Photocatalytic ozonation of pyridine-based herbicides by N-doped titania
Rafael R. Solís^a, F. Javier Rivas^{*, a}, Olga Gimeno^a, José Luis Pérez-Bote^b
^aDepartamento de Ingeniería Química y Química Física. Universidad de Extremadura
Edificio Jose Luis Sotelo, Av. Elvas s/n 06006 Badajoz (Spain)
^bDepartamento de Anatomía, Biología Celular y Zoología. Universidad de Extremadura
Av. Elvas s/n 06006 Badajoz (Spain)

7 Abstract

BACKGROUND: A mixture of three pyridine herbicides in water (clopyralid, triclopyr
and picloram) has been treated with photocatalytic processes, involving oxygen or
ozone. Nitrogen doped and undoped titania were used in the process. Toxicity evolution
during photocatalytic ozonation was monitored considering BOD, *Daphnia parvula* and
fitotoxicity trials.

RESULTS: N doped titania with an optimized photoactivity was tested in 13 photocatalytic ozonation, leading to nearly 95% of mineralization in 180 min. This 14 15 catalyst was characterized by SEM, TEM, XRD and XPS techniques (13.5 nm of crystal size, anatase phase, 1% of N, and formation of O-Ti-N linkage). No loss of 16 photocatalytic activity was appreciated after 5 consecutive runs. Although no toxicity 17 from the parent compounds was observed, this parameter increased at the early stages of 18 the oxidation process. When parent compounds were totally degraded and 19 dechlorination was completed, toxicity decayed again to negligible values. 20

*Correspondence to: FJ Rivas, Departamento de Ingeniería Química y Química Física, Universidad de Extremadura, Avda. Elvas s/n, 06071, Badajoz (Spain). Email: fjrivas@unex.es, Phone 34 924289300, FAX 34 924289385

^{*a*} Departamento de Ingeniería Química y Química Física, Universidad de Extremadura, Avda. Elvas s/n, 06071, Badajoz (Spain)

^b Departamento de Anatomía, Biología Celular y Zoología. Universidad de Extremadura Av. Elvas s/n, 06071, Badajoz (Spain) CONCLUSION: N doping improves bare titania photoactivity through an optimum of N amount. Photocatalysis/ozone showed better behavior than photocatalysis/oxygen in herbicide removal and mineralization, and no significant loss activity was appreciated after 5 runs. Toxicity initially increases due to toxic byproducts formation; however, it decreased after their abatement.

Keywords: Clopyralid, picloram, triclopyr, photocatalysis, photocatalytic ozonation,
doped titania

28 INTRODUCTION

Picloram (4-amino-3,5,6-trichloro-2-pyridinecarboxylic acid), clopyralid (3,6-dichloro2-pyridinecarboxylic acid) and triclopyr (3,5,6-trichloro-2-pyridinyloxyacetic acid) are
selective herbicides included in the chlorinated pyridine derivatives family. Picloram
and clopyralid belongs to the picolinic acid family while triclopyr derives from the
pyridiniloxyacetic acid.

Picloram is used to kill unwanted broad-leaved plants on pastures and rangeland, in reforestation programs, in uncultivated areas, and along rights-of way, being majority used on pasture and rangeland.¹ In the case of clopyralid, it is used to kill unwanted annual and perennial broadleaf plants in turf and lawn, range, pasture, rights-of-ways, and some agricultural crops.² Pastures, woodlands, and rights of way are the main scenarios of triclopyr uses, while rice is the major agricultural one.³

The main concern related to the use and application of these herbicides is their relatively high solubility in water, persistence and mobility. Due to this, they are likely to leach groundwater or surface water which is certain in those areas where residues may be persistent in the overlying solid.⁴⁻⁷ Once in water, the herbicides are unlikely to degrade even after a long period of time. Otherwise, special relevance is the potential carryover of picolinic herbicides in animal manure, compost, plant mulch, etc. These species may
pose phytotoxic properties for non-target plants after their uncontrolled applications.
Some crops such as tomatoes, potatoes (picloram, clopyralid) or tobacco (picloram) are
negatively affected by the exposure to these herbicides.

49 Efficient methodologies in water treatment to remove micro-contaminants involve physical processes such as adsorption on activated carbon, membrane technologies, or 50 chemical stages such as oxidation/reduction processes. Amongst the latter, 51 52 photocatalysis emerges as one of the most attractive technologies, especially when solar radiation or low cost radiation sources are used. Black light lamps are economical 53 devices characterized by their emission in the proximity of 365 nm. Furthermore, they 54 may be a suitable alternative in areas where climate limit the use of solar radiation. The 55 correct selection of an active and stable photocatalyst is of paramount importance. 56 Titanium dioxide is an economical and suitable choice due to its non-toxic nature and 57 photocatalytic activity. Generation of the pair hole-electron is produced for wavelengths 58 lower than 387 nm. Doping of TiO₂ can lead to an increase of the maximum wavelength 59 excitation or, alternatively a higher quantum yield corresponding to a particular 60 61 wavelength.

62 One of the reactions to be minimized in the photocatalysis is the recombination of electron-holes leading to the inefficient heat release. This step is partially prevented by 63 64 the oxygen presence which is reduced while holes directly react with contaminants or with water to produce hydroxyl radicals. Trapping of electrons can also be 65 accomplished by inorganic peroxides such as H₂O₂, monopersulfate, persulfate, etc.⁸ A 66 67 promising alternative is the simultaneous application of ozone and photocatalysis. This 68 combination allows for the concurrent action of molecular ozone and photocatalysis with the synergistic effect of electron trapping by O₃. Electron trapping by ozone leads 69

to the development of a radical mechanism capable of generating more powerful
hydroxyl radicals than the process in the presence of oxygen:⁹

72
$$\operatorname{TiO}_2 + hv \rightarrow e^- + h^+$$
 (1)

73
$$\begin{array}{c} O_2 + e^- \rightarrow O_2^- \\ O_3 + e^- \rightarrow O_3^- \end{array} \end{array}$$
 Electron trapping (2)

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
O_{2}^{\bullet} + H^{+} \rightarrow HO_{2}^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{+HO_{2}^{\bullet}} O_{2} + H_{2}O_{2} \xrightarrow{+O_{2}^{\bullet}} O_{2} + HO \bullet + OH^{-} \\
\hline
74 & O_{3}^{\bullet} + H^{+} \rightarrow HO_{3}^{\bullet} \rightarrow O_{2} + HO \bullet \\
& h^{+} + H_{2}O_{2} \rightarrow H^{+} + HO \bullet
\end{array}$$
HO • generation (3)

$$e^{-}+R \rightarrow Products$$

$$HO \bullet +R \rightarrow Products$$

$$h^{+}+R \rightarrow Products$$

$$h^{+}+R \rightarrow Products$$

$$(4)$$

In this work an attempt has been made to synthetize a TiO_2 based photocatalyst by improving its properties by means of nitrogen doping¹⁰⁻¹⁴. For that purpose, triethylamine was considered according to its higher capacity of forming a stable organic titanium complex which plays an important role during the hydrolysis stage (Yu et al., 2007).¹⁵

A mixture of picloram, clopyralid and triclopyr has been used to test the activity and stability of the catalyst. These herbicides have been eliminated from aqueous media by several technologies such as Fenton¹⁶, electro Fenton¹⁷, photo Fenton¹⁸, $O_3/H_2O_2^{19}$, photocatalysis²⁰⁻²⁴, UV²⁵ and H₂O₂/UV²⁶, etc. However, to the best of author's knowledge, the efficiency of photocatalytic ozonation has not been investigated in the removal of pyridine-based herbicides.

87 EXPERIMENTAL

88 Photoreactor and procedure

A scheme of the experimental setup is shown in Figure 1. It is composed by a 1.0 L 89 reactor inside an external cylinder pipe (54 cm of height and 31 cm of external 90 diameter) with four black light lamps of 41 cm of length attached to the inner wall. The 91 lamps (LAMP15TBL HQPOWERTM manufactured by Velleman®, 41 cm of length 92 and 15 W of nominal power emitting in the range 350-400 nm) were equidistantly 93 distributed at 90°. The inner wall was covered by aluminum foil to increase the photons 94 reflection. Actinometry experiments in the presence of ferryoxalate led to the 95 quantification of the radiation with a value of $6.86 \cdot 10^5$ Einstein min⁻¹ L⁻¹ when the 4 96 97 lamps were in use.

98 The photoreactor was continuously fed with oxygen, nitrogen or a mixture of oxygen-99 ozone by means of a diffuser placed inside the reaction bulk. 30 L h⁻¹ gas flow rate was 100 used in all trials. The solid photocatalysts were added before the photoreaction to reach 101 the herbicides adsorption equilibria onto their surface. When samples were extracted, 102 the solid was removed by filtration through Millex-HA filters (Millipore, 0.45 μm).

Ozone was produced by electrical decomposition of oxygen in a Sander Laboratory
Ozone Generator. Ozone gas phase concentration was monitored by an Anseros Ozomat
ozone analyzer.

106 Materials

Pure herbicides, titanum (IV) isopropoxide (97%) and potassium indigotrisulfonate were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich; while triethylamine (99.5%), hydrochloride acid (37%) and absolute ethanol were from Panreac. HPLC was fed with organic solvents from VWR Chemicals and ionic chromatography solutions were prepared with SigmaAldrich reagents. All chemicals were used as received. Finally, water from a Mili-Q
water system (Millipore) was used for preparation of all solutions and suspensions.

113 N-doped titania synthesis

The lab-made photocatalysts were synthesized applying a sol-gel method followed by 114 thermal treatment and calcination. Some literature methodology was carried out in order 115 to synthesize them²⁷. Roughly, it starts with the dissolving of titanium isopropoxidde in 116 ethanol and the following addition of a determined amount of the nitrogen organic 117 source (in this case triethylamine), to meet the required N:Ti ratio. Afterwards, HCl 0.1 118 was gradually added to the organic solution to get a clear liquid. Precipitation process 119 was completed by autoclaving the mixture at 80 °C for 12 hours. Then, the suspension 120 was centrifuged at 3500 rpm, and the resultant solid was dried overnight at 100 °C. 121 Finally, calcination was carried out at 500 °C for 4 hours with an initial ramp of 10 °C 122 min⁻¹. The manufacturated photocatalysts were labeled with the general formula 123 124 TiO₂ 1:x. In this nomenclature, 1:x means the ration of Ti atoms to N atoms in the synthesis process. 125

126 Catalyst characterization

127 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) spectra was conducted in a XPS K-alpha-Thermo Scientific equipment, working with a Ka monochromatic source of Al (1486.68 128 eV). A value of 284.8 eV for the C 1s peak was taken to calibrate the signals of Ti 2p, O 129 1s, N 1s peaks. Crystalline phase were analyzed by X Ray Diffraction (XRD), in a 130 131 Bruker D8 ADVANCE diffract meter equipped with a monochromator of Ge 111 Kα of Cu (wavelength, 1.5456 Å). Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis was 132 133 applied by a TEM Tecnai G2 20 Twin-FEI Company apparatus (filament LaB₆, voltage 200 KV, magnification up to 1.05x10⁶) while Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) 134

135 was conducted in a HITACHI S-4800 coupled to a secondary electrons detector136 (acceleration voltage 20 kV).

Diffuse reflectance UV–VIS spectroscopy, used to obtain the catalysts UV-VIS
absorbance spectra and their band gap values, were completed with a Jasco V670
UN/VIS/NIR spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere device.

BET surface area was quantified trough nitrogen adsorption isotherms obtained at 77 K
with a Quadrasorb instrument (Quantachrome). Samples were treated previously at 150
°C for 24 h under high vacuum conditions for outdegassing the adsorbed gases.

Thermal gravimetry, differential temperature analysis and released gases mass spectrometry (TG-DTA-MS) were performed with a Setaram SETSYS Evolution-16 equipment connected to a PrismaTM QMS200 quadrupole mass spectrometer. The operation conditions were: sample loading 28 mg, air flow rate 50 mL min⁻¹ and heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ from room temperature to 900 °C.

148 Analysis

High Performance Liquid Chromatography (Agilent 1100) was used in the analysis of
herbicides. The HPLC was equipped with a Kromasil 100 5C18 column. A gradient
elution was pumped at a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹, and the acetonitrile: acidified water
(0.1% H₃PO₄) volume percentages were increased from 10:90 to 50:50 in 12 minutes.
After that, it was kept in 50:50 for 6 minutes. An engaged wavenumber of 230 nm was
considered for conduction.

155 Short chain organic and inorganic anionic compounds were monitored by ionic 156 chromatography (Metrohm 881 Compact Pro). Total Organic Carbon (TOC) content 157 was determined by means of a Shimazdu TOC 5000A analyzer which directly injects 158 the aqueous sample. The method based on the decoloration of the 5,5,7-indigotrisulfonate was applied for
 the determination of dissolved ozone concentration in aqueous solution.²⁸

161 A GLP 21+ CRISON pH-meter was used for pH measures. pH of the media was not 162 adjusted and reaction was conducted at the natural pH after herbicides addition. In 163 toxicity trials, pH was adjusted with H₃PO₄ and NaOH.

Biological oxygen demand after five days (BOD₅) was conducted by respirometry. Commercial respirometers OXITOP® were used for that purpose. BOD₅ was determined after addition of some inorganic salts, nutrients and microorganisms from activated sludge to simulate the behavior in a standard residual urban wastewater. A synthetic wastewater representing a secondary treated effluent was artificially prepared²⁹. Inoculate was obtained from the local wastewater treatment plant of the city of Badajoz.

171 Ecotoxicity bioassays with Daphnia parvula

For ecotoxicity purposes, the acute toxicity to *Daphnia parvula* was carried out
according to US EPA standard procedure.³⁰ The crustaceans were grown up in artificial
ponds located at Extremadura University installations.

The analysis started placing 20 second instar D. parvula into a 100 mL of water sample, 175 by means of disposable plastic transfer pipettes. After that, the crustaceans were 176 177 exposed to 16:8 light: dark photoperiods at room temperature. Survival organisms were counted at 24 and 48 hours, without being fed. The herbicides were dissolved in mineral 178 water (composition: 10.7 mg L⁻¹ HCO₃⁻, 5.3 mg L⁻¹ SO₄²⁻, 19.0 mg L⁻¹, Cl⁻, 2.7 mg L⁻¹, 179 $Ca^{2+} 2.7 \text{ mg } L^{-1} Mg^{2+}$, 14.7 mg L^{-1} , Na⁺, and 14.3 mg $L^{-1} SiO_2$). In these experiments, 180 pH was adjusted to 7 ± 0.1 after extracting samples. Three blank samples without 181 herbicide addition were considered in order to study the mortality due to natural 182

reasons. One photocatalytic ozonation process was carried out; samples at different
stages of oxidation extent of the most refractory herbicide were extracted (0, 25, 50, 75,
and 100% of initial CLO removal). A final sample when TOC removal achieved a
steady state level was also analyzed.

187 The formula proposed by Abbott was used to correct the survival percentage due to
 188 natural causes:³¹

189
$$\% M'_{\rm S} = \frac{\% M_{\rm S} - \% M_{\rm B}}{100 - \% M_{\rm B}}$$
 (5)

190
$$\% S'_{\rm S} = 100 - \% M'_{\rm S}$$
 (6)

In these equations M_S and M_B stands for mortality without correction in the sample and
blank tests, respectively; and, M's and S's are the sample respective mortality and
survival corrected percentages.

194 Acute fitotoxicity assay

Seeds of *Lactuca Sativa* and *Solanum Lycopersicum* were purchased from Vilmorin®
(Batavia blonde of Paris lettuce and cherry tomato respectively) and used as test plants
for acute fitotoxicity assays of water samples extracted at different times of o treatment.

Fifty *L. Sativa* or *S. Lycopersicum* seeds were equally distributed into Petri dishes equipped with paper discs moistened with 4 mL of water sample. The dishes were covered with paraffin plastic in order to avoid liquid evaporation, and incubated in a germination chamber isolated from light at 22 ± 2 °C for 120 hours. After that period, the root length (L), expressed as the sum of hypocotyl and radicle, was measured for those seeds whose germination had taken place. Additionally, a negative control or blank of MiliQ® water and a positive control of H₂O₂ 300 mM were carried out. The validity criteria for the test were an upper 90% of germination and a variation coefficient for the root growth below 30% in negative control experiments. Positive control led to germination of none of the seeds. The percentage root growth was calculated by comparing the radicle lengths for each sample with those observed in the control (L/L_{Blank}).

210 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

211 Photocatalytic oxidation. Activity of catalyst with different Ti:N ratios

Previously to the application of ozone, some photocatalytic tests were carried out in the presence of oxygen. Different catalysts were synthetized by varying the ratio Ti:N in the manufacturing process. Accordingly, different doping percentages are expected in the lab made photocatalysts. Doping percentage of titania particles influences the activity of the photocatalyst.³² Hence, Ti:N ratios from 1:0 to 1:2 were used in the photocatalysis of a mixture of the three herbicides considered in this work.

Figure 2 shows the evolution of the normalized concentration of herbicides treated in the presence of different catalysts. Also, the evolution of total organic carbon (TOC) is displayed.

The positive effect of N-doping is observed in Fig. 2. Regardless of the catalyst nitrogen content, the presence of this anionic dopant improves the conversion of the herbicides and the mineralization degree achieved after 180 min of treatment. An optimum in N percentage was experienced when the $TiO_2_1:1.6$ catalyst was used. The presence of an optimum relies on the influence of opposite effects. On one hand, N doping involves a decrease in the band gap energy and, as a consequence, a higher photolytic activity. On the other hand, an increase in diameter particle (lower specific area), formation of TiN (non-transparent), and the amount of oxygen vacancies (electron –hole recombination
sites) are related to high N doping photocatalysts.³³ In any case, this subject is somehow
controversial. Hence, some authors claim that N doping decreases particle size while
electron hole recombination is prevented by oxygen vacancies (photoluminescence
intensity minimization)³⁴ An increase in BET surface area as N percentage reaches a
determined value has been reported, values above the optimum lead to a BET area
decrease.³⁵

The mechanisms of improved photoactivity of N doped titania are out of the scope ofthis work.

Under optimum conditions, after 3 hours of reaction, mineralization of the herbicides was 50%. Therefore, in an attempt to improve the TOC conversion extent, the photocatalysis was carried out in the presence of ozone, leading to the photocatalytic ozonation process. For comparison purposes, single ozonation was first applied.

Ozonation and photocatalytic ozonation. Activity of catalyst with different Ti:N ratios

Ozonation of the herbicides mixture (Fig. 3) confirms the recalcitrant nature of these 243 compounds towards molecular ozone. In fact, in a previous work the rate constants 244 between ozone and the herbicides were tested and took values of 20 M⁻¹ min⁻¹ for 245 clopyralid and triclopyr, and $105 \,\mathrm{M^{-1}\,min^{-1}}$ in the case of picloram.³⁶ TOC nearly 246 remains constant showing conversion values in the proximity of 10% after 3 hours of 247 248 ozonation. Dissolved ozone and at the reactor outlet were immediately detected and remained unchanged throughout the process, corroborating the slow regime developed 249 250 in this heterogeneous reaction. Accordingly, the system UVA/O₃/TiO₂ 1:x was applied 251 by using different TiO₂ 1:x catalysts.

Figure 3 shows the results obtained in photocatalytic ozonation experiments. As 252 253 observed, use of ozone in the presence of titania significantly increases the efficiency of 254 herbicides removal and TOC conversion. In this case, however, with the exception of the TiO₂ 1:1.6 catalysts, doping of titania particles does not necessarily enhance the 255 abatement rate of herbicides. Moreover, TiO₂ 1:0.8 and TiO₂ 1:2.0 display a worse 256 performance than undoped TiO_2 1:0 when herbicides conversion is monitored. The best 257 258 results, in terms of parent compounds elimination, were experienced with the TiO₂ 1:0.4 and TiO₂ 1:1.6 catalysts. These two catalysts are capable of achieving 259 >99% conversion of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr in 60, 20 and 30 min, 260 261 respectively. After 180 min, single ozonation just led to 27, 77, and 44% conversion of the same herbicides. Again, it seems that an optimum in N doping extent does exist. 262 Mineralization of the reaction mixture revealed the higher activity of TiO₂ 1:1.6 if 263 264 compared to the rest of catalysts and, obviously, to single ozonation. For instance, photocatalytic ozonation in the presence of TiO₂ 1:1.6 led to 80% mineralization in 265 roughly 60 min, while the rest of tested catalyst required 180 min on average to achieve 266 the same TOC conversion. 267

Photocatalytic ozonation in the presence of undoped titania suggests the existence of 268 some synergistic effect when combining the UVA/TiO₂ 1:1.0 and O₃ systems. This 269 synergism is particularly visible when TOC evolution is analyzed. Hence, the 270 271 UVA/TiO₂ 1:1.0 system hardly achieved 5% in TOC reduction while single ozonation just led to 10% of mineralization (after 180 min). Adding up the TOC conversion 272 273 experienced in individual systems (roughly 15%) is far away from 80% obtained in the combined process. As stated previously, doping of the titania particles to generate the 274 TiO₂ 1:1.6 catalyst rose the final TOC removal up to 95% after 180 min of treatment. 275 276 Synergism is also observed with the later catalyst, experiencing TOC reductions of 10%

and 45% corresponding to single ozonation and photocatalytic oxidation respectivelyafter 3 hours.

279 Photocatalytic ozonation. Stability and characterization of TiO₂_1:1.6 catalyst.

Stability of the $TiO_2_1:1.6$ catalyst (the most active solid) was assessed by recycling the solid through five consecutive runs with no replacement of solid losses during the recovery stages.

Recovery of the catalyst by filtration at lab scale led to significant reductions in the 283 catalyst amount used in the following run. Thus, catalyst concentration in the 2nd, 3rd, 284 4th, and 5th runs were reduced to 66%, 46%, 30% and 20% of the amount used in the 1st 285 experiment. As inferred from Fig. 4, a slight decrease in herbicide removal rate was 286 experienced after the 2nd use. However, this fact was not impediment to achieve 100% 287 conversion of the parent compounds at similar reaction times than those obtained in the 288 first two runs. Analogous behavior was observed when TOC conversion was 289 considered. Hence, mineralization of the mixture in the range 90-95% was obtained 290 after 180 min regardless of the amount of the catalyst and reuse. For comparison 291 292 purposes an empirical pseudo first order reaction constant has been calculated and normalized to the catalyst concentration used in each run. Hence, the normalized rate 293 constants were 0.053, 0.089, 0.0767, 0.10 and 0.14 min⁻¹ L g⁻¹, corresponding to the 294 first, second, third, fourth and fifth reuses, respectively. These empirical reaction rates 295 296 have revealed that effectively no apparent deactivation of the catalyst occurs, moreover, 297 some enhancement of the process can be envisaged likely due to an optimization in catalyst concentration in the media. Some theoretical analysis of the reactor geometry 298 299 and efficiency based on Monte Carlo simulations reveal that optimum catalyst 300 concentration is even below 0.1 g/L to achieve the maximum LVRPA (local volumetric301 rate of photon absorption).

To elucidate the possible reason for the $TiO_2_{1:1.6}$ higher activity, some preliminary tests were applied to all the manufactured solids. UV-vis absorption spectra profiles of manufactured catalysts are shown in figure 5. This figure reveals no significant differences in the obtained spectra. Tauc's method to calculate the band gap energy was thereafter applied³⁷. Table 1 displays the results obtained, confirming that the band gap energy of the solids were quite similar and do not explain the observed differences in activity.

The other parameter that has been suggested to contribute to the activity of N doped titania is the increase in surface area. Table 1 shows the BET area found in nitrogen adsorption experiments. At the sight of the displayed results, it is observed a higher area of the $TiO_2_{1:1.6}$ catalyst that would explain its higher activity³⁵.

Given the high stability and activity of the TiO₂ 1:1.6 catalyst, additional 313 characterization of this solid was carried out by different techniques. Figure 6 shows the 314 315 XRD pattern of TiO₂ 1:1.6 as a function of temperature. As expected, according to the temperature of calcination (500 °C), a 100% anatase phase diphractogram was obtained. 316 Higher temperatures involves the partial transformation of anatase to the non-317 photoactive rutile³², hence, rutile percentages of 9.4, 15.3 and 24.3% where obtained at 318 temperatures of 550, 600 and 700 °C, respectively. Scherrer equation was used to 319 320 estimate the crystal size (D) according to:

321
$$D = 0.9 \frac{\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$$
 (7)

where θ is the diffraction angle of the peak selected, β the half height peak's width (in radians), λ the wavelength of the source of X ray applied (1,5456 Å for Cu radiation), K the Scherrer's constant which depends on the shape of the particles (value of 0.9 if spherical shape is considered). Considering the anatase peak at $2\theta = 25.4^{\circ}$ a value in the proximity of 13-14 nm was obtained in all diphractograms with the exception of 700 °C where a higher value of 29 nm was obtained.

Three areas of the XPS spectrum were investigated: the Ti 2p, O 1s and N 1s regions 328 329 (fig 7). The binding energy of N 1s when introduced into the TiO_2 structure extends from 397 to 403 eV. In the spectra of TiO₂ 1:1.6, a peak at 400.0 eV is observed. 15s of 330 sputtering led to the cleaning of the superficial layer and the energy of N 1s peak 331 332 increased to 400.5 eV. According to literature, this peak can be attributed to the environment O-Ti-N³³, or the states of nitrogen doped in titania might be various and 333 coexist the form N-Ti-O and Ti-O-N.²⁷ O 1s shows certain asymmetry due the fact that 334 has contributions of two peaks, located at 530 and 531 eV. The first one is characteristic 335 of O-Ti-O linkages, while the second one is frequently attributed to O-Ti-N structure.³⁸ 336 337 Ti 2p peak observed (results not shown) had a lower binding energy compared to O-Ti-O linkage, which is also indicative of insertion of N in the TiO₂ lattice. Nitrogen content 338 calculated from the spectra revealed values of 1.7 and 0.96%, before and after 15 s 339 340 etching respectively. Shirley method was applied in order to determinate the baseline of quantified peaks. 341

342 SEM analysis of $TiO_2_1:1.6$ shows (fig. 8) a variety of particle sizes and shapes 343 forming heterogeneous agglomerates. TEM images (fig. 8) corroborate the crystal size 344 obtained by XRD. Some images display crystals showing an octahedral derived shape 345 with the appearance of rhombic {100} and hexagonal {112} faces.

346 TG-DTA-MS

Figure 9 displays the percentage of mass loss in the characterization run. A linear decrease is experienced up to 500 °C. Thereafter a partial stabilization was observed. The mass loss was roughly 24%. The differential thermal analysis reveals two main exothermic variations in energy coinciding with the release of water and carbon dioxide (280 and 440 °C)

352 Photocatalytic ozonation. Toxicity and fitotoxicity of treated samples.

Toxicity of the herbicide mixture after photocatalytic ozonation was firstly tested bymonitoring BOD evolution of different samples.

BOD tests were carried out by using synthetic water doped with the herbicides and 355 356 being exposed to the photocatalytic ozonation process. Figure 10A shows the results. 357 BOD evolution of synthetic water, with and without doping before being treated by photocatalytic ozonation, showed similar trends with a value after 5 days of 19 mg L⁻¹. 358 This might be indicative of the non-toxic nature of the herbicides. Nevertheless, 359 different results were observed after treating the initial compounds by the oxidation 360 process. After 10 minutes of treatment, parent compounds are completely abated; and, 361 BOD₅ dropped off to a value of 13 mg L⁻¹ which could be considered as an increase in 362 toxicity. This effect is supposed to be due to the formation of reaction intermediates 363 364 more toxic than the parent compounds. Maximum in concentration of organic short 365 chain acids such as acetic, propionic and oxalic acids were detected (embedded figure of plot in Fig. 10C). Rupture and opening ring of the herbicides take place at the early 366 367 stage of the process. Chloride profile sustains the previous hypothesis (embedded figure of plot in Fig. 10B). After enough time of treatment (180 min), TOC removal reaches a 368

state value. At this point BOD₅ took a value of 17 mg L^{-1} , higher than BOD₅ at 10 minutes, but lower than the initial value (19 mg L^{-1}).

Since BOD is a general parameter affected by a number of variables, some additional 371 toxicity tests by considering the exposure of D. parvula were completed. In this case, 372 more samples at initial stages of parent herbicides oxidation were taken and exposed to 373 the crustacean. The first one, which corresponds to a 25% removal of the most 374 recalcitrant herbicide (clopyralid), showed the highest mortality rate. After that, survival 375 rate increases to almost 100% in the sample of 75% clopyralid removal, and remains 376 constant for the rest of the treatment. Again, as BOD₅ suggested previously, a maximum 377 of toxicity appears at the early stage of the photocatalytic ozonation process. Formation 378 of more toxic chloride organic intermediates before the dechlorination to short-chain 379 380 organic compounds can explain the results. Once the herbicides have been degraded, mortality drops off to a negligible value. It should be highlighted that this absence of 381 toxicity is in correspondence to mineralization extent, up to 95%. 382

383 Similar results to those previously discussed were found when fitotoxicity assays were384 completed (Figure 10D).

385 CONCLUSIONS

386 From the results extracted from this work, the following conclusions can be withdrawn:

- An optimum amount of triethylamine applied in the synthesis led to the highest
 activity in photocatalytic oxidation trials. N doping improves titania photoactivity.
- Photocatalytic ozonation considerably improved the herbicide and TOC abatement
 compared to photocatalytic oxidation or single ozonation..

N doped titanium dioxide with the best photocatalytic behavior showed a 100% of
 anatase phase with a crystal size of 13.5 nm. XPS analysis suggests the formation of
 O-Ti-N linkage and N content of 1%.

• Photoactivity is maintained after four consecutive runs.

At the early stages of the herbicide photocatalytic ozonation process, toxicity
 suffered a significant increase. It disappears when parent herbicides are completely
 abated and dechlorination is completed.

398 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

399 The authors thank the economic support received from Gobierno de Extremadura and

400 CICYT of Spain through Projects GRU10012 and CTQ2012-35789-C02-01,

401 respectively. Mr. Rafael Rodríguez Solís thanks Gobierno de Extremadura, Consejería

de Empleo, Empresa e Innovación, and FSE Funds for his Ph.D. grant (PD12058).

403 **REFERENCES**

- 404 1 Cox C, Picloram herbicide factsheet, *J Pestic Reform* 18:13-20 (1998).
- 405 2 Cox C, Clopyralid herbicide factsheet, *J Pestic Reform* 18:15-19 (1998).
- 406 3 Cox C, Triclopyr herbicide factsheet, *J Pestic Reform* **20**:12-29 (1998).
- 4 Pang L, Close ME, Watt JPC, Vincent KW, Simulation of picloram, atrazine, and
 simazine leaching through two New Zealand soils and into groundwater using
 HYDRUS-2D. *J Contam Hydrol* 44:19-46 (2000).
- Liu L-C, Dumas JA, Cacho CL, Picloram groundwater contamination from pasture
 use. *J Agric Univ P R* 81 (1997).
- 6 Elliott JA, Cessna AJ, Nicholaichuk W, Tollefson LC, Leaching rates and
 preferential flow of selected herbicides through tilled and untilled soil. *J Environ Qual* 29:1650-1656 (200).

- 415 7 Diaz R, Loague K, Assessing the potential for pesticide leaching for the pine forest
 416 areas of Tenerife. *Environ Toxicol Chem* 20:1958-1967 (2011).
- 8 Rivas J, Gimeno G, Borralho T, Carbajo M, UV-C photolysis of endocrine
 disruptors. The influence of inorganic peroxides. *J Hazard Mater* 174:393-397
 (2010).
- 420 9 Agustina TE, Ang HM, Vareek VK, A review of synergistic effect of photocatalysis
 421 and ozonation on wastewater treatment. *J Photochem Photobiol C* 6: 264–273
 422 (2005).
- 423 10 Fisher MB, Keane DA, Fernández-Ibánez P, Colreavy J, Hinder SJ, McGuigan KG,
- 424 Pilla SC, Nitrogen and copper doped solar light active TiO₂ photocatalysts for water
- 425 decontamination. *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* **130–131**: 8–13 (2013).
- 426 11 Pelaez M, Cruz AA, Stathatos E, Falaras P, Dionysiou DD, Visible light-activated N-
- F-codoped TiO₂ nanoparticles for the photocatalytic degradation of microcystin-LR
 in water. *Catal*. *Today* 144: 19–25 (2009).
- 429 12 Choi H, Antoniou MG, Pelaez M, Cruz AA, Shoemaker JA, Dionysiou DD,
- 430 Mesoporous Nitrogen-doped TiO_2 for the Photocatalytic Destruction of the
- 431 Cyanobacterial Toxin Microcystin-LR under Visible Light. *Environ. Sci. & Technol.*
- **432 41 (21)**: 7530-7535 (2007).
- 13 Sacco O, Vaiano V, Han Ch., Sannino D, Dionysiou DD, Photocatalytic removal of
 atrazine using N-doped TiO₂ supported on phosphors. *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 164:
- 435 462–474 (2015).
- 436 14 Vaiano V, Sacco O, Sannino D, Ciambelli P, Photocatalytic removal of spiramycin
- from wastewater under visible light with N-doped TiO₂ photocatalysts. *Chem. Eng.*
- 438 *J*. **261**: 3–8 (2015).

- 439 15 Yu J, Wang J, Zhang J, He Z, Liu Z, Ai X, Characterization and photoactivity of
- 440 TiO₂ sols prepared with triethylamine. *Mater Lett* **61**:4984–4988 (2007).
- 16 Westphal K, Saliger R, Jäger D, Teevs L, Prüße U, Degradation of clopyralid by the
 Fenton reaction. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 52:13924–13929 (2013).
- 443 17 Özcan A, Şahin Y, Koparal AS, Oturan MA, Degradation of picloram by the electro-
- 444 Fenton process. *J Hazard Mater* **153**:718-727 (2008).
- 18 Huston PL, Pignatello JJ, Degradation of selected pesticide active ingredients and
 commercial formulations in water by the photo-assisted Fenton reaction. *Water Res*33:1238-1246 (1999).
- 448 19 Rudyak SS, Solozhenko EG, Soboleva NM, Goncharuk VV, Destruction of picloram
- under the effect of ozone and hydrogen peroxide. Sov J Water Chem Tech 9:34-37
 (1987).
- 20 Abramović B, Šojića D, Despotovića V, Vioneb D, Pazzib M, Csanádia J, 2011. A
 comparative study of the activity of TiO₂ Wackherr and Degussa P25 in the
- 453 photocatalytic degradation of picloram. *Appl Catal B: Environ* **105**:191-198 (2011).
- 454 21 Poulios I, Kositzi M, Kouras A, Photocatalytic decomposition of triclopyr over
- 455 aqueous semiconductor suspensions. J Photochem Photobiol A: Chem 115:175-183
- 456 (1998)
- 457 22 Qamar M, Muneer M, Bahnemann D, Heterogeneous photocatalysed degradation of
- 458 two selected pesticide derivatives, triclopyr and daminozid in aqueous suspensions of
- 459 titanium dioxide. *J Environ Manag* **80**:99-106 (2006).
- 460 23 Šojić DV, Anderluh VB, Orčić DZ, Abramović BF, Photodegradation of clopyralid
- 461 in TiO₂ suspensions: Identification of intermediates and reaction pathways. *J Hazard*
- 462 *Mater* **168**:94-101 (2009).

- 463 24 Šojić D, Despotović V, Abramović B, Todorova N, Giannakopoulou T, Trapalis C,
 464 Photocatalytic degradation of mecoprop and clopyralid in aqueous suspensions of
- 465 nanostructured N-doped TiO₂. *Molecules* **15**:2994-3009 (2010).
- 466 25 Orellana-García F, Álvarez MA, López-Ramón V, Rivera-Utrilla J, Sánchez-Polo M,
- 467 Mota AJ, Photodegradation of herbicides with different chemical natures in aqueous
- 468 solution by ultraviolet radiation. Effects of operational variables and solution
- 469 chemistry. *Chem Eng J* **255**:307-315 (2014).
- 470 26 Tizaoui C, Mezughi K, Bickley R, 2011. Heterogeneous photocatalytic removal of
- 471 the herbicide clopyralid and its comparison with UV/H_2O_2 and ozone oxidation
- 472 techniques. *Desalin* **273**:197-204 (2011).
- 27 Senthilnathan J, Philip L, Photocatalytic degradation of lindane under UV and visible
- 474 light using N-doped TiO₂. *Chem Eng J* **161**:83-92 (2010).
- 28 Bader H, Hoigné J, Determination of ozone in water by the indigo method. *Water Res* 15:449-456 (1981).
- 477 29 Erdei L, Arecrachakul N, Vigneswaran S, A combined photocatalytic slurry reactor-
- 478 immersed membrane module system for advanced wastewater treatment. Sep Purif
- 479 *Technol* **62**:382-388 (2008).
- 480 30 EPA, 2002. Methods for measuring the acute toxicity of effluents and receiving
 481 water to freshwater and marine organisms. 5th edition, Washington.
- 482 31 Abbott WS, A method of computing the effectiveness of an insecticide. *J Econ*483 *Entomol* 18:265-267 (1925).
- 484 32 Carp O, Huisman CL, Reller A, Photoinduced reactivity of titanium dioxide. *Prog*485 *Solid State Chem* 32:33-177 (2004)

- 33 Cha J-A, An S-H, Jang H-D, Kimc C-S, Song D-K, Kim T-O, Synthesis and
 photocatalytic activity of N-doped TiO₂/ZrO₂ visible-light. *Adv Powder Tech*23:717-723 (2012).
- 489 34 Cong Y, Zhang J, Chen F, Anpo M, Synthesis and characterization of Nitrogen-
- 490 doped TiO_2 nanophotocatalyst with high visible light activity. J Phys Chem C
- 491 **111**:6976-6982 (2007).
- 35 Dhanya TP, Sugunan S, Preparation, Characterization and Photocatalytic Activity of
 N doped TiO₂. *IOSR J Appl Chem* 4:27-33 (2013).
- 494 36 Solís RR, Rivas FJ, Gimeno O, Pérez-Bote JL, Photocatalytic ozonation of
- 495 clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. Kinetics, toxicity and operational parameters
 496 influence. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* DOI: 10.1002/jctb.4542 (2014).
- 497 37 Tauc J, Grigorovici R, Vancu A, Optical Properties and Electronic Structure of
 498 Amorphous Germanium. *Phys. Stat. Sol.*15:627-637 (1966).
- 499 38 Chen X, Burda C, Photoelectron spectroscopic investigation of nitrogen-doped
- 500 titania nanoparticles. *J Phys Chem B* **108**:15446-15449 (2004).

Table 1. Characterization of manufactured catalysts.

Catalyst	BG (eV)	Sвет (m ² /g)
TiO ₂ _1:0	2.991	14.48
TiO ₂ _1:0.4	3.145	-
TiO ₂ _1:0.8	3.095	11.34
TiO ₂ _1:1.2	3.129	-
TiO ₂ _1:1.6	3.130	34.56
TiO ₂ _1:2.0	3.075	12.98



Figure 1. Experimental setup: 1, oxygen; 2, ozone generator; 3, flow rate controller; 4, gas inlet; 5, cylindrical reactor; 6, sampling port; 7, thermometer; 8, black-light lamps; 9, magnetic stirrer; 10, gas outlet; 11, ozone analyzer.



Figure 2. Black light photocatalysis of a mixture of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. Experimental conditions: T = 20 °C, V = 1.0 L; $I = 6.86 \cdot 10^{-5}$ Einstein min⁻¹ L⁻¹; pH = 4.0 (average value), C_{herbicide} = 5.0 ppm (each), C_{Catalyst} = 0.5 g L⁻¹. Catalyst: •, TiO₂_1:0; •, TiO₂_1:0.4; •, TiO₂_1:0.8; ∇ , TiO₂_1:1.2; o, TiO₂_1:1.6; •, TiO₂_1:2.



Figure 3. Black light photocatalytic ozonation of a mixture of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. Experimental conditions: T = 20 °C, V = 1.0 L; $I = 6.86 \cdot 10^{-5}$ Einstein min⁻¹ L⁻¹; pH = 4.0 (average value), C_{herbicide} = 5.0 ppm (each), C_{Catalyst} = 0.5 g L⁻¹. \Box , Single ozonation; Δ , Photolytic ozonation; Photocatalytic ozonation: Catalyst: •, TiO₂_1:0; •, TiO₂_1:0.4; \blacktriangle , TiO₂_1:0.8; \blacktriangledown , TiO₂_1:1.2; o, TiO₂_1:1.6; •, TiO₂_1:2.



Figure 4. Black light photocatalytic ozonation of a mixture of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. Experimental conditions: T = 20 °C, V = 1.0 L; $I = 6.86 \cdot 10^{-5}$ Einstein min⁻¹ L⁻¹; pH = 4.0 (average value), C_{herbicide} = 5.0 ppm (each). C_{Catalyst}= TiO₂_1:1.6 (g L⁻¹): •, 0.50 1st use; •, 0.33 2nd use; •, 0.23 3rd use; •, 0.15 4th use; o, •, 0.10 5th use.



Figure 5. UV-vis absorption spectra profiles of catalysts and Tauc's plot corresponding
to TiO₂_1:1.6 (inlet figure).



Figure 6. XRD pattern of TiO₂_1:1.6 as a function of temperature



Figure 7. XPS of fresh TiO₂_1:1.6 catalyst.



Figure 8. SEM/TEM of fresh TiO₂_1:1.6 catalyst.



Figure 9. TG-DTA-MS of fresh TiO₂_1:1.6 catalyst.



Figure 10. Black light photocatalytic ozonation of a mixture of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. Experimental conditions: T = 20 °C, V = 1.0 L; $I = 6.86 \cdot 10^{-5}$ Einstein min⁻¹ L⁻¹; pH = 4.0 (average value), C_{herbicide} = 5.0 ppm (each). C_{Catalyst}= 0.5 g L⁻¹ TiO₂_1:1.6.

A. BOD evolution in synthetic water: O, water without herbicides ; \Box , doped water with 5 ppm in each herbicide; Δ , doped water after 10 min of photocatalytic ozonation; ∇ , doped water after 180 min of photocatalytic ozonation.

B. 24 h *D. Parvula* survival percentage after different periods of photocatalytic ozonation. (Embedded figure: evolution of \bullet , clopyralid, \blacksquare , picloram, \blacktriangle , triclopyr, O, chloride, and \Box , nitrate during the experiment).

C. 48 h *D. Parvula* survival percentage after different periods of photocatalytic ozonation. (Embedded figure: evolution of \bullet , acetic acid, \circ , propionic acid, and \blacktriangle , oxalic acid during the experiment).

D. Fotoxicity evolution of black light photocatalytic ozonation of a mixture of clopyralid, picloram and triclopyr. ●, *L. Sativa*; ■, *S. Lycopersicum*