Photocatalytic removal of the erythromycin antibiotic using Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ magnetic nanoparticles: investigation of effective parameters, process kinetics and degradation end products

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A B S T R A C T

Antibiotics are resistant compounds with low biodegradability and cannot be effectively eliminated by conventional wastewater treatment methods. The aim of this study was to evaluate the photocatalytic removal of erythromycin using magnetic nanoparticles (Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$) from aqueous solutions. Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles were synthesized by sol–gel method, and scanning electron microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, value-stream mapping, Brunauer–Emmett–Teller, and diffuse reflectance spectroscopy analyses were used to determine the properties of the synthesized nanoparticles. Effect of various variables including pH (3–9), initial concentration of erythromycin (25–75 mg/L), and concentration of nanoparticles (200–600 mg/L) at different times (15–60 min) was examined in the photocatalytic removal of erythromycin. The results of this study showed that the highest removal efficiency of erythromycin and the highest reaction rate constant were obtained using a fixed beam with a UVC lamp 15 W at pH = 5, the initial concentration of 25 mg/L, and the dose of nanoparticles 600 mg/L at the reaction time of 60 min. Due to the high removal efficiency of erythromycin by Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ process in the presence of UVC light and stability of nanoparticles after 5 reuse, the application of this process in water and wastewater treatment processes is recommended.

Keywords: Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$; photocatalytic process; erythromycin antibiotic; reaction products

1. Introduction

Antibiotics are widely used as human and animal drugs to treat microbial infections [1,2]. About 30%–90% of antibiotics are not broken down in humans and animals and enter the environment as active compounds from urine and feces [3]. Some of the adverse effects of antibiotics include increased bacterial resistance, genotoxicity, and gastrointestinal disorders [4,5]. Erythromycin ($C_{37}H_{67}NO_{13}$) is a macrolide antibiotic that has prokinetic activity in low doses [6]. The use of low-dose of erythromycin for a long time has
been effective in the treatment of diffuse bronchiolitis [7]. Discharge of the antibiotic into the environment without proper treatment can cause widespread problems such as heart disorders, allergic and gastrointestinal reactions for humans and the ecosystem. Therefore, removal and reduction of erythromycin concentration before discharge to the environment are necessary and inevitable. So far, various methods including membrane processes [8], adsorption [2], and advanced oxidation processes including, ozonation [9], UV, and combined methods such as photo-Fenton [10], electro-Fenton [11], Bi2O3/TS-1 [12], biopolymers [13], POM/polymer photocatalyst [14], and nanosheets [15] have been used by researchers to remove antibiotics. Among the above methods, the advanced oxidation process is an excellent and effective method for the degradation of hazardous, resistant, and non-degradable pollutants from aqueous solutions [16]. The advantages of the advanced oxidation process include process simplicity, low cost, high efficiency, and mineralization of pollutants [17]. The photocatalytic process is defined as the degradation of pollutants using light in the presence of an accelerating catalyst [18]. The use of catalysts in the presence of UV increases the reaction speed, reduces the time required, increases the production of hydroxyl radicals, reduces the production of toxic products, and increases efficiency [19].

Shang et al. [12] performed a study of photocatalytic analysis of erythromycin using Bi2O3/TS-1 based on an artificial neural network. The results of the study showed that the highest removal efficiency of erythromycin (98.02%) under optimal conditions Bi = 5.5% and the amount of catalyst was 600 mg/L [12].

Various materials such as biopolymers, zeolites, biocides, activated carbon, titanium dioxide, zinc oxide, etc. have been used to decompose drugs in aqueous solutions [13,20,21].

One of the most well-known catalysts used in the treatment of antibiotics from aqueous media is titanium dioxide (TiO2). However, the application of titanium dioxide is limited due to the wide bandgap (3.2 electron volts), low quantum efficiency, and hole/electron recombination [22]. To solve this problem, the researchers have been proposed TiO2 doping with metal ions (such as Mn, Ni, Zn, Ag, Au, Pt, Fe, etc.), or non-metallic (such as boron (B), nitrogen (N)), sensitization with dyes, sensitization with polymers, and formation of heterogeneity with other semiconductors [23]. Studies over the past decade have shown that, among the above methods, the doping of titanium dioxide with metal ions has shown better results in the removal of various contaminants. In the method of doping with metal ions, Fe3+ due to the half-full electron arrangement and high similarity of Fe6+ ion radius (0.645 Å) to Ti4+ (0.604 Å) and easy connection to the crystal lattice of titanium dioxide has been considered as an appropriate element [24,25].

There are various methods for preparation of nanoparticles, including hydrothermal, sol-gel, plasma oxidative pyrolysis, flame spray pyrolysis, precipitation, co-precipitation, immersion and wet impregnation. Among them, the sol–gel method is widely used. Compared to other methods of nanoparticle production, sol–gel has many advantages. Ability to cover large and complex surfaces [26–29].

After synthesis of an effective catalyst in removing various contaminants, separation and reuse of the catalyst are very important and inevitable. This process is usually done with the help of filtration and centrifugation processes, which is associated with the consumption of a lot of time, money, and manpower. Therefore, to solve this problem, in the present study, the induction of magnetic properties to the catalyst (with iron oxide nanoparticles (Fe3O4 NPs)) and their separation by an external magnet was used. In view of the foregoing, the purpose of the present study can be summarized as follows:

• Synthesis of Fe-doped TiO2@Fe3O4 magnetic nanoparticles by sol–gel method and investigation of its physical and chemical properties.
• Investigation of ability of synthesized catalyst in the removal of erythromycin antibiotic and determination of the effect of different process parameters on the removal rate.
• Investigation of process kinetics.
• Checking the reusability of the adsorbent.
• Determining the final products resulting from the degradation of the antibiotic erythromycin.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials used

In this study, erythromycin produced by Sigma-Aldrich Company was used to prepare a stock solution. Other chemicals include tetraisopropyl orthotitanate (C12H28O4Ti, 98%), nitric acid (HNO3, 65%), iron(III) nitrate nonahydrate (Fe(NO3)3·9H2O, 98%), 2-propanol (CH3CH(OH)CH3), ammonia, iron chloride (FeCl3), ferric chloride (FeCl3), sulfuric acid (H2SO4, 95%–97%), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 98%) were purchased from Merck Co., Germany.

2.2. Synthesis of iron oxide (Fe3O4) magnetic nanoparticles

In the present study, the co-precipitation method was used to synthesize magnetic nanoparticles. For this purpose, 2 and 5.12 g of FeCl3 and FeCl2 were added to 200 mL of distilled water in a balloon, respectively. The mixture was stirred at 600 rpm. Then, 1.5 M ammonia was added dropwise to the solution. After reaching the pH above 9, the addition of ammonia was stopped. The result of this reaction was the formation of a black precipitate in the solution. It should be noted that nitrogenation and stirring of the solution continued for up to 2 h after the addition of ammonia. After completion of the reaction, the obtained nanoparticles were washed several times with double distilled water and dried at ambient temperature [30].

2.3. Synthesis of Fe-doped TiO2@Fe3O4 nanoparticles

In this study, the sol–gel method was used to synthesize Fe-doped TiO2 and Fe-doped TiO2@Fe3O4 catalysts. To prepare the samples, a certain amount of iron nitrate, 2-propanol alcohol, deionized water, and nitric acid was poured into a flat bottom balloon and stirred on a magnetic stirrer for 15 min until thoroughly mixed (Solution No. 1). In another Erlenmeyer flask, a certain amount of tetraisopropyl orthotitanate, 2-propanol, and Fe3O4 were mixed
participating elements confirms the presence of Ti, Fe, and O elements in the structure of the synthesized samples. The mass percentage of elements in the synthesized samples was calculated using EDX analysis and is presented in Table 1. The results of Table 1 show the presence of the above elements in the structure of synthesized nanocatalysts and also confirm the doping process of synthesized nanoparticles. In addition, the absence of other elements in the EDX analysis spectrum confirms the absence of impurities in the structure of the synthesized nanocatalysts. Strong Ti and O signals in the EDX spectrum indicate that TiO$_2$ surrounds Fe$_3$O$_4$ with a core-shell structure.

3.1.3. FTIR analysis

The results of FTIR analysis of the nanoparticles synthesized in this study are shown in Fig. 3. As shown in the figure, the peak at 585 cm$^{-1}$ for Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles indicates the vibrational stretching bond of Fe-O [32] while for the Fe–TiO$_2$ and Fe–TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ samples, peaks in the range of 1,450–645 cm$^{-1}$ can be attributed to Ti–O and Ti–O–Ti [33]. The small peaks in 1,615 and 1,628 cm$^{-1}$ can be attributed to O–H bending bond vibrations caused by the decomposition of water molecules or adsorbed water molecules. Peaks in the range of 3,230–3,440 cm$^{-1}$ specify the stretching vibrations of the hydroxyl group (structural hydroxyl and OH water group) [34]. The higher intensity of these two peaks in Fe–TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ sample signposts the presence of more hydroxyl and water groups adsorbed on the surface of Fe–TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$, which increase the production of hydroxyl radicals during the photocatalytic treatment process and consequently increase the photocatalytic activity of sample [35,36]. The presence of radicals on the surface of catalysts during the photocatalytic process plays an effective role in the process of degradation and removal of contaminants. This event that the water adsorbed on the catalyst surface increases the oxidation power of the photocatalytic system has been proven by other studies. The hydroxyl group on the surface of the catalyst can react with the optical cavities created and produce reactive oxygen species. In addition, such hydroxyls prolong the charge separation in the catalysts and delay the electron/hole recombination, which ultimately leads to increased activity of photocatalytic processes [37]. According to the study of Craciun et al. [34], a slight shift in the position of the peaks for the doped sample can be attributed to the replacement of Fe$^{3+}$ in the titanium dioxide network or non-crystalline iron oxides at the boundary of the titanium dioxide crystals.

3.1.4. XRD analysis

In order to determine the crystal structure and estimate the size of the formed crystals and to determine the phase of the crystal structure of nanoparticles, X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectroscopy with a wavelength of 1.5418 Å was used. Fig. 4 shows the XRD spectrum of Fe-doped TiO$_2$ and Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles at a 2θ of 10°–80°.

As shown in Fig. 4, the XRD spectra of synthesized titanium dioxide samples have large and sharp peaks that indicate good crystal structure in the synthesized nanoparticles. Peaks at 25.32, 37.78, 47.98, 54.20, 55.02, 62.11, 69.21,
70.48, and 75.23 which are specified in the Fe–TiO$_2$ sample approve crystal structure of anatase phase. Choi et al. [38] studied the effect of different doping agents on the phase transition from anatase to rutile and showed that the addition of small-radius doping agent could be integrated directly with the titanium dioxide crystal lattice to increase the anatase phase, which has more photocatalytic properties compared to other phases. As shown in Fig. 4, no peak of iron element was observed in iron-doped nanoparticles, which confirms that the crystal structure of TiO$_2$ has not changed significantly. Eadi et al. [39] also reported that the absence of a significant peak after the doping process could be due to the amount of iron doped lower than the limit of detection of device. On the other hand, occupation of a number of titanium dioxide lattice sites by iron ions is possible due to the similarity of the ionic radii of Ti$^{4+}$ (0.604 Å) and Fe$^{3+}$ (0.645 Å) [24].

Rahul Reddy et al. [40] showed that the replacement of iron in the crystalline lattice of titanium dioxide can lead to a reduction in the rutile phase, which in turn can be due to the reduction of oxygen sites on the surface of titanium dioxide; this prevents the crystallization of other

Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) Fe$_3$O$_4$, (b) Fe-doped TiO$_2$ and (c) Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles.
Fig. 2. EDX spectra for (a) Fe₃O₄, (b) Fe-doped TiO₂ and (c) Fe-doped TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ particles.
phases. On the other hand, an increase in the amount of iron can lead to changes in reflections at lower angles due to the replacement of Ti\(^{4+}\) ions with slightly larger Fe\(^{3+}\) ions [41]. According to the diagram of Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) nanoparticles, the diffraction peaks at 30.16, 35.36, 43.43, 57.54, 56.92, and 62.51 can be related to the diffraction of the face-centered cubic. Also, in the diagram of Fe–TiO\(_2\)@Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\), peaks related to Fe–TiO\(_2\) and Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) are observed, which confirms the presence of Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) and Fe–TiO\(_2\) in the structure of Fe–TiO\(_2\)@Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\).

The calculation of crystallite size of the synthesized samples was performed using the Debye–Scherrer equation and based on the following formula:

\[
D = \frac{K}{\beta \cos \theta}
\]

where the average diameter of the crystallite size (nanometers) was shown by \(D\), \(K\) represents crystal shape factor (it is typically constant and equal to 0.9), \(\lambda\) is indicative of X-ray wavelength, which is employed for XRD analysis (the wavelength was 1.5441 Å in the present study), \(\theta\) is used for representing diffraction angle in terms of degree, and \(\beta\) is representative of the full-width at half maximum (FWHM). Accordingly, the average size of Fe–TiO\(_2\) and Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) nanoparticles were 15.05 and 18.12 nm, respectively.

### 3.1.5. DRS analysis

DRS analysis has been used to evaluate the reduction in bandgap after doping of elements doped in the structure of synthesized nanoparticles. Fig. 5 shows the absorption spectra of two synthesized samples in the wavelength range of 300–800 nm. In addition to determining the absorption spectrum, it is possible to quantify the band gap of nanoparticles using DRS analysis data and using the Kubelka–Munk function and the Tauc method followed by plotting \(a(h\nu)^{1/2}\) against the energy of absorbed photons in terms of electron volts (hv).

\[
(a(h\nu)) = A(h\nu - E_g)^{1/2}
\]

where \(a\) indicates the absorption coefficient, \(h\) signifies the Planck’s constant, \(v\) shows the light frequency, \(A\) represents the absorption constant, \(E_g\) is indicative of the nanoparticle bandgap, and \(r\) is related to the optical transmission process. Comparison of non-doped synthesized titanium dioxide nanoparticles with commercial titanium dioxide, which has a bandgap of 3.2 eV shows that nanoparticles synthesized by the sol–gel method have a lower bandgap; this difference can be due to the effect of parameters during the synthesis of nanoparticles. Therefore, it can be reported that nanoparticles synthesized by the sol–gel method have better catalytic properties than commercial titanium dioxide [42]. According to Fig. 5, iron doping and magnetization of titanium dioxide caused the absorption wavelength to shift to larger wavelengths and get closer to the visible region. The reduction in bandgap is also due to the action of 3d orbital of titanium and the d orbital of iron, and the placement of iron in the structure of titanium dioxide as an intermediate between titanium dioxide atoms leads to the production of an extra energy level between the valence and the conduction bands of titanium oxide. In fact, the doped iron element in the structure of titanium dioxide acts as an intermediate energy level, reducing the bandgap and changing the absorption of light towards the visible region [24]. On the other hand, by doping the elements to the structure of titanium dioxide, its bandgap is reduced to 2.7 and 2.4 in 2% molar concentration of iron.
Fe–TiO₂ and Fe–TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ samples, respectively. The reduction in bandgap in iron-doped titanium dioxide can be due to iron doping in the structure of titanium dioxide [22].

### 3.1.6. BET analysis

BET analysis was performed using the Belsorp mini apparatus (made in Japan) according to the standard 15901-2. The results of nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms for Fe₃O₄, Fe-doped TiO₂, and Fe-doped TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ samples are shown in Fig. 6a–c. The surface porosity and specific surface area of the samples synthesized using BET analysis are presented in Table 2. As can be seen, based on the classification of the IUPAC standards, the samples evaluated in this study have type IV isotherms that indicate the simultaneous presence of micropores and mesopores in the synthesized sample. On the other hand, in the adsorption–desorption diagram, p/p₀ below 0.5 is connected, which indicates the simultaneous existence of micropores and mesopores. According to the hysteresis absorption and desorption curves, as well as according to the standard 15901-2, the shape of the pores is often cylindrical. In addition, the total pore volume and average pore diameter in the synthesized Fe₃O₄, Fe–TiO₂, and Fe–TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ samples are presented in Table 2. It can be seen that in doped and magnetized samples, the amount of specific surface area has decreased, which can be due to the increase in particle size and the resulting blockage of cavities [43].

### 3.1.7. VSM analysis

Vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) was used to measure the magnetic properties of the synthesized nanoparticles. Fig. 7 shows the magnetic properties of Fe₃O₄ and Fe-doped TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles. As shown, the maximum saturation magnet for Fe₃O₄ and Fe–TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles is about ±80% and ±60%, respectively. The data show that all samples have superparamagnetic properties. For isolation and reuse of the samples, magnetic nanoparticles that exhibit superparamagnetic behavior at room temperature are preferred.

### 3.2. Process of photocatalytic degradation of erythromycin

#### 3.2.1. Effect of initial pH of solution

Fig. 8 shows the effect of pH on the erythromycin degradation process at different levels of acid, neutral, and alkali at different times by keeping other variables constant. As shown in Fig. 8, pH = 5 had the highest efficiency and at alkaline and neutral pHs, the removal efficiency decreased. Determining the effect of pH on the degradation of pollutants is a complex matter and depends on several factors: (i) the equilibrium of water decomposition that affects the amount of hydroxyl
Table 3
Effect of different variables on the degradation of the antibiotic erythromycin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value of variable</th>
<th>Equation</th>
<th>$k_0 \times 10^{-2}$ (min$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$t_{1/2}$ (min)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial pH</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$y = 0.0283x + 0.0185$</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>24.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>$y = 0.0293x + 0.1092$</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>23.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>$y = 0.0155x + 0.0739$</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>44.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>$y = 0.0116x + 0.0469$</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>59.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>$y = 0.0387x + 0.0656$</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>17.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciprofloxacin (mg/L)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>$y = 0.0293x + 0.01092$</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>23.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>$y = 0.0155x + 0.0739$</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>44.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
<td>$y = 0.0116x + 0.0469$</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>59.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe-doped TiO$_2$ (mg/L)</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>$y = 0.0393x - 0.0056$</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>26.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
<td>$y = 0.0818x - 0.3987$</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>8.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*t$_{1/2}$ (min) = 0.693/$k_0$

Fig. 6. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms (a) Fe$_3$O$_4$, (b) Fe-doped TiO$_2$ and (c) Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$. 
radicals produced, (ii) the surface charge of the catalyst with respect to the zero charge point (pzc), (iii) ionization state of erythromycin (pKa is 8.8) and its degradation products (iv) the power and oxidation power of the produced optical cavities. At pH less than 6.2 which is the pzc of titania nanoparticles, the charge of the catalyst surface is positive while at pH more than 6.2, the catalyst surface charge is negative. Therefore, at pH = 5 the catalyst levels and erythromycin both have a positive charge and cause a repulsive force, it cannot be proved with pzc and zeta potential. Given that the activity of optical cavities produced under acidic conditions is favorable, while hydroxyl radicals are the predominant species under alkaline and neutral conditions, this may explain the rapid degradation of erythromycin at low pH values. In addition, assuming that the degradation products of erythromycin are negatively charged mainly, it increases the electrostatic attraction forces between the organic matter and the catalyst surface [23,29]. In a study by Li et al. [44] entitled photocatalytic degradation of erythromycin tetracycline using nanocomposite, the optimum pH for erythromycin removal was 5. This may be due to the fact that most erythromycin degradation products have a negative charge, so acidic conditions are suitable for electrostatic attraction between the organic material and the catalyst surface.

3.2.2. Effect of initial erythromycin concentration

After determining the optimal pH, the effect of different concentrations of erythromycin (25, 50, and 75 mg/L) on the removal efficiency was investigated at this stage and its results were publicized in Fig. 9. As indicated by the results, the highest efficiency occurs at the less initial concentration and decreases with increasing contaminant concentration. The results of the present study were consistent with the results of the study conducted by Xekoukoulotakis et al. [45] for the photocatalytic degradation of erythromycin. In the mentioned study, with increasing the concentration from 2.5 to 30 mg/L, the efficiency decreased from 77.65% to 19%.

The reason for the decrease in efficiency with increasing concentration can be due to reduced amount of reactive species (such as hydroxyl radical, etc.) for the degradation of the target pollutant, more competition for reactive species between the target pollutant and the intermediate products of degradation with increasing pollutant concentration, competition between contaminant molecules for high hydroxyl

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Fig. 7. Magnetic properties of synthesized nanoparticles (1) Fe₃O₄ sample and (2) Fe-doped TiO₂@Fe₃O₄ sample.

Fig. 8. Effect of initial pH on photocatalytic removal of erythromycin (initial concentration of erythromycin: 50 mg/L, catalyst concentration: 400 mg/L).

Fig. 9. Effect of initial erythromycin concentration on photocatalytic removal of erythromycin (pH of 5 and catalyst concentration of 400 mg/L).
radicals at high concentrations and blocking of active catalyst sites by intermediate and contaminant compounds [46,47]. In their study, Mohammadi et al. [48] showed that with increasing contaminant concentration, more contaminant molecules adhere to the catalyst surface, and the active sites of the catalyst decrease; therefore, with the increase of the occupied sites of the catalyst surface, the formation of hydroxyl radicals decreases. Sohrabnejad et al. [49] showed that increasing the concentration of the pollutant can reduce the number of photons that reach the surface of the catalyst because the higher absorption of light by the pollutant, leads to more decrease in the stimulation of the catalysts and consequently, reduce the production of hydroxyl radicals.

### 3.2.3. Effect of different amounts of catalyst

One of the most important parameters affecting the efficiency and performance of hybrid processes and catalytic oxidation is the catalyst dosage used in the process. Fig. 10 shows the effect of different doses of synthesized nanoparticles (200, 400, and 600 mg/L) on the removal of erythromycin. According to the figure, with increasing catalyst dosage, the removal efficiency has increased. The study of Fakhri et al. [50] conducted for the photocatalytic degradation of erythromycin showed that by increasing the nanocatalyst dosage from 300 to 500 mg/L, the efficiency of the process increases. They reported that the reason for this phenomenon could be that as the nanocatalyst dosage increases, the number of active sites at the nanocatalyst surface increases, and more erythromycin molecules are adsorbed on the nanocatalyst surface. On the other hand, increasing the nanocatalyst dosage and active sites leads to the formation of more hydroxyl radicals and increases the photocatalytic activity [50]. The results of the study by Guo et al. [51] performed for the degradation of Flumequine using plasma along with graphene oxide/titanium dioxide nanocomposite showed that by increasing the catalyst dosage, the contact surface and catalytic reaction are improved and more photons are produced and converted into energy by the plasma process, which accelerates the catalytic process.

### 3.3. Reaction kinetics

The removal kinetics of many contaminants have been analyzed using a first-order kinetic model, and this model is used to express the relationship between the contaminant degradation rate in photocatalytic degradation reactions. The first order kinetic equation is as follows:

$$r = \frac{dc}{dt} = k_{obs}C$$

where $r$ (mg/L min) is photocatalytic degradation rate of erythromycin antibiotic in the initial reaction times, $C = C(t)$ (mg/L) is initial concentration of erythromycin antibiotic, and $k_{obs}$ (L/mg) is the erythromycin degradation rate constant, which is affected by the concentration of antibiotics. In cases where the chemical concentration is low ($C = C_0$ at $t = 0$), the equation becomes simpler and is used as a first-order equation represented as follows:

$$\ln \left(\frac{C}{C_0}\right) = k_{obs}t$$

![Fig. 10. Effect of different dosage of nanoparticles on photocatalytic removal of erythromycin (pH 5 and initial erythromycin concentration: 25 mg/L).](image1)

![Fig. 11. Evaluation of reusability of synthesized nanocatalysts under optimal conditions for removal of erythromycin antibiotic.](image2)
By plotting $\ln(C_t/C_0)$ against time at different concentrations of antibiotics, the amount of $k_{\text{obs}}$ and the correlation coefficient can be determined for different concentrations. The apparent velocity constant of first-order kinetics ($k_{\text{app}}$) is equal to the slope of the line. According to the above, the effect of various parameters including the initial concentration of antibiotics, solution pH, and dose of magnetic nanoparticles on the degradation kinetics of antibiotics was investigated. Table 3 presents the regression coefficient ($R^2$), the first-order reaction rate constant of various parameters, and the half-life of the reaction, which is the time required to reduce the reaction concentration. The high regression coefficient of the parameters in Table 3 shows that the photocatalytic degradation of the antibiotic follows the first-order kinetic model well. The results showed that the absorption is done in the one step.

3.4. Assessment of sustainability and reuse

The reusability of the synthesized nanocatalysts after the oxidation steps was investigated under optimal conditions. Photocatalyst, after several separations and washes, was dried at 60°C. Fig. 11 shows that the degradation efficiency of the erythromycin photocatalytic process after 5 consecutive repetitions is 99.03%, 96%, 92%, 89.5%, and 87.25%. As can be seen, the reduction in efficiency after reuse is small and can be due to leaching of iron ions, loss of active sites during the degradation process or poisoning of the catalyst surface by adsorption of intermediates produced in the photocatalytic process. In the studies by Albornoz et al. [18] and Mugunthan et al. [52], they attributed the reduction in degradation efficiency to the poisoning of the catalyst surface with the by-products produced. Evidence suggests that doped and synthesized magnetic photocatalysts have reasonable catalytic stability and relatively small reductions in catalytic activity for antibiotic degradation. Therefore, the catalyst synthesized in the present study is proposed as a stable and efficient photocatalyst for real applications in the future.

3.5. Antibiotic decomposition products

The complex structure of erythromycin contains 14 loops of lactone, cladinose sugars, and desosamine deoxy sugar, and its molecular formula is $\text{C}_{32}\text{H}_{48}\text{O}_{16}\text{N}$ and its molecular weight is 733 g/mol. By removing the sugars cladinose and desosamine deoxy and separating the lactone ring, products with molecular weights of 176, 175, and 382 are produced, respectively. Another pathway for degradation involves the attack of a radical ion on the lactone ring and the production of a deprotonated product with a molecular weight of 690, which was further degraded to deprotonated intermediates of 587, 471, 439, 293, and protonated products of 491 m/z. The degradation products and their molecular weights were reported in Table 4 [53]. According to a study by Luiz et al. [54], the degradation of erythromycin by hydroxyl radical begins with the abstraction of hydrogen. Erythromycin is a saturated organic compound containing 13 oxygen atoms, which falls into the functional groups of 1 ester, 1 carbonyl (ketone class), 5 ether and 5 hydroxyl groups (alcohol class). As a result, the major degradation pathways due to hydrogen capture during the reaction of hydroxyl radical and saturated organic compounds in the presence of oxygen will be the shortening of the chains of ketones, aldehydes and carboxylic acids. In the treatment using hydroxyl radicals, fewer initial degradation products were observed compared to in ozone treatment, probably because the reaction of hydroxyl radicals is non-selective.

4. Conclusion

This study was performed to evaluate the photocatalytic oxidation efficiency of erythromycin from aqueous media by iron-doped titanium dioxide magnetic nanoparticles. In this study, the effect of various parameters such as pH, initial concentration of erythromycin, and dose of synthesized nanoparticles was investigated. Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles were synthesized by sol-gel method, and SEM, EDX, FTIR, XRD, VSM, BET and DRS analyses were used to determine the properties of the synthesized nanoparticles. Various analyses of the synthesized nanoparticles showed that the nanoparticles have good uniformity and dispersion. The surface morphology of the nanoparticles showed that these particles tended to accumulate. In XRD analysis, the formation of large and sharp peaks confirmed the good crystal structure of the synthesized nanoparticles. In FTIR analysis, the presence of more hydroxyl and water groups in the Fe-doped TiO$_2$@Fe$_3$O$_4$ sample leads to increase the activity of photocatalytic processes. Strong Ti and O signals in the EDX spectrum indicate that TiO$_2$ surrounds Fe$_3$O$_4$ with a core-shell structure. In doped and magnetized samples, the amount of specific surface area has decreased, which can be due to the increase in particle size and the resulting blockage of cavities. Data from VSM analysis showed that all samples have superparamagnetic properties. The photocatalytic degradation of antibiotic follows the first-order kinetic model well. Doped and synthesized magnetic photocatalysts have reasonable catalytic stability and relatively small reductions in catalytic activity for antibiotic degradation. The doping of iron in the structure of titanium dioxide caused the absorption wavelength to shift to higher wavelengths and get closer to the visible region. The maximum removal efficiencies of erythromycin were obtained using a 15-W UVC lamp under optimal conditions including pH of 5, initial concentration of 25 mg/L, and catalyst dosage of 600 mg/L at a reaction time of 60 min. Therefore, due to the high efficiency of the photocatalytic process, the use of this process is recommended in complementary water and wastewater treatment processes to remove erythromycin.

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Table 4
Determined photodegradation products of erythromycin in the study of Kamani et al. [46]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products</th>
<th>Molecular weight</th>
<th>Proposed structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Erythromycin</td>
<td>733</td>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Proposed structure" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product 1</td>
<td>176</td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="Proposed structure" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product 2</td>
<td>175</td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Proposed structure" /></td>
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<tr>
<td>Product 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Product 4</td>
<td>691</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product 5</td>
<td>588</td>
<td><img src="image6" alt="Proposed structure" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued)
Conflicts of interest/Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References


