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## Sequencing batch photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over a magnetic resorcinol–formaldehyde polymer for on-site water purification by UV light irradiation†

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A self-maintainable decentralized water treatment system is appealing, while avoiding chemical addition is the prerequisite to realize it. As a widely used chemical in advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> can be produced *via* photocatalysis. However, there remain challenges to use the photocatalytically produced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for water purification in a continuous operation, which requires that the produced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution has no impurity and the catalyst powder is easily separable. We realized this by photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over magnetic separable photocatalytic microspheres through a sequencing batch process and coupling with ultraviolet C (UVC)/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for micropollutant removal *via* a flow-through operation. The photocatalysts were synthesized by *in situ* growth of a resorcinol–formaldehyde (RF) copolymer on Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres, which can convert earth-abundant water and air into H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> under visible light irradiation. A clean H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution was produced at 100 μmol h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> over magnetic photocatalysts and separated by using an external magnetic field. The on-site utilization of the obtained H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution was realized *via* UV light irradiation. This work provides a rational design of easily separable photocatalysts for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production, and offers insights for development of water purification processes with zero chemical addition and maintenance.

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### Environmental significance

Maintenance and chemicals account for a large part of the cost in diverse technologies for water purification. Thus, a self-maintainable decentralized water treatment system with zero commercial chemicals is appealing for sustainable water cleanup, especially significant for rural areas. Solar-driven H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production and *in situ* activation provide the possibility to develop an advanced oxidation process with zero chemicals and maintenance. We coupled photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production and UVC activation in a flow-through operation for organic micropollutant removal in water. This process was realized by developing magnetic separable resorcinol–formaldehyde photocatalysts on Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres, which can produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution by facile cycling of catalysts. This work provides a promising way to develop water purification processes with zero chemical addition and maintenance.

## Introduction

Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)-based advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have been widely applied to remove persistent organic micropollutants in water by producing strong oxidative species like hydroxyl radicals (<sup>•</sup>OH).<sup>1–3</sup> Among these AOPs, ultraviolet

(UV)/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is the most effective one to remove diverse organic pollutants just by using electrical energy (for UV light) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to produce <sup>•</sup>OH at a high quantum yield (up to 100%).<sup>4–6</sup> The cost of this process is the sum of electrical energy and oxidant costs, in which maintenance accounts for up to 45% of the electrical energy cost.<sup>7,8</sup> A great number of efforts have been made to enhance the removal efficiency and decrease the operation cost by using additional chemicals (*e.g.* persulfate) and optimizing reactors.<sup>9–11</sup> However, it would be effective to minimize the cost by developing a process that avoids chemical addition and maintenance. This is especially significant for decentralized water purification in rural areas.

The current commercial production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is based on an anthraquinone process, which is limited by the costly hydrogen gas, noble metal catalysts, toxic organic solvents, and high-energy inputs.<sup>12,13</sup> Moreover, the storage and transportation of

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the concentrated  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (above 30%) is hazardous, and dilution is necessary in the further utilization for water purification.<sup>4,14</sup> This makes the maintenance of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -involved processes inevitable. Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production by converting earth-abundant  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{O}_2$  over photocatalysts is an emerging approach to produce  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  at mild concentrations on a small scale.<sup>15–17</sup> In this solar-to-chemical process, the two-electron oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  synthesis is enabled by photogenerated electrons, while water is oxidized by photo-generated holes and synchronously offers protons.<sup>18–20</sup> Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production displays great potential for diverse water purification applications,<sup>21,22</sup> while the development of efficient photocatalysts is the prerequisite to realize it. Among the photocatalysts for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production, the resorcinol–formaldehyde (RF) copolymer, a metal-free photocatalyst, possesses a narrow bandgap (2.0 eV) and a wide absorption region (up to 700 nm). Under sunlight irradiation,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  can be produced over an RF copolymer in pure water with a relatively high solar-to- $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  conversion efficiency (0.5%).<sup>23,24</sup> However, this RF material exhibits a form of powder with low density and poor dispersion, resulting in challengeable separation. Immobilizing the photocatalysts on porous substrates is one feasible choice but significantly decreases mass transfer and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production. The downstream separation such as membrane filtration is energy-costing, and organic membranes are labile in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution.<sup>25,26</sup> Thus, facile separation of photocatalyst powder to ensure production of a clean  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution is a prerequisite for the integration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production and on-site utilization for water purification.

Magnetic nanomaterials such as  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles can be easily collected and recovered by using external magnetic fields, and the recovery of water can reach 100% after magnetic separation.<sup>27–29</sup> These materials are usually used as catalyst supports to improve recyclability.<sup>8,30,31</sup> Herein, we report a strategy to develop magnetic separable photocatalysts by *in situ* growing RF layers on silica-coated magnetite microspheres, and developed a process integrating photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  synthesis and on-site UVC activation to remove organic pollutants in water. This process displays great potential to be operated without any chemical addition and maintenance.

## Experimental section

### Synthesis of catalysts

**$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  magnetic nanoparticles.**  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  magnetic nanoparticles were synthesized by a solvothermal method.<sup>32</sup> 2.7 g of iron(III) chloride hexahydrate (98%, Sinopharm) and 7.2 g of sodium acetate (98%, Sinopharm) were dissolved in 100 mL of ethylene glycol (98%, Aladdin Biochemical Technology) and stirred for 10 min to form a clear yellow solution. Then, the homogeneous solution was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (100 mL) and heated at 200 °C for 8 hours. Then the autoclave was cooled down to room temperature, and the black product was washed with ethanol and water, separated and vacuum dried at 60 °C for 12 hours to obtain  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  magnetic nanoparticles.

**$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@SiO_2$  microspheres.** The Stöber method was employed to form a  $SiO_2$  layer over the  $Fe_3O_4$  surface. The as-prepared  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles (0.10 g) were pre-treated in 50 mL hydrochloric acid solution (0.1 M) under 10 min ultrasonication. After washing and separation, the pre-treated  $Fe_3O_4$ , 1.5 mL ammonia solution (28 wt%, Sinopharm) and 1.86 g tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS, 98%, Aladdin Biochemical Technology) were added into 100 mL of 80 vol% ethanol solution, followed by stirring at room temperature for 360 min. Finally,  $Fe_3O_4@SiO_2$  microspheres were obtained after washing, filtering and drying under vacuum at 60 °C for 6 hours.

**Magnetic resorcinol–formaldehyde photocatalysts.**  $Fe_3O_4@SiO_2$  microspheres (0.1 g), ammonia (0.1 mL, 28 wt% Sinopharm) and cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB, 0.01 mmol, 99%, Sigma-Aldrich) were mixed in 30 mL of deionized water and stirred for 30 min. Then, 4.5 mmol of resorcinol (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) and 8.2 mmol of formaldehyde solution (33 wt%, Sinopharm) were added into the mixture and mechanically stirred for 16 hours. Then, the suspension was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (50 mL) and kept at 210 °C for 24 hours. The obtained black samples are magnetic resorcinol–formaldehyde catalysts, which were labeled as MRF. MRF-0.5 and MRF-2.0 were synthesized according to the same procedure as MRF, but the dosages of resorcinol and formaldehyde were half and double of those used in MRF synthesis, respectively. RF photocatalysts were prepared *via* the same procedure but without magnetic particles.

### Characterization

The morphology of materials was recorded by using a Talos F200X scanning transmission electron microscope (TEM, FEI, USA). The accelerating voltage for each test is 200 kV. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of samples were collected on a Rigaku D/max-2200 PC X-ray diffractometer with  $Cu-K\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.154$  nm, 40.0 kV and 30.0 mA). The Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded on a Thermo Electron Nicolet 6700 spectrometer. X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were recorded on a Shimadzu-Kratos spectrometer (Al  $K\alpha$  radiation,  $2 \times 10^{-9}$  Pa) with an Axis Ultra DLD system. The BET specific surface area and pore volume analyses were carried out on a gas sorption analyzer (Quantachrome Autosorb-IQ3). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) were carried out on a Mettler-Toledo analyzer (TGA/DSC1/1600HT). The temperature is increased from 20 to 800 °C (10 °C  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) in an air atmosphere (30 mL  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ). Magnetic properties of the materials were measured on a SQUID-based vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM, MPMS-3, Quantum Design) at room temperature.

### Photocatalytic reaction

Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production was conducted in a 50 mL quartz cuvette. Typically, 30 mg of catalysts were dispersed in 30 mL of pure water. During the tests, a Xe lamp (PLS-SXE300, 300 W) with a cut-off filter ( $\lambda > 420$  nm) provided visible-light irradiation, and the suspension was continuously purged with



air. The dissolved O<sub>2</sub> concentration was measured by using a fiber optic oxygen meter (OXY-1 SMA, PreSens Precision Sensing GmbH, Germany). The magnetic catalysts can be separated by using a magnet for the cycle tests. Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition was carried out in a H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> suspension (1000 μM) containing 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> of catalysts in a N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere under visible-light irradiation (λ > 420 nm). The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined by the *N,N*-diethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine (DPD, 97%)-horseradish peroxidase (POD, RZ > 1.5) method.<sup>33,34</sup>

Organic pollutants including rhodamine B (RhB), humic acid (HA) and tetracycline (TC) were degraded *via* a UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> coupling with photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. In a typical test, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was generated by using a 150 mL MRF suspension (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>) after 60 min visible light irradiation with air purging. Then, the catalysts were separated from water by using a magnetic field, and the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution was used for wastewater treatment. Both batch and flow-through tests were carried out to evaluate organic degradation in the UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> processes. In a batch operation, 5 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> aqueous solution (100 μM) was mixed with 45 mL wastewater and irradiated under a UVC light for 60 min. The UVC light source was six G4T5 bulbs (Sankyo Denki, λ = 254 nm, 4 W). In a flow-through operation, 200 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution (100 μM) was mixed with 1800 mL of wastewater containing a certain concentration of organic micropollutants (RhB, HA or TC). Then, the mixture was pumped into a UVC reactor at 10, 20 or 30 mL min<sup>-1</sup> flow rate. The section view of UVC reactor is shown in Fig. S1.† A UVC lamp (Cnlight, λ = 254 nm, 15 W) was used and the effective volume for wastewater treatment was 1000 mL. The concentration of RhB, HA and TC was measured by using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (TU-1810, Beijing Purkinje) at 564, 254 and 357 nm, respectively. The electrical energy per order ( $E_{EO}$ ) in the flow-through operation is calculated using eqn (1):<sup>35</sup>

$$E_{EO} = \frac{P}{F \lg(C_i/C_f)} \quad (1)$$

where,  $P$  is the power of the UVC light (kW);  $F$  is the volume flow rate of water (m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>);  $C_i$  and  $C_f$  are the initial and final concentrations of micropollutants (mg L<sup>-1</sup>), respectively.

## Results and discussion

### Characterization of MRF microspheres

The magnetic resorcinol–formaldehyde (MRF) photocatalyst was synthesized by the procedure described in Fig. 1A. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles have superparamagnetism and have been frequently used as the magnetic core for magnetic separable core–shell materials. To prevent the aggregation and possible etching of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles by reacting with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>,<sup>36</sup> a layer of SiO<sub>2</sub> coating is incorporated on the surface of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> due to its good compatibility and hydrophilicity.<sup>37,38</sup> However, under the alkaline conditions for the polycondensation of RF (pH > 10), the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer would be negatively charged. Considering that the surface of RF particles is also negative,<sup>37</sup> and electrostatic repulsive force between the two components would accordingly inhibit the formation of RF over SiO<sub>2</sub>, a cationic surfactant (CTAB) is employed to render the surface of silica layers

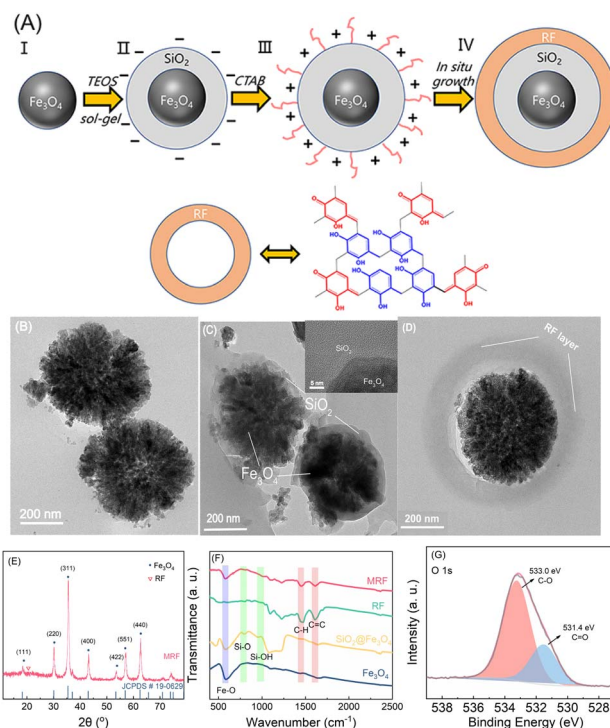


Fig. 1 (A) Schematic synthetic procedure of the magnetic resorcinol–formaldehyde photocatalysts; (B)–(D) TEM images of (B) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles, (C) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> (inset: HRTEM image at the core–shell interface), and (D) MRF microspheres; (E) XRD patterns of MRF; (F) FTIR spectra of various materials; (G) high-resolution O 1s XPS spectrum of MRF.

positively charged. Thus, the RF shell layer eventually *in situ* formed over silica-coated Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres.

As shown in Fig. 1B, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles are prepared *via* a solvothermal method, and the as-synthesized spherical particles possess a mean diameter of 500 nm. Then, a silica layer about 50 nm of thickness is coated over the surface of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres (Fig. 1C). No lattice fringe is observed in the SiO<sub>2</sub> region (inset in Fig. 1C), indicating that the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer is dominated by the amorphous phase.<sup>39,40</sup> CTAB induces a positively charged surface of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub>, and then the RF copolymer as the shell layer is formed over Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> *via* a Stöber-like method.<sup>22,39</sup> The thickness of this shell layer is about 100 nm (Fig. 1D).

The crystalline structure of the catalyst is determined using powder XRD patterns (Fig. 1E). The diffraction pattern of MRF matches well with the JCPDS card 19-0629 for the face-centered cubic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> phase.<sup>41,42</sup> The diffraction peaks at 30.2°, 35.6°, 43.3°, 57.2° and 62.8° correspond to the (220), (311), (400), (551) and (440) planes of cubic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, respectively. A broad diffraction band at about 20° can be attributed to the (002) planes of graphitic carbon, suggesting the presence of π-stacking benzenoid–quinoid couples.<sup>22,43</sup> The surface functional groups of MRF were also analyzed using FTIR spectra (Fig. 1F). The peak at 586 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the stretching metal–oxygen vibration of the Fe–O groups.<sup>44,45</sup> The weak bands at 798 and 956 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to the Si–O and Si–OH groups, respectively.<sup>46</sup> The bands located at 1615 and 1450 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to the



stretching vibration of the aromatic C=C and C-H groups of the methylene linker, respectively.<sup>47,48</sup> The benzenoid-quinoid D-A resorcinol couples of the RF copolymer layers in MRF were proved by XPS spectra. The deconvoluted peaks in the C 1s (at 286.2 eV and 288.0 eV) (Fig. S2†) and O 1s (at 533.0 eV and 531.4 eV) XPS spectra (Fig. 1G) are assigned to the C-O and C=O bonds, corresponding to the benzenoid and quinoid forms in the RF framework, respectively.<sup>21</sup> The ratio of C-O/C=O obtained according to the data of the O 1s spectrum is 2.5. Thus, a shell of the RF copolymer was successfully formed over the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> cores.

### Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over MRF microspheres

Fig. 2A reveals the time-dependent H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production in water over different materials under visible light. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles produce negligible H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, indicating that the support materials for RF have no photocatalytic activity. Using MRF (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>) as the photocatalyst, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations increase linearly with time, achieving a H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production rate of 100 μM h<sup>-1</sup> under air purging conditions, in which the dissolved oxygen concentration is about 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. When the suspension is purged with O<sub>2</sub>, the

dissolved O<sub>2</sub> increases to about 40 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, and the photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production within 60 min is enhanced to 150 μM. However, when purging with N<sub>2</sub>, the system produces negligible H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that the oxygen reduction is the main pathway for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production.<sup>49-51</sup> Upon 12 hours of irradiation under air purging conditions, MRF can produce 1200 μM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> without any retardation (Fig. S3†), which is a relatively high value in the systems of photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production in the absence of any organic sacrificial agent (Table S1†).

The ratios of RF to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> in MRF are optimized by measuring the performance of photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. The dosage of resorcinol and formaldehyde for MRF-0.5 and MRF-2.0 are 0.5-fold and 2.0-fold of that for MRF, respectively. As shown in Fig. S4,† H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over MRF-0.5 is 0.8-fold of that of MRF, while this over MRF-2.0 is only a 10% increase by comparing with that produced by MRF, suggesting that the content of RF polymers in MRF is nearly enough for photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. Thus, MRF is used for further tests due to its ratio of RF to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> being optimal.

The weight percentage of the RF polymer in MRF was measured by the TGA-DSC analysis under air purging conditions (Fig. 2B). A two-stage weight loss can be observed in the TGA curve. Below 300 °C, weight loss is less than 3%, which can be ascribed to the removal of moisture in the materials. In the range of 300–550 °C, the weight loss is about 32%, accompanied by two exothermic peaks at 325 and 530 °C. This is associated with the decomposition of the RF polymer. When the temperature increases to above 550 °C, the weight percentage of MRF remains at 65%, corresponding to the inorganic component in the material. Thus, considering 65% inorganic components and 3% moisture in the material, the weight percentage of the RF copolymer in MRF is about 32%. According to the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherm and the pore-size distribution curves of MRF (Fig. S5†), the specific surface area and total pore volume of this catalyst are 16.0 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and 5.3 × 10<sup>-2</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. This indicates that MRF is a nonporous material, and the photocatalytic ORR mainly takes place over the surface layer.

H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production increases with the increase of MRF dosages in the suspension (Fig. 2C). In the presence of 5 g L<sup>-1</sup> and 10 g L<sup>-1</sup> of MRF, the produced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in 60 min reaches 200 and 250 μM, respectively. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production on MRF shows a minor decrease with the increase of pH from 3 to 9, while above 80 μM upon 60 min irradiation at all the pH values (Fig. 2D). These results suggest that MRF displays a high and stable activity over a wide pH range, and continuous photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production in pure water can be achieved by using a high dosage of MRF.

Considering that the weight percentage of RF in MRF is about 32%, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production rate is normalized according to the weight of the RF copolymer, and the results are shown in Fig. 2E. In a control test, the pristine RF copolymer produces 300 μM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in 60 min, which is 3-fold that on MRF under the same conditions (Fig. S6†). Thus, the normalized H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production of MRF is close to the theoretical value based on the pristine RF copolymer (Fig. 2E), suggesting negligible H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition on the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> component in MRF

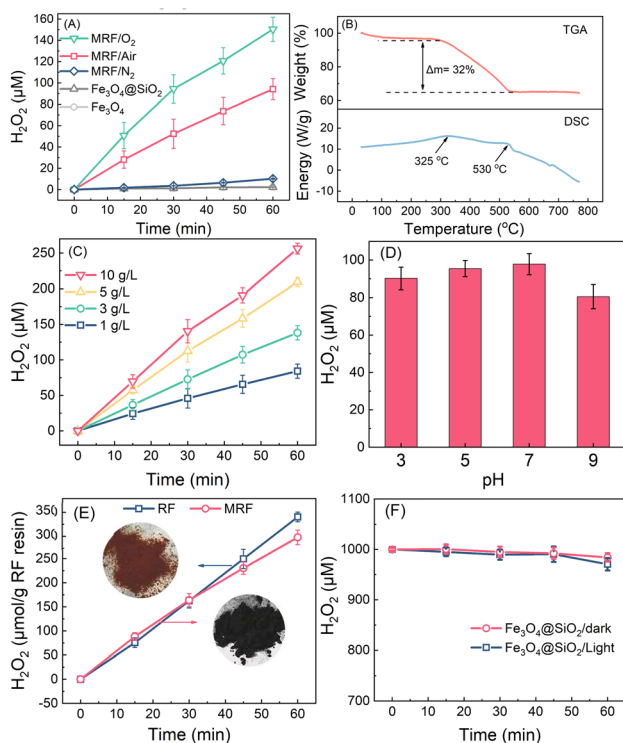


Fig. 2 (A) Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over different materials (catalysts: 1 g L<sup>-1</sup>; pH = 7.5; λ > 420 nm; O<sub>2</sub>/air/N<sub>2</sub>: 0.5 L min<sup>-1</sup>); (B) TGA and DSC profiles for MRF pyrolysis; photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production within 60 min (C) over different dosages of MRF and (D) over 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> MRF at different pH values; (E) normalized H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production over per gram of RF copolymers under air purging conditions; and (F) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition over Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> in the dark and under visible-light irradiation (catalysts: 1 g L<sup>-1</sup>; [H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>]<sub>0</sub>: 1000 μM; pH = 7.5; λ > 420 nm; N<sub>2</sub>: 0.5 L min<sup>-1</sup>).



microspheres. This is further proved by measuring  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  decomposition over  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$  under both dark and illumination conditions. As shown in Fig. 2F, in the  $\text{N}_2$ -purging  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$  suspension,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration declines less than 2%, indicating that the as-prepared magnetic support materials do not consume  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and affect  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production. This is attributed to the tight layers of RF and  $\text{SiO}_2$  blocking the access of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to core materials.<sup>28,38</sup>

The magnetization properties of materials are proved by VSM analysis. As shown in the magnetic hysteresis loops (Fig. 3A), the saturation magnetization ( $M_s$ ) values for  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$  and MRF are 80.5, 60.6 and 59.9  $\text{emu g}^{-1}$ , respectively. Moreover, negligible remanence or coercivity of all the curves are detected, proving the super-paramagnetism of these materials. As a result, MRF particles that disperse well in water can be rapidly aggregated in the presence of an external magnetic field (inset in Fig. 3A), and the recovery of MRF is over 99%. The characters and photocatalytic activity of the reused MRF after 12 h of prolonged irradiation were measured. As shown in the XPS spectrum of recovered MRF after the photocatalytic reaction (Fig. S7†), the changes of the band for the  $\text{C}=\text{O}$  bond are negligible. The TEM (Fig. S8†) and FTIR spectra (Fig. 3B) are almost the same as those of the fresh materials, indicating that the changes of the functional groups and microstructures of MRF are negligible. After five-cycle experiments, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  yield and the saturation magnetization of MRF ( $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) remain at  $100 \mu\text{M h}^{-1}$  and  $59.6 \text{ emu g}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3C and D). The recovered MRF maintains the activity for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production and the magnetization for rapid separation. The total organic carbon (TOC) of the solution after removing MRF was  $0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , which is almost the same as that of the control of deionized water, suggesting that the organic components in the material scarcely dissolve. Thus, the MRF photocatalysts

display superior stability and easy recyclability, which enables ready utilization of the produced  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  for *on situ* usage.

### On situ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ utilization for decontamination via UVC irradiation

A process combining  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production and *on situ* utilization for organic micropollutant removal is proposed (Scheme 1). In one cycle of the test, MRF (150 mg) is firstly dispersed in water (150 mL) by purging with air (I). Then, upon visible light irradiation, free electrons and holes are generated for the two-electron ORR and four-electron WOR, respectively (II). In this step, about  $100 \mu\text{M}$  of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is produced per hour. Subsequently, MRF particles rapidly aggregate under the magnetic field and get separated from the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution. After withdrawing the magnetic field, the catalysts are re-dispersed in fresh water and are ready for the next cycle (III). After three cycles, about 400 mL of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution at  $100 \mu\text{M}$  concentration ( $40 \mu\text{mol}$  of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) can be collected. The major energy consumption in photocatalysis comes from a 300 W xenon lamp, which can be conveniently replaced by sunlight. The  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution generated from photocatalysis mixes with the micropollutant-containing wastewater, and is then treated by UVC light irradiation through a batch or a flow-through operation.

In the batch operation, 5 mL of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ ) was added into 45 mL of wastewater, resulting in the initial  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and pollutant (RhB, HA, or TC) concentrations of  $10 \mu\text{M}$  and  $1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , respectively. The wastewater containing  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was irradiated by using UVC light for 60 min. As shown in Fig. 4A, under dark conditions, the reduction of RhB, HA, and TC in the presence of  $10 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is negligible. In the absence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  but upon UVC irradiation alone for 60 min, HA and TC have

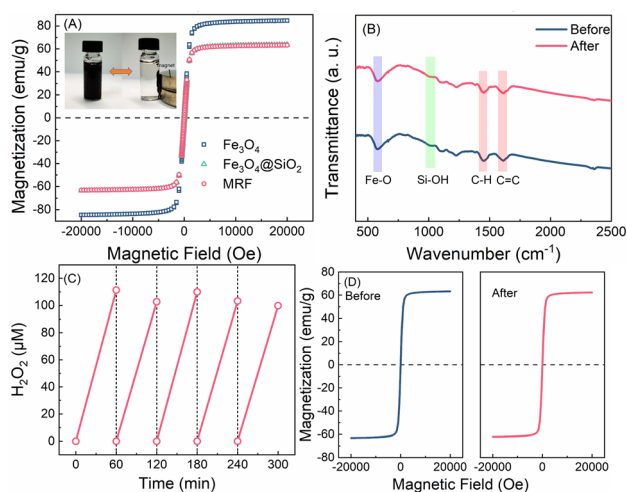
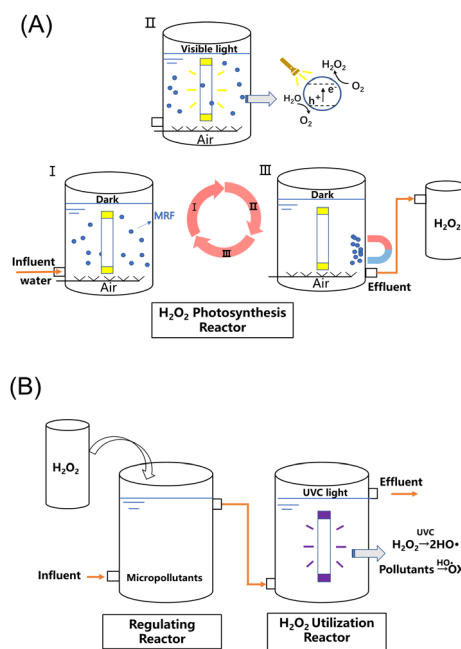


Fig. 3 (A) Magnetic hysteresis loops of the catalysts at room temperature and (A inset) magnetic separation and redispersion process of MRF; (B) FTIR spectra of MRF and reused MRF; repeated photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production (C) and magnetic hysteresis loops (D) of reused MRF (catalysts:  $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{pH} = 7.5$ ;  $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$ ; air:  $0.5 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ).



Scheme 1 Schematic illustration of sequencing batch photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production over MRF (A) and UVC/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  flow-through processes (B) for organic micropollutant degradation.



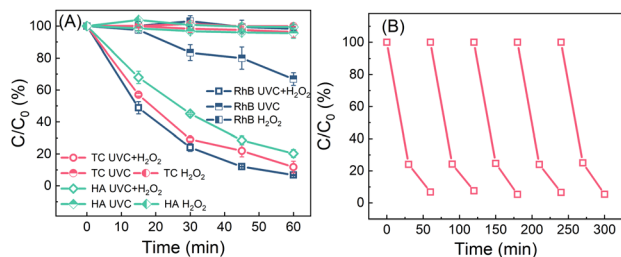


Fig. 4 (A) The removal of RhB, TC and HA *via* UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, UVC and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> processes in batch tests; and (B) recyclability of the process for RhB removal (RhB, TC or HA: 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: 10 μM).

negligible reduction, while RhB has about 33.1% reduction. However, in the UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system, the concentrations of RhB, HA and TC decrease to 0.05, 0.15 and 0.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in 60 min, respectively. Owing to the UVC-induced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> activation, hydroxyl radicals are produced to oxidize these organic pollutants.<sup>52,53</sup> The decay curve exhibits first-order reaction kinetics, and the rate constants for RhB, HA and TC are 0.045, 0.035 and 0.027 min<sup>-1</sup>, which are about 6.7, 52.6 and 34.6-fold values of that treated by UVC irradiation in the absence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, respectively (Fig. S9†). The performance of RhB degradation *via* a sequencing batch process scarcely declines even after five cycles (Fig. 4B), indicating that this process exempted from external chemicals is robust to remove organic micropollutants in water.

In a flow-through operation, 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of RhB (HA or TC) wastewater containing 10 μM of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> produced from MRF photocatalysis were pumped into a UVC reactor at a 10 mL min<sup>-1</sup> flow rate. The retention time for the wastewater is 100 min. As shown in Fig. 5, under UVC irradiation or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-alone treatment, the RhB concentration in the effluent is about 0.20 and 0.99 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. The significant removal of RhB by UVC irradiation alone in the flow-through operation can be attributed to the prolonged irradiation time. However, upon UVC irradiation, the RhB concentration in the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-containing water decreases to below 0.01 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, and the pink wastewater completely bleaches. The treatment also achieves high removal efficiencies for HA- or TC-containing wastewater. Without light or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, negligible micropollutants (less than 5%) are decomposed. In the UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system, the HA and TC concentrations

in the effluent decrease to 0.35 and 0.20 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. As the flow rate of water increases, the removal efficiency of micropollutants decreases (Fig. 5B). At 30 mL min<sup>-1</sup> of flow speed, the RhB, HA and TC concentrations in the effluents are 0.15, 0.75 and 0.75 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. This can be attributed to the less residence time caused by the higher flow rates. It can be expected that the removal efficiencies can be further enhanced by increasing the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> dosages. The  $E_{EO}$  values of the pollutant decomposition in the flow-through operation are calculated according to eqn (1).<sup>7,35</sup> As shown in Fig. 5C, the  $E_{EO}$  values for the three pollutants are 10–60 kW h m<sup>-3</sup> per order, which is comparable to the values in photo-Fenton and UV/peroxydisulfate systems (Table S2†). Considering that the electrical energy required for both H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production and UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> processes can be replaced by sunlight and solar cells, it is promising to minimize the energy consumption in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production and activation. Thus, the process of coupling photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production and on-site H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> activation by using UVC has great potential to be automatically operated outdoor, featuring minimum energy input, and zero maintenance and chemical addition.

## Conclusions

In summary, we developed a zero-chemical process to remove organic micropollutants in water *via* integrating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production by photocatalysis and activation by using UVC. A magnetic core-shell photocatalyst was fabricated by *in situ* growth of resorcinol-formaldehyde copolymers over silica-coated Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres, which can achieve 100 μmol h<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production from water and air over per gram MRF in the absence of organic sacrificial agents. This magnetic material can be easily separated and recycled. A UVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> operation was developed by continuously mixing wastewater and the generated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution, and then flowing it through a UVC reactor, which can efficiently activate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and degrade organic micropollutants. The process only needs light as energy input and water and air as the raw materials, representing a low-cost route to convert solar energy for environmental cleanup.

## Author contributions

J. Z., Q. Z. and X. Z. designed and performed the experiments. J. Z. wrote the original draft. C. C. performed the photocatalytic performance analysis. X. G. wrote and revised the manuscript. M. L. conceived the original idea, supervised the project, and revised the manuscript.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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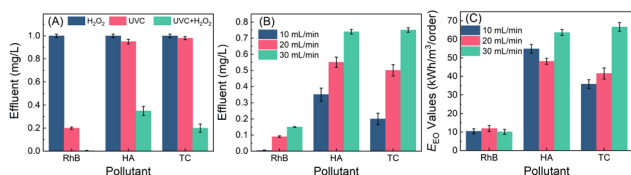


Fig. 5 (A) The concentration of micropollutants in the effluent *via* a flow-through operation (RhB, TC or HA: 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: 10 μM; flow rate: 10 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; λ = 254 nm); (B) the concentration of micropollutants in the effluent *via* a flow-through operation at different flow rates; (C)  $E_{EO}$  value of RhB, HA and TC decomposition in a flow-through operation (RhB, TC or HA: 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: 10 μM; λ = 254 nm).



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