlayer to further functionalization.

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**Fig. 1:** X-ray diffraction measurements of layered copper oxide/ALD-TiO$_2$ heterostructures before (red) and after (blue) annealing in air at 500 °C for 1 hr (3.0 K min$^{-1}$ ramp). The Cu$_2$O samples were coated with 1500 cycles of ALD-TiO$_2$ before the annealing step, while the CuO samples were annealed to oxidize the precursor electrodeposited Cu$_2$O film before the ALD-TiO$_2$ layer was added. The FTO/glass substrate diffraction measurement (black) is included for comparison.
Fig. 2: Ti 2p and Cu 2p XPS spectra of a Cu$_2$O/ALD-TiO$_2$ layered heterostructure before (red) and after (blue) annealing in air. The ALD-TiO$_2$ layer was prepared by 1500 cycles of ALD (approximately 60 nm). The reduction of intensity in the Ti 2p XPS feature (characteristic of TiO$_2$) and the appearance of the Cu 2p feature (characteristic of CuO) after annealing indicates that CuO migrates to the surface of the heterostructure upon annealing.

Fig. 3: (a) Surface morphology and (b) cross-sectional SEM of the Cu$_2$O/ALD-TiO$_2$ layered heterostructure from (Figure 2) before annealing. The 1500 cycle ALD-TiO$_2$ layer was roughly 60 nm and the Cu$_2$O layer was roughly 280 nm. (c) Surface morphology and (d) high-magnification SEM of the same heterostructure after annealing in air. The CuO extrudes through cracks in the ALD film.
Fig. 4: Ti 2p and Cu 2p XPS spectra of a Cu$_2$O/ALD-TiO$_2$ layered heterostructure before (red) and after (blue) annealing in air. The ALD-TiO$_2$ layer was prepared by 300 cycles of ALD. Prior to annealing in air, the surface was entirely composed of the ALD-TiO$_2$ layer. After annealing, only the CuO XPS feature observed. The disappearance of the TiO$_2$ signal from the Ti 2p XPS measurement indicates that the CuO completely encapsulated the initial ALD-TiO$_2$ overlayer.
Fig. 5: EDX spectra of the Cu$_2$O/ALD-TiO$_2$ heterostructure formed with 300 cycles of ALD before (red) and after (blue) annealing. While XPS measurements showed that the CuO formed during annealing encapsulated the TiO$_2$ that resided on the top of the heterostructure before annealing. The EDX spectra showed that, while the interface had transformed, the Ti and Cu were still in the heterostructure in the same proportion. Variance in the two measurements was due to heterogeneity between film thicknesses on different locations on the sample.
Fig. 6: (a) A portion of the CuO/ALD-TiO$_2$ (1500 cycles) where CuO (prepared by air oxidation of Cu$_2$O for 3 h at 500 ºC) partially extruded through cracks in the TiO$_2$ overlayer. (b) Other portions of the CuO/ALD-TiO$_2$ (1500 cycles) did not show extruded CuO while the TiO$_2$ crystallized, suggesting that the underlayer extrusion is partially driven by the expansion of the underlayer. (c) Point EDX spectra of the ridge (magenta) and plateau (green) regions denoted in (a). The Cu signal increased and the Sn signal decreased, while the Ti signal remained unchanged. This suggests that the ridge is thicker and contains more Cu than the TiO$_2$ protected region.
Fig. 7: (a) SEM images of desiccation crack formation on a CuO/ALD-TiO\textsubscript{2} (1500 cycles) film annealed for 1 h. The CuO was prepared by annealing Cu\textsubscript{2}O annealed in air for 1 h before TiO\textsubscript{2} deposition. This degree of cracking was observed over the entire interface. (b) Extruded material 'blooms' (magenta cross) were observed on the 1 h CuO film that were not observed on the 3 h CuO film in Figure 6. EDX spectra for the 'bloom' and the plateau region (green cross) are shown in Figure 7. (c) The large scale 'blooms' were observed across the entire film.
Fig. 8: EDX spectra of the material ‘bloom’ and ‘plateau’ regions from Figure 7b. The increased Cu EDX signal and the negligible Sn EDX signal in the ‘bloom’ spectrum (magenta) compared to the ‘plateau’ spectrum (green) indicates that the extruded material is Cu-rich and sufficiently thick to obscure the FTO substrate.
Fig. 9: (a) High-magnification and (b) low-magnification SEM images of the reduced desiccation cracking on CuO thin films prepared by annealing Cu$_2$O in air for 24 h before the deposition of 1500 cycles of ALD-TiO$_2$ and 1 h of annealing. Minimal extrusion of the CuO underlayer was observed compared to the 1 h (Figure 7) and 3 h (Figure 6).