



Carbon nitride nanotubes with in situ grafted hydroxyl groups for highly efficient spontaneous H₂O₂ production

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ABSTRACT

An active and inexpensive photocatalyst for H₂O₂ production is desirable for industrial applications. However, obtaining high photocatalytic activity from metal-free catalysts without the use of sacrificial electron donors is difficult. Herein, g-C₃N₄ (CN) nanotubes functionalized with surface > OH groups that are grafted in situ were successfully synthesized via a novel alkalization process. The nanotube structures provide a large surface area and improved mass transfer properties. In situ grafted > OH groups can capture photogenerated holes to promote separation of photogenerated charge, enabling the ready availability of electrons and hydrogen ions for H₂O₂ production. Further, the surface > OH groups help to suppress H₂O₂ self-decomposition. Consequently, a high rate of 240.36 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹ of H₂O₂ production can be achieved without sacrificial agents, which is the highest H₂O₂ production in a spontaneous system for metal-free photocatalysts. This work provides a new strategy for an efficient and spontaneous H₂O₂ production method using a metal-free CN photocatalyst.

1. Introduction

Hydrogen Peroxide (H₂O₂) is widely used in biological processes, environmental remediation, and more broadly in the chemical industry [1,2]. However, reagent and commercial grade H₂O₂ is mainly produced via the anthraquinone method, alcohol oxidation, or electrochemical synthesis [3–6]. Unfortunately, these synthetic methods require a significant amount of energy. Furthermore, the resulting organic by-products are generally harmful to the environment [7,8]. Therefore,

developing an economical, efficient, and environmentally friendly method for H₂O₂ production is desirable.

Semiconductor photocatalytic reduction of O₂ in H₂O to produce H₂O₂ provides an alternative and viable approach [9–13]. For example, Teranishi et al. utilized a hybrid photocatalyst, Au/TiO₂, for H₂O₂ production [14], while Kim et al. used a graphene oxide/CdS hybrid composite to produce H₂O₂ by harnessing low-energy photons (635 nm) [15]. Shiraishi et al. found that mesoporous g-C₃N₄ (CN) with surface defects was a better photocatalyst than bulk phase CN for steady-state

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H₂O₂ production [16]. Sacrificial reagents are often employed during semiconductor photocatalytic H₂O₂ production in order to reduce either its subsequent oxidation or reduction leading to a steady-state limiting production rate. Ethanol (EtOH) is often used as a sacrificial agent; photogenerated holes oxidize EtOH and produce hydrogen ions and ethyl aldehyde as written in Eq. (1) allowing for the reduction of oxygen to H₂O₂ in Eq. (2) [17]. However, the continuous addition of a costly sacrificial agent does not provide a sustainable solution.



Kofuji et al. reported on a carbon nitride-aromatic diimide-graphene nanohybrid for the photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ from water and O₂ without a sacrificial reagent under visible light illumination [18]. Hirakawa et al. reported on the use of gold nanoparticles supported on BiVO₄ to achieve a two-electron reduction of O₂ resulting in improved H₂O₂ production rates [19]. Moon et al. employed a multi-component hybrid, CoPi-rGO/TiO₂, to produce H₂O₂ in the absence of added organic electron donors [20]. Improved photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ on semiconductor composites has been achieved by adjusting the bandgaps or by improving the light harvesting of the hybrid catalysts.

A major obstacle for the large-scale photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ with or without sacrificial reagents is the reduction of H₂O₂ by conduction-band electrons or the oxidation of H₂O₂ to hydroperoxyl radical and oxygen as shown in Eqs. (3)–(6) [15,21]. The photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ eventually reaches a steady-state maximum level due to the competition between reductive formation and subsequent oxidative loss pathways [21–24]. However, to the best of our knowledge, few studies have been focused on enhancing H₂O₂ production by suppressing the various decomposition reactions.



Herein, we show synthesis via a novel preparation method and subsequent applications of alkalized carbon nitride nanotubes (ACNT) as a catalytic platform. ACNTs have a stable structure with surface > OH groups grafted onto the nanotubes. The surface hydroxyl groups play an important role in enhancing H₂O₂ production. After hydroxylation, the photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ was enhanced by a factor of 13 using ACNTs compared to pristine CNs. In this report, we propose mechanism for increased H₂O₂ and a function of alkalization and morphological modifications and for the inhibition of the self-decomposition of H₂O₂.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of g-C₃N₄

A porcelain crucible was loaded with melamine (10 g) and calcined at 550 °C for 4 h in air at a heating rate of 2.5 °C/min. The yellow sample was ground to a homogeneous power. The products were denoted as CN.

2.2. Preparation of g-C₃N₄ nanotubes

In a typical synthesis procedure, 1.0 g of melamine was added to 70 mL of distilled water and stirred at 80 °C. The solution was sealed in a poly(tetrafluoroethylene) (Teflon)-lined autoclave (100 mL) and heated at 200 °C for 10 h until it became clear and transparent. After completion of the solvothermal process, the formed solids were washed several times with EtOH to obtain melamine nanorods. A porcelain crucible was

loaded with the nanorods and calcined at 550 °C for 4 h in air at a heating rate of 2.5 °C/min. The samples were washed, dried, and labeled as CNT.

2.3. Preparation of alkalized carbon nitride nanotubes

Alkalization and the solvothermal process were carried out simultaneously. Then, 1.0 g of melamine, 1.0, 5.0, or 10.0 g of KCl, and 0.2 g NH₄Cl were added to 70 mL of distilled water and stirred at 80 °C. The next steps performed were identical to those described to produce CNT. Samples with 1.0, 5.0, and 10.0 g KCl were labeled ACNT-1, ACNT-5, and ACNT-10, respectively.

2.4. Photocatalytic tests

Photocatalytic H₂O₂ production experiments were conducted with H₂O, EtOH, O₂, and simulated sunlight irradiation at ambient temperature (25 °C). Exactly 0.05 g of catalyst was suspended in 50 mL of distilled water in a quartz tube (For the control photocatalytic experiment in Fig. 8, 50 mL of distilled water was replaced by the mixture of 40 mL H₂O and 10 mL EtOH for photocatalytic H₂O₂ production, in which EtOH worked as a sacrificial agent). O₂ was then bubbled into this system for 20 min to obtain an O₂-equilibrated environment. Adsorption equilibrium was achieved following 30 min of stirring in the dark. Thereafter, the system was irradiated by simulated sunlight (AM1.5 filter) for 30 min. One milliliter of suspension was taken from reaction mixture and mixed with 2 mL of 0.1 M KI solution and 0.05 mL of 0.01 M ammonium molybdate solution for 5 min. Absorbance was detected by UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy. The concentration of H₂O₂ was calculated by using Eq. (7) [24], in which A stands for the absorbance value in 350 nm.

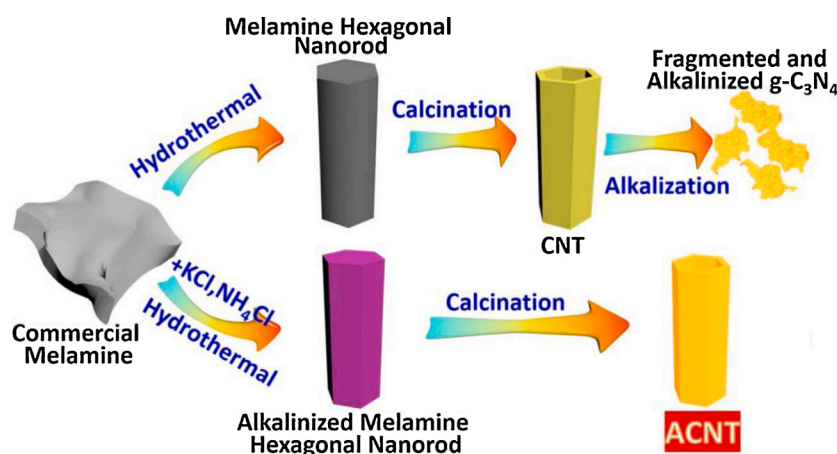
$$[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2] (\mu\text{M}) = (A - 0.00141)/0.05, 0 < A < 1 \quad (7)$$

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthetic mechanism and surface morphology

A post-alkalinization method was initially tried in order to prepare ACNTs, as shown in the upper part of Scheme 1. As part of path, bulk commercial melamine (Fig. 1A) was partially hydrolyzed by cyanuric acid during hydrothermal treatment with pure water. Nanorods were formed through the self-assembly of melamine with cyanuric acid (Fig. 1B) [25,26]. The CNTs were obtained after calcination in air (Fig. 1C). Conventional alkalization was carried out [27,28]. These CNTs were dispersed in NaOH or KOH solution and then steamed slowly under continuous stirring in an oil bath at 120 °C. At this point, however, the nanotube structure of the CNTs was completely destroyed, and only fragmented and alkalized CN was observed by TEM (Figs. 1D and S1). In another experiment, we synthesized the CNTs and then applied a mild mixed solution of KCl and NH₄Cl in the same post-treatment procedure; a partially destroyed nanotube structure (Fig. 1E) and inadequate degree of alkalization were the result. We were able to optimize the experimental procedure by alkalizing the precursor prior to nanotube formation as shown in the lower part of Scheme 1. First, the alkalized melamine nanorods (Fig. 1F) were hydrothermally synthesized with KCl and NH₄Cl to produce CNTs. The nanotube structure was successfully maintained after thermal condensation polymerization (i.e. ACNT-1, ACNT-5 and ACNT-10).

Fig. 2A and B show the nanotube structure of the ACNTs. The length of tubes can exceed 20 microns with corresponding diameters between 1 and 3 μm. The hollow interior structures of the product ACNTs are confirmed in Fig. 2C. The TEM image of ACNT-5 provides a clear view of the nanotube wall and edge; the thin walls are displayed in Fig. 2D. The electron micrographs show that the transparent nanotubes with large internal volumes, which are beneficial for enhancing mass transfer in



Scheme 1. Schematic of ACNT fabrication.

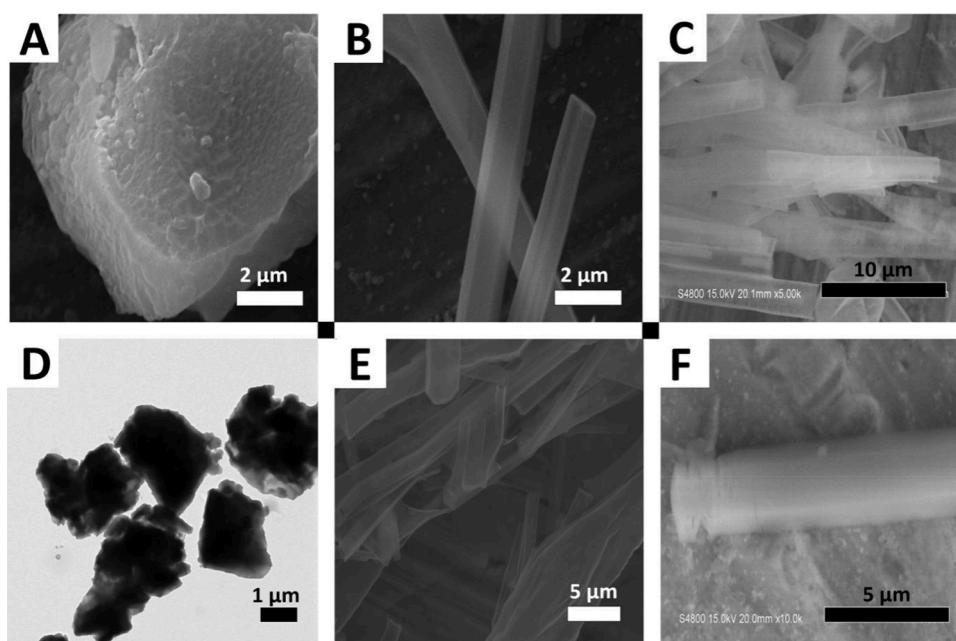


Fig. 1. (A) SEM image of commercial melamine. (B) SEM image of melamine nanorods. (C) FESEM image of CNTs. (D) TEM image of fragmented and alkalinized CN treated with KOH. (E) SEM image of alkalinized CN treated with NH_4Cl and KCl . (F) FESEM image of alkalinized melamine nanorods.

liquid-phase reactions. The morphologies of CN, ACNT-1, and ACNT-10 (Fig. S2) were explored for comparison with that of ACNT-5 (Fig. 2). CN has a layered structure with an inhomogeneous surface. Despite showing different degrees of alkalinity, ACNT-1 and ACNT-10 reveal uniform and complete nanotube structures. Therefore, the proposed experimental procedure effectively prevents the destruction of nanorod structure. The BET surface area (Fig. S3) of ACNT-5 was determined to be $63.53 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, which is larger than that of the CNs ($8.13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$). Thus, the nanotube structure provides a sufficiently large surface area for access to reactive surface sites and to provide for improved mass transfer [29].

3.2. Physical and chemical properties

Several technologies were employed to understand the chemical structure of the catalysts. The XRD patterns in Fig. S4 reveal that all the samples have a distinct diffraction peak at approximately $27\text{--}28^\circ$, which correspond to the (002) planes of CN [30–32]. The crystal phase observed during alkalization is identical to that of pristine CN. A shift toward larger angles and a significant decrease in intensity can be

observed in samples with a nanotube structure. This result indicates a decrease in the layer distances of the (002) planes that are caused by the modifications due to alkalization [33,34].

FTIR spectra of the samples (Fig. 3A) show the bands of triazine units and aromatic CN heterocycles at 808 and $1200\text{--}1680 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, respectively. In comparison to the CN spectra, two additional peaks are found in the ACNT-5 spectra. The two bands located at 999 and 2140 cm^{-1} are attributed to $>\text{OH}$ groups on the surface of CN. The use of K^+ (i.e., KOH) during alkalization is most likely responsible for hydroxylation of the CN surface. The band at 2177 cm^{-1} in the ACNT-5 FTIR spectrum is ascribed to a carbon nitrogen moiety such as $\text{—C}\equiv\text{N}$ [35–38]. The same phenomena are also observed in the spectra of ACNT-1, ACNT-10, and alkalinized CN, which were treated with KOH (Fig. S5).

High-resolution N-1 s, O-1 s, and K-2p XPS spectra are shown in Fig. 3B–D. The deconvoluted N-1 s spectrum of CN shows the presence of three different N chemical bonds at 398.67 , 399.78 , and 401.01 eV . They can be attributed to s-triazine rings (C–N–C), N–C₃ and amino groups (C–N–H). The peak attributed to C–N–H groups shifts toward a lower binding energy (400.71 eV) in ACNT-5 in comparison with those

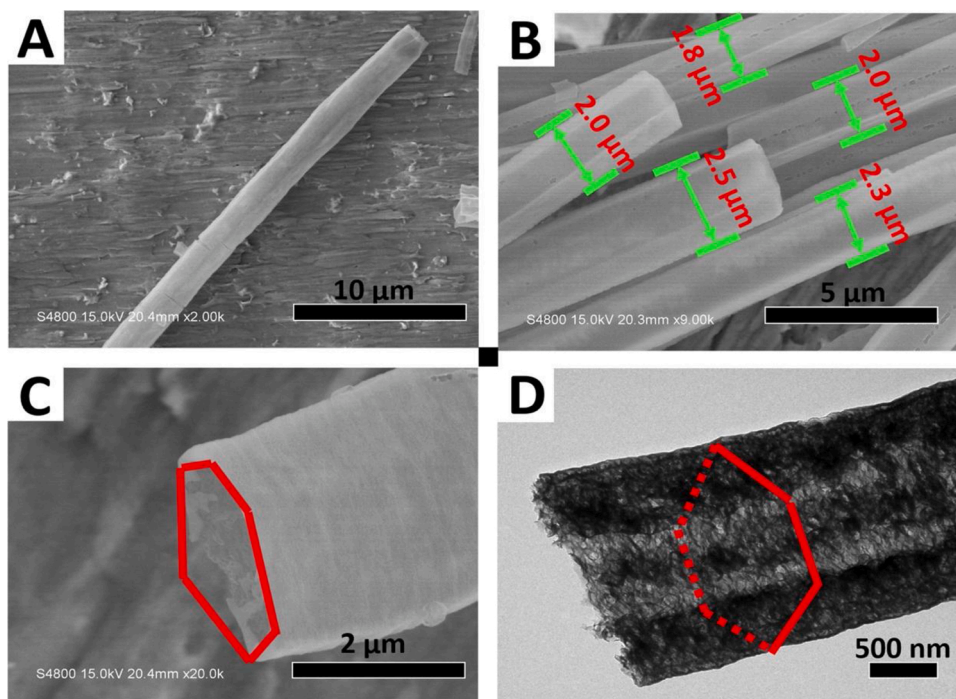


Fig. 2. (A–C) FESEM and (D) TEM images of ACNT-5.

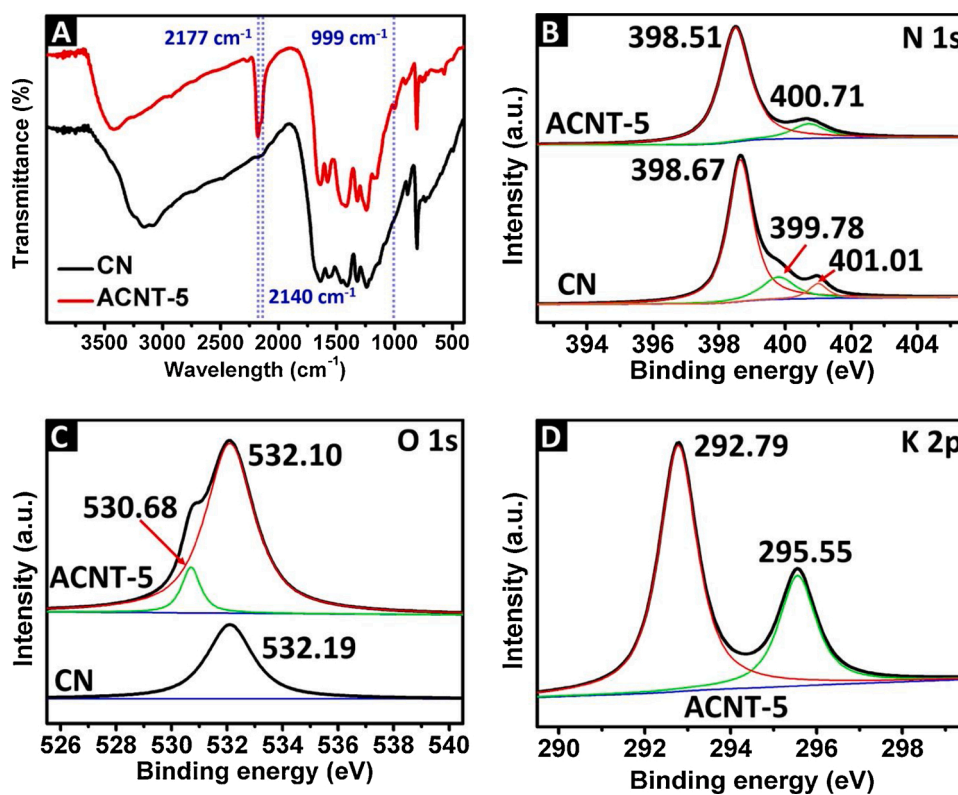


Fig. 3. (A) FTIR spectra of CN and ACNT-5, (B) N 1s, (C) O 1s, and (D) K 2p XPS spectra of CN and ACNT-5.

in other samples. This change can be explained by reductions in C–N–H and increases in C–O–H after alkalization; moreover, N is more electronegative than C. Breakage of the bond between C and N may also partly explain this phenomenon. For example, introduction of K^+ could disrupt π -electron delocalization in the conjugated system and cause the N–C₃ bond to move toward a higher binding energy. A single

peak at 532.19 eV is observed. This peak corresponds to bound water in the O 1s XPS spectrum of CN, while an additional peak at 530.68 eV is detected in the spectrum of ACNT-5; this new peak is attributed to O–H bonds. These observations are consistent with the FTIR and confirm that OH groups are successfully grafted onto CN. All of the bonds in the C 1s and N 1s spectra of ACNT shift toward lower binding energies compared

with those of CN, which indicates a strong interaction between K and N [35]. The peak observed at 292.79 eV suggests that K^+ is inserted into the inner planes of CN by mutual attraction to form the N–K bond in KN_3 [27,39]. The peak at 295.55 eV corresponds to the C–K bond. These bonds affect the surface electronic states of CN due to the electron withdrawing effect of K^+ . It mainly reflects the increase in surface oxygen species and hydroxyl oxygen in the OH bands, which could be confirmed by the O 1s spectra [40]. This finding implies that introduction of K breaks the bond between C and N, which could be ascribed to the reaction between positively charged K^+ and the bonding electrons of C and N. OH groups dissociated from H_2O at high temperature form bonds with unsaturated C, and some new units (e.g., $C\equiv N$, $(N)_2C-OH$) are generated.

The different dispersibilities of the catalysts were studied. As shown in Fig. S6, ACNT-5 has considerably better dispersibility than CN under different treatments. The contact angles of the catalysts were determined, and all ACNT catalysts reveal contact angles smaller than that of CN (Fig. 4). This improvement in hydrophilicity further demonstrates the successful grafting of OH groups on the CN surface [41].

3.3. Photocatalytic H_2O_2 production in a spontaneous system

The photocatalytic activities of the ACNTs were evaluated by measuring the photocatalytic production of H_2O_2 under simulated sunlight in a spontaneous system as shown in Fig. 5A. Comparison of the CN and CNT results shows that production of H_2O_2 by the latter is approximately 2.3 times that by the former. Therefore, the nanotube structure most likely improves the photocatalytic activity by providing additional polar surface reaction sites and by improved mass transfer to the reaction sites. In addition to the nanotube structure, CN alkalization further increases H_2O_2 production. For example, the alkalized catalysts show production rates higher than those of CN and CNT. Indeed, $120.18 \mu M H_2O_2$ is produced by ACNT-5 within 30 min; this quantity is higher than that reported by recent studies on spontaneous systems (Table S1). Moreover, the prolonged photoirradiation was used to evaluate the stability of photo-generated H_2O_2 (Fig. S7). Under

irradiation for 3 h, the H_2O_2 production over CN and CNT was already about to the peak and even showed a slight decrease. But its showed the sustained growth over ACNT, which indicated that the photo-generated H_2O_2 could be stable for a long time.

Photocatalytic production rate constants were calculated by using the integrated solution for a first-order kinetic reaction, $\ln(C_0/C) = kt$, (Fig. 5B) to compare the performance of the different catalysts. The H_2O_2 production rate constant for ACNT-5 was approximately 13 times higher than that of CN. The stability of ACNT-5 was tested over six experimental cycles (Fig. 5C). H_2O_2 production is maintained at 90 % after six cycles. The nanotube structure of ACNT-5 is maintained after six runs (Fig. 5D).

3.4. Photoelectric property

Several photoelectric properties of the catalysts were characterized to investigate the mechanism controlling the observed enhancements in photocatalytic activity (Fig. 6A and 6B). The dramatic reduction in PL emission intensity in sample ACNT-5, as compared to that of CN, suggests the effective separation of the photogenerated electron–hole pairs [42–44]. Small arcs in the Nyquist plots of ACNT-5 obtained via EIS reflect fast electron transfer and efficient charge separation [45,46]. The same findings can be obtained from the ns-level time-resolved fluorescence decay spectra shown in Fig. 6C and D. Changes in the tendency of decay time can be clearly observed in the fitted decay spectra. ACNT-5 exhibits a drastic decrease in fluorescence lifetime in comparison with that of CN. The reduction multipliers for ACNT-1, ACNT-5, and ACNT-10 are 5.3 times, 7.2 times, and 7.1 times, respectively (Fig. S8). These decreased lifetimes suggest the increased efficiency of charge separation and subsequent transfer of electrons and holes. Photogenerated carriers are then captured by reactive substrates at the surface leading to the observed reaction products [47,48]. The ability of the photocatalysts to absorb light and their band gaps were detected by UV-DRS (Fig. S9A). The ability of the photocatalysts to absorb light is improved in the ultraviolet region, which implies enhancements in photocatalytic activity [49,50]. The change in band structure may be an important factor for

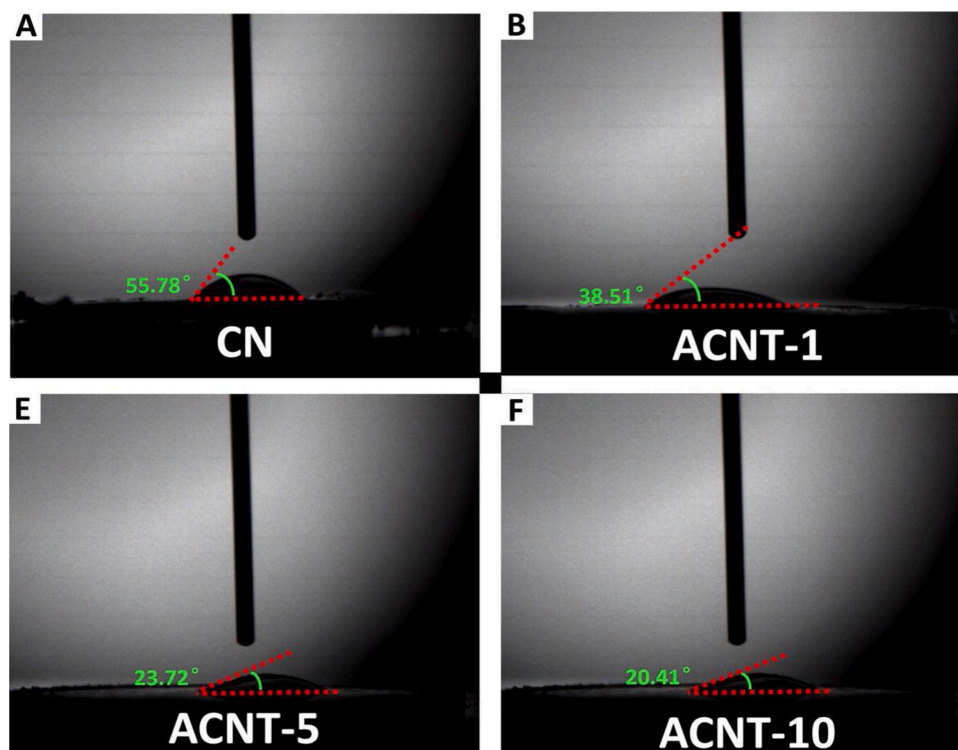


Fig. 4. (A–D) Contact angles of different catalysts.

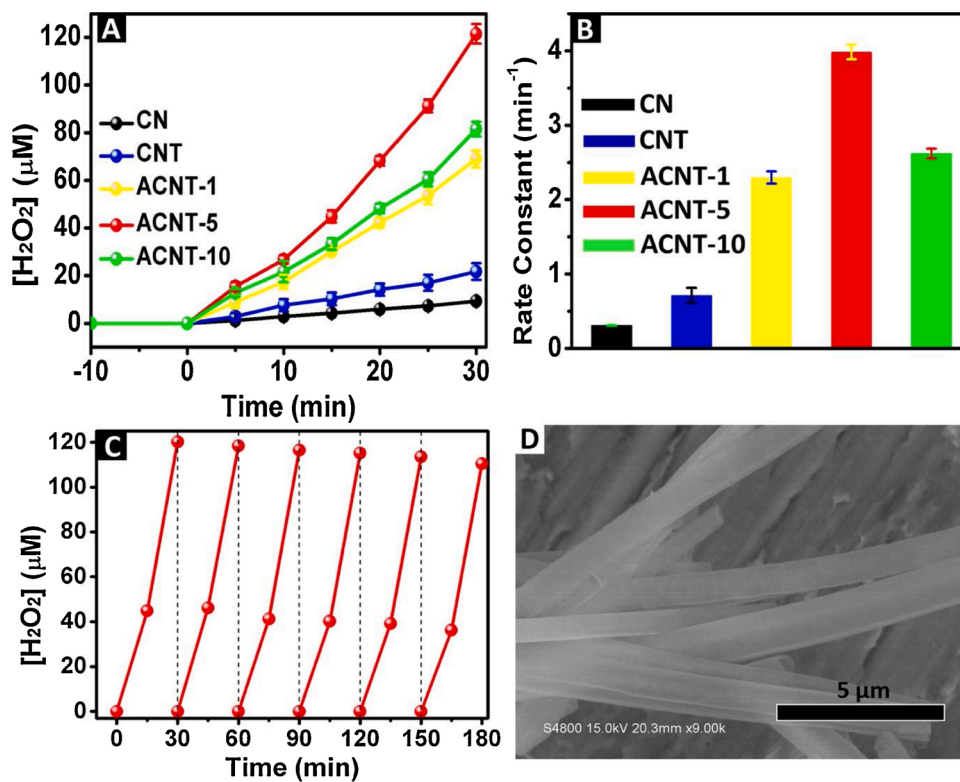


Fig. 5. (A) Comparison of photocatalytic H₂O₂ production over different catalysts. (B) Rate constant of the photocatalytic reaction with different catalysts. The error bars arise from the values extracted from several measurements on multiple catalysts. (C) Photocatalytic H₂O₂ production over ANCT-5 as a function of time. (D) FESEM image of ANCT-5 after six runs.

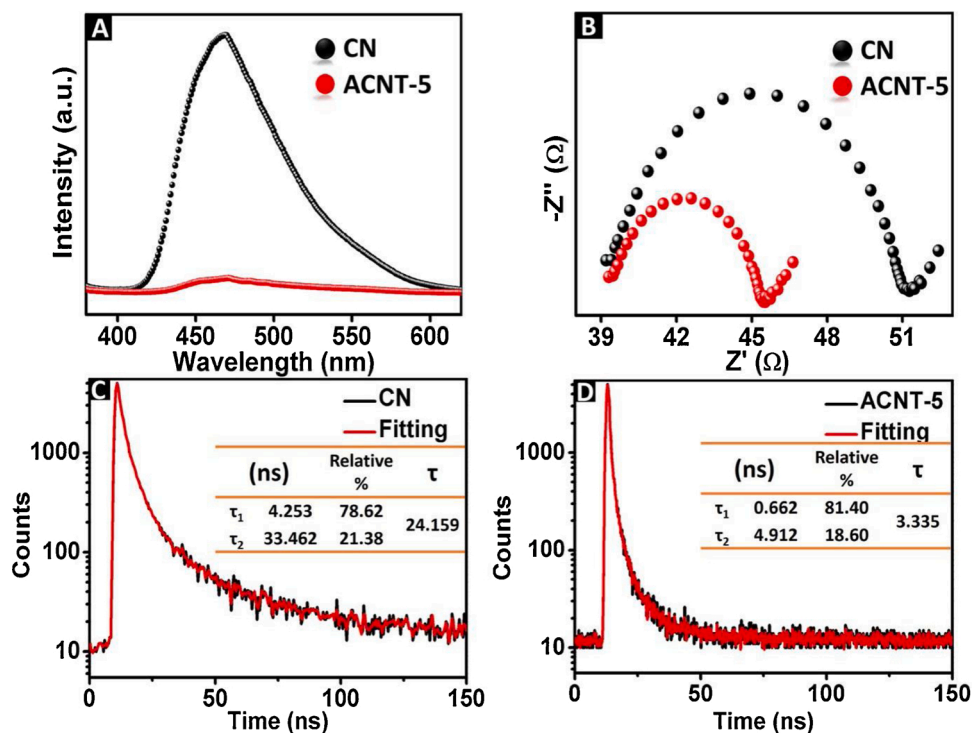


Fig. 6. (A) PL spectra of CN and ACNT-5. (B) EIS spectra of CN and ACNT-5. (C, D) Room-temperature ns-level time-resolved PL spectra of CN and ACNT-5 monitored under 469 nm excitation.

the improvement of photocatalytic activity. However, the band gap of the different catalysts in this study generally does not show remarkable changes (Fig. S9B).

3.5. The inhibitory effect of the *in situ* grafted hydroxyl groups on the decomposition of H₂O₂

The active species in the reactions were investigated by EPR and trapping experiments to explain the observed improvement in H₂O₂ production over ACNT compared with that over CN (Fig. 7). The sharp peak of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ indicates that O₂ reduction to H₂O₂ ($2\text{HO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$ or $\text{O}_2^- + 2\text{H}^+ + e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$) over CN is taking place. However, no $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ signal was not observed in the EPR spectrum of ACNT-5, the $\cdot\text{OH}$ signal was detected. However, $\cdot\text{OH}$ is not the active species generating H₂O₂. Thus, three trapping experiments were performed to determine the appropriate mechanism; here, 0.005 mM of 1,4-benzoquinone (BQ, $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ scavenger), 0.01 mM of isopropanol (IPA, $\cdot\text{OH}$ scavenger), and 0.01 mM of triethanolamine (TEOA, h^+ scavenger) were separately added to the H₂O₂ production system. A decrease in H₂O₂ production of over 95 % was observed when BQ was added to the system with CN as the catalyst. This finding is completely consistent with the EPR results. In contrast, in the ACNT-5 system, BQ has little impact on H₂O₂ production, which suggests that $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ is not primary factor for generating H₂O₂ over ACNT-5.

When IPA was added to the H₂O₂ production system, H₂O₂ in the ACNT-5 system decreased by 25 %. The separation efficiency of electron-hole pairs in the ACNT-5 system is maintained at high levels (see the PL, EIS, and ns-level time-resolved fluorescence decay spectra in Fig. 6), therefore, when OH is captured by IPA, the main reaction for H₂O₂ decomposition (Eq. (3), $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H}^+ + e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}^\cdot$) is promoted, leading to a decrease in H₂O₂ production. In the h^+ trapping experiment, H₂O₂ production increases in the CN system due to the promotion of electron-hole pair separation, which is the main limitation of the CN system. The OH⁻ bond cannot be oxidized to OH \cdot in the ACNT-5 system because of h^+ capture, consequently H₂O₂ decomposition is minimal. More importantly, surface >OH groups serve as electron traps forming surface bound $\cdot\text{OH}$ thus limiting H₂O₂ decomposition ($2 >\text{OH}\cdot \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$). The H₂O₂ decomposition experiment was carried out to verify this mechanism. As shown in Fig. S10, almost all the H₂O₂ were decomposed for CN and more than 65 % of H₂O₂ were maintained for ACNT-5 after 1 h. At the beginning, a great quantity of H₂O₂ (1 mM) inhibited the production reaction, the photo-generated electrons were mainly involved in the decomposition of H₂O₂ for CN. And for ACNT-5, surface >OH groups were reacted with h^+ , the resultant OH \cdot inhibited

Eq. (3) and a large amount of H₂O₂ was retained.

These results show that ACNT has excellent photoelectric properties that enable efficient electron-hole separation and surface trapping of both electrons and holes.

3.6. The capture of h^+ and the generation of H^+ by the *in situ* grafted hydroxyl groups

The role of protons (i.e., $\text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$) in the overall reaction was investigated. H₂O₂ production depends on pH since the reaction is governed by proton-coupled electron transfer favored by low pH [20,51]. Therefore, the pH was monitored during course of H₂O₂ production as shown in Fig. 8. In the CN system, the pH rose slightly during dark adsorption with and without EtOH due to the protonation of amino groups on the CN surface (Eq. (8)). The pH decreased as the reaction proceeds after introduction of light, with H^+ generated from the oxidation of H₂O by photogenerated holes. When a sacrificial agent or hole trap (EtOH) is used, the photogenerated holes are used to oxidize the electron donating substrate (e.g., $\text{R-CH}_2\text{OH} + 2\text{h}^+ \rightarrow \text{R-CHO} + 2\text{H}^+$). Furthermore, H^+ production during water oxidation results in reduction in pH. Consequently, the amount of H₂O₂ was three time the obtained in the spontaneous CN system (Fig. 8A). Fig. 8B reveals the role of the sacrificial electron donor in the spontaneous CN system. However, in the ACNT-5 system, catalyst has intrinsically a source of electron donor sites. Although the original pH of the spontaneous ACNT-5 system was substantially higher than that of the spontaneous CN system (Fig. 8C), the pH began to decrease during dark adsorption in ACNT-5 system.



When the light was switched on, *in situ* grafted surface >OH groups served as hole traps to produce H^+ as shown in Eqs. (9)–(12). The pH

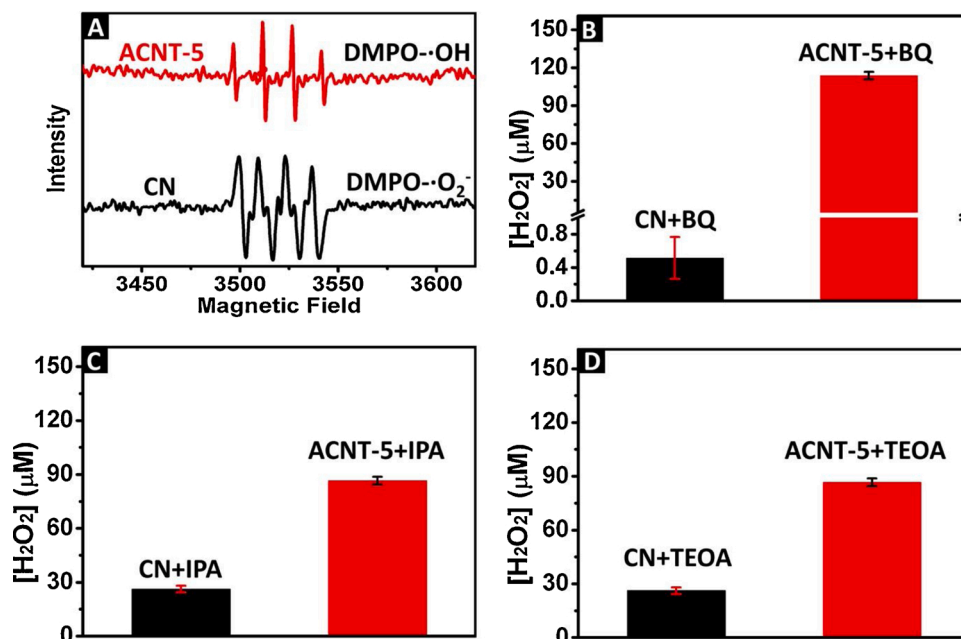


Fig. 7. (A) Comparison of EPR peaks during H₂O₂ production in the CN and ACNT-5 systems. H₂O₂ production with (B) BQ, (C) IPA, and (D) TEOA over CN and ACNT. The error bars arise from values extracted from several measurements on multiple catalysts.

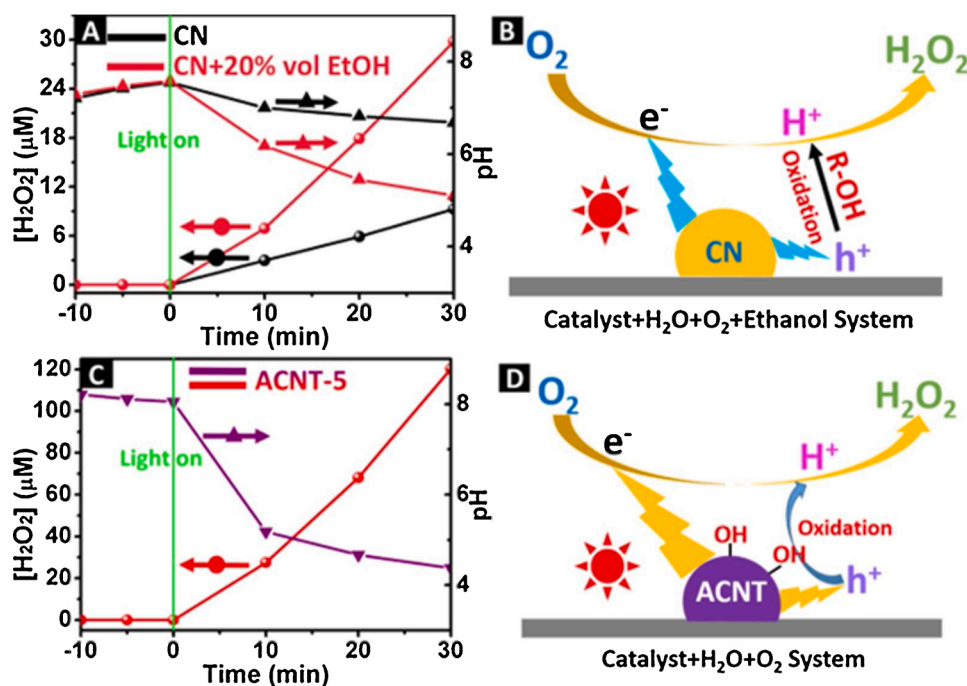


Fig. 8. (A) Photocatalytic H₂O₂ production by CN with and without sacrificial agent and the pH of both systems. (B) Schematic of photocatalytic H₂O₂ production in the CN system with a sacrificial agent. (C) Photocatalytic H₂O₂ production in the spontaneous ACNT-5 system. (D) Schematic of photocatalytic H₂O₂ production in the spontaneous ACNT-5 system.

was quickly reduced and reached 4.38 in the spontaneous ACNT-5 system; this pH is even lower than that of the CN system with a sacrificial agent (pH = 5.10) due to lower hydroxyl radical production. Acetic acid deportation results in greater H⁺ production and thus a lower pH in the ACNT-5 system. Fig. 8D shows the route through which key components (e⁻ and H⁺) of the ACNT-5 system are generated. The ACNT catalyst improved photocatalytic activity when compared to most of the spontaneous systems listed in Table S1.

3.7. The stability of the *in situ* grafted hydroxyl groups

The stability of the *in situ* grafted OH groups was examined and any quantitative changes in the surface groups were determined (Fig. S11). First, the peak of the *in situ* grafted OH groups (at 2140 cm⁻¹) did not decrease significantly. Second, the ratio of I₁/I₂ of ACNT-5 increased after six runs because of the partial dissociation of water molecules adsorbed on the CN surface. The adsorption rate was lower than the surface dissociation rate, and this difference led to increases in I₁/I₂. Therefore, these results when combined with the result of repeated experiments as shown in Fig. 5C, we conclude the ACNT photocatalytic system in oxygenated water is reasonably stable for the photocatalytic H₂O₂ production.

4. Conclusions

In summary, an ACNT photocatalyst with *in situ* grafted OH groups were successfully prepared via an optimized hydrothermal-cum-calcination method. The catalyst exhibited excellent photoelectric properties resulting from the synergistic effects of its nanotube structure and grafted OH groups. Self-decomposition of H₂O₂ was effectively prevented by the OH groups of the photocatalyst, with excellent H₂O₂ production achieved in a spontaneous system without sacrificial agents. This work provides a new strategy for developing efficient, metal-free photocatalysts for H₂O₂ production in illuminated systems.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Liang Zhou: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing - original draft. **Juying Lei:** Data curation, Supervision. **Fuchen Wang:** Resources. **Lingzhi Wang:** Resources, Methodology. **Michael R. Hoffmann:** Writing - review & editing. **Yongdi Liu:** Writing - review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Su-Il In:** Writing - review & editing. **Jinlong Zhang:** Project administration.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.119993>.

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