



Enhanced performance of hierarchical porous HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure in the degradation of antibiotics with and without light

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ABSTRACT

Currently, the advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) for water treatment are limited by the demand on externally supplied oxidants or illumination. To overcome these constraints, a series of micro-nano-composites composed of a copper-based metal-organic framework 'HKUST-1' and graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) nanosheets, were designed and synthesized via electrostatic self-assembly, hydrothermal treatment and decarboxylation. These hierarchical porous catalysts (HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄) exhibit outstanding characteristics, particularly, in the degradation of Tetracycline Hydrochloride (TCH) under either total darkness or visible illumination. Experimental results demonstrate that TCH can be effectively degraded without externally supplied oxidant. Under dark conditions, 30 mg of the catalyst removed 99.92% of 50 mL 50 mg·L⁻¹ TCH in 30 min; under visible light, 99.95% degradation was achieved in just 20 min. The exceptional performance is attributed to high Cu(I) content which offer strong reducing power to activate O₂ to generate H₂O₂. Additionally, photoexcited electrons in g-C₃N₄ transfer to HKUST-1 via heterojunctions, which suppresses the recombination of electron-hole pairs in g-C₃N₄ and supplies extra electrons for the O₂ reduction in HKUST-1. This study not only presents ideas for designing highly efficient catalysts with self-produced H₂O₂ by activating O₂, but also proposes a practical pathway towards the development of AOPs for wastewater treatment.

1. Introduction

Antibiotics, as a class of highly effective antimicrobial agents, are widely used in the prevention and treatment of various human or animal diseases [1,2], in the promotion of individual growth, increase of crop yields, medical care, livestock production and aquaculture [3,4]. On the other hand, antibiotics generally have stable chemical structures and are resistant to biodegradation [5]. They can be excreted from organisms in an active form, accumulating within surface and groundwater, and the residues can reach µg·L⁻¹, which will cause long-term harm to human health [6]. Much worse, antibiotics can also inhibit the growth and development of aquatic species and disrupt the balance of the ecosystem [7]. Therefore, the development of methodologies to eliminate thoroughly and efficiently antibiotic residues in water bodies in an environmentally friendly manner has attracted widespread attention around

the world.

Currently, the conventional methods for removing antibiotics from water bodies mainly include biological treatment [8], chlorination treatment [9] and adsorption treatment [10]. All these methods have their disadvantages such as high cost, highly toxic by-products and low efficiency, which remains problematic in their applications [11]. In recent years, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) [12], an advanced wastewater treatment technology that uses strong oxidants to convert organic substances into inorganic ones, have been developed and applied in the degrading of antibiotics [13]. Its main mechanism is to generate strong oxidants which then degrade antibiotics and convert them into small-molecular substances. The efficiency of this method in removing antibiotics is several times better than that of the traditional treatment methods [14].

In the process of rapid development, AOPs are facing some

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difficulties and problems that need to be solved urgently [15]. They require a large amount of energy to generate sufficient active oxidants, and major parameters such as appropriate temperature, pH value and oxidant concentration is necessary to control to ensure the effectiveness and stability of the reaction. Furthermore, in practical application, they require to add external oxidants such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), peroxysulfate (PS) or peroxymonosulfate (PMS), which may leave residual oxidants and lead to greater costs of removing pollutants [16,17].

One of the promising solution involves utilizing semiconductor photocatalysts to generate H_2O_2 through photogenerated electron-mediated O_2 activation [18–20]. When photocatalysts are photoexcited, the generated electrons (e^-) and holes (h^+) can react with water or oxygen molecules to form reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$), and H_2O_2 . And another valuable approach involves utilizing the strong reducibility of nano zero-valent iron, aluminum, and copper to activate molecular oxygen, which can be used to generate ROS under light-free conditions [21,22]. In addition, metal-derived materials have also been employed for molecular oxygen activation [23]. It has been reported that a typical copper-based metal–organic framework (MOF) material, known as HKUST-1, can generate a mixture of $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ metal ions in a solution environment [24], and the reducing capability of $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ facilitates single-electron transfer to activate surface-adsorbed O_2 , leading to generate H_2O_2 [25]. And more, graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$), a semiconductor material of emerging distinctive advantages [26–28], has been used to form a heterostructure with another semiconductor to enhance photogenerated electron transfer efficiency through the interfacial effect of heterojunction, thereby improving molecular oxygen (O_2) activation performance. [29].

To explore the structural characteristics of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and HKUST-1 and their roles in molecular oxygen activation, we have investigated the composite combination of HKUST-1 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ via a combination of hydrothermal synthesis and decarboxylation modification. A series of heterogeneous porous (HP)-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with different mass ratios of HKUST-1 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and their structural and chemical characterization, and their performance and mechanism in the efficient degradation of TCH under darkness and visible illumination are investigated in detailed. Furthermore, a comparative study was conducted between synthesized HP-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in the present work and other MOF/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based photocatalysts to evaluate their catalytic efficiencies [30–35].

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

Melamine ($\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{N}_6$), $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, absolute ethanol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$), potassium iodide (KI) and isopropyl alcohol (IPA) were purchased from Kermel Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (Tianjin, China). 1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid (H_3BTC), p-Benzoquinone(p-BQ) were purchased from Macklin Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China). Tetracycline Hydrochloride (TCH) was purchased from Aladdin Reagent Co., Ltd. N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) was purchased from Tianli Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (Tianjin, China). Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid disodium (EDTA-2Na) was purchased from Kaitong Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (Tianjin, China). Potassium bromate (KBrO_3) was purchased from Aopusheng Chemical Co., Ltd (Tianjin, China). Potassium hydrogen phthalate ($\text{C}_8\text{H}_5\text{O}_4\text{K}$) was purchased from Baishi Chemical Co., Ltd (Tianjin, China). All chemicals were analytical grade and used without further purification.

2.2. Preparation of catalysts

The synthesis of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets. The $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheet structure has a higher quantum efficiency and photocatalytic activity than that of the original bulk structure [36–40]. The crucible containing

melamine was placed in a tube furnace (Boyuntong, TL1400, Nanjing, China) and heated at a rate of $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ in an air atmosphere to 550°C , then maintained for 4 h, and a large amount of block-shaped $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was prepared. Next, the prepared block-shaped $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was ground and then heated to 550°C under the same conditions for 2 h, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets were obtained.

The synthesis of HKUST-1. $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was added to 50 mL mixed solution (water: ethanol: DMF = 1: 1: 1), and stirred for 15 min, which was labelled as Solution I. Subsequently, H_3BTC was added to the Solution I to form Solution II, maintaining a 2:1 mass ratio between $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and H_3BTC . Then the Solution II was ultrasonically treated for 30 min, and after stirred ~ 6 h, it was transferred to a polytetrafluoroethylene reactor and heated at 90°C in a sealed hydrothermal autoclave for 12 h, a kind of bluish precipitate was obtained. Subsequently, HKUST-1 would be obtained after the precipitate being filtered, washed with ethanol several times and dried at 90°C in a vacuum drying oven for 12 h.

The synthesis of HP-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Firstly, HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composites with different ratios were prepared by hydrothermal method using $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets and HKUST-1, and these composites were labelled HK/CN-x, where “HK” stands for HKUST-1, “CN” stands for $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and “x” represents the mass fraction of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets which were 25%, 50% and 75%, denoted as HK/CN-25, HK/CN-50, and HK/CN-75, respectively. During this step, due to the negative charge of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets [41] in the solution and the positive charge on the surface of HKUST-1 [27,42], $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets and HKUST-1 formed a HK/CN heterostructure through electrostatic self-assembly and hydrothermal synthesis, resulting in $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets being coating on the HKUST-1. Then, the prepared HK/CN-x composites were subjected to a series of sequential treatments, i.e., decarboxylation, vacuum drying, and thermal treatment in a tube furnace under an air atmosphere. Finally, greenish powders, of HP-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composites (labelled as HP-HK/CN-x where “HP” again stands for “hierarchical porous”, namely, HP-HK/CN-25, HP-HK/CN-50 and HP-HK/CN-75, respectively) were obtained. Fig. 1 illustrates diagrammatically the main processes for the preparation of the HP-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterojunction composites.

2.3. Characterization

The crystallographic structure of the sample was analyzed by X-ray Diffraction (XRD) using a Bruker D8 ADVANCE X-ray diffractometer with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$) with the 2θ range from 10° to 80° . Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were collected on a Bruker INVENIO S spectrometer to determine the chemical structure. The morphologies of the sample were examined by a scanning electron microscopic (SEM, Thermo scientific, Apreo S), and a transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI, Tecnai G² F20). Energy Dispersive Spectrometer (EDS) was measured to detect the element composition of the sample. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy of the as-prepared samples were analyzed on an X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS, Thermo scientific, ESCALAB Xi⁺). The specific surface area and pore size distributions were analyzed by a Micromeritics adsorption analyzer (Micromeritics, Multi-station ASAP2460, USA). The optical properties of the materials were investigated by means of the diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS), using a SHIMADAZU (UV-3600Plus, Japan) spectrometer. The signals of active groups were detected by electron spin-resonance spectroscopy (ESR, Bruker, E500-9.5/12), where 5,5-Dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) aqueous solution was used as a paramagnetic species spin-trap agent. An Edinburgh FLS920 spectrophotometer equipped with a 450 W Xe lamp was employed to measure the Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the samples. The photocurrent spectra were recorded on a CHI 660E electrochemical system (Shanghai, China) equipped with three standard electrodes: Pt as the counter electrode and Ag/AgCl as the reference electrode, the sample as the working electrode, and Na_2SO_4 (0.5 M) as the electrolyte. Sample powder was dispersed in 5 mL of deionized water by sonication. The

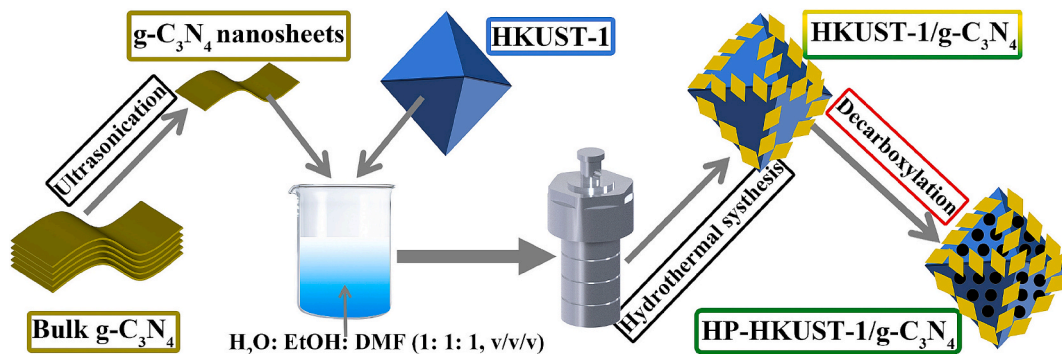


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure composite.

suspension was cover onto the surface of the fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass and dried under an infrared baking lamp to obtain the working electrode. A Xenon lamp (300 W) was used to simulate sunlight for photocurrent spectra measurement. Inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent, 7900ICP-MS) was employed to analyze the metal element content in the solution.

2.4. Catalytic function

The degradation of TCH by HP-HK/CN was investigated in dark and under illumination with a visible light source ($400 < \lambda < 780$ nm) (NBeT, HSX-F300, Beijing, China). Firstly, the catalysts (20/30/50 mg) were added respectively to TCH solution (50 mL, $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$), and the catalytic activities of the materials were tested in a dedicated lighttight enclosure (see Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Materials for more details) under two conditions, i.e., maintained in total darkness for 30 min; exposed to visible illumination for 20 min at 25°C . During this period, 2.5 mL of the solution was collected at 5 min time intervals, and the

collected samples were centrifuged and the supernatant was taken. Then, the absorbance of TCH at the characteristic absorption wavelength of 357 nm was detected using an ultramicro spectrophotometer (Denovix, DS-11, USA). All tests were repeated three times to ensure accuracy. In addition, pure g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ were used instead of HP- HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ as the controls. The absorbance is directly proportional to the concentration, and the degradation efficiency can be expressed as $(A_0 - A)/A_0 \times 100\%$, where A_0 represents the initial absorbance of the solution and A denotes the absorbance at different time intervals.

2.5. Hydrogen peroxide production

The amount of H₂O₂ produced by the catalyst was measured by iodometry [43]. Specifically, 30 mg of the catalyst was added to pure water, and at 5 min time interval, 3 mL of the suspension was taken, centrifuged, and the supernatant was collected. Potassium hydrogen phthalate ($\text{C}_8\text{H}_5\text{KO}_4$, 1 mL, $0.1 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) was added to the above solution

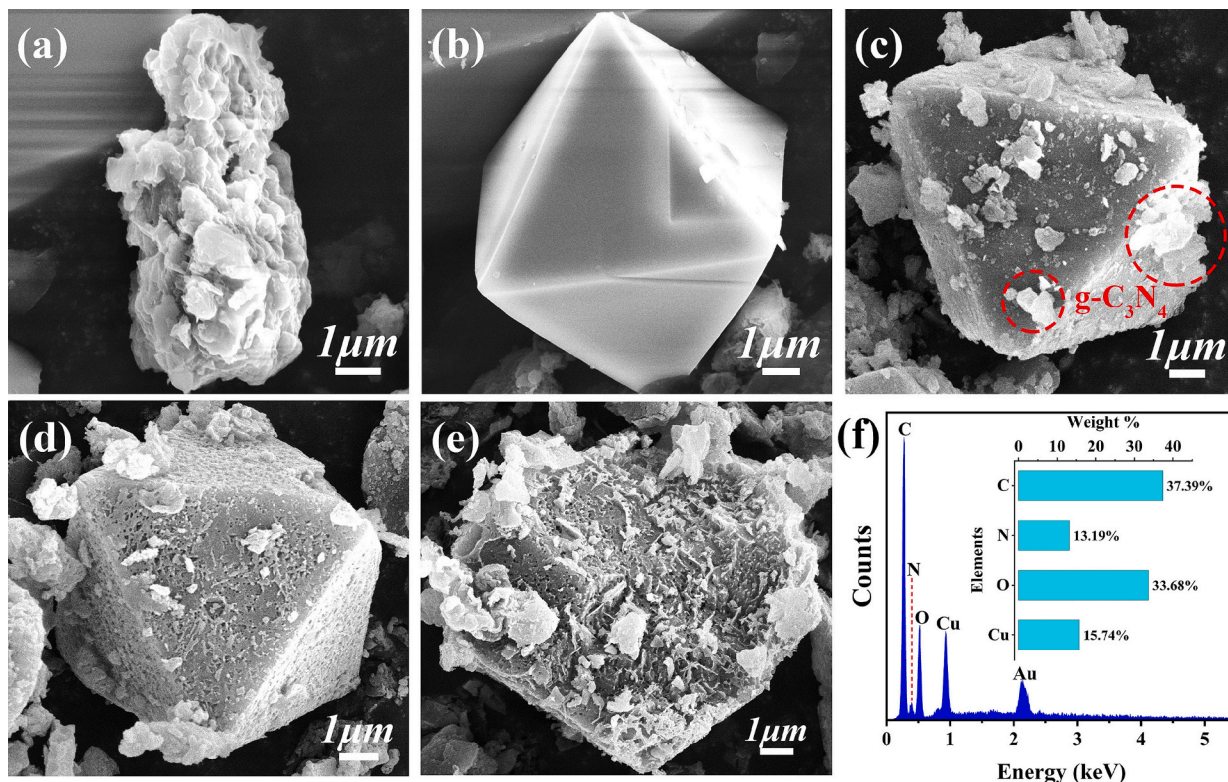


Fig. 2. Microstructure and morphology of the heterostructure composite. (a–e) SEM images of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1, HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ and broken HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. (f) EDS of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄.

to maintain the acidic environment of the solution, forming solution 1. Then, KI (1 mL, 0.4 mol·L⁻¹) was added to solution 1 and kept for 30 min. H₂O₂ can react with I⁻ to form I₃⁻ (H₂O₂ + 3I⁻ + 2H⁺ → I₃⁻ + 2H₂O), and the absorbance of I₃⁻ can be measured at its characteristic peak (350 nm) by an ultraviolet–visible spectrophotometer (Denovix, DS-11, USA).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Morphology and structure

In Fig. 2 typical sample microstructure images and composition analysis are shown. Fig. 2a shows the two-dimensional overlapping sheet structure of bulk g-C₃N₄, Fig. 2b, the octahedral shape of HKUST-1 crystals, and Fig. 2c, the HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ formed by attaching g-C₃N₄ nanosheets on the surface of the HKUST-1. It can be observed from Fig. 2d and the high-resolution SEM image (Fig. S1, Supplementary materials) that, compared with HKUST-1 and HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, many new mesopores and macropores have been formed on the surface of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, indicating that the hierarchical porous structure has been successfully constructed. And the image of the broken HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 2e) is suggestive that the interior of the crystal has also become more porous. To further elucidate the microstructure of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) was employed to obtain detailed structural information, particularly regarding the interfacial contact between HKUST-1 and g-C₃N₄. As shown in Fig. S2 (Supplementary materials), g-C₃N₄ with a (002) lattice spacing of 0.32 nm was distributed on the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ surface. HRTEM measurements show lattice fringes of ~0.25 nm in HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ corresponding to the (111) plane of Cu(I)/Cu(II), while the decarboxylated HKUST-1 appears amorphous. Fig. 2f is the Energy Dispersive Spectrometer (EDS) spectrum analysis of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, showing that HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ contains four elements: C, N, O, and Cu (Au

was added to enhance the conductivity of the sample) and indicating that g-C₃N₄ nanosheets and HKUST-1 have been successfully combined.

The porosity of the samples is further studied by nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms. It can be seen from Fig. 3a–c that the adsorption–desorption isotherms of all samples belong to the hybrid of type I and IV isotherms [44], indicating that g-C₃N₄ and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ are of mesoporous materials. Furthermore, the isotherms of g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 3a) and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 3c) display H3-type [35] adsorption hysteresis loops, indicating that g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ have mesoporous and macroporous structures caused by their layered structure; while the isotherm of HKUST-1 has an H4-type [45] adsorption hysteresis loop, indicating that there are a large number of microporous in the HKUST-1. Fig. 3d shows the corresponding pore size distribution patterns.

The parameters on specific surface area, pore volume and pore diameter of the samples calculated by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) methods [46] are listed in Table 1.

Table 1
Specific surface area, pore size and pore volume of the g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄.

Sample	Specific surface area (m ² /g) ^a	Pore/Micropore volume (cc/g) ^b	Average pore diameter (nm) ^c
g-C ₃ N ₄	22.7569	0.148283/0.001084	17.0653
HKUST-1	1,200.3170	0.122610/0.514904	4.5195
HP-HKUST-1/g-C ₃ N ₄	28.2505	0.122765/0.005182	19.9657

^a The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area;

^b Pore volume measured under the condition of P/P₀ = 0.99;

^c The Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) pore size from desorption branch of isotherm.

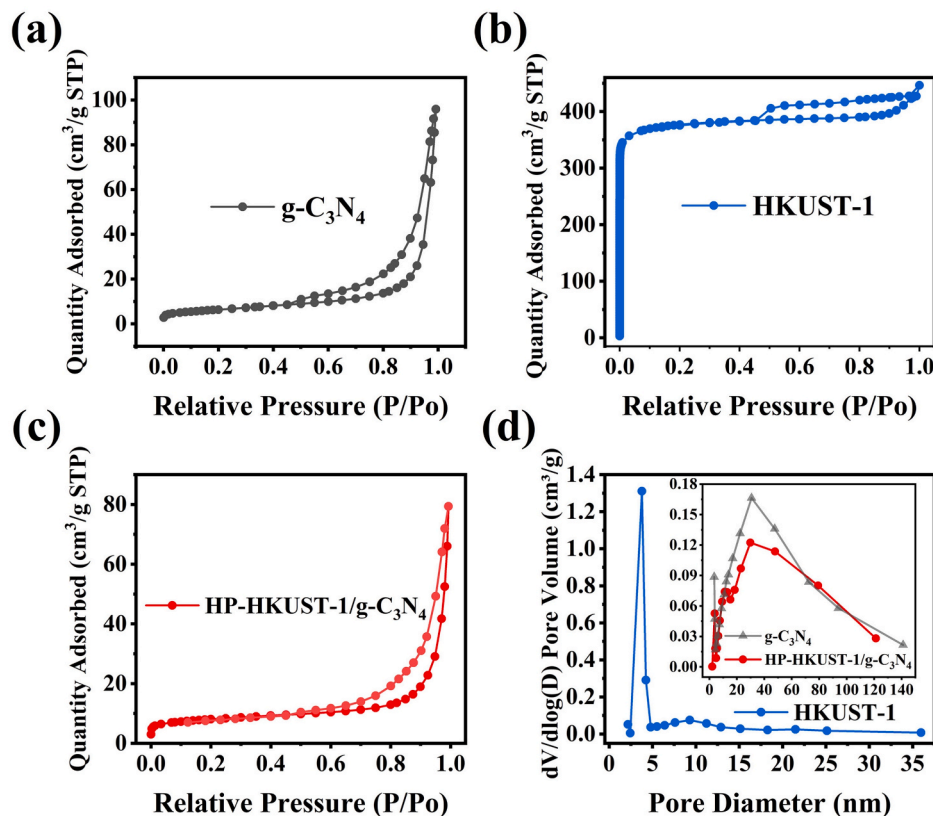


Fig. 3. Porous properties of the heterostructure composite. (a–c) N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. (d) Pore size distributions of HKUST-1, g-C₃N₄ and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. The g-C₃N₄ content in the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ composite was 50 wt%.

It can be seen from Table 1 that the specific surface area and micropore volume of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ after decarboxylation are much smaller than that of HKUST-1, indicating that the micropores of the modified HKUST-1 have mostly been transformed into mesopores and macropores. In addition, the increase in the average pore diameter of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ also indicates that a hierarchical porous structure has been established.

Fig. 4 shows the X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) pattern and Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) reflecting the crystal structure and chemical structure of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄.

As shown in Fig. 4a, the characteristic peaks of XRD of HKUST-1 and g-C₃N₄ at 11.83°, 17.32°, 19.24°, 26.15° and 27.69° can be observed in that of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ samples with different percentage weight of HKUST-1 and are also presented in that of the HK/CN-50 sample. The peak at 27.69° is attributed to the (002) crystal plane of g-C₃N₄, which is produced by the interlayer stacking. And the distinct peaks at 11.83°, 17.32°, 19.24° and 26.15° correspond to the four diffraction peaks of (222), (551), (440) and (731) crystal planes of HKUST-1 (CCDC 943008), respectively [47,48]. The relative intensity of the diffraction peaks of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ varies with the mass ratio of the g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1. The characteristic peaks of HKUST-1 in the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ spectra did not shift, nor new peak was observed, indicating that the original crystal structure was unaltered during the preparation of the composites. Compared with both HKUST-1 and HK/CN-50, the peak value of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ at the (222) crystal plane decreased significantly, which is attributable to that the effect of the decarboxylation process. As the coordination bonds between the organic ligand H₃BTC and the metal clusters were broken, there is an increase in the mesoporous density and size generated in the (222) plane surface [49]. The expansion of pore and the distortion of some lattice units of the framework result in a reduction in the overall intensity of the diffraction peaks of the composites. The characteristic peak (100) at 13.16° of g-C₃N₄ cannot be clearly observed in the XRD pattern of the heterojunction composites, which may be attributed to the decrease in the size of the lamellar structure caused by the stripping of bulk g-C₃N₄ into nanosheets [50].

In Fig. 4b, the FT-IR absorption spectra of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ are displayed. It can be observed that HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ samples have six strong absorption peaks located at 1643 cm⁻¹, 1585 cm⁻¹, 1447 cm⁻¹, 1374 cm⁻¹, 808 cm⁻¹ and 730 cm⁻¹. The absorption peaks at 1643 cm⁻¹, 1585 cm⁻¹, 1447 cm⁻¹ and 1374 cm⁻¹ belong to the symmetric and asymmetric vibrations of the carboxy groups in HKUST-1 [51]. The sharp peak at 808 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the breathing vibration mode of tris-s-triazine units, and those strong bands in the 1200–1600 cm⁻¹ region attributed to the stretching vibration of the C–N heterocycle [52].

The absorption peak at 730 cm⁻¹ is a strong and sharp characteristic peak of Cu–O, which is attributed to the coordination bond formed between Cu²⁺ and the –COOH of H₃BTC in HKUST-1 [53]. And the broad peak around 3000–3500 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the stretching vibration of N–H or hydroxyl groups in adsorbed water molecules [54].

Fig. 5 shows the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) reflecting the chemical composition and bonding characteristics of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. The chemical structures corresponding to each peak in the XPS spectrum are summarized in Table 2.

The XPS survey spectrum of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 5a) shows the photoelectron peaks featured in both g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1, consistent with the EDS results (Fig. 2f). For the C 1s spectra (Fig. 5b) the two peaks associated with the C=O and C–O bonds in the carboxy group of HKUST-1 are not clearly resolved for the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ sample, showing the effectiveness of the decarboxylation process [23]. The HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ C 1s spectrum was dominated by the sp²-hybridized carbon (N=C=N) in the nitrogen-containing aromatic rings of g-C₃N₄ and the C–C bond from the amorphous carbon of g-C₃N₄ and the benzene ring of the HKUST-1 [30,45,55]. The N 1s spectrum (Fig. 5c) of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ can be resolved into two peaks corresponding to that of tris-s-triazine units (C–N=C) and amino functional groups (C–N–H) on g-C₃N₄ [55], whilst the shake-up satellite owing to π electron excitation in g-C₃N₄ is not observed [56]. The O 1s spectrum of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ shows the main peak featured in that of HKUST-1, but the O–H bond is not resolved, suggesting a decrease in water molecules adsorption to the surface of HKUST-1 [25] (Fig. 5d). For the Cu 2p spectra (Fig. 5e), HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ exhibits significantly reduced peak intensities for Cu(II) and its satellite compared to HKUST-1, while the Cu(I) peak shows marked enhancement, which is consistent with the decarboxylation process as the coordination bonds (Cu–O) in HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ are mostly broken, exposing more metal active sites and resulting in a significant increase in the content of Cu(I). This indicates a substantially higher Cu(I) proportion in HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. Furthermore, Cu LMM Auger spectra (Fig. S3, Supplementary materials) have been included to further elucidate the distribution of copper species in both materials. The peak intensity of Cu(I)/Cu(II) indicate that HKUST-1 is composed of Cu(II), while Cu(I) is the main component in the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. The Cu LMM Auger analysis further confirms HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄'s elevated Cu(I) content versus HKUST-1, endowing it with superior reducing capability and enhanced Cu²⁺/Cu⁺ interconversion that boosts ROS generation [21,57]. The valence band X-ray photoelectron spectra (VB-XPS) of HKUST-1 and g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 5f) allow the valence band edge to be determined for both materials. The valence band maxima (VBM) of g-C₃N₄ and the highest occupied orbital potential of HKUST-1 are determined to be 2.13 eV and

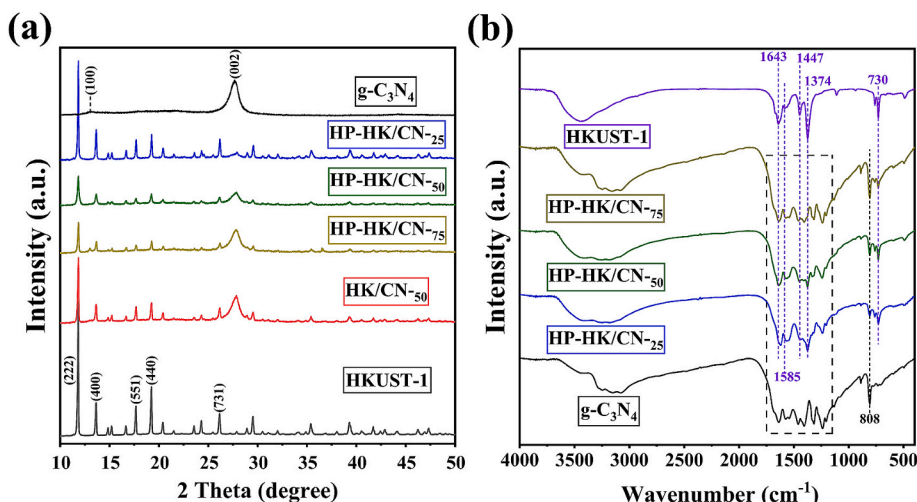


Fig. 4. (a) XRD spectra of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1, HK/CN-50 and HP-HK/CN-x; (b) FTIR spectra of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-x.

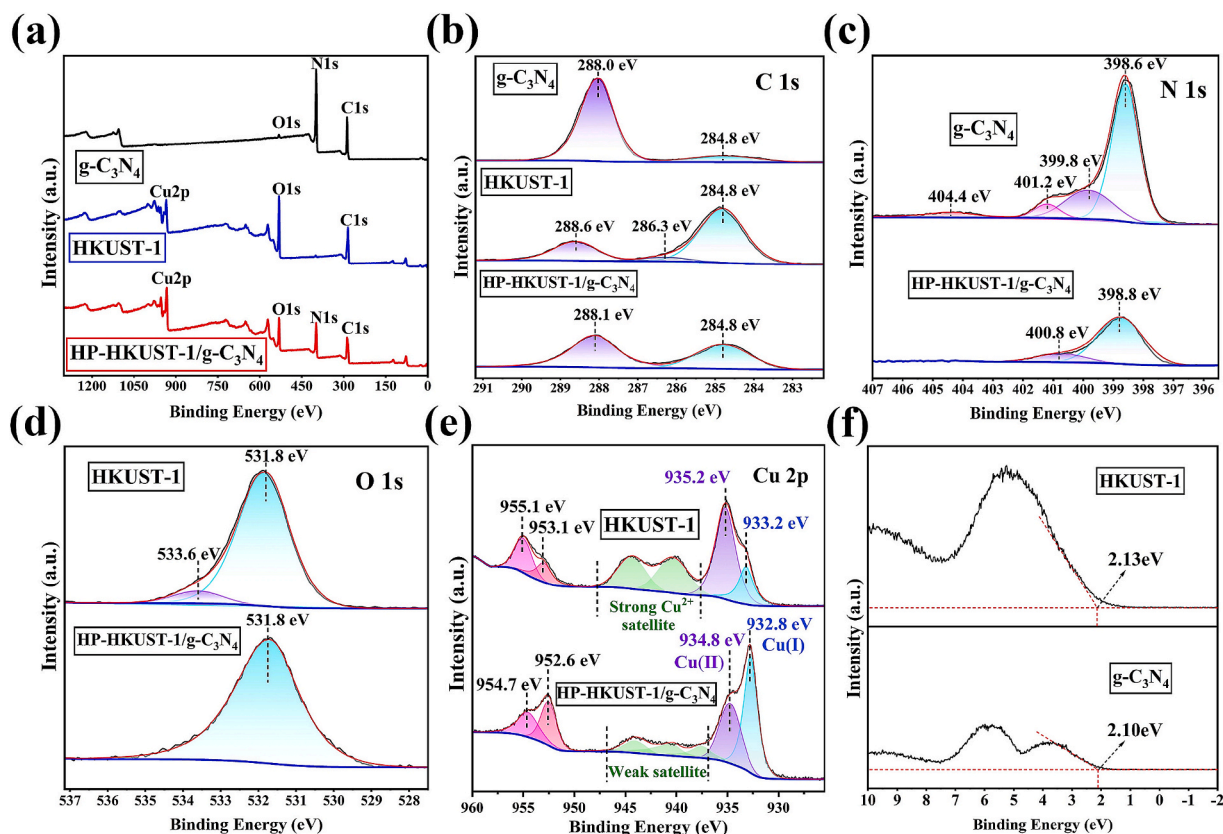


Fig. 5. Composition and bonding characteristics. (a) XPS spectra of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄; (b) XPS C 1 s, (c) N 1 s, (d) O 1 s and (e) Cu 2p spectra; (f) Valence-band XPS spectra of g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1. The g-C₃N₄ content in the HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ composite was 50 wt%.

Table 2

Photoelectron spectra binding energies and chemical states assigned for the samples g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄.

Peak	Binding energy (eV)	Chemical state
C 1s	284.8	C—C (from the amorphous carbon of g-C ₃ N ₄) [55], C—C & C—H (from the sp ² -hybridized carbon of benzene rings of HKUST-1) [45]
	286.3	C—O (from the carboxy group of HKUST-1) [23]
	288.0, 288.1	N—C=N (from the sp ² -hybridized carbon of g-C ₃ N ₄) [55]
	288.6	C=O (from the carboxy group of HKUST-1) [45]
N 1s	398.6, 398.8	C—N=C (from the tris-s-triazine units of g-C ₃ N ₄) [55]
	399.8	N—C ₃ , H—N—C ₂ (from the pyrrolic nitrogen of g-C ₃ N ₄) [55]
	400.8, 401.2	C—N—H (from amino functional groups of g-C ₃ N ₄) [55]
	404.4	the excitation of π electrons [56]
O 1s	531.8	adsorbed O ₂ (from the HKUST-1) [23]
	533.6	O—H (from the adsorbed H ₂ O of HKUST-1) [23]
Cu	932.8, 933.2,	Cu(I) [57]
	952.6, 953.1	
	934.8, 935.2,	Cu(II) (from Cu—O coordination bond of HKUST-1) [57]
	954.7, 955.1	
	936.0–947.0	Cu ²⁺ satellite [57]

2.10 eV, respectively, indicating that g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1 have similar valence band positions and comparable oxidation capabilities.

3.2. Optical and photoelectrochemical properties

Fig. 6 shows the ultraviolet–visible diffuse reflection spectrum (UV–vis DRS) and Photoluminescence (PL) spectra reflecting the photoresponse capability of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄. Fig. 6a displays the

UV–vis DRS spectra of the samples. Compared with g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1, the light absorption edge of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ has a significant red shift, which might be attributed to the construction of heterojunction between g-C₃N₄ nanosheets and HKUST-1, leading to a change in band structure of the composite. The relationship between the absorption coefficient α and the incident photon energy, $h\nu$, is reflected by the Tauc formula [32]: $\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^{2/n}$, where E_g represents the bandgap and the constant n is determined by the semiconductor transition properties. The formula can be used to estimate the bandgap. As shown in Fig. 6b and c, the band gaps of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1, HP-HK/CN-25, HP-HK/CN-50, and HP-HK/CN-75 are 2.77 eV, 2.56 eV, 2.64 eV, 2.06 eV, and 2.63 eV, respectively. The band gap of HP-HK/CN-50 ($E_g = 2.06$ eV) is much smaller than that of other samples, indicating that HP-HK/CN-50 has the best photoresponse characteristics.

To investigate further the band structure of the HP-HK/CN-50 heterojunction, both of the conduction band potential (E_{CB}) and valence band potential (E_{VB}) of g-C₃N₄ and the molecular orbital potential of HKUST-1 can be calculated with the following formula [58]: $E_{VB,NHE} = \phi + E_{VB} - 4.44$; $E_{VB} = E_{CB} - E_g$, where ϕ represents the instrumental work function of XPS (e.g., 4.75 eV) and $E_{VB,XPS}$ is obtained from the VB-XPS spectrum (Fig. 5f). The E_{VB} and E_{CB} of g-C₃N₄ relative to the standard hydrogen electrode (NHE) were calculated to be 2.41 V and −0.36 V, respectively. And the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) potentials vs NHE of HKUST-1 were calculated to be 2.44 V and −0.12 V, respectively.

Fig. 6d shows the PL spectra of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-50. Generally speaking, the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers is negatively correlated with the intensity of PL [44]. In the PL spectra, strong peaks can be observed for g-C₃N₄ and HKUST-1 at 466 nm (with an excitation wavelength of 325 nm), which can be attributed to the recombination of electron-hole pairs. However, the PL spectrum of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ shows a fluorescent quenching effect, and the

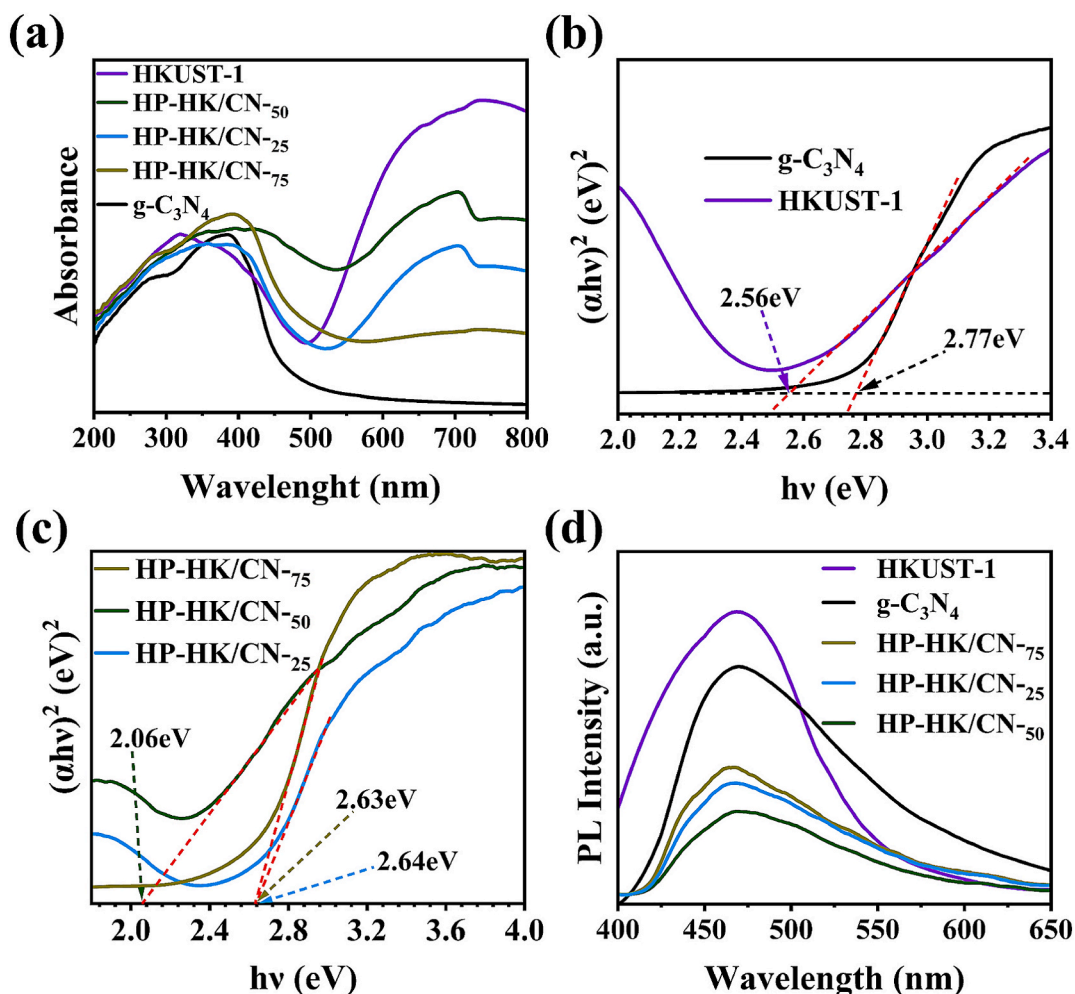


Fig. 6. (a) UV-vis DRS spectrum, (b) and (c) Tauc plots and (d) PL spectra of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, HKUST-1 and HP-HKUST-1/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

fluorescence intensity of HP-HK/CN-50 is weaker than that of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, HKUST-1, HP-HK/CN-25 and HP-HK/CN-75, indicating that the heterojunction interface formed between $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and HKUST-1 accelerates the transfer of photogenerated electrons, and the HP-HK/CN-50 has excellent electron-hole separation capability.

To understand further the separation and recombination behavior of photogenerated carriers, the Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) and transient photocurrent response curves of the composite materials were also investigated. Shown in Fig. 7a are the Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) results. The Nyquist plots could be fitted with the simplified equivalent circuit model as shown in the inset of Fig. 7a. In the equivalent circuit, R_1 represents electrolyte ohmic resistance, R_2 represents the charge transfer resistance, which reflects the resistance to charge transfer between the electrode surface and reactants in the solution, CPE represents the constant phase element and W stand for Warburg element, respectively.

Relevant research has indicated that the smaller the arc diameter in the Nyquist plot, the smaller the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) at the semiconductor-electrolyte interface, and the higher the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers and the interface charge transfer efficiency [31]. As shown in Fig. 7a, the arc radius of HP-HK/CN-50 in the EIS spectrum is smaller than that of HKUST-1 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, indicating that HP-HK/CN-50 can accelerate charge transfer through heterojunction. Fig. 7b shows the transient photocurrent response curves of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-50. It can be seen that HP-HK/CN-50 has the strongest photocurrent, indicating that HP-HK/CN-50 has a higher photogenerated carrier separation efficiency and lifetime under light

irradiation than that of the raw materials, namely, HKUST-1 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Furthermore, HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-50 exhibit relatively high dark current intensities, which is related to their strong reducing property.

In Fig. 7c, d, it can be observed that the tangent slopes of the Mott-Schottky curves of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and HKUST-1 are all positive, indicating that they have n-type semiconductor characteristics. Moreover, the flat band potentials (V_{fb}) of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and HKUST-1 relative to the Ag/AgCl electrode are -0.65 V and -0.42 V, respectively. Since the E_{CB} of the n-type semiconductor is usually 0.3 V smaller than the V_{fb} [59], thus the E_{CB} of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and E_{LUMO} of HKUST-1 are -0.95 V and -0.72 V, respectively. Based on the formula [60]: $E_{NHE} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + E_{Ag/AgCl}^0 + 0.059 \times \text{pH} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + 0.61$ ($E_{Ag/AgCl}^0 = 0.197$ V), the conduction band potential ($E_{CB,NHE}$) of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and the LUMO orbital potential ($E_{LUMO,NHE}$) of HKUST-1 are estimated to be -0.34 V and -0.11 V respectively, which are in general agreement with the previously determined values ($E_{CB,NHE} = -0.36$ V, $E_{LUMO,NHE} = -0.12$ V).

3.3. Catalytic degradation of tetracycline with and without illumination

Fig. 8 shows the TCH degradation performance of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, HKUST-1, HK/CN-50, HP-HK/CN-25, HP-HK/CN-50, and HP-HK/CN-75 without and with visible illumination. As shown in Fig. 8a, the HP-HKUST-1/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composite catalysts can degrade TCH in a dark environment, and the degradation effect of the composites varies with the content and proportion of the original components. Furthermore, the HP-HK/CN-50 has the best removal capacity in darkness.

Fig. 8b shows the degradation kinetic curves of HP-HK/CN-x, which

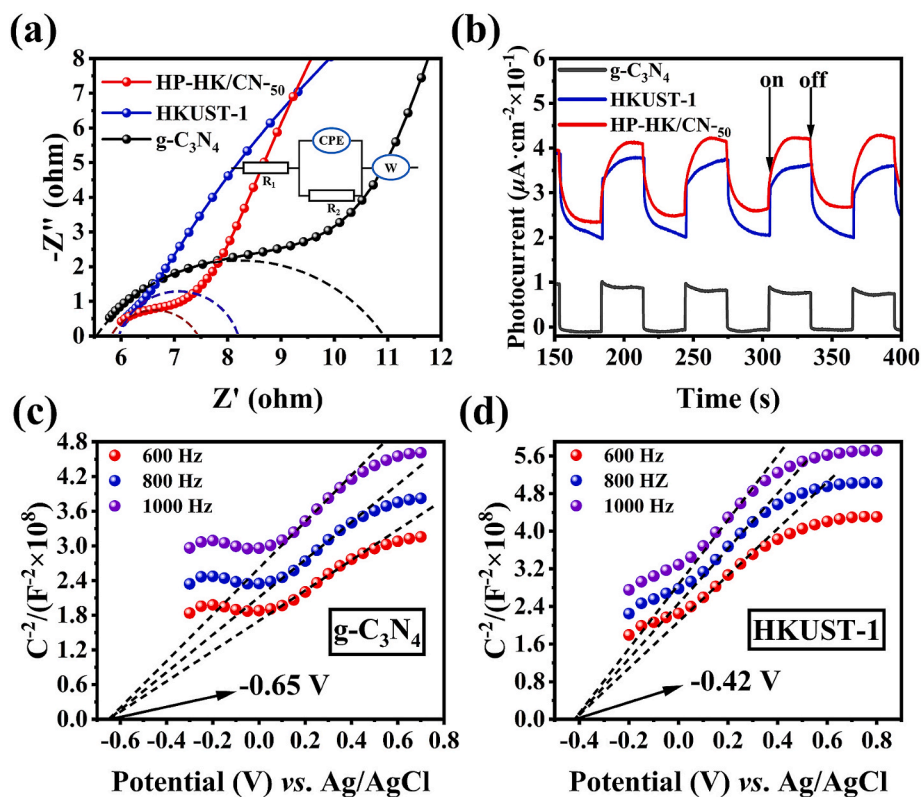


Fig. 7. (a) The Electrochemical impedance spectra shown as the Nyquist plots; (b) transient photocurrent responses of $g-C_3N_4$, HKUST-1 and that of HP-HK/CN-50; (c) Mott-Schottky plots of $g-C_3N_4$ and (d) that of HKUST-1.

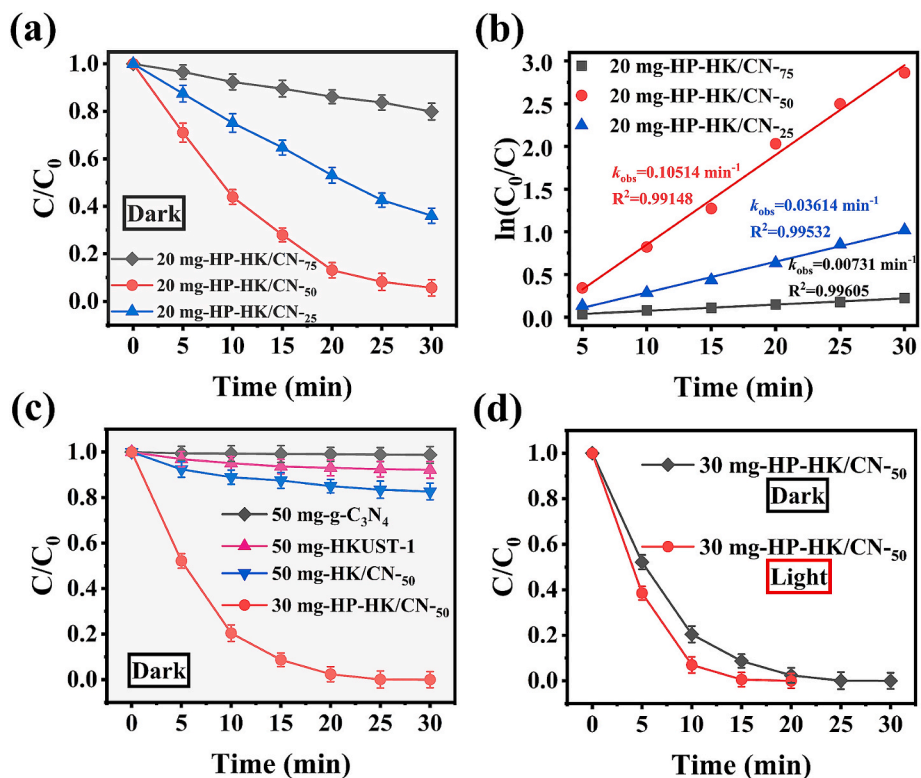


Fig. 8. (a) The degradation rate of TCH by 20 mg HP-HK/CN-x in the darkness; (b) The pseudo-first-order kinetics diagram of 20 mg HP-HK/CN-x; (c) The degradation rate of TCH by 50 mg $g-C_3N_4$, HKUST-1, HK/CN-50 and 30 mg HP-HK/CN-50 in the darkness; (d) The degradation rate of TCH by 30 mg HP-HK/CN-50 in darkness and under visible illumination. Experimental condition: TCH quantity = 50 mL of $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ concentration solution at 25°C .

conform to the pseudo-first-order kinetic equation: $\ln(C_0/C) = kt$, where C_0 represents the initial TCH concentration and C represents the TCH concentration at time t [5]. It can be found that HP-HK/CN-50 has the largest kinetic constant k value (0.10514 min^{-1}), which is about 14 times and 3 times that of HP-HK/CN-75 (0.00731 min^{-1}) and HP-HK/CN-25 (0.03614 min^{-1}), respectively. HP-HK/CN-50 ($m_{\text{HKUST-1}} : m_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4} = 1:1$) has been shown to have the strongest catalytic ability to degrade TCH.

A comparison of the degradation efficiency of TCH in darkness (Fig. 8c) shows that 30 mg of HP-HK/CN-50 achieved 99.92% degradation after 30 min, whereas 50 mg of g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1, and HK/CN-50 show significantly lower efficiencies of 1.24%, 7.78%, and 17.36%, respectively.

In Fig. 8d, the degradation efficiencies are shown for 30 mg HP-HK/CN-50 either in darkness or under visible illumination. Under visible illumination, the degradation efficiency of HP-HK/CN-50 reached 99.95% within 20 min. To achieve similar degradation efficiency in darkness, an extra 10 min reaction time is required. HP-HK/CN-50 exhibits the best performance in removing TCH, compared to MOF/g-C₃N₄ catalysts recently reported (see Table 3).

3.4. Degradation mechanism of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄

The excellent antibiotic degradation performance of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ is mainly attributed to the following processes:

- (A) The synergistic effects among micropores, mesopores, and macropores optimize the mass transfer efficiency of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ and expose more Cu(I)/Cu(II) active sites. As shown in Fig. 9a-d, which are SEM images of HKUST-1 and HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ after thermal treatment and decarboxylation, respectively, it can be clearly seen that after decarboxylation, HKUST-1 and HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ formed a hierarchical porous structure, which is consistent with the result shown in Fig. 2d, indicating that the composite has a new kind of porous morphological structure after decarboxylation. Fig. 9e shows the decarboxylation process in HKUST-1, illustrating that during the decarboxylation, the coordination bonds and carboxyl groups in HKUST-1 are broken and peeled off, respectively, accompanied by the generation of CO₂ gas, thereby the original microporous structure is transformed into mesoporous as well as macroporous structures. Mesopores and macropores within hierarchical porous structure enhance mass transfer for storing and separating large molecules, whilst micropores make contributions to the high surface area and host-guest interactions [61]. Furthermore, the XPS results in Fig. 5e and Cu LMM Auger spectra in Fig. S3 (Supplementary materials) demonstrate that the decarboxylated composite achieves a higher Cu(I)/Cu(II) ratio by exposing more active sites. Thermodynamically, since the standard electrode potential of

$\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ (0.160 V vs NHE) is more negative than that of $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ (0.695 V vs NHE) [25], HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ can spontaneously reduce O_2 to H_2O_2 through electron transfer (Eq. (1) and Eq. (2)).



- (B) Owing to its superior reducing capability derived from the high Cu(I)/Cu(II) ratio, HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ can generate abundant ROS such as $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and H_2O_2 through multiple pathways under dark conditions, which are used to efficiently remove TCH. The performance of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ in generating active species in darkness can be verified by electron spin resonance (ESR) (Fig. 10). Both DMPO- $\cdot\text{OH}$ and DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ signals were detected (Fig. 10a, b) for the HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-50 containing samples, and the intensity of the DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ signal corresponding to that of HP-HK/CN-50 was much stronger than that of HKUST-1, whilst no signals were observed in the spectrum of g-C₃N₄. The ESR results demonstrate that the Cu(I) content is positively correlated with molecular oxygen activation capability. Compared to pristine HKUST-1, HP-HK/CN-50 generates significantly more ROS.

In the darkness, the $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ generated in HP-HK/CN-50 can be produced through three pathways: the first is through the single-electron redox pathway (Eq. (1) and Eq. (3)); the second is the decomposition of H_2O_2 (Eq. (4)) and Eq. (5); the third is that H_2O_2 has a Fenton-like reaction with Cu^+ or Cu^{2+} to generate $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Eq. (6) and Eq. (7)).



- (C) Under visible illumination, HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ utilizes the interfacial effects of its heterojunction to enhance the transfer efficiency of photogenerated electrons, thereby promoting the single-electron reduction of O_2 and further improving the self-production efficiency of H_2O_2 . The combined analysis of PL spectra (Fig. 6d), EIS spectra (Fig. 7a), and transient photocurrent responses (Fig. 7b) demonstrates that HP-HK/CN-50 achieves

Table 3

Comparison of TCH degradation efficiency under visible illumination achieved by the reported MOF/g-C₃N₄-based photocatalysts.

Catalyst/Dosage (g·L ⁻¹)	C ₀ -TCH (mg·L ⁻¹) /Dosage (mL)	Time (Dark ^d /Light) (min)	1st cycle efficiency (%)	Degradation rate ^e (mg _{TCH} ·g ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹)	Ref
MOF-Co/g-C ₃ N ₄ with PMS/0.2	20/250	30/60	90.20	1.00	[30]
Co/Mn-MOF-74@g-C ₃ N ₄ with PMS/0.5	40/100	30/60	94.00	0.84	[31]
MOF-Fe/Co/boron-doped g-C ₃ N ₄ with PS/0.3	60/50	30/40	97.50	2.79	[32]
Fe-based MOF@g-C ₃ N ₄ with H ₂ O ₂ /0.5	40/100	30/60	92.00	0.82	[33]
MIL-Fe(53)/modified g-C ₃ N ₄ with H ₂ O ₂ /0.375	30/80	30/60	100.00	0.89	[34]
(Zr/Ce)UiO-66(NH ₂)@g-C ₃ N ₄ /0.2	10/100	60/120	98.00	0.27	[35]
HP-HKUST-1/g-C ₃ N ₄ /0.6	50/50	0 ^f /20	99.95	4.16	this work

^d The time of achieving adsorption-desorption equilibrium in darkness.

^e The degradation rate is defined as the amount of TCH degraded per gram of catalyst per minute.

^f HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ demonstrates efficient TCH degradation capability in darkness, thereby eliminating the necessity for adsorption-desorption equilibrium.

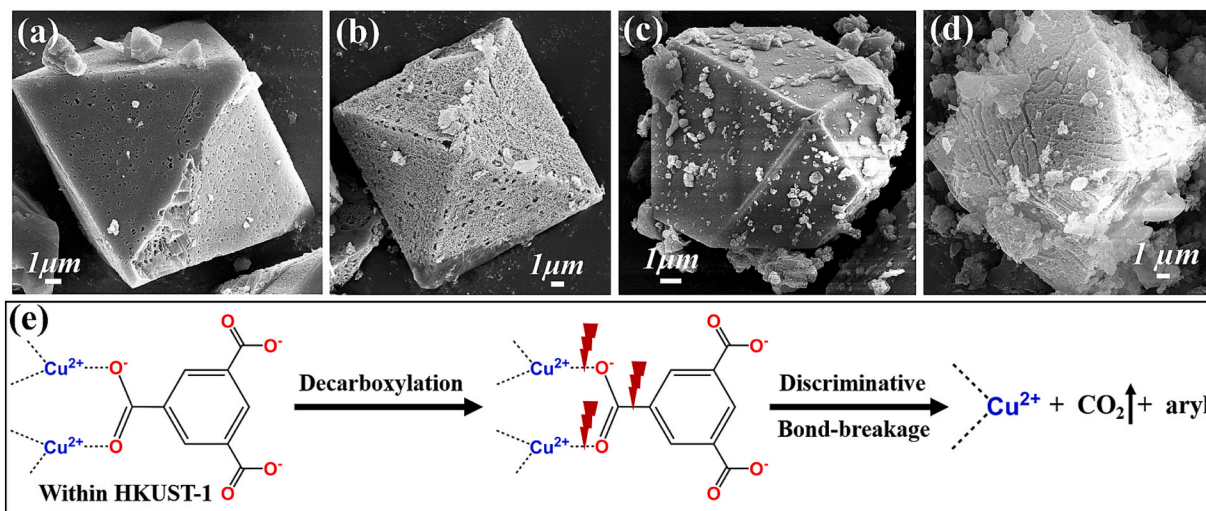


Fig. 9. (a-d) SEM images of (a) HKUST-1 with thermal treatment, (b) HKUST-1 with decarboxylation, (c) HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ with thermal treatment and (d) HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄; (e) Decarboxylation process within HKUST-1.

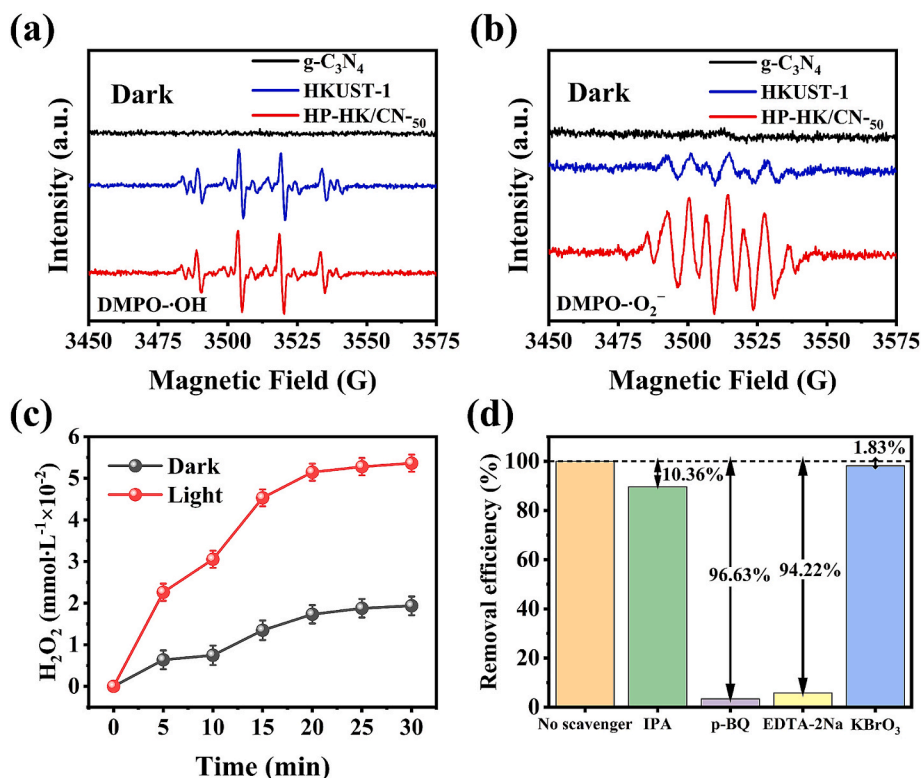


Fig. 10. (a-b) The ESR spectra of (a) DMPO-OH signal and (b) DMPO-O₂⁻ signal for g-C₃N₄, HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN₅₀ in darkness; (c) The yields of H₂O₂ using HP-HK/CN₅₀ as catalyst in darkness and under visible illumination; (d) Reactive species trapping experiments of HP-HK/CN₅₀ under visible illumination. Experiment conditions: [catalyst dosage] = 30 mg, 25 °C.

exceptional electron-hole separation efficiency and extended charge carrier lifetimes through heterojunction formation. This dual enhancement enables superior photocatalytic performance and facilitates photoelectron-assisted molecular oxygen activation. The catalytic performance of HP-HK/CN₅₀ under visible illumination can be further evaluated by detecting the content of H₂O₂ and capturing the active species. It is worth noting that, as shown in Fig. 10c, the HP-HK/CN₅₀ can detect H₂O₂ under both darkness and visible illumination, and the H₂O₂ concentration under visible illumination is higher than that in darkness. the

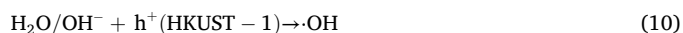
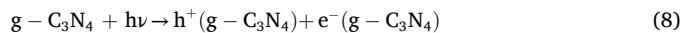
reasons are that the photogenerated electrons produced by g-C₃N₄ can be transferred to the LUMO level of HKUST-1 through the heterojunction interface, which inhibits the recombination of photogenerated carriers in g-C₃N₄, and thus generating a large number of photogenerated holes for the degradation of TCH. Meanwhile, the valence state change between Cu²⁺ and Cu⁺ is accelerated by the photogenerated electrons migrating to HKUST-1 from g-C₃N₄, providing sufficient electrons for the reduction of O₂ in HKUST-1, enhancing the efficiency of self-

produced H_2O_2 and generating a large amount of ROS for the degradation of TCH.

As shown in Fig. 10d, to determine the main active species during the degradation of TCH by HP-HK/CN-50 under visible illumination, IPA, p-BQ, EDTA-2Na and KBrO_3 were used to capture $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, h^+ and e^- , respectively. It can be seen that without a scavenger, the photocatalytic degradation efficiency of TCH by HP-HK/CN-50 within 20 min is nearly 100%. When adding a certain amount of IPA and KBrO_3 , the degradation efficiency of TCH only decreased by 10.36% and 1.83%, respectively, indicating that the influence of $\bullet\text{OH}$ and e^- on the degradation of TCH is relatively small; while after respectively adding an appropriate amount of p-BQ and EDTA-2Na, the degradation efficiency of TCH was significantly inhibited, inferring that the $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ and h^+ are the most dominant generated active species.

Fig. 11 is a schematic diagram illustrating the detailed mechanism of the synergistic effect between photocatalysis, molecular oxygen activation to produce H_2O_2 and Fenton-like reaction in the degradation of TCH of the HP-HK/CN-50 system. As shown in Fig. 11, the band potentials of the composite material and its molecular oxygen activation performance under visible illumination elucidate the primary reactive species generation pathways during TCH degradation by HP-HK/CN-50. On the one hand, since $E_{\text{g}(\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4)} = 2.77 \text{ eV}$, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be excited by visible light ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) to generate electron and hole pairs (Eq. (8)). The conduction band position of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ($E_{\text{CB}} = -0.36 \text{ V vs NHE}$) is more negative than that of $\text{O}_2/\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ (-0.33 V vs NHE), and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can theoretically generate $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ (Eq. (9)). However, the DMPO- $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ signal of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was not detected in darkness (Fig. 10b), so, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ solely generates $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ through the reduction of O_2 by photogenerated electrons under visible illumination (Eq. (1)). On the other hand, the LUMO potential of HKUST-1 ($E_{\text{LUMO}} = -0.12 \text{ V vs NHE}$) is higher than the redox potential of $\text{O}_2/\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ (-0.33 V vs NHE), and thus HKUST-1 cannot theoretically reduce O_2 to $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$. However, as shown in Fig. 10b, DMPO- $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ signals were indeed detected for both HKUST-1 and HP-HK/CN-50, originating from three concurrent pathways: single-electron reduction of O_2 (Eq. (1)), decomposition of H_2O_2 (Eq. (5)), and Cu^{2+} mediated Fenton-like reactions with H_2O_2 (Eq. (7)). Moreover, the valence band potential of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ($E_{\text{VB}} = 2.41 \text{ V vs NHE}$) and the HOMO potential of HKUST-1 ($E_{\text{HOMO}} = 2.44 \text{ V vs NHE}$) are both greater than the redox potential of

$\text{H}_2\text{O}/\bullet\text{OH}$ (2.4 V vs NHE), indicating that $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and HKUST-1 can thermodynamically oxidize H_2O to generate $\bullet\text{OH}$. It can be inferred from above analysis that during the degradation process of TCH, a small amount of h^+ on the valence band of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and the HOMO orbital of HKUST-1 can react with $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{OH}^-$ to generate $\bullet\text{OH}$ (Eq. (10)), while a large amount of h^+ directly degrades TCH.



3.5. Intermediates and degradation pathway of TCH

To verify the degradation pathway and mechanism of HP-HK/CN-50 to TCH, high performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS) System (SHIMADAZU, 20A, Japan) was used to detect the intermediate products during the degradation of TCH. The ionization mode is electrospray ionization with positive ion source (ESI +), and the mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) scanning range is 50 to 600. The results revealed that there are 17 major intermediates throughout the degradation process (please refer to Supplementary Material Fig. S5, Fig. S6 and Table S1, Supplementary materials). The mass spectrum of original TCH has a prominent peak at $m/z = 445$ [35], while the molecular ion peaks at $m/z = 149, 290, 338$ and 391 with the degradation effect of HP-HK/CN-50 on TCH in darkness, which reveals that the $\bullet\text{OH}$ and $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ generated by the synergistic effect of molecular oxygen activation and Fenton-like reaction can degrade TCH. The appearance of smaller m/z (71, 97, 111, 114, and 121) indicates that HP-HK/CN-50 can effectively degrade TCH into small molecules under visible illumination.

According to the m/z of the intermediate products, the possible degradation pathway of HP-HK/CN-50 on TCH can be deduced, as shown in Fig. 12. In Pathway 1, TCH was attacked by $\bullet\text{OH}$ and $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ in darkness, and intermediates with $m/z = 432, 413$, and 391 were generated [62]. Subsequently, intermediates were gradually decomposed to produce species with $m/z = 290, 149, 111$ and 97 [63]. In Pathway 2, TCH was attacked by h^+ under visible illumination, forming the product with $m/z = 475$ [64]. In addition, the organic macromolecules were attacked by

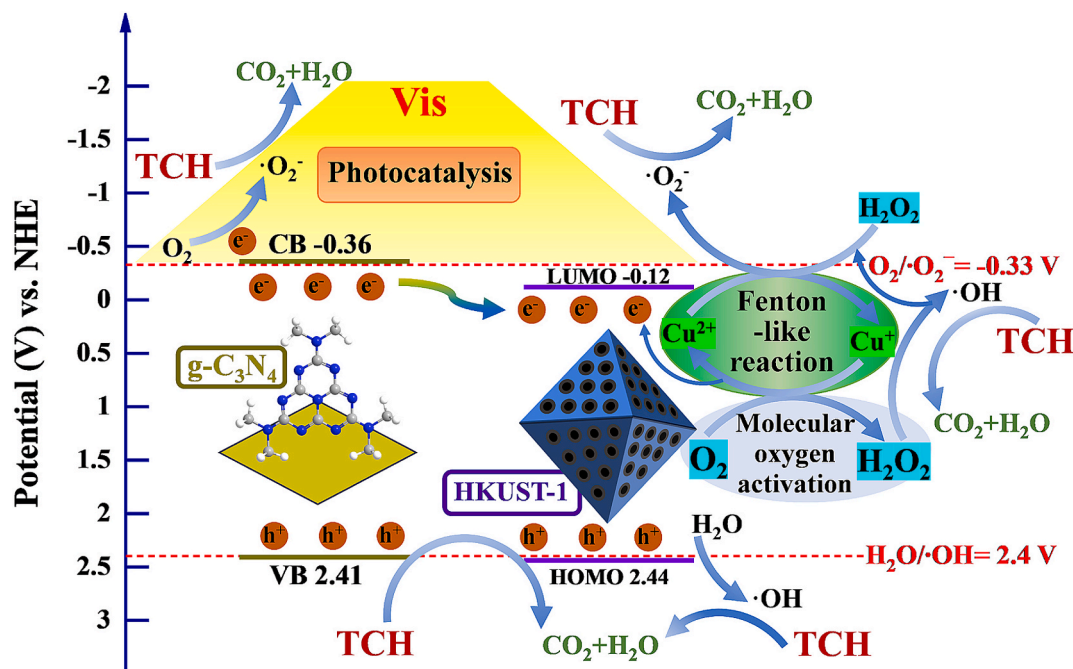


Fig. 11. The schematic diagram of mechanism of HP-HKUST-1/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ degrading TCH under visible illumination.

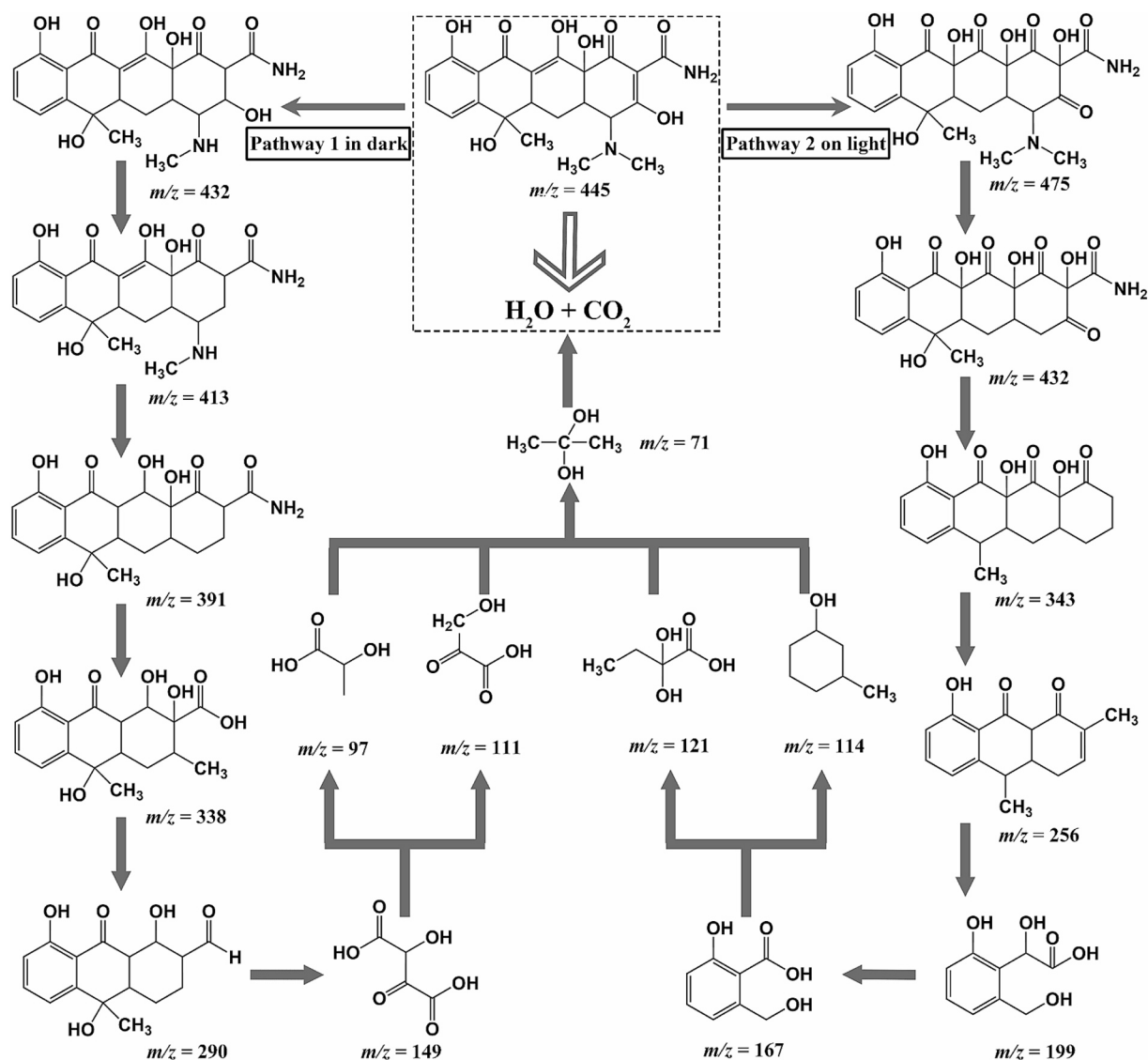


Fig. 12. The potential intermediates and degradation pathway of TCH in HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄ system.

•O₂⁻, h⁺, •OH and e⁻, and gradually degraded into other small molecules ($m/z = 432, 343, 256, 199, 167, 121, 114$) [65]. Finally, the intermediates on both pathways were further decomposed by •O₂⁻, h⁺, •OH and e⁻, until they were transformed into CO₂ and H₂O.

3.6. Stability and reusability tests of HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄

Stability and reusability are critical metrics for evaluating the practical potential of catalysts. Based on the studies, HP-HK/CN-50 was subjected to three consecutive TCH degradation cycles under light irradiation. After three cycles, the photocatalytic efficiency decreased by approximately 23% (Fig. 13a). To elucidate the possible reasons for the decline in degradation efficiency and further validate the catalyst's stability, post-catalytic HP-HK/CN-50 was collected after three cycles for structural characterization. As shown in Fig. 13b and c, the XRD and FT-IR spectra of HP-HK/CN-50 before and after use remained highly consistent, with no significant shifts in peak positions, indicating that the catalyst's crystal structure and elemental composition were preserved. SEM images (Fig. S7b, Supplementary materials) of HP-HK/CN-50 after 60 min of cycling confirmed that the catalyst's morphology remained intact, whereas non-decarboxylated HK/CN-50 underwent severe hydrolysis and structural collapse during use.

Furthermore, Fig. 13d clearly shows a decrease in the intensity of the Cu(I) peak and an increase in the Cu²⁺ satellite peak for post-reaction HP-HK/CN-50, demonstrating a reduction in Cu(I) content and a corresponding rise in Cu(II) proportion. This shift weakened the composite's reducing capacity, as the catalytic process continuously consumed Cu⁺ to activate O₂ for H₂O₂ generation. The limited regeneration of Cu⁺ via photogenerated electrons disrupted the Cu⁺/Cu²⁺ dynamic equilibrium, ultimately leading to the decline in Cu(I) content. Furthermore, ICP-MS analysis of the post-reaction solution revealed a copper concentration of 2.55 mg/L, corresponding to a leaching rate of 2.9%. This reflects the consumption of Cu(I)/Cu(II) species during the degradation process. In summary, HP-HK/CN-50 exhibits excellent structural stability, and its catalytic activity is directly proportional to the Cu(I) content.

4. Conclusions

A hierarchical porous heterojunction catalyst, HP-HKUST-1/g-C₃N₄, composed of semiconducting g-C₃N₄ and copper-based metal-organic framework, HKUST-1, has been designed and synthesized through electrostatic self-assembly, hydrothermal synthesis and decarboxylation. We have demonstrated that HP-HK/CN-50 has an enhanced catalytic effect on the degradation of tetracycline hydrochloride under total

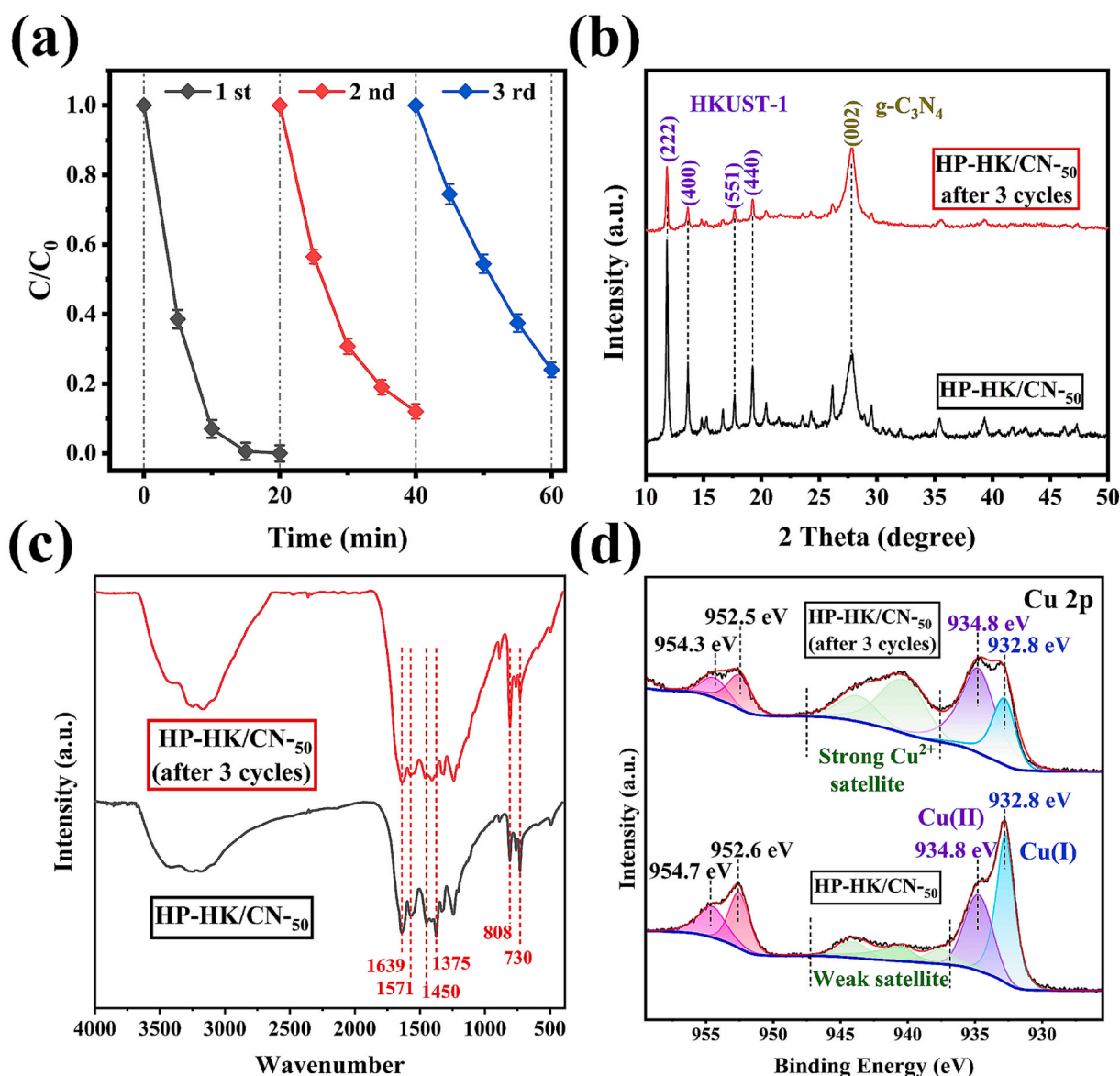


Fig. 13. (a) Cyclic stability tests of HP-HK/CN-50 photocatalytic degradation of TCH; (b) XRD, (c) FT-IR and (d) XPS Cu 2p spectra of HP-HK/CN-50 before experiment and after 3 photocatalysis cycles.

darkness, and more, its catalytic effect is further increased under the visible illumination. HP-HK/CN-50 has been shown, without any externally provided oxidants and in darkness, to exhibit a superb TCH degradation efficiency of 99.92% over 30 min. Under visible illumination, it reaches to an efficiency of 99.95% within ~20 min, far exceeding those comparable catalysts reported under similar conditions (see Table 3).

The excellent catalytic performance of HP-HK/CN-50 is attributed to its high Cu(I)/Cu(II) ratio, which facilitates single-electron transfer to activate molecular oxygen for spontaneous H₂O₂ generation, thereby overcoming the limitations of external oxidant supply and illumination dependency. The effective electron transfer at the interface of the heterojunctions between HKUST-1 and g-C₃N₄ further improves the separation of photogenerated carriers, enhancing the catalytic performance under illumination, and enabling efficient synergies among molecular oxygen activation, photocatalysis and Fenton-like reactions. In addition, the great stability of HP-HK/CN-50 was shown by three runs' cycle experiment. The work demonstrates the practical potential of such catalysts and their future variations in wastewater treatment as an efficient technique with molecular oxygen activation properties for the removal

of antibiotics.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Liqin Nie: Writing – original draft, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Kaige Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Wei Zhao:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Data curation. **Chen Zhang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Data curation. **Tiehan Shen:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Methodology, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

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 data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2025.133894>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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