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Highlights

- A novel dye-sensitized oxidation system was developed by utilizing RM and PMS
- Amorphous FeO(OH)/α-Fe₂O₃ in RM played a crucial role in the enhanced PMS activation
- Photo-sensitized AO7* enhanced the electron transfer in the Fe^{III}/Fe^{II} cycle
- Oxidized dye and ¹O₂ played an additional role in the enhanced PMS activation
- AO7/RM/PMS/vis system exhibits notable reusability and applicability in water samples

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Unveiling the oxidation mechanism of persistent organic contaminants via visible light-induced dye-sensitized reaction by red mud suspension with peroxymonosulfate

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Abstract

A dye-sensitized photocatalysis system was developed for degrading persistent organic contaminants using solid waste (i.e., red mud, RM) and peroxymonosulfate (PMS) under visible light. Complete degradation of acid orange 7 (AO7) was achieved in RM suspension with PMS, where the co-existence of amorphous $FeO(OH)/\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃ was the key factor for PMS activation. The experimental results obtained from photochemical and electrochemical observations confirmed the enhanced PMS activation due to the Fe-OH phase in RM. DFT calculations verified the acceleration of PMS activation due to the high adsorption energy of PMS on FeO(OH) and low energy barrier for generating reactive radicals. Compared to the control experiment without AO7 showing almost no degradation of other organic contaminants (phenol, bisphenol A, 4-chlorophenol, 4-nitrophenol, and benzoic acid), photo-sensitized AO7* enhanced electron transfer in the Fe^{III}/Fe^{II} cycle, dramatically enhancing the degradation of organic contaminants via radical (OH, SO4⁻, and O2⁻) and non-radical ((dye*) and ¹O2) pathways. Therefore, the novel finding of this study can provide new insights for unique PMS activation by heterogeneous Fe(III) containing solid wastes and highlight the importance of sensitized dye on the interaction of PMS with Fe charge carrier for the photo-oxidation of organic contaminants under visible light.

Keywords: Red mud; Acid orange 7; Peroxymonosulfate; organic contaminants; Photooxidation

1. Introduction

Recently, various advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have been extensively studied for the effective decomposition and mineralization of persistent pollutants in municipal and industrial wastewater [1–3]. Most conventional AOPs rely on the formation of the hydroxyl radical ('OH), which is highly reactive and nonselective in the oxidization of various organic contaminants. Recently, sulfate radical (SO₄⁻⁻)-based AOPs have attracted attention as effective processes for wastewater treatment owing to the comparatively high redox potential of SO₄⁻⁻ (2.5–3.1 V vs. NHE) and selectivity over a wide pH range compared to 'OH (1.8–2.7 V vs NHE) [4]. In numerous previous studies, peroxymonosulfate (PMS) has been used to produce SO₄⁺⁻ for the oxidation of organic contaminants [5–9]. PMS can be activated by direct photolysis, electrolysis, or by metals in the reduced state (e.g., Fe(0), Co²⁺, Cu⁺, and Fe²⁺) because PMS undergoes heterolytic peroxide bond dissociation to yield SO₄⁺⁻ via radical pathways [7,10]. Various Fe-containing minerals such as hematite (α -Fe₂O₃), goethite (α -FeOOH), and pyrite (FeS₂) also show good efficiency for PMS activation [11,12]. Furthermore, singlet oxygen (¹O₂), which is a highly selective oxidant, can be produced by the uncatalyzed self-decay of PMS under alkaline conditions (one of the known nonradical pathways) [7].

Red mud (RM) is a solid waste generated in the Bayer process for alumina production by the alkaline extraction of bauxite ore. Because of the large quantity, high alkalinity, and corrosivity of RM, the management of RM is considered a major environmental issue worldwide [13,14]. Over the past decades, most of the generated RM has been disposed in landfill sites, resulting in potential soil contamination and groundwater pollution [15,16]. Therefore, many researchers have developed sustainable techniques of utilizing RM. The utilization of RM as a construction and building material is the most common and efficient method of recycling RM on a large scale [17–19]. Various applications of RM have been

investigated including the recovery of valuable elements, as an adsorbent for heavy metal removal, and as a catalyst or support material for environmental remediation [20–24]. Because RM comprises nanosized particles composed mostly of Fe species (e.g., α -Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH)), it has a potential application in heterogeneous AOPs for the degradation of persistent pollutants. Li et al. achieved enhanced degradation of sulfamethoxazole using the Fe₃O₄/FeO(OH)/PMS system owing to the electron transfer from Fe₃O₄ to FeO(OH) and surface oxygen vacancies of FeO(OH), resulting in efficient PMS activation [25]. However, α -Fe₂O₃ (i.e., Fe(III) mineral) in RM could not transfer an electron to vicinal FeO(OH), which limits the utility of RM in PMS activation for the effective removal of various organic contaminants.

Utilization of reducing agents and photochemical grafting are promising solutions for improving the efficiency of the Fe(III)-containing catalyzed systems for PMS activation. Many studies have reported that the addition of Fe-reductants (e.g., ascorbic acid, protocatechuic acid and hydroxylamine) can accelerate the Fe(III)/Fe(II) redox cycle, resulting in greatly enhanced PMS activation [26–29]. However, residual amounts of reducing agents or their by-products may remain in treated water and pose a risk to aquatic ecosystems. By contrast, photocatalysis is a sustainable and eco-friendly approach for utilizing energy, especially visible light. Much attention has been paid to visible light-induced PMS activation by nonmetal and metal doping, as well as dye-sensitization in Fe₂O₃-catalyzed systems [30–35]. Among these strategies, dye-sensitized system refers to the process of electron transfer from a photoexcited dye to an electron acceptor, which is a promising solution for overcoming the limitations of Fecontaining catalyzed PMS activation. However, previous studies reporting on the dye-sensitized PMS activation employing Fe containing solid wastes have focused only on the utilization of reduced Fe species (i.e., Fe⁰ and Fe₃O₄) [36,37], and have encountered the

limitations in the utilization of Fe(III) materials, which constitutes a significant portion in Fe containing solid wastes and natural minerals [13,38,39]. In addition, simultaneous degradation of persistent contaminants by dye-sensitized PMS activation systems has been rarely discussed; with focusing solely on the decolorization of the dye itself.

This study investigates a visible light-induced photocatalytic system for PMS activation using RM (RM/PMS/vis) in the presence of acid orange 7 (AO7, photosensitizer) for enhanced oxidation of AO7 and other organic pollutants (e.g., phenol, bisphenol A (BPA), 4-chlorophenol (4-CP), 4-nitrophenol (4-NP), furfuryl alcohol (FFA) and benzoic acid (BA)). The objectives of this study were i) to characterize the raw RM, other RM-minicking materials and neutralized RM (NRM), ii) to investigate the removal kinetics of AO7 by RM/PMS/vis system , iii) to elucidate the enhanced oxidation and sensitization mechanism of AO7 by RM/PMS/vis system via experimental and theoretical investigations including density functional theory (DFT) calculations, iv) to find out the most crucial mineral phase and reactive site in RM, and v) to investigate the AO7-sensitized oxidation of various persistent organic contaminants and governing degradation mechanism.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals

All chemicals were of reagent grade and used without further purification. AO7, PMS $(Oxone^{\text{(B)}})$, *tert*-butanol (*t*-BuOH), 2-propanol (2-PrOH), superoxide dismutase from bovine erythrocytes (SOD), 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline *N*-oxide (DMPO), iron(III) oxide (Fe₂O₃), sodium oxide (80%, Na₂O), calcium oxide (CaO), titanium(IV) oxide (anatase, TiO₂), silicon dioxide (SiO₂), aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃), Nafion[®] perfluorinated resin solution (Nafion), ethanol, *p*-hydroxyphenylacetic acid, horseradish peroxidase, potassium hydrogen phthalate,

sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄), potassium bromate (KBrO₃), phenol, BPA, 4-CP, 4-NP, FFA, BA, crystal violet (1% aqueous solution, CV), rhodamine B (RhB), and reactive black 5 (RB5) were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH), hydrochloric acid (37%, HCl), and phosphoric acid were provided by Dae Jung Chemical Company. Acetonitrile (HPLC grade) was purchased from J.T. Baker. Deionized water (DIW, 18.2 M Ω ·cm, Millipore Milli-Q Integral 5) was used to prepare all solutions in this study.

2.2. Preparation and characterization of the materials

Raw RM produced from the Bayer process was obtained from the Korea Institute of Geoscience and Mineral Resources in Daejeon, South Korea. Before its use, raw RM was dried at 105 °C in a drying oven and ground uniformly using a mortar and pestle. To investigate the effect of the surface hydroxyl groups in RM, neutralized RM (NRM) was prepared by acid treatment. To neutralize RM, 0.5 M HCl was added dropwise to the RM suspension (5 g of RM in 500 mL DIW; the initial pH of the suspension was \sim 13) under continuous stirring until the pH reached 7. Thereafter, NRM was separated by vacuum filtration and washed with DIW and dried at 105 °C in a dry oven. To examine the role of the metal oxides comprising RM for PMS activation, RM-mimicking metal oxide composites were prepared by a hydrothermal method. Various composites were prepared by adding different metal oxides to Fe₂O₃ based on the chemical composition of RM (Table S1): Fe₂O₃ (37.3%)–Al₂O₃ (23.7%), –TiO₂ (6.7%), –CaO (5.4%), -SiO₂ (10.4%), and -Na₂O (5.5%). First, 5 g of metal oxide mixture was added to 100 mL of DIW and vigorously mixed for 2 h. The suspension was transferred to a Teflon-lined autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 12 h. Finally, the suspension was dried at 105 °C for 24 h. The prepared composites of Fe₂O₃-Al₂O₃, -TiO₂, -CaO, -SiO₂, and -Na₂O are denoted as FeAl, FeTi, FeCa, FeSi, and FeNa, respectively. The composite of all the metal oxides is donated as a synthesized RM (SRM). To investigate the effect of the alkalinity of the materials, Fe_2O_3 (37.3%)–Na₂O (1%) and –Na₂O (3%) were prepared, which are denoted as FeNa-1 and FeNa-3, respectively.

The morphology and particle size of RM was investigated by transmission electron microscopy equipped with energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS; JEM-2010, JEOL). The chemical composition and mineral phase of the materials were identified by X-ray fluorescence (XRF; XRF-1700, Shimadzu) and X-ray diffraction (XRD; JP/MAX-3C, Rigaku), respectively. The oxidation state of Fe in RM was monitored by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS; Axis-Supra, Kratos) and X-ray absorption near-edge spectroscopy (XANES; R-XAS, Rigaku). Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of the materials used in this study were acquired by the ATR method, over the range of 4000–650 cm⁻¹ (Magna 860, Nicolet).

2.3 Experimental procedure for photochemical reaction

AO7 and the organic contaminants (i.e., phenol, BPA, 4-CP, 4-NP, FFA and BA) were subjected to photochemical oxidation in a quartz reactor containing 100 mL of the suspension of the prepared materials (catalysts) with PMS. For kinetics experiments, 0.1 g/L (or the desired amount of the materials) was completely dispersed by ultrasonication. To initiate the reaction, PMS was injected into the suspension to obtain an initial concentration of 4 mM, followed by irradiation with visible light using a 150 W xenon lamp equipped with a long-pass optical filter ($\lambda > 400$ nm). The initial pH of the reaction solution was maintained at 3.0 by injecting the PMS reagents, and the pH changed only marginally over the reaction. For the control experiments without PMS addition, the initial pH was adjusted to the same value with 0.1 M HCl. One mL of aliquot was withdrawn at predetermined time intervals and filtered through a

0.2 µm PTFE syringe filter. For the experiments in natural waters, three different water samples (i.e., tap water, river water, and groundwater) were collected in the Republic of Korea; river water and groundwater were collected at the Han River and South Chungcheong province, respectively. The water samples were immediately filtered using 0.45 µm nylon filter and stored at 4°C until use. All kinetics experiments were conducted in duplicate and showed good reproducibility; the average values with standard deviations are presented.

2.4 Photochemical and electrochemical analyses

Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were recorded using a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F-7100, Hitachi Co.) with excitation at 400 nm. The electrochemical characteristics of RM were analyzed using a potentiostat (VSP, BioLogic Co.) under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 400$ nm, 100 mW/cm²). For the photocurrent measurement, the photo-generated current on the materials was monitored in a three-electrode cell containing a 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ electrolyte; the open circuit potential was recorded in chronoamperometric mode under light on and off conditions. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) analysis was performed within the frequency range of 0.1 Hz to 100 kHz at an alternating current voltage amplitude of 10 mV. For the photocurrent and EIS measurements, the material (catalyst)-coated glass, Pt mesh, and Ag/AgCl were used as the working, counter, and reference electrodes, respectively. To prepare the working electrode, the catalyst suspension was prepared by dispersing 10 mg catalyst in ethanol containing 10% (v/v) Nafion as a binding agent. Thereafter, 50 µL of the suspension was dropped and spread on the surface of an indium tin oxide-coated glass (ITO glass; 1 cm × 1 cm; 15–25 Ω /square). To immobilize the catalyst, the resulting catalyst-coated ITO glass was dried at 80 °C for 30 min.

2.5 Analytical methods

To monitor the kinetics of AO7 degradation, 0.5 mL of sample was transferred to the cuvette containing 1 mL of DIW to determine the concentration of AO7 using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Lambda 465, PerkinElmer) at 484 nm. Other organic contaminants were analyzed by ultrahigh performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) with a UV-vis detector (UltiMate 3000, Thermo Scientific) equipped with an Acclaim 120 C18 column. A mixture of 0.1% (v/v) aqueous phosphoric acid solution and acetonitrile (80:20 ratio by volume) was used as the mobile phase [40]. The total organic carbon (TOC) was measured using a TOC analyzer (Sievers M5310 C). To identify the intermediates in the degradation of AO7, LC-QTOF-MS analysis was performed using a high-pressure LC instrument (Ultimate3000, Thermo Scientific Inc., USA) coupled to an AB Sciex TripleTOF 5600 + system (AB Sciex, USA) with a C18 column. The eluents used as the mobile phase were prepared from a mixture of 0.1% formic acid in water and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile. Direct evidence of radical generation in the RM/PMS/vis system was obtained by electron spin resonance (ESR, JES-X310, JEOL) analysis. The concentration of dissolved ions in the water samples was determined by ion chromatography (Metrohm, Eco IC). The suspension containing 100 mM of DMPO, 0.1g/L of RM, and 4 mM of PMS was injected into the ESR cell and analyzed under visible light irradiation. ESR analysis was performed at a resonance frequency of 9.45 GHz, microwave power of 0.998 mW, modulation frequency of 100 kHz, modulation amplitude of 1.0 G, sweep width of 1.0 G, time constant of 30 ms, and sweep time of 30 s. The in situ generated H_2O_2 was measured using a fluorescence probe [41,42]. The signals were obtained on a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F-7100, Hitachi Co.) with excitation and emission wavelengths of 315 and 406 nm, respectively.

2.6 DFT calculations

To investigate the oxidative pathway of AO7, DFT calculation was performed using ORCA 5.0.3 [43]. The initial geometry and input file for AO7 and the transformation product (TP) were prepared using the Avogadro program [44]. The geometry of AO7 and the intermediates was optimized using the B3LYP method with the 6-31G(d, p) basis set and D3-BJ [45]. All calculations were accelerated using the RIJCOSX algorithm. To consider the solvation effect, the conductor-like polarizable continuum model (CPCM) was employed for aqueous systems. In addition, the reactive sites of AO7 and its intermediates were forecasted using the Fukui function, a recognized technique for predicting the regioselectivity in radical-involving reactions [46–48]. The Fukui function and f_A are defined as follows [49]:

$$\mathbf{f}(r) = \left[\frac{\partial \rho(r)}{\partial N}\right]_{\mathcal{V}} \tag{1}$$

$$f_{A} = q_{A}(N) - q_{A}(N-1)$$
(2)

The electron density at point r is described as $\rho(\mathbf{r})$, where N is the total number of electrons and the constant term v in the partial derivative is the external potential. The condensed Fukui function was estimated using the Hirshfeld charge number, which is the distribution of the electron density around the atom [46]. $q_A(N)$ and $q_A(N-1)$ refer to the atomic charge states of atom A in the presence of N and N-1 electrons, respectively. This concept becomes important in understanding how certain atoms undergo preferential electrophilic attack, described by the f^- values [47,50]. All visualizations and graphics were prepared using ChemCraft (1.8 version).

To compare the adsorption and transition state energies of the materials and the PMS molecule, all geometry optimizations were performed using VASP (version 6). The GGA-PBE exchange-correlation functional, RMM-DIIS algorithm, and real space projection operators were used in a plane-wave basis set with a cutoff at 400 eV. For structure optimization, the unit-cells were optimized first; a = 7.4 and b = 5.4 Å for Fe₂O₃, a = 6.3 and b = 7.7 Å for

FeO(OH). The space in the c-direction (25 Å) is far enough to ignore the interaction between supercells next to each other. To calculate the adsorption energy, the unit-cells were expanded by $(2 \times 2 \times 1)$, and the bottom two layers were frozen in vacuum conditions. The iron atom on the Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH) lattices and three different oxygen atoms of PMS were selected as adsorption sites; the oxygen atoms in the O–O bond and sulfate group of PMS were labeled as O₁, O₂, and O₃, respectively. The energy for the adsorption of PMS on both the Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH) surfaces was calculated as follows [51]:

$$E_{\text{adsoprtion}} = E_{\text{PMS-surface}} - (E_{\text{PMS}} + E_{\text{surface}}) \tag{3}$$

For the transition state search, the O₃-adsorbed surface, which has the lowest energy, was used in the unit cell. The transition state was optimized using elastic band methods.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of raw RM and synthetic catalysts

The morphological and structural characteristics of raw RM were identified by TEM-EDS analysis (Fig. 1(a) and Fig. S1(a)), which showed an irregular nanosized RM agglomerate composed of various elements (i.e., Fe, Si, Ca, Al, Ti, and Na). EDS mapping also revealed that Fe and Al are the main elements, which is in good agreement with the XRF data (37.3% of Fe and 23.7% of Al as oxide; Table S1). The Fe2p XPS and XANES Fe K-edge spectra of RM were similar to those of Fe₂O₃ (Fig. S2(a) and (b)). An XRD analysis of RM (Fig. 1(b)) revealed that RM is composed of various mineral phases such as hematite (α -Fe₂O₃), boehmite (γ -AlO(OH)), anatase (TiO₂), calcite (CaCO₃), and quartz (SiO₂), as previously reported [52,53]. In addition, the (012), (104), and (110) planes of Fe₂O₃ in RM were confirmed based on the electron diffraction patterns (Fig. S1(b–d)), with the estimated d-spacing values of 0.37, 0.27, and 0.252 nm, respectively [54]. FeNa and SRM prepared by a process similar to the

preparation of RM comprised similar mineral phases, mainly α -Fe₂O₃. FTIR and XPS analyses also confirmed the presence of FeO(OH) on the RM surface. The FTIR spectra exhibited distinct bands at 880, 1629, and 3420 cm⁻¹, ascribed to Fe–O–H bending, –OH bending, and –OH stretching vibrations, respectively (Fig. 1(c)); all these bands are related to hydroxyl groups [55,56]. A comparison of Fe₂O₃ and the RM-mimicking materials (i.e., FeNa and SRM) showed an increase in the number of hydroxyl groups in the RM-mimicking materials. In comparison, the band at 880 cm⁻¹ disappeared in the spectrum of NRM, further confirming the presence of FeO(OH) in RM. The O1s XPS profiles of the materials (Fig. 1(d)) were deconvoluted into peaks at 531.4 (Fe-OH) and 529.6 eV (Fe-O), where the Fe-O peak of Fe₂O₃ was dominant. Compared to the case of Fe₂O₃, the peak corresponding to Fe-OH significantly increased in the alkali-treated materials (i.e., FeNa, SRM, and raw RM). The Fe-OH peak of NRM also slightly decreased compared to RM. Based on the results of XRD, FTIR, and XPS, we can confirm that FeO(OH) is present in its amorphous form in RM, not crystalline α -FeO(OH) (goethite) and γ -FeO(OH) (lepidocrocite).

3.2. Degradation of AO7 by the RM/PMS/vis system

3.2.1 Degradation kinetics of AO7

The high amount of Fe species in RM led to the design of a novel dye-sensitized PMS activation system for the simultaneous degradation of dyes and other organic contaminants. First, AO7 was chosen as a model dye contaminant because it forms a strong complex with α -Fe₂O₃ [35] and is commonly detected in textile wastewater [57]. Under dark conditions, PMS alone was ineffective for removing AO7, whereas very low removal (\leq 5%) of AO7 was observed in both RM and RM/PMS systems (Fig. 2(a)). This finding indicates insignificant adsorption of AO7 on the RM surface and inability of RM to activate PMS. Under visible light

irradiation, the RM/vis system also showed no significant effect on AO7 removal (Fig. 2(b)), indicating that the RM/vis system cannot induce PMS activation, plausibly owing to the fast electron-hole recombination in this system, despite the suitable band-gap energy (1.81 eV) for excitation (Fig. S3). PMS/vis induced slight degradation of AO7 (17% of AO7 in 120 min). Because many studies have shown a negligible effect of visible irradiation for direct PMS activation [58,59], it is theorized that visible light-sensitized AO7 (AO7^{*}) is formed, which can slowly activate PMS to generate ROS. Compared with the control experiments, the visible light-activated RM/PMS system (RM/PMS/vis) induced a dramatic increase in the degradation of AO7 (Fig. 2(b)): 97% degradation in 100 min under 1-sun condition. The intensity of the original bands in the UV-vis spectra at 484 and 430 nm (corresponding to hydrazone and azo forms, respectively) continuously decreased as the irradiation time increased (Fig. S4). The absorbance of the naphthalene and benzene rings (i.e., 310 and 228 nm) also decreased during the reaction, indicating that further degradation to intermediates occurred after the decolorization of AO7 [60].

3.2.2 Reactive oxygen species for AO7 degradation

To identify the ROS responsible for AO7 degradation in the RM/PMS/vis system, the effects of dissolved oxygen (anoxic condition) and different additives (i.e., *t*-BuOH, 2-PrOH, and FFA) were examined (Fig. 2(c) and (e)); dissolved oxygen is responsible for the generation of $O_2^{\bullet-}$, FFA is a ${}^{1}O_2$ probe ($k_{1O_2} = 1.2 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), *t*-BuOH is a specific 'OH scavenger ($k_{\bullet OH} = 3.8 - 7.6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), and 2-PrOH can scavenge both 'OH and SO₄⁺⁻ ($k_{\bullet OH} = 1.9 \times 10^9$ and $k_{SO_4^{\bullet-}} = 4-7.42 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) [61,62]. The addition of *t*-BuOH slightly inhibited AO7 degradation, delaying complete removal by 10 min (Fig. 2(c)). By contrast, excess 2-PrOH significantly inhibited the degradation rate to less than 30% in 120 min. These results indicate

that the reactive oxidants (i.e., OH and SO_4) were generated by the RM/PMS/vis system, and SO4⁻ was mainly responsible for AO7 degradation, rather than 'OH. ESR analysis after irradiation clearly indicated that the production of DMPO-OH and DMPO-SO4 adducts increased as the reaction time increased (Fig. 2(d)). Under anoxic conditions, the kinetics of AO7 degradation by RM/PMS/vis were severely delayed (53% removal in 120 min), indicating that O₂⁻ plays an important role in AO7 degradation. In this system, it is believed that a major role of O₂^{•-} is to activate PMS, leading to the generation of 'OH and SO₄⁻⁻, rather than the direct oxidation of AO7. This explanation is supported by the following experimental results. First, the generation of O₂⁻⁻ in the AO7/vis and AO7/RM/vis systems without PMS was measured based on the H₂O₂ production in a mixture with SOD (Fig. S5) [63]. Despite a remarkable increase in the H₂O₂ production in both systems, no degradation of AO7 was observed in either of the aforementioned systems (denoted as vis alone and RM/vis in Fig 2(b)). These results suggest that direct oxidation of AO7 by O2⁻ is of marginal importance in the RM/PMS/vis system. Conversely, in the PMS/vis system, the apparent degradation of AO7 was 17% within 120 min, indicating that the O₂⁻ generated by electron transfer from AO7* to O₂ plays a key role in the activation of PMS. In addition, the effect of O₂⁻⁻ on PMS activation increased in the presence of RM because a larger amount of O2⁻ was generated (1.8-fold enhancement; Fig. S5). Note that the data suggest that another pathway for PMS activation through a substantial contribution of RM is strongly likely because the degradation of AO7 was not completely inhibited by deoxygenation; a more detailed discussion is presented in Section 3.3. FFA was minimally degraded by AO7/vis and AO7/RM/vis, indicating that the amount of singlet oxygen derived from O2⁻⁻ was negligible (Fig. 2(e)). By contrast, significant degradation of FFA was observed in the RM/PMS system under dark conditions, suggesting that ¹O₂ can be produced by PMS self-decay on the surface of RM from which OH⁻ is slowly

eluted. The pH of the suspension first increased and then decreased in the RM/PMS system, whereas that of the RM suspension increased continuously. However, ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is not an important reactive oxidant for the degradation of AO7 because no AO7 degradation was achieved in the RM/PMS system (Fig. 2(a)).

3.2.3 Characterization of by-product and degradation pathway of AO7

To identify the oxidative degradation pathway of AO7, the intermediates generated by the RM/PMS/vis system were analyzed using LC-QTOF-MS. During the reaction, eleven different TPs were identified with good certainty (mass errors < 5 ppm). The proposed oxidative degradation pathways for AO7 are summarized in Fig. 3(a); the mass-to-charge ratio (*m/z*) of all TPs is indicated in the nomenclature (e.g., TP327). The MS/MS spectra of the oxidation intermediates are also provided in Fig. S6. In the initial stage of degradation, hydroxylated products of AO7 such as TP361, TP377, and TP393 were identified. After hydroxylation, further ring cleavage products containing benzenesulfonate and naphthalene were detected. In the further oxidative degradation, TP172 sequentially underwent denitrification, hydroxylation (TP188), and desulfonation (TP109); contrastingly, the ring opening of naphthalene proceeded through TP191, TP147, TP179, TP149, and TP109.

Additional DFT calculations were performed to support the degradation pathway of AO7 in this study; the hydroxylated products of AO7 (i.e., TP361, TP377, and TP393) were computationally specified by Fukui functions. The chemical structures with a condensed Fukui function for electrophilic attack (i.e., f- values) are presented in Fig. 3(b); a site with a high f- value is highly vulnerable to electrophilic attack (oxidative attack). For AO7 (TP327), the highest f- values were identified for the azo bonds of N₁₁ (0.0790) and N₁₂ (0.0993), indicating that the first step is the cleavage of the azo bonds to a single bond by hydroxylation (i.e., TP361). Thereafter, C₁ and C₇ of TP361 with high f-values of 0.0593 and 0.0564, respectively, are expected to be sequentially hydroxylated.

3.3. Role of metal oxides in RM

To identify the role of metal oxides in RM, the four most abundant metal oxides in RM (i.e., 0.1 g/L of Fe₂O₃, Al₂O₃, SiO₂, and TiO₂) were used for AO7 degradation in the presence of PMS under visible light (Fig. 4(a)). As shown earlier, PMS alone afforded 17% removal, which is similar to that achieved with TiO₂ (i.e., 23% degradation of AO7 in 120 min). By contrast, Fe₂O₃ afforded remarkably higher AO7 removal, i.e., 65% removal in 120 min, whereas Al₂O₃ and SiO₂ completely inhibited the degradation of AO7. These results suggest that the Fe component in RM is mainly responsible for PMS activation, leading to enhanced generation of ROS in the RM/PMS/vis system. By contrast, Al₂O₃ and SiO₂ can prevent the reduction of O₂ to O₂⁻ by scavenging the electrons from AO7^{*}.

The synergistic effects of the complexation of the RM components were examined using RM-mimicking materials (i.e., FeAl, FeTi, FeCa, FeSi, FeNa, and SRM); the determined amount of the materials, as much as included in 0.1 g/L RM based on chemical composition (Table S1), was used for AO7 degradation (Fig. 4(b)). With FeAl and FeSi, almost no AO7 was removed within 4 h, which is consistent with the results obtained with single metal oxides. Compared to the control experiment (Fe₂O₃), FeTi and FeCa exerted inhibitory effects on AO7 removal: 45%, 22%, and 29% of AO7 was removed in 4 h with 37 mg/L of Fe₂O₃, 44 mg/L of FeTi, and 43 mg/L of FeCa, respectively. These results indicate that the Al, Si, Ti, and Ca components can hinder adsorption of the adsorbates (i.e., AO7 and PMS) on Fe₂O₃ through competitive occupation of the active sites, thereby inhibiting electron transfer from AO7 to PMS. By contrast, FeNa exhibited significantly higher AO7 removal (complete removal within

100 min), and SRM also had a faster removal rate compared with that of Fe₂O₃; however, the removal rate achieved with SRM was lower than that obtained with FeNa, possibly due to the inhibitory effect of the components (Al, Si, Ti, and Ca). These results support the key role of the Fe component of RM in AO7 degradation. FeNa and SRM, prepared in highly alkaline conditions, contained amorphous FeO(OH)), which can significantly accelerate PMS activation; further details are presented in Section 3.4.

Direct evidence of the role of the Fe component was obtained by XANES analysis for pristine RM and visible light irradiated RM in the presence of AO7 (Fig. 4(c)). The XANES spectra showed peaks corresponding to the Fe K-edge peak $(1s \rightarrow 4p)$ and pre-edge shoulder $(1s \rightarrow 3d)$, which are known to correlate with the oxidation state [64–66]. In comparison with pristine RM, a negative shift and lower intensity of the $1s \rightarrow 4p$ peak were observed in RM after irradiation, while the intensity of the $1s \rightarrow 3d$ peak simultaneously increased. These changes are consistent with the difference between Fe₃O₄ and Fe₂O₃, indicating that the Fe(III) contained in RM was reduced to Fe(II) by electron transfer from AO7^{*}.

3.4 Enhanced PMS activation by FeO(OH) in RM

3.4.1 Kinetics of AO7 degradation

To investigate the enhanced kinetics of AO7 degradation by FeO(OH) in RM, the effects of the Na₂O content during synthesis and NRM on AO7 degradation were evaluated (Fig. 5(a) and (b)). FeNa-3 (3%) and FeNa (5.5%) afforded drastically higher removal efficiencies (removing more than 90% of AO7 within 70 min), whereas the removal efficient of FeNa-1 was only slightly higher than that of Fe₂O₃. This difference indicates that the rate of AO7 degradation increased drastically as the Na₂O content increased. Compared to pristine RM, the rate of AO7 degradation decreased significantly with NRM (70% removal in 120 min),

possibly due to the low amount of amorphous FeO(OH), as indicated by the FTIR and XPS data (Fig. 5(b)). These results suggest that the presence of FeO(OH)/ α -Fe₂O₃ in RM leads to improved degradation efficiency.

3.4.2 Photochemical and electrochemical analyses

The enhancement of PMS activation by FeO(OH) can also be explained by the photochemical and electrochemical analyses (i.e., PL analysis and photocurrent and EIS measurements) of FeO(OH)-rich (i.e., FeNa and RM) and -poor materials (i.e., Fe₂O₃ and NRM). For all tested materials, the current was immediately responsive to the light on and off conditions in the presence of AO7 (Fig. 5(c)), indicating successful electron transfer and capture from the sensitized AO7* to the materials. The photocurrent density obtained with the FeO(OH)-rich materials was much higher than that obtained with the FeO(OH)-poor materials, i.e., an approximately 4- and 8-fold increase in FeNa and RM, respectively, compared to Fe₂O₃ and NRM. This difference indicates that FeO(OH) significantly enhances Fe-mediated PMS activation via dye-sensitized electron transfer. To identify the enhancement of electron mobility between AO7 and FeO(OH), EIS measurements were conducted for the materials under visible light (Fig. 5(d)). The inset image shows the equivalent circuit of the Nyquist plot consisting of the electrolyte resistance (Rs), charge transfer resistance (Rct), and capacitive phase element (CPE). The obtained resistance for the FeO(OH)-rich materials was lower than that of the FeO(OH)-poor materials, indicating more active electron mobility from AO7 to FeO(OH) in the former. The PL emission peaks for the RM-based (i.e., RM and NRM) and RM-mimicking materials (i.e., Fe_2O_3 and FeNa) were observed at 584 and 598 nm, respectively (Fig. 5(e)). The intensity followed the order: RM < NRM and FeNa < Fe₂O₃, indicating that the FeO(OH)rich materials exhibited superior efficiency for charge separation. These photochemical and

electrochemical observations explain the enhanced PMS activation due to the FeO(OH) phase in RM.

3.4.3 DFT calculations of adsorption energy and energy barrier

To understand the mechanism of acceleration of PMS activation by the FeO(OH) phase, the adsorption energies of PMS on the Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH) surfaces were obtained using DFT calculations. The calculated adsorption energies of PMS on Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH) with three different oxygen atoms (O1–3 in PMS; Fig. S7) and the length of the O–O bond are presented as average values in Table 1. The adsorption energy of PMS on the FeO(OH) is -2.32 eV, which is lower than that on the Fe_2O_3 of -1.40 eV, and all results calculated for each site were in good agreement with the order $Fe_2O_3 > FeO(OH)$. The lower adsorption energy on the FeO(OH) surface suggests a more stable absorption of the PMS molecule compared to the Fe₂O₃ surface. In addition, it is conceivable that catalyzed charge transfer from FeO(OH) would be more efficient due to the stronger interaction with PMS. Meanwhile, the length of the O–O bond in PMS was slightly extended to 1.462 Å and 1.465 Å in Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH), respectively compared to that (1.460 Å) of free PMS, suggesting that PMS might be easily to cleaved to form 'OH and SO4' [67,68]. Since the O-O bond of PMS adsorbed on FeO(OH) is longer than that adsorbed on Fe₂O₃, these observations also support that the efficiency of PMS activation by FeO(OH) is superior to that of Fe_2O_3 . Moreover, the energy barrier for free radical generation was examined via transition state calculation (Fig. 6). The transition state energy of FeO(OH) was 2.91 eV, which is lower than that of Fe₂O₃ (4.13 eV), demonstrating that the existence of the hydroxyl group makes it easier to overcome energy barrier for PMS activation. The relative energy of the products (decomposition state) for Fe₂O₃ and FeO(OH) (0.22 and 0.51 eV, respectively) was higher than that of the reactants (adsorption state), indicating that

PMS activation on the materials was not thermodynamically spontaneous. However, radical generation is an exergonic reaction from the transition to decomposition state, which can occur with external energy (photon energy in this study).

3.5 Dye-sensitized oxidation of persistent organic contaminants

3.5.1 Degradation of persistent organic contaminants

The PMS-activated degradation and mineralization of phenol with and without AO7 were examined (Fig. 7(a)). In the absence of AO7 (RM/PMS/vis), phenol degradation was negligible (<5%), whereas phenol completely degraded when the reaction was performed in the presence of AO7 (AO7/RM/PMS/vis) for 3 h. After the initiation of AO7 decolorization, phenol was sequentially decomposed, and almost 40% of the organic contaminants, including AO7, was mineralized (Fig. 7(a)). For the remaining organic contaminants (i.e., BPA, 4-CP, 4-NP, FFA, and BA), the degradation efficiency of the three systems (i.e., RM/PMS/vis, AO7/PMS/vis, and AO7/RM/PMS/vis) was evaluated (Fig. 7(b)); refer to Fig. S8 for degradation kinetics curves. Compared to both the RM/PMS/vis and AO7/PMS/vis systems, significant improvements were observed in degradation efficiency in the presence of AO7 and RM (AO7/RM/PMS/vis) for all contaminants. Phenol, BPA, and 4-CP exhibited degradation rates of 99.9%, 79%, and 70%, respectively, within 3 h in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system, whereas the RM/PMS/vis and AO7/PMS/vis systems achieved only approximately 10% removal of each contaminant over the same reaction time. Although 4-NP and BA exhibited lower efficiencies, achieving 60% and 40% degradation, compared with other phenolic contaminants, a noticeable improvement was evident in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system. The dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis achieved complete degradation of FFA, and the former two systems also showed relatively high efficiency compared to other contaminants due to its high rate constant with ¹O₂ (Table S2).

3.5.2 Reusability test

The reusability of RM for the simultaneous degradation of AO7 and phenol in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system was evaluated in seven consecutive reaction cycles (Fig. 7(c)). The used RM particles were collected by centrifugation and re-dispersed in the solution containing the contaminants. Although the degradation rate decreased slightly with increasing cycle number, complete decolorization of AO7 and more than 90% degradation of phenol were achieved simultaneously over 4 h in each of the five cycles. In the 6th cycle, AO7 did not undergo complete decolorization within the desired time, and the degradation rate of phenol also decreased to 75%; a slightly lower degradation rate was observed in the 7th cycle. The decrease in the catalytic activity may be attributed to a reduction in the hydroxyl groups, and the number of active sites due to the remaining residue of organic contaminants on the surface; the small amount of RM usage and loss of RM during the reuse processes may also be responsible for the decrease.

3.5.3 Effect of the dye type

To identify the effect of the dye type on PMS activation, four different dyes (i.e., CV, RhB, MO, and RB5) were used for dye-sensitized phenol oxidation (Fig. 7(d)). For all dyes, the production of 'OH or SO_4 ⁻⁻ through PMS activation was increased by RM, as confirmed by ESR analysis (Fig. 8). Compared to the absence of the dye, the addition of 50 μ M CV and RhB induced a slight increase in the phenol degradation rate to 20%. Notably, the addition of RB5 and AO7 induced significant improvements in the phenol degradation to 70% and 99%, respectively, within the same reaction time. The remarkable increase in efficiency by RB5 and AO7 can be attributed to the presence of azo (-N=N-), hydroxyl (-OH), and sulfonate ($-SO_3^{-}$)

groups [35,69]. These groups are known to form strong complexes with $Fe(OH)_2^+$ under acidic conditions, resulting in the origin of efficient charge transfer; especially, azo and hydroxyl groups of the dye act as an electron donor [69,70].

3.5.4 Effect of RM concentration and water matrices

To optimize the experimental condition, the degradation and mineralization efficiency of phenol was evaluated with different concentrations of RM in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system. In the presence of 50 µM AO7, a complete degradation of phenol was observed within 4 h using 0.1 g/L of RM as a catalyst (Fig. 9 (a)). As increase in RM concentration up to 0.3 g/L, we observed a significant improvement of phenol degradation, while 0.5 g/L of RM showed a substantial inhibition in degradation kinetics. Meanwhile, the TOC removal rate after one-day reaction in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system exhibited an increasing trend as the RM concentration increased from 0.1 to 0.3 g/L (62% and 88%, respectively), and the mineralization efficiency of 0.5 g/L RM was a similar level to that of 0.3 g/L RM (Fig. 9 (b)). The obtained results suggest that optimal degradation kinetics and mineralization efficiency can be achieved by using 0.3 g/L RM in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system. To evaluate the applicability of the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system in different water matrices, the effect of water samples (i.e., tap water, river water, and groundwater) on the degradation efficiency of phenol was examined (Fig. 9 (c)), Compared to the control experiment (i.e., DIW), the degradation kinetics of phenol was decreased in all water samples; and in the order of groundwater < river water < tap water < DIW. These results indicate that the presence of organic and inorganic constituents (Table S3) cause inhibitory effect on the degradation of organic contaminants by hindering the catalytic reaction [71,72]; however, more than 95% of phenol was still decomposed within 4 h.

3.6 Degradation mechanism of organic contaminants by dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis system

Based on the study results, the degradation mechanism of contaminants by the dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis system is summarized in Fig. 10. Under visible light irradiation, the FeO(OH)/a-Fe₂O₃ in RM served as an efficient electron acceptor and mediator for dye* owing to the formation of a strong complex. This electron transfer mechanism led to the reduction of Fe(III) and O₂ to Fe(II) and O₂⁻, respectively, and PMS was activated by the reduced species resulting in the generation of SO₄⁻ and 'OH. These reactive oxidants constitute the major route for the simultaneous degradation of dye and other contaminants via radical pathway; experimental results demonstrating the scavenging effect on phenol degradation are presented in Fig. S9. In this process, Al₂O₃ and SiO₂ can inhibit charge transfer by blocking active sites and quenching the electrons. Meanwhile, oxidized dye (dye^{*+}) and ${}^{1}O_{2}$ were also generated by nonradical pathways to degrade organic contaminants. To identify the effect of dye*+ on the degradation of contaminants, AO7, KBrO₃, and phenol were used as a sensitizer, electron quencher, and target contaminant, respectively [73]. Remarkably, 18% of the phenol was degraded by the AO7/RM/KBrO3/vis system, whereas no degradation was observed in the absence of RM (AO7/KBrO₃/vis) (Fig. S10). These results indicate that the direct oxidation by dye*+ is responsible for the degradation of contaminants, and this process is notably enhanced by the presence of RM. In addition, ¹O₂ can be generated by the self-decay of PMS, attributed to the continuous release of OH⁻ from RM surface, and it acts as a selective oxidizing species for the degradation of contaminants. Consequently, in the dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis system, various organic contaminants including the selected dye undergo effective degradation through the action of reactive oxidants generated by both radical and nonradical pathways.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we first developed a dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis system for effective oxidation of persistent organic contaminants and demonstrated the mechanism of PMS activation. Experimental results revealed that the degradation kinetics of AO7 dramatically increased using RM as a Fe catalyst in the presence of PMS under visible light. The positive effect of Fe components (i.e., co-existence of amorphous FeO(OH) and α -Fe₂O₃) in RM on PMS activation was confirmed by various experiments utilizing RM-mimicking, FeO(OH)-rich and -poor materials: (i) degradation kinetics of AO7; (ii) photochemical and electrochemical properties confirmed by photocurrent density, EIS, and PL analyses; and (iii) computational calculations of adsorption energy and energy barrier for PMS activation. The oxidative degradation of organic contaminants by the RM/PMS/vis system was significantly enhanced in the presence of AO7 via complex actions of multiple species generated by radical (i.e., 'OH, SO4⁺⁻, and O2⁺⁻) and nonradical (i.e., ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and dye⁺⁺) pathways. Furthermore, the good reusability and applicability of the dye/RM/PMS/vis system were confirmed through consecutive cycles of contaminant degradation and the oxidative degradation in the different water samples.

From this study, we demonstrated dye-sensitized reaction could be modified in the developed RM/PMS/vis system for enhanced degradation of persistent organic contaminants, and the novel findings of this study can provide new insights for effective PMS activation by heterogeneous Fe(III) containing solid wastes.

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Author contributions

Joohyun Kim: Data curation; Formal analysis; Investigation; Methodology; Validation; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing, Jaehyeong Park: Data curation; Methodology; Visualization, Sunho Yoon: Data curation; Investigation, Juri Lee: Data curation; Investigation, Khalil Hanna: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Jaesang Lee: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Changha Lee: Writing - review & editing, Jong Kwon Choe: Writing - review & editing, and Sungjun Bae: Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Project administration; Supervision; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing

Data statement

To foster transparency, please state the availability of your data in your submission if your data is unavailable to access or unsuitable to post.

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Tables

Table 1. DFT calculation results of adsorption energies of PMS on Fe_2O_3 and FeO(OH), and the length of O–O bond in PMS before and after being adsorbed on Fe_2O_3 and FeO(OH).

Configurations	Adsorption energy (eV)	Length of O–O bond (Å)
PMS	-	1.460
PMS on Fe ₂ O ₃	-1.40	1.462
PMS on FeO(OH)	-2.32	1.465
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Figures



Fig. 1. (a) TEM image of RM with EDS analysis showing the electron mapping of C, O, Na, Al, Si, Ca, Ti, and Fe; (b) XRD pattern of RM, SRM, and FeNa; (c) FTIR spectra and (d) the deconvoluted XPS spectra of O1s for Fe₂O₃, FeNa, SRM, RM, and NRM.

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Fig. 2. Degradation kinetics of AO7 (a) in dark conditions and (b) under visible light irradiation; (c) effects of *t*-BuOH, 2-PrOH, and deoxygenation on the degradation of AO7; (d) ESR spectra of DMPO-OH and DMPO-SO4 adducts obtained by the RM/PMS/vis system in conjunction with AO7; and (e) degradation kinetics of FFA for ¹O₂ detection and pH variation while mixing the RM suspension in the absence of and presence of PMS. (Conditions: $[RM]_0 = 0.1 \text{ g/L}$, $[PMS]_0 = 4 \text{ mM}$, $[AO7]_0 = [FFA]_0 = 0.17 \text{ mM}$, $[t-BuOH]_0 = [2-PrOH]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$, $[DMPO]_0$ = 100 mM, $pH_i = 3.0$, $I = 100 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ ($\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$)).



Fig. 3. (a) Pathway for oxidative degradation of AO7 by the RM/PMS/vis system, and (b) condensed Fukui function for electrophilic attack (f^{-}) on (a) AO7 and TP361.

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Fig. 4. Degradation kinetics of AO7 (a) using single metal oxides and (b) metal oxide composites with PMS under visible light irradiation; the amount of metal oxide composites contained in 0.1 g/L RM was used; (c) Fe K-edge XANES spectra of pristine RM, and visible light irradiated RM in the presence of AO7. (Conditions: $[catalyst]_0 = 0.1$ g/L for (a), $[Fe_2O_3]_0 = 37$ mg/L, $[FeAI]_0 = 62$ mg/L, $[FeSi]_0 = 48$ mg/L, $[FeTi]_0 = 44$ mg/L, $[FeCa]_0 = 43$ mg/L, $[FeNa]_0 = 43$ mg/L, $[SRM]_0 = 89$ mg/L for (b), $[PMS]_0 = 4$ mM, $[AO7]_0 = 0.17$ mM, pH_i = 3.0, I = 100 mW/cm² ($\lambda > 400$ nm)).

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Fig. 5. Degradation kinetics of AO7 using (a) FeNa synthesized in different concentration of Na₂O and (b) neutralized RM with PMS under visible light irradiation; (c) photocurrent density; (d) EIS measurement for Fe₂O₃, FeNa, RM, and NRM in the presence of AO7 and PMS; and (e) PL spectra of Fe₂O₃, FeNa, RM, and NRM in the presence of AO7. (Conditions: [catalyst]₀ = 0.1 g/L, [PMS]₀ = 4 mM, [AO7]₀ = 0.17 mM, [Na₂SO₄]₀ = 0.1 M, WE = material-coated ITO, CE = Pt mesh, RE = Ag/AgCl, I = 100 mW/cm² ($\lambda > 400$ nm)).



Fig. 6. Energy barriers of radical pathways in Fe₂O₃/PMS and FeO(OH)/PMS systems.

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Fig. 7. (a) Oxidative degradation and mineralization kinetics of phenol by RM/PMS/vis and AO7/RM/PMS/vis systems; (b) degradation of various organic contaminants by RM/PMS/vis, AO7/PMS/vis, and AO7/RM/PMS/vis systems for 3 h; (c) simultaneous degradation kinetics of AO7 and phenol by AO7/RM/PMS/vis system during recycling test; and (d) effect of dye type on degradation of phenol by dye-sensitized RM/PMS/vis system. (Conditions: $[RM]_0 = 0.1 \text{ g/L}$, $[PMS]_0 = 4 \text{ mM}$, $[Phenol]_0 = [BPA]_0 = [4-CP]_0 = [4-NP]_0 = [FFA]_0 = [BA]_0 = 0.17 \text{ mM}$, $[AO7]_0 = 0.17 \text{ mM}$ for (a) – (c) and 50 µM for (d), $[CV]_0 = [RhB]_0 = [RB5]_0 = 50 \mu$ M, $pH_i = 3.0$, $I = 100 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ ($\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$)).



Fig. 8. ESR spectra of DMPO-OH and DMPO-SO₄ adducts obtained by dye/PMS/vis and dye/RM/PMS/vis systems. (Conditions: $[RM]_0 = 0.1 \text{ g/L}$, $[PMS]_0 = 4 \text{ mM}$, $[AO7]_0 = [CV]_0 = [RhB]_0 = [RB5]_0 = 50 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$, $[DMPO]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$, $pH_i = 3.0$, $I = 100 \text{ }\text{mW/cm}^2$ ($\lambda > 400 \text{ }\text{nm}$)).



Fig. 9. (a) Degradation kinetics of phenol using different concentrations of RM by the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system for 4 h; (b) TOC removal rate after one-day reaction in the AO7/RM/PMS/vis system using different concentrations of RM; (c) effect of water matrices on phenol degradation by the optimized AO7/RM/PMS/vis system. (Conditions: $[PMS]_0 = 4$ mM, $[AO7]_0 = 50 \ \mu$ M, $[phenol]_0 = 0.17 \ m$ M, $[RM]_0 = 0.3 \ g/L$ for (c), $pH_i = 3.0$, $I = 100 \ m$ W/cm² ($\lambda > 400 \ nm$)).

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Fig. 10. Proposed mechanism for dye-sensitized oxidation of persistent contaminants by RM/PMS/vis system.

Graphical abstract



Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

