

1 **Evidence of cathodic peroxydisulfate activation via**  
2 **electrochemical reduction at Fe(II) sites of magnetite-decorated**  
3 **porous carbon: Application to dye degradation in water**

4 S. Mirehbar<sup>a</sup>, S. Fernández-Velayos<sup>a</sup>, E. Mazario<sup>a</sup>, N. Menéndez<sup>a</sup>, P. Herrasti<sup>a</sup>,  
5 F.J. Recio<sup>a,\*</sup>, I. Sirés<sup>b,\*\*</sup>

6 *<sup>a</sup> Departamento de Química Física Aplicada, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Autónoma*  
7 *de Madrid, C/Francisco Tomás y Valiente, 7, Cantoblanco, 28049 Madrid, Spain*

8 *<sup>b</sup> Laboratori d'Electroquímica dels Materials i del Medi Ambient, Departament de Química*  
9 *Física, Facultat de Química, Universitat de Barcelona, Martí i Franquès 1-11, 08028*  
10 *Barcelona, Spain*

11 \* Corresponding author, E-mail: javier.recio@uam.es (Francisco Javier Recio)

12 \*\* Corresponding author, E-mail: i.sires@ub.edu (Ignasi Sirés)

13 **Abstract**

14 Peroxydisulfate (PDS,  $S_2O_8^{2-}$ )-based advanced oxidation processes have been developed as  
15 an alternative to those based on  $\bullet OH$ , as PDS activation yields a much more stable radical  
16 like  $SO_4^{\bullet-}$  that can maintain the oxidation ability of water treatment systems for longer time.  
17 Here, the electrochemical PDS activation has been investigated using reticulated vitreous  
18 carbon (RVC) substrate modified with  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles (NPs) as cathode. The NPs were  
19 exhaustively characterized by different surface analysis techniques (TEM, SEM) and  
20 Mössbauer spectroscopy. Cyclic voltammetry and linear sweep voltammetry with a rotating  
21 disk electrode allowed concluding that the main electrocatalytic role in the cathodic PDS  
22 activation to  $SO_4^{\bullet-}$  corresponded to the Fe(II) active sites continuously promoted upon  
23 cathodic polarization. These sites were less catalytic for  $O_2$  reduction reaction, although it  
24 was still feasible with  $n = 2.7$  electrons as determined from Koutecky-Levich analysis. Both  
25 cathodic reactions followed an inner-sphere reaction mechanism. The  $Fe_3O_4$ -modified RVC  
26 cathodes were employed to electrolyze Methylene Blue aqueous solutions at pH 3.5,  
27 employing different current values and PDS concentrations. Dissolved  $O_2$  was purged to  
28 impede the competitive cathodic  $H_2O_2$  production and Fenton's reaction. The occurrence of  
29 dye adsorption/electrosorption on the cathode reduced the mass transport limitations,  
30 enhancing the reaction between  $SO_4^{\bullet-}$  and organic molecules. The best operation conditions  
31 to reach total and fast color removal at 18 min were 2 mM PDS and 10 mA, yielding  $> 80\%$   
32 TOC abatement at 45 min. Reproducible degradation profiles were found after 5 runs, thereby  
33 ensuring the stability of the  $Fe_3O_4$ -modified RVC, with no iron sludge production.

34 *Keywords:* Electrochemical advanced oxidation process; Methylene Blue; Persulfate;  
35 Reticulated vitreous carbon; Sulfate radical

## 36 **1. Introduction**

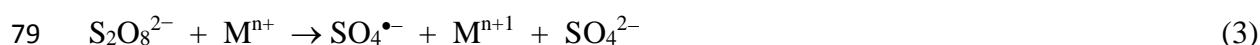
37 In the last few decades, the overgrowth of human population has entailed the massive  
38 entry of organic pollutants in all of the environmental compartments, being especially  
39 worrisome their accumulation in water because it is an essential ingredient for life. In the  
40 present study, Methylene Blue (MB) has been chosen as a model organic pollutant. MB is a  
41 fluorescent cationic dye discovered in 1876 [1], with multiple applications nowadays. For  
42 example, in medicine it serves for treating illnesses, microbiological staining or  
43 intraoperative imaging [1,2], whereas in the textile industry a great surplus of MB is  
44 discharged into wastewater effluents due to its poor adhesion to fabrics [3]. Such dye  
45 wastewater has become a major environmental issue in countries with intensive dyeing  
46 activities, since MB has a high molar absorptivity that causes aesthetic impact and limits the  
47 light penetration into water bodies [4]. Furthermore, the presence of MB in water is reported  
48 to cause negative health effects like high blood pressure, nausea, gastrointestinal irritation,  
49 skin irritation and abdominal pain [5].

50 More effective strategies for dye removal from water, not simply implying physical  
51 separation but their structural degradation, are thus needed. Outstanding results have been  
52 obtained for water and wastewater decontamination by means of advanced oxidation process  
53 (AOPs), which are particularly suitable for the degradation of organic pollutants. Classically,  
54 the high effectiveness of AOPs has been related to the generation of  $\bullet\text{OH}$  onsite [6,7],  
55 although the important contribution of  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$  and singlet oxygen under some experimental  
56 conditions has been increasingly discussed [8]. Lately, AOPs based on the action of sulfate  
57 radical anion ( $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ ) have been developed as a viable alternative or complement to  $\bullet\text{OH}$ -  
58 based AOPs [9,10]. Despite the lower redox potential of sulfate radical ( $E^0(\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}|\text{SO}_4^{2-} =$

59  $+2.437 \pm 0.019$  vs. SHE  $< E^0(\bullet\text{OH}|\text{H}_2\text{O}) = +2.730 \pm 0.017$  V vs. SHE) [11], its half-life is  
 60 orders of magnitude longer (30-40  $\mu\text{s}$  vs. 0.02  $\mu\text{s}$ ) [12,13], which makes  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  more readily  
 61 diffused than  $\bullet\text{OH}$ , also evidencing a higher selectivity towards organic matter oxidation.  
 62 Note, however, that in aqueous matrices both radicals coexist, although  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  prevails as  
 63 main oxidant over  $\bullet\text{OH}$  at  $\text{pH} < 7$  [14].

64 Within this context, electrochemistry has found a niche by giving rise to the so-called  
 65 electrochemical AOPs [15,16]. The accurate modulation of the electrolysis conditions allows  
 66 the in-situ electrosynthesis of oxidants like  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [17-19] and peroxydisulfate (PDS,  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ )  
 67 [20,21]. These species may act as precursors that can be further activated to yield  $\bullet\text{OH}$  and  
 68  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ , respectively. The excellent performance of both radicals related to color removal from  
 69 dye solutions has been widely reported [22-24], as also verified for MB solutions [25].

70 In electrochemical systems, PDS can be activated through multiple routes: (i) Energy  
 71 input from ultrasounds, microwaves, UV light or heat, as exemplified in reaction (1) for the  
 72 thermal activation of persulfate (TAP) that can be accomplished using a water bath [26], a  
 73 hot plate [27] or a solar thermal equipment [28]; (ii) reaction (2) in the presence of organic  
 74 molecules (R); (iii) reaction (3) with low valence transition metal ions ( $\text{M}^{n+}$ ) [29-31] such as  
 75  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  [32,33]; and (iv) reactions (4) and (5) with electrogenerated  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [34] or with its derived  
 76 homogeneous radical,  $\bullet\text{OH}$ , respectively [34].



82 In addition to those five routes, the electrochemical activation of persulfate (EAP) is also  
83 feasible depending on the electrode materials. For example, reaction (5) could be  
84 alternatively mediated by M( $\bullet$ OH), an adsorbed radical formed from water oxidation at the  
85 surface of a large O<sub>2</sub>-overpotential anode M like BDD [17,24] or PbO<sub>2</sub> [35,36]. The direct  
86 anodic oxidation of PDS at the anode surface has also been discussed in the literature,  
87 although this is still controversial because some authors suggest that PDS is actually activated  
88 to a nonradical transition state that oxidizes water to  $\bullet$ OH [37,38]. On the other hand, the  
89 cathodic route has been much less explored so far [39]. Several scholars hypothesized the  
90 direct reduction of PDS at electrocatalytic surfaces via reaction (6) [31], as reported for Pt  
91 [40,41], stainless steel [42] and glassy carbon (GC) [43]. Nonetheless, these works do not  
92 demonstrate the occurrence of direct electron transfer. On a cathode made of carbon  
93 nanotubes, a nonradical PDS activation was observed [44]. In a much more thorough study  
94 that included voltammetric measurements and electrolysis in a divided cell, the cathodic PDS  
95 reduction to SO<sub>4</sub> $\bullet^-$  was evidenced [45]. In that work, an irreversible reduction peak at Pt and  
96 graphite cathodes suggested the occurrence of direct cathodic activation.



98 Among the different strategies to enhance the electron transfer to/from an electrode in  
99 the EAP approach, the use of three-dimensional materials to expose a greater surface area  
100 should be seriously considered. Porous carbons like graphite felt and reticulated vitreous  
101 carbon are employed as substrates in many electrochemical applications [46,47], and  
102 different surface modification procedures allowed enhancing their performance very  
103 significantly, as shown by us for the treatment of organic pollutants [35,36,48]. A second  
104 finding to take into consideration is the proven effectiveness of the iron-based materials for

105 PS activation, although the mechanism is still under discussion due to controversy [49].  
106 Magnetite ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ), which has an inverse spinel cubic structure, has been tested as  
107 heterogeneous catalyst in the form of suspended nanoparticles (NPs) in solution for  
108 peroxymonosulfate activation [50], whereas PDS has been activated by  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ - $\alpha$ - $\text{MnO}_2$  NPs  
109 [51] as well as by composites made of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  particles embedded into Camellia seed husk-  
110 based biochar that allowed the simultaneous adsorption and catalysis [52]. Some authors also  
111 tested the electrochemical degradation of organic pollutants in the presence of suspended  
112  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  NPs, aiming to enhance the Fe(III) cathodic reduction [53], although this required a  
113 previous adsorption on the catalyst surface.

114 In this work, PDS electroreduction has been investigated using RVC substrates modified  
115 with  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  NPs, which have been exhaustively characterized by different surface analysis  
116 techniques. The first goal was to discern whether the main electrocatalytic role in PDS  
117 activation corresponded to the surface Fe(II) sites continuously promoted upon cathodic  
118 polarization, which was assessed by means of cyclic voltammetry and linear polarization on  
119 a rotating disk electrode (RDE). At the moment, there exists no strong evidence in the  
120 literature on the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -mediated PDS electroreduction using supported NPs. Afterwards, the  
121  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -modified RVC cathodes were employed to electrolyze MB aqueous solutions at  
122 constant applied current ( $I_{\text{app}}$ ) in the presence of different concentrations of PDS, trying to  
123 find the best operation conditions for total color removal. The solution TOC was also  
124 analyzed during these trials.

## 125 **2. Experimental**

### 126 *2.1. Chemical compounds*

127 MB is a heterocyclic aromatic dye with a thiazine structure (see molecular structure in  
128 Fig. S1). Its hydrated form (molecular formula  $C_{16}H_{18}ClN_3S \cdot H_2O$ , > 95% purity, Sigma-  
129 Aldrich) was employed. Sodium persulfate ( $Na_2S_2O_8$ ), and sodium sulfate ( $Na_2SO_4$ ) of  
130 analytical grade were purchased from Panreac. Other solid and liquid chemicals were  
131 acquired from Sigma-Aldrich. High purity Milli-Q water with resistivity > 18.2 M $\Omega$  cm at  
132 25 °C was used to prepare all the solutions.

### 133 *2.2. Synthesis and characterization of magnetite nanoparticles*

134  $Fe_3O_4$  NPs were synthesized using an electrochemical flow reactor operated in  
135 recirculation batch mode [54]. Eight iron electrodes were used as cathodes and anodes (area  
136 of 45 cm<sup>2</sup>). The synthesis was carried out for 1 h at a constant  $I_{app} = 0.7$  A in a 40 mM NaCl  
137 solution. The obtained NPs were separated magnetically as they were formed, being further  
138 rinsed with Milli-Q water several times until the supernatant was colorless. This simple and  
139 economic methodology allowed obtaining an estimated yield of 1 g NPs per hour.

140 The synthesized NPs were dried under vacuum overnight and their morphology was  
141 analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a JEOL JEM 1010 microscope  
142 operated at 100 kV. The average size of the NPs were determined upon measurement of at  
143 least 100 particles. The iron composition was determined by Mössbauer spectroscopy.  
144 Mössbauer spectra were recorded at room temperature in triangular mode using an emission  
145 spectrometer equipped with a <sup>57</sup>Co/Rh source. The spectral analyses were performed via a  
146 non-linear adjustment, using the NORMOS program [55], and energy calibrations were  
147 accomplished with an  $\alpha$ -Fe foil (6  $\mu$ m).

148 *2.3. Preparation and characterization of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified RVC electrodes*

149 RVC foam (45 ppi, ULTRAMET) was modified with the synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs  
150 following a dip coating procedure. The RVC pieces were perfectly cut into dimensions of 70  
151 mm × 20 mm × 10 mm (reproducible bare electrode mass of 1.8 ± 0.4 g, and volumetric  
152 surface area of 30 cm<sup>2</sup>). The pieces were subsequently washed with acetone and water, and  
153 then entirely submerged into a colloidal suspension of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs (10 g L<sup>-1</sup>) for 30 min under  
154 sonication, employing a Bandelin ultrasonic bath DT 100 H Sonorex Digitec (maximum  
155 power of 320 W) with heating. The obtained electrodes were washed with Milli-Q water and  
156 dried at 60 °C for 12 h. The mass of deposited NPs was practically constant (60 ± 5 mg).

157 The morphology of bare and modified RVC electrodes were characterized by scanning  
158 electron microscopy (SEM) using a Hitachi S-3000N microscope. The equipment offered a  
159 resolution of 3 nm at 25 kV and a tension range of 0.3 to 30 kV with an environmental  
160 secondary electron detector (ESED) coupled to an Oxford Instruments energy dispersive X-  
161 ray analyzer (model INCA x-sight).

162 *2.4. Electrochemical characterization and bulk electrolytic trials*

163 The electrochemical measurements were conducted on a GC RDE (geometrical area of  
164 0.196 cm<sup>2</sup>) from PINE Instruments as working electrode, since it is considered a valid model  
165 surface to obtain data comparable with RVC. In most cases, the GC was further modified  
166 with an ink made of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs and Vulcan XC-72 carbon black, which was prepared by  
167 thoroughly mixing 2 mg of NPs and 2 mg of carbon and further hand-milling with an agate  
168 mortar. The resulting powder was dispersed through sonication (same aforementioned bath)  
169 in a beaker containing 1 mL of isopropanol and 4 mL of Milli-Q water. Then, 20 µL of Nafion  
170 (5 wt.% in alcohol, Sigma-Aldrich) were added and the mixture was sonicated for 30 min to



171 ensure its homogeneity. The NPs concentration in the inks was set to  $\sim 0.5 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ . The GC  
172 electrode surface was modified by dropping 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of the ink and then dried under  $\text{N}_2$  flow.

173 The electrochemical tests were carried out with an Autolab 302N  
174 potentiostat/galvanostat (Metrohm) controlled with Nova 2.0 software. A conventional three-  
175 electrode cell that contained a bare or modified GC RDE as working electrode, as well as an  
176  $\text{Ag}|\text{AgCl}$  (saturated KCl) and a graphite rod as reference and counter electrode, respectively,  
177 was used. All the potentials in this work are referred to the reversible hydrogen electrode  
178 (RHE) under standard conditions, which agrees with the following expression:  $E(\text{RHE}) =$   
179  $E(\text{Ag}|\text{AgCl} (\text{sat. KCl})) + 0.190 + 0.059\text{pH}$ . The electrochemical characterization was  
180 conducted by cyclic voltammetry in an  $\text{N}_2$ -saturated supporting electrolyte (0.1 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$   
181 solution prepared in Milli-Q water and adjusted to pH 3.5 with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ). The oxygen reduction  
182 reaction (ORR) tests were performed by linear polarization in the same supporting electrolyte  
183 but saturated with  $\text{O}_2$ , at different rotation rates ( $\omega$ ), and the number of electrons was  
184 determined from the Koutecky-Levich equation [56]. The persulfate reduction was  
185 investigated in an  $\text{O}_2$ - or  $\text{N}_2$ -saturated electrolyte solution in the presence of 2 mM PDS, at  
186  $\omega = 1600 \text{ rpm}$ . All voltammograms were recorded at a scan rate ( $\nu$ ) of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ .

187 The degradation experiments were performed in batch using an undivided glass reactor  
188 (120 mm in height  $\times$  60 mm in diameter). Mechanical stirring with PTFE blade impellers at  
189 650 rpm was applied in all the experiments to ensure good mixing. A constant  $\text{N}_2$  flow was  
190 always fed to the solutions in order to avoid the ORR contribution. Bare or  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -modified  
191 RVC (dimensions of 50 mm  $\times$  20 mm  $\times$  10 mm corresponded to the immersed part) were  
192 used as the cathode and graphite rod (70 mm in length  $\times$  6 mm in diameter) as the anode. To  
193 ensure the electric contact between the working electrode and the potentiostat, a graphite rod

194 was fixed to the RVC piece with silver conductive paint. The electrodes were connected to  
195 the abovementioned potentiostat/galvanostat, which supplied constant  $I$  of 5-15 mA in DC  
196 mode. The bulk electrolyses were performed with solutions of 200 mL containing 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
197 MB (i.e., 0.15 mM MB, total organic carbon (TOC) = 30 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at pH  
198 3.5. When needed, sodium persulfate was added to the MB solution just before supplying  $I$ ,  
199 at a concentration of 1-6 mM.

200 The absorbance decay of the MB solutions was determined by UV/Vis spectroscopy on  
201 a Perkin-Elmer LAMBDA 35 UV/Vis spectrophotometer set at  $\lambda_{\max} = 662\text{--}663$  nm (see  
202 UV/Vis spectrum in Fig. S1). The solution decolorization has been expressed as follows [32]:

$$203 \quad \% \text{ Color removal} = \frac{A_0 - A_t}{A_0} \times 100 \quad (7)$$

204 where  $A_0$  and  $A_t$  account for the solution absorbance at 0 min and at time  $t$ . Some reuse tests  
205 were comparatively performed by submerging the cathode in milli-Q water for 1 h after  
206 stopping the current supplied for the dye treatment. The solution TOC was analyzed at  
207 selected time intervals employing a TOC analyzer from Shimadzu (model VCSH).

### 208 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 209 *3.1. Characterization of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles and RVC electrodes*

210 The morphology of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs synthesized in an electrochemical flow cell as  
211 explained in subsection 2.2 is shown in Fig. 1a, evidencing a quasi-spherical shape with a  
212 certain degree of aggregation. A mean diameter of  $21 \pm 7$  nm has been determined by  
213 measuring this value from at least 100 particles observed in the different micrographs  
214 acquired. The standard deviation value informs about a moderate polydispersity of the NPs  
215 produced in recirculation mode. The Mössbauer spectrum of the synthesized NPs at 300 K

216 can be observed in Fig. 1b. A typical hyperfine pattern consisting of two overlapping six-line  
217 magnetic subspectra is depicted, yielding the following hyperfine parameters: IS = 0.556 (4)  
218 mm s<sup>-1</sup> and the magnetic hyperfine field H = 44.64(4) T assignable to <sup>57</sup>Fe in the tetrahedral  
219 position; and IS = 0.329 (2) mm s<sup>-1</sup> and H = 48.50(1) T related to the octahedral sites of the  
220 spinel lattice. The magnetic hyperfine values are slightly inferior to the ones corresponding  
221 to magnetite bulk material, but similar to reported values of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs with a diameter of 19  
222 nm [57], thereby confirming the predominant magnetite structure in the electrochemically  
223 synthesized sample.

224 Before modifying the RVC substrate with the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs just characterized, the  
225 morphology of the bare RVC (45 ppi) was observed by SEM. Fig. 1c shows a pore size of  
226 about 500-600 μm, in good agreement with the porosity value provided by the manufacturer.  
227 SEM also served to corroborate the efficient deposition and homogeneous distribution of the  
228 particles. The surface analysis of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified RVC (Fig. 1d) allows confirming that  
229 30 min of dip coating is a suitable duration to obtain a sufficiently uniform coating of the  
230 substrate. It is evident that the coating is rough the NPs are well distributed throughout the  
231 surface.

### 232 3.2. *Electrochemical activation of PDS*

233 A GC RDE, either bare or modified with the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs, was employed as the working  
234 electrode in a three-electrode cell to carry out these tests. The electrochemical  
235 characterization of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs was first performed by cyclic voltammetry in an N<sub>2</sub>-  
236 saturated 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution at pH 3.5. Fig. 2a shows the voltammogram obtained with  
237 the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified GC RDE, which presents an electrochemically irreversible Faradaic  
238 process that can be related to the Fe(III)/Fe(II) redox process on the NPs surface. The anodic

239 and cathodic peak potentials appear at 0.79 and 0.31 V vs. RHE, respectively. Note that a  
240 similar irreversible behavior has been reported for magnetite and ferrite NPs in acid media  
241 [58]. The cathodic process can be represented as follows:



243 where  $\equiv$  represents the solid state.

244 The electrocatalytic activity of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs has been further studied in terms of  
245 promotion and/or enhancement of both, PDS and O<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions. In particular, in  
246 PDS-based AOPs the ORR can become a relevant simultaneous phenomenon during the  
247 degradation of organic pollutants, since it can favor the occurrence of heterogeneous electro-  
248 Fenton (EF) process as dissolved O<sub>2</sub> may yield H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as Fenton's reactant in the presence of  
249 adsorbed Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs [15,17,19]. As can be observed in Fig. 2a, a comparison between the  
250 polarization curves with bare and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified GC allows concluding that the NPs are  
251 active for both reduction reactions. This is readily deduced from the clear decrease in the  
252 onset potential for both reactions using the modified working electrode. An additional and  
253 very remarkable finding, as evidenced by comparing both reduction signals using the same  
254 modified electrode, is the greater electroactivity of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> towards PDS reduction. The  
255 corresponding onset potential was 0.150 V more positive as compared to the ORR.  
256 Furthermore, the onset potential for each reaction appears in the region related to the cathodic  
257 process assigned to the Fe(III) to Fe(II) conversion previously observed in the cyclic  
258 voltammogram (reaction (8)). Therefore, this is an evidence of cathodic O<sub>2</sub> reduction and  
259 PDS activation (reaction (9), 1<sup>st</sup> step) mediated by electrogenerated Fe(II) sites. The latter  
260 process mimics the more commonly reported PDS activation in solution (reaction (3)) [32];  
261 however, in solution reaction there is a gradual accumulation of Fe<sup>3+</sup>, whereas with the

262 immobilized NPs the cathodic polarization becomes essential because it ensures that the iron  
263 centers remain continuously available as Fe(II), as illustrated in the equilibrium shown in  
264 reaction (9) (2<sup>nd</sup> step).



266 The occurrence of reaction (9) at Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> surface sites is potentially advantageous, since  
267 it avoids the need of dissolved metal cations like Fe<sup>2+</sup> that tend to precipitate in aqueous  
268 solution if the pH is not sufficiently acid. Hence, the absence of iron sludge production  
269 directly reduces the cost and time associated to its management.

270 The direct connection found between the Fe(III)/Fe(II) redox potential and the onset  
271 potential for both reactions mentioned above implies an inner-sphere reaction mechanism, as  
272 previously proposed for the ORR catalyzed by ferrite NPs, iron-doped carbon materials and  
273 single atom molecular catalysts [59-61]. From this, it can be assured that O<sub>2</sub> and PDS must  
274 be adsorbed on the Fe(II) sites to start the electroreduction. The PDS reduction reaction  
275 presented diffusional control at low overpotentials (0.2 V vs. RHE, Fig. 2a); this phenomenon  
276 also occurred during the ORR, although at much greater overpotentials (-0.4 V vs. RHE, Fig.  
277 S2a) and attaining current values one order of magnitude higher as compared to PDS (not  
278 shown). The total number of electrons for the ORR has been determined via Koutecky-  
279 Levich analysis of data obtained from linear sweep voltammeteries recorded at different  
280 rotation rates (Fig. S2a,b). The results highlight a mixed mechanism via 2.7 electrons,  
281 informing about the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as main product that could be further employed to  
282 stimulate Fenton's reaction during the treatment of aerated contaminated solutions.

283 Based on the latter finding, the presence of dissolved O<sub>2</sub> in aerated water effluents to be  
284 treated by PDS-based AOPs can lead to an overestimation of the oxidizing role of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup>,

285 since  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  not only induces Fenton's reaction either with dissolved  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  or anchored  $\text{Fe(II)}$   
286 [15,62], but it also acts as PDS activator via reaction (4). In such scenario, the degradation  
287 of the organic molecules is expected to be caused by the combined action of both,  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  and  
288  $\bullet\text{OH}$  [34,63]. Aiming to evaluate the influence of  $\text{O}_2$ , solutions containing  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (0.15  
289 mM) MB and  $50 \text{ mM Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  at pH 3.5 were electrolyzed at  $I_{\text{app}} = 10 \text{ mA}$  using an undivided  
290 reactor with an  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -modified RVC cathode and a graphite anode. The PDS-based process  
291 (i.e.,  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  as main oxidant) was tested upon addition of  $1 \text{ mM PDS}$  to the  $\text{N}_2$ -saturated  
292 solution, whereas the heterogeneous EF process (i.e.,  $\bullet\text{OH}$  as main oxidant) was performed  
293 under  $\text{O}_2$  saturation without PDS. As highlighted in Fig. 2b, a high percentage of color  
294 removal was attained after 180 min by both treatments, being superior in the  $\bullet\text{OH}$ -mediated  
295 process (90% vs. 80%) thanks to the greater redox potential of this radical as compared to  
296  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ . Nonetheless, the PDS-based treatment was comparatively more effective within the  
297 first minutes, as the maximum decolorization of 80% with PDS was already achieved at 2  
298 min, a value significantly higher than 60% reached by EF. The slower initial MB degradation  
299 in the latter process can be accounted for by the absence of the  $\bullet\text{OH}$  precursor in the initial  
300 solution, since  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  must be electrogenerated on site, in contrast to the PDS process in which  
301 a fast activation to  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  is feasible from the beginning. Once a sufficiently high  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$   
302 concentration was accumulated ( $\sim 90 \text{ min}$ ), the EF process became superior.

303 Additionally, note that in heterogeneous EF process, the  $\text{Fe(II)}$  active sites present on  
304 the deposited NPs surface are needed to catalyze two reactions to finally produce the  $\bullet\text{OH}$ :  
305 the 2-electron ORR and the heterogeneous Fenton's reaction. Conversely, in the PDS-based  
306 AOP all the catalytic sites are available for  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  generation without requiring any  
307 intermediate whose formation could decelerate the degradation. From the trends of Fig. 2b,

308 it can then be concluded that even the decolorization of aerated solutions can be readily  
309 promoted by PDS alone, being the contribution of  $\bullet\text{OH}$  less relevant, although these radical  
310 can become useful as the electrolysis is prolonged in order to reach a large percentage of  
311 TOC decay.

### 312 *3.3. Focus on PDS-based advanced oxidation treatment of dye solutions*

313 Iron-based NPs and hybrid materials haven been successfully employed in water  
314 decontamination promoted by the adsorption and magnetic separation of the organic  
315 pollutants [64-68]. To discern whether the adsorption and electrosorption of MB on the  
316 modified RVC cathode plays a significant role in the degradation process,  $\text{N}_2$ -saturated  
317 solutions containing  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  MB and  $50 \text{ mM Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  at pH 3.5 without PDS were treated  
318 using the same reactor and electrodes described in the previous subsection. The effect of  $I_{\text{app}}$   
319 on the percentage of color removal over time is depicted in Fig. 3a. The MB removal via  
320 purely physical adsorption (i.e., no applied current) upon contact of the stirred solution with  
321 the large surface area RVC cathode was negligible, reaching an average value as low as 3%.  
322 This behavior is attributed to the electrostatic repulsion between the MB and the surface of  
323 the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  NPs; the isoelectric point of the particles ( $\text{pI} \sim 6.5$ ) induced the appearance of a  
324 positive surface charge at pH 3.5, whereas at such solution pH the MB ( $\text{pK}_a = 3.8$ ) was mainly  
325 protonated [64,69]. Note that Hung et al. [70] also reported that MB is believed to become  
326 adsorbed onto the surface of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  NPs, which they employed as catalyst in non-  
327 electrochemical experiments.

328 The situation changed upon galvanostatic electrolysis, which induced an  
329 electroadsorption phenomenon that contributed to reach a certain degree of decolorization at  
330 all  $I_{\text{app}}$  tested. At 6 min, the color removal was 2%, 8%, 28% and 14% operating at 0, 5, 10

331 and 15 mA, respectively. The detrimental effect of current increase from 10 to 15 mA can be  
332 explained by a more ordered adsorption of the MB molecules onto the NPs and uncoated  
333 RVC, both on the surface and through the pores, at 10 mA; a higher cathodic current causes  
334 a faster migration of MB in its cationic form, facilitating a less ordered surface coverage that  
335 potentially blocks some of the pores during the first minutes. At 30 min, even at 10 mA the  
336 cathode coverage tended to reach a limit and hence, the percentage of color removal became  
337 similar (plateau around 37%-40%) at the two highest  $I_{app}$  values, being twice greater than that  
338 at 5 mA (18%).

339 To corroborate that the color loss evidenced in Fig. 3a was due to  
340 adsorption/electrosorption on the  $Fe_3O_4$ -modified RVC piece and not to transformation  
341 phenomena, a desorption test was performed at the end of the experiments at each  $I_{app}$  by  
342 immersing the cathode into Milli-Q water for 60 min under vigorous stirring. The TOC  
343 content of final solutions obtained from the treatment of MB solutions and from desorption  
344 trials was determined, as shown in Fig. 3b. It is evident that the concentration of organic  
345 carbon in the system remained constant regardless of the  $I_{app}$  value, which means that no  
346 mineralization occurred. However, the distribution of this TOC differed in each treatment,  
347 with maximum decay of dissolved TOC found at 10-15 mA, in agreement with maximum  
348 color removal under these conditions (Fig. 3a). From a practical point of view, the existence  
349 of adsorption phenomena is expected to be beneficial because the MB oxidation and  
350 mineralization will be accelerated thanks to the minimization of mass transport limitations.

351 A critical parameter in PDS-based AOPs is the PDS concentration, as this is the direct  
352 source of  $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ .  $N_2$ -saturated MB solutions as those mentioned for tests in Fig. 3 but  
353 containing 1-6 mM PDS were electrolyzed at  $I_{app} = 10$  mA, using the same reactor and



354 electrodes. Fig. 4a illustrates an abrupt color decay at the beginning of all the experiments,  
355 whereupon the decolorization percentages stabilized until the end of the electrolysis. A  
356 minimum of 2 mM PDS was needed to gradually achieve 100% color removal, since the use  
357 of 1 mM PDS only allowed 80% (Fig. 2b). When a much greater reagent concentration of 6  
358 mM was employed, a quicker total decolorization occurred at 2 min instead of 18 min, which  
359 suggests that the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs surface always contains a sufficiently high accessibility to Fe(II)  
360 sites to accelerate the production of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup> if enough PDS is fed to the cathode. However, it  
361 was also observed that such high PDS content became detrimental in terms of cathode  
362 durability, since the solution turbidity underwent an evident increase during the test with 6  
363 mM PDS. After the test, clear damage of the modified RVC electrode was detected, entailing  
364 a decrease in its dimensions and a greater embrittlement that put its mechanical stability at  
365 risk. The degradation of the material could be associated with the high amount of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup>  
366 generated at the cathode surface, which induced the oxidation of the carbon.

367       Considering a balanced performance integrating both, solution decontamination and  
368 electrode stability, the effect of  $I_{app}$  was investigated under the conditions of Fig. 4a at 2 mM  
369 PDS. In Fig. 4b, it can be seen that the lowest  $I_{app} = 5$  mA was able to yield complete color  
370 removal after 40 min in a gradual manner. The much slower degradation as compared to the  
371 test made at 10 mA (18 min) is mainly justified by the more limited regeneration of the Fe(II)  
372 active sites, which eventually decelerates the production of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup>. Worth commenting, a  
373 preliminary test made with no current supply revealed a substantial tendency of MB to  
374 precipitate over time due to the action of PDS, which consequently led to the loss of PDS in  
375 the medium [71]. An increase of  $I_{app}$  to 15 mA did not yield further amelioration, only  
376 reaching a maximum color loss of 90-95%, maybe because an excessive production of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup>

377 enhanced their self-decomposition through radical-radical reactions (see below). On the other  
378 hand, despite the similarities in the decolorization profiles, much clearer differences appeared  
379 during TOC analysis ( $\text{TOC}_0 \sim 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ). Fig. 4c presents the dissolved (direct measurement)  
380 and adsorbed (obtained upon desorption, see Fig. 3) TOC values after 45 min of each  
381 treatment shown in Fig. 4b, along with the corresponding TOC abatement percentage (i.e.,  
382 TOC escaping the system upon mineralization). The electrolysis carried out at 5 mA allowed  
383 decreasing the TOC in solution to  $\sim 7.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , with the organic matter adsorbed on the  
384 cathode accounting for  $\sim 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  TOC, which means that 58% of  $\text{TOC}_0$  was effectively  
385 removed (i.e., mineralized to  $\text{CO}_2$ ). The TOC abatement was greater ( $\sim 83\%$ ) at the two  
386 highest  $I_{\text{app}}$  values, whose effect was similar and yielded final TOC values of  $\sim 3$  and  $\sim 2 \text{ mg}$   
387  $\text{L}^{-1}$  in solution and on RVC, respectively. It is interesting to highlight that, although at 15 mA  
388 the color removal was lower than that at 5 mA, its ability to promote the gradual degradation  
389 of the reaction byproducts was larger. It can then be inferred that at 15 mA, the excess of  
390  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  mainly participated in the oxidation of byproducts.

391 Finally, in order to evaluate the reusability of a freshly prepared  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -modified RVC  
392 cathode, five consecutive degradation runs were performed under the conditions described  
393 in Fig. 4, at 2 mM PDS and  $I_{\text{app}} = 10 \text{ mA}$ . Fig. 5a illustrates the percentage of color removal  
394 over time during the tests, evidencing a complete decolorization at 18 min in all cases,  
395 although in the 5th run the profile was slightly different and suggested a slower degradation  
396 that can be related to performance loss. The excellent behavior of the system after the 5 runs  
397 was further corroborated from TOC analysis. Quite reproducible dissolved and adsorbed  
398 TOC values were determined after each reuse under study (Fig. 5b), always accounting for  
399 more than 80% of mineralization.

#### 400 **4. Conclusions**

401 This work demonstrates that the substantial enrichment of magnetite surface with Fe(II) sites  
402 during its cathodic polarization leads to the enhanced electrocatalysis of PDS and O<sub>2</sub>  
403 reduction as compared to bare carbon cathode. The Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> activity towards PDS activation  
404 was comparatively greater than that towards O<sub>2</sub>. The heterogeneous conversion of PDS into  
405 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup> mimics the more conventional PDS activation by dissolved Fe<sup>2+</sup>. This is clearly  
406 advantageous for practical application, since the sludge production typically associated to the  
407 precipitation of dissolved metal cations like Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> can be impeded. The viability of  
408 PDS-based treatments to degrade an organic molecule like MB dye in N<sub>2</sub>-saturated medium  
409 has been proven, achieving a complete decolorization of solutions in short time upon  
410 optimization of the electrolysis conditions. TOC abatements greater than 80% were also  
411 attained after relatively short treatments. PDS concentration must not be too high or too low,  
412 since the electrode stability is compromised or the amount of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>•-</sup> is insufficient,  
413 respectively. Further work should address the simultaneous heterogeneous EF process using  
414 dissolved O<sub>2</sub>.

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669 **Figure captions**

670 **Fig. 1.** (a) TEM micrograph of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs synthesized in a 40 mM NaCl solution using an  
671 electrochemical flow cell, equipped with iron electrodes, for 1 h at  $I_{app} = 0.7$  A. (b) Room  
672 temperature Mössbauer spectrum of the as-synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs. (c) SEM image of bare  
673 RVC substrate (45 ppi). (d) SEM image of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified RVC.

674 **Fig. 2.** (a) Cyclic voltammetry (—) in N<sub>2</sub>-saturated medium using a glassy carbon (GC) RDE  
675 coated with an ink made of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs + Vulcan XC-72 carbon black as working electrode,  
676 recorded at  $\nu = 5$  mV s<sup>-1</sup> without rotation. Linear sweep voltammetries in the same medium,  
677 with 2 mM PDS, using the same working electrode (—) or an unmodified GC RDE (- -).  
678 Linear sweep voltammetries in O<sub>2</sub>-saturated medium, without PDS, using the modified (—) or  
679 the unmodified GC RDE (- -) as working electrode. Linear sweep voltammetry in O<sub>2</sub>-  
680 saturated medium, with 2 mM PDS, using the modified GC RDE (—). All linear sweep  
681 voltammograms were recorded at  $\nu = 5$  mV s<sup>-1</sup> and  $\omega = 1600$  rpm, using a three-electrode  
682 cell containing a 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution at pH 3.5, with an Ag|AgCl (sat. KCl) and a graphite  
683 rod as reference and counter electrodes. (b) Percentage of color removal vs. time during the  
684 treatment of 200 mL of solutions containing 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (0.15 mM) MB and 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>  
685 at pH 3.5, at constant  $I_{app} = 10$  mA using an undivided glass reactor equipped with an Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-  
686 modified RVC piece and a graphite rod as the cathode and anode, respectively. One trial was  
687 made in an N<sub>2</sub>-saturated solution in the presence of 1 mM PDS, whereas the other one was  
688 made without PDS in an O<sub>2</sub>-saturated solution.

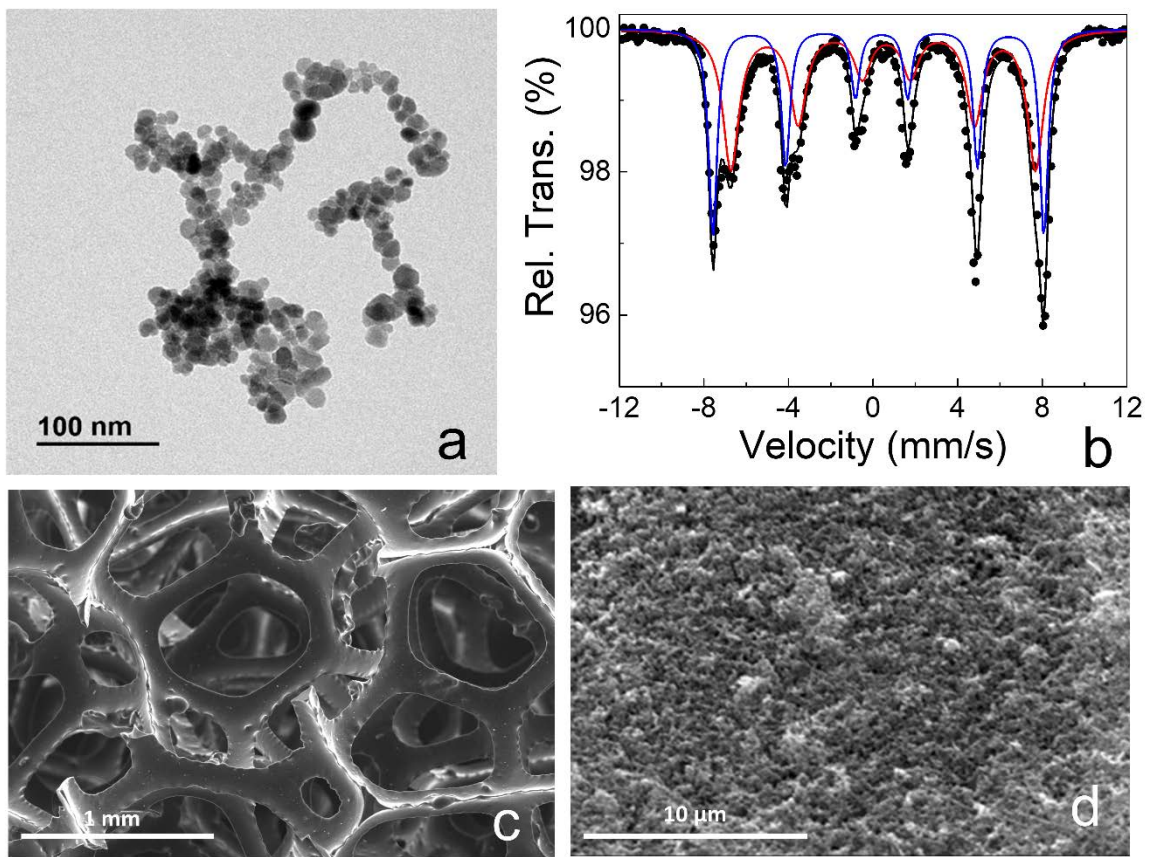
689 **Fig. 3.** (a) Effect of  $I_{app}$  on the percentage of color removal over time during the treatment of  
690 200 mL of N<sub>2</sub>-saturated solutions containing 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (0.15 mM) MB and 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>  
691 at pH 3.5 using the same reactor and electrodes described in Fig. 2. (b) Dissolved TOC

692 content at the end of the four trials. The difference between these values and TOC value at 0  
693 min ( $\text{TOC}_0$ ) accounts for the organic carbon adsorbed throughout the tests.

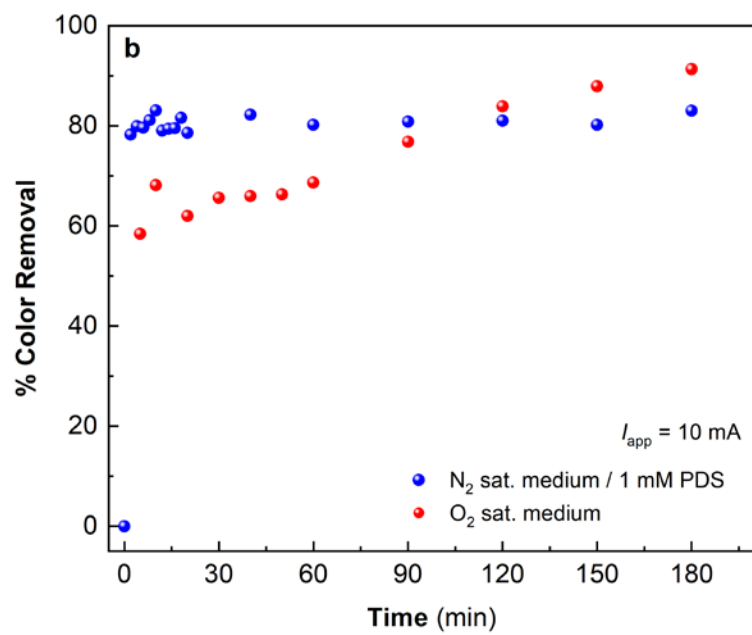
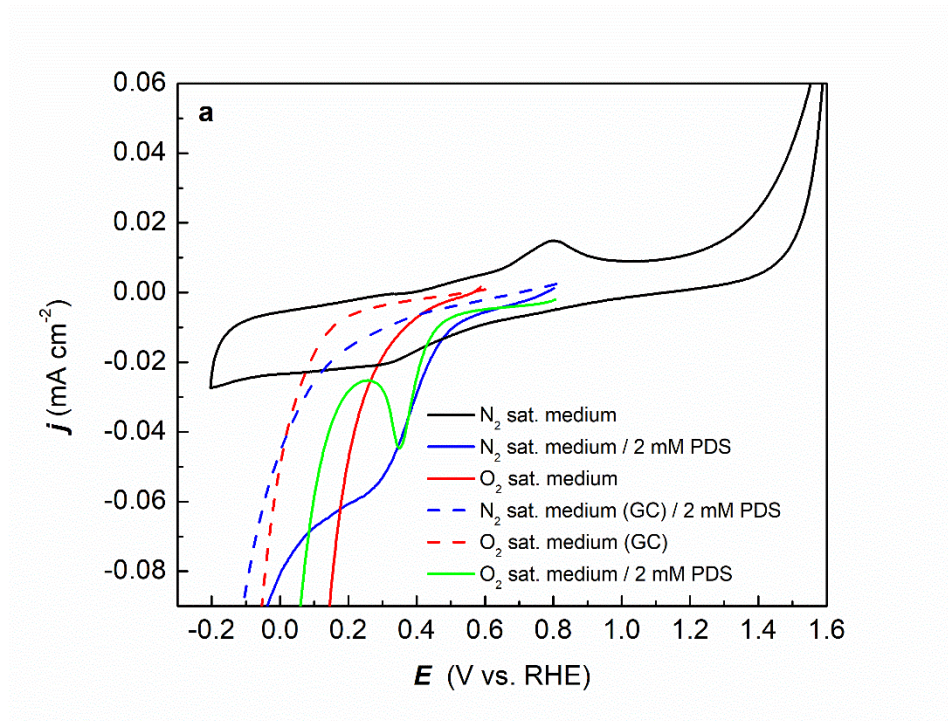
694 **Fig. 4.** (a) Effect of PDS concentration on the time course of the percentage of color removal  
695 during the treatment of 200 mL of dye solutions analogous to those described in Fig. 3 at  $I_{\text{app}}$   
696 = 10 mA, using the same reactor and electrodes. (b) Effect of  $I_{\text{app}}$  under the conditions of plot  
697 (a) at 2 mM PDS. (c) Dissolved TOC content at the end of the trials of plot (b), accounting  
698 for the percentage of TOC removal depicted on the right y-axis. The difference between these  
699 values and  $\text{TOC}_0$  corresponds to the organic carbon adsorbed throughout the tests.

700 **Fig. 5.** (a) Time course of the percentage of color removal during the treatment of 200 mL of  
701 dye solutions analogous to those described in Fig. 4 at 2 mM PDS and  $I_{\text{app}} = 10$  mA, using  
702 the same reactor and a freshly prepared  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ -modified RVC cathode reused for five  
703 consecutive runs (45 min each). (b) Dissolved TOC content (left y-axis) and percentage of  
704 TOC removal (right y-axis) at the end of the trials of plot (a). The difference between the  
705 former values and  $\text{TOC}_0$  corresponds to the organic carbon adsorbed throughout the tests.

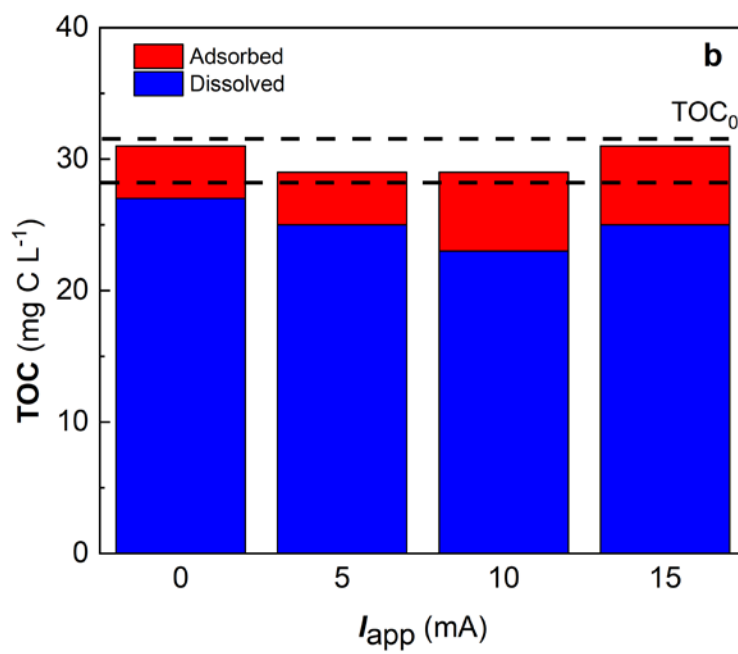
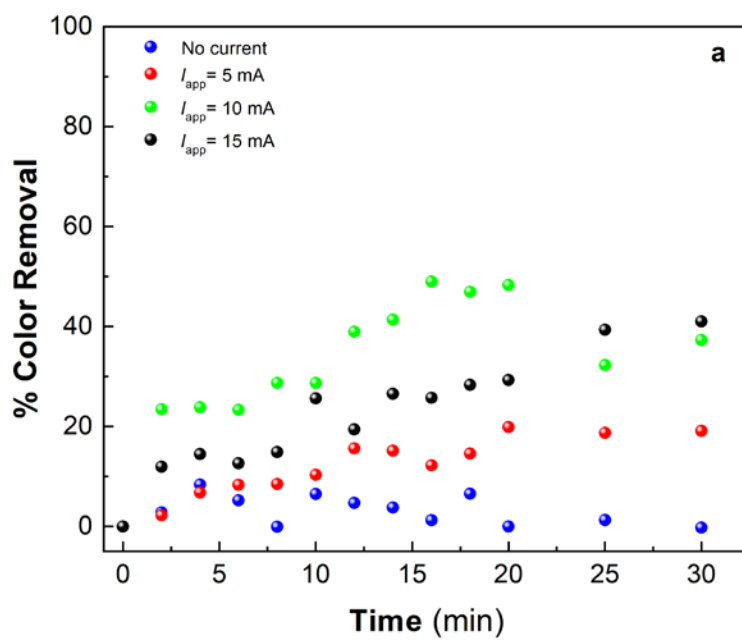




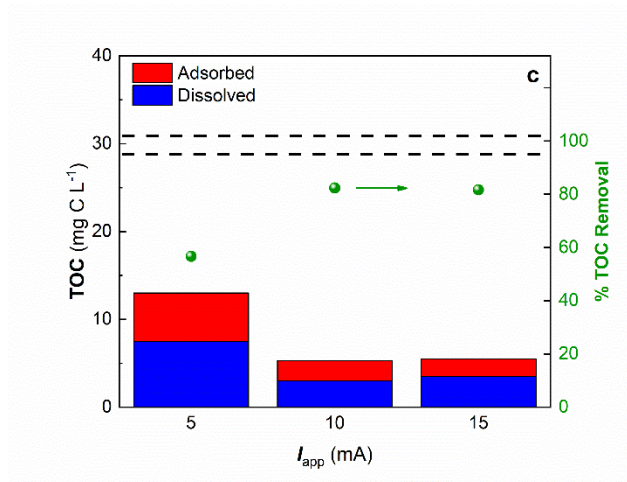
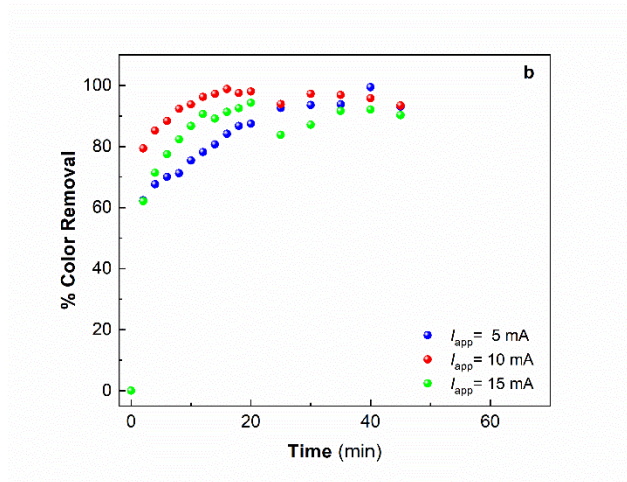
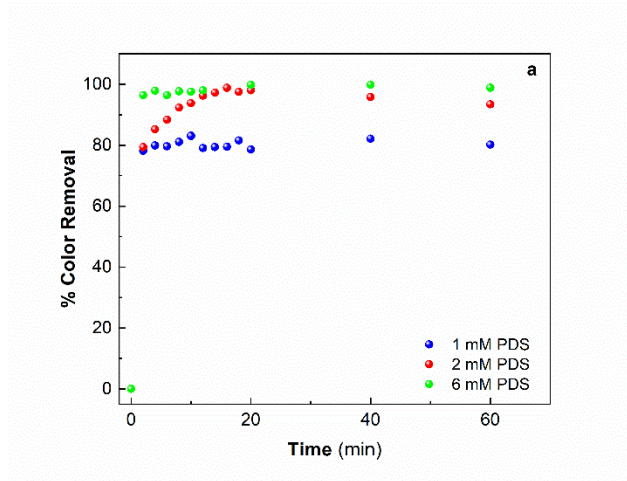
**Fig. 1**



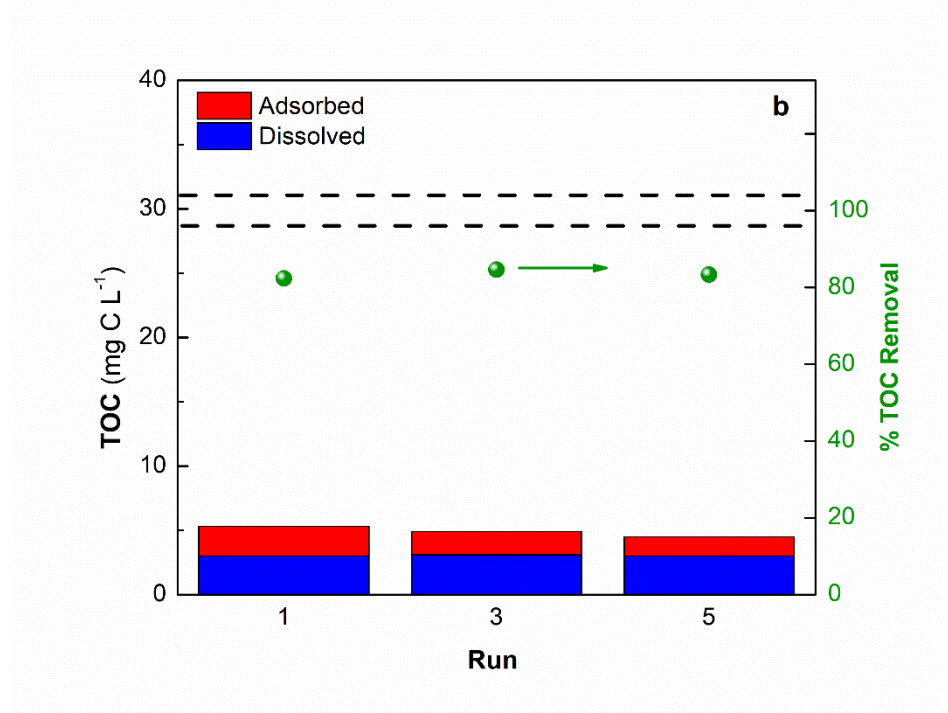
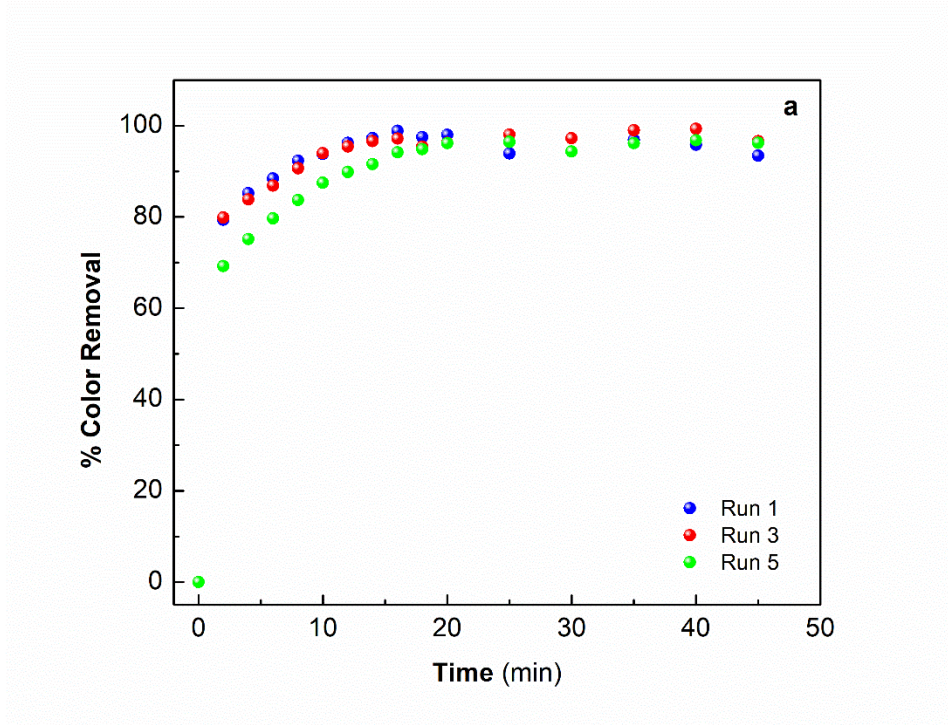
**Fig. 2**



**Fig. 3**



**Fig. 4**



**Fig. 5**