

Efficient and Stable Immobilization of TiO₂-Based Composite Photocatalytic System for Separation and Purification of Organic Pollutants in Wastewater under Solar Light

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Abstract

Photocatalytic removal of organic pollutants emerging from untreated industrial and aquaculture wastewater are still limited by catalytic efficiency and stability in practical application. In this study, we have reported the development of silicone immobilized, hydrothermal and PEG assisted Ag doped TiO₂ composite (S-H-PEG/PAgT) system for an effective and sustainable elimination of organic pollutants under solar light illumination. Firstly, the newly developed silicone immobilized TiO₂ (S-TiO₂) was identified as an ideal strategy. It exhibited higher and stable organic pollutant removal (Rh B) than conventional immobilization methods, including poly-vinyl alcohol TiO₂ (PVA/TiO₂) and dip-coated TiO₂. Furthermore, the developed solar light driven S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system showed good light absorption, narrow band gap, crystalline phase, surface hydrophobicity, roughness, and excellent catalytic performance than S-TiO₂ (control). The S-H-PEG/PAgT was effective in removal of tetracycline (a model emerging organic contaminant) and exhibited high stability in a continuous (10 cycles) operation, meanwhile achieved good efficiency under different environmental conditions. The mechanism analysis revealed $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and h^+ as dominant active species involved in the catalytic reaction. Most importantly, a synergistic effect of surface hydrophobicity, roughness and photocatalytic activity contributed to the overall reduction of pollutants. Therefore, the developed novel solar light driven S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system shows great promise for practical purification of organics pollutants in wastewater.

Keywords: Strategy of photocatalytic immobilization process, Efficiency of wastewater treatment, Elimination of antibiotics, Practical feasibility

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Water is the most vital component and valuable resource humans depend on for survival and
3 development. In recent years, due to rapid industrialization and urbanization, water sources have been
4 continuously polluted with emerging organic pollutants and antibiotics such as tetracycline (TC) [1,2].
5 The discharge of untreated, recalcitrant, toxic and non-degradable organic compounds poses a significant
6 threat to the environment [3,4]. The unjustified use of antibiotics in aquaculture and other industries, as
7 well as untreated wastewater with high concentrations of antibiotics contribute to the development of
8 antibiotic resistant microorganisms that are harmful to human health, aquatic life, and biodiversity. Hence,
9 wastewater treatment is critical for protecting water resources and advancing sustainable development.
10 Therefore, a sustainable and efficient treatment is necessary for complete removal of emerging organic
11 pollutants in wastewater.

12 Photocatalytic technology that utilizes solar as sustainable source of light has become a desirable
13 green solution for treating environmental pollutants. The photocatalysts, including metal oxide
14 semiconductors such as titanium dioxide (TiO_2), zinc oxide (ZnO), and tungsten dioxide (WO_3) have
15 shown great potential for water treatment under UV irradiation. Among them, TiO_2 has gained much
16 attention due to its superior activity, oxidizing ability, economic feasibility, and non-toxicity [5]. However,
17 the recovery and reuse of TiO_2 nanoparticles in a slurry system is a fundamental problem, as it is time
18 consuming, poor recoverability and practically difficult [6]. Stabilization of photocatalysts on solid
19 supports can be an ideal option to increase the efficiency and reduce the operational costs in photocatalytic
20 wastewater treatment [7].

21 In order to improve the feasibility of photocatalysts for practical application, the immobilization
22 strategy should be economical, strongly fix photocatalysts on the surface of the support and have excellent
23 photocatalytic activity. This reduces the loss of photocatalysts and improve the stability for a long term

24 use [8]. To achieve the above, several studies have been focused on identifying optimal stabilization
25 technique and improving photocatalytic activity. Traditionally, the photocatalysts are immobilized on the
26 supports by various approaches such as sol-gel technique, chemical vapor deposition (CVD), pulsed laser
27 deposition (PVD), and solvent deposition [9]. The sol-gel method is used to immobilize photocatalysts by
28 dip-coating supports in photocatalyst solution [10]. This method offers good controllability, dependability,
29 and reproducibility in obtaining structured thin films [11]. But with dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalysts, it has
30 been noted that formation of amorphous phase frequently resulted in low activity and poor charge
31 separation [12]. To control the crystallinity, temperature and other reaction conditions needs to be
32 monitored to achieve higher activity and stability in pollutant removal. The use polymer such as poly-
33 vinyl alcohol (PVA) mixed with TiO₂ synthesized by sol-gel method are casted on supports under mild
34 thermal treatment [13,14]. The thermal fixation of PVA/TiO₂ showed good activity and stability for 5
35 consecutive cycles. In another aspect, the use of polymeric binder such as polysiloxane is considered to
36 be more convenient as it strongly fixes photocatalysts under ambient conditions and maintain good
37 crystallinity and activity of TiO₂. Specifically, poly-siloxane binders seem to be a suitable option given
38 their thermal stability, surface hydrophobicity, optical transparency, non-toxicity, and UV resistance. The
39 TiO₂ photocatalyst uniformly combined with an oxime-based silicone binder in a continuous flow packed-
40 bed reactor under UV light increased the photoactivity and durability [15]. Similarly, loading of
41 photocatalysts on the siloxane increased activity and stability in consecutive cycles for organic reduction
42 [16]. While silicone is optically transparent, mixing nanoparticles with the binder lowers the interaction
43 of organics with the photocatalysts. A higher catalyst loading can overcome this problem, but, not feasible
44 from the economical point of view. To date, the studies related to silicone binders are used after
45 homogenization and there is also a lack of comparative studies with conventional immobilization methods.
46 So, fixing the photocatalysts on silicone support could enhance the stability and durability, and their

47 activity in the continuous reactor should be compared with the existing immobilization methods.
48 Additionally, the selection of support materials for fixing photocatalysts have an important function for
49 ensuring process stability, catalytic performance, and development of immobilization system [17]. So, the
50 glass beads coated with photocatalysts can be incorporated in multiple photocatalytic system and increase
51 the interaction with the pollutants to achieve higher activity [18,19]. In addition, the solution parameters
52 in an actual environmental also change depending on the pollution source [20]. However, little is known
53 about the process stability and activity of photocatalytic surfaces for the removal of organic contaminants.

54 Besides, pure TiO_2 photocatalysts are only activated under UV light, which accounts for less than
55 5% of solar light. The rapid electron-hole recombination, low charge separation and wide band gap limits
56 its scalability. Doping TiO_2 with noble metals (Ag, Au and Pt), non-metals (P, C, N and S) and narrow
57 band semiconductors (Ag_2O and Ag_3PO_4) are known to effectively decrease original band gap and
58 enhance photo-induced charge separation [21,22]. In our previous study, the doping of metal (Ag), metal
59 oxides (Ag_2O and Ag_3PO_4) and non-metal (P) with TiO_2 , synthesized by one-pot sol-gel/hydrothermal
60 method showed superior performance in water splitting and organic dye degradation [23]. The quaternary
61 heterostructure, hydrothermal synthesized Ag species doped TiO_2 based photocatalyst (H-PAgT) showed
62 higher charge separation, small crystalline size, low electron-hole pair recombination than pure TiO_2 . The
63 H-PAgT photocatalyst immobilized on poly-siloxane showed strong adhesion of photocatalysts
64 nanoparticles with good disinfection and pollutant removal efficiency [24,25]. In addition, several reports
65 emphasize on the use of morphological tuners polyethylene glycol (PEG) during the synthesis process to
66 further control grain growth and improve photocatalytic activity [26]. Until now, the effect of surface
67 modifiers on H-PAgT immobilized system for removal of antibiotics has not yet been understood.
68 Moreover, the underlying mechanism with different immobilization method is still unclear and requires
69 further clarification. From practical perspective, a comprehensive assessment of catalytic performance and

70 stability needs to be evaluated to be adopted commercially. To the best of our knowledge, there is no study
71 on H-PEG/PAGT immobilized system for treatment of wastewater.

72 Therefore, the main objective of this study was to identify the ideal immobilization strategy and
73 develop a silicone immobilized, hydrothermal and PEG assisted Ag species TiO₂ based photocatalytic
74 system (S-H-PEG/PAGT) for treatment of organic pollutants under solar light. We observed the reduction
75 of organics with silicone immobilized TiO₂ (S-TiO₂) and S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts. In the
76 comparative study, the newly developed system showed better physio-chemical characteristics and
77 stability compared to conventional dip-coated-TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂ systems. Finally, the practical
78 feasibility of the immobilized system for removal of organics was determined and the mechanism of the
79 reaction was proposed.

80 **2. Materials and methods**

81 **2.1 Preparation of hydrothermal synthesized Ag species doped TiO₂ based photocatalyst**

82 The Ag species doped TiO₂ based photocatalysts was synthesized by hydrothermal method
83 according to our previous study [23]. 6 mL of tetra-butyl titanate (TNBT) was added to 46 mL of ethanol
84 was mixed thoroughly for 1 h (Solution A). A known amount of precursor salts AgNO₃ and Ag₃PO₄ was
85 added to 1 mol L⁻¹ of nitric acid (HNO₃) and sonicated until the salts were completely dissolved (Solution
86 B). The solution B containing Ag and phosphate precursor mixture was added dropwise to solution A and
87 stirred for 16 h to obtain a homogeneous and clear sol-gel at room temperature. The sol-gel solution was
88 transferred to a hydrothermal reactor and treated at 120°C for 3 h. After the reaction, the supernatant was
89 washed 3 times with ethanol and distilled water. The supernatant was centrifuged three times at 5000 rpm
90 and dried at 60°C for 12 h to obtain H/PAGT. For the PEG-modified samples, PEG (1 g: 300 MW) and
91 TNBT (6 mL) was added to 46 mL of ethanol and stirred for 1 hour (Solution A). The remaining steps are
92 the same as those described previously. The sample that was obtained was denoted as H-PEG/PAGT.

93 **2.2 Immobilization of TiO₂, H/PAgT and H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts on silicone beads**

94 The immobilization of photocatalysts on poly-siloxane binder was prepared according to our
95 previous study [24], The glass beads were first washed with ethanol and distilled water and dried at 100°C
96 for 6 h. A commercially available poly-siloxane binder was coated on glass beads to cover the entire
97 surface. 0.2 g of photocatalyst powders was loaded with the help of lab-designed sieve tube until the
98 silicone supported glass surface was completely coated. The silicone supported beads were blow dried to
99 remove any non-adherent nanoparticles and stored at room temperature for 24 h. After the curing process,
100 the beads were washed with distill water to remove loosely attached nanoparticles on the surface and dried
101 at room temperature. The amount of photocatalysts adhered on the surface on the beads were estimated to
102 be around 0.023 mg. Silicone supported beads for TiO₂, PAgT and H-PEG/PAgT were denoted as S-TiO₂,
103 S-H/PAgT and S-H-PEG/PAgT (S: silicone, PEG: polyethylene glycol, H: hydrothermal two step method,
104 PAgT: P/Ag/Ag₂O/Ag₃PO₄/TiO₂ photocatalyst, and TiO₂: commercial P25), respectively. The glass beads
105 coated with only silicone were used as a control.

106 **2.3 Synthesis of dip-coated TiO₂ and PVA-TiO₂ coated beads**

107 A sol-gel approach was followed for dip-coating TiO₂ on glass beads. Firstly, the glass beads were
108 washed with methanol/water (30/70% w/w) and dried at 60°C for 3 h. 1 g of P25 (TiO₂ Evonik Degussa)
109 was added to methanol/water mixture (30/70% w/w) and sonicated for 15 min. 10 mL of dilute nitric acid
110 (pH 3) was added slowly to above solution and stirred for 1 h. After 1 h of homogenization, glass beads
111 were added to the TiO₂ dispersion and dried for 12 h at room temperature. The samples were calcined at
112 500°C for 2 h. After calcination, the obtained dip coated samples were denoted as dip-coated TiO₂.

113 The PVA/TiO₂ coating was synthesized by adding 1 g of PVA and 0.5 g of TiO₂ to 20 mL of
114 distilled water. The solution was stirred at 70°C for 3 h with thermal magnetic stirrer. The PVA/TiO₂ was

115 coated by immersing glass beads in the solution. The coated glass beads were dried at 180°C for 2 h to
116 obtain PVA/TiO₂ beads.

117 **2.4 Photocatalytic activity evaluation**

118 The catalytic activity of immobilized photocatalysts were evaluated by reduction of rhodamine B
119 (RhB) (model organic pollutant) and tetracycline (TC) (emerging organic pollutant) in a laboratory-
120 designed single-column reactor. The immobilized photocatalytic beads (0.14±0.02 g) thus synthesized
121 were packed in glass tubes (10cm, diameter: 1cm), which were connected with each other using plastic
122 connectors. One end of the connector was placed in a beaker containing Rh B (2 mg L⁻¹) /TC solution (10
123 mg L⁻¹) (50 mL). The connector was passed through a pump with a constant flow rate of 150 mL min⁻¹,
124 facilitating the suction of pollutants from one end and through the fixed-bed photocatalytic reactor,
125 forming a cyclic system. The experiments were performed under simulated sunlight (550 W m⁻², XC-100,
126 SERIC ltd, USA) and 4 mL samples were taken at constant intervals. The experiments were all carried
127 out at ambient temperature and pH. For the comparative studies, the silicone immobilized TiO₂ beads was
128 replaced with dip-coated and PVA/TiO₂ coated beads. To effectively compare the catalyst activity, the
129 dosage of photocatalysts was kept constant at 0.16 g and experiment was conducted under the same
130 reaction condition as described above.

131 **3. Results and discussion**

132 **3.1 Characterization and identification of the optimal photocatalytic immobilization process**

133 The process of photocatalytic immobilization on glass beads by dip-coating, PVA and silicone are
134 described in section 2.3. Commercially available TiO₂ (P25) was employed as a model photocatalyst to
135 effectively compare and identify the optimal immobilization process. The immobilized photocatalysts was
136 firstly characterized, and activity of S-TiO₂ was compared with dip-coated TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂
137 photocatalysts. The SEM measurements were conducted to understand the morphology of the S-TiO₂, dip-

138 coated TiO₂, and PVA/TiO₂ photocatalysts (Fig. 1a-c). In the dip-coated TiO₂, after calcination, two
139 distinct catalysts layers stacked on each other were observed. The irregularity observed on dip-coated TiO₂
140 could be due to loss of poorly attached TiO₂ nanoparticles after washing (Fig.1a). Previous reports have
141 also indicated the poor fixation of nanoparticles on glass surface by dip coating [27]. While in PVA/TiO₂,
142 the crevasses are a result of thermal casting of TiO₂ photocatalysts with PVA (Fig.1b), which exhibit
143 rough and porous structure. However, the homogenization of TiO₂ with PVA could hinder the interaction
144 of pollutants with the active sites. On the other hand, the S-TiO₂ clearly displayed a rough surface with
145 TiO₂ photocatalysts firmly attached on the silicone surface (Fig.1c). The silicone coated glass beads
146 (control; No photocatalysts) showed smooth surface, typical for poly-siloxane materials (Fig. S1a-c). The
147 addition of TiO₂ photocatalysts on silicone coated beads increased the surface roughness which could
148 improve the light absorption and reaction sites with the pollutants [28]. Therefore, the S-TiO₂ could be
149 beneficial for organic removal than dip-coated TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

150 To further investigate the surface texture and morphology, atomic force microscopy (AFM)
151 measurement was carried out for the TiO₂ photocatalysts immobilized by different methods. As shown in
152 Fig. 1d-i, the S-TiO₂ photocatalysts showed the highest surface roughness followed by PVA/TiO₂ and dip-
153 coated TiO₂ photocatalysts. The average surface roughness observed in dip-coated TiO₂, PVA/TiO₂ and
154 S-TiO₂, were 40.4, 69.3 and 74.9 nm, respectively. The surface roughness is consistent with the SEM
155 images. The increase in surface roughness could improve the photocatalytic interaction with the pollutants
156 and enhance the catalytic activity [29,30]. In addition, the surface roughness could improve the adsorption
157 of pollutants, which would lead to higher catalytic activity upon irradiation. The higher surface roughness
158 observed in S-TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂ may improve overall catalytic adsorption and degradation of organic
159 pollutants.

160 The surface wetting property of the immobilized photocatalysts involves the interaction of
161 pollutants with the photocatalysts. The wettability of the surface is also governed by surface texture and
162 roughness, in addition to their chemical property. The angle formed between the solid surface and the
163 tangent drawn at the liquid drop was used to determine the wettability of the photocatalysts. As seen in
164 Fig. 2, S-TiO₂ photocatalysts showed hydrophobic property with a contact angle of 121.4°, as compared
165 to dip coated TiO₂ (5.3°) and PVA/TiO₂ (62.4°) photocatalysts. The pristine TiO₂ (0°) and silicone coated
166 beads (92.3°) showed hydrophilic and hydrophobic property, respectively (Figure S1d-e). Usually, in the
167 hydrophobic surface, a solid-liquid-air interface is formed which could be beneficial for interaction of
168 pollutants with photocatalysts, and the oxidative species generated during the reaction process [31,32].
169 The increase in interaction and reaction with reactive species could drive the photocatalytic process and
170 effectively reduce pollutants in wastewater. So, compared to hydrophilic surface, the hydrophobic surface
171 could improve the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ immobilized catalysts for pollutant removal in
172 wastewater. Therefore, the increased surface roughness, and hydrophobicity of the S-TiO₂ immobilized
173 photocatalysts may be beneficial for improving the activity and stability for wastewater treatment.

174 The photocatalytic activity of the immobilized TiO₂ photocatalysts was determined by the
175 degradation of model organic pollutant Rh B. The experiments were conducted in a single packed column
176 reactor and the initial dosage of photocatalysts from various immobilization methods were kept constant
177 at 0.16 g/tube. Fig. 3a shows the catalytic performance of immobilized TiO₂ photocatalytic reduction of
178 Rh B. As seen in the figure, the S-TiO₂ showed higher photocatalytic activity than dip-coated TiO₂ and
179 PVA/TiO₂ photocatalysts. Rh B removal efficiency for PVA/TiO₂, dip-coated TiO₂, and S-TiO₂
180 photocatalysts were 43.7, 57.4, and 96.5%, respectively. The photocatalytic degradation rate of S-TiO₂
181 was 3.0 and 2.5 times faster than that of PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalysts, respectively (Fig.
182 S2). The increase in degradation rate can be attributed to the hydrophobic property of the S-TiO₂

183 immobilized photocatalyst. The hydrophobicity and surface roughness increased the interaction of the
184 pollutant with the photocatalysts at the solid-liquid interface [33,34]. The generated oxidative species at
185 the solid-liquid interface reduce organic pollutants resulting in higher photocatalytic efficiency. In the case
186 of PVA/TiO₂, the homogenization of TiO₂ in the PVA matrix could restricts the interaction of
187 photocatalysts with the pollutants and block the active site, leading to low activity. Similarly, the dip-
188 coated TiO₂ photocatalyst could form amorphous TiO₂, which generally exhibits poor activity. These
189 results demonstrated the superior catalytic performance of S-TiO₂ immobilized photocatalytic system than
190 PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalysts.

191 In practical application, the stability of the photocatalysts determines its economic feasibility and
192 catalytic performance. A 10-cycle repetitive experiments were conducted to investigate the stability of S-
193 TiO₂, PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalysts. As seen Fig. 3b, the S-TiO₂ photocatalysts showed
194 the highest degradation efficiency than PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalysts after 30 min of
195 irradiation. The Rh B degradation efficiency of S-TiO₂ were constant throughout the 10-cycle and reached
196 a degradation efficiency of 96.5% (10th cycle). The degradation efficiency of PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated
197 TiO₂ after 10 cycles were 49.7% and 52.3%, respectively. For dip-coated TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂, a slight
198 decrease in activity and relatively unstable performance was observed, mainly due to the loss of poorly
199 attached photocatalysts on the glass beads. This was confirmed by SEM images observed before and after
200 10 cycles. In comparison with the SEM of before samples (Fig. 1a-b), a significant loss of photocatalysts
201 could be seen in dip-coated TiO₂ and PVA/TiO₂ after reaction (Fig. 3c-d). On the other hand, the
202 morphology of S-TiO₂ remains unchanged even after 10 cycles, and no photocatalytic loss was observed
203 (Fig. 3e). This suggests that S-TiO₂ immobilized strategy strongly fixed the photocatalysts on the support
204 material, which led to improved photocatalytic activity for removal of pollutants. Therefore, the
205 immobilization of TiO₂ nanoparticles on silicone was found to be an ideal strategy for improving the

206 photocatalytic activity, stability, and reliability than conventional methods for treating organic pollutants
207 in wastewater.

208 **3.2 Development of solar light driven S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system for TC removal**

209 In the photocatalytic system, the use of pristine TiO₂ (P25) is limited only to UV light, which
210 accounts for less than 5% of the solar light and restricts the potential use of visible light (> 40% solar
211 light). To address this issue, S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system was developed and used in future
212 experiments using TC as a representative model organic pollutant in wastewater under solar light. The S-
213 H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts was characterized by SEM, AFM, WCA, UV-vis and XRD. The morphology
214 of S-H/PAgT (control) and S-H-PEG/PAgT are shown in Fig. S3a-b. As seen in the figure, the S-H/PAgT
215 and S-H-PEG/PAgT showed irregular morphology, as compared to S-TiO₂ photocatalysts (Fig. 1c). It has
216 been noted that PEG could effectively control the morphology and crystalline size of TiO₂ modified
217 photocatalysts [35]. The PEG addition during hydrothermal synthesis could control the grain growth, and
218 lead to small particle size [36]. The small particle size and irregular structure of S-H-PEG/PAgT could
219 significantly increase surface roughness and improves the pollutant adsorption, and higher catalytic
220 activity. The surface texture of the photocatalysts was determined by the AFM measurement. As illustrated
221 in Fig. S3c-f, the S-H/PAgT and S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts exhibited the highest surface roughness
222 than S-TiO₂ (Fig. 1f and i). The higher average peak to valley value (Ra=2349 nm) observed in the S-
223 H/PAgT photocatalysts could be due to the large particle size attached on the surface of silicone coated
224 beads. In S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts, the addition of PEG surfactant during the synthesis process
225 controlled the grain growth resulting in smaller NPs fixed on silicone coated beads and lower peak to
226 valley (Ra=1698 nm). The observations are in accordance with the SEM images (Fig. S3a-b). The surface
227 light absorption and scattering characteristics depend on roughness around the wavelength of the incident

228 light. For the above reasons, increased surface roughness in S-H/PAGT and S-H-PEG/PAGT could further
229 improve light absorption and lead to improved activity in wastewater treatment.

230 Fig. S3g-h shows the surface wetting property of the silicone immobilized TiO₂ based composite
231 photocatalysts. The water contact angle of S-H-PEG/PAGT and S-H/PAGT photocatalysts were 134.2° and
232 125.7°, respectively. As mentioned before, the silicone (control) surface is hydrophobic in nature. The S-
233 H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts showed ultra-hydrophobic surface due to the irregular morphology, and
234 small particle size. The addition of PEG during the synthesis process could have influenced the surface
235 texture and hydrophobicity. The ultra-hydrophobic surface could improve the adsorption and interaction
236 of pollutants. The improved interaction on the surface also increases adsorption of surface oxygen to
237 generate super oxide anions, leading to higher photocatalytic activity. Hence, the ultra-hydrophobic
238 surface of S-H-PEG/PAGT may improve activity and stability for long-term practical elimination under
239 solar light irradiation.

240 The light absorption ability of TiO₂ and TiO₂ based composite photocatalysts immobilized on
241 silicone are shown in Fig. 4a. The S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts showed the highest light absorption
242 both in the UV and visible light range compared to S-H/PAGT and S-TiO₂ photocatalysts. The strong
243 absorption absorbed in the visible light region (400-800 nm) could be due to the surface plasmon
244 resonance (SPR) effect coming from light responsive Ag salts [37], which is present in both S-H-
245 PEG/PAGT and S-H/PAGT photocatalysts. The addition of Ag salts improves the light absorption, and
246 significant red shift into the visible light region, according to the previous reports [22]. Additionally, the
247 better optical property in S-H-PEG/PAGT can be owed to the addition of surfactants (PEG), which reduces
248 grain growth and further improves light absorption. Moreover, the surface texture and roughness in S-H-
249 PEG/PAGT could improve light scattering and absorption (Table S1). The calculated band gap of S-H-
250 PEG/PAGT, S-H/PAGT and S-TiO₂ photocatalysts were 2.98, 3.10 and 3.17 eV. The narrow band gap, and

251 improved light absorption ability of S-H-PEG/PAgT could effectively increase the generation of reactive
252 species, and charge separation for reduction of pollutants under solar light irradiation.

253 Fig. 4b shows the XRD patterns of S-TiO₂ and TiO₂ based composite photocatalysts. As shown in
254 figure, the crystalline phase of S-H-PEG/PAgT and S-H/PAgT showed the presence of only anatase phase
255 of TiO₂. While S-TiO₂ showed both anatase and rutile phase of TiO₂, typical observation for P25
256 photocatalysts [38]. The Anatase phase of TiO₂ is considered to be more active under visible light
257 irradiation and could result in higher catalytic performance for wastewater treatment [39]. The slightly
258 better crystallinity observed in S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst are a result of the addition of PEG. The
259 addition of surfactant during the synthesis process control the grain growth and effectively improve its
260 crystallinity [40]. In addition, the S-H-PEG/PAgT and S-H/PAgT showed the presence of Ag salts
261 (Ag₂O/Ag₃PO₄) [24]. The presence of Ag salts in the XRD patterns confirms the increased light absorption
262 resulted from the SPR effect observed in both S-H-PEG/PAgT and S-H/PAgT (Fig. 4a). The superior
263 characteristics of S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts with higher surface roughness, hydrophobicity, narrow
264 band gap, good optical property, and better crystallinity could improve photocatalytic activity in removal
265 of pollutants from wastewater under solar light irradiation.

266 The photocatalytic activity of the silicone immobilized S-H-PEG/PAgT was evaluated by
267 degradation of model emerging organic pollutant tetracycline (TC). As seen in Fig. 4c, higher TC removal
268 was observed with S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst compared to S-H/PAgT, and S-TiO₂. The poor removal
269 of TC in silicone (control) suggested that the removal occurred through the photocatalytic generation of
270 oxidative species rather than adsorption. The rate of TC degradation efficiency for S-H-PEG/PAgT, S-
271 H/PAgT, and S-TiO₂, was 0.0278, 0.0202 and 0.0106 min⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 4d). The irregular
272 morphology and hydrophobicity in S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst could contribute to increased interaction
273 with pollutants, and generation of reactive species, which led to higher photocatalytic activity. In addition,

274 the S-H-PEG/PAgT showed higher TOC removal compared of other modified samples (Fig. S4).
275 Furthermore, the S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts showed high activity in comparison with the reported
276 literatures (Table S2). Although, a direct comparison with the existing literature would be difficult
277 considering the difference in various reaction parameters, but the S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts showed
278 better performance under ambient conditions. Thus, the above results clarify the S-H-PEG/PAgT
279 photocatalyst with small particles size, average surface roughness, good light absorption and effective
280 removal of organics from wastewater.

281 **3.3 Practical feasibility of S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system**

282 The photocatalytic activity in real environmental is affected by various factors such as flow rate,
283 pH, light intensity, and temperature. Therefore, the efficiency of S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts was
284 investigated under various influencing factors to mimic the environmental conditions.

285 The flow rate in the photocatalytic reaction is one of the important parameters that affects the TC
286 degradation efficiency. The effect of flow rates on TC removal is shown in Fig. 5a. The photocatalytic
287 activity remained significantly higher in flow rates from 50 mL to 250 mL min⁻¹. The degradation
288 efficiency at 50-, 150- and 250-mL min⁻¹ were 85.1, 85.9 and 86.2%, respectively. The pseudo-first order
289 kinetics of the reaction for 50-, 150- and 250-mL min⁻¹ were 2.243 x 10⁻², 2.788 x 10⁻², and 2.560 x 10⁻²
290 min⁻¹, respectively. The flow rate determines the rate of mass transfer and catalytic interaction with the
291 pollutants [6]. The high activity observed from low-high flow rate suggested effective mass transfer and
292 activity. The high activity achieved under different flow rates illustrated that the S-H-PEG/PAgT
293 photocatalysts could be used in various photocatalytic systems with varying flow rates to obtain effective
294 reduction of pollutants.

295 The photocatalytic removal of organic materials is significantly influenced by the pH of the
296 solution. The influence of initial pH on S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic removal of TC was investigated

297 from pH 3 to 9. As shown in Fig. 5b, the degradation efficiency increased from pH 3 to 5, and plateaued
298 at pH 7 before significantly decreasing at pH 9. The TC degradation efficiency observed at pH 3, 5, 7 and
299 9 were 77.4, 96.7, 93.2 and 54.3%, respectively. The optimal pH was observed to be around pH 5 to 7.
300 The pH_{pzc} value of TiO_2 photocatalysts are around pH 6.8 [41], and the pK_a value of TC pH 5.0 to 6.7.
301 The S-H-PEG/PAgT at pH 5 have a positive charge, which TC is in the zwitterion state. Hence, the
302 interaction between the TC and S-H-PEG/PAgT increases at pH 5 to 7, and led to higher photocatalytic
303 conversion [42]. On the other hand, the degradation is less favorable at acidic (pH 3) and alkaline (pH 9)
304 due to differences the surface property. This shows that the S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst can effectively
305 reduce TC at pH 5 to 7 in environmental conditions.

306 Fig 5c shows dependence of photocatalytic activity on temperature from 10 to 50 °C. The TC
307 removal achieved at 10-20, 20-30, 30-40, and 40-50 °C were 76.3, 85.5, 86.3 and 86.4% respectively. As
308 observed in the figure, the rise in temperature from 10 to 20 °C increased the photocatalytic activity, and
309 remained consistent from 20 to 50 °C. The significant reduction observed at such low temperature (10 °C),
310 infers that the TC reduction is predominantly depended on light activation rather than temperature. These
311 findings are consistent with our previous studies conducted at low to high temperature [43]. The optimal
312 temperature for photocatalytic TC reduction was observed to be in the range of 20 to 50 °C and is efficient
313 under real temperature observed in the environment.

314 The dependence of TC degradation on incident light intensity was investigated in the range of 100
315 to 1000 $W\ m^{-2}$. As shown in Fig 5d, a slight increase in photocatalytic activity was observed with increase
316 in light intensity from 100 to 550 $W\ m^{-2}$, while TC reduction from 550 to 1000 $W\ m^{-2}$ remained unchanged.
317 The TC degradation efficiency observed at 100, 300, 550, 700, and 1000 Wm^{-2} were 78.4, 79.5, 88.5, 89.1
318 and 89.4% respectively. The marginal difference in catalytic performance at low to high intensity is
319 attributed to the higher catalytic activity of the synthesized photocatalysts. This indicates that the even at

320 low light intensity, high charge separation can be achieved for the generation of reactive species resulting
321 in higher TC reduction. The results suggest that the photocatalyst is effective in real environmental
322 conditions from low to high light intensity for reduction of pollutants. The S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalytic
323 activity demonstrates the ability for effective remediation of organic contaminants under different
324 influencing factors in real environmental (pH, temperature, light intensity) and reactor condition (flow
325 rate) for practical application.

326 The feasibility and stability of S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalytic system for practical application was
327 investigated by repetitive experiments (10 cycles). As shown in Fig. 6a, the TC degradation efficiency
328 from 1st (94.6%) to 10th (91.3%) cycle remained significantly higher demonstrating the superior S-H-
329 PEG/PAGT catalytic performance in pollutant removal. The high surface roughness and irregular
330 morphology of nanoparticles ensured good contact with the pollutants and improved catalytic removal in
331 repetitive experiments. The XRD patterns showed the crystallinity and crystalline phase remained the
332 same and strong peaks associated with TiO₂ (Anatase) was visible after 10 cycles (Fig. 6b). Similarly,
333 SEM images showed no change in morphology and surface texture after the reaction (Fig. 6c-d). The
334 hydrophobic surfaces have high stability and increase reusability of the photocatalyst materials [44]. In
335 general, after prolonged exposure to organic pollutants, the surface is contaminated with unreacted
336 organics which affect the surface wetting property or loss of nanoparticles reduce catalytic activity. In this
337 study, the morphology and surface hydrophobicity were retained after reaction, further illustrating the
338 durability of the photocatalytic materials (Fig. 6e-f). Therefore, the S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts with
339 high stability and activity shows promise for the treatment of organic pollutants in practical application.

340 **3.4 Mechanism of S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts for wastewater treatment**

341 The purpose of the scavenger studies was to ascertain the contribution of reactive species to the
342 photocatalytic reduction of TC by S-H-PEG/PAGT under solar light. As shown in Figure 7a, the addition

343 of 1-4BQ significantly suppressed the S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic degradation of TC, indicating that
344 $O_2^{\cdot-}$ as the predominant species involved in the degradation process. Moreover, the activity also reduced
345 after the addition of EDTA, suggesting that h^+ was the main species involved in the reaction. On the other
346 hand, the addition of $\cdot OH$ had no effect on TC removal and was not a direct contributor to the
347 photocatalytic reaction. The predominant reactive species observed in this study are in accordance with
348 our previous results with H/PAgT photocatalysts in the slurry system [23]. Therefore, $O_2^{\cdot-}$ and h^+ were
349 found to be the key species driving S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic pollutant removal in wastewater.

350 Figure 7b-c shows the proposed mechanism for S-H-PEG/PAgT composite photocatalysts for
351 degradation of organic pollutants under solar light irradiation. Based on the aforementioned results and
352 discussion, the S-H-PEG/PAgT showed superior photocatalytic activity and stability than conventional
353 immobilization methods. The improved photocatalytic activity could be attributed to the following: The
354 photocatalyst upon light irradiation, e^- and h^+ are generated at the CB and VB position. As the flow of e^-
355 and h^+ in TiO_2 , Ag_3PO_4 , Ag_2O are governed by the fermi levels [45], the h^+ flows to the higher fermi level
356 ($TiO_2 \rightarrow Ag_2O \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4$), while e^- move to the lower fermi level ($Ag_3PO_4 \rightarrow Ag_2O \rightarrow Ag$) (Fig. 7b).
357 The e^- and h^+ on reaction with adsorbed water and surface oxygen, $O_2^{\cdot-}$ and h^+ are generated which
358 effectively reduce pollutants (Fig. 7a); Subsequently, the increase in surface roughness due to irregular
359 morphology of S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalysts could enhance the interaction between the pollutants and
360 photocatalysts (Fig. 7c). The addition of PEG effectively controls the grain growth, and particle size of
361 the photocatalysts, which further increase the light absorption and activity under visible light irradiation
362 (Fig. 4a-b). The improved interaction with the photocatalysts could effectively react with generated active
363 species and reduce pollutants; the ultra-hydrophobic property (134.3°) of S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst
364 was found to improve the photocatalytic stability in long-term treatment of organics. Typically, a solid-
365 liquid-air interface is formed in the hydrophobic surface, which may be advantageous for the interaction

366 of pollutants with photocatalysts and increased generation of surface oxidative species during the reaction
367 process could affect positively on the reaction process. Thus, an interaction between photocatalytic
368 activity, the irregular morphology, roughness, and ultra-hydrophobicity contributed to the overall activity
369 and stability of S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts. Therefore, the developed photocatalytic immobilized
370 system shows great promise as a green alternative for efficient and durable treatment of organics pollutants
371 in wastewater under solar light irradiation.

372 **4. Conclusion**

373 In this study, a silicone immobilized TiO₂ (S-TiO₂) was identified as an ideal strategy of
374 photocatalytic immobilization. In addition, the silicone immobilized, hydrothermal and PEG assisted Ag
375 species doped TiO₂ composite photocatalytic system was developed as an efficient and sustainable method
376 for degradation of pollutants under solar light irradiation. The S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalysts showed
377 good light absorption, narrow band gap, better crystallinity, higher surface roughness, hydrophobicity,
378 and improved catalytic performance than S-TiO₂ (control). Moreover, an effective removal of pollutants
379 under different environmental factors and high stability in repetitive treatment demonstrates the feasibility
380 in real application. Scavenger study revealed $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and h^+ as the dominant reactive species contributed to
381 the removal of TC. The S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalyst surface hydrophobicity, surface roughness, and
382 photocatalytic activity work in concert to remove organic contaminants from wastewater. Therefore, the
383 solar light driven S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalyst shows great potential in practical treatment of emerging
384 organic pollutants in wastewater.

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390 **Author contributions**

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392 Editing. **Minami Yano:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Validation. **Cheng Zhang:**
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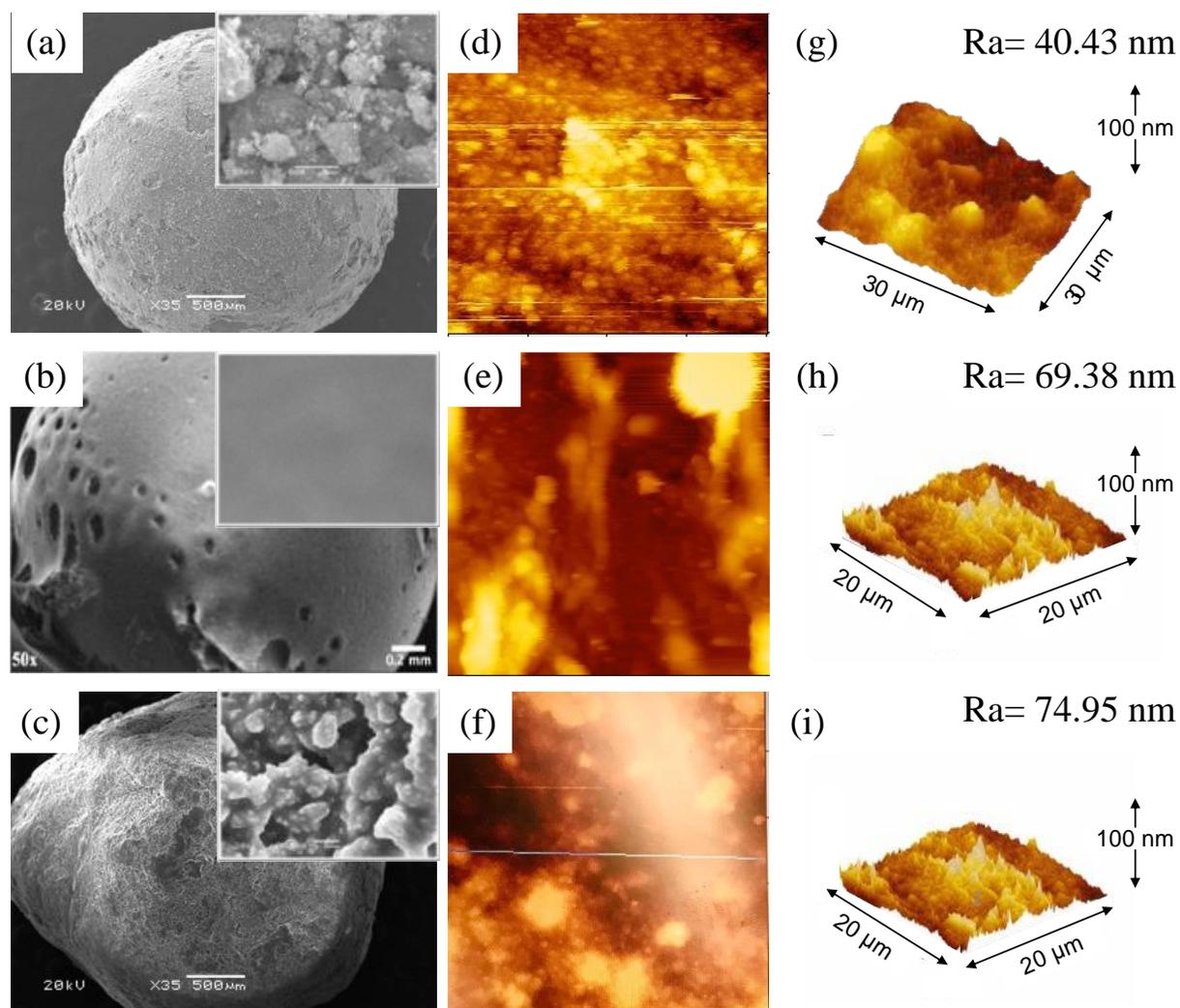


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) Dip-coated TiO₂, (b) PVA/TiO₂, (c) S-TiO₂ (50 x magnification). Inset images (magnification 3000x). AFM images of (d) Dip-coated TiO₂, (e) PVA/TiO₂, (f) S-TiO₂, and corresponding 3 D images (g) Dip-coated TiO₂, (h) PVA/TiO₂, (i) S-TiO₂.

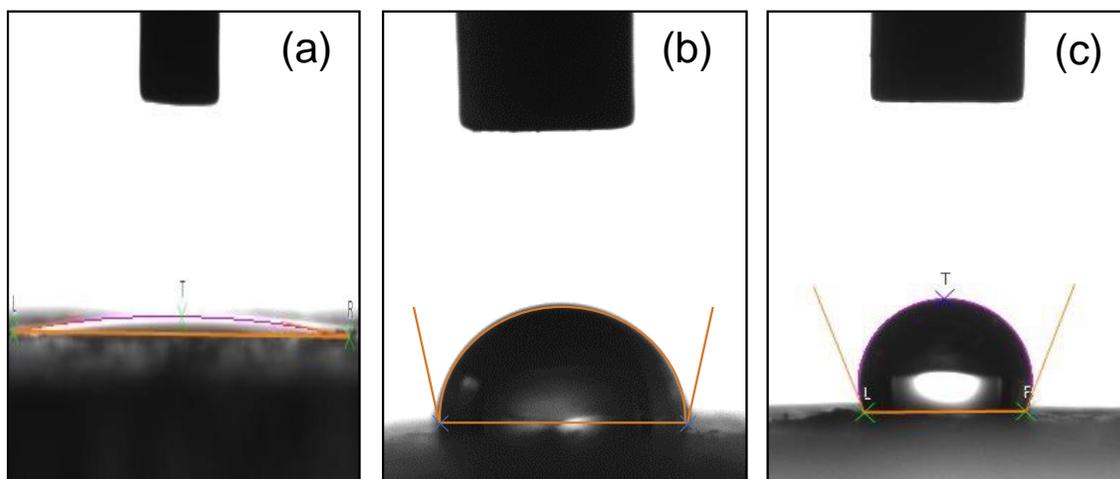


Fig. 2. The water contact angle measurements of immobilized photocatalysts. (a) dip-coated TiO_2 , (b) PVA/ TiO_2 , (c) S- TiO_2 . (Volume of water: 10 μL)

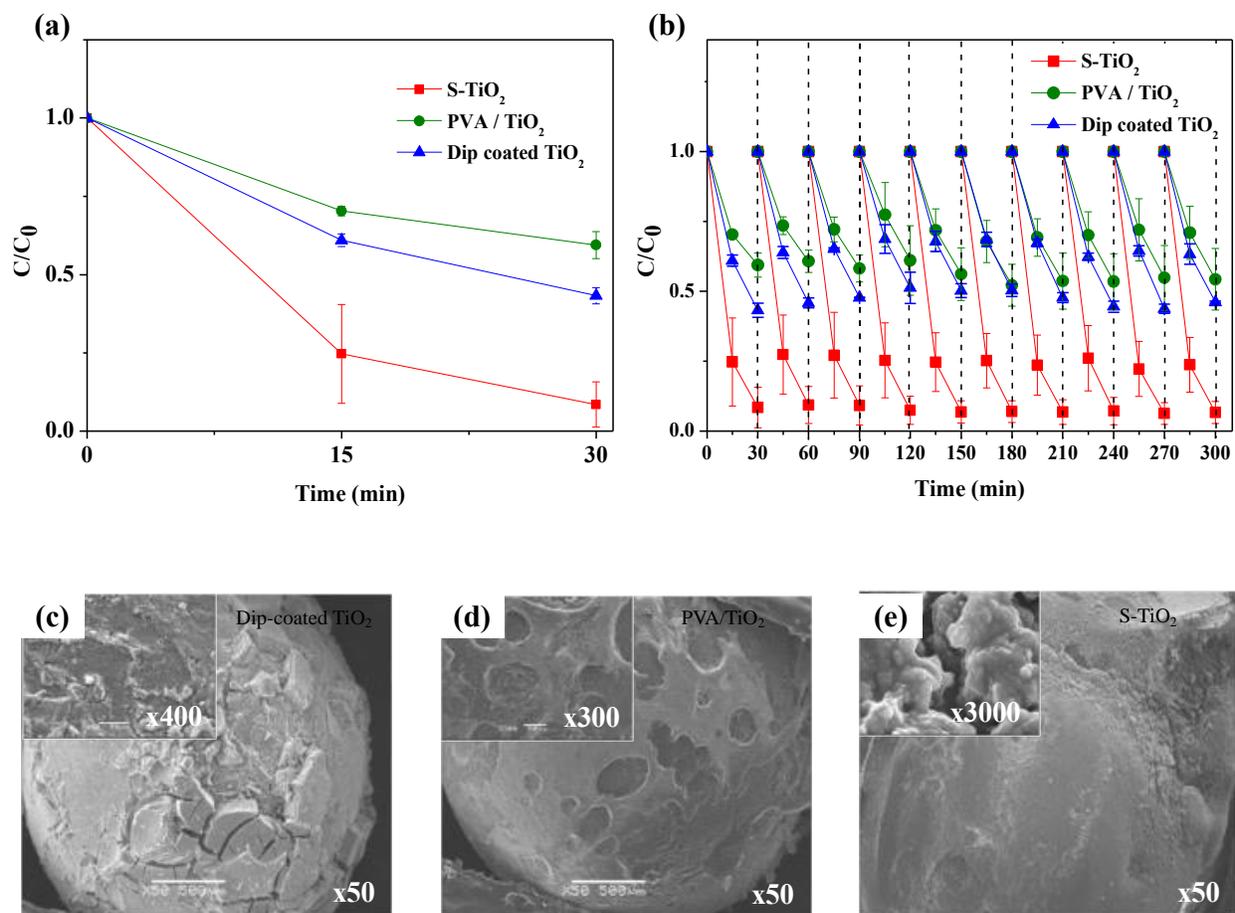


Fig. 3. The comparative study of photocatalytic performance and stability of S-TiO₂, PVA/TiO₂ and dip-coated TiO₂ photocatalyst. (a) photocatalytic reduction of Rh B, (b) recyclability and (c)-(e) scanning electron microscope images of immobilized photocatalysts after 10 repetitive cycles. (Rh B: 2 mg L⁻¹, 50 mL, pH: 7, temperature: ambient, flow rate: 150 mL min⁻¹, light intensity: 550 W m⁻²)

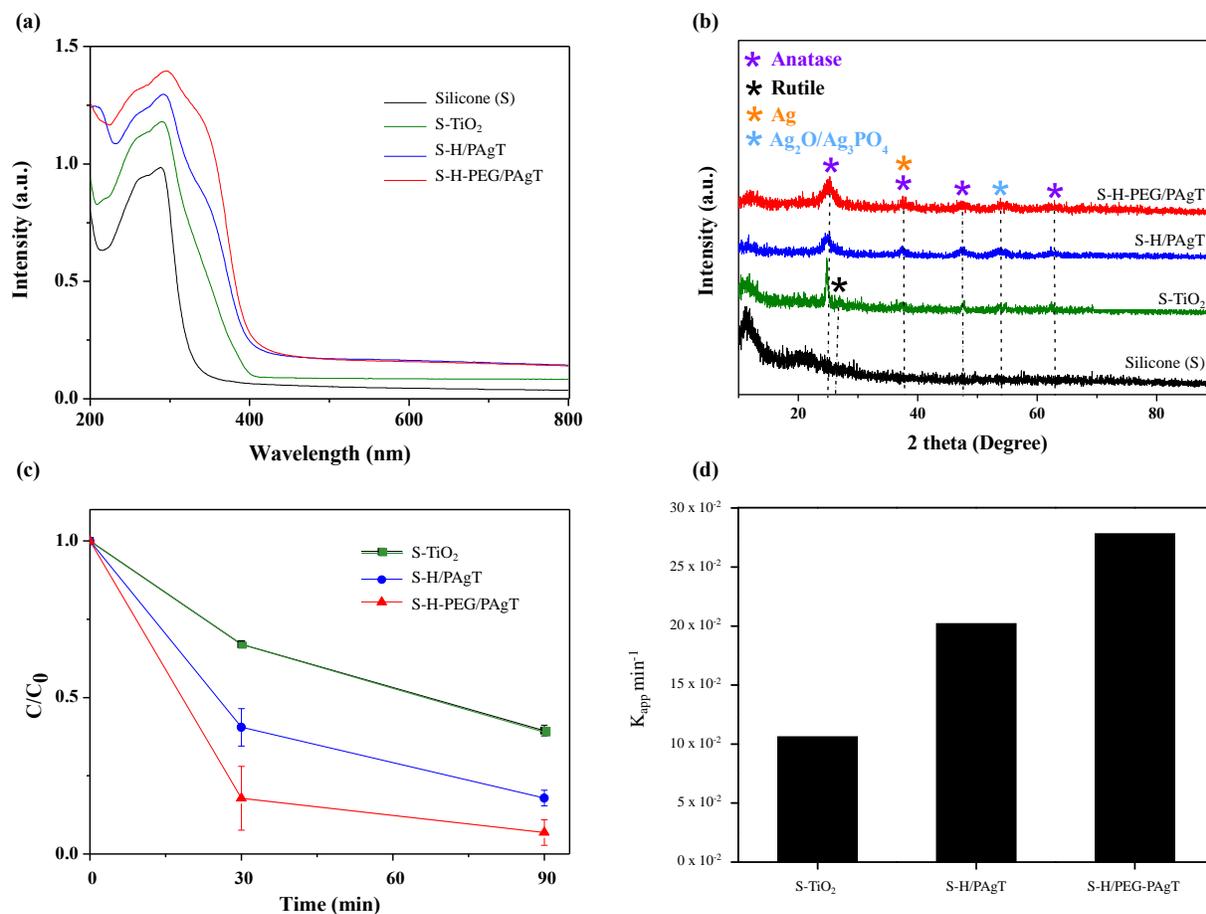


Fig. 4. (a) Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, (b) x-ray diffraction patterns, (c) TC photocatalytic degradation efficiency, and (d) degradation rate of S-H/PAgT, S-H-PEG/PAgT, and S-TiO₂ (control). Temperature: ambient, flow rate: 150 mL min⁻¹, pH: 7, light intensity: 550 Wm⁻², TC: 10 ppm, 50 mL.

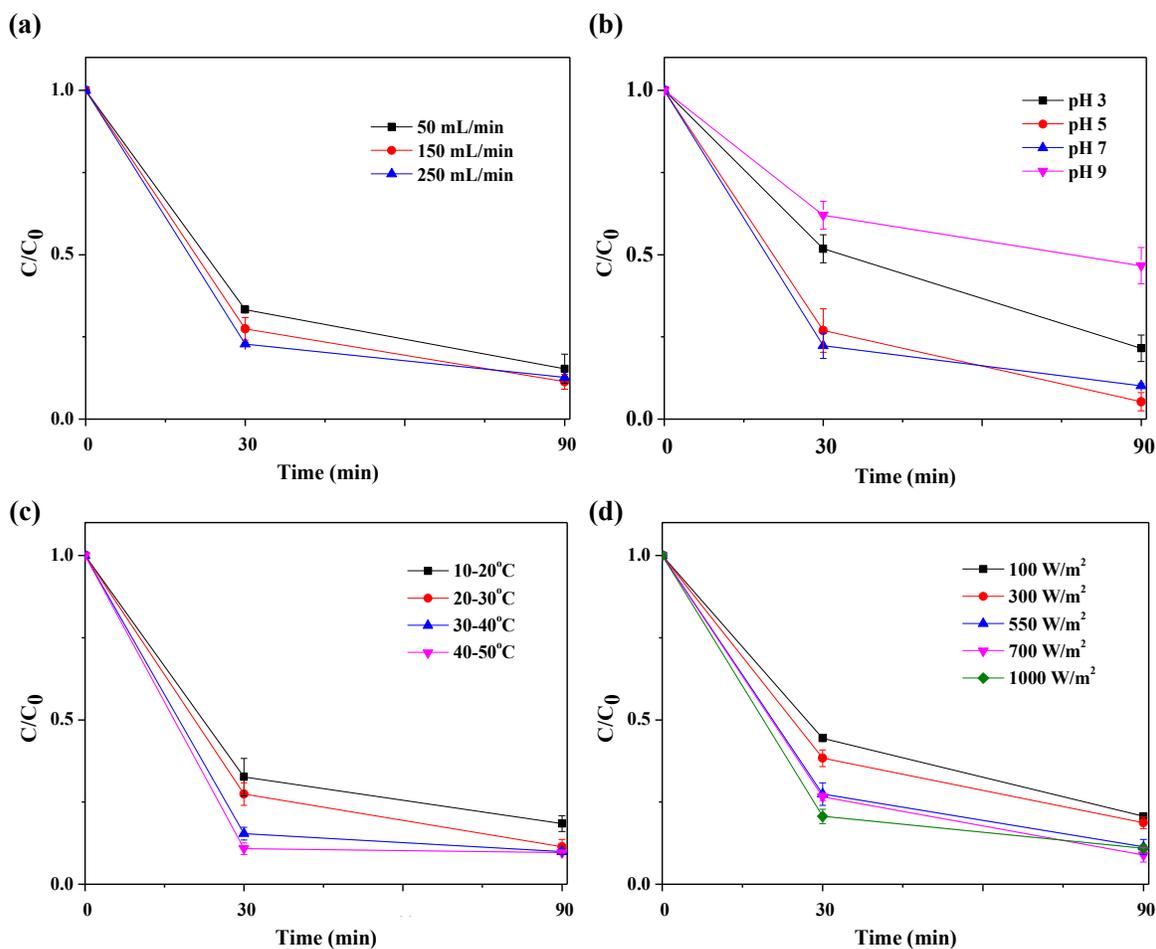


Fig. 5. The S-H-PEG/PAGT photocatalytic degradation of TC under different environmental factors. (a) flow rate, (b) pH, (c) temperature, and (d) light intensity. The reaction conditions of photocatalyst are the same unless mentioned (Temperature: ambient, flow rate: 150 mL min⁻¹, pH: 7, light intensity: 550 Wm⁻²).

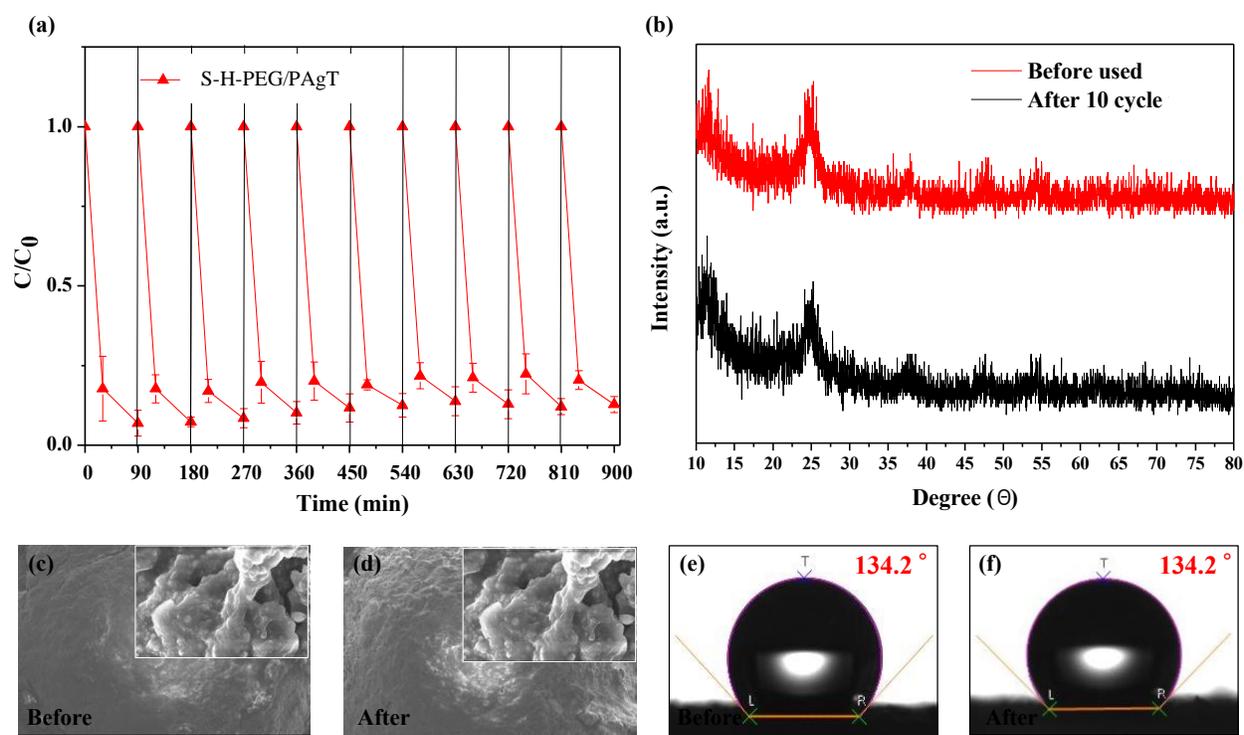


Fig. 6. Repetitive experiments for TC degradation using S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalyst under solar light irradiation. (a) 10 cycle repetitive, (b) XRD patterns, (c-d) SEM (e-f) water contact angle. Temperature: ambient, flow rate: 150 mL min^{-1} , pH: 7, light intensity: 550 Wm^{-2} .

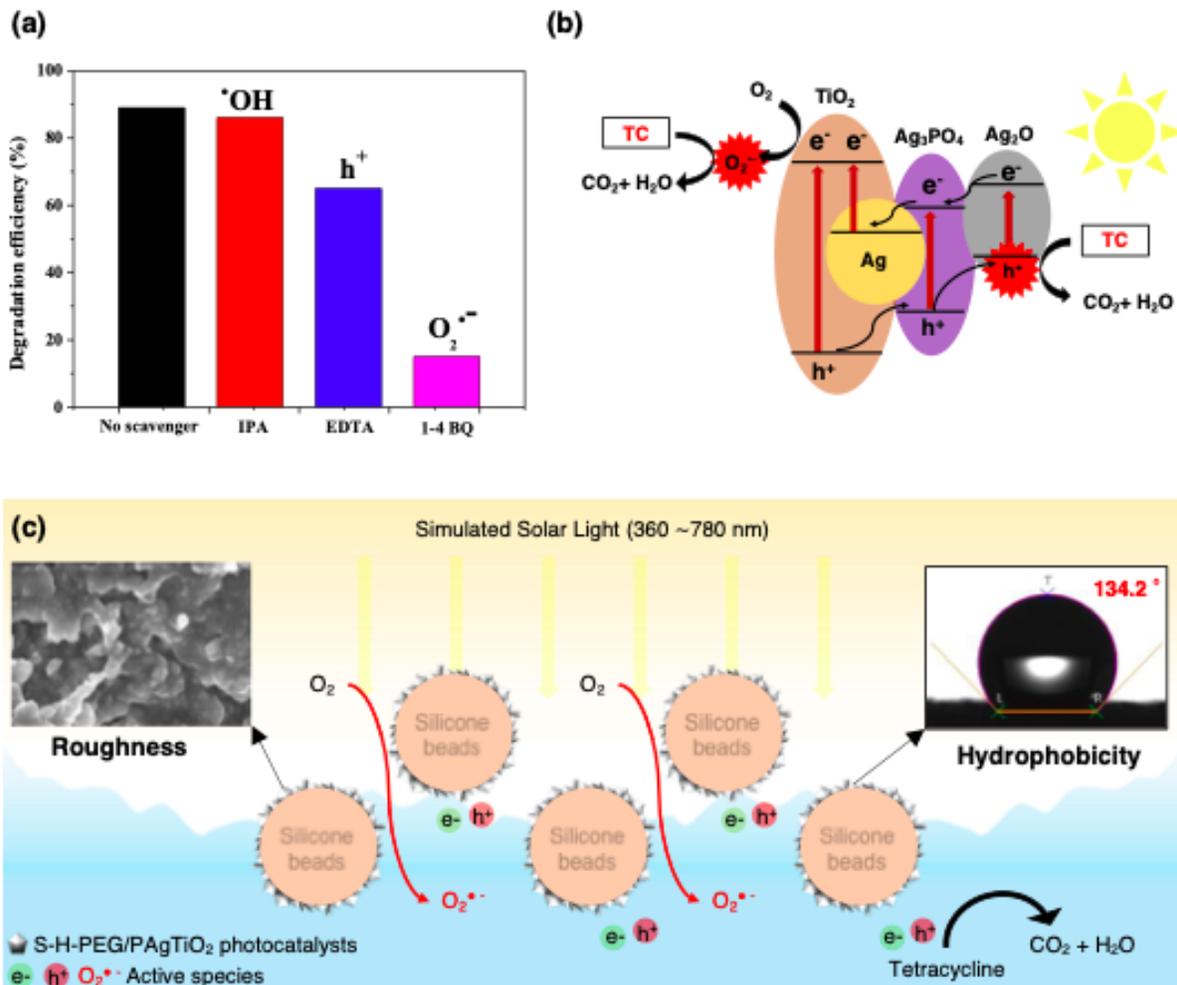


Fig. 7. The proposed mechanism for S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic system for removal of organic pollutants under solar light. (a) The scavenger study, (b) S-H-PEG/PAgT photocatalytic generation of active species and (c) surface characteristics synergistic effect on photocatalysis. Temperature: ambient, flow rate: 150 mL min^{-1} , pH: 7, light intensity: 550 Wm^{-2} , Scavengers concentration: 1M.