RESEARCH ARTICLE

Modifcations to microplastics by potassium ferrate(VI): impacts on sorption and sinking capability in water treatment

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Abstract

Pre-treatment (oxidation) may induce potential modifcations to microplastics (MPs), further afecting their behaviors and removal efficiency in drinking water treatment plants. Herein, potassium ferrate(VI) oxidation was tested as a pre-treatment for MPs with four polymer types and three sizes each. Surface oxidation occurred with morphology destruction and oxidized bond generation, which were prosperous under low acid conditions (pH 3). As pH increased, the generation and attachment of nascent state ferric oxides (Fe*x*O*x*) gradually became dominant, making MP-Fe*x*O*x* complexes. These Fe*x*O*x* were identified as Fe(III) compounds, including Fe₂O₃ and FeOOH, firmly attaching to the MP surface. Using ciprofloxacin as the targeted organic contaminant, the presence of Fe_xO_x enhanced MP sorption dramatically, e.g., the kinetic constant K_f of ciprofoxacin raised from 0.206 (6.5 μm polystyrene) to 1.062 L g−1 (polystyrene-Fe*x*O*x*) after oxidation at pH 6. The sinking performance of MPs was enhanced, especially for small MPs $(< 10 \mu m)$, which could be attributed to the increasing density and hydrophilicity. For instance, the sinking ratio of 6.5 μm polystyrene increased by 70% after pH 6 oxidation. In general, ferrate pre-oxidation possesses multiple enhanced removals of MPs and organic contaminants through adsorption and sinking, reducing the potential risk of MPs.

Keywords Plastic debris · Advanced oxidation processes · Nanoplastics · K_2FeO_4 · Pollution control

Introduction

Microplastics (MPs) have spread throughout the world for a long time, but only now has their presence come to the public perception. They are defned as plastic debris smaller than 5 mm with diferent shapes, such as grain, sheet, and fliform (Law and Thompson [2014](#page-9-0)). MPs have garnered particular attention due to their persistence, mobility, and, most importantly, "cocktail" feature (Guzzetti et al. [2018](#page-9-1)). That is, they can adsorb various microorganisms, heavy metals, and organic matter, forming contaminant complexes, aggravating the uncertainty of environmental risk (Vethaak

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 \boxtimes Huase Ou touhuase@jnu.edu.cn and Legler [2021\)](#page-9-2). As an important part of natural environmental systems, the freshwater ecosystem also sufers from MP pollution. Recent evidence indicated the existence of MPs in worldwide lakes (Anderson et al. [2017;](#page-8-0) Zbyszewski and Corcoran [2011\)](#page-9-3), rivers (Koelmans et al. [2019](#page-9-4)), ground waters (Mintenig et al. [2019](#page-9-5)), estuaries (Lima et al. [2014\)](#page-9-6) and sediments (Lima et al. [2014](#page-9-6)). For example, the concentration of MPs in rivers ranged from 0.021×10^6 to 7.2×10^6 particles m−3 (Di and Wang [2018](#page-8-1); Lahens et al. [2018](#page-9-7); Liao et al. [2020](#page-9-8); Zhang et al. [2017](#page-9-9)), while the one in lakes ranging from $0.01 \times 10^6 - 6.8 \times 10^6$ particles km⁻² (Su et al. [2016](#page-9-10); Uurasjarvi et al. 2020). Furthermore, up to 10^2 particles kg⁻¹ MPs were detected in sediment samples (Ta and Babel [2020](#page-9-12); Vianello et al. [2013\)](#page-9-13). MP pollution in freshwaters may pose ecological risks and threats to drinking water safety for modern society.

Along with the source water, MPs are transferred to urban engineered water systems, with the frst step at drinking water treatment plants (DWTPs). To improve the removal of MPs and evaluate the potential threats of MPs to drinking water safety, the modifcations on characteristics of MPs induced by various treatment processes require further

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investigation. Pre-treatments are applied at the beginning of DWTPs. The most common technics are pre-oxidation, e.g., chlorination, ozonation, and potassium permanganate $(KMnO₄)$ oxidation (Xie et al. [2016\)](#page-9-14), which have been suggested as the assistant methods for DWTPs ([2006](#page-8-2) [2011](#page-8-2)). These methods become the frst stage to face MP pollutants, and most contain deconstructive chemical reactions, which could change the characteristics of MPs. Lin et al. [\(2022\)](#page-9-15) reported that polystyrene (PS) tends to float on the water after chlorination, demonstrating a decreased sinking ratio. In our previous study, $KMnO₄$ oxidation was proved to add nano-MnO₂ onto MPs, improving the sedimentation of PS, polyethylene terephthalate (PET), and polyvinyl chloride (PVC), but not polyethylene (PE) (Chen et al. [2022\)](#page-8-3). Compared to the pristine MPs, the sinking ratio of treated MPs (6.5 µm) increased by 30% (PET), 20% (PVC), and 30% (PS). Furthermore, the sorption of organic contaminants by MPs was also changed by heat-activated $K_2S_2O_8$ (Liu et al. [2019\)](#page-9-16) and radical-based UV (Lin et al. [2020](#page-9-17)). Thus, pre-oxidation could induce evident aging and destruction of MPs, affecting their behavior and removal efficiency in subsequent treatment processes.

In recent years, ferrate ($\text{Fe}^{\text{VI}}\text{O}_2^{\text{2-}}, \text{Fe(VI)}$) oxidation, usually with potassium ferrate (K_2FeO_4) , has received increasing attention due to its easily accessible and environmentally friendly nature in water treatment application (Sharma et al. [2015](#page-9-18)). Ferrate was explored for multipurpose actions, i.e., degradation of organic contaminants (Zhou and Jiang [2015\)](#page-9-19) and inactivation of algae/cyanobacteria (Fan et al. [2018;](#page-8-4) Ma and Liu [2002](#page-9-20)). This relied on the highly oxidative activity of Fe(VI) with a redox potential of 2.20 V, which was higher than hypochlorite (1.48 V), ozone (2.08 V), and permanganate (1.68 V) under acidic conditions. Furthermore, the portfolios of ferrates also included coagulants, which relied on the focs consisting of nascent Fe(III) oxides/hydroxides $(Lv et al. 2018)$ $(Lv et al. 2018)$, enhancing the removal efficiency of particles in the next coagulation-sedimentation stage (Jun and Wei [2002](#page-9-22)). Most importantly, ferrate produces no mutagenic by-products (Xie et al. [2016](#page-9-14)), and even reduces the generation potential of chlorinated disinfection by-products (Jiang et al. [2016](#page-9-23)). These multipurpose actions endow ferrates with unique advantages in removing organic contaminants and particles from water. However, ferrate-induced modifcations on MPs have not yet been realized. Ferrate pre-oxidation may induce multiple unknown interactions with MPs, resulting in unexpected behaviors of MPs in ensuing water treatment processes.

Herein, this study aims to evaluate the modifcations to MPs by ferrate(VI) and explore the impacts on sorption and sinking in DWTPs. Investigating its intrinsic mechanisms would be signifcant for predicting the migration and transport patterns of MPs in the aquatic ecosystems. The labscale potassium ferrate oxidation was conducted, while four polymers, including PE, PET, PS, and PVC, were selected as targeted MPs. The surface morphology, chemical, and hydrophobic variations were investigated to determine the MP destruction induced by ferrate oxidation. Furthermore, ciprofoxacin (CIP) was selected as the targeted organic contaminant for the sorption performance since it has been detected in water supplies and found to be environmentally harmful (Hettithanthri et al. [2022](#page-9-24)). To further understand the behavior of MPs after pre-treatment, the modifcation of sinking patterns was evaluated.

Experimental

Materials

Four polymers, PE, PET, PS, and PVC, were acquired from Goodfellow Cambridge Ltd. Small MPs (<1 mm) were detected in DWTPs (Novotna et al. [2019](#page-9-25)). Thus, MP particles with 6.5, 100, and 500 μm were prepared. Analytical-grade K_2FeO_4 , methanol, and ethanol were obtained from Sinopharm. Ultrapure water was acquired from Fisher (USA). A source water from a DWTP was obtained as the background water matrix (Table S1).

Aging of MPs

To simulate the actual MPs in the natural environment, MPs used for experiments in the current study were all treated by artifcial aging. Pristine MPs were sealed in a box with a customized glass cover that could be penetrated by ultraviolet light. The MP-containing box was placed outdoors under natural sunlight irradiation for 60 days.

Ferrate oxidation

Oxidation experiments were conducted in 250-mL glass beakers using vortex mixers (60 rpm, 25.0 ± 0.2 °C), and in phosphate bufer which exhibited little efect on the oxidation ability of Fe(VI) species (Huang et al. [2018](#page-9-26)). Before reactions, approximately 100 mL of bufered reaction solution was added to each beaker, and then, a number of MPs were added. The MP concentration applied was 1 mg L^{-1} , which contains ~ 2.5×10^2 – ~ 5.5×10^2 particles L⁻¹ (6.5 µm). This is close to that detected in DWTP source waters $({\sim}10^2$ particles L^{-1}) (Novotna et al. [2019\)](#page-9-25). A stock solution of Fe(VI) (typically 100 μM) was prepared immediately by solving K_2FeO_4 into 5 mM Na₂HPO₄ and 1 mM borate buffer (pH = ~9.1) (Yang et al. [2018](#page-9-27)). The ferrate oxidation was started by adding a given amount of the stock Fe(VI) solution ($pH = \sim 9.1$) into the reaction system with rapid mixing. Stock Fe(VI) solution was used within 10 min after being prepared. The initial Fe(VI) concentration was set to 10 mg L^{-1} (Zhou et al. [2014\)](#page-9-28). After adding the

stock Fe(VI) solution and the MPs, the pH of the solution was adjusted as needed. According to the Fe(VI) species distribution and pH function (Sharma et al. [2015\)](#page-9-18), reaction solutions with pH at 3, 6, 8, and 11 were prepared using H_2PO_4 , NaOH, and phosphate bufer. Sampling was conducted at a specifc time, followed by fltration with 0.45-μm hydrophilic flters. The obtained MPs were washed with ultrapure water. Finally, the MP samples were separated from flters and dried under 40 °C overnight. All the experiments were performed in triplicate.

Analytical methods for MPs

Morphologies were detected by a scanning electron microscope (SEM). The chemical composition of MP surfaces was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS), and micro-Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR) was employed to analyze (Text S1). MP density was determined using a PoreMaster33GT mercury porosimeter. To determine the mass of MPs, a method developed in our previous study was applied (Chen et al. [2022](#page-8-3)).

Two‑dimensional correlation analysis

A two-dimensional correlation analysis (2D-COS) was applied for FTIR. The FTIR spectra were recorded in a range of 4000–400 cm−1. Since no apparent response variation was detected in the range of 3000–2000 cm−1, 2D COS was carried out using the FTIR spectra in the range of 2000–600 cm−1 over time. The analysis of 2D-COS followed a method developed by Lasch et al. using 2D Shige software (Lasch and Noda [2019](#page-9-29)). After calculation, 2D-COS synchronous and asynchronous maps were obtained to decode the evolution of organic functional groups on MP surfaces.

XPS analysis

XPS calculation involved charge correction, smoothing, non-linear Shirley-type background subtraction, and curve ftting. The C1s binding energies at 284.6 eV were used as the standard. A deconvolution was processed for XPS peaks using XPS PEAK with Lorentzian-Gaussian functions after subtraction of a Shirley background (Yamashita and Hayes [2006\)](#page-9-30). Relative intensities (areas) of the sub-peaks were determined using Gaussian–Lorentzian functions embedded in XPS PEAK. As a result, the evolution of diferent components from an element can be investigated. The relative area ratios (AR) between diferent forms of Fe (such as $Fe₂O₃$ and FeOOH) are calculated by:

$$
AR = area_1/area_2 \tag{1}
$$

where area₁ and area₂ are the peak areas of $Fe₂O₃$ and FeOOH, respectively.

Sorption experiment

Ciprofloxacin (C₁₇H₁₈FN₃O₃, MW=331.4 g mol⁻¹) was used for the sorption test. The sorption experiment was conducted using a procedure developed in our published study (Lin et al. [2020\)](#page-9-17). The treated MPs were obtained in ["Ferrate oxidation](#page-1-0)" section.

Sinking experiment

The sinking performance was evaluated based on a previously developed method (Lin et al. [2022\)](#page-9-15). Specifcally, MPs were treated by ferrate oxidation using the DWTP source water as background matrixes. Subsequently, MPs were separated by syringe-flter kits, washed, and dried at 40 °C. Approximately 100 mg of MPs was soaked in the source water without any chemical addition and stirred (30 min). And then, a 2-h stand was conducted. We separated the floating MPs $(M_{floating},$ on the surface and suspending in the water) and the sinking MPs (M_{sinking}) , on the bottom). A customized method was applied to quantify the mass of these two-part MPs (Chen et al. [2022\)](#page-8-3). The sinking ratio of MPs can be obtained:

$$
Sinking ratio = \frac{M_{\text{sinking}}}{M_{\text{sinking}} + M_{\text{floating}}}
$$
 (2)

Results and discussion

Morphology

All aged MPs presented smooth surfaces with complete and clear boundaries but no cracks and bumps (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)). After the ferrate oxidation, some surface morphological variations were observed. In the low-magnifcation SEM images, only a few diferences in size and integrity were found. Notably, many nano-scale crystals were attached on all four MP surfaces, forming rough and uneven surfaces. Previous studies reported nano-scale crystal structure after ferrate oxidation (Prucek et al. [2013](#page-9-31); Yang et al. [2018\)](#page-9-27). By amplifcation, these surface crystals presented irregular shapes. As energy-dispersive spectrum (Fig. S1) showed, these attachments mainly contained iron and oxygen, indicating that they could be the nascent state ferric oxides (Fe_xO_x) adhering to the MP surface during the ferrate oxidation. Similar ferric oxides were reported in other studies (Kralchevska et al. [2016](#page-9-32); Yang et al. [2018](#page-9-27); Zheng et al. [2021](#page-9-33)). Of note, though the MP samples had been washed with ultrapure water after ferrate oxidation, these ferric oxides still existed, indicating their frm attachment on the MP surfaces. Thus, the MPs were transformed into $MP\text{-}Fe_xO_x$ complexes. In addition, the smooth surfaces disappeared with obvious alternations, including cracks **Fig. 1** Microscopical image of microplastics after ferrate oxidation. Experimental conditions: $[K_2FeO_4]_0 = 10$ mg L⁻¹, $pH=6$, reaction time = 30 min, MP size $=200 \mu m$. **a**, **b** Aged and oxidized polyethylene; **c**, **d** aged and oxidized polyethylene terephthalate; **e**, **f** aged and oxidized polystyrene, and **g**, **h** aged and oxidized polyvinyl chloride. White arrow indicates nascent state ferric oxides, and green arrow indicates destruction on surface

(Fig. [1d](#page-3-0) and f), wrinkles (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)h), and protuberances (Fig. [1b](#page-3-0)). It could be ascribed to surface destruction by ferrate oxidation.

Surface chemical variations

The ferrate oxidation facilitated a series of oxidized functional groups on the MP surfaces (Figs. [2](#page-4-0) and S2). Generally, a prominent broad peak was observed in the range of 3000–3500 cm−1 for all MPs after ferrate oxidation. This is the characteristic peak of O–H stretch. FTIR data in time gradient were also obtained (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)). The broad peak (3000–3500 cm−1) intensity gradually increased with time, suggesting continuous oxidation. Some other characteristic peaks were observed, e.g., ~ 1000 cm⁻¹ and 1400 cm⁻¹ for PE, 1560–1640 cm⁻¹ for PS, indicating C–O, O–H, and other oxidized functional groups.

Two-dimensional COS images (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)) were applied to further investigate the changes in FTIR characteristic peaks. For PE, two major autopeaks at ~1000 cm⁻¹ and ~1400 cm⁻¹

were observed in the synchronous map (Fig. [3a](#page-5-0)), indicating the existence of C–O and –COOH. Based on Noda's rules (Jin et al. [2018](#page-9-34)), asynchronous correlation spectroscopy indicates the evaluation order of chemical bonds (Mao et al. [2020\)](#page-9-35). In the asynchronous correlation spectrum, the characteristic peak at Ψ (1000, 1400) was positive (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)b), implying that the generation of C–O was earlier than –COOH.

In the synchronous map of PET (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)c and d), three major autopeaks at 1070 cm⁻¹ (C–O stretching of primary alcohol), 1100 cm^{-1} (C–O stretching of secondary alcohol), and 1275 cm^{-1} (C–O stretching of alkyl aryl ether) were identifed. All these peaks suggested that the PET surface was modifed after ferrate oxidation. Based on the asynchronous correlation spectrum, the generation sequence was suggested to be 1070, 1100, and 1275 cm⁻¹, indicating that the oxidized PET surface contained various unordered structures.

For PS and PVC, only major autopeaks at 1375 cm−1 and 1400 cm−1 were observed, respectively. Both of them were associated with C–OH functional groups. The FTIR data and 2D COS analysis generally indicated continuous surface destructions on MPs.

Chemical characteristics of MP-Fe_xO_x complexes

XPS (Fe spectrum) was obtained to confrm the chemical characteristics of the adhesive Fe*x*O*x* (Figs. [4,](#page-6-0) S3 and S4). The evolution of four MPs presented similar patterns. Taking PET as an analyzed target, the aged MPs presented no Fe signal. Yet, apparent Fe2p signals were observed after fer-rate oxidation (Fig. [4a](#page-6-0)). Generally, the dominant $Fe2p_{3/2}$ peak had binding energy in the range of 710.8–711.9 eV, suggesting the existence of iron oxides. To determine the valence state of iron oxides, the shape and binding energy of Fe2 $p_{3/2}$ satellite peak were investigated. Yamashita et al. (2008) found that the Fe2 $p_{3/2}$ satellite peak of Fe(II) presented a shoulder peak, while the one of Fe(III) was usually an independent peak in the range of 715–25 eV. In Fig. [4b](#page-6-0), an independent satellite peak was observed for the MP-Fe*x*O*^x* complexes. Thus, the dominant iron oxides on MPs were Fe(III) compounds.

After pH 3 oxidation, the binding energy of $Fe2p_{3/2}$ was \sim 711.9 eV (Fig. [4\)](#page-6-0), which was associated with FeOOH (Fe(III), 710.9–711.9 eV). As the pH increased, the chemical shift of Fe2p gradually appeared. The binding energy of Fe2 $p_{3/2}$ shifted to ~710.8 eV after pH 11 ferrate oxidation, implying the existence of other forms of iron oxides, such as $Fe₂O₃$ (710.4–711.6 eV). To further determine the evolution of these two iron oxides, the characteristic peaks of Fe2p were deconvoluted by XPS peak analysis (Fig. [4](#page-6-0)b), and their peak area ratio (AR, $Fe₂O₃$ vs. FeOOH) was calculated (Table S2) (Biesinger et al. [2011](#page-8-5)). The AR value had a positive correlation with the pH value. For example, the AR of PE increased from 1.39 to 1.85 when pH rose from 3 to 11, suggesting that more $Fe₂O₃$ was generated under alkaline conditions than that

Fig. 3 Two-dimensional COS images. SYN indicates the synchronous map, and ASY indicates the asynchronous map. Experimental conditions: $[K_2FeO_4]_0 = 10$ mg L⁻¹, pH = 6, reaction time =30 min, MP size = 200 μm

Wave number $(cm⁻¹)$

under acid conditions. This also implied that the content of $Fe₂O₃$ in the reaction system gradually increased. In general, the Fe2p spectrum proved that FeOOH and $Fe₂O₃$ dominated the attached Fe_xO_x on the MP surfaces during ferrate oxidation.

The O1s spectra of aged PET presented slight signals, which may be due to oxidation during artifcial aging. Their intensities increased after ferrate oxidation (Fig. [4](#page-6-0)c). Characteristic O1s peaks at 532.0 eV were observed under pH 3, indicating the existence of carbon–oxygen bonds, i.e., C–O and $C=O$ (Moulder et al. [1992](#page-9-36)). A chemical shift (1–2 eV) to lower binding energy was observed as pH increased. All MPs presented similar tendencies, indicating that the O–Fe bonds with low-energy O1s spectrum gradually became dominant. This may be due to the chemical characteristic of ferrate oxidation under diferent pH values. Ferrate is highly oxidative under acidic conditions, resulting in more generation of oxygen containing groups on MPs. It tended to be weak as the pH increased. On the contrary, the generation of Fe*x*O*x* was enhanced as pH raised. Thus, the peak at 532 eV (O–C bond) shifted to the peak at 530 eV (O–Fe bond).

XPS can only detect the chemical variations on nanometer-level surfaces, while FTIR can go deep into several hundred micrometers. This is why their results were diferent. The surface of MP-Fe*x*O*x* complexes was dominated by nano-Fe*x*O*x* crystals, which XPS determined. Under these crystals, the entire surface of MPs was oxidized. Thus,

FTIR reported the existence of C –O and C = O bonds. The transformation from MPs to MP-Fe*x*O*x* complexes could be accompanied by changes in sorption capacity and sinking performance.

Sorption of organic matter

Sorption of CIP by aged MPs followed the Freundlich model ($R^2 > 0.95$, Fig. [5](#page-7-0)). Aged MPs only presented weak sorption capacities to CIP, with a K_f at 0.226 L g⁻¹ (PET). After ferrate oxidation, the sorption of CIP by these MP- Fe_xO_x complexes was dramatically enhanced (Fig. 5 , Table S3). The K_f of PE increased from 0.142 to 0.360 L g⁻¹ after pH 6 ferrate oxidation, while *K_f* of PS rose from 0.206 to 1.062 L g^{-1} . These significant improvements may be attributed to the attachment of Fe*x*O*x* nanoparticles on MP surfaces. These ferric oxides, including $Fe₂O₃$ and FeOOH, presented nano-scale and dispersed characteristics with abundant hydroxylated groups on the MP-Fe*x*O*^x* surfaces, endowing them the complicated interactions with organic matter and other contaminants in water through hydrogen bonds and other chemical bonds. Yang et al. ([2018\)](#page-9-27) used ferrate to degrade *p*-arsanilic acid, and they found that the released $As(V)$ can be removed through sorption by in itu formed Fe*x*O*x* during the reaction. Kralchevska et al. ([2016\)](#page-9-32) tested the removal of phosphate by ferrate. It was confrmed that the phosphates were removed

Fig. 5 Sorption of ciprofoxacin on microplastics. Experimental conditions: $[K_2FeO_4]_0 = 10$ mg L^{-1} , pH = 6 and 8, reaction time=30 min, MP size=6.5 μ m

from water by the sorption of Fe*x*O*x* nanoparticles. Herein, the enhanced sorption capacities implied that MP-Fe*x*O*^x* had high potential as contaminant-enriched vectors. Furthermore, the ferrate pre-oxidation could also improve the removal of organic contaminants and MPs in water synchronously.

Sinking behavior

Polymer types, associated with diferent densities, dominated the sinking ratio of aged MPs (Fig. [6](#page-7-1), Table S4). Aged PE tended to float since PE has a density of 0.92 g cm^{-3} close to water. The other three MPs had densities higher than water. Their sinking ratios raised as the densities increased, e.g., nearly all aged PS (1.04 g cm⁻³) maintained on the water surface, but > 50% of aged PVC (1.42 g cm⁻³) tended to sink (Fig. [6c](#page-7-1)). Particle size also afected the sinking. Taking aged PET as an example, its sinking ratio declined as the size decreased. Approximate 55% 500 μm PET sank on the bottom, but nearly all 6.5 μm PET foated on the surface. Because the smaller the MPs, the greater the surface tension in the water, which hinders the sinking of MPs.

The sinking behavior of MPs can be explained as a seesaw of buoyance, gravity, and MP-water interface force (surface

Fig. 6 Sinking ratio variations of microplastics. Experimental conditions: $[K_2FeO_4]_0 = 10$ mg L⁻¹, pH=3, 6, 8, 11, reaction time=30 min. Standard deviation was obtained from 3 independent samples

tension). When the buoyance dominates, MPs foat, such as PE and PS. On the contrary, MPs with high density, such as PVC, are dominated by gravity and sink easily. Furthermore, if the magnitude of buoyance and gravity is close here (e.g., PET), the contribution of MP-water interface force becomes important. The decreasing size of PET increases their MP-water interface force, resulting in the declining sinking ratio (Fig. [6a](#page-7-1)).

The sinking behaviors of MPs were changed by ferrate oxidation. Generally, small MPs were more susceptible to ferrate oxidation. The sinking ratios of aged PS were zero. After pH 11 ferrate oxidation, it increased to 90% for 6.5 μm PS, much higher than 10% for 500 μm PS. This could be due to the generation of MP-Fe*x*O*x* complexes, which increased their densities (Tables S4–S6), resulting in a rising gravity and a higher sinking ratio. For example, the density of 6.5 μm PS increased 40% after ferrate oxidation at pH 11, while it maintained the same for 500 μm one. Similar phenomena were also observed for PET and PVC.

The effect of ferric oxide attachment on the density of large MPs (500 μm and 100 μm) was slight. Thus, variation of MP-water interface force induced by ferrate oxidation became a dominant factor. Ferrate presented a stronger oxidative capacity under acid conditions (Sharma et al. [2015\)](#page-9-18), with a more signifcant hydrophobicity decrease (Table S7). As a result, the MP-water interface force decreased more dramatically, and a higher sinking ratio was observed (Fig. [6\)](#page-7-1). The sinking ratio of 100 μm PET treated by pH 3 ferrate oxidation increased~40% but weakened as pH increased (Fig. [6a](#page-7-1)). However, the sinking ratio of 6.5 μm MPs increased as pH raised, suggesting the dominating role of density variation. Higher pH can generate more Fe*x*O*x* attachment (Yang et al. [2018](#page-9-27)), contributing to a more signifcant increase in density (Table S6). The gradual improvement of sinking ratios as pH increased was observed for PET, PS, and PVC, which all verified this hypothesis (Fig. 6).

Moreover, surface oxidation on MPs can enhance the MP hydrophilicity (Table S7). The contact angle of MPs declined from $\sim 90^{\circ}$ to $\sim 20^{\circ}$ after acid ferrate oxidation, suggesting that the surface of MPs was transformed from relatively hydrophobic to hydrophilic. These variations decreased the MP-water interface force of MPs, contributing to the sinking of MPs.

The sinking performance variation generally resulted from interactions between buoyance/gravity (density) and MP-water interface force (size and hydrophobicity) (Fig. S5). The small MPs showed a greater improvement in sinking after ferrate pre-oxidation, which will facilitate MP sedimentation and removal during subsequent sedimentation processes. It might also be crucial for drinking water treatment since the most persistent MPs in DWTPs were identified as small ones (most < 10 μ m). Of note, PE presented high tolerance against ferrate oxidation.

Conclusion

After ferrate oxidation, MPs were transformed into MP-Fe*x*O*^x* complexes, mainly $Fe₂O₃$ and FeOOH. The attachment of Fe*x*O*x* enhanced the sorption capacities of organic matter on all MPs. Furthermore, it promoted the sinking of PET, PS, and PVC. Small MP sinking performance was enhanced, e.g., the sinking ratio of 6.5 μm PS increased by 70% after pH 6 oxidation. This suggested that some organic contaminants, such as CIP, in water can be enriched onto MP-Fe*x*O*x* complexes and can be easily removed together by sedimentation after ferrate oxidation. However, PE with diferent sizes was persistently foated, which should be paid specifc attention to.

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Author contribution All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection, and analysis were performed by Yuheng Chen, Xinni Wu, and Jianwei Fu. The frst draft of the manuscript was written by Ruijuan Liu and Huase Ou. All authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the fnal manuscript.

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Data availability No. of figures: 6.

Declarations

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Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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