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1	Photoelectrocatalysis of paracetamol on Pd-ZnO/ N- doped Carbon nanofibers electrode
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#### 22 Abstract

23 The presence of pharmaceuticals in water bodies has become a major concern in recent years. An 24 efficient and innovative way of eliminating these pollutants is through photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) 25 degradation owing to its environmental sustainability and its ability to remove recalcitrant pollutants. In this study, palladium loaded zinc oxide/carbon nanofibers (CZnO-Pd) were 26 27 employed as a novel photoanode for PEC degradation of paracetamol. The CZnO-Pd composite 28 was prepared through electrospinning and atomic layer deposition (ALD). The obtained materials 29 were characterized. Photoelectrochemical studies were carried out with linear sweep voltammetry 30 and chronoamperometry. The removal efficiency was recorded using high-performance liquid chromatography coupled to a mass spectrometer detector (HPLC-MS), while the mineralization 31 32 was assessed through total organic carbon (TOC) removal. The composite electrode of CZnO-Pd 33 nanofiber showed higher photoelectrochemical activity than ZnO carbon nanofiber, which was evident in the higher photocurrent response recorded. Upon application of the material in 34 photoelectrocatalysis, the total removal of paracetamol was achieved within 3 h with an applied 35 current density of 10 mAcm<sup>-2</sup>. The percentage of TOC removal was  $71.20 \pm 0.31\%$  after 4 h, which 36 indicated significant mineralization. The results obtained in the present work reveal that Pd-ZnO/C 37 38 has great potential for photoelectrocatalytic removal of organic micropollutants.

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Keywords: Photoelectrocatalysis; zinc oxide; carbon nanofibers; paracetamol; water treatment

# 42 **1.0 Introduction**

There is a growing need for clean and safe water for industrial and domestic use. The major threat 43 to the availability of clean water over the years is the prevalent of water pollution. Rapid 44 urbanization and industrialization contribute largely to the rise in water pollution [1–6]. Recently, 45 it has been identified that the complexity and the diversity of the nature of organic pollutants is a 46 major contributing factor to the effect of water pollution. The class of water pollutants refers to as 47 48 emerging contaminants that have been the focus of many research works in recent times due to the recalcitrant or persistent nature and adverse effect of these pollutants [7–10]. The most common 49 examples of these emerging contaminants are pharmaceuticals. The contamination of water bodies 50 51 by pharmaceuticals is majorly due to improper disposal of effluents from pharmaceutical industries and hospitals [11]. Additionally, effluents from households have been reported found to contain 52 pharmaceuticals due to the improper disposal of unused or expired drugs as well as human 53 excretion (urine) containing unmetabolized drugs [12,13]. Exposure to water contaminated with 54 pharmaceutical residues can result in several health problems in humans depending on the nature 55 56 of concentration and type of pharmaceutical as well as the duration of exposure [14]. Aquatic organisms are, however, more susceptible to hazards of pharmaceutical polluted water [15,16]. 57

58 Unfortunately, traditional/conventional water treatment methods such as filtration, coagulation 59 and adsorption have been inadequate for the complete removal of pharmaceutical pollutants from water [17,18]. This has led to the development of advanced oxidation processes (AOPs). In AOPs, 60 61 complete mineralization of organics to carbon dioxide and water is achieved by the actions of *in* 62 situ generated hydroxyl radicals (strong oxidants) [19]. Common examples of AOPs for water treatment are heterogenous photocatalysis, Fenton processes, ozonation and anodic oxidation 63 [18,20–22]. A recent form of AOP is photoelectrochemical oxidation (PEC). In PEC, the 64 synergistic effect of the combination of electrochemical oxidation and photocatalysis results in 65

66 enhanced mineralization efficiency of the AOP [23,24]. Similar to typical photocatalysis, a semiconducting metal oxide is often used in PEC and irradiation of the semiconductor with the 67 light of sufficient energy results to photogeneration electron-hole pairs. The holes then react with 68 water to produce hydroxyl radicals that oxidize organic molecules. However, unlike 69 photocatalysis, the problem of rapid recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs is 70 71 reduced by the application of bias potential, which helps in driving the photogenerated electrons away from the semiconducting anode [23,25–27]. Additionally, PEC offers better reusability of 72 material since the metal oxides semiconductors are used as compact and stable electrode [28]. 73 74 Examples of commonly used metal oxides include TiO<sub>2</sub> [29,30], BiVO<sub>4</sub> [31], MoS<sub>2</sub> [32], Cu<sub>2</sub>O [33], Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [34] and WO<sub>3</sub> [35]. 75

Zinc oxide has been widely studied for its application as photocatalyst for water treatment 76 77 applications [36]. The wide use of ZnO can be rightly attributed to its fascinating properties such as ease of synthesis, non-toxicity, abundance in nature, good photocatalytic properties, large 78 surface area, high electron mobility, remarkable thermal and chemical stability [37,38]. However, 79 due to the large band gap of ZnO (3.37 eV), it performs better with ultraviolet light irradiation. In 80 81 order to enhance its performance under visible light radiation, several strategies have been 82 employed, such as doping with metals, metal loading, morphological control and formation of heterojunction with visible light active semiconductors [36]. ZnO nanoparticles have been 83 employed to improve the electron-mobility in perovskite solar cells [39,40]. ZnO photoanodes 84 85 have also found extensive applications in PEC water splitting [41–43]. Several interesting reported works are also available on the use of ZnO as photoanode for PEC water treatment applications. 86 For instance, 53% removal of methylene blue dye has been recorded with the use of ZnO prepared 87 through chemical bath deposition on silicon substrates as photoanode [44]. In another study by 88

89 Hosseini *et al.*, enhanced PEC degradation efficiency of ZnO was achieved by doping with nickel [45]. The Ni-doped ZnO achieved total removal of ciprofloxacin within 90 min with using UV 90 light irradiation when 1.87 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> current density was applied. Similarly, Feng *et al.*, reported 91 92 87.5% PEC removal tetracycline after 3 h on Ni-doped ZnO anodes with an applied potential of 0.8 V [46]. The PEC performance of Ni-doped ZnO was found to be 17% higher than the undoped. 93 94 The increased performance of ZnO has also been reported in its heterostructures. For example, 100% removal of Acid Red 1 has been achieved with the use of ZnO/MoS<sub>2</sub> photoanode, which 95 was higher than 53% removal recorded on pristine ZnO anode [47]. ZnO/BiVO<sub>4</sub> photoanodes 96 97 have also been successfully applied for the removal of organics [48,49]. On the other hand, Carbon nanofibers (CNFs) incorporating with metal oxide nanoparticles (NPs) are interesting materials 98 99 for water treatment via photo-electrocatalysis technique because of their high dimensional 100 stability, large specific surface, good electrical conductivity, high electrocatalytic activity as well as the ability to minimize electrode surface fouling [50–52]. CNF-based electrodes are among the 101 102 most interesting electrode materials for water treatment [53], electrochemical water splitting [54,55] and fuel cells [56]. In addition, the CNF has many active sites, good electrical conductivity, 103 mechanical stability and electrolyte diffusion [57]. 104

In this present study, palladium loaded zinc oxide/carbon nanofibers are used as suitable photoanode for the removal of paracetamol as a model pollutant. The composite materials were prepared through the combination of atomic layer deposition and electrospinning. ZnO/CNFs materials were firstly prepared through electrospinning. This is because of the advantages of electrospinning, such as being a low-cost method and the ease of controlling the size, porosity and morphology of nanofibers [58–60]. Moreover, carbon nanofibers have proven to possess attractive attributes, including high electrical conductivity and excellent mechanical stability. ALD was subsequently used to deposit palladium on the ZnO/CNFs because, with ALD, the nanoscale dimensions of nanoparticle thin films can easily be controlled [61–63]. The extent of PEC removal and mineralization of paracetamol molecules using the fabricated electrode was studied in detail using chromatographic technique and total organic carbon evaluation. From the results obtained, the prepared anode has great potential for the removal of organics from wastewater through PEC applications.

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# 119 2. Experimental

# 120 **2.1 Materials and chemicals**

Polyacrylonitrile (PAN, Mwt ~150000, CAS 25014-41-9, Sigma-Aldrich), Zinc (II) acetate 121 dihydrate (Ni(OCOCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 99.9%, CAS No. 5970-45-6, Sigma-Aldrich), N,N-122 Dimethylformamide (DMF, 98%, CAS No. 68-12-2, Sigma-Aldrich) and ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, 99%, 123 CAS No. 64-17-5, Sigma-Aldrich) were used for electrospinning of CNFs decorated with ZnO 124 NPs. Palladium (II) hexafluoroacetylacetonate (Pd(C<sub>5</sub>HF<sub>6</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, CAS 64916-48-9, 99%, Sigma-125 Aldrich) was used as Pd precursor and formaldehyde (HCHO, CAS No. 50-00-0, 37%, Sigma-126 127 Aldrich) used as co-reactant for ALD deposition of Pd NPs. Milli-Q water was used without further purification. Paracetamol (CAS number: 103-90-2), sodium sulphate (anhydrous,  $\geq$ 99%; CAS 128 number: 7757-82-6), absolute acetone (99%; CAS number: 67-64-1), formic acid (CAS number: 129 130 64-18-6), acetonitrile (HPLC grade; CAS number: 75-05-8), isopropanol (≥99.5%; CAS number: 67-63-0), sodium ethylenediaminetetraacetate (≥98%; CAS number: 6381-92-6) and p-131 132 benzoquinone ( $\geq$ 98%; CAS number: 106-51-4) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Germany).

#### 134 2.2 Synthesis of ZnO-Carbon Nanofibers composites

135 Zn@CNF was prepared by electrospinning followed by thermal preoxidation and then thermal treatment (CZnO). First, 2 g PAN powder was dissolved in 20 mL DMF under vigorous 136 137 magnetic stirring until obtaining a uniform PAN precursor solution. Then, 1 g zinc acetate powder was added. The mixture solution was lifted under stirring overnight to the obtained Zn- PAN 138 139 precursor solution. The electrospinning process was performed at a distance of 15 cm (solution 140 syringe tip to collector), a voltage of 15 kV, a feeding rate of 0.5 ml/min, and a drum rotation speed 141 of 300 rpm. The as-prepared Zn-PAN nanofibers first underwent peroxidation step at 250 °C for 142 2 h in an air atmosphere and then a thermal carbonation step at 800 °C for 1 h in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. The heating and cooling rates were kept constant at 1 °C/min. For comparison CNFs were prepared 143 144 as the previse method without Zn precursor (CNF sample).

145

# 146 2.2 Deposition of Pd@ ZnO-Carbon Nanofibers composites

The ALD deposition of Pd was carried out in a low-pressure thermal (home-built) ALD reactor. A detailed description of this reactor can be found in a previous study [54]. The precursors, consisting of Pd(hfac)<sub>2</sub> and reducing agent formalin, were contained in stainless steel cylinders whose lines were heated at 70 °C and 100 °C, while the deposition chamber was pre-heated at 220 °C. The ALD cycle used for this study was consisted of 5 s pulse of Pd(hfac)<sub>2</sub>, 15 s exposure, and 10 s purge, while the formalin had 1 s pulse, 15 s exposure, and 60 s purge. The ALD cycles were repeated 100 and 200 times to get CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200, respectively.

#### 154 **2.3 Characterisation of materials**

155 The crystallinity of the prepared materials was analysed using X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a PANAlytical Xpert-PRO diffractometer equipped with an Xcelerator detector and using a Ni-156 filtered Cu-radiation (CuKal radiation wavelength 0.1540598 nm and CuKa2 radiation 157 wavelength 0.1544426 nm). Raman spectra were measured on a Senterra Bruker using a doubled 158 Nd:YAG laser ( $\lambda$ = 532 nm) at a power of 10 W and an objective microscope lens of 100x. The 159 160 elemental composition on the surface of the grown thin films was determined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) on an Escalab 250 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) using a 161 monochromatic Al K Alpha (1486.6 eV) at 2kV and 1 µA. The morphology of nanofibers was put 162 163 in evidence by using a Hitachi S4800 (Japan) scanning electron microscope (SEM). The fiber morphology was also examined using high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, 164 JEOL JEM 2100, Japan) working at 200kV equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) 165 spectroscopy. Diffuse reflectance was measured by using HR2000+ Ocean Optics spectrometer 166 (USA), integration sphere and Deuterium-Tungsten Halogen light source DH-2000. 167 Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of samples were measured in the range of 350-850 nm using 168 HR2000+ Ocean Optics spectrometer (USA). Excitation of photoluminescence was performed by 169 Nd:YAG laser (China) ( $\lambda$ =266 nm, output power 29 mW). 170

171

#### **172 2.4 PEC degradation experiments**

The prepared materials were deposited onto FTO glass with a coverage of approximately 1 cm<sup>2</sup> and were used as electrodes (photoanodes). The experiments were carried out in a 100 mL capacity undivided two-electrodes cell and a power source (CNB Electronique, EU) was used to control the applied current within the cell. Platinum mesh was used as the cathode and its distance from the anode was kept constant at 3 cm. A 150 W linear halogen lamp (in the range of 420-600 nm) was used as the light source and the photoanode was irradiated from the rear with a distance of 20 cm
from the lamp. The working solution consisted of 50 mL 0.1 mM paracetamol prepared in a
solution of 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (supporting electrolyte). All the experiments were performed at neutral
pH. Sample aliquots were taken at specified time intervals (20, 40, 60, 90, 120, 150, 180 min) for
paracetamol concentration and total organic carbon contents.

#### 183 **2.5 Analytical Procedures**

Decrease in the total organic carbon (TOC) was used to assess the extent of mineralization of the paracetamol molecules by measuring the TOC contents of the initial and aliquots solutions on a TOC-L CSH/CSN Shimadzu (Japan) analyzer. Calibration curves for total carbon (TC) and inorganic carbon (IC) analysis were built up by automatic dilution of standards solutions of TOC (potassium hydrogen phthalate) and IC (sodium hydrogen carbonate). The TOC data obtained were then used to estimate the mineralization current efficiency (MCE, %) of the solutions over a specified time t (h) using equation 1 [64].

191 
$$MCE(\%) = \frac{nFV_{s}\Delta(TOC)_{exp}}{4.32 \times 10^{7} \text{ mIt}}.100$$
 (1)

192

The number of electrons consumed in the mineralization of each paracetamol molecule is represented by n, F is the Faraday constant (96485 C mol<sup>-1</sup>), V<sub>s</sub> is the solution volume (L),  $\Delta(\text{TOC})_{\text{exp}}$  is the experimental TOC decay (mg L<sup>-1</sup>),  $4.32 \times 10^7$  is a conversion factor (3600 s h<sup>-1</sup>×12000 mg carbon mol<sup>-1</sup>), m is the number of carbon atoms in each paracetamol molecule (8 atoms), the current passing through the system in time t is denoted as I. The number of electrons (n) consumed for complete mineralization was 34 for the paracetamol molecule, according to the stoichiometry of the reaction in equation 2 [65]:  $C_8H_9NO_2 + 14H_2O \rightarrow 8CO_2 + NH_4^+ + 33H^+ + 34e^-$ 

(2)

201 The concentration decay of paracetamol molecules was estimated through high performance liquid 202 chromatography - mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS). HPLC-MS was carried out with a Waters 2695 pump, an auto sampler with 20 µL loop, a Waters 2695 separation module (HPLC), and a Waters 203 Micromass (Wythenshawe, Manchester, UK) Quattro Micro mass spectrometer equipped with ESI 204 205 (Electrospray Ionization). HPLC was performed on a Waters - Xselect HSS T3 column at a column temperature of 25 °C. The mobile phase was a Buffer A (HPLC grade water + 0.1% formic acid) 206 and Buffer B (HPLC grade acetonitrile + 0.05% formic acid). The flow-rate was constant at 0.25 207 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, with a split of 20% to the mass spectrometer. The triple quadrupole MS was operated 208 209 in selected-ion-recording (SIR) mode with compounds being ionized in the negative electrospray 210 ionization mode. To achieve the best sensitivity, the MS was adjusted to facilitate the ionization process. The detection conditions were: capillary potential 3.5 kV, cone potential 30 V, source 211 temperature 120 °C, desolvatation temperature 450 °C, cone gas flow 50 L h<sup>-1</sup>, and desolvatation 212 gas flow 450 L h<sup>-1</sup>. Nitrogen (99.5% purity) was the nebulizer gas. 213

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200

# 215 **Results and discussion**

# 216 **3.1 Characterisation results**

The CNF and CZnO were elaborated via electrospinning of polymeric solution containing PAN and zinc acetate as precursors, followed by pyrolysis under nitrogen at 800 °C for 1 h in N<sub>2</sub>. CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples were prepared on CZnO as a substrate by the deposition of metallic Pd by ALD using 100 and 200 cycles, respectively. As shown in Figure 1a, two broad reflections, which correspond to the (002) and (101) reflections of a turbostratic structure of carbon 222 [66], are observed in the XRD pattern of CNF sample. The crystallite size of the turbostratic carbon along the c-axis  $(L_c)$  in CNF is found to be 0.8 nm, as revealed by Rietveld refinement of XRD 223 data. Moreover, the average number of graphite stacking layers  $(N_c)$ , which is estimated from the 224 interlayer spacing  $d_{002}$  and crystallite size along the c-axis ( $L_c$ ) [67], is found to be 2.5. The 225 intensities of these XRD reflections in the XRD pattern of CZnO are varnished, indicating that the 226 227 structure of carbon becomes highly disordered by introducing ZnO to the surface of the nanofibers. Moreover, no XRD reflections corresponding to any of crystalline Zn or ZnO are observed in the 228 XRD pattern of CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples, which can be explained by the 229 230 amorphous structure or small weight fractions of ZnO in these samples in order to be detected by XRD measurements. However, XPS analysis (Table S1) shows that the CZnO sample contains a 231 high amount of elemental Zn (6.7 wt%, which corresponds to 8.3 wt% of ZnO) on the surface of 232 carbon nanofibers, suggesting the amorphous structure of ZnO in the sample. In contrast, Pd 233 crystallized in metallic form in CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples during ALD deposition. 234 All the peaks appearing on the XRD patterns can be indexed to the cubic structure of metallic Pd 235 (PDF No. #00-065-6174). A similar crystallite size of 3.7 nm is determined by Reitveld refinement 236 for metallic Pd in both samples, which suggests that the increase in the deposition time might 237 238 increase the number of deposited Pd particles on the surface of carbon nanofibers, but without altering their crystallinity. 239

The incorporation and structure of ZnO and Pd on the surface of carbon nanofibers were further investigated by Raman spectroscopy (Figure 1-b). All the prepared nanofibers displayed the fingerprint bands of carbon, such as the disorder peak (D-band) at 1354 cm<sup>-1</sup> and graphite peak (G-band) at 1591 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The presence of D band, which is characteristic of the disordered sp<sup>2</sup>hybridized modes in the rings, confirms the turbostatic structure of carbon in the samples as

245	revealed by XRD. In contrast, the G-band corresponds to the vibrational stretching mode of in-
246	plane sp2 -hybridized C atoms [68]. The relative intensities ( $R = I_D/I_G$ value) of D and G bands
247	could be used to evaluate the degree of structurally ordered graphite crystallites in carbon
248	materials.[53] The <i>R</i> value of CNF was 0.93, and it increased to 1.18, 1.14 and 1.15 for CZnO,
249	CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200, respectively, indicating the increase in the degree of disordered
250	carbon structures with introducing ZnO into the carbon nanofibers, which is in good agreement
251	with XRD results. Moreover, no Raman modes were observed for ZnO in the spectra of CZnO,
252	CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples, confirming the amorphous structure of ZnO as revealed
253	by XRD analysis. In addition, strong bands are detected at 633 and 629 cm <sup>-1</sup> in the Raman spectra
254	of CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200, respectively, which can be attributed to the active $B_{1g}$ vibration
255	modes of PdO [69]. The presence of PdO in the CZnO-Pd100 sample is also confirmed by XPS
256	characterization, as discussed below.

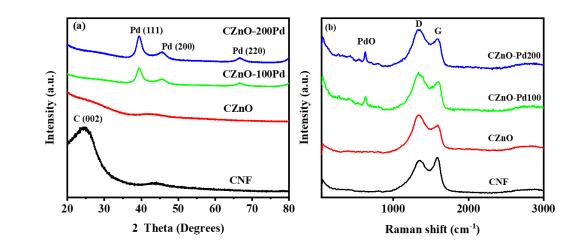


Figure 1: (a) XRD patterns of prepared CNF, CZnO, CZnO-Pd100, CZnO-Pd200 nanofibers. (b)
Raman spectra of prepared nanofibers.

261 The elemental compositions as well as the coordination and the oxidation states of different elements in the obtained samples were characterized by XPS measurements. As shown in Figure 262 S1 and Table S1, the survey XPS spectra confirm the successful incorporation of elemental Zn and 263 Pd at the surface of the carbon nanofibers. The mass fraction of elemental Zn on the surface of 264 CZnO sample is found to be 6.7 wt% and decreased to 4.1 wt% on the surface of CZnO-Pd100 265 due to the successful deposition of Pd (i.e., 33 wt% of the sample). Additionally, remarkable 266 amounts of nitrogen are detected in all the samples, suggesting the nitrogen doping of the carbon 267 nanofibers. The N-doping of carbon nanofibers can be explained by the high content of N in PAN 268 polymer and the pyrolysis of the polymeric precursors under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. As shown in Table 269 S1, the mass fraction of N in CZnO sample is four times higher than that in the CNF samples, 270 which indicates that zinc salt might stabilize the nitrile group in the polymer during the 271 electrospinning process, and thus, it enhanced the N-doping of carbon nanofibers. The high-272 resolution XPS spectra of C 1s, O 1s, N 1s, Zn 2p, and Pd 3d orbitals are shown in Figure 2 a-e. 273 The spectrum of C 1s (Figure 2-a) could be deconvoluted into four peaks located at about 284.6, 274 285.6, 287 and 289 eV, corresponding to sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized graphitic carbon C-C bond, C-N bond, C-275 O bond, and C=O bond, respectively [70]. As shown in Figure 2-b, O 1s spectrum of CNF sample 276 277 can be fitted with two peaks at 532.2 and 534 eV, which can be attributed to C=O and C-O bond, respectively. An additional peak is observed at about 530.5 eV in the O 1s spectra of CZnO and 278 CZnO-Pd100 samples, which can be assigned to the lattice oxygen of ZnO. As displayed in Figure 279 280 2c, the N 1s spectra can be fitted with three peaks a ~ 398, 399.4 and 400.9 eV, which can be assigned to pyridinic N, pyrrolic N and graphitic N, respectively. The pyridinic N and pyrrolic N 281 282 species become the dominant nitrogen species in CZnO and CZnO-Pd100 samples, suggesting the 283 improvement of the electrochemical performance of these samples [70]. The incorporation of ZnO

in CZnO and CZnO-Pd100 samples is further confirmed by detecting the peak at 1022 eV corresponding to Zn 2p3/2 in ZnO (Figure 2d) [71]. The Pd 3d spectrum of In CZnO-Pd100 nanofiber (Figure 2-e) can be deconvoluted into two peaks at ~ 335.6 and 337 eV, corresponding to Pd<sup>0</sup> and Pd<sup>+2</sup> species, respectively. The Pd<sup>+2</sup>/Pd<sup>0</sup> ratio is found to be 0.15, suggesting the small mass fraction of oxidized Pd<sup>+2</sup> species in the samples, which agrees with the results of Raman characterizations.

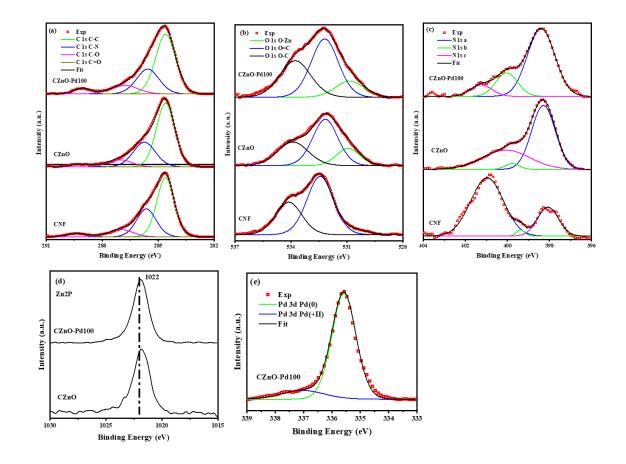




Figure 2: (a) High-resolution XPS spectra of C 1s (a), O 1s (b), N 1s (c), Zn 2p (d), and Pd 3d (e)
for CNF, CZnO and CZnO-Pd100.

294 The morphology of the elaborated nanofibers was investigated by SEM characterization, as illustrated in Fig. 2(a-h). The CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples consist of carbon 295 fibers with an average diameter of  $0.25 \pm 0.02 \,\mu\text{m}$ , which is smaller than that of CNF sample (0.45 296 297  $\pm 0.02 \ \mu$ m). This result suggests that the addition of zinc salt during the electrospinning process hinders the growth of the carbon nanofibers during the pyrolysis. As shown in Figure 3e-h, the 298 metallic Pd are uniformly deposited as spherical particles with an average diameter of 5.6±1nm on 299 the surface of the carbon nanofibers in the CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 samples. Although the 300 particle size of metallic Pd does not change with increasing the deposition time, the number of 301 302 metallic Pd increases, which agrees with XRD results. The homogeneous distribution of Zn on the entire surface of carbon nanofibers is confirmed by TEM, STEM, and EDX mapping, as presented 303 in Figure S2. In contrast, the metallic Pd nanoparticles are deposited on the edge/shell of the 304 nanofibers to form coaxial or core/shell structure, as revealed by HRTEM (Figure 3i-l) and EDX 305 mapping (Figure 3m-o). The fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of CZnO-Pd100 nanofibers for 306 a square box (inset Fig. 31) confirmed the cubic structure of metallic Pd nanoparticles by detecting 307 the d spacing 0.23 nm corresponding to the (111) planes of metallic Pd. 308

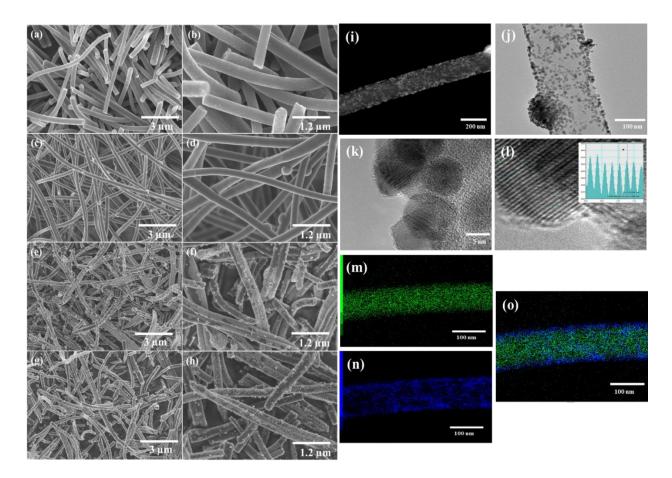


Figure 3: Field emission SEM images of the prepared nanofibers; CNF (a,b), CZnO (c,d), CZnOPd100 (e,f), and CZnO-Pd200 (g,h). High-resolution transition microscope of CZnO-Pd100 (i - l)
and the fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of the area marked by the blue square box of CZnOPd100 and the corresponding intensity profiles in inset (l), with EDX elemental mapping of CZnOPd100 the zinc (m), palladium (n) and Zn overlap Pd (o).

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In the next step, the optical properties influence of Pd on CZnO nanofibers were detected by the optical band gap by UV-vis. in addition, the generation and stability of  $e^{-}/h^{+}$  were detected by PL side by side of determine the optical band gap. The measured reflectance spectra were converted

into absorption spectra according to equation 1 [72].

321 
$$F = \frac{(I-R)^2}{2 \cdot R}$$
 (\*) equation 1

where the parameters F and R refer to the absorption coefficient and diffuse reflectance of the sample, respectively. The obtained spectra are shown in Figure 4a. All samples show low absorbance in the UV range and high absorbance in the visible range. Although no absorption edge is observed for ZnO-based samples, absorbance value is increased in the visible range by adding ZnO and Pd on the surface of carbon nanofibers. This finding will be explained further.

327 PL spectra of the samples are shown in Figure 4b. Weak characteristic PL peak is observed at 3.25 328 eV in the spectrum of CNF sample, which could be related to delocalized  $\pi$  electrons available at 329 the surface of carbon nanofibers [73]. The successful addition of ZnO on the surface of carbon 330 nanofibers is confirmed by the strong PL peak at 3.24 eV observed in the spectrum of CZnO 331 sample that corresponds to ZnO excitonic emission [72]. The deposition of metallic Pd on the 332 surface of ZnO/CNF had different effects on ZnO emission: enhancement of ZnO emission in ZnO-PD100 samples and quenching for ZnO-PD200 samples. According to the literature [74-78], 333 334 Pd nanostructures have at least 2 absorption bands: in UV and visible ranges, related to localized surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect [74–78]. The position and FWHM of the bands depend 335 on the size and shape of Pd nanostructures [79]. It was shown that due to differences between ZnO 336 337 and Pd work functions, Schottky barrier is expected at ZnO/Pd interface, inducing electron flow 338 from conduction band (CB) of ZnO to Pd [79,80]. It results in increase of absorption and decrease of ZnO emission. However, alternative mechanisms at ZnO/Pd interface are possible [69,71]. It 339 was reported that UV emission of ZnO can be increase due to passivation of surface states during 340 Pd deposition [79,81]. We suppose, that Pd morphology will define the ZnO/Pd optical properties. 341 342 Comparative analysis of absorption and photoluminescence spectra points to the fact, that the

absence of characteristic absorption edges of ZnO in ZnO/Pd nanostructures points to hot electron
effect (HEE) in Pd nanoparticles [82]. This is effect is based on transition of excited SPR electrons
from Pd to CB of ZnO [82]. The hot electron effect is assisted with increase of visible absorption
and fading of UV absorption bands [82]. The HEE depends on morphology of ZnO/Pd interface.
At lower Pd concentrations, Pd layer is cluster-like and increase of PL can be observed. The
increase of Pd thickness might promote light scattering (no excitation light in absorbed by ZnO)
and, thus, diminishing ZnO emission.

350 Moreover, the increase in the absorbance of carbon-based samples (Figure 4a) points to a wide 351 absorbance band of Pd nanostructures in the range of 1.5-3 eV. The absorption values increase with increasing the amount of Pd on the surface of carbon nanofibers. Forming of carbon-ZnO and 352 Pd/ZnO interfaces makes impact on photoluminescence properties of the composite nanomaterial 353 [81,83-85]. The presence of carbon nanofibers with ZnO results in quenching of 354 photoluminescence due to charge transfer [83]. Deposition of Pd layer over ZnO could result in 355 quenching of visible PL [81,84] and/or quenching of PL in all measured spectra due to the 356 passivation of ZnO photoluminescence centers [85]. The common effect in Pd/ZnO nanostructures 357 was observed in blue shift of UV PL peak [81,84,85]. In the present work, no shift of PL was 358 359 observed for ZnO/Pd100 samples. The increase of Pd concentration resulted in almost complete quenching of the PL. However, the UV peak in CZnO/Pd sample was similar to the PL peak in 360 untreated CNF. 361

It was shown that UV emission in carbon nanomaterials corresponds to  $\pi$ -  $\pi$  transition in C=O bonds [86,87]. The observed emission could be explained from oxidized surface of CNF in case of full passivation of ZnO emission centers. 365 In addition, the valence band (VB) XPS was studied for the extra analysis of electronic states induced by defects above the valence band as presented in Figure 4c-d. It is clearly seen few XPS 366 features at 2.5 eV, 5 eV and 10 eV attributed to Pd 4d, O 2p and Zn 3p peaks, respectively. 367 Typically, the density of states of ZnO below Fermi level is consisted from two bands: the upper 368 peak at  $\sim 10$  eV mainly derived from Zn 3d orbitals, and the lower band at  $\sim 5$  eV arises from 369 370 almost O 2p hybridized with the Zn 4s and Zn 4p states [88]. We estimated the VB maximum (VBM) using standard method as described elsewhere [89]. The VB spectrum for the CNF is in a 371 good agreement with those reported for carbon [90]. The VBM of Pd (estimated from the 372 373 extrapolation) was observed at around 2 eV above the Fermi level (EF) indicating the metallic 374 behavior, while the VBM for CZnO had a value around 1.9 eV below the EF. Typically, the values of VBM for undoped crystalline ZnO are in the range of 2.54 eV to 2.11 eV. This shift of the VBM 375 might be associated with an increase in the concentration of defects and/or doping (carbon, 376 nitrogen etc.) of ZnO. Besides, we may observe the shift of Zn 3p maxima from 10.19 eV to 10.42 377 378 eV after the Pd deposition. This can be explained by the redistribution of electron density in the dorbitals of the  $Zn^{2+}$  and the  $Pd^{2+}$  which is believed to have produced additional energy levels near 379 380 the VB of the ZnO narrowing its band gap, what as a consequence may change photocatalytic 381 properties of produced nanocomposites [89].

Hydrogen Evolution Reaction (HER) of the prepared nanofibers has been studied to manifest the role of palladium. The HER linear sweep voltammetry curves (LSV) of the prepared nanofibers were presented in Figure 4e. From the data, the CZnO-Pd100 has better electrochemical activity than other prepared nanofibers. It was shown lower overpotential than other nanofibers (250 mV) at 10 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> of the current density. In contrast, the overpotential of CNF, CZnO and CZnO-Pd200 are 695, 620 and 441 mV at 10 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> of the current density, respectively. CZnO-Pd100 recorded the best activity of HER due to the good distribution of Pd NPs on the nanofibers. We note here that the CZnO-Pd200 has less activity than CZnO-Pd100 because of the Pd NPs aggregation on the surface of the nanofibers as reported elsewhere [52,54,91]. Furthermore, the electrochemical impedance has been measured as illustrated in Figure 4f. The charge transfers resistance (Rct) was calculated from the Nyquist plots in Figure 4f. The CZnO-Pd100 recorded lower resistance (80  $\Omega$ ) than the other nanofibers CNF (275  $\Omega$ ), CZnO (240  $\Omega$ ) and CZnO-Pd200 (120  $\Omega$ ), in agreement with its HER activity results and lower overpotential.

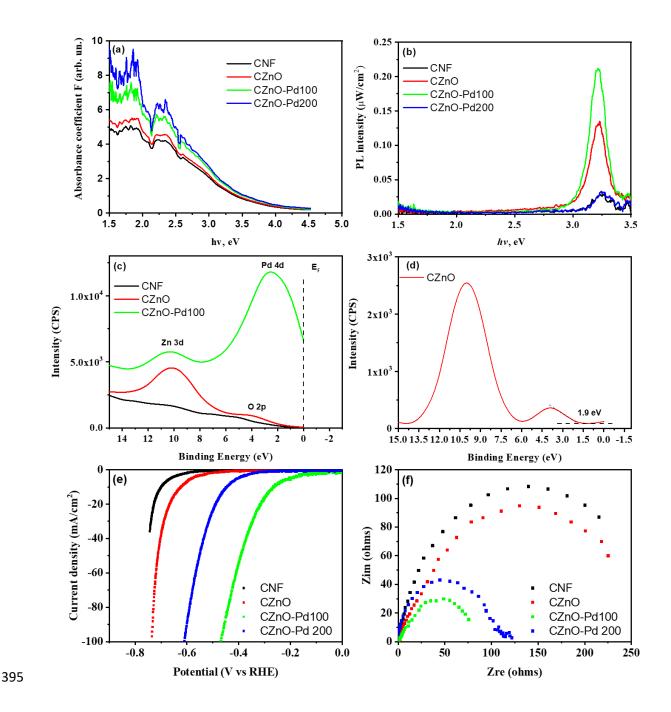


Figure 4: Absorbance spectra of CNF, CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 nanofibers (a); PL
of CNF, CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 nanofibers (b); VB-XPS of CNF, CZnO, CZnOPd100 (c); Zooming of VB-XPS of CZnO (d); HER of CNF, CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnOPd200 nanofibers (e); and EIS of CNF, CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200 nanofibers (f).

# 401 **3.2 PEC degradation of paracetamol**

The results for the PEC degradation of paracetamol using the prepared photoanode are presented 402 in Figures 5a-d. After 150 min, total removal (100%) of paracetamol was achieved using CZnO-403 Pd100 anode (Fig 5a) with an applied current of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (corresponding to 4.2 V). The 404 incorporation of Pd on the surface of ZnO/CNFs led to this impressive result because the CZnO 405 anode achieved just  $56.40 \pm 2.10\%$  PEC removal of paracetamol after 150 min. This could be due 406 407 to the fact that transition metals improve the photocatalytic efficiencies of semiconductors by increasing their light absorptivity and limiting spontaneous recombination. This is in line with 408 previous studies where doping ZnO with Pd has also been reported to increase the photocatalytic 409 410 efficiency of ZnO [92,93]. However, with CZnO-Pd200 photoanode, the percentage removal was about  $80.00 \pm 0.20\%$  after 150 min, and this revealed that the excessive amount of Pd in the 411 composite material could diminish its efficiency. The CZnO-Pd100 photoanode was subsequently 412 used to access the degradation of paracetamol through an electrochemical oxidation and 413 photocatalytic process in order to establish the superiority of PEC process. As shown in Figure 5b, 414 in the absence of light, the percentage removal of paracetamol decreased to about  $82.20 \pm 0.14$  % 415 416 after 3 h, and this revealed that irradiation greatly enhanced the efficiency of the electrode. On the other hand, when the degradation experiment was performed without applying an external current 417 418 (photocatalysis), the percentage removal reduced drastically to  $14.30 \pm 0.12\%$ . The lower efficiency of the electrode in photocatalysis further showed that the applied current in the PEC 419 process remarkably improve the performance of the electrode by promoting efficient charge 420 421 separation since it provides a driving force for the photogenerated electron to move away from the

anode surface. Additionally, anodic oxidation of the paracetamol was also possible with theapplication of external current.

424 In order to confirm the dependence of the PEC degradation process on the applied current, the experiments were also performed with the application of 5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (3.3 V) and compared with 425 the results obtained with 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. As presented in Figure 5c, at lower applied current (5 mA 426 cm<sup>-2</sup>), the percentage of paracetamol degradation was reduced to 78.11  $\pm$  0.20% after 150 min. 427 428 This clearly showed that the magnitude of applied current also has an effect on the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs within ZnO. The space charge region and Helmholtz layer on 429 430 the surface of the photoanode largely determine the mobility of photogenerated charge carriers. Applied current increases the width of the charge region, and when this happens, the spontaneous 431 recombination of photogenerated carriers is reduced [45]. An increase in the magnitude of applied 432 current could increase the width of the space charge region, and this evidently led to an increase 433 in percentage removal of paracetamol when the current was increased from 5 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> to 10 mA 434 cm<sup>-2</sup>. However, too high applied current promotes oxygen generation, which decreases PEC 435 degradation performance and could also affect the integrity of the electrode. 436

Kinetics study was also performed by fitting the experimental data into the pseudo second order 437 438 reaction kinetics model. The apparent rate constants were obtained from the slope of the plots of  $\ln C_0/C_t$  versus time (Figure 5d). In the PEC degradation processes using different photoanodes, 439 the apparent rate constants were  $7.88 \times 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $6.94 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $9.10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for CZnO, 440 CZnO-Pd200 and CZnO-Pd100 respectively. The highest rate constant obtained using CZnO-441 Pd100 revealed that the PEC degradation is fastest using this electrode in addition to the highest 442 443 percentage removal obtained. Furthermore, the kinetics of photocatalytic, electrochemical (EC) and PEC degradation were also studied using the CZnO-Pd100 electrode. It was found that the 444

order of increasing apparent rate constant was photocatalytic < electrochemical < PEC degradation</li>
and this also showed that a combination of photocatalysis and electrochemical degradation in the
PEC process facilitated the fast rate at which paracetamol molecules were degraded. To further
justify the improved performance obtained through the incorporation of visible light irradiation
(photocatalysis) with applied external electric current, the degree of electrochemical enhancement
(E) and the degree of process synergy (S) were obtained using equations 3 and 4 respectively [94].

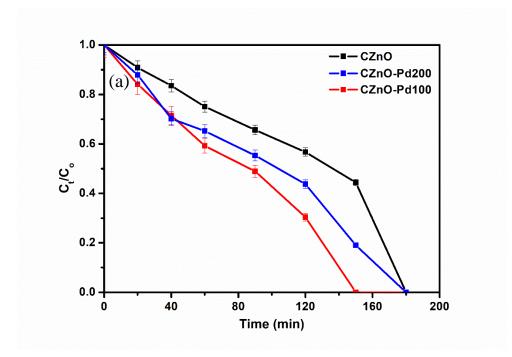
451 
$$E = (K_{PEC} - K_{PC})/K_{PEC}$$
 (3)

452 
$$S = (K_{PEC} - (K_{PC} + K_{EC}))/K_{PEC}$$
(4)

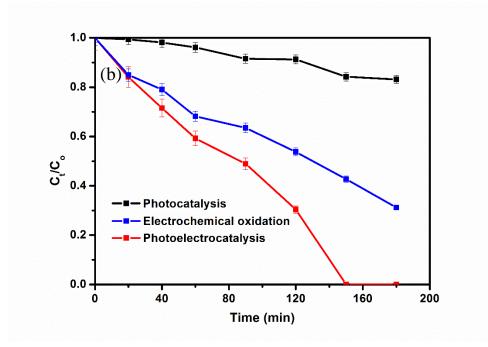
Where  $K_{PC}$ ,  $K_{EC}$ , and  $K_{PEC}$  are apparent rate constants for photocatalytic (7.883 x 10<sup>-4</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>), 453 electrochemical (5.37 x 10<sup>-3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) and PEC degradation (9.710 x 10<sup>-3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) of paracetamol, 454 respectively. The degree of electrochemical enhancement was calculated to be 0.91 (91%), which 455 456 established that the application of electric current has a tremendous impact on the PEC process, and the percentage removal obtained with electrochemical degradation likewise justify this. In line 457 458 with this, the degree of process synergy calculated (0.323) was obviously greater than zero, which 459 confirmed that the improved performance obtained with PEC degradation is more than the summation of the individual electrochemical and photocatalytic degradation process, revealing 460 461 that the introduction of applied electric current with photocatalysis result in a synergistic effect 462 and not cumulative/summation effect [94,95].

The catalytic performance of ZnO/Pd depends on ratio between Pd thickness and concentration of active sites at ZnO/Pd interface [82]. It was shown that catalytic performance as a function of Pd concentration had maximum between 0% Pd and 18% Pd loading. Higher concentration of Pd restricts the role of metal oxide component in photocatalysis and therefore reduces total photocatalytic effectiveness. This was in agreement with the results obtained from the PL spectra
discussed earlier where increase in Pd loading resulted in light scattering effect on the surface of
the catalyst, thereby diminishing its photocatalytic activity.

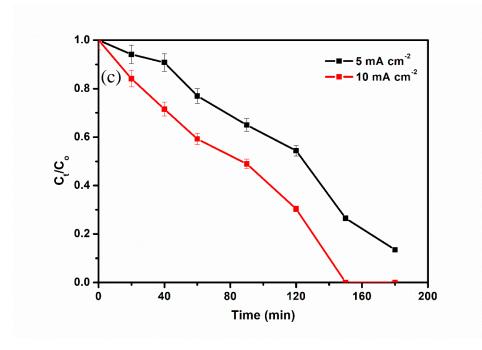
In the present work, ZnO-Pd100 samples showed higher performance compared to ZnO-Pd200
due to higher concentration of active sites. This was confirmed by optical characterizations
(photoluminescence) where, we can get highly efficiency at the certain amount of Pd active sites
(CZnO-Pd100).











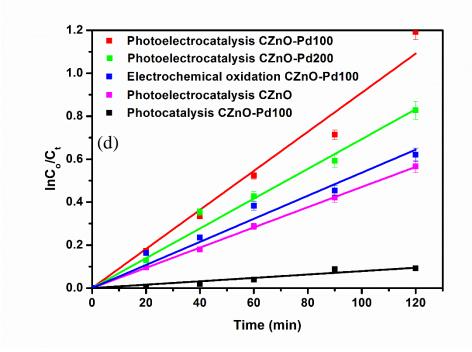




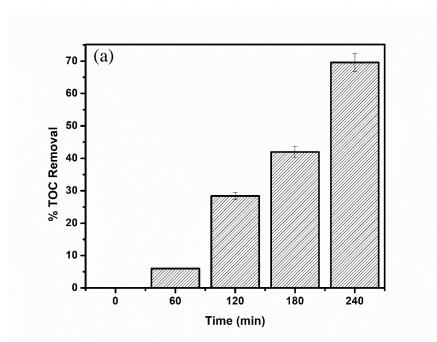
Figure 5: Normalized concentration decay versus time plot for PEC degradation of paracetamol
using (a) CZnO, CZnO-Pd100 and CZnO-Pd200; (b) Photocatalysis, electrochemical oxidation
and photoelectrocatalysis using CZnO-Pd100; (c) Photoelectrocatalysis at different current
densities using CZnO-Pd100; (d) Corresponding kinetics plot for the processes at 10 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> (0.1
mM paracetamol; pH 7; 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>)

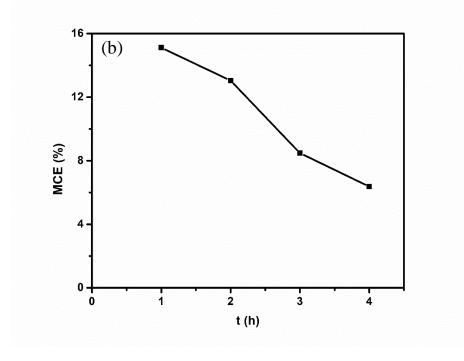
# 487 3.2.1 TOC removal and reusability of the electrode

In PEC degradation of organics, similar to other advanced oxidation processes, it is envisaged that the total mineralization of organics to water and carbon dioxide would occur after some period of reaction. In order to quantify the extent of mineralization of paracetamol using the composite electrode of CZnO-Pd100, the total organic carbon (TOC) content was measured as the PEC process progressed. As shown in Figure 6a, the percentage of TOC removal was approximately 493  $71.20 \pm 0.31\%$  after 4 h. This clearly revealed that significant mineralization of paracetamol molecules occurred in the PEC degradation. From the TOC results obtained, it became obvious 494 that the paracetamol was broken down totally to other smaller organics first, and this accounted 495 for the total removal of paracetamol achieved within 150 min. Since complete removal of TOC 496 was not recorded, smaller chain aliphatic organic acids such as fumaric, oxalic, acetic and maleic 497 498 acids, which are by products of paracetamol degradation, were still present in the solution [96,97]. Additionally, the corresponding calculated mineralization current efficiency (MCE%) was found 499 to decrease progressively with time from 15.10  $\pm$  0.23% at 1 h to about 6.34  $\pm$  0.03% after 4 h 500 501 (Figure 6b). This suggests a gradual reduction in the oxidation ability of the process, which could be due to the generation of highly resistant short-chain hydrocarbon as by-products [98]. The 502 503 reduction in the organic content over a prolonged period could also limit the mass transport as well as facilitating counterproductive reactions such as dimerization of hydroxyl radicals [99]. 504

505 A desirable attribute of a potential photoanode for industrial water treatment applications is ease of reusability. The reusability and stability of the CZnO-Pd100 anode were accessed by using the 506 electrode consecutively for eight times (8 runs or cycles) and recording the percentage removal 507 508 after 2 h (Figure 6c). After each run, the electrode was simply rinsed with deionized water and air-509 dried overnight, unlike in some water treatment techniques where the recovery of the material is 510 often tedious and involves the use of strong chemicals [82,83]. After the eighth run, the difference in the percentage removal was less than 4%, which confirmed the reusability of the anode. In 511 512 addition, we can note also that the crystallinity and the electronic state of CZnO-Pd100 nanofibers 513 (Figure S3) did not change after photoelectrocatalytic reaction as confirmed by XRD and XPS.

514





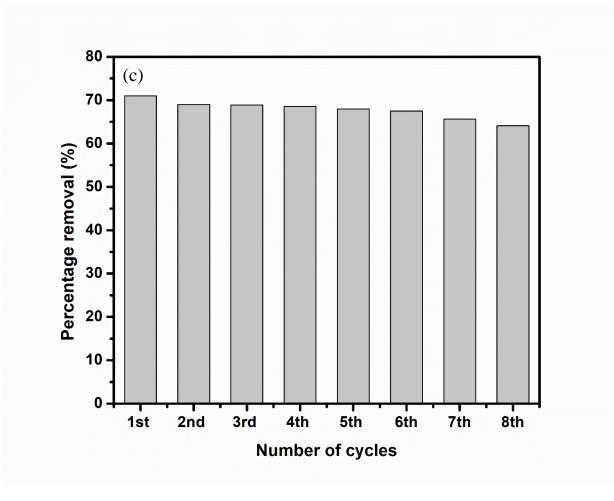


Figure 6: (a) Percentage total organic carbon removal in the PEC degradation of paracetamol; (b)
Corresponding percentage mineralization current efficiency with time; (c) Reusability tests (0.1
mM paracetamol; pH 7; CZnO-Pd100; 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>)

# *3.2.2 Scavenger studies and proposed degradation mechanism*

In a typical PEC degradation process, in addition to hydroxyl radicals, other reactive species such
as photogenerated holes and superoxide radicals also contribute at different degrees to the

527	mineralization of organic molecules [98]. The stepwise formations of these reactive species and				
528	their reaction with paracetamol molecules are presented in equations $5 - 10$ :				
529	$hv + CZnO/Pd \rightarrow CZnO/Pd (h^+ + e^-)$	(5)			
530	$e^- + 0_2 \rightarrow {}^{\bullet} 0_2^-$	(6)			
531	$h^+ + H_2 O \rightarrow {}^{\bullet}OH + H^+$	(7)			
532	$^{\bullet}OH + paracetamol \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O + intermediate products$	(8)			
533	$^{\bullet}O_{2}^{-}$ + paracetamol $\rightarrow CO_{2}$ + H <sub>2</sub> O + <i>intermediate products</i>	(9)			
534	$h^+$ + paracetamol $\rightarrow CO_2$ + $H_2O$ + <i>intermediate products</i>	(10)			
535					

[00] **[**]

C .1

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536 Trapping experiments were therefore conducted to understand the specific roles of hydroxyl radicals, photogenerated holes and superoxide radicals in the PEC degradation of paracetamol by 537 the addition of 0.001 M Isopropanol (IPA), 0.02 M p-benzoquinone (p-BQ) and 0.01 M 538 ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA) to the electrolytic solution to suppress the effect of hydroxyl 539 radicals, superoxide radicals and holes respectively [98,99]. As presented in Figure 7, upon the 540 541 addition of EDTA, the percentage removal of paracetamol dropped significantly to  $18.70 \pm 0.20\%$ after 2 h. This revealed that separated photogenerated holes played a major role in the 542 mineralization of paracetamol. This is in agreement with literatures that photogenerated holes can 543 544 directly oxidize organics in solution rather than generating hydroxyl radicals first in PEC systems [23]. Additionally, hydroxyl radicals also contributed to the total percentage removal obtained 545 because when the reaction was done in the presence of isopropanol, the percentage removal was 546  $35.10 \pm 1.40\%$ . On the other hand, in the presence of p-BQ, substantial degradation percentage 547 was still recorded which clearly revealed that superoxide radicals played a far less role in the 548 549 degradation process. With these findings, it can be established that the degradation of paracetamol

550 molecules using the CZnO-Pd photoanode depends largely on the photogenerated holes. Generally, when a semiconductor is irradiated with light of appropriate energy, the photo excited 551 electrons transfer from the valence band to the conduction band while holes occupy the valence 552 band. However, the photogenerated electrons fall back within a short time to recombine with the 553 photogenerated holes and this prevents the photogenerated holes from reacting with water 554 555 molecules to produce hydroxyl radicals or directly oxidizing organic molecules present in the solution. In the case of CZnO-Pd photoanode, the efficiency of ZnO is greatly enhanced through 556 improve charge carrier separation due to the presence of Pd. This is because when Pd is in contact 557 558 with ZnO, a Schottky barrier is created which facilitated the migration of photogenerated holes from the conduction band of ZnO to Pd metal. Consequently, more photogenerated holes are 559 560 readily available in the valence band of ZnO which either react directly with the paracetamol molecules or with water molecules to produce hydroxyl radicals which then oxidize the 561 paracetamol to water and carbon dioxide. It is also important to note that electrons migrate from 562 563 the photoanode to the cathode. These electrons could also produce superoxide radicals which can contribute to the degradation of the paracetamol molecules, however, the trapping experiments 564 revealed that the contribution of superoxide radicals is negligible. There is also a possibility of the 565 566 generation of hydrogen molecules on the cathode by the reactions of electrons with water molecules [100]. The proposed mechanism for the production of oxidants and degradation of 567 paracetamol molecules is illustrated in the schematic diagram presented in Figure 7b (Mechanism 568 569 PEC degradation process using CZnO-Pd100 photoanode).

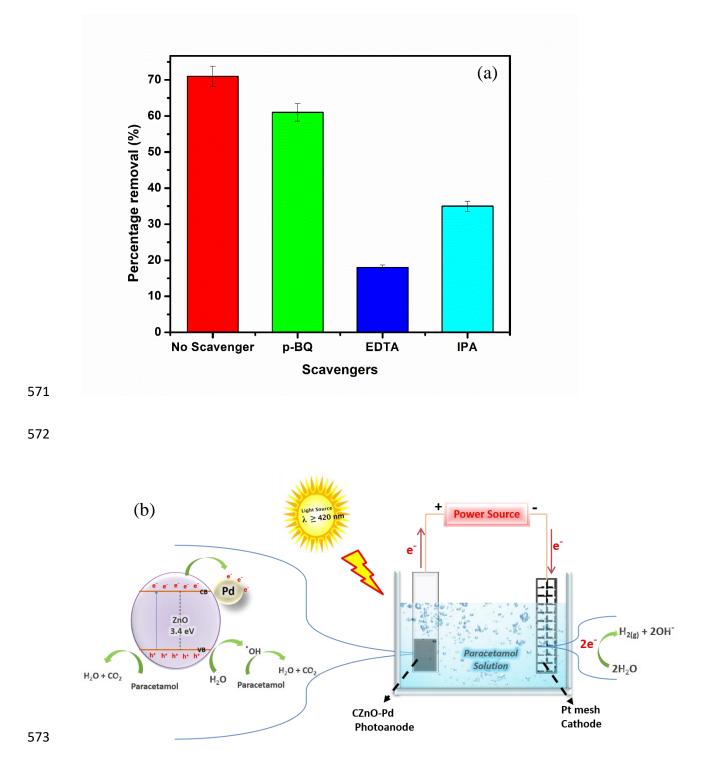


Figure 7: (a) PEC degradation of paracetamol in the presence on scavengers; (b) Mechanism PEC
degradation process using CZnO-Pd100 photoanode (2 h; 0.1 mM paracetamol; 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>;
CZnO-Pd100)

#### 577 **3.2.3** Comparison with previous studies

578 Several kinds of semiconductor photoanodes have been explored for the PEC degradation of 579 pharmaceuticals. To clearly justify the performance of the CZnO-Pd photoanode, the results 580 obtained were compared with earlier literatures on PEC degradation of paracetamol. As presented 581 in Table 1, the percentage removal as well as TOC removal obtained with the present electrode 582 compares well with the previous studies and in fact, in some cases the electrode performed better 583 than other earlier reported electrodes. Therefore, CZnO-Pd can be a suitable photoanode for the 584 PEC removal of paracetamol molecules in wastewater.

**Table 1:** Comparison of electrode performance with previous studies

Photoanode	Paracetamol concentration (mgL <sup>-1</sup> )	Percentage Removal	%TOC removal	References
Au-TiO <sub>2</sub>	78.5	66% after 3 h	20% after 3 h	[101]
TiO <sub>2</sub>	60	100% after 70 min	-	[102]
BiVO <sub>4</sub> /BiOI	10	68% after 2 h	59% after 2 h	[103]
TiO <sub>2</sub>	40	45% after 4 h	21% after 4 h	[104]
CZnO-Pd	151	100% after 150 min	71% after 4 h	Present study

586

# 587 Conclusion

In this work, successful preparation of Pd loaded zinc oxide carbon nanofibers (CZnO-Pd) was achieved through electrospinning and atomic layer deposition. Results from the structural and morphological characterization revealed that amorphous ZnO nanoparticles were homogenously deposited on the surface of the carbon nanofibers while spherical metallic Pd nanoparticles were

592 deposited on the edge/shell of the nanofibers to form a coaxial or core/shell structure. The prepared material (CZnO-Pd100) displayed good absorbance of photons in the visible light region due to 593 the presence of metallic Pd. However, the visible light absorption of the material decreased with 594 high content of Pd nanoparticles (ZCnO-Pd200). Similar trend was observed when the prepared 595 materials were applied for the photoelectrocatalytic removal of paracetamol. Total removal was 596 achieved in less than 3 h with  $71.20 \pm 0.31\%$  TOC removal after 4 h with the use of CZnO-Pd100 597 while the percentage removal obtained with CZnO-Pd200 was lower due higher content of Pd 598 particles which decreased the photocatalytic active of the semiconductor. Additionally, the rate of 599 600 the PEC degradation process of paracetamol using the CZnO-Pd100 photoanode was fast and the mechanism of the reaction suggests that both photogenerated holes and hydroxyl radicals played 601 602 substantial role in the degradation of the paracetamol molecules. Overall, the CZnO-Pd material has a great potential as photoanode for the mineralization of organic pollutants in wastewater. 603

604

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