1	Photocatalytic degradation of Trimethoprim using S-TiO ₂ and
2	Ru/WO ₃ /ZrO ₂ immobilized on reusable fixed plates
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- 20 Abstract
- In this study, photocatalytic degradation of trimethoprim by synthesized $S-TiO_2$ and
- 22 Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts was investigated. Both photocatalysts have been immobilized on

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23 circular aluminum plates by polysiloxane to investigate their reusability performance. The morphology and structure of the catalysts were studied by high-resolution transmission 24 electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy. The 25 photocatalytic experiments were carried out using suspended and attached catalysts using 26 a metal halide lamp as a light source. The degradation efficiencies of trimethoprim were 27 100% and 98.2% at catalyst dose of 0.5 g/L, pH of 7.0 and irradiation time of 240 min using 28 suspended Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ and S-TiO₂, respectively. After immobilization of the catalysts 29 on the aluminum plates, the removal efficiencies in five repetitive cycles were 98%, 96.9%, 30 96.8%, 93.2% and 83.4% using Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂, while they were 88.6%, 86%, 84%, 78% 31 and 75.9% in case of S-TiO₂. The irradiation time of each cycle was 240 min, and the initial 32 33 trimethoprim concentration was 10 mg/L. The degradation rates of trimethoprim were 34 estimated in the case of suspended and immobilized S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂. The radical trapping experiments using various scavengers revealed that superoxide radicals, holes and 35 hydroxyl radicals all participated in the photo-degradation process. Furthermore, the 36 37 transformation products generated during the trimethoprim oxidation process were detected by liquid chromatography/mass spectroscopy to identify the possible degradation pathways. 38

39 Keywords:

40 Pharmaceuticals; Photocatalysis; Transformation products; Trimethoprim; Wastewater

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42 **1. Introduction**

Antibiotics are frequently released to the aquatic environment through the industrial and domestic wastewater of pharmaceutical companies as well as the feces of humans and animals [1]. The immunizing of bacteria against antibiotics due to the prevalence of pharmaceuticals in the aquatic environment is considered one of the major concerns; therefore, it is essential to develop eco-friendly methods for the degradation of antibiotics [2]. Trimethoprim is one of the widely used antibiotics due to its activity towards many types of bacteria; consequently, it has been frequently found in wastewater [3]. Traditional biological wastewater treatment technologies cannot completely remove the bio-resistant contaminants such as antibiotics [4]. Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) can effectively degrade bio-recalcitrant contaminants through the production of highly active species capable of oxidizing bio-resistant pollutants to harmless products [5].

Photocatalysis is considered one of the promising advanced oxidation processes due to its sustainable nature including low energy consumption and the potential to utilize solar light [6]. Surface recombination is considered one of the major problems associated with conventional semiconductors [7]. Therefore, the doping of various materials on the surface of semiconductors has been investigated. Indeed, the doping can reduce the recombination rate and also participate in the reduction of bandgap [8]. The decrease in the bandgap will enhance the photocatalytic activity towards visible light.

Recently, many studies have added various dopants to conventional catalysts to improve its 60 performance. Chen et al. used the co-hydrolysis method to synthesize cationic S-doped TiO₂ for the 61 oxidation of nitrobenzene, p chlorophenol and phenol in aqueous solutions using a variety of 62 illumination sources [9]. Zeng et al. prepared WO₃@MoS₂/Ag hollow nanotubes using a 63 hydrothermal and deposition method for the degradation of peroxymonosulfate (PMS) [10]. Nano-64 scale photocatalysts are frequently used in suspension to exploit the high surface area of the particles 65 [11]. However, the dispersion of photocatalysts in water is associated with many limitations such as 66 67 the difficulty of light penetration due to the high turbidity and the complexity of powder collection for reuse [12]. Therefore, heat attachment methods were successfully used for the loading of 68 catalysts on different mediums; however, they consume high energy in preparation [13]. Moreover, 69 particles can be easily released by the shear force induced by mixing [14]. 70

In this work, the polysiloxane was used to attain durable bonds between photocatalysts and
 aluminum plates for degradation of trimethoprim. The performance of suspended and attached S-

- TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts was investigated. The reusability performance of attached catalysts,
 oxidant species responsible for photo-degradation, and oxidation pathway were also investigated.
- 75

76 2. Materials and methods

77 2.1 Materials

Trimethoprim was obtained from MP Bio, USA. Acetonitrile and formic acid were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Titanium isopropoxide, ethanol, and ZrO₂ were obtained from Wako, Japan. Thiourea was obtained from Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. All chemicals were of analytical grade and have been used without any pre-treatments.

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83 **2.2 Experimental procedures**

84 The S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts were synthesized according to our previous reports (Gar Alalm, Samy, et al., 2018; Gar Alalm, Ookawara, et al., 2016). The attached catalysts were prepared 85 by the immobilization of S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ particles on aluminum plates using polysiloxane. 86 The diameter and the thickness of aluminum plates are 65 mm and 2 mm, respectively and the 87 aluminum grade is 3003. A strong bond between the catalyst and the aluminum plates can be attained 88 by placing a layer of polysiloxane with a thickness of 1 mm on the surface of the aluminum plate. 89 Then, a uniform distribution of 1 gm of S-TiO₂ or Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts was carried out on the 90 aluminum plate with a polysiloxane layer. The drying process of the plates was carried out by 91 keeping the plates at room temperature for 24 hr. The plates were washed by distilled water to 92 remove free particles and confirm the strong bond between the catalyst particles and aluminum 93 plates. 94

The photo-reactor was about 250 ml Pyrex beaker filled with 100 ml of trimethoprim solution and the light source was maintained at 200 mm from the surface of the solution. The illumination source was a 400 W metal halide lamp (Venture). Metal halide lamps emit visibly and UV light according

to the emission profile of metal halide lamps as shown in Fig. S1 [16]. The lamp has a maximum 98 wavelength of 510 nm and 220 μ W cm⁻² is the photon flux of the lamp. The first 30 min in the 99 experiment were in dark to achieve adsorption-desorption equilibrium, then the lamp was switched 100 on to start the photo-degradation reaction. The aluminum plate was placed at the bottom of the 101 beaker and magnetic stirrer was used to achieve a continuous link between the contaminated solution 102 and the catalyst particles immobilized on the plate. In the case of suspended catalyst, certain doses 103 of S-TiO₂ or Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts were added to the contaminated solution instead of placing the 104 plate at the bottom of the beaker. 105

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107 2.3 Analytical methods

108 Trimethoprim concentrations were detected using HPLC system (Agilent 1200 series, USA). Filtration of the samples was carried out by Whatman syringe filters (with a pore size of 0.2 µm) 109 before injection of 20 µL of the sample into a column Apollo C18 (5 mm, 4.6 ×150 mm) and the 110 column temperature was fixed at 40 °C. The initial mobile phase consists of 30% acetonitrile (A) 111 and 70% water with 0.1% (V:V) formic acid (B). Then, the percentage of solvent A increased 112 gradually to 90% within 4 min and this percentage lasted for 2 min. Finally, the percentages of 113 mobile phase returned to the initial conditions. Trimethoprim peak was observed at a wavelength of 114 237 nm and the flow rate was 1.5 ml/min [1]. The retention time of the trimethoprim peak was 1.927 115 min. Identification of transformation products was carried out using liquid chromatography/mass 116 spectroscopy (LC-MS/MS) (Shimadzu 2020) with a Shim-pack XR-ODS column at a flow rate of 117 0.4 ml/min using the same mobile phase in HPLC analysis. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, 118 Joel JEM 2100, Japan) with an accelerating voltage of 200 kV was used to obtain the images with 119 high resolution of S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂. The X-ray diffraction (XRD 6000, Shimadzu, Japan) 120 analysis was used to determine the phases of the crystallinity of S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ using 121

122	Cu–K α radiation (λ =1.54056 Å). The chemical composition of synthesized catalysts was determined
123	using energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy (JEOL JSM-6510LV, Japan).

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125 **3. Results and discussion**

126 3.1 Characterization of S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂

The TEM images (Fig. 1 (a)) showed that the diameter of S-TiO₂ particles ranged from 12 to 22 nm, 127 while the Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ particle diameter ranged from 12 to 27 nm as demonstrated in Fig. 1b. The 128 small diameters of both S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ ZrO_2 particles suggest the high catalytic surface area 129 130 of the photocatalysts. EDX analysis (Fig. 2) confirmed the presence of Ru, W, and Zr in the prepared Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ and the existence of sulfur and titanium in the synthesized S-TiO₂ was also confirmed 131 using EDX analysis according to our previous study [8]. Fig. 3 shows the XRD pattern of the 132 synthesized S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts. The highest peak was detected at $2\theta = 25.5^{\circ}$ for S-133 TiO₂ catalyst which belongs to active anatase TiO₂ [17]. The peaks at 2θ = 37.6°, 48.1°, 54.20°, 55.4°, 134 and 62.5° are attributed to the various planes of anatase phase of TiO₂ (JCPDS no. 21-1272) [18]. 135 The existence of a small peak at $2\theta = 30.5^{\circ}$ may be due to the remaining amounts of the brookite 136 phase of titania [18]. The sulfur has no unique peaks due to the uniform dispersion of its ions with 137 anatase crystallite [19]. The monoclinic phase of the WO₃ crystals was detected through the three 138 peaks observed at $2\theta \approx 23-24.3^{\circ}$ (PDF No. 83-0951) as shown in Fig. 3. The existence of free 139 tungstate anions on the catalyst surface was confirmed by the peaks at $2\theta \approx 22.9^{\circ}$, 23.7° , and 24.4° 140 [20]. The peaks at $2\theta = 28.9^{\circ}$, 33.8° , and 34.5° are due to the tetragonal crystal phase of ZrO₂ (PDF 141 number, 27-0997). The peaks of the tetragonal crystal phase were broader due to the addition of Ru 142 (PDF number, 00-006-0663) [15]. 143

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3.2 The photocatalytic activity of the suspended catalyst

147 Preliminary studies were performed to check the effect of pH on the degradation of trimethoprim

¹⁴⁸ using S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ at a catalyst dose of 0.5 g/L and a reaction time of 240 min. Fig. S2

149 demonstrates that the change in pH had a slight effect on the degradation of trimethoprim using both

¹⁵⁰ photocatalysts. Hence, the followed experiments were performed without pH adjustment.

The effects of doses of suspended S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts on the removal efficiency of 151 trimethoprim are shown in Fig.4. The five levels of S-TiO₂ dose (0.1 g/L-1.0 g/L) were used at initial 152 trimethoprim concentration of 10 mg/L, pH of 7, and irradiation time of 240 min, whereas the three 153 levels (0.25 g/L-1.0 g/L) of Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ dose were studied at the same conditions. The removal 154 efficiencies due to adsorption during the 30 min incubation in the dark were 6.0%, 9.90%, 2.0%, 155 3.40% and 12.40% using 0.1 g/L, 0.25 g/L, 0.5 g/L, 0.8 g/L and 1.0 g/L doses of S-TiO₂, respectively, 156 157 while the degradation efficiencies in the dark were 7.0%, 32.0% and 23.50% using 0.25 g/L, 0.5 g/L and 1.0 g/L doses of Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂, respectively confirming that the overall removal efficiency was 158 mainly due to the photocatalytic degradation. The photo-degradation efficiency increased from 159 79.3% to 98.2% by increasing the catalyst dose of S-TiO₂ from 0.1 g/L to 0.5 g/L. The degradation 160 efficiency was also increased from 94.6% to 100% using Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalyst dose of 0.25 g/L 161 and 0.5 g/L, respectively after 240 min. Moreover, the complete degradation of trimethoprim was 162 achieved at an irradiation time of 180 min using 1.0 g/L of Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂. The rise in catalyst dose 163 leads to the enhancement of photo-degradation efficiency possibly due to the increase of active sites 164 responsible for the generation of hydroxyl radicals [8]. Raising S-TiO₂ loading to greater than 0.5 165 g/L, however, led to a slight reduction of photo-degradation efficiency to 95.6% and 94% at catalyst 166 dose of 0.8 g/L and 1.0 g/L, respectively. It may be explained by the fact that higher doses of the 167 catalyst lead to an increase of the turbidity of the solution, hindering photons to reach the active sites 168 of the catalyst surface due to the scattering effect [21]. Furthermore, the possibility of agglomeration 169 of particles can be increased in the case of higher doses and this can lead to the reduction of active 170

sites [22]. Accordingly, the optimum catalyst dose is considered 0.5 g/L in the case of the S-TiO₂
catalyst.

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3.3 Photocatalytic activity and reusability of the attached catalyst

The reusability of the attached S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts was investigated in five 175 consecutive experiments at initial trimethoprim concentration of 10 mg/L, pH of 7.0 and time of 240 176 min as depicted in Fig. 5 a and b. Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ showed higher performance and reusability potential 177 than S-TiO₂ in five consecutive cycles. The degradation efficiencies were 98%, 96.9%, 96.8%, 178 93.2% and 83.4% using attached Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ in the five repetitive cycles, while the removal 179 efficiencies were 88.6%, 86%, 84%, 78% and 75.9% in case of S-TiO₂. The high performance of 180 181 Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ can be attributed to the existence of Ru and Zr ions which act as an electron trap and inhibit the recombination of radicals. The observed degradation efficiency in five consecutive 182 experiments confirmed the high stability and reusability of both S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts. 183 The continuous generation of hydroxyl radicals during five consecutive cycles suggest the 184 availability of active sites on the aluminum plate even after a long period of irradiation. The slight 185 decrease in photo-degradation efficiency in each successive cycle may be related to the small amount 186 of catalyst released from the plate and/or leftovers of contaminants on the catalyst decreasing the 187 active surface area. 188

In general, the performance of the attached catalyst is lower than the suspended catalyst at the same condition most likely because the interaction between pollutants and the catalyst only takes place at the bottom of the reactor. Additionally, the light needs to pass through the total depth of the water to excite the catalyst particles. The shear and friction forces resulting from the rapid movement of the stirrer at the bottom of the reactor can result in the release of catalyst particles from the plate. However, the results showed that attached S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ by polysiloxane have the potential for reusability several times. Moreover, the attached catalyst is more sustainable than suspended catalysts due to the difficulty of collecting suspended catalyst especially nano-scale catalysts. Increasing the illumination time can overcome the limitations related to the attached catalyst and contribute to the reduction of the cost in the case of large-scale application.

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3.4 Degradation Kinetics of trimethoprim

Langmuir – Hinshelwood model was used to estimate the degradation rates of trimethoprim using S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ in suspended and attached modes. Eq.1 illustrates the relation between the remaining concentration of trimethoprim and time [23]:

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$$\ln(\frac{C_o}{C}) = K_{obs} t$$
 (1)

where K_{obs} is the reaction rate, C_o and C are the initial concentration of trimethoprim and the concentration of trimethoprim at time t.

The degradation rates of trimethoprim using Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ in suspended and immobilized modes 207 were higher than the degradation rates in the case of S-TiO₂ in both cases as shown in Fig. 6 (a and 208 b). The superiority of Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalyst in attached and suspended modes was due to the 209 addition of Zr and Ru ions which have the ability to catch electrons and reduce recombination rate 210 leading to higher photodegradation efficiency. Moreover, the degradation rate in suspended mode 211 was higher than the degradation rate in an immobilized mode in the case of both catalysts. In the 212 case of the attached mode, the light needs to pass the total depth of the water to reach the active sites 213 of the immobilized catalyst and generate reactive species, while the light excites the catalyst particles 214 everywhere in the solution using suspended catalysts. Furthermore, the contact between the catalyst 215 particles and the pollutant is higher in the case of suspended catalysts, as the contact only takes place 216 at the bottom of the reactor using attached catalysts. Table 1 shows the degradation rates of 217 trimethoprim using S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ suspended and immobilized catalysts. 218

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Table 1 Degradation rates of trimethoprim in case of suspended and immobilized S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts.

Catalyst type	S-TiO ₂		Ru/WO ₃ /ZrO ₂	
	\mathbb{R}^2	K _{obs}	\mathbb{R}^2	K _{obs}
Suspended mode	0.9082	0.01	0.9709	0.0191
Immobilized mode	0.8898	0.0072	.9573	0.0168

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224 **3.5 Degradation mechanism**

Fig. 7 demonstrates the generated radicals for the degradation of trimethoprim. The excitation of S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ by the 400 W metal halide lamp leads to the migration of electrons from the valence band (VB) to the conduction band (CB) leaving holes in the valence band. The reaction of electrons in CB with oxygen (O₂) results in the formation of superoxide radicals ($^{-}O_{2}$), while holes (VB) react with water or hydroxyl ions (OH⁻) to generate hydroxyl radicals (^{-}OH). Holes, hydroxyl radicals and superoxide radicals are in charge of the degradation of trimethoprim.

Isopropanol (ISO), ammonium oxalate (AO) and ascorbic acid (AA) were used as scavengers for 231 hydroxyl radicals, superoxide radicals, and holes, respectively to specify the active species 232 responsible for the degradation of trimethoprim as shown in Fig. 8 [24–26]. The degradation 233 efficiency of trimethoprim (10 mg/L) by S-TiO₂ was 98.2% without the addition of any scavengers, 234 while the photo-degradation efficiency decreased to 82.8%, 93.3% and 44.9% using 1 mM of ISO, 235 AO, and AA, respectively at a dose of 0.5 g/L, pH of 7, and irradiation time of 240 min as illustrated 236 in Fig. 8 (a). In the case of Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂, the photo-degradation efficiency reduced to 85%, 92.9% 237 and 48% using 1 mM of ISO, AO, and AA, respectively at the same previous conditions. The results 238 confirmed that hydroxyl radicals, holes, and superoxide radicals all contributed to the degradation 239

process; however, the holes contributed to a greater extent than superoxide radicals and hydroxylradicals.

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3.6 Photo-degradation transformation products and potential degradation pathway

The transformation products generated during the photo-degradation process of trimethoprim (TMP; 244 C₁₄H₁₉N₄O₃; m/z 291) were measured by mass spectrometry as shown in Fig. 9. Hydroxylation, de-245 methylation, and cleavage are the main reactions in the TMP degradation process by radicals as 246 reported in the literature [27]. Compounds with the general formula of $C_{14}H_{19}N_4O_{3+x}$ (x varying from 247 1 to 4) can be formed through hydroxylation reaction. These compounds can be classified into mono, 248 bi, tetra- and penta-hydroxylated compounds depending on the value of x. The mono- hydroxylated 249 250 intermediate (m/z 307; C₁₄H₁₉N₄O₄) was identified as α-hydro-xytrimethoprim (TMP–OH) and formed through the hydroxylation of trimethoprim [27]. Di-hydroxylated (m/z 323; C₁₄H₁₉N₄O₅) 251 was also formed through the hydroxylation of trimethoprim [28]. The products (α-ketotrimethoprim, 252 TMP=O, m/z 305) can be generated through the oxidation of TMP. Products with formula $C_{14-v}H_{19-v}$ 253 $_{2y}N_4O_{3+x}$ (y varying from 1 to 3) can be generated through de-methylation reactions. Compounds 254 with (m/z 309; C₁₃H₁₇N₄O₅, m/z 341; C₁₃H₁₇N₄O₇, m/z 295; C₁₂H₁₅N₄O₅, m/z 279; C₁₂H₁₅N₄O₄, m/z 255 281; C₁₁H₁₃N₄O₅ and m/z 277; C₁₃H₁₆N₄O₃) were formed through de-methylation/hydroxylation 256 process of TMP [28]. Products (m/z= 139; C₅H₆N₄O, m/z 155; C₅H₆N₄O₂, m/z 171; C₈H₁₀O₄ and 257 m/z 141; C₅H₈N₄O) were suggested to be generated by the cleavage of TMP [28]. Based on the 258 259 observation of these transformation products, a possible degradation pathway is suggested in Fig. 9.

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261 **4. Conclusions**

S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts were synthesized and their performance in the attached and suspended state was evaluated for the degradation of trimethoprim. The characterization of the synthesized S-TiO₂ and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ catalysts suggested a successful interaction of components 265 and high active surface area. The optimum catalyst doses in suspension state of S-TiO₂, and Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ were 0.5 and 1.0 g/L, respectively. The degradation efficiencies of trimethoprim were 266 100% and 98.2% at catalyst dose of 0.5 g/L, pH of 7.0 and irradiation time of 240 min using 267 suspended Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ and S-TiO₂, respectively. Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂ showed higher performance and 268 reusability than S-TiO₂ in five consecutive runs in the attached state. The removal efficiencies in 269 five consecutive runs were 88.6%, 86%, 84%, 78% and 75.9% for the attached S-TiO₂, while the 270 degradation rates were 98%, 96.9%, 96.8%, 93.2% and 83.4% in case of attached Ru/WO₃/ZrO₂. 271 The degradation rates of trimethoprim in the case of the immobilized mode were lower than the 272 degradation rates using catalysts in suspended mode. The main active species in charge of the photo-273 degradation process were holes and hydroxyl radicals. The potential degradation pathways were 274 275 suggested based on the identification of transformation products.

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