- 1 Article
- 2 **Photocatalytic Degradation of Azo Dye Reactive**

3 Violet 5 on Fe-Doped Titania Catalysts under Visible

4 Light Irradiation

Antonio Zuorro *,1, Roberto Lavecchia 1, Marika Michela Monaco 1, Giuseppina Iervolino 2, Vincenzo Vaiano 2

- Department of Chemical Engineering, Materials and Environment, Sapienza University, 00184 Rome, Italy;
 antonio.zuorro@uniroma1.it (A.Z.); roberto.lavecchia@uniroma1.it (R.L.);
- 9 marikamichela.monaco@uniroma1.it (M.M.M.)
- ² Department of Industrial Engineering, University of Salerno; <u>giiervolino@unisa.it</u> (G.I.); <u>vvaiano@unisa.it</u> (V.V.)
- 12 * Correspondence: antonio.zuorro@uniroma1.it
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14 Abstract: The presence of azo dyes in textile effluents is an issue of major concern due to their 15 potential impact on the environment and human health. In this study we investigate the 16 photocatalytic degradation under visible light of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5), an azo dye widely used in 17 the textile industry. A preliminary screening of different titania-based catalysts was carried out to 18 identify the best candidate for RV5 removal. The selected catalyst was then tested in a stirred and 19 aerated lab-scale reactor illuminated with a light LED source (λ_{max} = 460 nm). The effects of pH, 20 catalyst load and hydrogen peroxide additions on the efficiency of dye removal were evaluated. 21 Under the best conditions (pH 10, 3 g/L of catalyst and 60 mM hydrogen peroxide), the dye 22 solution was completely decolorized in about 2 h. Overall, the results obtained suggest that the 23 proposed process may represent a suitable method for the removal of RV5 from textile effluents.

Keywords: photocatalysis; visible light; titania catalysts; azo dye; reactive violet 5; textile
 wastewater

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27 **1. Introduction**

28 Azo dyes are the largest class of dyes used in industry [1]. These compounds are characterized 29 by the presence of one or more azo bonds (-N=N-) in their molecule in association with one or more 30 aromatic structures [2]. In the textile industry, the use of azo dyes for coloring cellulosic fibers such 31 as cotton and wool has increased significantly over the last decades due to their cost effectiveness, 32 brightness of color and good resistance to washing and light exposure. A major drawback related to 33 their application on textiles is the low fixation yield of the dye on the fiber caused by the hydrolysis 34 of the reactive groups in the dye molecule [3]. As a result, up to about 30% of the initial amount of 35 dye can be lost in water [4].

The presence of azo dyes in textile effluents makes them particularly harmful to the environment and to human health [5]. In fact, their release into aquatic ecosystems may lead to a reduction of sunlight penetration and dissolved oxygen concentration, with deleterious effects on local flora and fauna [6]. In addition, toxic and potentially carcinogenic compounds such as aromatic amines can be formed during dye degradation [7]. For these reasons, textile wastewater needs to be properly treated.

Since conventional water treatments are often ineffective in eliminating azo dyes from textile
effluents, more efficient technologies, such as the advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), are used
[8,9]. AOPs are based on the generation of highly reactive radical species, such as hydroxyl radicals

(•OH), by solar, chemical or other forms of energy. These radicals can attack the target compoundsthrough different reaction mechanisms leading to their degradation [10, 11].

47 In this paper we investigate the degradation of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) by a photocatalytic 48 treatment with Fe-doped TiO₂ photocatalysts exposed to visible light. RV5 is widely used in textile 49 dyeing because of its brightness, ease of application and good fastness to washing. However, its 50 complex aromatic structure (Figure 1) makes it highly resistant to degradation. A literature survey 51 shows that very few studies have been performed on RV5 degradation, and none of them has 52 investigated the photocatalytic removal of the dye under visible light [12–16]. Accordingly, a first 53 aim of this study was to evaluate whether the use of the selected photocatalyst in the presence of 54 visible light could be a suitable method to degrade RV5. Second, we were interested in assessing the 55 effect of the main process parameters on the efficiency of dye removal and the possibility of 56 enhancing it by addition of hydrogen peroxide.

57 The results obtained indicate that the proposed process may represent a viable and promising 58 approach for the removal of RV5 from textile effluents.



Figure 1. Chemical structure of azo dye Reactive Violet 5 (RV5).

69 2. Materials and Methods

70 2.1. Materials

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Sodium hydroxide (NaOH, CAS 1310-73-2), sodium hydrogen carbonate (NaHCO₃, CAS 144-55-8), disodium hydrogen phosphate (Na₂HPO₄, CAS 7558-79-4), potassium dihydrogen phosphate (KH₂PO₄, CAS 7778-77-0), sodium acetate (CH₃COONa, CAS 127-09-3), acetic acid (CH₃COOH, CAS 64-19-7) and hydrogen peroxide (30 wt% in water, CAS 7722-84-1), iron acetylacetonate (Fe(C₅H₇O₂)₃, CAS 14024-18-1), titanium isopropoxide (C₁₂H₂₈O₄Ti, CAS 546-68-9) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, Mo, USA). All chemicals were reagent grade and used as received.

78RV5 of technical grade ($C_{20}H_{16}N_3Na_3O_{15}S_4$, MW 735.59 g mol⁻¹, color index number 18097) was79provided by Gammacolor Srl (Seveso, Italy) and used as received. The natural pH of the dye80solution was 7.2 ± 0.1. When needed, RV5 was dissolved in the following buffers: acetate buffer (0.1

81 M, pH 4), phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 6 and 8) and carbonate buffer (0.1 M, pH 10 and 12).

82 2.2. Catalysts Preparation and Characterization

83 P-25 Degussa was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, Mo, USA). Fe-TiO2 84 photocatalysts were prepared by sol-gel method. In particular, 50 mg of iron acetylacetonate was 85 dissolved in 25 mL of titanium isopropoxide. The obtained solution was sonicated in order to obtain 86 the complete solubilization of iron acetylacetonate. Then, 100 mL of distilled water were added to 87 obtain a precipitate which was separated from the liquid phase by centrifugation for 5 min at 5,000 88 rpm. The sample was washed with distilled water for three times to remove any impurities and it 89 was calcined at 450 °C for 30 min [17]. The obtained samples were named xFe-TiO₂ where x is the 90 amount (in mg) of iron acetylacetonate used in the synthesis. The list of the prepared photocatalysts 91 with the amount of chemicals used in the preparation procedure is reported in Table 1.

92 All the photocatalysts were characterized using different techniques. The Raman spectra of the 93 samples were recorded with a Dispersive MicroRaman system (Invia, Renishaw), equipped with 514 94 nm laser, in the range 100-2,000 cm⁻¹ Raman shift. The crystal phases of photocatalysts were 95 determined by XRD analysis carried out on Bruker D8 diffractometer, using Cu-K α radiation. The 96 surface area (SSA) of the catalysts was obtained from the dynamic N₂ adsorption measurement at 97 -196 °C, using a Costech Sorptometer 1042 instrument, after a pre-treatment of the samples at 150 °C 98 for 30 min in He flow. UV-vis reflectance spectra of powder catalysts were recorded by a Perkin 99 Elmer spectrometer Lambda 35 using an RSA-PE-20 reflectance spectroscopy accessory (Labsphere 100 Inc., North Sutton, NH). All spectra were obtained using an 8° sample positioning holder, giving 101 total reflectance relative to a calibrated standard SRS-010-99 (Labsphere Inc., North Sut-ton, NH). 102 Equivalent band gap determinations of the photocatalysts were obtained from Kubelka-Munk 103 function $F(R_{\infty})$ by plotting $[F(R_{\infty}) \times h\nu]^2$ vs. hv.

104 105 **Table 1.** List of the prepared photocatalyst, amount of chemicals used in the synthesis and Fe/Ti molar ratio.

	$Fe(C_5H_7O_2)_3$	Titanium	Distilled	Fe/Ti molar
Photocatalysts	Amount	isopropoxide	water	ratio
	[mg]	[mL]	[mL]	[mol/mol]
TiO ₂	0	25	100	0
10Fe-TiO ₂	10	25	100	0.00033
50Fe-TiO ₂	50	25	100	0.0017
100Fe-TiO ₂	100	25	100	0.0033

106 2.3. Photocatalytic Apparatus

107 The experimental apparatus consisted of a borosilicate glass cylindrical photoreactor (ID = 3 cm, 108 H = 18 cm) equipped with an air distributor and a magnetic bar. A flexible LED strip (SMD 5050, 60 109 LED/m, 0.24 W/LED) with an overall length of 1.5 m was wrapped around the reactor and used as 110 light source. The emission wavelength of the LEDs was 460 nm. The air distributor provided a 111 maximum flow rate of 300 NL/h and was placed at the bottom of the reactor, just above the stirring 112 bar. Darkness conditions were achieved by covering the photocatalytic apparatus with an aluminum 113 foil.

114 2.4. Photodegradation Experiments

115 Photodegradation experiments were carried out by putting 50 mL of the aqueous solution 116 containing the dye and the catalyst in the reactor. The system was left in the dark under stirring for 1 117 h to allow the adsorption-desorption equilibrium of RV5 on photocatalyst surface. Then, the light 118 source was switched on and the reactor was aerated. At the desired time, a small sample of liquid 119 was taken, filtered at 0.45 µm and analysed spectrophotometrically. Measurements were made on a 120 double-beam UV-Vis spectrophotometer (UV-2700, Shimadzu, Japan) at 560 nm, where the 121 absorption spectrum of RV5 displays a maximum. The stirring rate was set at 400 rpm and the air 122 flow rate at 200 NL/h. The initial dye concentration was varied between 20 and 100 ppm and the 123 catalyst load between 0.5 and 6 g/L. When required, hydrogen peroxide was added in the 124 appropriate amount to the reaction mixture.

125 3. Results and Discussion

126 3.1. Catalysts characterizations

127 The XRD results of undoped and doped TiO_2 with different Fe content are reported in Figure 2 It

was possible to observe that the crystalline structure of the photocatalysts showed only patterns related to anatase TiO₂ for all the samples [18]. No signals due to iron oxides appear in the XRD

130 patterns, suggesting insignificant iron segregation in Fe-doped TiO₂ samples [19].

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Figure 2. XRD spectra of the photocatalysts.

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Since the ionic radius of the Fe³⁺ ion (0.064 nm) is smaller than that one of the Ti⁴⁺ ion (0.068 nm) [20], and considering that the Pauling electronegativities of Fe³⁺ (1.83) and Ti⁴⁺ (1.54) are similar [21], Fe³⁺ ions may enter the crystal cell of TiO₂ at substitutional sites [22]. To better investigate this aspect, the XRD spectra of the photocatalysts were more accurately analyzed in the range 20-30° (Figure 3).

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Figure 3. XRD spectra of the photocatalysts in the range 20–30°.

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144 It is possible to observe that the diffraction peak of undoped TiO₂ at about 25.3 °shifted to 145 higher angle for all the Fe-doped TiO₂ samples, indicating that doping of TiO₂ with iron led to a 146 decrease of the lattice parameters. This phenomenon is a clear indication that our preparation 147 method for the doped photocatalysts induced a replacement of the lattice Ti⁴⁺ ions by Fe³⁺ ions [22], 148 evidencing, therefore, the successful doping of the TiO₂ crystalline structure with iron.

The crystalline size of the photocatalysts was calculated on the diffraction pattern visualized inFigure 3, using Scherrer's formula (Table 2).

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Table 2. List of the prepared photocatalyst and their characteristics.

Crystalline SSA Band gap Photocatalysts size $[m^2/g]$ energy [eV] [nm] TiO₂ 8.4 169 3.20 10Fe-TiO₂ 8.3 171 3.12 50Fe-TiO₂ 7.9 179 2.90 100Fe-TiO₂ 7.9 179 2.63

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The calculated crystalline size for undoped TiO_2 was 8.4 nm and only a slight decrease for Fe doped TiO_2 samples was observed. Possibly, this phenomenon is due to the entrance of Fe³⁺ into the TiO₂ lattice [23], inducing also an increase of SSA values (Table 2) with respect to undoped TiO_2 , as observed in literature [24].

Raman spectra in the range of 200-800 cm⁻¹ of the doped catalysts and undoped TiO₂ are shown in Figure 4. In particular, only the TiO₂ common signals at 144, 396, 514, 637 cm⁻¹ and a weak shoulder at 195 cm⁻¹ due to the anatase crystalline phase of TiO₂ are evident [25]. Also in this case, no signals due to iron oxides are evident. These results confirm that TiO₂ doping process was correctly

161 signals due to from 162 finalized.

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Figure 4. Raman spectra of undoped and Fe doped TiO₂ photocatalysts in the range 100–800 cm⁻¹.

167 Additionally, the intensity of the Raman bands for all the doped samples is lower than those 168 ones of undoped TiO₂, supporting again the incorporation of Fe^{3+} into the substitution site of the 169 TiO₂ lattice [26].

The data obtained from UV–Vis reflectance spectra were used for evaluating the band-gap energy of TiO₂ and of Fe-doped TiO₂ photocatalystsy (Figure 5). The doping of TiO₂ with iron significantly influenced the band-gap energy value. In fact, as the Fe amount was increased, a decrease of band-gap energy (from 3.20 for undoped TiO₂ to 2.63 eV for 100Fe-TiO₂) was observed.





Figure 5. Band gap evaluation of for undoped and Fe-doped TiO₂ photocatalysts.

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177 This decrease was due to the electronic transition from donor levels formed with dopants to the 178 conduction band of the host photocatalyst [27]. The band-gap energy value of Fe-doped TiO₂ 179 samples is an indication of their potential photoactivity under visible light irradiation.

180 3.2. Catalyst Screening and Selection

181 Preliminary experiments were performed to evaluate whether RV5 could be degraded by a 182 photocatalytic treatment. In these experiments, the concentrations of the dye and the catalyst were 183 held constant at 30 ppm and 3 g/L, respectively, so as to operate with a dye-to-catalyst weight ratio 184 of 1:100. The photodegradation process was carried out at the spontaneous pH of the dye solution 185 (pH 7.2) for an overall duration of 10 h (1-h darkness and 9-h irradiation). The following catalysts 186 were tested: P-25 Degussa (P-25) and Fe-doped TiO2 at three Fe levels: 10Fe-TiO2, 50Fe-TiO2 and 187 100Fe-TiO₂. The results are shown in Figure 6.

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190 Figure 6. Photocatalytic degradation of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) in the absence and presence of different 191 catalysts (c_{PV3} = 30 ppm; pH = 7.2; catalyst load = 3 g/L). A is the absorbance of the dye solution at 560 nm.

192 The first point to note is that in the absence of catalyst no significant variations in dye 193 concentration were observed, while all catalysts were able to degrade RV5. The removal efficiencies 194 at the end of the treatment ranged from about 23% (P25) to 47.6% (50Fe-TiO₂). Furthermore, a closer

195 analysis of the results in Figure 5 reveals that:

• P-25 resulted in a

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- P-25 resulted in a color removal close to 23% at the end of the treatment;
- 100Fe-TiO₂ showed a final decolorization degree close to 42%;
- 10Fe-TiO₂ exhibited an intermediate behavior and decolorized the dye solution to about 35%;
 - 50Fe-TiO₂ was the most effective catalyst, with a color removal efficiency of 47.6%.

It may be interesting to consider that, although the band-gap energy of 100Fe-TiO₂ is smaller than that of 50Fe-TiO₂ (2.63 and 2.90 eV, respectively), the first catalyst exhibited a lower photocatalytic activity. This could be due to the higher content of Fe(III) ions, which can act as recombination centers for the photogenerated hole-electron pairs [28,29].

Since 50Fe-TiO₂ was the most effective of the catalysts tested, it was selected as the best catalyst
 for RV5 degradation under visible light irradiation.

209 3.3. Analysis of the UV-vis Absorption Spectrum of RV5 During Degradation

Figure 7 shows the UV-Vis spectrum of RV5 and its changes during the photodegradation process. A prominent feature of the dye spectrum is the presence of two main bands centered around 220 and 560 nm. The broad band at 560 nm arises from the chromophoric group of the dye molecule, while that at 320 nm can be related to the aromatic groups in the molecule [30].

During photodegradation, the intensity of both bands decreased. The reduction in the intensity of the band at 560 nm indicates a decrease in the conjugation of the chromophore moiety, resulting in a progressive decolorization of the dye solution. The decrease of the band at 220 nm and the spectral changes at lower wavelengths suggest that also the aromatic part of the molecule was affected by the treatment.



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Figure 7. Absorption spectrum of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) during the photocatalytic treatment.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the photocatalytic treatment of RV5 by the 50Fe-TiO₂ catalyst is effective not only for color removal but also for the degradation of the aromatic structures of the dye molecule and its cleavage into smaller fragments.

240 3.4. Effect of pH

As it is known, pH is one of the most important process parameters for the photocatalytic degradation of dyes [31]. In order to find the optimal pH for RV5 degradation, this parameter was varied from 4 to 12. The initial dye concentration was set at 30 ppm and the catalyst load was 3 g/L. 252 253

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The results obtained during a 10-h treatment period (1-h darkness and 9-h irradiation) are shown in Figure 8. It can be seen that at lower pH values ($4 \le pH \le 8$) the absorbance at 560 nm remained almost constant. By contrast, at pH 10 it decreased quickly, reaching a value close to zero after 2-h irradiation. At pH 12, an intermediate behavior was observed, with the initial absorbance being halved in about 6 h and reduced by around 80% at the end of the treatment. Thus, it can be concluded that, under the experimental conditions employed, the optimal pH for RV5 degradation was equal to 10. Accordingly, further experiments were carried out at this pH.



Figure 8. Photocatalytic degradation of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) at different pH values (c^{0}_{RV5} = 30 ppm; catalyst load = 3 g/L). A is the absorbance of the dye solution at 560 nm.

The influence of pH on dye removal can be attributed to its effects on the generation of radical species, particularly hydroxyl radicals (•OH), during the photocatalytic process. These radicals are produced at the catalyst surface from the oxidation of OH⁻ or H₂O by the photogenerated holes (h⁺):

$$OH^- + h^+ \rightarrow OH$$
 (1)

$$H_2O + h^+ \rightarrow \bullet OH + H^+ \tag{2}$$

Hydroxyl radicals are powerful oxidizing agents and can easily attack the azo groups in the dye molecule, breaking the –N=N– bonds and causing a decolorization of the dye solution. They can also attack the aromatic structures of the dye, but these structures are more resistant than azo bonds, so that decolorization is achieved more easily than degradation [32].

From Equations (1) and (2) it can be seen that the production of •OH is favored under alkaline conditions, consistently with the results in Figure 8. The enhanced removal of azo dyes at alkaline pH was observed in several other studies. For example, after 40 min of the photocatalytic treatment with TiO₂ of a solution containing Reactive Orange 4, the color removal was 25.3% at pH 1 and 90.5% at pH 9 [33]. The degradation of the dye was less effective, as after 80-min irradiation it passed from 15.2%, at pH 1, to 87.2%, at pH 9. Similar results were obtained in a study on the photocatalytic degradation of Reactive Black 5 by TiO₂ [34].

In addition to the direct effect of pH on the production of •OH described by Equations (1) and (2), it should also be considered that [31,35]: (a) the extent of dye adsorption and photon absorption are also affected by pH; (b) at low pH, H⁺ ions can interact with the azo bonds decreasing their electron density and their susceptibility to electrophilic attack by hydroxyl radicals; and (c) under acidic conditions, TiO₂ particles tend to agglomerate, reducing the surface area of the catalyst. The observed decrease in color removal at pH 12 could be due to a decreased adsorption of dye molecules on the catalyst surface. In fact, at this pH the catalyst surface is highly hydroxylated and hence negatively charged, repelling the RV5 molecules that have charges of the same sign.

293 3.5. Effect of Catalyst Load

294 The amount of catalyst to be used in the photocatalytic treatment is another important factor for 295 the degradation of pollutants [31]. To evaluate the optimal catalyst load, this quantity was varied 296 from 0 to 6 g/L, keeping the pH at 10 and the initial dye concentration at 30 ppm. The results of these 297 experiments are shown in Figure 9. In the absence of catalyst, the decolorization of the dye solution 298 proceeded quite slowly, with over 20% of the initial amount of RV5 still present at the end of the 299 treatment. When the catalyst was added at 0.5 g/L, the decolorization was more rapid and completed 300 in about 4 h. With a catalyst load of 1.5 g/L, this time was reduced to about 3 h. At higher catalyst 301 loads (3 to 6 g/L), about 2 h were sufficient to achieve complete color removal. Furthermore, the 302 observed decay curves were very similar to each other.



318Figure 9. Photocatalytic degradation of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) at different catalyst loads (c^{0}_{RV5} = 30 ppm;319pH = 10). A is the absorbance the dye solution at 560 nm.

A simple kinetic analysis was used to provide a quantitative description of the effect of catalyst
 load on dye removal. In particular, the apparent rates of the photocatalytic process were determined
 by applying the initial rate method.

323 The initial rate of dye removal $(-r_0)$, which is rigorously defined as:

$$-r_{0} = -\frac{d(A/A_{0})}{dt}\Big|_{t=0}$$
(3)

324 was calculated as:

$$-r_0 = -\frac{(A/A_0)_{t_1} - (A/A_0)_{t_0}}{t_1 - t_0} \tag{4}$$

with $t_0 = 0$ and $t_1 = 1$ h. In the above equations, A_0 is the absorbance of the dye solution at 560 nm and at the beginning of irradiation (t = 0), while A is the absorbance at time t.

From the results in Figure 10 it can be seen that, at catalyst loads lower than 3 g/L, there was a nearly linear increase of the decolorization rate with the amount of catalyst, while above this value the effect was very small. Accordingly, a value of 3 g/L was selected as the optimal catalyst load.

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346 The existence of a threshold value for catalyst load has been reported in many studies on the 347 photocatalytic degradation of azo dyes including, for example, Reactive Black 5 [34], Reactive Blue 4 348 [36], Reactive Orange 4 [37], Reactive Red 120 [38], Reactive Blue 19 [39], Reactive Blue 198 and 349 Reactive Yellow 145 [40]. This behavior is likely the result of multiple factors [30]. At low loadings, 350 an increase in the amount of catalyst in the reaction mixture has a positive effect on the kinetics of 351 dye removal due to the increased surface area available for dye adsorption and degradation. 352 However, when all dye molecules are adsorbed on the catalyst surface, further additions of catalyst 353 are no longer effective for decolorization of the dye solution. Moreover, an excessive amount of 354 catalyst can reduce light penetration in the solution due to shielding and scattering effects resulting 355 from aggregate formation. Finally, activated catalyst particles can interact with ground-state 356 particles causing partial deactivation of the catalyst.

357 3.6. Effect of Hydrogen Peroxide

358 The presence of hydrogen peroxide in the reaction medium is known to enhance the rate of 359 photocatalytic degradation of organic compounds [30]. To investigate the effect of hydrogen 360 peroxide on the decolorization of RV5, experiments were performed by adding 10 to 100 mM 361 hydrogen peroxide to a solution at pH 10 containing 30 ppm of dye and 3 g/L of catalyst. The results 362 are presented in Figure 11. As it can be seen, the color removal efficiency increased upon addition of 363 hydrogen peroxide, but the observed decolorization profiles varied not-monotonically with the 364 amount of hydrogen peroxide present in the reaction medium. This can be better appreciated from 365 Figure 12, where the initial rates of dye removal, calculated from Equation (4), are plotted against the 366 initial hydrogen peroxide concentrations. These data reveal that an optimal hydrogen peroxide 367 concentration of 60 mM exists. Similar results were found in other studies on the photocatalytic 368 decolorization of azo dyes under visible light irradiation [34,37,39,41,42].

To provide an explanation to the above observation, it should be considered that hydrogen peroxide is an effective electron acceptor and can produce hydroxyl radicals through the following reaction:

$$H_2O_2 + e^- \rightarrow \bullet OH + OH^- \tag{5}$$

Additional hydroxyl radicals can be formed from the reaction of hydrogen peroxide with thesuperoxide radical:

$$H_2O_2 + O_2^- \rightarrow O_2 + \bullet OH + OH^-$$
(6)

However, at high concentrations, hydrogen peroxide can act as a scavenger of hydroxyl radicals, according to the following reactions [35]:

$$H_2O_2 + \bullet OH \to HO_2 \bullet + H_2O \tag{7}$$

$$HO_2 \bullet + \bullet OH \to H_2O + O_2 \tag{8}$$

$$2 \operatorname{HO}_2^{\bullet} \to \operatorname{H}_2\operatorname{O}_2 + \operatorname{O}_2 \tag{9}$$



413 **Figure 12.** Initial rate of Reactive Violet 5 (RV5) removal as a function of hydrogen peroxide 414 concentration (c^{0}_{RV5} = 30 ppm; pH = 10; catalyst load = 3 g/L).

415 3.7. Comparison with the Results of Other Published Studies

416 It may be interesting to compare the present results with those obtained in other studies on the 417 degradation of RV5.

Chung et Chen [12] investigated the photocatalytic degradation of RV5 using TiO2
nanoparticles under UV irradiation. Under optimized conditions, the photodegradation efficiency
was 90% after 20 min of irradiation and reached nearly 100% after 80 min.

421 Cabansag et al. [13] studied the degradation of RV5 under UV light with bulk zinc oxide slurry
422 as the photocatalyst. Under optimized conditions, the dye was degraded by 74% after 30 min of
423 irradiation and almost completely after 90 min.

Kunal et al. [14] used an acclimatized indigenous bacterial mixed culture isolated from a dye contaminated soil to degrade RV5. The mixed culture was composed of six bacterial strains including *Bacillus*, *Lysinibacillus* and *Ochrobacterium* species and was grown in a minimal medium containing glucose and yeast extract. Under static growth conditions at 37 °C and pH 7, the dye solution was completely decolorized in about 18 h. However, in the absence of carbon and nitrogen sources only about 4% of the initial amount of dye was degraded after the same time, indicating that these sources are essential for the treatment.

Bheemaraddi et al. [15] investigated the ability of a bacterial strain of *Paracoccus* sp. isolated from a textile mill effluent to degrade RV5 as the sole source of carbon. Under static conditions and with minimal nutritional requirements this strain allowed complete decolorization of the dye solution within 16 h.

Finally, Ayed et al. [16] explored the feasibility of using a consortium of *Staphylococcus* species, two of which were isolated from a textile wastewater, to degrade RV5. Under optimal conditions, the dye solution was completely (>99%) decolorized within 8 h. The decolorization was also accompanied by a high COD removal (94.93%)

Therefore, the results obtained in the present study indicate that the degradation of RV5 by a Fe-doped titania catalyst under visible light irradiation can lead to dye removal efficiencies that are comparable with those reported for UV-photocatalytic or microbial treatments. Moreover, compared to microbial degradation processes, the investigated technology is simpler to implement and more flexible in operation.

444 4. Conclusions

445 The presence of dyes in industrial effluents is an issue of major concern due to the detrimental 446 effects that these pollutants could have on the environment. In this study we have shown that RV5, 447 an azo dye widely used in the textile industry, can be effectively degraded by a photocatalytic 448 treatment using a Fe-doped TiO₂ catalyst under visible light irradiation. An analysis of the effects of 449 the main process parameters (pH, catalyst load and hydrogen peroxide concentration) on the dye 450 removal efficiency showed that the process can be optimized to provide rapid and complete 451 degradation. The use of visible light and the relatively short treatment times support the suitability 452 of the proposed process as a promising and cost-effective method for the removal of this or similar 453 dyes from textile effluents.

Future studies should be directed at investigating the effects of the treatment on dye mineralization and evaluating the optimal conditions for mineralization. The identification of reaction products and intermediates formed during the treatment could be helpful to elucidate the mechanisms involved in RV5 degradation.

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460 Antonio Zuorro; Writing – original draft, Antonio Zuorro and Giuseppina Iervolino; Writing – review &
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