



# Heterogeneous activation of peroxymonosulfate by a biochar-supported $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ composite for efficient degradation of chloramphenicols<sup>☆</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

Herein, a new peroxymonosulfate (PMS) activation system was established using a biochar (BC)-supported  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  composite ( $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC) as a catalyst to enhance chloramphenicols degradation. The effects of the amount of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  load on the BC,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC amount, PMS dose and solution pH on the degradation of chloramphenicol (CAP) were investigated. The results showed that the BC support could well disperse  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  particles. The degradation of CAP (30 mg/L) was enhanced in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system with the apparent degradation rate constant increased to 5.1, 19.4 and 7.2 times of that in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ /PMS, BC/PMS and PMS-alone control systems, respectively. Nearly complete removal of CAP was achieved in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system under the optimum conditions of 10 wt%  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading on BC, 0.2 g/L  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC, 10 mM PMS and pH 7 within 10 min. The  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ /BC composites had a synergistic effect on the catalytic activity possibly because the conducting BC promoted electron transfer between the Co species and  $\text{HSO}_5^-$  and thus accelerated the  $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$  redox cycle. Additionally, over  $85.0 \pm 1.5\%$  of CAP was still removed in the 10th run. Although both  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  were identified as the main active species,  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  played a dominant role in CAP degradation. In addition, two other chloramphenicols, i.e., florfenicol (FF) and thiamphenicol (TAP), were also effectively degraded with percentages of  $86.4 \pm 1.3\%$  and  $71.8 \pm 1.0\%$ , respectively. This study provides a promising catalyst  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC to activate PMS for efficient and persistent antibiotics degradation.

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## 1. Introduction

Chloramphenicols, as broad-spectrum antibiotics with good antibacterial activity, have been widely used to treat bacterial infections in animal productions (Butler et al., 2016). As a consequence of the high consumption of these antibiotics, they are inevitably discharged into the environment, where they may pose a health risk to humans due to their hematotoxicity, embryotoxicity

and potential genotoxicity (Guo et al., 2017). Moreover, the presence of chloramphenicols in the environment ultimately leads to the formation of antibiotic resistant genes that are also considered as pollutants (Li et al., 2013). Although the use of chloramphenicols in food-producing animals in North America and European Union member countries has been severely restricted, they are still being used in developing nations due to their low production cost (Deng et al., 2017a; Liang et al., 2013). However, chloramphenicols cannot be effectively degraded by conventional wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) and thus end up in environments (Dong et al., 2017; Du et al., 2019). Recently, chloramphenicols have been frequently detected in the environmental waters of China (Li et al., 2016). Therefore, establishing an efficient method to remove

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chloramphenicols from wastewater is urgently needed.

Recently, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) based on the generation of sulfate radical ( $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ ) have been proven to be effective in degrading antibiotics (Mahdi-Ahmed and Chiron, 2014). Compared to hydroxyl radicals ( $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$ ) produced from the Fenton process,  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  exhibited a higher standard reduction potential (2.5–3.1 V), more selectivity and independence from pH (Feng et al., 2016; Qi et al., 2018).  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  is formed through electron transfer by transition metal activation of peroxymonosulfate (PMS,  $\text{HSO}_5^-$ ).  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  based catalysts such as  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  are considered the most efficient in PMS activation for  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation (Anipsitakis et al., 2006).  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  exhibits potential advantages in PMS heterogeneous activation for antibiotics degradation due to its high efficiency over a wide pH range, low dosage, high stability and reusability (Chen et al., 2008). For example, Deng et al. (2017b) reported that chloramphenicol (CAP) was almost completely removed by a  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ /PMS system at neutral pH. Nevertheless,  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  leaching from  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  is frequently observed, which may lead to secondary pollution in treated water. Furthermore, cobalt loss decreases the catalytic efficiency of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  for PMS activation. To overcome these drawbacks, many attempts to anchor  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  onto supporting materials have been reported and shown promising outcomes (Yang et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2019).

Biochar (BC) is a carbonaceous material produced from the pyrolysis of carbon-rich biomass. Its porous structure makes BC a promising support that is easily accessible to metal and metal oxide particles, and that would increase their surface-to-volume ratio and thus promote their catalytic activity for PMS activation (Yan et al., 2015). For example, compared to zerovalent iron, BC supported zerovalent iron showed enhanced activity toward activation of PMS for the degradation of bisphenol A (Jiang et al., 2019). Previous studies have demonstrated that carbon-based materials used as supports can not only reduce  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  leaching from  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , but also facilitate surface Co-OH complex formation, which is considered the critical step in PMS activation (Yao et al., 2012). Additionally, the persistent free radicals in BC can react with PMS to produce  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  (Jiang et al., 2019). Thus, BC-supported  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  may have great potential in activating PMS for chloramphenicols removal, and this ability needs to be evaluated.

In this study, a BC supported  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  composite ( $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC) was synthesized and used as catalysts to activate PMS for chloramphenicols removal. Three chloramphenicols, i.e., CAP, florfenicol (FF) and thiamphenicol (TAP), were selected and studied in this study. First, the morphology and structure of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were characterized using scanning electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electronic microscope (TEM). Second, the oxidation performance of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system toward chloramphenicols was examined. The catalytic activity of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC for PMS activation was characterized using linear sweep voltammetry (LSV), chronoamperometry (CA) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The effects of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC amount, PMS dose and pH on the removal of chloramphenicols were also examined. Third, the radicals present in the system were identified by electron spin resonance (ESR) and quenching tests. Finally, the reusability of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC catalyst was examined.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Chemical and materials

$\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. (Shanghai, China). CAP, TAP, FF and PMS (Oxone,  $\text{HSO}_5^- \cdot 0.5\text{KHSO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 4.7% active oxygen) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (purity > 99%). BC was produced from the pyrolysis of wheat straw (Sanli New Energy Co., China). All the

reagents used in this study were at least of analytical grade.

### 2.2. Synthesis of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite

The  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite was prepared with a modified coprecipitation method according to the procedure previously reported by Xie et al. (2018). Briefly, 2.0 g of  $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was dissolved in 100 mL of pure water. Additionally, 20 g of BC powder was added to 200 mL of pure water and placed in an ultrasonic bath for 1 h to completely disperse the BC. Then, the  $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  solution was gradually added to the BC dispersion with magnetic stirring. The pH value of the resulting mixed solution was adjusted to  $\geq 9.0$  by adding  $\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (>25 wt%). After reacting for 12 h and centrifugation, the precipitate was washed with pure water repeatedly to obtain a suspension with a pH value of 7.0. The resulting precipitate was dried at 70 °C for 6 h and calcined in air at 450 °C for 4 h. Then, the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite was obtained. The loading amount of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  in the composite was 10 wt%.  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composites with different loading amounts of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  (5 wt% and 20 wt%) were also synthesized as controls.

### 2.3. Characterization of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite

The morphological information and elemental composition of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were obtained using a field-emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, S4800, Hitachi Co., Japan) equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) (Thermo Fisher Inc., USA). The size distribution of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC was observed by a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM-1400, JEOL Co., Japan). The metal states on the surface of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were determined by an X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (ESCALAB 250Xi, Thermo Fisher Inc., USA). X-ray diffraction (XRD, X' Pert PRO MPD, Nederland) patterns of the samples were obtained using an X' Pert PRO MPD Trax theta-theta diffractometer (Philips Co., Nederland) equipped with  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation. Fourier transform infra-red spectra (FTIR) were recorded on Thermo Fisher Nicolet iS 10 FTIR system. The BET surface area of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  was determined using a surface area and pore size distribution analyzer (Micromeritics ASAP 2460). The electrochemical experiments were carried out using a CHI660 electrochemical workstation (Chenhua, China) with a traditional three-electrode system. The working electrode was a glassy carbon (GC) electrode that was coated with the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite using a Nafion solution (5 wt%) as the binder and carbon black as the supporting layer. A Ag/AgCl electrode served as the reference electrode, and a Pt thin film electrode acted as the counter electrode. The GC electrode was pretreated by polishing and rinsing prior to use. LSV was performed in a 50 mM phosphate buffer solution (PBS, pH = 7.0) containing 10 mM PMS at a scanning rate of 25 mV/s from 1 to -2 V. CA was performed by applying a constant potential of -0.6 V in PBS with consecutive injection of PMS. EIS was conducted over a frequency range from 0.01 Hz to 100 kHz at -0.6 V with a perturbation signal of 5 mV in PBS containing PMS.

### 2.4. Experimental procedures

The degradation experiments were conducted in 250 mL conical flasks with magnetic stirring at  $26 \pm 2$  °C. Reactions were initiated by adding PMS (2–15 mM) into 10 mM PBS with pH values ranging from 3 to 11 containing the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC catalysts (0.05–0.8 g/L). The initial concentrations of the three chloramphenicols were 30 mg/L. Aqueous samples were withdrawn at different time intervals and then immediately added with excessive sodium thiosulfate before analysis. For comparative purposes, chloramphenicols degradation in  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ /PMS, BC/PMS and PMS alone systems was conducted as

controls. The quenching agents methanol (MeOH) and tert-butyl alcohol (TBA) were used to explore the oxidation mechanism. All of the above experiments were conducted in triplicate.

### 2.5. Analytical methods

The concentration of antibiotics over time was determined with a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, 1260 Infinity, Agilent Co., USA) with a photo-diode array detector. For CAP analysis, the mobile phase was methanol and water (65:35) at a wavelength of 275 nm. FF and TAP were analyzed with a mobile phase of methanol-water (40:60) (v/v) at a wavelength of 225 nm. The flow rate of the mobile phase was set as 1 mL/min. Total organic carbon (TOC) was measured using a TOC-VCPH analyzer (Shimadzu Co., Japan). Electron spin resonance (ESR) spectrometry was performed using a JES-FA200 ESR spectrometer. 5,5-Dimethyl-1-pyrrolidine N-oxide (DMPO) was used as a spin-trapping agent for  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$ . Radicals detection was conducted in 50 mM PBS.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite

XRD patterns of BC,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC are presented in Fig. 1(a). For BC, the diffraction peaks at  $2\theta$  of  $21.0^\circ$  and  $26.8^\circ$  were attributed to the presence of  $\text{SiO}_2$ , and the peaks at  $2\theta$  of  $28.2^\circ$ ,  $29.6^\circ$ ,  $39.7^\circ$  and  $41.8^\circ$  were attributed to the presence of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (Yuan et al., 2011).  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  shows a cubic spinel phase with peaks at  $2\theta = 19.5^\circ$ ,  $31.6^\circ$ ,  $37.16^\circ$ ,  $38.9^\circ$ ,  $45.1^\circ$ ,  $55.8^\circ$ ,  $59.7^\circ$  and  $65.6^\circ$ , which can be indexed to the known cubic  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  phase (JCPDS 42-1647). Two peaks for  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were observed at  $2\theta$  of  $31.5^\circ$  and  $36.8^\circ$ , which can be assigned to the (220) and (311) planes, respectively, of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ . Other characteristic Co peaks were not found, probably due to the low loading amount and high dispersion of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  (Xie et al.,

2018).

The atomic composition and elemental valence states of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were confirmed by XPS analysis. The full XPS spectra of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  show that the main elements in  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC are Co, O, C and Si and that  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  contains only Co and O (Fig. 1(b)). The Si in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC is ascribed to  $\text{SiO}_2$ , which was also proven by XRD analysis. The two sharp characteristic peaks for  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC that appeared at 781.3 and 796.3 eV are ascribed to Co  $2p_{3/2}$  and Co  $2p_{1/2}$ , respectively (Fig. 1(c)), confirming the presence of spinel  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ . The Co  $2p$  spectra were deconvoluted into four peaks at 781.1, 782.9, 796.2 and 799.5 eV. The peaks at 782.9 and 799.5 eV can be ascribed to  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , and the peaks at 781.1 and 796.2 eV can be assigned to  $\text{Co}^{3+}$  (Deng et al., 2017b). The O 1s XPS spectra can be deconvoluted into two peaks at 530.9 and 533.2 eV, which are assigned to lattice oxygen ( $\text{O}_{\text{latt}}$ ) and adsorbed oxygen ( $\text{O}_{\text{ads}}$ ), respectively (Fig. 1(d)) (Bai et al., 2013). The  $\text{O}_{\text{ads}}$  will be transferred to  $\text{CoOH}^+$ , which is regarded as the rate-limiting step for PMS activation (Hu et al., 2017a). Compared to the spectrum of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , the spectrum of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC exhibited almost no chemical shift. However, the intensity of the Co peak in  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC was weaker than that in  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  due to the low loading amount of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  on the surface of BC, which is consistent with the XRD analysis. In addition, the functional groups of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC were also analyzed by FTIR (Fig. S1). The peak at  $1020\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was assigned to straight chain C-C stretching (Yuan et al., 2011).

The morphological information of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite was determined by SEM and TEM. As shown in Fig. S2(a), BC had a texture structure that endowed it with a large specific surface area, which favored the anchoring of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ . The BET surface area of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  was  $76.4$  and  $10.8\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ , respectively. The dark portion in the TEM image of the BC was attributed to carbon particle electron scattering (Fig. S2(b)) (Essandoh et al., 2015). Fig. S2(c) shows that  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  has a spherical morphology with an average diameter of 40 nm; however, these  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  particles underwent

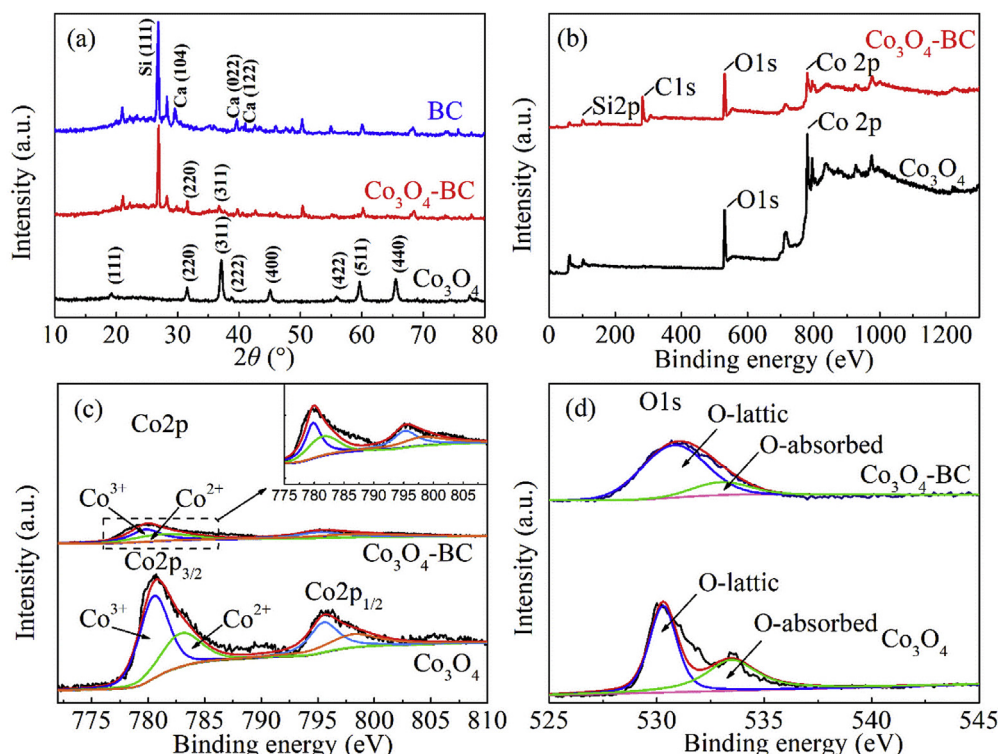


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of BC,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC (a) and XPS full scan spectra (b), Co  $2p$  XPS spectra (c) and O  $1s$  XPS spectra (d) of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC.

some agglomeration, which is in agreement with the TEM observations (Fig. S2 (d)). It is clearly observed that the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles were dispersed uniformly on the surface of BC (Fig. S2 (e)) and that the size of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was less than 40 nm according to the TEM image of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC composite (Fig. S2 (f)). Multi-elemental EDS mapping images of Co, C and O in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC composite are shown in Fig. S3. The bright spots evidenced a homogeneous distribution of Co in the field of view of the cross-section. In addition, the EDS results show that cobalt, carbon, oxygen, silicon, aluminum and magnesium are present in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC composite (Fig. S4). These results further confirmed the presence of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC composite.

### 3.2. Electrochemical behaviors of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC for PMS activation

Electrochemical techniques including LSV, CA and EIS were performed to characterize the improved catalytic activity of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC for PMS activation. The current increased for both Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with the addition of PMS (Fig. 2(a)). However, for Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC, the current was increased immediately after adding PMS at an earlier stage of the CA experiment, meaning that PMS was quickly transformed to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup>. The maximum current density of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC was 1.76 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, which was higher than that of 1.21 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. In addition, the LSV results also showed that the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC electrode had a higher current density than the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> electrode (Fig. 2(b)). These results suggested that the electrons transferred more easily from Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC to PMS than those from Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and that Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC possessed superior catalytic activity toward PMS activation. This improved catalytic activity is possibly because conducting BC lowered the electron transfer resistance between Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC and PMS, which was further suggested by the EIS results in the following discussion.

Nyquist plots express impedance with a real part and an imaginary part as a semicircle (Fig. 2(c)). The impedance at the high frequency limit is the ohmic resistance, which is affected by the electrode materials (He and Mansfeld, 2009). The ohmic resistance of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC (11.2 Ω) is lower than that of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (21.2 Ω), indicating that BC reduced the ohmic resistance. The diameter of the semicircle is the charge transfer resistance. The charge transfer of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC is 328.8 Ω, which is much lower than that of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (2218.2 Ω), suggesting a faster electron transfer rate between Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC and PMS. These results indicated that compared to BC and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC possessed superior catalytic activity for PMS activation.

### 3.3. Chloramphenicols degradation in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC/PMS system

Three chloramphenicols, including CAP, TAP and FF, were selected as the target contaminants to investigate the catalytic oxidation properties of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC/PMS system. These three chloramphenicols were effectively degraded in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC/PMS system with 10 mM PMS and 0.4 g/L Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC, with degradation percentages of 97.6 ± 1.2%, 71.8 ± 1.0% and 86.4 ± 1.3% for CAP, TAP and FF, respectively (Fig. 3(a)). This is because chloramphenicols with hydroxyl groups usually have low ionization potential values and tend to be easily oxidized by SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup> (Hu et al., 2017b; Luo et al., 2017). The chloramphenicols degradation process was described by the pseudo-first order kinetics equation:

$$\ln\left(\frac{C}{C_0}\right) = -k_{app}t \tag{1}$$

where C<sub>0</sub> is the initial concentration of chloramphenicols, C is the chloramphenicols concentration at time t, and k<sub>app</sub> is the apparent rate constant.

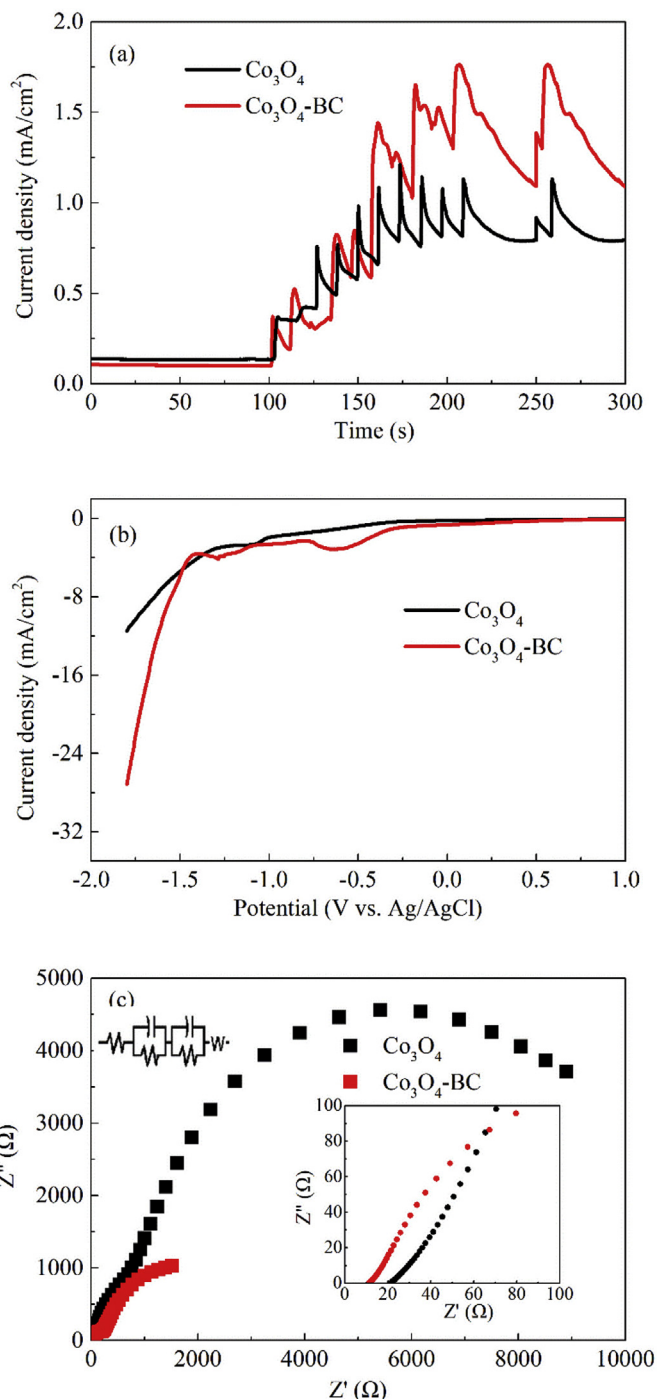
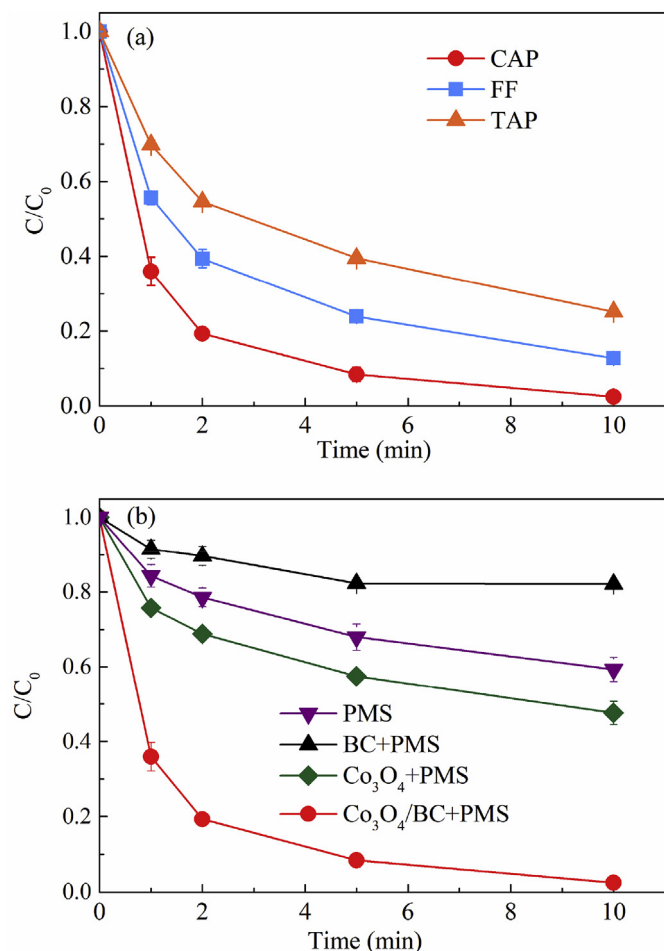


Fig. 2. CA curves (a), LSV curves (b) and Nyquist plot (c) of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC. Experimental conditions: [Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>] = 0.3 g/cm<sup>2</sup>, [Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC] = 0.3 g/cm<sup>2</sup> pH = 7.0 (50 mM phosphate buffer) for (a); [PMS] = 10 mM, pH = 7.0 (50 mM phosphate buffer) for (b) and (c).

The k<sub>app</sub> values of CAP, TAP and FF were 0.3361, 0.1151 and 0.1793 min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. These results suggested that CAP was preferentially degraded over the other two chloramphenicols in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC/PMS system. This selective catalytic oxidation by the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-BC/PMS system was significantly influenced by the physicochemical properties and substituents of the chloramphenicols (Li et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, the TOC decreased by 45.2 ± 2.0%, 33.9 ± 2.5% and 20.3 ± 1.6% for CAP, TAP and FF, respectively (Fig. S5). In the following experiments, CAP was



**Fig. 3.** Degradation of CAP, TAP and FF in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system (a), and comparison of CAP degradation by BC-,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ - and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ -activated PMS and PMS alone. Experimental conditions:  $[\text{PMS}] = 10 \text{ mM}$ ,  $[\text{CAP}] = 30 \text{ mg/L}$ ,  $[\text{TAP}] = 30 \text{ mg/L}$ ,  $[\text{FF}] = 30 \text{ mg/L}$ ,  $[\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}] = 0.2 \text{ g/L}$ ,  $[\text{BC}] = 0.2 \text{ g/L}$ ,  $[\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4] = 0.2 \text{ g/L}$ ,  $\text{pH} = 7.0$  (50 mM phosphate buffer).

studied as a target chloramphenicols to investigate the degradation performance and mechanism of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system because the reactivity of CAP with different reactive species is well-documented.

For comparative purposes, CAP degradation in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$ ,  $\text{BC/PMS}$  and  $\text{PMS}$ -alone systems was also investigated. As shown in Fig. 3(b), for the pure  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  catalyst,  $45.4 \pm 3.2\%$  of CAP was degraded within 10 min. For the pure BC, the degradation of CAP reached  $17.9 \pm 0.1\%$  in 10 min, indicating that pure BC is catalytically active possibly because BC contains functional groups such as semiquinone (Wang and Wang, 2019). In addition, several control experiments were conducted and showed that no significant adsorption of CAP on either BC or  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  surfaces occurred (Fig. S6). In comparison, the degradation of CAP in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system was remarkably improved with a removal percentage of  $97.6 \pm 1.2\%$  under the same conditions, indicating the higher efficiency of PMS activation by  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  than by pure  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  and BC. Furthermore, the degradation efficiency remained at a considerable level even at high concentrations of CAP in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system (Fig. S7). However, only approximately  $35.5 \pm 3.2\%$  of CAP was degraded in the  $\text{PMS}$ -alone system. It has been reported that unactivated PMS could directly react with organic compounds via nonradical pathways, but this direct reaction was highly dependent on the solution pH and ionic strength (Yang et al., 2018). The  $k_{\text{app}}$  value of CAP in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system was  $0.3361$

$\text{min}^{-1}$ , which was 5.1, 7.2 and 19.4 times greater than the value in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$  ( $0.0664 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{PMS}$ -alone ( $0.0467 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{BC/PMS}$  ( $0.0173 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) systems, respectively. Similar results were also obtained for the TOC removal rates. The  $k_{\text{TOC}}$  values of CAP were  $0.0523$ ,  $0.0252$ ,  $0.0085$  and  $0.0217 \text{ min}^{-1}$  in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$ ,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$ ,  $\text{BC/PMS}$  and  $\text{PMS}$ -alone systems, respectively (Fig. S8).

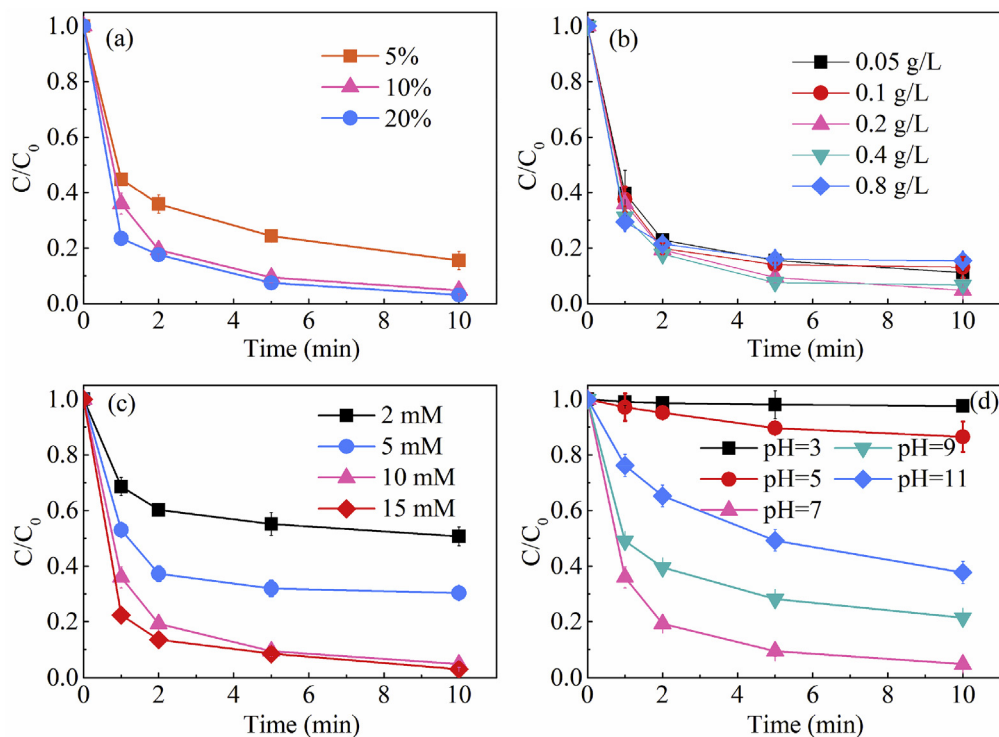
Although BC exhibited a limited ability for PMS activation, it acted as a supporting material that significantly promoted the catalytic activity of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ . This synergistic effect is possibly because (1) BC provides a large surface area for the dispersal of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles, which can prevent the agglomeration of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles into large particles and obstruct the facile loss of catalytic activity, and (2) the BC with a unique electronic structure and fast electron migration property may accelerate electron transfer between surface  $\text{CoO}$  and  $\text{Co}_2\text{O}_3$ , which is beneficial for  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation (Kappler et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2018). This finding was in accordance with previous reports, in which a  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/reduced graphene oxide}$  composite was demonstrated to be much more reactive than pure  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  toward PMS activation for phenol degradation (Yao et al., 2012).

### 3.4. Influential factors on the catalytic activity of $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$

This study further examined the effects of the amount of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  load in the composite,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  amount, PMS dose, solution pH and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration on the performance of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system. Fig. 4(a) shows that CAP degradation was slightly inhibited at a low  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading (5 wt%), possibly because of less catalytic active sites for PMS activation to generate  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ . An increase in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading amount resulted in accelerated CAP degradation. As mentioned above,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , as the main active species in  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  played a crucial role in the PMS activation process; thus, more  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  provided extra active sites and enhanced the catalytic activity for PMS activation. However, further increasing the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading amount had a negligible effect on the final removal level of CAP with  $97.6 \pm 1.2\%$  and  $96.8 \pm 0.1\%$  for the 10 wt% and 20 wt%  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading amounts, respectively. Generally, high nanoparticles loading will induce  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  aggregation, which may not be beneficial for the catalytic activity of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ . In addition, the greater loading of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  on BC may reduce the surface area of the catalyst. Similarly, the degradation efficiency of CAP increased with increasing  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  composite amount (Fig. 4(b)). However, when the composite amount further increased to  $0.8 \text{ g/L}$ , the removal percentage declined from  $95.4 \pm 3.0\%$  to  $84.6 \pm 2.1\%$ , which may be explained by the excess catalyst causing ineffective PMS consumption (Guan et al., 2013). This finding was consistent with our previous study, in which the amount of  $\text{MnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  affected the generation efficiency of  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  in the  $\text{MnFe}_2\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$  system and a further rise in the amount of  $\text{MnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  adversely influenced  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation (Xu et al., 2019). These results indicated that the optimal  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading amount on BC and the optimal  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  composite amount were 10 wt% and  $0.2 \text{ g/L}$ , respectively.

It was obvious that CAP degradation rates increased remarkably with increasing PMS dose, probably due to the accelerated  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation at a high PMS dose (Fig. 4(c)). The removal percentage of CAP also increased from  $49.3 \pm 3.4\%$  to  $97.6 \pm 1.2\%$  as the PMS dose increased from  $2 \text{ mM}$  to  $10 \text{ mM}$ . However, at a higher PMS dose ( $15 \text{ mM}$ ), the CAP removal percentage exhibited a negligible increase, which might be attributed to the  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  scavenging effect caused by excess PMS (Gong et al., 2018).

Generally, the solution pH affects the degradation performance because it greatly affects the radical generation process and the speciation of contaminants. Fig. 4(d) shows that CAP degradation was significantly inhibited under alkaline conditions, with  $k_{\text{app}}$  declining from  $0.3361 \text{ min}^{-1}$  to  $0.1273$  and  $0.0896 \text{ min}^{-1}$  as the pH



**Fig. 4.** Effects of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading amount on BC (a),  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC composite amount (b), PMS dose (c) and pH (d) on CAP degradation in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system. Experimental conditions: [CAP] = 30 mg/L [PMS] = 10 mM, [ $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC] = 0.2 g/L, pH = 7.0 for (a); [PMS] = 10 mM, pH = 7.0 for (b); [ $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC] = 0.2 g/L, pH = 7.0 for (c); [PMS] = 10 mM, [ $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC] = 0.2 g/L for (d).

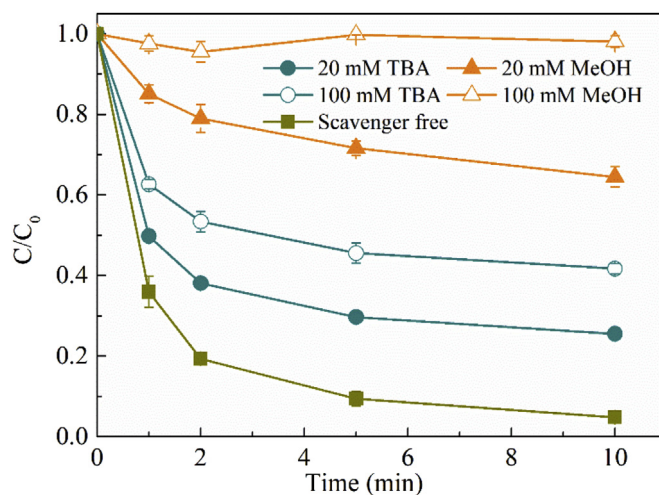
value increased from 7 to 9 and 11, respectively. It has been reported that under alkaline conditions, a large amount of  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  is generated and plays a primary role in the degradation process (Nie et al., 2019). As mentioned above, the standard reduction potential of  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  is lower than that of  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ . This difference may explain the decrease in CAP degradation under alkaline conditions. This finding was consistent with previous reports, in which  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation became difficult in a  $\text{MnO}_2$ /PMS system under alkaline conditions (Eslami et al., 2018). However, CAP degradation nearly ceased as the pH value decreased from 7 to 3, possibly because  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_5$  is the main form of PMS under acidic pH conditions, according to the  $\text{pK}_a$  value of PMS ( $\text{pK}_a = 9.4$ ), and this species would obstruct the  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation process (Gong et al., 2018).

Additionally,  $\text{Cl}^-$  is considered a rate-limiting factor in  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ -based processes due to its scavenging effect (Ghanbari and Moradi, 2017). Therefore, the effects of the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration on CAP degradation were also investigated, as shown in Fig. S9. The degradation efficiency of CAP decreased slightly with increasing  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration within the range of 5–15 g/L, possibly because BC can adsorb  $\text{Cl}^-$  and reduce its scavenging effect (Dai et al., 2014). Furthermore, Co cation modified BC is a good anionic adsorbent for  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Novais et al., 2018). However, the removal percentage of CAP decreased to  $79.2 \pm 1.5\%$  when the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration was further increased to 20 g/L, which may be explained by the high concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$  exceeding the adsorption capacity of BC.

### 3.5. Mechanism of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system for CAP degradation

$\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  are usually regarded as the main reactive radicals for contaminant oxidation in PMS activation. To determine the possible radicals present in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system, scavenging experiments were performed using MeOH and TBA as radical scavengers. MeOH can quench both  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  ( $k_{\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}} = 1.6\text{--}7.7 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $k_{\text{OH}^\bullet} = 9.7 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), while

TBA is an effective radical quencher for  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  only ( $3.8\text{--}7.6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) (Tang et al., 2018). According to the different reaction rate constants of the quenchers, the contributions of  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  to CAP degradation can be distinguished. As shown in Fig. 5, it can be clearly seen that both MeOH and TBA affected CAP degradation in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system. When 20 mM TBA was added to the system, CAP degradation was inhibited with the  $k_{\text{app}}$  decreasing from  $0.3361 \text{ min}^{-1}$  to  $0.1154 \text{ min}^{-1}$ . Moreover, further inhibition was observed ( $0.0687 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) when the TBA concentration was increased to 100 mM. Compared with TBA, MeOH induced a more significant inhibition of CAP degradation with the  $k_{\text{app}}$  decreasing to  $0.0381 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (20 mM

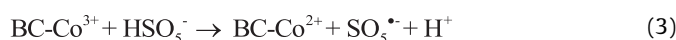


**Fig. 5.** Effect of methanol (MeOH) and tert-butanol (TBA) on the degradation of CAP in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC/PMS system. Experimental conditions: [PMS] = 10 mM, [CAP] = 30 mg/L, [ $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ -BC] = 0.2 g/L, pH = 7.0 (50 mM phosphate buffer).

MeOH), which was lower than the value observed with a similar concentration of TBA. CAP was hardly degraded ( $k_{app} = 0.0049 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) in the presence of 100 mM MeOH, indicating that most of the free radicals were quenched.

The generated radicals were further confirmed by EPR with DMPO as a spin trap for radicals. A seven-line EPR spectrum was observed in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system (Fig. S10). This signal was assigned to DMPOX, which is an oxidized adduct formed through the oxidation of DMPO by free radicals (Fontmorin et al., 2016). As DMPO tends to be oxidized by radicals, the EPR signal might be ascribed to the oxidation capacity of  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  during the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ -mediated PMS activation process. In addition, the intensity of the DMPOX signal in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system was higher than that in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$  system, indicating a higher concentration of free radicals, which further supported the finding that the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system better induced CAP degradation. These results suggested that both  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  were produced and participated in the reaction, while  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  played a more dominant role than  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  in the degradation of CAP.

The mechanism of PMS activation by  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  was illustrated as follows: (1)  $\text{BC-Co}^{2+}$  donates electrons that break the O-H and O-O bands of  $\text{HSO}_5^-$  and generate  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  (Eq. (2)); (2)  $\text{BC-Co}^{3+}$  is then reduced to  $\text{BC-Co}^{2+}$  by  $\text{HSO}_5^-$ , along with the production of  $\text{SO}_5^{\bullet-}$  (Eq. (3)); (3) BC may activate  $\text{HSO}_5^-$  and generate  $\text{SO}_5^{\bullet-}$  (Eq. (4)); and (4)  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  can be generated through the reaction of  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{OH}^-$  (Eqs. (5) and (6)) (Bahrami et al., 2018). Here, BC plays a significant role in the electron transfer between the Co species and  $\text{HSO}_5^-$  and thus enhances the  $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$  redox cycle, which allowed the catalytic action of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  to work successively. It has already been proven that  $\text{SO}_5^{\bullet-}$  (1.1 V) is a weaker radical species than  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  (2.5–3.1 V) and cannot effectively oxidize contaminants (Rodríguez-Chueca et al., 2017). This phenomenon may explain the poor degradation performance of CAP in the BC/PMS system.



### 3.6. Reusability of $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$

To evaluate the catalytic stability of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ , ten successive cycles of degradation were performed, as shown in Fig. 6. The  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system achieved effective CAP degradation with removal percentages of  $97.8 \pm 1.4\%$  and  $85.0 \pm 1.5\%$  in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> cycles, respectively, within 10 min. However, CAP degradation rate recovered gradually in the last consecutive runs, and further studies are still needed to optimize reusability of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ . Furthermore, another ten successive cycles of degradation were carried out and similar tendency was obtained. Based on the above results, it is clear that the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  composite has potential as a PMS activation catalyst for stable and long-term reuse.

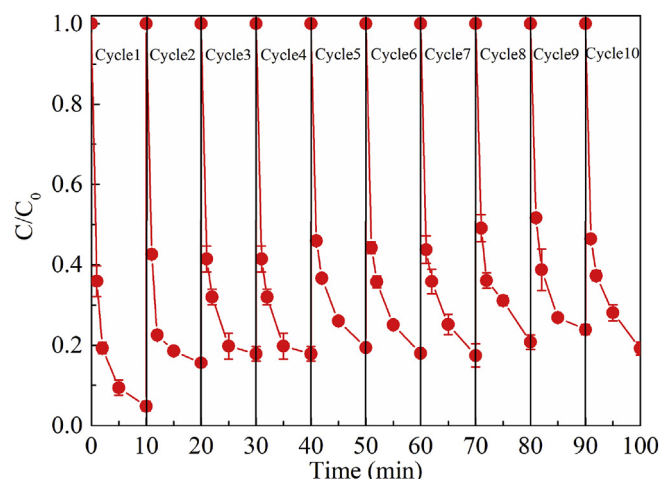


Fig. 6. Catalytic property of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  for cyclic use. Experimental conditions:  $[\text{PMS}] = 10 \text{ mM}$ ,  $[\text{CAP}] = 30 \text{ mg/L}$ ,  $[\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}] = 0.2 \text{ g/L}$ ,  $\text{pH} = 7.0$  (50 mM phosphate buffer).

## 4. Conclusions

In this study, an efficient catalyst,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ , was synthesized to activate PMS for chloramphenicol degradation. The active radical species were identified through radical quenching tests and ESR. The effects of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading on BC,  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  amount, PMS doses and solution pH on antibiotics degradation were examined. The catalytic activity and stability of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  were also investigated. The major findings are summarized as follows:

- (1)  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  exhibited much better catalytic activity for PMS decomposition than  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , thus resulting in superior degradation of CAP in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system, in which the apparent degradation rate constant was 5.1, 19.4 and 7.2 times that in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{/PMS}$ , BC/PMS and PMS-alone systems, respectively. In addition, FF and TAP were also effectively degraded in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system at percentages of  $86.4 \pm 1.3\%$  and  $71.8 \pm 1.0\%$ , respectively. Furthermore, other organic compounds besides chloramphenicol may also be degraded in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system.
- (2) The use of 10 wt%  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  loading on BC, 0.2 g/L  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$ , 10 mM PMS and pH 7 yielded nearly complete removal of CAP with 10 min of reaction time. CAP degradation was considerably inhibited under extremely acidic or basic conditions. The removal efficiency of CAP slightly decreased when the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration increased to 20 g/L. Moreover, over  $85.0 \pm 1.5\%$  of CAP was still removed in the 10th run, indicating that  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC}$  possessed good reusability and stability in long-term applications.
- (3) Both  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{OH}^{\bullet}$  were produced in the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-BC/PMS}$  system, and  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  played a dominant role in CAP degradation. Conducting BC promoted electron transfer between the Co species and  $\text{HSO}_5^-$ , provided a large surface area for the dispersal of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  and accelerated the  $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$  redox cycle, leading to a synergistic effect on the catalytic activity.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.113610>.

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