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External oxidant-free remediation of antibiotics: Activation of oxygen molecules to generate hydroxyl radicals using Co-Fe₃S₄ nanoflowers

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ABSTRACT

To overcome the obstacles of adding oxidants for the decontamination of antibiotics in natural aqueous environment, an external oxidant-free system was developed to *in-situ* generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) through the activation of dissolved oxygen molecules (O₂). Guided by density functional theory (DFT) calculation, cobalt-doped Fe₃S₄ (Co-Fe₃S₄) nanoflowers were designed and synthesized, which exhibited superior O₂ adsorption and activation ability. Co-Fe₃S₄ triggered a long-lasting generation of •OH with a high yield of 16.63 μM •OH, which was 3 times higher than that of Fe₃S₄. Furthermore, use of Co-Fe₃S₄ resulted in a 7.33-fold improvement in sulfamethoxazole's degradation rate and boosted the degradation efficiency from 43% to over 90% in the long-run experiments compared to Fe₃S₄. With ¹⁸O₂ isotopic investigations, we quantitatively revealed that •OH was generated via O₂'s one-step dissociative adsorption process and the directional electron transfer contributed by structural S(-II). Without the addition of external oxidants (e.g., H₂O₂, O₃), we have reported an efficient one-step activation of O₂ to generate ROS for effective degradation of antibiotics. Hence, we have provided a new strategy for the control of emerging organics in natural water systems, as well as shed light on the mechanisms of *in-situ* •OH generation.

1. Introduction

The continuous release of antibiotics during their life cycle of manufacturing, application, excretions, and disposal, has led to a substantial accumulation of antibiotics in natural water bodies (e.g., groundwater[1–3], rivers[4,5], lakes[6], etc.). The occurrence of antibiotics poses significant threats to ecosystems and public health by the induction and dissemination of antibiotic resistance bacteria.[7] Hence, it is urgent to provide effective *in-situ* remediation techniques for the control of antibiotics in natural water bodies. As one of the most promising techniques, advanced oxidation processes have been extensively applied for the remediation of various contaminants (e.g., antibiotics[8–11], phenol[12,13], pesticides[14,15], etc.). Typically, external addition of oxidants (e.g., H₂O₂[16–18], ozone[19,20], persulfate[21–23]) is required to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) to degrade pollutants. Unlike the engineered systems (e.g., wastewater treatment plant), the external addition of oxidants to natural water bodies would consume a relatively large amount of chemicals[24], which may further pose ecotoxicological risks such as the formation of disinfection byproducts[25,26].

Recently, more and more attention has been redirected to utilizing dissolved O₂ in water for antibiotics remediation[27–29]. However, it's challenging to directly convert O₂ into ROS due to the thermodynamic stability of O₂ in its triplet ground state[30]. The involvement of heterogeneous catalysts would contribute to the O₂ activation through electron transferring to the π* orbital of O₂. [31,32] Iron-sulfur minerals are generally considered as preferred catalysts to promote ROS generation due to their transition chemical states and rich active sites on the surface[33]. Dong et al.[27,29] reported the spontaneous •OH generation from the oxidation of mackinawite (FeS), which was applied for the remediation of arsenic and phenol. Being the naturally abundant ferromagnetic iron-sulfur mineral, greigite (Fe₃S₄) has been widely applied in heterogeneous AOPs. Liu et al.[34,35] found an extensive peroxidase-like activity of Fe₃S₄, and applied Fe₃S₄ to remove arsenic. Moreover, Shi et al.[36] reported Fe₃S₄/H₂O₂ system to degrade atrazine using •O₂⁻ produced from O₂ under light irradiation, demonstrating Fe₃S₄'s potential to activate O₂ for degrading organic pollutants.

On the other hand, the poor adsorption of dissolved O₂ onto the surface of the catalysts remains a major challenge for using O₂ to degrade contaminants[35,37]. Montemore et al.[38] proposed a

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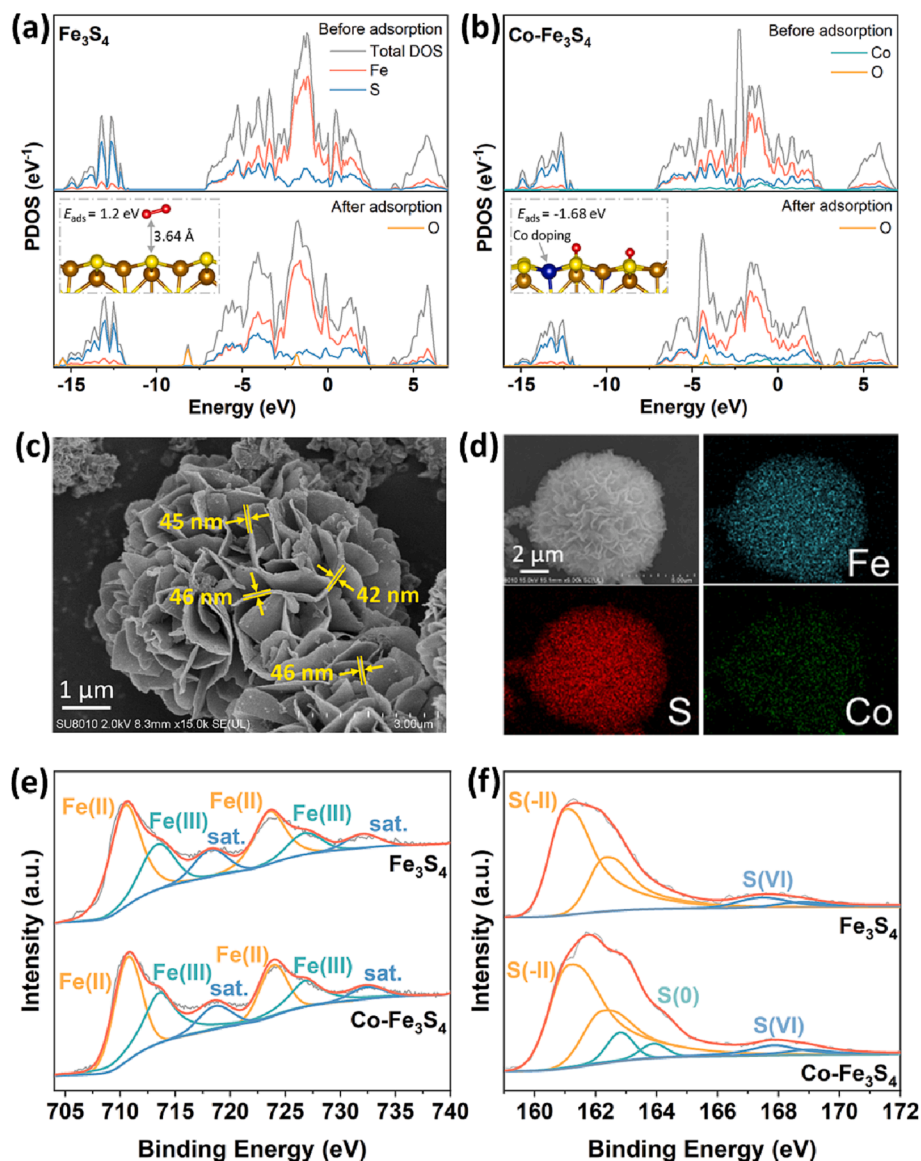


Fig. 1. DOS of (a) Fe_3S_4 and (b) $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$ nanoflowers before and after O_2 adsorption, respectively. The insets show the corresponding relaxed adsorption structures of oxygen molecules adsorbed on the surface of Fe_3S_4 and $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$. Color scheme: Fe = brown, S = yellow, O = red, and Co = blue. (c) SEM images of the nanoflowers, and (d) elemental mapping of $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$. XPS spectra of (e) Fe and (f) S in Fe_3S_4 and $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$.

periodic trend in the of metal surfaces to O_2 activation that metals with a mostly empty d shell, such as Co, Fe, and Rh, presented extremely low adsorption and dissociation barriers. Hence, modification of under-coordinated defect sites through doping with active transition metals has been considered as a promising method to improve the O_2 adsorption capacity and the catalytic performance [39–42]. Liu et al. [43] found a superior photocatalytic reactivity for CuS_4 -modified ZnInS_4 nano-sheets due to the better O_2 adsorption ability and more favorable electron transferring. Similarly, Zhao et al. [44] reported that Co-doped monolayer MoS_2 exhibits excellent O_2 adsorption capacity, which could generate activated oxygen atoms through a dissociation reaction. Thus, doping with transition metals (e.g., Co) in Fe_3S_4 may significantly improve the adsorption and activation ability of dissolved O_2 , which have not been thoroughly investigated.

In this study, enhanced O_2 adsorption by doping Fe_3S_4 with Co was predicted via theoretical calculation. Guided by theoretical calculation, a $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$ catalyst was synthesized and evaluated for antibiotic degradation via the activation of dissolved O_2 . The underlying mechanisms of O_2 conversion were revealed by conducting ^{18}O isotopic

labeling remediations. Furthermore, the O_2 activation performance by $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$ was evaluated under various environmental conditions. We provide new insights on the $\text{Co-Fe}_3\text{S}_4$ assisted activation of O_2 into ROS to effectively degrade organic pollutants, which is a novel external-oxidant free *in-situ* chemical oxidation approach for the control of emerging organic pollutants.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemical and materials

Analytical grade iron (III) chloride hexahydrate ($\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), thiourea ($\text{CS}(\text{NH}_2)_2$), and ethylene glycol (EG) were purchased from Sino-pharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Cobalt chloride hexahydrate ($\text{CoCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrrolidine-N-oxide (DMPO), 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine (TEMP), benzoic acid (BA), 4-hydroxyl benzoic acid (4-HBA), *tert*-butanol (TBA) were purchased from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). All the chemicals were used without further purification. Ultra-pure water (Millipore Super Q system) with a

resistivity of 18.2 MΩ cm was used in the experiments.

2.2. Synthesis of Co-Fe₃S₄

The Co-Fe₃S₄ nanoflowers were prepared by a modified hydrothermal method[45]. Specifically, FeCl₃·6H₂O (3.0 mmol), CoCl₂·6H₂O (0.6 mmol), and thiourea (6.0 mmol) were dissolved in 60 mL of EG to form a carmine solution under magnetic stirring. The solution was then transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 12 h. After cooling to room temperature, the product was collected and washed with DI water and ethanol thrice, then dried in a vacuum oven at 40 °C for 8 h. The proportion of Co within Co-Fe₃S₄ from 10% to 50% was tuned for comparison by adjusting the dosage of CoCl₂·6H₂O (from 0.3 mmol to 1.5 mmol) during the hydrothermal process. As a control, Fe₃S₄ was prepared by a similar process without the addition of CoCl₂·6H₂O during the synthesis process.

2.3. Degradation of antibiotic

The antibiotic degradation performance of Co-Fe₃S₄ was verified by different pollutants including sulfamethoxazole (SMX), sulfadiazine (SDZ), carbamazepine (CBZ) and ofloxacin (OFX), and SMX was chosen as the typical pollutant in the following experiments. In degradation experiment, 25 mg of catalyst were dispersed into 50 mL of a 10 mg/L sulfamethoxazole (SMX) aqueous solution in a 100 mL round-bottom flask (25 ± 1°C), shaken at 200 rpm. Flasks were covered with aluminum foil to avoid potential photochemical reactions and open to the atmosphere. Samples were collected at specific intervals and immediately quenched with 0.2 mL methanol. The solution was then centrifugated and filtered using a 0.22 μm polyethersulfone (PES) membrane before high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) analysis.

To account for the contribution of O₂ to the removal of SMX, degradation experiments were also performed under N₂ and O₂ atmosphere. To explore the effect of pH, the initial pH of the SMX/catalyst solution was adjusted by HCl or NaOH to 3, 5, 7, and 10, respectively. Then, the pH value was monitored throughout the degradation process. In addition, the influence of water matrix was also investigated, by carrying out the SMX degradation experiments with the addition of 1 mM and 10 mM NaCl, Na₂SO₄, and NH₄HCO₃, respectively, and 1 mg/L and 10 mg/L of natural organic matter (humic acid). All the other procedures were the same as described above. All degradation experiments were conducted in triplicate. Additional details of characterization techniques and analytical methods are given in [supporting information \(SI\)](#).

2.4. Theoretical calculation

Theoretical calculations were performed using density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP) code. A 4 × 4 × 1 supercell of Fe₃S₄ (110) facet with a 15 Å vacuum layer was constructed to mimic the Fe₃S₄ nanosheets, and the k-points were 2 × 2 × 1 for structure optimizations. Co-Fe₃S₄ nanosheets were constructed by substituting 20% of 5-coordinated Fe atoms on the top-layer with Co atoms. The energy cutoff was set at 500 eV, and the topmost five layers of the slab were allowed to relax until the energy and residual forces were less than 10⁻⁵ eV and 10⁻² eV/Å, respectively.[46] To evaluate oxygen adsorption and decomposition on the surface of Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄, an oxygen molecule was placed 3 Å above the 4-coordinated Fe atom on the top-layer of Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ respectively, and relaxed until converged. The adsorption energies E_{ads} were defined as: $E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{adsorbate+surface}} - E_{\text{surface}} - E_{\text{adsorbate}}$, where $E_{\text{adsorbate+surface}}$ represents the total energy of the oxygen molecule and the surface of Fe₃S₄ or Co-Fe₃S₄ in the equilibrium state, E_{surface} and $E_{\text{adsorbate}}$ represent the total energy of oxygen molecular and surface alone, respectively. In addition, Bader charge analysis and density of state (DOS) analysis were

adopted to characterize the charge transfer between the oxygen molecule and the material's surface.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Theoretical calculation-guided design of Co-Fe₃S₄

According to the DFT theoretical calculation, Fe₃S₄ was thermodynamically unfavorable for O₂ adsorption with a positive adsorption energy of + 0.12 eV. Based on the DOS analysis, the d-states of Fe and p-states of S in Fe₃S₄ remained unchanged before and after O₂ adsorption (Fig. 1a), suggesting weak interactions between Fe₃S₄ and O₂. Furthermore, the distances between the O₂ molecule and Fe₃S₄ were enlarged from 3.00 Å to 3.64 Å, while no significant differences were observed for O-O bond length before and after O₂ adsorption ($d(\text{O-O}) = 1.20 \text{ \AA}$ [47]). Therefore, minimal O₂ would be adsorbed onto Fe₃S₄. After doping Co onto Fe₃S₄, O₂ would be spontaneously adsorbed onto the Co-Fe₃S₄ surface with a negative adsorption energy of -1.68 eV and subsequently dissociated into two highly active •O (Fig. 1b). In addition, strong hybridization between atomic O and Fe and S atoms occurred after O₂ was adsorbed onto the Co-Fe₃S₄ surface, as a distinct peak of Fe-3d and S-2p formed at -4.2 eV and slightly diminished around the Fermi level. Consistent with Bader charge analysis, a charge of 1.69 e⁻ was transferred from the interacting Fe and S ions to the adsorbed O π_g orbital, which generated a significant electron-rich environment on the dissociative O atoms (Fig. S1). Thus, doping Co in Fe₃S₄ could not only enhance O₂ adsorption and dissociation but also facilitate the proton transfer to adsorbed O for higher reactivity.

Guided by the theoretical calculation, Co-Fe₃S₄ was prepared by doping Co in Fe₃S₄. Co-Fe₃S₄ nanosheets with approximate 45 nm of thickness exhibited uniform flower-like aggregates (Fig. 1c), which was similar to the morphology of Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S2). Elemental mapping demonstrated that Co was evenly distributed on Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. 1d), and the proportion of S, Fe, and Co was approximately 4:3:0.6 (Fig. S3, Table.S1). The crystalline phase of Co-Fe₃S₄ was examined by XRD (Fig. S4), and the main diffraction peaks of Co-Fe₃S₄ were well ascribed to the facets of cubic phase Fe₃S₄ (JCPDS no. 16-713). In addition, lattice spacings of 0.175 nm and 0.297 nm were observed in the HRTEM (Fig. S5), which were well-matched with the (440) and (311) facets of Fe₃S₄, respectively.

The doping of Co induced a change in the coordinating environment of Fe atoms in Co-Fe₃S₄ due to the bonding hybridization of Fe atoms to the nearest-neighbor Co atom[48]. The weakened electrons screening effect contributed to the slight shift of Fe(II) and Fe(III) peaks to the higher binding energies, as the binding energies of Fe(II) shifted from 710.6 (Fe₃S₄) to 710.9 eV (Co-Fe₃S₄) and 723.8 (Fe₃S₄) to 724.1 eV (Co-Fe₃S₄), and the binding energies of Fe(III) shifted from 713.6 and 726.8 (Fe₃S₄) to 713.7 and 726.9 eV (Co-Fe₃S₄) (Fig. 1e). Correspondingly, the dominant chemical state of S in Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ were S(-II) and S(VI), as characteristic peaks arising at 161.0 and 168.0 eV (Fig. 1f). Besides, two more peaks at 162.4 and 163.4 were identified in the S-2p spectra of Co-Fe₃S₄, which can be attributed to S(0).

3.2. •OH-mediated degradation of antibiotics

Co-Fe₃S₄ exhibited outstanding remediation performance to various antibiotics including SMX, SDZ, CBZ, OFX, with removal efficiencies up to 91% (Fig.S6). Due to the stability of the degradation process, SMX was chosen as the indicator in the following experiments to investigate the degradation performance of Co-Fe₃S₄. Furthermore, the optimized doping ratios of Co was analyzed by ranging the proportion from 10% to 50%, and Co-Fe₃S₄ with 20% Co doping was proved to exhibit the best degradation performance (Fig.S7). Propriate proportion of Co doping (less than 30%) could promote the O₂ adsorption of Fe₃S₄ to improve degradation efficiency. Meanwhile, the increase of Co proportion would also result in the generation of CoS_x (Fig.S8), which would compete of

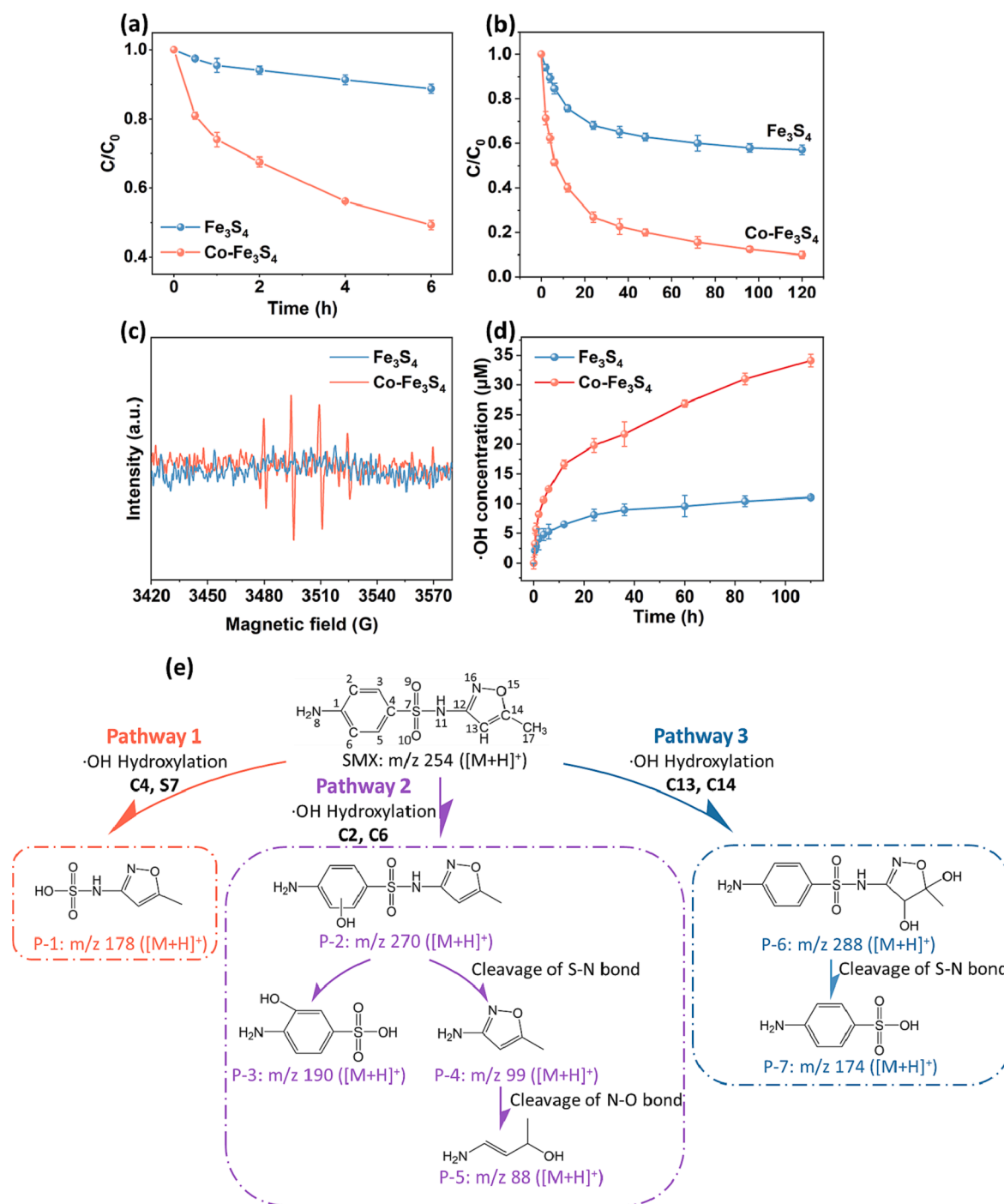


Fig. 2. The (a) short-term and (b) long-term degradation efficiency of SMX by Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄. (reaction condition: [catalyst] = 0.5 g/L, [SMX]₀ = 10 mg/L, initial pH = 5.0 ± 0.1) (c) EPR spectra of DMPO-·OH in Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ systems ([DMPO]₀ = 160 mM). (d) Long-term BA probe experiment in Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ systems. (e) The degradation pathways of SMX in Co-Fe₃S₄.

electrons transferring between O₂ and Co-Fe₃S₄ to hamper the generation of ROS, leading to the drop of SMX degradation efficiency. As shown in Fig. 2a, Co-Fe₃S₄ (with 20% Co) exhibited an outstanding SMX degradation efficiency with a first-order rate constant of $1.92 \times 10^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$, which was a 7.33-fold improvement compared to Fe₃S₄ ($2.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{h}^{-1}$). Particularly, over 90% of SMX could be removed by Co-Fe₃S₄ in the long-run experiment, while only 43.6% of SMX was degraded by Fe₃S₄ (Fig. 2b). Co-Fe₃S₄ demonstrates excellent remediation capability without adding additional oxidants (e.g., H₂O₂).

To further reveal the underlying mechanisms of Co-Fe₃S₄ catalyzed degradation, the intermediate degradation products of SMX were

identified by UHPLC-QTOF-MS. As shown in Fig. 2e, SMX was degraded mainly through hydroxylation reactions. In Pathway 1, P-1 was produced by breaking the C4-S7 bond, which exhibited relatively weak bond energy and was highly vulnerable to electrophilic species [49] (e.g., ·OH). While P-2 was formed by the electrophilic replacement on C2 or C6 of the aromatic ring (Pathway 2), which was one of the classical ·OH-mediated degradation pathways of SMX [31,50]. Similar to Pathway 2, dihydroxylated P-6 in Pathway 3 could be generated by hydroxylation reaction on the isoxazole ring [51]. P-2 with hydroxy replacement was the dominant pathway and demonstrated a ·OH-triggered SMX degradation.

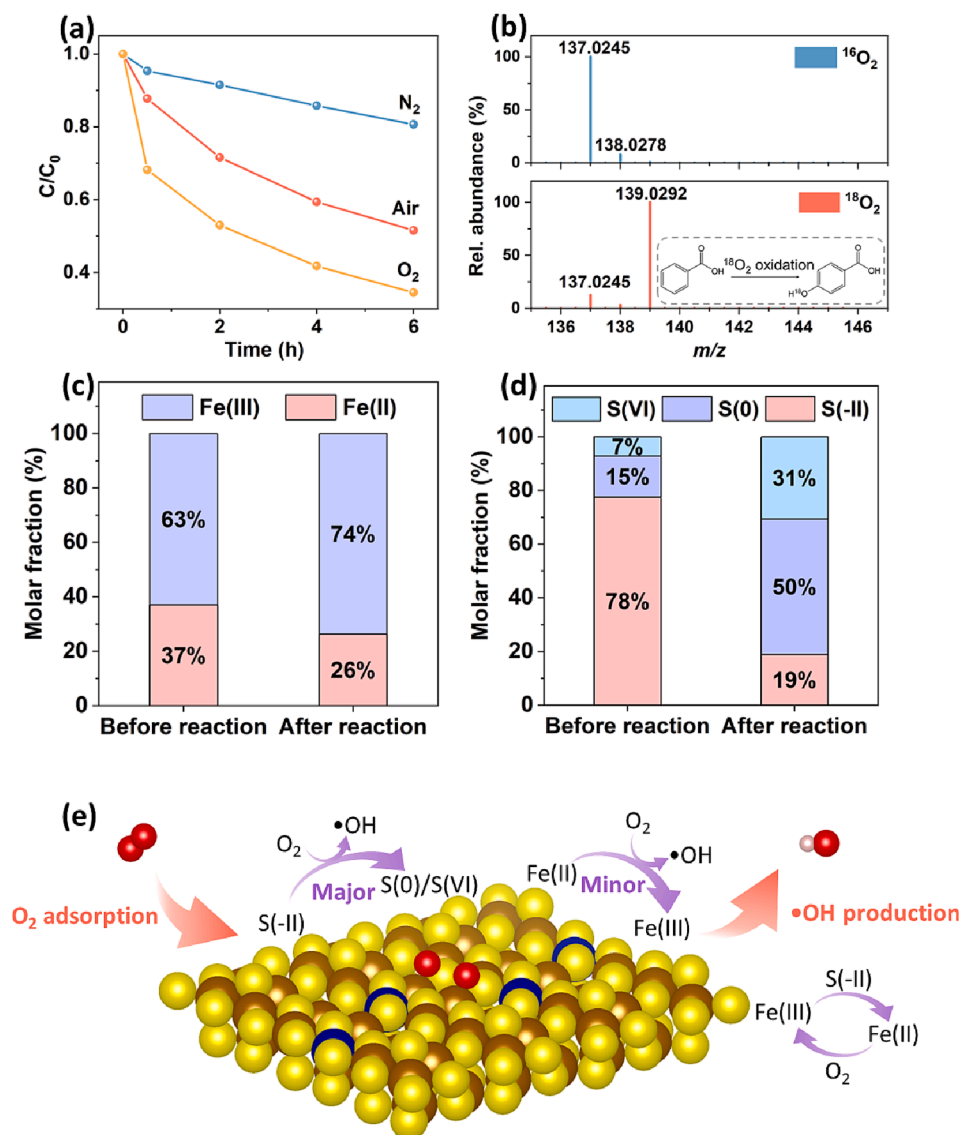


Fig. 3. (a) SMX degradation under different atmospheric conditions (reaction condition: [catalyst] = 0.5 g/L, [SMX]₀ = 10 mg/L, initial pH = 5.0 ± 0.1) (b) Mass spectra of HBA under ¹⁶O₂ and ¹⁸O₂ isotope atmosphere conditions. The molar fraction of (c) Fe and (d) S speciation in Co-Fe₃S₄ before and after reaction determined by XPS. (e) Proposed mechanism for O₂ activation in Co-Fe₃S₄ system.

To confirm the contribution of •OH in the degradation of SMX by Co-Fe₃S₄, DMPO was applied as the spin-trapping agent to *in situ* capture •OH. Evident quartet peaks with an intensity ratio of 1:2:2:1 were detected in EPR spectra (Fig. 2c), demonstrating the formation of •OH induced by Co-Fe₃S₄. As a control, no obvious signals of DMPO-•OH adduct were observed in Fe₃S₄'s EPR spectra. The contribution of •O₂ and ¹O₂ were also investigated via EPR measurements (Fig.S9), however, no relevant signals were found, suggesting the dominant role played by •OH in the degradation of SMX by Co-Fe₃S₄. Quenching experiments by 1 mM and 10 mM of TBA was further applied to verify the contribution of •OH (Fig.S10). Obvious inhabitation of SMX degradation under TBA presence could strongly prove the SMX degradation induced by •OH. In addition, a BA probe reaction was carried out to further quantitatively assess the yield of •OH (Fig. 2d). •OH was rapidly formed in the first 12 h with catalyzation of Co-Fe₃S₄, and the yield (16.63 μM) was enhanced by 3 fold compared to the Fe₃S₄ system (6.05 μM). Furthermore, Co-Fe₃S₄ continuously induced the generation of •OH in the long-run experiment with a total yield of 34.12 μM within 5 days, while only negligible •OH were produced in Fe₃S₄ system in the long-run period. Therefore, Co-Fe₃S₄ could boost the •OH production for

the long-lasting remediation of antibiotics without additional oxidants.

3.3. Directional electron transfer between S(-II) and oxygen molecules

To reveal the mechanisms of •OH formation, the degradation experiments were conducted under different atmospheres (Fig. 3a) with dissolved oxygen concentration varied from 4.08 mg/L, 8.84 mg/L to 10.25 mg/L under N₂, air and O₂ atmosphere, respectively. The first-order rate constant of SMX degradation increased from $1.92 \times 10^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ to $2.64 \times 10^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ when the solution was exposed to a pure O₂ atmosphere, and decreased severely to $5.62 \times 10^{-4} \text{h}^{-1}$ under an N₂ atmosphere. In addition, BA probe experiment was carried out to quantitatively assess the •OH production under different atmospheres (Fig.S11). The yield of •OH was boosted obviously from 9.21 μM to 23.64 μM in the first 6 h under O₂ atmosphere and was severely inhibited under N₂ atmosphere (1.92 μM), consistent with SMX degradation performance. Obviously, O₂ played a critical role in the •OH-mediated degradation of SMX. To further identify the origin of •OH, ¹⁸O isotopic labeling study was conducted by analyzing the molecular mass of •OH's probe (BA + •OH → 4-HBA) under ¹⁶O₂ and ¹⁸O₂ atmosphere

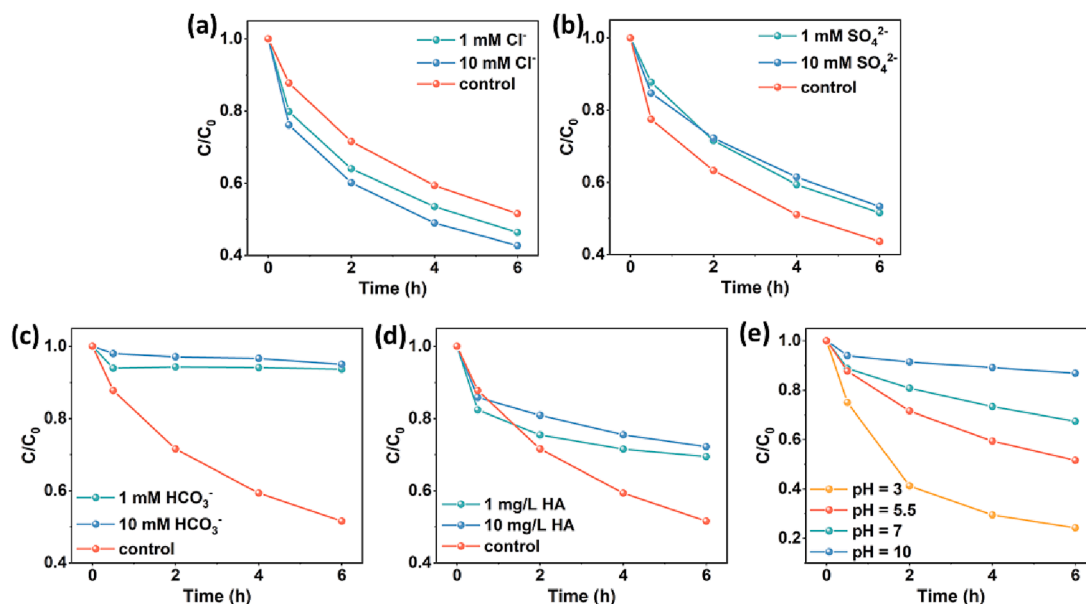
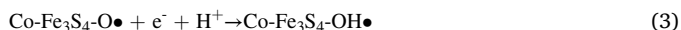
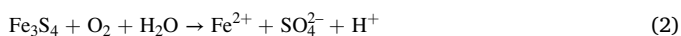


Fig. 4. Effect of coexisting substances (a) Cl^- , (b) SO_4^{2-} , (c) HCO_3^- , and (d) HA and (e) pH on SMX degradation by Co-Fe₃S₄ system (reaction condition: [catalyst] = 0.5 g/L, [SMX]₀ = 10 mg/L, initial pH = 5.0 ± 0.1).

(Fig. 3b). Under ¹⁶O₂ atmospheric condition, only 4-HBA_{m/z=137} was detected with an abundance of 92.7%. However, ¹⁸O-labeled 4-HBA_{m/z = 139} (88% abundance) was the dominant 4-HBA detected under ¹⁸O₂ atmosphere, while 4-HBA_{m/z=137} was the minor species accounting for 11.1%. According to the secondary mass spectrometry (Fig.S12), ¹⁸O atom was anchored on the para hydroxy in 4-HBA, which further confirming the generation of ¹⁸O-labeled •OH. Hence, the dominant presence of ¹⁸O-labeled 4-HBA under ¹⁸O₂ atmosphere strongly demonstrated the origin of •OH was derived from O₂ molecules. Together with the DFT theoretical calculation, Co-Fe₃S₄ favors O₂ dissociative adsorption and further facilitates the electron transferring to the surface-bound O• (Eq.1). Hydrogen atoms ionized from Fe₃S₄ (Eq.2) combined directly with surface-bound O• to form •OH radicals (Eq.3). [52].



Meanwhile, we further investigated the electron donor in the O₂ activation considering the redox potential and electron transfer capacity. The structural Fe(II) of iron-sulfur minerals was widely considered as the electron donor^{27,35,52} ($E_{\text{Fe(III)/Fe(II)}} = 0.77 \text{ V}$), while rare attention has been directed to the structural S(-II), which also poses strong capability to donate an electron ($E_{\text{S(0)/S(-II)}} = -0.47 \text{ V}$, $E_{\text{S(VI)/S(-II)}} = -0.68 \text{ V}$) [53]. By itself, Co(II) with a higher redox potential ($E_{\text{Co(III)/Co(II)}} = 1.92 \text{ V}$) is thermodynamically unfavorable for O₂ activation. Thus, the molar proportion of structural Fe and S species before and after the reaction (Fig. 3c and 3d) was determined by XPS (Fig.S13). During the 6-hour reaction, 11% of structural Fe(II) in Co-Fe₃S₄ was converted to Fe(III) to provide 1.19 μM electrons, which was far from the total electron demand for •OH generation (12.42 μM). Notably, the S species distribution was changed dramatically (Fig. 3d), showing a significant conversion of S(-II) into S(0) and S(VI). The formation of S(0) was monitored along the reaction (Fig.S14), which aligned with the generation of •OH. 35% of structural S(-II) in Co-Fe₃S₄ was converted to 3.75 μM S(0) to supply 7.50 μM electrons, while another 24% S(-II) was oxidized to S(VI) to donate another 20.57 μM electrons. Therefore, structural S(-II) in Co-Fe₃S₄ donated together 28.07 μM electrons, which could not only meet the demand of directionally transfer electrons to O₂

for •OH generation, but also contribute to the Fe(III)/Fe(II) cycling.

Overall, the O₂ activation by Co-Fe₃S₄ was illustrated in Fig. 3e. According to the DFT calculation, O₂ could spontaneously be adsorbed and dissociated on the surface Fe(II) and S(-II) sites of Co-Fe₃S₄. Then, through directional electron transfer and protonation, •OH could be produced through surface-bound •O. Contrary to previous research that O₂ activation was led by Fe(II) oxidation, structural S(-II) proved to play a vital role in donating electrons not only directionally to O₂ activation, but also to Fe(III) reduction. The majority of directional electron transfer was drawn from structural S(-II) instead of Fe(II).

3.4. Remediation performance under different environmental conditions

As shown in Fig. 4, the presence of SO_4^{2-} and Cl^- exhibited a small effect on the degradation of SMX, with 10 mM Cl^- enhancing degradation by 8.8 % and 10 mM SO_4^{2-} inhibiting it by 7.9 %. However, the presence of 10 mM HCO_3^- or even 1 mg/L HA induced inhibitory effects on the remediation performance of Co-Fe₃S₄. Owing to the relatively high rate constant ($k_{\text{HCO}_3^-} = 1.5 \times 10^7 \text{ LM}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) [54], HCO_3^- would compete for •OH, which would result in faster consumption of •OH and a 43.4% of reduction in the degradation efficiency of SMX by 10 mM HCO_3^- . The presence of HA likely covered the Co-Fe₃S₄ surface, preventing adsorption of O₂ [55], which significantly reduced •OH generation and the removal of SMX (decreased from 48.4% to 27.8%). Additionally, Co-Fe₃S₄ posed robust remediation performance across a wide pH range (pH = 3–7), but was less effective under very alkaline conditions. 75.8% SMX could be effectively degraded with an initial pH of 3.0 (Fig. 4e). While, the formation and precipitation of ferric hydroxide under the alkaline conditions would occupy Co-Fe₃S₄'s active sites, inhibiting the adsorption and activation of O₂.

In addition, Co-Fe₃S₄/O₂ system possessed an efficient remediation performance to low-concentration antibiotics. The degradation efficiency of 200 ppb SMX reached 67.7% within 6 h, and the total removal of mixed low-concentration antibiotics (including 200 ppb of SMX, SDZ, CBZ and OFX) was up to 99.7% (Fig.S15). The remediation performance in actual water bodies was also evaluated using secondary effluent collected from a wastewater treatment plant in Shenzhen, China. Co-Fe₃S₄/O₂ system maintained a high removal (up to 99.6%) on low-concentration antibiotics in secondary effluent (Fig. S15), demonstrating the potential practical application of Co-Fe₃S₄/O₂ system for

environmental remediation.

The reusability of the Co-Fe₃S₄/O₂ system was also investigated, and Co-Fe₃S₄ could maintain stable performance on the degradation of SMX in the first two cycles (Fig. S16a). The degradation efficiency's gradual decrease could be attributed to the loss of Co-Fe₃S₄'s reactive sites, as slight passivation was observed in the used Co-Fe₃S₄'s surface (Fig. S16c) with mild changes in crystallization (Fig. S16b).

4. Conclusions

In summary, Co-Fe₃S₄ was successfully synthesized and characterized, and the superior SMX degradation performance of Co-Fe₃S₄ over Fe₃S₄ through the activation of dissolved oxygen molecules has been thoroughly investigated. Guided by DFT calculation that Co doping in Fe₃S₄ could significantly accelerate the adsorption and activation of O₂ on the surface of Fe₃S₄, Co-Fe₃S₄ was synthesized. The novel material resulted in a 7.33-fold of improvement in the SMX degradation, due to both the superior O₂ adsorption and generation of •OH. ROS-induced oxidation of SMX was verified according to the analysis of degradation intermediates, and then •OH was proven to be the dominant ROS and could be continuously generated by the Co-Fe₃S₄ system. Degradation experiments under different atmospheres (i.e., air, O₂, N₂) and ¹⁸O₂ isotopic experiments were further carried out to demonstrate that dissolved oxygen molecules are the source of •OH. In addition to the structural Fe(II), S(-II) in the Co-Fe₃S₄ also contributed to the directional electron transfer to the oxygen molecules. In addition, another essential role of S(-II) was to reduce Fe(III) and promote the iron cycle.

Without the external addition of oxidants (such as H₂O₂ and O₃), Co-Fe₃S₄ can generate in-situ •OH through activation of dissolved oxygen molecules. The performance and mechanism of oxygen activation by Co-Fe₃S₄ and the important role S(-II) played were thoroughly investigated. This work provided new insights into the contribution of oxygen molecules activation in antibiotics remediation and the application of in-situ generated •OH by iron-sulfide materials in water quality control.

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.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Details regarding material characterization (Text. S1); analytical methods (Text. S2); Differential charge density of O₂ adsorption on the surface of Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S1); SEM of Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S2); SEM-EDS of Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S3); XRD of Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S4); TEM of Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S5); Remediation performance of Co-Fe₃S₄ to different antibiotics, including sulfamethoxazole (SMX), sulfadiazine (SDZ), carbamazepine (CBZ), and ofloxacin (OFX) (Fig. S6); SMX degradation efficiency of Co-Fe₃S₄ with different Cobalt proportions (Fig. S7); XRD and SEM of Co-Fe₃S₄ with different cobalt proportions (Fig. S8); EPR spectra

of TEMP-¹O₂ and DMPO-•O₂ (Fig. S9); Quenching experiments of •OH (Fig. S10); BA probe experiment in Co-Fe₃S₄ system under air, N₂ and O₂ atmosphere (Fig. S11); Secondary mass spectra of HBA under ¹⁶O₂ and ¹⁸O₂ conditions (Fig. S12); XPS spectra of Co-Fe₃S₄ before and after reaction (Fig. S13); S₀ concentration in Fe₃S₄ and Co-Fe₃S₄/O₂ systems (Fig. S14); Degradation efficiency of low-concentrated antibiotics (Fig. S15); Reusability of Co-Fe₃S₄ (Fig. S16); Element proportion of Co-Fe₃S₄ according to SEM-EDS (Table. S1). Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.142465>.

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