

Highlights

- After treatment ametryn solution becomes biodegradable and non-toxic.
- Scavengers were used to elucidate the role of different active species.
- Photocatalytic degradation of ametryn is conducted mainly by HO[•] radicals.
- Intermediates are differentiated depending on the active species involved.
- Reaction pathways of the ametryn degradation with contributed ROS were proposed.

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Evaluation of the main active species involved in the TiO₂ photocatalytic degradation of ametryn herbicide and its by-products

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Abstract

In this study, we investigated the effectiveness of photocatalysis using TiO₂ as catalyst on the removal of ametryn. The evaluation of photocatalytic activity under simulated sunlight was discussed as evidence by numerous controlled trials and several operational parameters such as ametryn concentration, total organic carbon, chemical oxygen demand, specific UV absorbance, biochemical oxygen demand, toxicity and formed intermediates. Moreover, the roles of reactive species involved in the degradation of ametryn were examined by using different specific scavengers. Ametryn removed by photocatalysis using 0.4 g L⁻¹ of TiO₂ was 100% within 60 min, while only 30% was achieved by photolysis at the same time. Biodegradability index improved from 0.3 (raw solution) up to 0.8 while the acute toxicity measured by the inhibition percentage of bioluminescence from Vibro fischeri indicates that the photocatalytic treatment promotes 97% of toxicity reduction. The scavenger study shows different percentages of inhibition in ametryn degradation, which allowed to conclude that HO[•], valence-band holes and $O_2^{\bullet-}$ could intervene in the degradation of ametryn, with predominance of HO[•]. Thirty-eight intermediates were identified from the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn. The comparison of the generation of those intermediates with and without the addition of scavengers showed that different by-products are generated depending on the predominance of the active species. For example, the presence of azide resulted in intermediates formed by condensation reactions. Based on the identified intermediates, reaction pathways and a degradation mechanism were proposed, including HO[•] radicals, O₂^{•-}, holes, and ${}^{1}O_{2}$.

Keywords: Biodegradability; Acute toxicity; kinetics; Scavengers; Reaction mechanism.

1. Introduction

Pesticides are commonly known to be part of the main groups of toxic substances. Thereby, the extensive and inappropriate use of pesticides mainly in agricultural practices results in several negative factors, ranging from contamination of environmental compartments, especially surface- and ground-water bodies and soil, to damage to human health [1,2]. Thus, these compounds are considered emerging contaminants by the scientific communities [3].

These types of compounds are frequently found in the environment, especially in water compartments, in concentrations that range from ng L⁻¹ to μ g L⁻¹ [4]. Although their concentration is low, the consequences of their exposition are unknown in the long term and they are pseudo-persistent in the environment due to their continuous discharge. However, pesticide concentrations in the environment might be exceedingly high, for example, it can reach levels up to 500 mg L⁻¹ in wastewaters [5].

Due to their high efficiency in the control of broadleaf and grass weeds, herbicides of the class of triazines are widely used all over the world [6]. They are present in the 10 most widely used pesticides formulations in Europe [7]. As triazines are very stable compounds, they accumulate in environmental compartments for a long time. Another important factor is that triazines are susceptible to leaching from the soils to waterbodies and appear in drinking water. This is favored by their physicochemical properties, including: (i) relatively high water solubility (185 mg L⁻¹, 20 °C [8]); (ii) low sorption coefficient (316 ~ 445 cm³ g⁻¹ [9]); (iii) high polarity (log K_{ow} 2.7-3.1 [8]); or (iv) long half-life time (70–250 days, varying with type of soil and weather conditions [10]). In addition, these compounds can undergo slow degradation to water-soluble by-products [11]. Among triazines, especial emphasis can be made on ametryn (C₉H₁₇N₅S, 2-ethylamino-4-isopropylamino-6-methylthio-s-triazine).

Ametryn is known as an endocrine disrupting compound, which can cause cancerous tumors after long exposition [12]. In addition, other symptoms (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea,

salivation, muscle weakness, irritation to the skin, eyes, and respiratory tract) appear as clinical pictures of ametryn poisoning [12,13]. Triazines are also compounds known to induce oxidative stress, cellular and DNA damage, and cell death [14]. These factors point out that this herbicide represents a risk to the environment and the human health.

Residues of ametryn are sources of contamination of water and soils. Ametryn was detected at $1.56 \pm 0.04 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ in groundwater samples in the city of Assis, located in the State of São Paulo (Brazil) [15]. 3.4 mg $\ L^{-1}$ of ametryn also found in the agricultural runoff water in Veerapur village, Karnataka state, India [16]. In addition, several studies have shown ametryn residues in water and sewage samples at concentrations from ng $\ L^{-1}$ to $\ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ [17-19]. These examples demonstrate that ametryn residues are introduced into several environmental compartments around the world. Once ametryn is present in water compartments, it would be extremely difficult to be treated. A potential strategy to eliminate emerging contaminants from aqueous solutions involves advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) [20,21]. Among AOPs, heterogeneous photocatalysis can be considered an interesting option due to the low cost and effectiveness to remove micropollutants from water [22-24].

The heterogeneous photocatalysis is defined as a photochemical process in which the semiconducting species is irradiated with light of suitable wavelength (sufficient energy to overcome the band gap) for the promotion of electrons form the valence to the conduction band. Consequently, the reduction and oxidation sites generated can produce different active species, such as hydroxyl (HO[•]), superoxide ($O_2^{\bullet-}$) and perhydroxyl (HO₂[•]) radicals, singlet oxygen (1O_2), H₂O₂, and holes (h_{BV}^+) [25-27], which are the main oxidants responsible for the decomposition reactions of organic compounds.

Among a wide spectrum of semiconductors, TiO_2 is an attractive approach to water purification, mainly due to its excellent performance as photocatalyst, low cost, possibility of activation by sunlight, low toxicity, and long-term stability of the material [28,29]. The most common commercial TiO₂ is Evonik AEROXIDE® TiO₂ P-25 (denoted as P25). This oxide is comprised of individual anatase and rutile nanoparticles, together with around 15% of rutile formed heterojunction structure with anatase phase [30]. Its main advantage is the numerous oxygen vacancies, which assists the absorption of solar/visible light and the separation of e^-/h^+ pairs [31]. Thus, an increase in the active species implies cost reduction, as it is not necessary to use UV radiation. In this context, photocatalytic treatments using sunlight or UVA, highlighting xenon lamps here, are of great interest for economic reasons.

Although photocatalytic processes are well described in the literature, the contribution of the role of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and holes is debatable and depends on some factors such as, nature of the photocatalyst, source of irradiation, organic contaminant treated, sample constituents and matrices [32,33]. In the literature it is possible to find several works focused on understanding the roles of ROS in the entire degradation system using selected chemical scavenger. However, few studies aim to understand the role of active species in the degradation pathways and by-products generation to highlight the role of the ROS involved in the complete photocatalytic degradation process [34-38]. The intervention of ROS leading to the initial photoreaction process is not the same in all studies since the oxidation can proceed through different mechanisms. In this context, it is utmost importance to identify the main active species and determine their roles in the formation of intermediates in order to develop and understand the mechanisms underlying the reactivity of photocatalysts for environmental remediation [39]. Although some studies of ametryn degradation by photocatalysis have been reported [40-45], none of them investigated the role of reactive species involved in the degradation process and their role in the degradation pathways.

This work focused on the elucidation of the photocatalytic mechanism for the removal of ametryn by TiO_2 catalysts under simulated solar light. To achieve these objectives, studies were conducted to identify the main active species formed in the process using selected

chemical scavengers specific for HO[•], $O_2^{\bullet-}$, 1O_2 and holes. In addition, a detailed study of the influence of each active species on the generation of degradation products and degradation pathways has been performed, in which the reaction intermediates were detected by means of exact mass measurements performed by liquid chromatography coupled to quadrupole-time of-flight mass spectrometry (LC-ESI-QTOF–MS/MS). The optimization of catalyst concentration was investigated considering the rate of ametryn removal. For this purpose, the parameters inherent to the process were evaluated such as TOC, COD, DBO, SUVA and the toxicity using Microtox® test. Besides the objective of mechanistic details of the photodegradation, the second-order rate constant of reaction between ametryn and HO[•] radicals was calculated under optimal conditions.

2. Materials and methods

2.1.Chemicals

All chemicals used in the experiments were of analytical grade. Solutions of 10 mg L⁻¹ of ametryn (CAS number: 834-12-8, purity 99.5%, C₉H₁₇N₅S, MW 227.33 g mol⁻¹, Sigma–Aldrich Chemical Co) were prepared using deionized water. The photocatalyst used (TiO₂ P25) was from Evonik Industries AG (Germany). Formic acid (85%), *tert*-butanol (99.7%), sodium azide (>99.5%) and 1,4-benzoquinone (>99%) were supplied by Probus S.A. (Spain), Panreac (Spain), Sigma–Aldrich Chemical Co and Merck (Germany), respectively. Acetonitrile was purchased from Fischer Chemical and orthophosphoric acid (85%) from Panreac Quimica.

2.2. Photocatalytic experiments

To perform the photocatalytic experiments under simulated sunlight, a solar simulator ((Solarbox, Co.fo.me.gra, 220 V, 50 Hz, see Fig. 1)) equipped with a 1000 W xenon lamp (Xe-OP, Phillips) was used. Within the solar simulator, a tubular reactor (Duran glass material, 24 cm length, 2.11 cm diameter, 0.078 L illuminated volume) was placed horizontally at the bottom under a parabolic mirror made of relative aluminum. An optical filter cutting off wavelengths under 280 nm was located just below the lamp. The photon flux arriving at the photoreactor was measured by o-nitrobenzaldehyde (o-NB) actinometry [46]. As can be seen in Fig. 1, the installation is also composed of a reservoir tank (total volume 1L), a peristaltic pump (Ecoline VC280 II, Ismatec) and a thermostatic bath (Haake K10) for carrying out experiments at a controlled temperature.

The experiments were carried out in the following steps: (i) First, 1 L of 10 mg L⁻¹ ametryn solution (natural pH of the solution around 5.7) was introduced in a jacketed reservoir tank. (ii) Then, the amount of catalyst under study was added and different scavengers when needed. In this tank, the solution was magnetically stirred and maintained at constant temperature of 25 °C with a thermostatic bath. (iii) The solution to be treated was continuously pumped into the photoreactor by peristaltic pump from the reservoir tank with a flow rate of 0.65 L min⁻¹. (iv) After 30 minutes of recirculation of the solution in the dark, the lamp was activated and began experiments lasting 120 minutes. Samples were collected at predetermined times throughout the reaction time, obeying a maximum of 10% withdrawal from the total volume. To remove the catalyst, before the analysis, samples were filtered with a polyethersulfone membrane filter of 0.45 μ m. The experiments were conducted in triplicate to ensure reproducibility and mean values are reported.



Fig. 1. Scheme of the solar simulator and experimental device.

2.3. Analytical Methods

The monitoring of the decrease in concentration of ametryn was carried out by highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC) from Agilent 1200 Infinity Series using a SEA18 (5µm 15×0.46 cm from Teknokroma) and a Waters 996 photodiode array detector using the Empower Pro software 2002 Water Co. The mobile phase consisted of 78:22 (v/v) mixture of water (pH 3 adjusted by H₃PO₄) and acetonitrile, injected with a flow rate of 0.80 mL min⁻¹ and detected at its maximum UV absorbance of 223 nm. In these parameters, the peak associated with ametryn appeared at 3.43 min, showing a limit of detection (LOD) = 0.018 mg L^{-1} and a limit of quantification (LOQ) = 0.055 mg L⁻¹.

The removal of total organic carbon (TOC) from the solutions subjected to the photocatalytic process was determined by a Shimadzu TOC-V CNS analyzer. The chemical oxygen demand (COD) was determined following the colorimetric method 5220D of Standard Methods for Examination of Water and Wastewater [47]. The colour of the sample was

measured in terms of the absorbance at 420 nm using a spectrophotometer (Hach Lange DR 2500) after digestion, employing 2 h of extreme catalytic oxidation conditions at 150 °C. The specific UV absorbance (SUVA_{254nm}) values were calculated dividing the absorbance of a sample at 254 nm by its COD value in the predetermined time (SUVA = $(UV_{254}/COD_t)\times100$). The biological oxygen demand (BOD_{5,20}) was determined with the protocol of Standard Methods 5210D [47] by respirometric process using OxiTop equipment during 5 days, under constant stirring and controlled temperature at 20 °C.

The potential toxicity of degradation by-products was measured by the Microtox® tests using a Model 500 Analyzer (Azur Environment, Workingham, England), which determines the inhibition of *Vibrio fischeri* bioluminescence. The toxicity was measured as the percentage of inhibition with respect to the light emitted after 15 min exposure. The analyzed data were expressed as toxicity units (equitox), $TU = [1/EC_{50}] \times 100$, where EC_{50} is the concentration which causes 50% of the light emission reduction.

To identify the by-products, samples collected from degradation experiments were analyzed by using an HPLC system (Agilent Series 1100, Agilent Technologies) connected to LC/MSDTOF (Agilent Technologies) mass spectrometer equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) interface operating in the positive ionization mode. The conditions used in the spectrometer were as follows: capillary 4000 V; nebulizer 15 psig; drying gas 7 L min⁻¹; gas temperature 325 °C; fragmentator 175 V; and HPLC conditions were the same as previously used to monitor degradation of ametryn. Spectra were acquired over the m/z 60–1200 range.

2.4. Effect of radical inhibitors

The role and contribution of HO[•], $O_2^{\bullet-}$, h^+ and 1O_2 , during the TiO₂ photocatalytic process, was investigated by adding well-known radical trapping reagents (scavengers) such as

tert-butanol (*t*-BuOH, 60 ml L⁻¹), 1,4-benzoquinone (BZ, 0.001 g L⁻¹ corresponding to a molar relation of 1:10 for BZ:ametryn), formic acid (AcF, 0.82 mL L⁻¹) and sodium azide (NaN₃, 0.77 mg L⁻¹), respectively, in 10 mg L⁻¹ ametryn solutions containing 0.4 g L⁻¹ of catalyst. The concentrations of scavengers were based on previous research [34,46].

2.5. Determination of the second-order kinetic constant

To calculate the kinetic constant of the ametryn reaction by photocatalysis (considering only HO[•] radicals), the competitive kinetic model was used. This procedure is applied assuming a general second order kinetics for the reaction between HO[•] radical and the organic substance (OS), that is, first order in relation to the concentration of OS and first order in relation to the concentration of HO[•] radicals [35]. Then, the removal rate of the OS can be expressed by the following Eq. (1):

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{OS}]}{\mathrm{dt}} = -k_{\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet},os}[\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet}][\mathrm{OS}] \qquad (1)$$

Where $[k_{HO\bullet,OS}]$ is the second order kinetic constant for the reaction between OS and HO[•].

For the kinetic constant determination, competition kinetics method was applied. Simultaneous degradation experiments were performed with the mixture of the compound in study and a reference compound, whose rate constant for the reaction with HO[•] radicals is previously known, which in this case was the 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, 2,4-D ($k_{HO•} =$ 5.5 x 10⁹ L mol⁻¹ s⁻¹) [48]. In this context, solutions containing both ametryn and 2,4-D with a concentration of 0.04 mmol L^{-1} were subjected to photocatalytic degradation and their concentrations were followed with the time.

The concentration decay of the samples was monitored by HPLC from Agilent 1200 Infinity Series under the same conditions that were previously employed for monitoring the degradation of ametryn. 2,4-D was quantified at λ =234 nm. The data referring to the calibration curve for 2,4-D are the same as those presented in our previous study [49], which dealt with the determination of the second order kinetic constant between ametryn and HO[•] by the UV/H₂O₂ process.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of TiO₂ concentration on ametryn degradation

The effect of the catalyst concentration on the ametryn removal response was evaluated, carrying out experiments with three different catalyst loads (0.05, 0.2 and 0.4 g L⁻¹ TiO₂). These photocatalytic experiments were performed to find the concentration considered ideal for further investigate the role of active species in the mechanisms of the photocatalytic process. The results of the decay of the ametryn concentration and the removal of TOC are shown in Fig. 2. For both analyzed parameters, an increase in response is obtained when the catalyst dose is increased. The blank test shows that simulated sunlight with a photon flux equal to 9.4 μ Einstein s⁻¹ (290-400 nm) was insufficient to degrade ametryn, only around 30% of the herbicide was removed in 30 minutes of irradiation, not observing increased rate of degradation until the end of the experiment. Moreover, mineralization reached was insignificant, obtaining 6% after 120 minutes of irradiation. Among the concentrations of catalyst tested, using 0.4 g L⁻¹ of TiO₂ leads to the best herbicide removal (100% removal after 60 min of irradiation) and

mineralization (>20% after 120 min of irradiation). Previous studies carried out with the same experimental installations [50] reported that, working with 0.5 g L^{-1} of TiO₂, catalyst sedimentation at the bottom of the reactor was observed, therefore concentrations greater than 0.4 g L^{-1} were not considered for the experiments. The TiO₂ settling in the reactor could increase radiation scattering, decreasing the reaction rate and masking the results of the experiments.

Degradation data were fitted to pseudo first-order kinetics model and the values obtained for the apparent first-order rate constant (k_{app}) were calculated from the slopes of the regression curves of the relationship between $-\ln([ametryn]/[ametryn]_0)$ and the irradiation time. It was clearly appreciated that kinetic constant decreases when TiO₂ concentration decreases, being k_{app} values 7.7 x 10⁻² min⁻¹ (R² = 0.997), 5.7 x 10⁻² min⁻¹ (R² = 0.978) and 5.3 x 10⁻² min⁻¹ (R² = 0.978), for 0.4, 0.2 and 0.05 g L⁻¹ of TiO₂, respectively, which represented a good fit with for the proposed model. On the other hand, in the absence of the catalyst, the obtained value of k_{app} was 1.2 x 10⁻² min⁻¹ (R² = 0.995), roughly 6.4 times lower than for the experiments performed with 0.4 g L⁻¹ of TiO₂.



Fig. 2. Effect of the TiO₂ concentration on ametryn degradation and mineralization in solar simulator device. Initial ametryn concentration 10 mg L⁻¹, initial pH_{free} \approx 5.7.

3.2. Evolution of oxidation, aromaticity, toxicity and biodegradability assessment of intermediates

The removal of COD was evaluated during the photocatalytic process and the results with 0.4 g L⁻¹ of catalyst are shown in Fig. 3A. The COD reduction found after 120 minutes of irradiation was around 60%. The COD is a parameter indicating the amount of organic matter in water sample, providing a direct correlation with C and O atoms in the molecular structure [51,52]. When the results are expressed as a correlation COD vs. time usually provides the S-shape curve [52]. When an inflection point is observed in this curve, it can be said that aliphatic

compounds begin to prevail over the aromatic compounds in the reaction mixture [52]. As can be seen from Fig. 3A, such inflection point was not observed during the experiment performed, indicating a considerable fraction of aromatics, resulting from the formation of intermediates derived from the s-triazine ring of the ametryn molecule.

Aromaticity, represented by SUVA, which indicates the correlation with aromatic organic matter content [53], was determined. These results are also presented in Fig. 3A (blue line in the graph). It is possible to observe an increase of the aromaticity with the increase of the degradation time, reaching a maximum value in 30 minutes of experiment. After 60 minutes there is a decrease in SUVA value, however at the end of the experiment, the value is still higher than the initial one. This indicates that the aromatic intermediates generated in the process were not completely degraded, which is in accordance with the low mineralization obtained (see Fig. 2).

Summarizing, the COD curve and the SUVA results show the presence of aromatic compounds in the system along all the process. These results agree with hydroxylated intermediates proposed for the degradation of ametryn by photocatalysis (see section 3.5.1.).

As pesticides are generally non-readily biodegradable and have high toxicity [54], the biodegradability and toxicity of samples subjected to degradation processes are important parameters that must be measured. The biodegradability index of ametryn solution before and after treatment was calculated as the ratio of BOD_{5,20} to COD. The treated solution was considered biodegradable when this ratio was in the range of 0.4–0.8 [55]. Fig. 3B shows the effect of photocatalytic treatment on biodegradability index (BOD_{5,20}/COD ratio) improvement. The biodegradability index of the initial solution of ametryn was about 0.3, demonstrating that the ametryn solution is non-biodegradable. During the treatment period, the BOD_{5,20}/COD ratio steadily increases up to nearly 0.8 after 120 min of irradiation, suggesting that the hydroxylated intermediates formed are much more biodegradable.

Acute toxicity evolution before and after photocatalytic experiment, calculated by the light emission inhibition of *Vibrio fischeri*, is also shown in Fig. 3B. The initial equitox value of the untreated ametryn solution was nearly 8.6 and after the treatment was 0.25, that is, a reduction of around 97% of the toxicity was obtained. These results are in accordance with the increased biodegradability achieved through this treatment, possibly due to the lower toxicity of the hydroxylated intermediates formed during the treatment.





Fig. 3. (A) Oxidation (COD) and SUVA, (B) Biodegradability (BOD_{5,20}/COD) and Equitox for ametryn promoted by TiO₂ photocatalysis. [Ametryn]₀ = 10 mg L⁻¹, initial pH_{free} \approx 5.7, [TiO₂] = 0.4 g L⁻¹.

3.3. Identification of the main reactive species involved in the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn

As previously reported, photocatalytic reactions involve the generation of various ROS. We utilized four selective radical scavengers to assess the extent of ametryn degradation provoked by HO[•], $O_2^{\bullet-}$, 1O_2 and h_{BV}^+ . The scavengers and their reactions with free radicals are summarized in Table 1.

The *t*-BuOH was reported to be a good scavenger of free HO[•] radical [34,39,56]. The BZ is used to evaluate the contribution of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ radical [32,34]. However, BZ has also a great capacity to trap electrons at the surface of TiO₂ to form hydroquinone (HQ) [33,56]. The decrease of the number of electrons reduces the generation of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ and may then inhibit the rate of degradation due to the attack of this active specie [57].

AcF could significantly suppress the h_{BV}^+ and HO[•] radicals (free and adsorbed) in TiO₂ photocatalyst [33,34,58]. Sodium azide (NaN₃) is an efficient scavenger for the singlet oxygen produced by the interaction of O₂^{•–} radical and photo-generated h_{BV}^+ [59,60]. Additionally, azide ions are also scavengers for HO[•] radicals [38], as shown in Table 1.

The effect of these scavengers on the ametryn photodegradation rate is shown in Fig. 4. Table 1 also includes the inhibitory effect of each scavenger expressed as the percentage of decrease of the ametryn removal, as well as the percentage of contribution of each active species during the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn.

In BZ presence after 120 min of irradiation, there is only 3% inhibition on the elimination of the herbicide compared to the experiment in the absence of scavengers, suggesting that the $O_2^{\bullet-}$ radicals plays a minor role in the photocatalytic process. However, it is worth mentioning that the perhydroxyl radicals (HO₂[•]) may participate along with the radicals $O_2^{\bullet-}$ during the photocatalytic process. This occurs because these species are in equilibrium (HO₂[•] \Rightarrow O₂[•]) and this equilibrium depends on the pH of the solution [61]. As the pKa value of this equilibrium is 4.7, it can be concluded that O₂^{•-} becomes the predominant species in solutions whose pH is 6 [61]. In this study, the pH of the ametryn solution was around 5.7 (below 6), the equilibrium can be displaced to the formation of the HO₂[•] radicals, explaining the low inhibition rate in the presence of BZ.

In the presence of *t*-BuOH, the efficiency of ametryn degradation reduces from 100% to 18% after 120 min of experiment (*i.e.*, 82% inhibition in the rate of degradation was

observed). This suggests that free HO[•] radicals were mainly implicated in ametryn degradation with TiO₂ P25. When AcF was added to the ametryn solution, an extensive inhibited in herbicide degradation was obtained. As shown in Fig. 4, only 12% removal was observed after 120 min of irradiation. As AcF is used to evaluate the participation of the hole and HO[•] (free and adsorbed), the higher the rate of inhibition by means of the AcF in comparison to the inhibition by *t*-BuOH, the greater the direct participation of the hole (h_Bv^+) in ametryn oxidation. These results (see Table 1) indicated that 88% of the degradation rate of ametryn was originated from both the HO[•] radicals and h_Bv^+ . Thus, the contribution percentage of h_Bv^+ in the degradation rate was deduced as 6% by subtracting the percentage of HO[•] radicals from the total percentage.

Azide, a scavenger for HO[•] and ${}^{1}O_{2}$, also significantly reduced the degradation rate of ametryn (Fig. 4). When it was added, the rate of ametryn removal was 39% after 120 min of irradiation, *i.e.*, leading to 61% ametryn degradation inhibition. However, it is verified that this inhibition is smaller than that obtained by adding *t*-BuOH. If the contribution of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ were significant, it would be expected that the inhibition of the rate of degradation of ametryn in the presence of sodium azide to be greater than in the presence of *t*-BuOH, which only affects HO[•] radicals [58,62]. The ${}^{1}O_{2}$ does not seem therefore to play a meaningful effect on the degradation of ametryn.

In summary, it can be seen that the HO[•] free radicals are the predominant active species responsible for the major degradation of ametryn using TiO₂ P25 as catalyst, followed by direct oxidation via h_{BV}^+ , and, at a minor extend, by the contribution of O₂^{•–} radicals.

Table 1 shows that values below 100% are found (more specifically 91%) by summation of the contribution percentages of each active species evaluated. This difference can be due to the amount of non-captured radicals such as other reactive oxygen species (ROS), among them, the HO_2^{\bullet} radicals. However, the total contribution of these ROS not analyzed was

only 9%. Accordingly, it was possible to identify with a good level of confidence the participation of the main reactive species involved in the ametryn oxidation by photocatalysis, using TiO_2 P25 as a catalyst.

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 Table 1: Oxidizing species quenched, scavengers used, reactions involved, percentage of inhibition due to the scavengers, and the percentage of contribution of each active species during the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn using TiO₂ P25 as catalyst.

	Scavenger	Reactive species	Reactions	Inhibitory effect (%)	Percentage of contribution (%)
te	ert-butanol (t-BuOH)	HO• _{free}	$(CH_3)_3COH + HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow (CH_2C(CH_3)_2OH)^{\bullet} + H_2O$ $k = 6.0 \times 10^8 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ [63]}$	82%	82% (HO•free)
			$BQ + O_2^{\bullet-} \rightarrow BQ^{\bullet-} + O_2$		
		$O_2^{\bullet-}$	$k = 0.9 - 1.0 \times 10^9 \mathrm{L \cdot mol^{-1} s^{-1}}$ [56]		
	1,4-benzoquinone			3%	3% (O ₂ •-)
	(BZ)	e _{BC}	$BQ + 2e_{BC}^- + 2H^+ \to HQ$		
		(electron)	$k = 1.35 \times 10^9 \mathrm{L \cdot mol^{-1} s^{-1}}$ [64]		
		h_{BV}^{+} (hole)	$HCOO^- + 2 h^+ \rightarrow CO_2 + H^+$		
	formic acid (AcF)		$HCOO^- + HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow CO_2^{\bullet-} + H_2O$	88%	6% (h ⁺)
		HO•	$k = 3.2 \times 10^9 \text{ L} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [65]		
			$N_3^- + {}^1O_2 \rightarrow N_3^{\bullet} + O_2^{\bullet-}$		
	sodium azide (NaN ₃)	$^{1}\mathrm{O}_{2}$	$\vec{k} = 2.0 \times 10^9 \text{ L} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} [58,62]$	61%	-
			$N_2^- + HO^\bullet \rightarrow N_2^\bullet + HO^-$		
		HO•	$\vec{k} = 1.0 \times 10^{10} \text{L} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ [62]		
3					



Fig. 4. Effect of different scavengers on ametryn removal efficiency using 0.4 g L⁻¹ of TiO₂ catalysts under Xenon lamp at $pH_{free} \approx 5.7$. [Ametryn]₀ = 10 mg L⁻¹; [BZ] = 0.001 g L⁻¹; [AcF] = 0.82 mL L⁻¹; [NaN₃] = 0.77 mg L⁻¹; [*t*-BuOH] = 60 ml L⁻¹.

3.4. Estimation of the second-order kinetic constant between ametryn and the photogenerated HO[•] radicals by competition method

As the HO[•] radicals were the active species that played the most significant role in the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn (more than 80% removal was conducted by free HO[•] radicals), the next step was to determine the rate constants for the reaction between the herbicide and these radicals, by the application of the competition kinetics method.

The decay curve of the of the normalized concentrations of both ametryn and 2,4-D in the mixture over time is shown in Fig. 5A. This model is a way of solving the problems encountered to measure the reaction rate of HO[•] radicals, due to the limitations of analytical techniques since reactions are very fast [66]. The model has been used successfully by several authors, such as, Dantas et al. [67], de Oliveira et al. [49], Zeghioud et al. [68], Ismail et al. [35], da Silva et al. [69].

The following equations can describe the removal rate of both ametryn and 2,4-D:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[2,4-\mathrm{D}]}{\mathrm{dt}} = -k_{\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet},2,4-\mathrm{D}}[\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet}][2,4\mathrm{D}] \quad (2)$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{Ametryn}]}{\mathrm{dt}} = -k_{\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet},\mathrm{Ametryn}}[\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet}][\mathrm{Ametryn}] \quad (3)$$

Dividing Eq. (2) by Eq. (3) and integrating, Eq. (4) is obtained:

$$\ln \frac{[2,4-D]}{[2,4-D]_0} = -\frac{k_{\rm HO^{\bullet},2,4-D}}{k_{\rm HO^{\bullet},Ametryn}} \ln \frac{[\rm Ametryn]}{[\rm Ametryn]_0}$$
(4)

According to Eq. (4), by plotting $\ln([2,4-D]/[2,4-D]_0)$ against $\ln[[Ametryn]/[Ametryn]_0]$, as shown in Fig. 5B, a straight line ($R^2 = 0.987$) was obtained, whose slope is the ratio of rate constants. As the experimental points are satisfactorily arranged around the straight line, the goodness of the model used can be confirmed. After least square regression analysis, the ratio $k_{\text{HO}\bullet2.4-D}/k_{\text{HO}\bullet\text{Ametryn}}$ was determined to be 11.6. Thus, the calculated value of $k_{\text{HO}-\text{Ametryn}}$ was 4.74 x $10^8 \pm 0.29$ x 10^7 L mol⁻¹ s⁻¹. HO[•] quickly reacts with most pesticides through electron transfer with second-order rate constants varying between 10^7 and 10¹⁰ L mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ [70,71]. Therefore, the value found experimentally is in the range of most reactions of HO[•] with pesticides confirming that these radicals are the main reactive specie involved in ametryn oxidation by photocatalysis using TiO_2 P25 as a catalyst.





Fig. 5. (A) Simultaneous degradation of ametryn and 2,4-D by photocatalysis, both at 0.04 mmol L^{-1} , [TiO₂] = 0.4 g L^{-1} , 25 °C, pH = 4.4 ± 0.2. (B) Neperian logarithms of the normalized concentrations of 2,4-D and ametryn for determination of second-order rate constant for the reaction between ametryn and HO[•] radicals.

3.5. Degradation mechanism of ametryn: Relationship between the active species and the intermediates generated

For the identification and structural elucidation of intermediates generated during the photocatalytic treatment, samples collected at various treatment stages (10 min, 30 min and a final sample mixture at 120 min) were analyzed by LC-TOF-MS in positive ionization. The experiments were performed with 10 mg L^{-1} ametryn and 0.4 g L^{-1} TiO₂ in the absence and presence of the different scavengers studied.

Under the adopted conditions, a total number of thirty-eight intermediate products have been identified (with or without scavengers). Table 2 summarizes the abbreviations used for intermediates, with their analytical information including observed exact masses of protonated ions and empirical formula provided by the LC/MSD TOF ESI-TOF software. Table 2 also shows a comparison between the by-products generated in the degradation of ametryn with the addition of each scavengers investigated. Table 2: LC/MS information of the by-products of ametryn solution after undergoing photocatalysis using TiO₂ without and with the addition of scavengers.

Abbreviation (Molecular ion (m/z), [M+ H ⁺])	Accurate mass of [M+H] ⁺	Molecular formula	Occurrence				
			TiO ₂	TiO ₂ + BZ	TiO ₂ + <i>t</i> -BuOH	TiO ₂ + AcF	TiO ₂ + Azide
228	228.1271±1.30x10 ⁻⁴	Ametryn (C ₉ H ₁₇ N ₅ S)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
105	104.9904	$C_2H_4N_2O_3$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
116	116.0258	C ₃ H ₉ N ₅	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
127	127.0706	$C_3H_6N_6$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν
132	131.9596	C ₃ H ₉ N ₅ O	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
144	$144.0569 \pm 2.12 \times 10^{-4}$	C ₄ H ₅ N ₃ SO	Ν	Y	Y	Ν	Ν
146	146.0174	$C_3H_7N_5O_2$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
156	155.9725	$C_4H_5N_5S$	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
158	158.0409	C4H7N5S	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
159	158.9943	$C_4H_6N_4SO$	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν
164	163.9673	$C_3H_5N_3SO_3$	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
165	165.0116	$C_4H_8N_2SO_3$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
174	173.9846	C ₄ H ₇ N ₅ SO	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
175	174.9670	$C_4H_6N_4SO_2$	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν
182	181.9777	C ₆ H ₇ N ₅ S	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
186	$186.0795 \pm 1.29 \times 10^{-4}$	$C_{6}H_{11}N_{5}S$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Ν
187	186.9941	$C_6H_{10}N_4SO$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
198	198.1337	$C_7H_{11}N_5S$	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
200	200.0951±2.081666x10 ⁻⁴	$C_7H_{13}N_5S$	Y	Y	Y	Ν	Ν
214	214.1116	$C_7H_{11}N_5SO$	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν

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21	216	215 0050	C-H-N-SO	N	N	\mathbf{V}	N	N
22	210	213.9950	$C/\Pi_3\Pi_5SO$	IN NZ	IN N	I N	IN	
23	219	219.0162	$C_6H_{10}N_4SO_3$	Ŷ	IN	IN	IN	IN
24	236	235.9938±5.798276x10 ⁻³	$C_5H_9N_5SO_4$	Y	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
25	238	238.0104	$C_4H_7N_5SO_5$	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν
26 27	240	239.6648±0.5178851	$C_9H_{13}N_5SO$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Ν
28	242	$242.1261 \pm 1.980387 \times 10^{-2}$	$C_9H_{15}N_5SO$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Ν
29	243	243.1109	C ₉ H ₁₆ N ₅ SO	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
30	244	244.1207±1.457166x10 ⁻²	C ₉ H ₁₇ N ₅ SO	Y	Y	Ν	Y	Ν
31	246	246.0168	$C_8H_{15}N_5SO_2$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν
32	250	250.1089±3.768289x10 ⁻⁴	$C_6H_{11}N_5SO_4$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
34	254	254.0014±1.414214x10 ⁻⁴	C ₄ H ₇ N ₅ SO ₆	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
35	260	259.9986	$C_8H_{13}N_5SO_3$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν
36	262	262.0590	$C_8H_{15}N_5SO_3$	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν
37	264	$264.0875 \pm 1.414214 \times 10^{-3}$	$C_7H_{13}N_5SO_4$	Y	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
39	266	266.1027	$C_6H_{11}N_5SO_5$	Ν	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν
40	278	278.0388	$C_7H_{11}N_5SO_5$	Y	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν
41	351	351.0025	$C_9H_{18}N_8SO_5$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
42	411	411.0068	$C_{14}H_{22}N_{10}S_{2}O$	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Y
43	433	433.0060	$C_{11}H_{16}N_{10}S_2O_5$	N	N	N	N	Ÿ
44	$Ves(\mathbf{V})$ or Not(N)		0112102 (100200)	11	- 1	- 1	- 1	•
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 $\begin{array}{c} 48\\ 49\\ 50\\ 51\\ 52\\ 53\\ 54\\ 55\\ 56\\ 57\\ 58\\ 60\\ 61\\ 62\\ 63\\ 64\\ 65\\ \end{array}$

Fig. S1 (supplementary material) reports a mass spectrum model with the formed intermediates at m/z 159, 175, 186, 200 and 219, corresponding to ametryn solutions irradiated with TiO₂ particles in the absence of scavengers. The molecular structures defined for the by-products are shown in Fig. S2.

In this section, a discussion was first conducted addressing the intermediates generated in the photocatalytic process without scavengers. Subsequently, the generation of intermediates was evaluated with the addition of different scavengers. All these data allowed us to propose a mechanism for ametryn degradation shown in Fig. 8.

3.5.1. Identification of by-products structures during photocatalytic reaction without addition of scavengers

Fig. 6 presents a scheme with fourteen intermediate products identified in the TiO₂ process with m/z 159, 175, 186, 200, 219, 236, 238, 240, 242, 244, 250, 254, 264 and 278. The formed intermediates with m/z 186, m/z 200, m/z 244 are common by-products of ametryn oxidation, as identified in our previous study [49] and also by other researchers. Chen et al. [72], Jiang et al. [73] and Yang et al. [74] found in their studies degradation products for ametryn with the same m/z 186 and m/z 200. The intermediate with m/z 200 was also proposed by Gozzi et al. [75] for the degradation of ametryn by solar photoelectro-Fenton, as well as a metabolite generated from biodegradation of the herbicide by entomopathogenic fungal cosmopolite *Metarhizium brunneum* ARSEF 2107 [11]. The intermediate with m/z 244 was also identified by Lopez et al. [76] and Mascolo et al. [77] in the degradation of ametryn by means of sodium hypochlorite and chlorine dioxide disinfectants, and by Yang et al. [74] during the UV/chlorine process. Liu et al. [78] proposed this intermediate in the heterogeneous reaction of ametryn particles with NO₃ radicals.

In our previous study of ametryn degradation by homogeneous oxidative processes [49], we identified the intermediate with m/z 240 and proposed the same structure as presented in this study. On the other hand, particular attention should be given to the formation of compounds of m/z 159, 175, 219, 236, 254, 264 and 278, as to the best of our knowledge, they have not been identified so far.

With the exception of intermediates with m/z 186 and m/z 200, all other by-products generated in the photocatalytic process are hydroxylated compounds, derived from sustained HO[•] radicals attacks on sulfur in the R–S–CH₃ bond and/or the aliphatic part of the ametryn molecule.

The hydroxylation of the group (R-S-CH₃) led to the formation of sulphoxides (R-SO-CH₃) with m/z = 244, 242 and 240. Successive attacks by HO[•] on aliphatic carbon chains of these intermediates resulted in hydroxylated by-products of lower molecular weight with m/z 219, 175 and 159 owing to the rupture of the aliphatic part of the sulphoxides.

Sulphones (R–SO₂–CH₃) with m/z 236, 250, 264 and 278 were detected as intermediates, resulting from the addition of an oxygen atom to the sulfur atom of by-product with m/z 244, and subsequent attacks by HO[•] on alkylamino lateral chain, forming carboxylic acids and alcohols in the aliphatic part.

The attack of the HO[•] radical on the generated sulfone (intermediate with m/z 236) led to the formation of by-products with the sulphonic acid group (R–S(=O)₂–OH). In this way, the inedited by-products, with mass peaks at m/z 238 and m/z 254, were proposed on basis of the formation of sulphonic acid group. The degradation by-product m/z 200 could come from the deethylation of ametryn molecule. Additionally, the by-product m/z 200 underwent further demethylation to produce the intermediate with m/z 186.



Fig. 6. Molecular structures of intermediates formed upon demethylation, deethylation and hydroxylation processes, proposed for the degradation of ametryn during photocatalytic treatment using TiO_2 P25 as catalyst.

3.5.2. Evolution of by-products generated in ametryn degradation in the presence of scavengers

3.5.2.1. Effect of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ and e_{BC}^{-} scavengers

In the ametryn degradation containing BZ, a total of fifteen intermediates were elucidated at m/z 144, 158, 164, 182, 186, 198, 200, 214, 240, 242, 243, 244, 250, 264, and 266, indicating that although inhibition of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ radicals generation occurs, there is a predominance of HO[•] radicals.

Correlating the intermediates generated in this process with the experiment performed with the catalyst alone and/or several experiments with other scavengers, it is said that the byproducts at m/z 158, 164, 182, 198, 214, 243 and 266 were generated only with the addition of BZ (see Table 2 and Fig. S2 in the supplementary material). In this process the main paths involved in the generation of intermediaries can be compiled in the sequential attack of HO[•] radicals on the sulfur atom of the methylthio group in the ametryn molecule; by cleavage of the alkylamino lateral chain and by abstracting hydrogen from the alkylamino group, leading to the formation of double and triple bonds.

Intermediate identified with m/z 158 is a common by-product of ametryn degradation, as proposed by de Oliveira et al. [49], Chen et al. [72] and Liu et al. [78]. The intermediates with m/z 182, m/z 198 and m/z 266 were also identified in our previous study [49]. It is noteworthy that the intermediates with m/z 164, 214 and 243 were not found in the literature for other ametryn degradation studies.

3.5.2.2. Effect of HO[•] scavengers

As previously discussed, (section 3.3), the ametryn removal significantly lessened with the addition of *t*-BuOH, indicating that HO[•] mediated oxidation processes are the predominant vias by conventional TiO₂ photocatalysis under xenon lamp irradiation. Analysis by LC–MS-TOF allowed the identification of thirteen intermediates during ametryn photocatalytic degradation with the addition of the alcohol as shown in Table 2 and Fig. S2. Specifically, in this case the generated by-products presented mass peaks at m/z 116, 132, 144, 156, 174, 186, 200, 216, 236, 240, 242, 250 and 262. The presence of these intermediates generated with little or no participation of HO[•] radicals, also demonstrates that the degradation of ametryn is driven by the participation of other active species such as $O_2^{\bullet-}$ radicals and direct oxidation via holes.

The intermediates formed in this case are markedly different. Comparing with intermediates reported only in the presence of catalyst or with the addition of other sequestering agents, 6 specific different intermediates were identified in the presence of *t*-BuOH. These products exhibiting $[M+H]^+$ ions at m/z 116, 132, 156, 174, 216 and 262 (see Table 2) and their proposed molecular structures are presented in Fig. S2 (see supplementary material). Apart from the intermediate with m/z 216 that was identified in our previous study [49], these other intermediates have not been identified so far. This finding suggests that O₂^{••} and holes are also involved in the degradation process, however their role is less important.

Ring opening might occur via subsequent addition of HO₂• radical/O₂• anion [34,79,80]. The identified by-products, with mass peaks at m/z 116 and m/z 132, are characterized by the opening s-triazine ring.

The attack of O_2^{\bullet} radicals on the sulfur atom of the methylthio group, followed by the breakdown of C-N single bonds between the s-triazine ring and isopropyl groups of the ametryn molecule, generated the sulphoxides with m/z 174 and m/z 216. It was also verified the

generation of a hydroxy sulphone with m/z 262, as the result of the O₂^{•-} radical attacks on the sulfur atom and via hydroxylation by O₂[•] in the ethylamine part. The abstraction of hydrogen corresponding to methylthio group by reactions involving O₂^{•-} radicals and/or holes formed the intermediate with m/z 156.

3.5.2.3. Effect of holes and HO[•] scavengers

When AcF was added to the reaction system, only eight intermediates with m/z 127, 186, 240, 242, 244, 246, 250 and 260 were identified by LC-TOF-MS analysis in positive mode (Table 2). In this case the degradation was mainly conducted by O_2^{\bullet} radicals and 1O_2 since HO[•] radicals and h_{BV}^+ do not participate (or the participation is drastically reduced) in the presence of AcF (see section 3.3).

The intermediates with m/z 240, 242, 244 and 250 can be generated by the addition reaction of O₂^{•-} radicals on the sulfur atom and/or alkyl chain and by oxidation of alkyl chain. On the other hand, m/z 186 and m/z 127 are formed via the oxidation of the alkyl substituent with the stepwise decomposition of methyl, ethyl and isopropyl groups. From these intermediates generated, the by-product with m/z 127, 246 and 260 were formed only in the presence of AcF (Table 2 and Fig. S2) and to the best of our knowledge was not found in the literature in studies on ametryn degradation. Similarly, the intermediate with m/z 260 was also identified in our previous study [49]. However, we here propose a different structure for this intermediate, based on an ene reaction with singlet oxygen via the electron richer Nisopropyl group [81-84]. The Fig. 7 shows a proposed mechanism involved in the formation this by-product and for the formation of the m/z 246. These results suggest that ¹O₂ initially may have participated in the degradation process, although from the results shown in Table 1, no

percentage contribution of ametryn degradation was attributed to ${}^{1}O_{2}$, because the predominance of HO[•] radicals can mask the process.



Fig. 7. Proposed mechanisms for the formation of by-produts at m/z 246 and m/z 260 resulting from photodegradation of ametryn by comercial TiO₂ catalyst in aqueous solution with addition of AcF.

3.5.2.4. Effect of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and HO[•] scavengers

A total of nine intermediates were detected for the degradation of ametryn in experiments performed with the addition of azide. Table 2 shows that, in the presence of azide, they appear intermediates generated in the presence of other active species (with m/z 250 and 254), but new seven intermediates were also generated (with m/z 105, 146, 165, 187, 351, 411 and 433) that were not detected in the other cases.

As azide scavenges both, HO[•] radicals and ${}^{1}O_{2}$, the intermediates generated may result from the attack of $O_{2}^{\bullet-}$ radicals and direct oxidation via holes. However, it has also to take into

account the possible intermediates produced by activity of azidyl radical (N_3^{\bullet}), which is highly oxidative species [85], and/or by the extra amount of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ generated during the 1O_2 scavenging process (see Table 1).

The intermediates with m/z 105, 146 and 165 result from cleavage s-triazine ring, possibly via addition of O₂^{•-} radicals. The intermediate with m/z = 105 was also identified in our previous study [49], but the intermediates with m/z 146, 165, 187, 351, 411 and 433, to the best of our knowledge, have not been described in other studies of ametryn degradation.

Products resulting from dimerization can be generated by condensation reactions. Three intermediates identified with m/z 351, m/z 411 and m/z 433 are dimeric species.

3.5.3. Comparison of the same by-products generated with and without addition of the different scavengers.

Table 2 shows a comparison of the by-products that are repeated for the different analyzed processes. The sulphone at m/z 250 was detected in all cases investigated (with different scavenger and non-scavenger systems). The intermediates with m/z 186, 240 and 242 were not only identified in the experiment performed with azide. These by-products are the main products of photocalytic degradation of ametryn and can be generated by the attack of the different ROS. Other typical by-products of ametryn degradation already identified by other researchers and identified in this study (see Table 2) were the intermediates with m/z 200 and m/z 244.

The sulphones with m/z 236 and m/z 264 were both detected in the absence of scavengers, and the sulphone of m/z 236 was also detected with the addition of *t*-BuOH; in contrast to sulfone with m/z 264 was formed in the presence of BZ. Thus, it can be assumed

that the sulphone with m/z 236 was generated by O₂^{•-} radicals attack, and the sulphone with m/z 264 was generated via HO[•] radicals.

The intermediate at m/z 254 with the sulphonic acid group was generated in the experiment performed in absence of scavengers and in the experiment with azide. The sulphoxide of low molecular weight at m/z 144 was identified for the experiment performed in the presence of BZ and *t*-BuOH. Thus, the formation of these by-products may involve HO[•] or O₂^{•-} radicals.

Simulated solar radiation-induced TiO₂ photocatalysis involves the formation of different active species responsible for the formation of by-products resulting from degradation of ametryn. Therefore, the reaction pathway of the ametryn photocatalytic degradation catalyzed via commercial TiO₂ with main contributed ROS can be proposed in the scheme shown in Fig. 8.



Fig. 8. Mechanisms postulated showing the proposed pathways for the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn by commercial TiO_2 catalyst via the dominate ROS involved in the process.

4. Conclusions

The most remarkable conclusions drawn for the present study can be summarized as follows:

• The photocatalysis using TiO_2 P25 as catalyst is proved to be efficient process for the degradation of ametryn herbicide in aqueous solutions under simulated solar radiation.

Using 0.4 g L^{-1} of catalyst, a complete ametryn degradation was reached after 60 min of experiment.

- Photocatalytic oxidation of ametryn significantly increased the biodegradability by a factor of around 2.7, making the final solution biodegradable. The toxicity assessment with *Vibrio fischeri* revealed that the degradation process eliminates virtually the toxicity and no toxic intermediates were formed at the end of the treatment.
- Experimental evidence obtained with radicals and hole scavengers indicates that the HO[•] free radicals have a preponderant participation in the oxidation of ametryn with a high second order rate constant (4.74 x $10^8 \pm 0.29 \times 10^7 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), followed by direct hole ametryn oxidation. Also, a slight contribution in the oxidation can be attributed to $O_2^{\bullet^-}$ anions species.
- The role of active species in the generation of intermediates has been systematically studied. From the by-products formed, it can be observed that the HO• radicals primarily leads to the formation of sulphones, sulphoxides and sulphonic acid, produced by the sequential attack of HO• radicals on the sulfur atom on the methylthio group. Meanwhile, O2•⁻ can attack ametryn to form the open-s-triazine ring products, besides forming sulphoxides and hydroxy sulphones resulting from the attack of O2•⁻ radicals on the sulfur atom. The oxidation of ametryn by ¹O2 leads to the formation of N-hydroperoxy specie and cyclohydroperoxy hemiaminal intermediate, arising from the participation in an ene type reaction with ¹O2 via the electron richer N-isopropyl group. Finally, the direct attack by positive holes can lead to compounds resulting from dimerization products by condensation reactions. These results offered an insight into the degradation mechanism of ametryn involving several active species.

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Supplementary Material

Evaluation of the main active species involved in the TiO₂

photocatalytic degradation of ametryn herbicide and its by-products

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Fig. S1. LC/MS spectrum model of by-products of ametryn degradation formed during the photocatalytic process using TiO₂ P25.



Fig. S2. Scheme showing the possible ROS involved in the generation of by-products resulting from the photocatalytic degradation of ametryn observed by LC/MS using comercial TiO_2 in the presence of specific scavengers.