This is the accepted manuscript version of the contribution published as:

Wu, L., Hou, C., Wang, X., **Guo, P.**, Zhang, X., Jin, Y., Gong, Y., Chen, X., Li, H. (2023): New insights into the mechanism for ${}^{1}O_{2}$ -Dominated peroxymonosulfate activation in saline solution: In-situ generation of $H_{2}O_{2}$ to inhibit the AOX formation *Chem. Eng. J.* **474**, art. 145698

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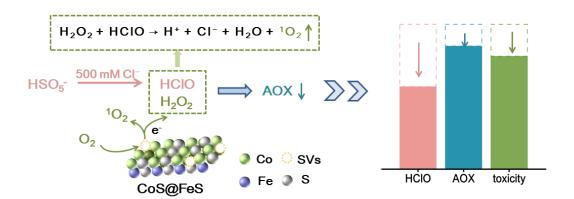
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.145698

- New Insights into the Mechanism for ¹O₂-Dominated
- 2 Peroxymonosulfate Activation in Saline Solution: In-situ
- **Generation of H₂O₂ to Inhibit the AOX Formation**
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- 13 **Abstract**: The presence of chloride ions (Cl⁻) in dye wastewater can hinder
- 14 the peroxymonosulfate (PMS) oxidation and lead to the abundant
- production of toxic adsorbable organic halogens (AOX). In this study, we
- 16 investigate the detailed influence of Cl on RhB removal and its mechanism, and
- propose a potential pathway for ¹O₂-dominated systems to inhibit AOX formation.
- 18 The concentration of Cl⁻ has a dual effect on the degradation of RhB, with low

concentrations inhibiting and high concentrations promoting. Further studies have revealed that $C1^-$ significantly impact the generation and transformation of reactive oxygen species (ROSs). EPR capturing, quenching tests, and molecular probe experiments indicate that as the $C1^-$ concentration increases, the concentration of SO_4^+ , 'OH and their contribution to the degradation of RhB gradually decrease, 1O_2 slightly increase and then decrease, while HClO and chlorine radicals increase linearly. Additionally, the catalyst plays a crucial role in inhibiting AOX formation and improving the mineralization of RhB. On the one hand, introducing catalysts can alter the proportion of ROSs production. On the other hand, the in-situ generation of H_2O_2 on the catalyst surface, through O_2 adsorption at sulfur vacancies sites, consumes the produced HClO, thereby inhibiting the formation of AOX. This study proposed a new insight into the mechanism for effective reduction of AOX content for 1O_2 dominated non-radical PMS activation under saline water.

- **Keywords:** peroxymonosulfate, chloride ions, hypochlorite, adsorbable
- 33 organic halogen, hypochlorous acid

Graphic abstract



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1 Introduction

Recently, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) the through peroxymonosulfate (PMS) activation have gained great attention [1], due to its ability to produce various reactive oxidative species [2-6]. However, the practical application of PMS activation is usually limited by the presence of co-existing anions (such as Cl⁻) in real wastewater matrix. The coexisting Cl⁻ can quench the SO₄⁻ and 'OH, resulting in the formation of less oxidative chlorine radicals (RCSs, such as Cl*, ClO*, and Cl2*-) (Eqs. 1-4) [7]. These RCSs can readily bond with the unsaturated bonds of the contaminants and produce adsorbable organic halogens (AOX) [8, 9], which are highly toxic and difficult for further degradation [10, 11]. Additionally, Cl⁻ could also react with HSO₅⁻ (Eqs. 5-6), leading to the production of HClO or Cl₂ through a two-step electron transfer pathway [12]. The subsequent direct chlorination of aromatic rings of the organic pollutants can also generate a large amount of AOX [8, 13, 14].

51 In order to prevent the formation of AOX during PMS activation in Cl containing system, utilizing the non-radical pathway through singlet 52 oxygen (1O₂) is considered as a possible solution [15-19], due to the 53 sluggishness of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ towards Cl^{-} ($k_{{}^{1}O_{2}}$, cl^{-} = 1×10^{3} M $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$). The amount of 54 55 AOX in ¹O₂-dominated PMS activation systems is typically low in saline solution [10]. However, under high Cl⁻ concentration, the generation of ¹O₂ is 56 greatly suppressed [20, 21]. Since Cl⁻ can easily react with HSO₅⁻ and 57 formed into HClO, then decrease the amount of ¹O₂ produced by PMS 58 59 self-decomposition, finally taken instead of the dominant contribution role of ¹O₂ [22]. Thus, the explanation for the reduction of AOX in 60 ¹O₂-dominated systems that attributed to the low reactivity of ¹O₂ and Cl⁻ 61 seems to be untenable [10]. To clearly address the issue of AOX formation 62 in saline wastewater, it is imperative to conduct thorough research to 63 understand the regularity of the transformation of the reactive species, and 64 seek the underlying mechanism for AOX inhibition in the ¹O₂-dominated 65 66 PMS catalysis.

$$Cl^- + {}^{\bullet}OH \rightarrow ClOH^{\bullet -}$$
 $k = 0.43 - 5.81 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (1)

$$C1OH^{\bullet-} + H^{+} \rightarrow C1^{\bullet} + H_2O$$
 $k = 2.1 \times 10^{10} M^{-1} s^{-1}$ (2)

$$Cl^{-} + SO_{4}^{--} \rightarrow SO_{4}^{2-} + Cl^{-}$$
 $k = 0.27 - 6.35 \times 10^{9} \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ (3)

$$Cl^{\bullet} + Cl^{-} \rightarrow Cl_{2}^{\bullet-}$$
 $k = 0.65 - 8.78 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (4)

$$Cl^{-} + HSO_{5}^{-} \rightarrow SO_{4}^{2-} + HClO$$
 $k = 2.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (5)

$$HClO \rightleftharpoons H^{+} + ClO^{-} \qquad pK_{a} = 7.5 \tag{6}$$

In our previous study, we fabricated the CoS@FeS heterostructure catalyst with sulfur vacancies (SVs) using a simple hydrothermal strategy. Various characterization methods were employed to analyze the materials, including X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), EPR spectra of sulfur vacancies, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), etc.[21]. Mechanism studies have revealed that the SVs facilitate the adsorption of O₂, then O₂ acquire electrons to generate O_2^{\bullet} , which is favorable for the production of 1O_2 . On this basis, we further investigated the impact of Cl⁻ concentration (0-500 mM) on the RhB removal. The transformation of reactive species, particularly ¹O₂ and RCSs, in the CoS@FeS/PMS system was elucidated, according to the comparative studies of the EPR capturing, quenching experiments, and probe conversion experiments under different Cl⁻ concentrations. Then, the variations of H₂O₂, HClO and AOX concentration under different dose of catalyst and Cl⁻ concentration were measured to reveal the role of catalyst. Based on the above research, the important role of in-situ generation of H₂O₂ on the catalyst for consuming the HClO in PMS activation under saline condition was first time proposed and verified. This study clarified the Cl⁻ influence under different concentrations as well as the possible mechanism, and put forward the importance of in-situ generated H₂O₂ for AOX inhibition for ¹O₂ -dominated PMS activation.

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2 Materials and methods

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2.1 Chemicals and Reagents

90 Methanol (MeOH), sodium chloride (NaCl) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂, 91 $\geq 30.0\%$) were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Peroxymonosulfate (PMS) was purchased from Alfa Aesar Chemical Co., Ltd. 92 93 Rhodamine B (RhB) as target pollutant was acquired from Aladdin Biochemical 94 Technology Co., Ltd. Details of other reagents was listed in S1. All chemicals were 95 analytically pure and used without further purification. All catalysis reactions were 96 carried out with deionized water.

97 2.2 Preparation of Catalysts

CoS@FeS nanosheets heterostructure catalyst was synthesized by a simple hydrothermal method. L-Cysteine, Co(SO₄)₂·6H₂O and (NH₄)₂Fe(SO₄)₂·6H₂O were dissolved in mixture solution (25 mL deionized and 25 ml triethylenetetramine) and heated at 200 °C for 24 hours. The detailed synthesis of the CoS@FeS was described according to our previous work (S2) [21]. The characterization information of the material is in S3–4.

2.3 Experiment procedure

105 2.3.1 The degradation of RhB in CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ system

A series of 100 mL RhB (20 mg/L) solutions containing NaCl of 0, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 300, and 500 mM were prepared in a 250 mL beaker, respectively. For each entry, 2 mg of the catalyst CoS@FeS was added to the RhB solution and stirred for 10 min. Then, 1 mL of PMS reagents (100 mM) was added to initiate the RhB degradation. Meanwhile, 0.5 mL of the above solution was extracted from the beaker at the fixed time intervals and immediately quenched with 0.5 mL Na₂SO₃ (100 mM), filtered with a 0.22 μm membrane, then detected by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer to analyze the concentration of RhB. All experiments were performed at 25 °C. For pH effect studies, the initial solution pH was adjusted by NaOH (0.01 M) and H₂SO₄ (0.01 M) if necessary.

2.3.2 Determination of rate constant for the reaction of RhB

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- The second-order rate constants for the reaction of RhB with SO₄, OH, and O₂
 were measured by the competition kinetics method. The detailed experimental
 procedure and calculation method were described in Text S5–S7.
- 120 2.3.3 Determination of the steady-state concentration of ROSs
- To determine the steady-state concentration of ROSs (SO₄-, OH, and O₂), CoS@FeS, PMS, and RhB were introduced into various NaCl containing solutions. Sulfamethoxazole (SMX), nitrobenzene (NB), and Metronidazole (MDE) as kinetic probe were added in the CoS@FeS/PMS system [23-25]. To mitigate the impact of RCSs and HClO on the degradation of organic matter in a high concentration Cl⁻

system, the reaction solution was supplemented with NaHCO₃ and (NH₄)₂SO₄. The steady-state concentration of ROSs in the system was assessed by Eqs 7–9. The second order rate constants of SMX, NB, and MDE with ROSs are detailed in S8.

$$-\ln \frac{[SMX]}{[SMX]_0} = k_{SMX, SO_4^{\bullet-}}[SO_4^{\bullet-}]_{ss} + k_{SMX, \bullet_{OH}}[\bullet_{OH}]_{ss} + k_{SMX, \bullet_{O_2}}[^{1}O_2]_{ss}$$
(7)

$$-\ln \frac{[NB]}{[NB]_0} = k_{NB, SO_4^{\bullet-}} [SO_4^{\bullet-}]_{ss} + k_{NB, \bullet_{OH}} [\bullet_{OH}]_{ss} + k_{NB, \bullet_{O_2}} [\bullet_{O_2}]_{ss}$$
(8)

$$-\ln \frac{[\text{MDE}]}{[\text{MDE}]_0} = k_{\text{MDE, SO}_4^{\bullet-}} [\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}]_{\text{SS}} + k_{\text{MDE, }} \cdot_{\text{OH}} [\ ^{\bullet}\text{OH}]_{\text{SS}} + k_{\text{MDE, }} \cdot_{\text{O}_2} [\ ^{1}\text{O}_2]_{\text{SS}}$$
(9)

Where $k_{\text{SMX}, \text{SO4}}$, $k_{\text{SMX}, \text{OH}}$ and $k_{\text{SMX}, \text{O2}}$ are the second order rate constants for the reaction of SMX with SO₄, OH and O₂; $k_{\text{NB,SO4}}$, $k_{\text{NB,OH}}$, and $k_{\text{NB,O2}}$ are the second order rate constants for the reaction of NB with SO₄, OH and O₂; $k_{\text{MDE,SO4}}$, $k_{\text{MDE,OH}}$ and $k_{\text{MDE,OH}}$ are the second order rate constants for the reaction of MDE with SO₄, OH and O₂. [SO₄] ss, [OH] ss, [OH] ss are the steady-state concentration of SO₄, OH and O₂, respectively.

135 2.4 Analytical Methods

The concentration of RhB for each sample was detected by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (PerkinElmer, Lambda 950) with a detection wavelength of 554 nm. The total organic carbon (TOC) was measured by TOC-Analyzer (multi-N/C3100, Analytik Jena, Germany). EPR experiments were performed on a JEOL JES-FA200 spectrometer, sulfate radical (SO₄*-), hydroxyl radical (*OH), and superoxide radical (O₂*-) were identified using DMPO as spin trapping agent. Singlet

oxygen (¹O₂) and chlorine Radicals (Cl₂⁻) were detected using TEMP andα-phenyl-N-tert-butylnitronone (PBN) as the spin-trapping agent. The quenching experiment was similar to the target pollutants degradation experiment, except for the addition of the corresponding quenchers (methanol, tert-butanol, isopropanol, ammonium sulfate, β-carotene) before adding PMS. The detection of the concentrations of free chlorine (HClO/ClO⁻) was measured by N,N-diethyl-p-phenylenediamine (DPD) method. A benchtop UV spectrophotometer (DR3900, HACH) measures the absorbance of magenta-colored compounds at a wavelength of 515 nm. The concentration of the adsorbable organic halogen (AOX) was analyzed by a combustion furnace (AOX-C, Blue Sky Instruments, China) and ion chromatograph (CIC-D100, Qingdao Shenghan, China), and the determined sample was adsorbed by activated carbon for advance. The analysis for the RhB intermediates after degradation was performed on the Agilent LC1290-6550-QTOF instrument. The mobile phase was 0.1% formic acid and 100% methanol, and the column model was Agilent RRHD Eclipse Plus C18 (2.1 mm × 100 mm \times 1.8 μ m).

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The concentration of H₂O₂ used N, N-diethyl-p-phenylenediamine sulfate (DPD)/peroxidase (POD) method. Firstly, 50 mg of DPD was dissolved in 5 mL of 0.1 mol/L H₂SO₄ water to create the DPD solution. Next, 5 mg of POD was dissolved in 5 mL of deionized water to create the POD solution. Then, mixed 1 mL of the sample solution with 0.05 mL of DPD solution, 0.05 mL of POD solution, and 1 mL

of sodium phosphate buffer (0.1 mol/L, pH = 6.0). Finally, determined the concentration of H_2O_2 by measuring the absorbance at λ = 551 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (PerkinElmer, Lambda 950). The concentration of SMX, NB, and MDE were determined using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent). The specific test conditions can be found in S9.

3 Results and discussion

- 3.1 The degradation of RhB
- 170 3.1.1 In the absence of Cl

- Initially, the reaction parameters of CoS@FeS/PMS activation for RhB degradation, including different PMS concentrations, catalyst dosages, and initial pH were optimized in the absence of Cl⁻. Results showed that the best RhB removal could be reached 98.64 % within 30 minutes under pH 6.4, 20 mg/L of RhB, 1 mM of PMS and 20 mg/L of catalyst, with the observed pseudo-first-order rate constant (k_{obs}) of 0.143 min⁻¹. Additionally, the catalysis could maintain a high level of RhB removal even after five catalysis cycles (95%), demonstrating its good reusability, as detailed in the Text S10–S13. All the subsequent entries were operated under the above optimized condition.
- 180 3.1.2 Under different [Cl⁻]

The presence of co-existing ions poses a challenge for the practical application of PMS oxidation [26, 27]. To investigate the impact of Cl⁻ concentrations on RhB removal, an elaborate concentration range of Cl⁻ solutions of 0, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 300, and 500 mM were set. It was observed that Cl has a dual effect on RhB degradation (S114), decreased slightly under low [Cl⁻] (0-10 mM) and began to increase during high [Cl $^{-}$] of 20–500 mM. The $k_{\rm obs}$ decreased from 0.143 to 0.119 min⁻¹ during 0–10 mM [Cl⁻], and increased to 0.767 min⁻¹ during 20–500 mM [Cl⁻] (Fig. 1a), similar tendencies were also reported in literatures [28-30]. Previous studies have indicated that the presence of low levels of Cl⁻ can hinder the degradation of organic matter, due to the interaction between Cl⁻ and SO₄⁻ as well as 'OH, and resulting in the formation of RCSs with weak oxidizing properties [7]. Further, at a high Cl⁻ concentration, PMS can directly react with Cl⁻ to generate HClO, which exhibits a high selectivity towards organic matter. For organic matter containing electron-donating groups (such as, -OH, -NH₂, -R) can be easily oxidized by HClO, resulting in an increased degradation rate. However, the presence of electron withdrawing group (such as, -COOH, -NO₂), which reduces the electron density in a molecule, thereby reducing the reactivity with HClO, leading to a lower reaction rate [13]. The RhB contain both electron-donating groups (-R) and electron-withdrawing groups (-COOH), but the number of its electron-donating groups is more than that of electron-withdrawing groups, so the overall electron-donating group play a dominant role [31]. This property makes RhB highly reactive with HClO and therefore the $k_{\rm obs}$

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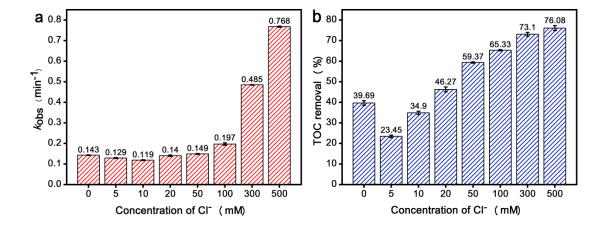
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increased in high-chlorine systems. In addition, the effect of Cl⁻ concentration on RhB adsorption was monitored (S15), a slight decreasing trend from 2.46% to 0.14% of RhB removal. This may be due to the degree of aggregation of ionic dyes increase in the presence of Cl⁻, which hinders the adsorption of RhB on the catalyst surface [31].

The TOC removal of RhB was measured and depicted in Fig. 1b, which similar trend of the decolorization. As the [Cl⁻] increased from 0 to 5 mM, it was found that the TOC removal decreased from 39.64% to 23.45%. However, it gradually increased to 78.06% at 500 mM of [Cl⁻]. It could be explained that under 5 mM [Cl⁻], Cl⁻ reacted with SO₄ and OH, then formed into less reactive RCSs (Cl⁺, ClO⁺, and Cl₂ , resulting in the decline of the decolorization and mineralization. This process also generated refractory chlorination by-products, which hindered the deep mineralization [8]. With the increase of [Cl⁻], more amount of HClO generated (Eqs. 5–6), which was beneficial for the thorough oxidation of the by-products [32].



- 217 **Fig. 1.** Effects of Cl⁻ concentration on RhB removal (a) $k_{\rm obs}$ (b) TOC removal.
- Experiment conditions: [RhB]₀ = 20 mg/L, [PMS] = 1 mM, [Catalyst] = 20 mg/L,
- 219 [Cl⁻] = 0–500 mM, 30 min, pH_i 6.4.
- 220 3.2 Roles of reactive species for the degradation of RhB
- 221 Previous studies have mostly employed kinetic modeling methods to investigate 222 the impact of chloride ion concentration on ROSs and RCSs in the system, and lack of 223 the direct experimental evidence [10, 13, 33, 34]. Herein, scavenging and EPR 224 experiments were used to investigate the transformation of oxidizing species in Cl-225 containing systems [35, 36]. To determine the dominant oxidizing species in the CoS@FeS/PMS system under different [Cl⁻], quenching experiments towards ROSs 226 (eg., $O_2^{\bullet-}$, OH, and $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and O_2^{\bullet}), as well as the possible coexisting RCSs (eg., 227 Cl^{*}, Cl₂^{*} and HClO) were conducted. For MeOH, the rate constants with SO₄^{*}, OH 228 and Cl are $2.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, $9.7 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ and $5.7 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, respectively [37, 229 230 38]. For TBA, the reaction rate constants towards 'OH, Cl', and Cl₂ are 7.6×10^8 $M^{-1}s^{-1},~1.5~\times~10^9~M^{-1}s^{-1}$ and $7~\times~10^2~M^{-1}s^{-1}$ [39, 40], respectively, which can 231 232 scavenge 'OH and Cl', but with a negligible scavenging effect on Cl2'. Hence, if 233 SO₄ is the main oxidant, the contribution of SO₄ can be qualitatively estimated 234 from the distinction of the RhB removal between MeOH and TBA quenching tests. IPA can react with 'OH, Cl', and Cl₂'-, with their rate constants of 2.9×10^9 M⁻¹s⁻¹, 6 235 \times 10⁹ M⁻¹s⁻¹, and 1.2 \times 10⁵ M⁻¹s⁻¹ [41-43], respectively. Similarly, the contribution 236

237 of Cl₂ can be qualitatively estimated from the distinction of the RhB removal between the quenching by TBA and IPA [8]. FFA and L-histidine both showed high 238 reactivity with ${}^{1}\text{O}_{2}$, with the reaction rates of $1.2 \times 10^{8} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ and $3.2 \times 10^{7} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, 239 240 respectively [44, 45]. However, FFA or L-his is a reducing agent which may induce 241 rapid PMS consumption, thus cannot identify the exact quenching effect towards ¹O₂ [46-48]. Hence, the β -Carotene as a typical scavenger of $^{1}O_{2}$ ($k = 2-3.0 \times 10^{10} \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$) 242 is further introduced into the quenching tests to verify the contribution of ¹O₂, since it 243 is hardly oxidized by PMS [49]. For NH₄⁺, it would hydrolyze into neutral amine, and 244 245 react with HClO to form chloramines with much weaker oxidants [30, 50] (Eqs. 10-12), thus (NH₄)₂SO₄ was introduced as a scavenger to evaluate the contribution of 246 HClO. To rule out the effect of SO_4^{2-} , same amount of Na_2SO_4 was added, and nearly 247 248 no change on RhB removal (S16). Further, EPR experiments under different [Cl⁻] 249 were conducted to identify these reactive species. SO_4 and OH were trapped using DMPO as the spin trapping agent, while Cl₂⁻ and ¹O₂ were verified by employing 250 251 PBN and TEMPO as the spin trapping agent [51]. The concentration of HClO was 252 carried out by N, N-diethyl-p-phenylenediamine (DPD) method [8].

$$NH_3 + HCIO \rightarrow HN_2CI + H_2O$$
 $k = 4.2 \times 10^6 M^{-1} s^{-1}$ (10)

$$NH_2Cl + HClO \rightarrow HNCl_2 + H_2O$$
 $k = 3.5 \times 10^2 M^{-1} s^{-1}$ (11)

$$HNCl_2 + HClO \rightarrow NCl_3 + H_2O$$
 $k = 2.1 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (12)

As show in Fig. 2a–c, in the absence of Cl⁻, the RhB removal decreased from 98.68% to 77.10% and 58.02%, when MeOH and β-Carotene added separately. Under

low [Cl⁻] of 5 mM, the addition of MeOH, IPA and β-Carotene affected on the removal of RhB, decreased from 98.07% to 77.88%, 72.90% and 51.03%, respectively. This results demonstrate that the previously dominant reactive species of ¹O₂, SO₄^{•-} were gradually converted into ¹O₂, SO₄^{•-} and Cl₂^{•-}, when the [Cl⁻] increased from 0 to 5 mM. Under high [Cl⁻] of 500 mM, when MeOH, IPA, β-Carotene and (NH₄)₂SO₄ were separately added, the RhB removal decreased from 89.99% to 88.64%, 70.89%, 79.14% and 23.4% within 3 min, respectively, implies that the primary oxidizing species were HClO, accompanying with a certain amount of Cl2*- and ¹O2. Interestingly, it is observed that Cl2*- concentration increases as the Cl⁻ concentration increases (Fig 3e), while the quenching results showed that the contribution of Cl₂ was no significant change. This may be attributed to the low oxidation capacity of Cl2*. Moreover, in high concentration Cl systems, a substantial amount of HClO was generated through the direct reaction between Cl⁻ and PMS, and then rapid oxidation of RhB. Therefore, the contribution of Cl₂* to the degradation of RhB was not significantly improved.

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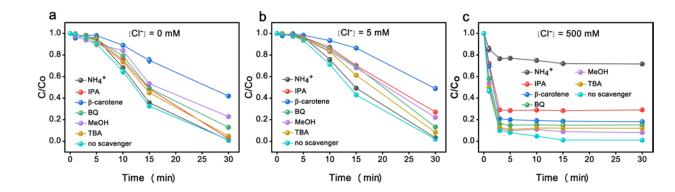
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- 271 Fig. 2. Effect of [Cl⁻] on reactive species for the degradation of RhB.
- 272 Experiment conditions: (a-c) [Catalyst] = 20 mg/L; [RhB]₀ = 20 mg/L,
- [PMS] = 1 mM; (a) $[Cl^-] = 0$ mM; (b) $[Cl^-] = 5$ mM; (c) $[Cl^-] = 500$ mM.

3.3 Transformation between ROSs and RCSs

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- We further amplified the variation process of the contribution of SO₄. OH 275 and ¹O₂ under 0, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 300 and 500 mM Cl⁻, using 1 M of MeOH and 276 277 0.5 mM of β-Carotene as scavengers individually, to exactly describe the variation trend. Their quenching contribution to each entry was calculated by the 278 279 RhB removal differences, as detailed in Table S17-18. As depicted in Fig. 3a, the inhibitory effect towards SO₄ and OH gradually decreased with the increasing [Cl⁻]. 280 281 This tendency was further verified by the EPR capturing results (Fig. 3b), which 282 showed the same decreasing intensities of the SO₄ and OH signal peaks, even completely disappeared under 500 mM. In contrast, the Cl₂ signal peaks gradually 283 284 increased and became very strong at 500 mM (Fig. 3e) [8, 52], indicating that high [Cl] prompted the conversion of SO₄ and OH into RCSs, resulting in the formation 285 286 of Cl₂ with weaker reactivity.
 - The inhibition effect of β-Carotene towards ${}^{1}O_{2}$ showed a parabolic tendency as $[Cl^{-}]$ increased, which enhanced between 0–10 mM and then decreased between 20–500 mM (Fig. 3c). This phenomenon was also consistent with the variation trend of the ${}^{1}O_{2}$ EPR signal peaks, which enhanced obviously with 5 mM of Cl⁻, and weaken

291 between 20–500 mM of Cl⁻ (Fig. 3d). This may be due to that the consumption of Cl⁻ on SO₄ and OH accelerates the PMS decomposition, and produces more ¹O₂ (Eq. 292 13) [31]. In addition, ¹O₂ could be efficiently generated through the interaction 293 294 between HSO_5^- and Cl_2 [53] (Eqs. 14–15), with a reaction rate constant of 1.5×10^5 M⁻¹s⁻¹. However, under high [Cl⁻] (500mM), more Cl⁻ reacted with HSO₅⁻ and 295 296 formed abundant HClO, thus inhibiting the decomposition of HSO₅⁻ to generate ¹O₂, 297 as well as the pathway through Cl₂. Besides, due to the abundant Cl⁻ were easily 298 blocked the active sulfur vacancies, which was responsible for the adsorption of 299 dissolved O₂ and later conversion into ¹O₂, thus shrinked the generation of ¹O₂. (Eqs. 16-17). To convince this point, we analyzed the concentrations of the accompanying 300 301 H₂O₂ under various [Cl⁻] systems (Eq. 17, see Fig. 3f). It was found that when the 302 [C1] increased from 0 to 500 mM, the concentration of H₂O₂ decreased by 42.2%, 303 which verified the above assumption. Furthermore, the concentrations of HClO were 304 monitored under different [Cl⁻] (Fig. 5b), a straight upward trend was observed, with 305 the [Cl⁻] increased from 50 mM to 500 mM, the HClO concentration increased from 306 1.29 mg/L to 13.81 mg/L in the CoS@FeS/PMS system.

$$HSO_5^- + SO_5^{2-} \rightarrow HSO_4^- + SO_4^{2-} + {}^{1}O_2$$
 (13)

$$HC1O + 2H^{+} + C1^{-} \rightarrow C1_{2} + H_{2}O$$
 (14)

$$Cl_2 + HSO_5^- + H_2O \rightarrow {}^{1}O_2 + SO_4^{2-} + 2Cl^- + 3H^+$$
 (15)

$$O_2 + e^- \rightarrow O_2^{\bullet -} \tag{16}$$

$$2O_2^{\bullet -} + 2H^+ \rightarrow {}^{1}O_2 + H_2O_2$$
 (17)

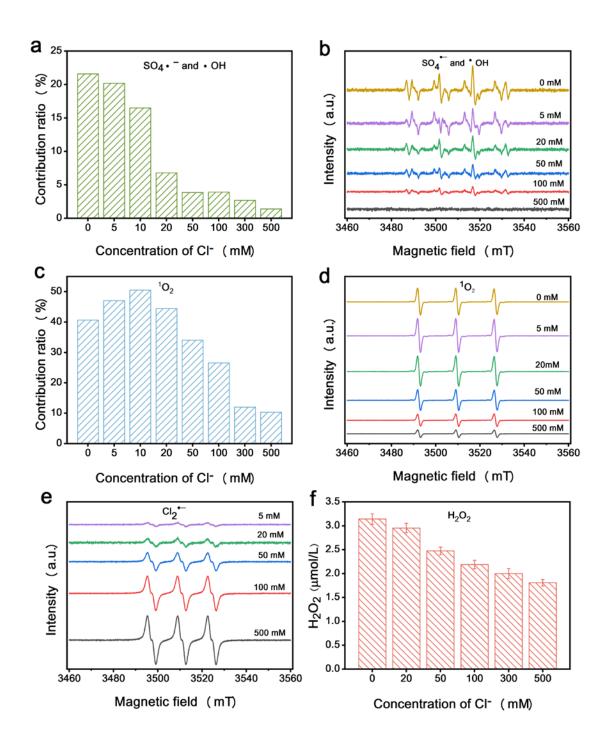


Fig. 3. Effect of [Cl⁻] on the generation and transformation of reactive oxidative species. Experiment conditions: (a-f) [Catalyst] = 20 mg/L, [Cl⁻] = 0-500 mM; (a-e) [PMS] = 1 mM; (a,c) [RhB]₀ = 20 mg/L.

To enhance the validity of our experimental results, we conducted molecular probe experiments to assess the impact of Cl⁻ concentration on the steady-state concentration of reactive oxygen species and their corresponding contribution [23, 54]. In view of the quenching and EPR experiments of the CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ system as discussed above, the degradation of RhB can be attributable to SO₄⁻, *OH, ¹O₂, RCSs, and HClO (Eq. 18). The relative contributions of RhB degradation by SO₄⁻, *OH, ¹O₂, RCSs, and HClO can thus be expressed by Eqs. 19–22.

$$-\ln \frac{[RhB]}{[RhB]_0} = k_{RhB, SO_4^{\bullet-}}[SO_4^{\bullet-}]_{ss} + k_{RhB, \bullet OH}[{}^{\bullet}OH]_{ss} + k_{RhB, \bullet O_2}[{}^{1}O_2]_{ss}$$
(18)
+ $k'_{RCSS,HClO}$

where $k_{RhB,SO4}$, $k_{RhB,\bullet OH}$ and $k_{RhB,^1O2}$ are the second order rate constants for the reaction of RhB with SO_4 , OH and 1O_2 . The $k'_{RCSS,HCIO}$ represents the contribution of RCSs and HCIO to RhB degradation.

$$f_{SO_{4}^{\bullet-}} = \frac{k_{RhB, SO_{4}^{\bullet-}}[SO_{4}^{\bullet-}]_{ss}}{-\ln\frac{[RhB]}{[RhB]_{0}}}$$
(19)

$$f \cdot_{OH} = \frac{k_{RhB,} \cdot_{OH} [\cdot_{OH}]_{ss}}{-\ln \frac{[RhB]}{[RhB]_o}}$$
(20)

$$f_{{}^{1}O_{2}} = \frac{k_{RhB, {}^{1}O_{2}} {}^{1}O_{2} {}^{1}O_{2} {}^{1}}{-\ln \frac{[RhB]}{[RhB]_{0}}}$$
(21)

$$f_{RCSS,HClO} = 1 - f_{SO_4^{\bullet -}} - f_{OH} - f_{1O_2}$$
 (22)

where f_{SO_4} , f_{OH} , f_{OH} , f_{O2} , and $f_{RCS_8,HCIO}$ are the contributions ration of RhB degradation by SO_4 , OH, OH

The steady-state concentration of SO_4 —, *OH and 1O_2 were shown in Fig 4a–c. As the Cl⁻ concentration increased from 0 to 500 mM, the steady-state concentrations of SO_4 — and *OH decreased from 1.8×10^{-10} M s and 1.48×10^{-10} M s to 0.35×10^{-10} M s and 0.23×10^{-10} M s, respectively. Similarly, the contribution of SO_4 —, *OH to the RhB removal decreased from 28.1% and 14.1% to 1.7% and 0.4% (Fig. 4d). The steady-state concentration and contribution of 1O_2 exhibited a parabolic curve. With an increase in Cl⁻ concentration, the steady-state concentration of 1O_2 initially showed a slight increase from 0.72×10^{-8} M s to 0.74×10^{-8} M s, followed by a rapid decrease to 0.21×10^{-8} M s. In parallel, the contribution of 1O_2 increased from 52.8% to 60.7% and eventually decreased to 2.8%. On the other hand, the contribution of HClO and RCSs sharply increased from 5.1% to 95.0% with the increase of Cl⁻ concentration. These findings were consistent with the quenching experimental and EPR results.

Based on the above experimental results, with an increase in Cl⁻ concentration, the concentration of SO₄*-, *OH, as well as their contribution to the degradation of RhB, gradually decreased. ¹O₂ exhibited a dual trend, initially increasing and then decreasing, whereas HClO and RCSs showed an increasing trend.

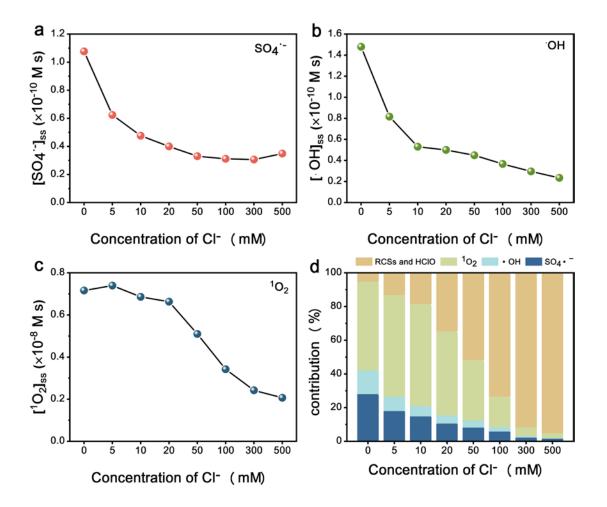


Fig. 4. The steady-state concentration and contribution of reactive oxygen species.

Experiment conditions: (a-d) [Catalyst] = 20 mg/L, [PMS] = 1 mM, [RhB]₀
= 20 mg/L, [Cl⁻] = 0-500 mM.

3.3 The role of catalyst

3.3.1 AOX formation

In the presence of C1⁻, numerous chlorinated byproducts were formed due to the RCSs and HClO (Eqs. 23–24) [55], which results into the formation of abundant AOX. As shown in Fig. 5a, the AOX concentrations under different [C1⁻] were detected, which increased from 0.067 to 0.457 mg/L with the enhancement of [C1⁻]

from 50 to 500 mM. While the addition of catalysts can significantly reduce the amount of AOX generated in the system, especially under high [C1⁻] of 300 mM and 500 mM, the concentration of AOX reduce 56.45% and 43.03%, respectively. In addition, compared with the PMS/C1⁻ system, the CoS@FeS/PMS/C1⁻ system showed a reduction of 20.4% and 25.1% in AOX concentrations produced by SMX and BPA, respectively. This indicates the versatility of the catalyst in inhibiting AOX formation (S19). Since HClO were estimated to be the dominant oxidants at 500 mM [C1⁻], the corresponding HClO concentrations were further determined. It was found that the HClO concentration increased as the [Cl⁻] increased, and the addition of catalysts could obviously reduce the amount of HClO, the decreasement became more obvious with the increasing [Cl⁻]. For instance, the HClO concentration decreased from 24.24 to 13.81 mg/L as the catalyst dosage increases from 0 to 20 mg/L, under 500 mM [Cl⁻] (Fig. 5b). On the one hand, the catalyst CoS@FeS could compete with Cl⁻ to react with HSO₅⁻, which may impact the generation of HClO. On the other hand, our previous studies have revealed that CoS@FeS has an abundance of sulfur vacancies (SVs) on catalyst surface, which availed the adsorption of O2 and consequently produce ¹O₂ along with H₂O₂ (Eqs. 16–17) [21]. Interestingly, literatures have reported that in-situ electrochemical synthesis or ex-situ addition of H₂O₂ could react with HClO (Eq.25), and minimize chlorinated disinfection by-products (Cl-DBPs) [56-60]. Based on this understanding, we hypothesize that the in-situ generation of H₂O₂ on the catalyst surface might lead to the consumption of

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HClO, ultimately leading to a decrease in AOX concentration. To validate this hypothesis, we conducted a series of comprehensive verification experiments.

$$R^{\bullet} + Cl_{2}^{\bullet -} \rightarrow RCl + Cl^{-}$$
 (23)

$$RH + HC1O \rightarrow RC1 + H_2O \tag{24}$$

$$H_2O_2 + HC1O \rightarrow H^+ + C1^- + H_2O + {}^1O_2$$
 (25)

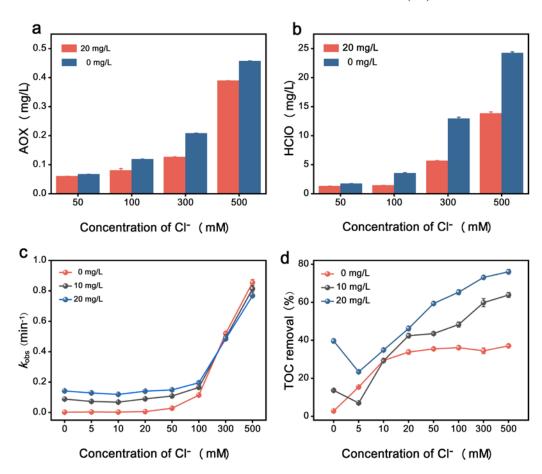


Fig. 5. Effect of catalyst dose on (a) AOX concentration, (b) HClO concentration, (c) degradation rate, and (d) mineralization of RhB. Experimental conditions: (a–d) [RhB]₀ = 20 mg/L, [PMS] = 1 mM, [Catalyst] = 0–20 mg/L, [Cl⁻] = 0–500 mM.

The concentration of in-situ generated H_2O_2 in the CoS@FeS system with different catalyst dosages were measured (Fig. 6a). Results showed that the

concentration of H₂O₂ in solution increased from 0.14 µmol/L to 9.43 µmol/L (in 80 min), with the catalyst dosage increased from 0 to 100 mg/L. To further confirm the origin of the in-situ generation of H₂O₂ on the surface of CoS@FeS, we tested the H₂O₂ concentration under O₂/air/N₂ atmosphere in 40 mg/L CoS@FeS solution (Fig. 6b). As expected, the amount of the generated H₂O₂ decreased obviously when the O₂ concentration declined. When under O2 atmosphere, the amount of H2O2 was 1.96/4.73 times of in air or nitrogen at 80 minutes. It revealed the O₂ concentration related closely with the in-situ generation of H_2O_2 . Moreover, the results show that the concentration of HClO decreased gradually as the amount of catalyst in the PMS/Cl⁻ system increased (Fig. 6c). Specifically, when the catalyst dosage was increased from 0 to 100 mg/L, the concentration of HClO decreased from 24.24 mg/L to 2.4 mg/L, which represents a decrease of 10.1 times. The experimental results presented above demonstrate that the interaction between catalyst and O2 leads to the formation of H₂O₂, which can impede the production of HClO.

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Next, to highlight the crucial role of SVs on the catalyst's surface in H₂O₂ production, we conducted a modification of the catalyst using NaBH₄, resulting in varying amounts of SVs. The catalysts modified by NaBH₄ at concentrations of 0, 0.05, and 0.1 mM were named as CoS@FeS-1, CoS@FeS-2, and CoS@FeS-3, respectively. The EPR spectra of SVs results revealed a gradual increase in the number of SVs on the catalyst's surface with the increase in NaBH₄ concentration (Fig. 6d). And the concentrations of ¹O₂ (S20) and H₂O₂ (Fig. 6e) exhibited

significant increases, which demonstrated the crucial role of SVs for the production of H_2O_2 . In particular, as the concentration of in-situ H_2O_2 production increased from 1.24 to 2.14 μ mol/L within 20 min, the concentration of HClO and AOX in the chlorine-containing system decreased by 68.2% and 50.6%, respectively (Fig. 6f, g).

To further demonstrate the important role of H₂O₂ in inhibiting AOX, we observed the changes in HClO and AOX by prolonging the contact time of the catalyst with O₂ and accumulating the in-situ production of H₂O₂. The results indicate that as the dosing time of the catalyst increases from 0 to 60 min, the accumulation of H₂O₂ increases from 0.19 to 2.65 μ mol/L (Fig. 6a). In parallel, the HClO concentration decreases from 13.81 to 6.39 mg/L, and the AOX concentration decreases significantly from 0.389 to 0.232 mg/L (Fig. 6h, i). Furthermore, to intuitively demonstrate the effect of H₂O₂ on inhibiting the formation of AOX, we directly added H₂O₂ to the CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ system and monitored its impact on HClO and AOX. As the concentration of H₂O₂ increased, the content of HClO decreased significantly (S21a). At a H₂O₂ dose of 1 mM, the AOX concentration dropped to 0.026 mg/L (S21b).

Above all, it could be concluded that the sulfur vacancies adsorbed O₂, via O₂•-and converted into ¹O₂, simultaneously in-situ produced H₂O₂, then quickly reacted with the formed HClO (Eq. 25), thus decreased the AOX concentration. This process may provide a potential strategy for reducing

the high levels of AOX and toxicity during the PMS oxidation in environments under high [Cl⁻].

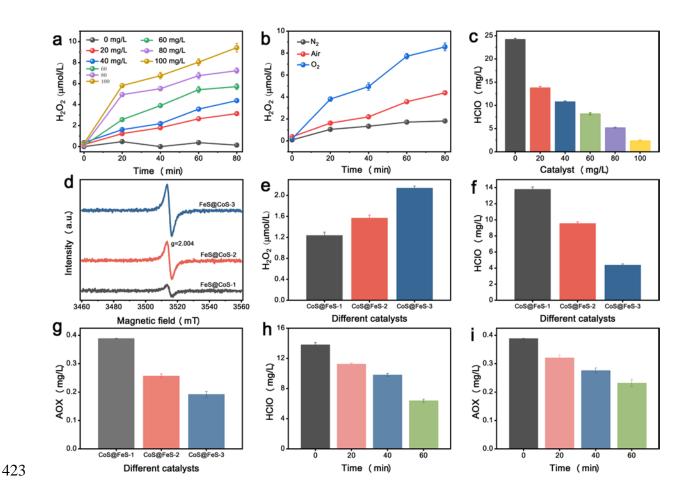


Fig. 6. Concentration of HClO and H₂O₂ detected. Experimental conditions: (a,

425 c) [Catalyst] = 0-100 mg/L, (b) [Catalyst] = 40 mg/L, (d-i) [Catalyst] = 20 mg/L;

 $(a-c, e-i) [Cl^-] = 500 \text{ mM}, (c-i) [PMS] = 1 \text{ mM}; (g, i) [RhB]_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}.$

3.3.2 Degradation rate

To clarify the contribution of CoS@FeS, the RhB removal under different catalyst dosages, in the presence of 0–500 mM [Cl⁻], were comparatively studied, as shown in Fig.5c. It was observed that increasing the catalyst dose had a noticeable advantageous impact on the degradation rate of RhB at low [Cl⁻] (0–50

mM) (Fig. 3a). However, this effect became limited when the Cl⁻ concentration was high (100–500 mM). For instance, when the catalyst dose was increased from 0 to 20 mg/L, the degradation rate of RhB increased significantly from 0.004 to 0.073 min⁻¹ at 5 mM [Cl $^-$]. Under 500 mM [Cl $^-$], the $k_{\rm obs}$ decreased slightly from 0.855 to 0.768 min⁻¹, indicated the ineffectiveness of the catalyst and the importance of HClO. Quenching and EPR experiments revealed that under low [Cl⁻] (5 mM), the main reactive oxygen species are SO₄, OH and O₂. Increasing the amount of catalyst dosage provides more active sites to generate ROSs, thus improved the degradation rate. Under a high concentration of Cl⁻ ([Cl⁻] = 500 mM), HClO becomes the main oxidizing substance in both the PMS/Cl⁻ and CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ systems. The presence of a catalyst reduces the amount of HClO in the system (Fig.5b), resulting in lower $k_{\rm obs}$ of RhB. Furthermore, in the PMS/Cl⁻ system, the degradation rate of RhB increases gradually as the concentration of Cl⁻ increases. This is mainly because without the addition of catalysts, the oxidants in the system are only HClO [32], which depends on the Cl⁻ concentrations [14].

3.3.3 Mineralization

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Previous studies indicated the complete removal of organic contaminants in AOPs may not represent the overall mineralization [61]. In Fig. 5d, it can be observed that without catalyst, the TOC removal increased with the [Cl⁻], until it reaches approximately 36% and remains at this level. However, in the presence of the catalyst, the mineralization decreased slightly from 0–5

mM [Cl⁻], but showed higher TOC removal for the entire [Cl⁻] range of 5-500 mM. The main reasons could be that the catalyst significantly inhibits the formation of AOX in saline systems, which are often toxic and difficult to degrade further. Earlier studies reported that the short-chain carboxylic intermediates are responsible for the excessive TOC in the reaction system [62]. Herein, the HPLC-MS method was used to analyze the RhB intermediates in the PMS/Cl⁻ system and found a large number of organic acids (S22), which was consistent with these findings [50]. As the only oxidizing substance in the PMS/Cl⁻ system was HClO, which has low reactivity with a carboxylic acid organic compound [13], thus caused insufficient mineralization of RhB. In the presence of the catalyst, the formed ¹O₂ enables further oxidative degradation of these intermediates. Despite no significant signal peaks of SO₄ and OH could be observed in the EPR capturing spectrum, which may be due to the low concentration level and fast decomposition rates under high Cl conditions [63], quenching tests revealed a little amount existence of the two species. SO₄. is electrophilic, and is very easy to react with the electron-donating groups (-NH₂, -R) on the RhB, thereby destroying the RhB. In addition, SO_4 is very oxidative with a redox potential of 2.6–3.1 V, which favors the opening of the benzene ring. Undoubtedly, SO4 and OH still worked in the mineralization of RhB and

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its intermediates. Therefore, the addition of the catalysts under high chlorine conditions can significantly increase the mineralization of RhB.

3.4 Intermediates and toxicity assessment

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HPLC-MS was employed to analyze the degradation products of RhB under different Cl⁻ concentrations and propose potential degradation pathways. Initially, the degradation pathway of RhB was examined in the absence of Cl⁻. Combined with the results of HPLC-MS and existing literature [14, 22, 64], three possible paths for RhB degradation were proposed, namely deethylation, carbon-carbon bond rupture and hydroxylation (S23 a). Moreover, the experimental results revealed the presence of various chlorinated by-products in the chlorine-containing systems, including $CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl^-$ ([Cl] = 5 mM), $CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl^-$ ([Cl] = 500 mM), and PMS/Cl⁻ ([Cl⁻] = 500 mM) systems (S23 b-e). This can be attributed to the addition of RCSs and HClO to RhB and its intermediates, leading to the formation of chlorinated by-products. Additionally, it was observed that the degradation products and pathways of RhB in CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ ([Cl⁻] = 500 mM) and PMS/Cl⁻ ([Cl⁻] = 500 mM) systems were similar (S23 c-d), indicating that the primary reactive oxygen species in the high-concentration Cl⁻ system was HClO.

The toxicity of RhB and its intermediates can be evaluated using luminescent bacteria assays, where higher luminescence inhibition indicates greater acute toxicity [11]. When Cl⁻ was absent, the luminescence inhibition of the RhB solution was

28.3%. However, when the solution contained a Cl⁻ concentration of 500 mM, the luminescence inhibition significantly increased to 76.8%. This rise in toxicity can be attributed to the low steric hindrance of the chlorinated byproduct, which allows it to easily penetrate the luminescent bacteria [65]. As a result, the acute toxicity of the solution escalates. According to our study, the introduction of a catalyst has been found to decrease the concentration of AOX (Fig. 5a). In order to investigate whether the catalyst can also reduce the acute toxicity of the reaction solution, we conducted toxicity measurements on the PMS/Cl⁻ system (Fig 7). The results revealed that the luminescence inhibition of PMS/Cl⁻ reached 98.7% when the Cl⁻ concentration was 500 mM, which was significantly higher than that of the CoS@FeS/PMS/Cl⁻ system. Therefore, the inclusion of catalysts effectively reduces the acute toxicity of chlorine-containing systems by lowering AOX concentrations.

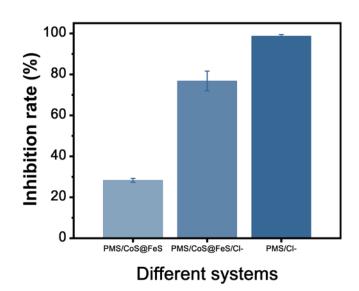


Fig.7. Acute biotoxicity assays of RhB in different systems. Experimental conditions: [Catalyst] = 0-20 mg/L, [PMS] = 1 mM, [RhB]₀ = 20 mg/L, [Cl⁻] = 0-500 mM.

4 Conclusions

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The treatment of organic contaminants in high Cl⁻ wastewater using PMS activation poses a challenge. In this study, we thoroughly investigated the impact of Cl on PMS activation and proposed a new mechanism to prevent the formation of AOX. Our research found that the CoS@FeS/PMS catalyst exhibited a dual effect on RhB removal, with low-concentration inhibition and high-concentration promotion. EPR capturing, quenching tests, and molecular probe experiments demonstrate that the concentration of Cl⁻ has a significant impact on the conversion of oxidative species. During exploration of the role of catalysts, we discovered that they not only improve RhB mineralization but also inhibit AOX. It could be concluded that the sulfur vacancies adsorbed O₂, via O₂• and converted into ¹O₂, simultaneously in-situ produced H₂O₂, quickly reacted with the formed HClO, thus decreased the AOX concentration. Therefore, our study provides new insights into the underlying mechanism of the ¹O₂-dominated system to inhibit the accumulation of AOX.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Liyuan Wu: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition; Chenjing Hou: Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing – original draft; Xin Wang: Software; Pengpeng Guo: Data curation; Xiaoran Zhang: Resources; Yi Jin: Resources; Yongwei Gong: Resources; Xudan Chen: Software; Haiyan Li: Reviewing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 52100001 and 51978032); the Youth Top Talents Training Program of the Beijing Municipal Education Commission (CIT&TCD201804052), the Youth Beijing Scholars program (No. 024), The Graduate Innovation Program of Beijing University of Civil Engineering and Architecture (PG2023069).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

541 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

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