

Degradation of Dyestuffs from Industrial Effluents using an Ultrasonic Bath in the Presence and Absence of Various Inorganic Salts and H₂O₂

Abstract

Various dyestuffs are consumed by textile industries for dyeing of fabrics. These dyestuffs are often present in industrial waste water, have a serious impact on the environment and personal health. This report describes a system developed to degrade the dyestuffs using sonochemical reactions. The degradation of dye molecules in aqueous solution was investigated using 50-60 Hz ultrasonic bath and all solutions volumes were 50mL where the concentration of dye solution was 50mg/L. Experiments were performed at initial concentration of two types of dye solutions *i.e.* Methylene Blue (MB) and Methyl Orange (MO) in absence and presence of inorganic salts (NaCl, Na₂CO₃, Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃) and catalyst *i.e.* H₂O₂ at room temperature. This research investigated the degradation of dye molecules with an aim of cost effective method. In sonochemical degradation of dyestuffs in sonicator, high degradation rate for MB was obtained in the presence of additives H₂O₂ and followed the order: MB+H₂O₂ > MB+ Na₂CO₃ > MB+Na₂SO₄ > MB + NaCl > MB (0 mM salt & additive) > MB+NaNO₃. Whereas, in case of MO, high rate was obtained in the presence of Na₂SO₄ and then followed the order: MO+Na₂SO₄ > MO + NaNO₃ > MO+H₂O₂ > MO + NaCl > MO (0 mM salt & additive) > MO+Na₂CO₃.

Keywords: Methyl orange, Methylene blue, Sonolysis, Inorganic salts, H₂O₂.

1. Introduction

The organic dyes widely used in various industries like textile processing, paper making, printing and cosmetic industries etc [1,2]. Often produce large amount of toxic colored wastewater, which has led to severe pollution of surface water and ground water, inducing serious threat to the natural ecosystem [3–6]. Several industries use the synthetic dyestuffs extensively and it is estimated that 10–15% of the dyestuffs remain in the effluent during the dyeing processes. Some azo dyestuffs and their reaction products also have the carcinogenic effects. Thus, the treatment of these waste waters containing dyestuffs is important for the protection of waters and the environment [7]. The treatment of dye-containing wastewater by conventional methods such as biological treatment [8-9], coagulation [10-11], filtration [12] and adsorption [13–15], solvent extraction, incineration, chemical dehalogenation, biodegradation, flocculation, air sparging and are quite ineffective for the decolorization of wastewater since it is very difficult to remove the dyestuffs using these processes because of their low molecular weight and high-water solubility [16]. Other processes, such as coagulation and adsorption, hardly transfer the pollutant from the wastewater to other media that produce sludge and cause disposal problems [17]. In the past few years, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), as the most promising and highly competitive innovative wastewater treatment methods for the removal of organic pollutants, have been widely developed [18–20]. AOPs are based on physicochemical process that creates reactive oxygen species (ROS) at ambient temperature and pressure with or without catalyst and subsequently

47 convert organic pollutants into CO₂ and H₂O without the production of any types of
 48 secondary wastes [21-22]. Among them, ultrasonic degradation of dyestuffs was found to be
 49 a very useful method for the removal of organic compounds. The ultrasonic irradiation of
 50 liquids generates cavitation bubbles which grow during the compression cycles until they
 51 reach a maximum size, which is known as critical size, and implode generating heat and
 52 highly reactive radical species. Inside cavitation bubbles, the temperature and pressure rise to
 53 the order of 5000 K and 100 MPa, respectively. For such conditions, water molecules
 54 degrade releasing OH• and H• radicals [Equations. (1) – (8)].

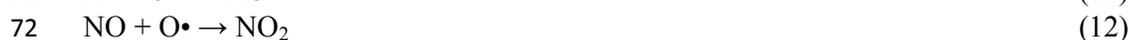
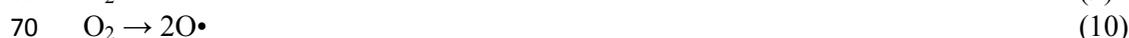
55



64

65 Inside the bubble or in the liquid shell surrounding the cavity, these radicals can
 66 combine in various ways or react with the gases and vapor present, leading to the detection of
 67 H₂O₂, HNO₂ and HNO₃ [25] in the medium as shown by Equations. (9) – (14).

68



75

76 These radicals can oxidize the solute occasioning its degradation. A higher ultrasonic
 77 frequency would be more suitable for dyestuff degradation. The present study verifies the
 78 influence of the presence of salts (NaCl, NaNO₃, Na₂CO₃, Na₂SO₄) and additives (H₂O₂) on
 79 dyestuff degradation processes. Frequencies in the range of 50-60 Hz and power inputs of
 80 320 W were tested in order to optimize the degradation conditions for Methylene Blue (basic
 81 dye) and Methyl Orange (azo dye) solutions. Ultrasonic power is one of the important factors
 82 for sonochemistry. Calorimetry is one of the most frequently used methods for measuring the
 83 actual ultrasonic power input for a solution [26,27]. Eq. (15) gives the calculated ultrasonic
 84 output power (P).

85

$$86 \quad P = (dT/dt) C_p M \quad (15)$$

87 Here,

88 C_p = heat capacity of water

89 M = mass of water

90 T = temperature of the sample solution

91 t = ultrasonic irradiation time.

92

93 The effects of sonic waves and wave properties on chemical systems are discussed under the
 94 study of sonochemistry. Ultrasound causing the chemical effects does not directly interact
 95 with molecular species. Studies have shown that sonochemistry or sonoluminescence cannot
 96 consider any direct contact of the acoustic field with chemical species. Instead,
 97 sonochemistry is related with acoustic cavitation: the formation, growth, and implosive
 98 collapse of bubbles in a liquid. The growth of cavitation bubble mainly depends on the sound
 99 intensity. The formation and growth of the cavitation bubble is shown in (Figure 1).
 100 Sometimes the cavity expansion occurs very quickly by high-intensity ultrasound during the
 101 negative-pressure cycle so that the positive pressure in the next cycle fails to reduce the size
 102 of the cavity. For low intensity ultrasound the size of the cavity oscillates in phase with the
 103 expansion and compression cycles and in this case the bubble surface area is comparatively
 104 larger during expansion cycles than during compression cycles. There is a critical size of
 105 cavitation bubble which depends on the ultrasound frequency and in this situation the cavity
 106 can absorb energy more efficiently from ultrasound and grow more rapidly. But when a
 107 cavity experiences a very rapid growth it can no longer absorb energy as efficiently from the
 108 sound waves and thus the liquid rushes in and the cavity implodes. Gas and vapors are
 109 compressed inside the cavity and this generates heat, which finally produces a short-lived
 110 localized hot spot (Figure 2).

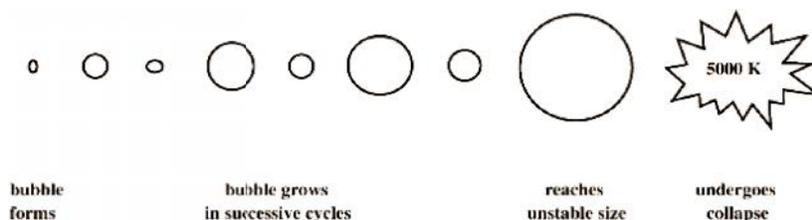
111

112

113

114

115



116

117

118

Figure 1: Cavitation bubble formation and collapse.

119

120

121

122

123

124

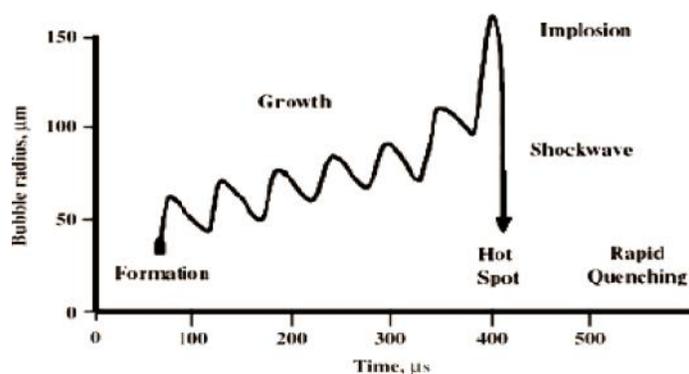
125

126

127

128

129



130

131

Figure 2: Graphical representation of bubble growth and implosion (Suslick et al. 1989).

132

133 In brief, the cavitation collapse creates an unusual environment for a chemical reaction in
 134 terms of enormous local temperatures and pressures. Again, the most sophisticated models
 135 predict temperatures of thousands of degrees Celsius, pressures of from hundreds to
 136 thousands of atmospheres and heating times of less than a microsecond. Various experiments
 137 were done for sonochemical degradation of organic compounds in the presence of various
 138 chemical additives. The results are illustrated in table 1:

139

140 **Table 1:**

141 Sonochemical degradation of various organic compounds in the presence of various chemical
 142 additives

No.	Organic Pollutants	Additives	Reaction Conditions	Important Findings	References
1.	Acid Blue 25 (AB25)	FeSO ₄ , NaCl, CaCl ₂ and NaHCO ₃	100 mL of 50mg/L AB25; 1700kHz, 14W	The rate of degradation was increased with the addition of 10mg/L of Fe ²⁺ and 386mg/L of H ₂ O ₂ . The rate of degradation was also increased in the presence of salts	[28]
2.	Rhodamine B (RHB)	Iron (Fe ⁰ , Fe ²⁺ , Fe ³⁺), CCl ₄ , H ₂ O ₂ , t-butanol, Na ₂ SO ₄ , Sucrose and Glucose	300mL of 5mg/L RHB; 300kHz, 60 W	The rate of degradation was increased with the addition of 5mg/L of Fe ²⁺ , followed by Fe ³⁺ and Fe ⁰ . The rate of degradation was also increased by the addition of 50, 100 and 200mg/L CCl ₄ . The rate of degradation was also increased with the addition of 100mg/L of H ₂ O ₂ and 2g/L of Na ₂ SO ₄ and decreased with the addition of tert-butanol and sucrose and glucose.	[29]
3.	Malachite Green (MG)	Ethanol, 2-propanol and iso-butanol	1000mL of 5 mg/L MG; 35kHz and 49 W	The rate of degradation was decreased by using iso-butanol followed by 2-propanol and ethanol. It's a pseudo first order reaction kinetics.	[30]
4.	C.I. Reactive Black 5 (RB5)	O ₃	500mL of 500mg/L RB5; 20kHz, 88w/L	Totally decolorized by using the solution of US/O ₃ within 10mins. It is a pseudo first order reaction kinetics.	[31]

5.	Reactive red (RR)/Direct Yellow (DY)	CCl ₄ , tert-butanol, TiO ₂ , zero valent Cu (Cu ⁰)	100mL of 28.75μM RR/DY; 861kHz, 0.23 and 0.46 W/mL	The rate of degradation was increased in the presence of 2000 μM of CCl ₄	[32]
				The rate of degradation increases especially in the presence of 0.1-1.0g/L TiO ₂ followed by CCl ₄ and Cu ⁰	

143

144 **2. Experimental Section**

145 The chemicals used for the experiment are:

146 i) Methylene Blue (Dye content ≥ 82%; Merck KGaA, Germany) IUPAC name 7-(dimethyl
147 amino) phenothiazin-3-ylidene]-dimethyl azanium chloride.148 Methylene blue (or MB) is a basic aniline dye with the molecular formula C₁₆H₁₈N₃SCl. At
149 room temperature, it appears as a solid, odorless, dark green powder that yields a blue
150 solution when dissolved in water.

151

152

153

154

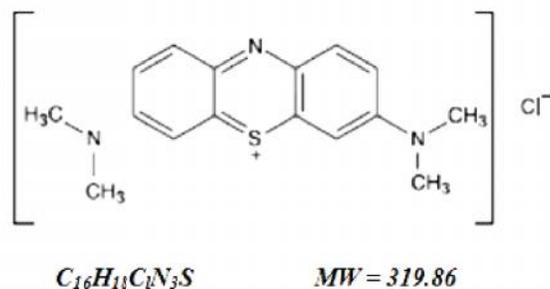
155

156

157

158

159

160 **Figure 3:** Structure of Methylene Blue.

161

162 ii) Methyl Orange (Merck KGaA, Germany) IUPAC name sodium;4- [[4- (dimethyl amino)
163 phenyl] diaziny] benzenesulfonate164 Methyl orange is a pH indicator and due to its clear color change it is very often used in
165 titrations. Methyl orange changes color at the pH of a mid-strength acid and is usually used in
166 titrations for acids. Unlike a so called universal indicator, methyl orange does not have a full
167 spectrum of color change, but has a sharper end point. Methyl orange is prepared from
168 sulfanilic acid and N, N-dimethylaniline. The first product obtained from the coupling is the
169 bright red acid form of methyl orange, called helianthin. In base, helanthin is converted to the
orange sodium salt, called methyl orange.

170

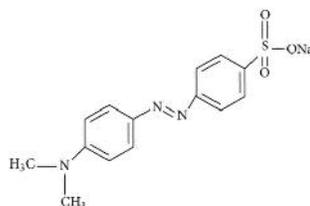
171

172

173

174

175

**Figure 4:** Structure of Methyl Orange

- 176 iii) Various Additives like:
 177 a) Salts (NaCl, NaNO₃, Na₂SO₄, Na₂CO₃)
 178 b) Additive (H₂O₂)
 179 all were purchased from Merck KGaA 64271 Darmstadt, Germany.
 180 The Apparatus used are:
 181 i. Beaker 500mL ii. 250 mL conical flask iii. Pipette iv. Micro pipette
 182 v. Digital Thermometer vi. Sample tube vii. Stand viii. Magnetic stirrer
 183 ix. Measuring cylinder
 184 The equipment used are:
 185 i. Sonicator Machine (Soniclean 250HT; 50-60Hz; 320W)
 186 ii. UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (UV Mini 1240; Shimadzu Company)

187 Procedure

188 The schematic diagram of the experimental setup to shown in the Fig. 5. First of all, the
 189 power of the sonicator is measured calorimetrically using equation-15. Then, a conical flask
 190 with a total volume of 100 ml of 50 mg/L dye solution was used for ultrasonic irradiation
 191 under air at room temperature around 24⁰C. The sonicated solution was extracted every (0, 3,
 192 7 and 10 min) by a glass syringe (1 ml) without exposing the sample to air. The glass vessel
 193 was flat bottomed and mounted at a constant position (4.0 mm from the oscillator). The
 194 sonicated solutions were analyzed by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1650).



195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
Figure 5: Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up

205 3. Results and Discussion

206 Calorimetric Power Measurement

207 From the table 2 and figure 6, we can see that the temperature in the site of the reaction is
 208 increasing with sonication time. Again, reaction rate increases with temperature. So, we can
 209 say that, degradation rate of the dye stuff will increase with the elongation of sonication time.

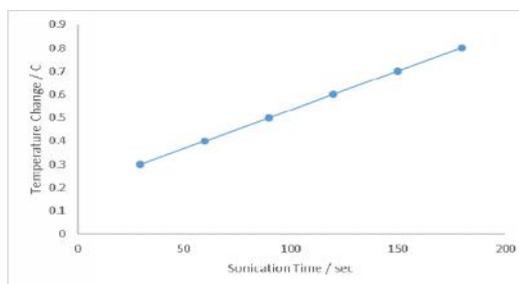
210

211
212 **Table 2:** Measurement of temperature change.

Observation	Sonication Time (sec)	Initial Temperature (°C)	Final Temperature (°C)	Temperature Change (°C)	Actual power (Watt)
1	30	24.7	25.0	0.3	4.180
2	60	25.2	25.6	0.4	2.787
3	90	25.6	26.1	0.5	2.322
4	120	26.0	26.6	0.6	2.090

5	150	26.4	27.1	0.7	1.951
6	180	26.7	27.6	0.8	1.858

213



214

215

216

217

Figure 6: The measurement of temperature change with increasing sonication time.

218 Degradation of Dyes

219 In case of Methylene Blue (MB) as it can be seen from figure 7, the concentration of MB
 220 decreased gradually as the sonication time increased. So, it can be said that, MB degrades
 221 gradually with the increase in sonication time. When no sonication occurred the
 222 concentration of MB was 0.1563 mM. After sonicating for 3mins, 7mins and 10mins, the
 223 concentration became 0.1524 mM, 0.1446mM and 0.1403mM respectively. With the addition
 224 of NaCl, degradation of MB was slightly enhanced up to 0.0014mM when compared with the
 225 absence of NaCl salt. The addition of NaNO₃ shows a higher degradation property at initial
 226 state, but finally it fails to keep the degradation rate higher than that of with the absence of
 227 NaNO₃ salt. The addition of Na₂CO₃ enhanced the degradation of MB up to 0.0053mM
 228 whereas Na₂SO₄ slightly enhanced the degradation of MB up to 0.0027mM. The positive
 229 effects of these inorganic salts on the destruction of MB were very little at initial state. But
 230 finally, it has a great impact on the degradation except NaNO₃.

231

232 Again, in case of Methyl Orange (MO) from figure 8, the concentration of MO
 233 decreased gradually with the increase in sonication time. When no sonication was occurred
 234 the concentrations of MO was 0.1528 mM. After sonicating for 3 mins, 7 mins and 10 mins,
 235 the concentration became 0.1518 mM, 0.1516mM and 0.1496mM respectively. The addition
 236 of NaCl, NaNO₃, Na₂CO₃, Na₂SO₄ enhanced the degradation of MB up to 0.0038 mM,
 237 0.0175mM, 0.1496 mM and 0.0209 mM respectively when compared with the absence of
 238 inorganic salts. The positive effects of these inorganic salts on the destruction of MO were
 239 very little at initial state. But finally, it has a great impact on the degradation except Na₂CO₃.
 240 So, there may be an optimum amount of these inorganic salts to increase degradation rate.
 241 Excessive amount of salts may interrupt the introduction of ultrasound into the liquid [33].
 242 Addition of salts to aqueous solution pushes molecules from the bulk aqueous phase to the
 243 bulk–bubble interface. The presence of salt may increase the hydrophilicity, the surface
 244 tension and ionic strength of the aqueous phase and decrease the vapor pressure [34-35]. All
 245 these factors help in collapsing of the bubbles more violently, resulting in high degradation of
 246 dye.

246

247

248

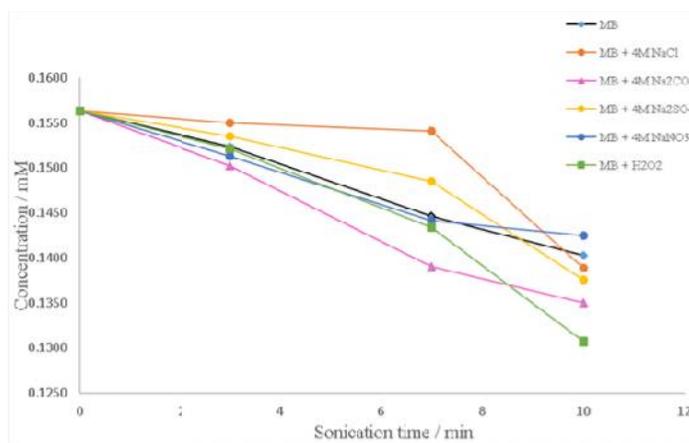
249

In order to evaluate the effect of H₂O₂ alone on the degradation of dyes, control
 experiments were carried out by adding H₂O₂. The dosage of added hydrogen peroxide was
 the same as the amounts used in the presence of ultrasound. The results indicate that a similar
 dosage of H₂O₂ in absence of ultrasound produce low degradation of dye molecules, even

250 after long times (240 min). Thus, hydrogen peroxide alone has a very limited effect on the
 251 degradation rate of dye molecules. Throughout the addition of hydrogen peroxide in the
 252 presence of ultrasound enhances the degradation rate of both MB and MO due to additional
 253 free radicals generation. It can be concluded that the controlling mechanism of dye molecule
 254 degradation is the free radical attack. The degradation rate was appreciably increased by the
 255 addition of H₂O₂. The H₂O₂ may be mainly present not inside the cavitation bubbles but in
 256 the bulk solution due to the high-water solubility and the low volatility. The lower
 257 intensification of degradation rate in the presence of high concentrations of H₂O₂ may be
 258 attributed to the increased level of OH• radical scavenging by H₂O₂ itself (reaction (16)).

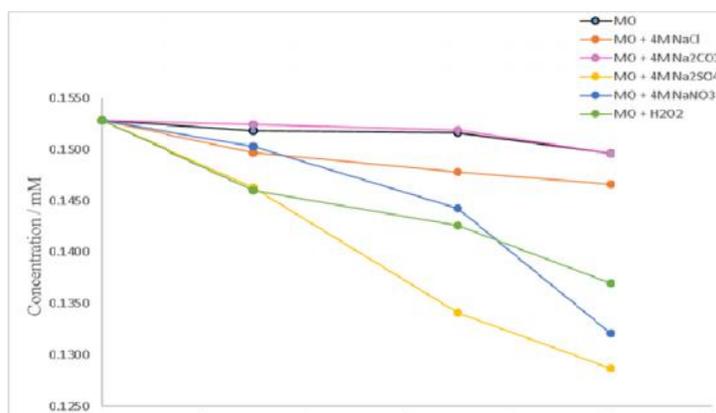


261
 262 Similar results for the enhancement of sonolytic degradation of dyes in the presence of
 263 hydrogen peroxide were reported in literature [36-37].



272
 273 **Figure 7:** Comparison of degradation of MB with and without salt and additive.

274
 275 Finally, from the figure 7 and 8 it can be stated that, in sonochemical degradation of dyestuffs
 276 in sonicator, high degradation rate for MB was obtained in the presence of additives H₂O₂
 277 and followed the order: MB+H₂O₂ > MB+ Na₂CO₃ > MB+Na₂SO₄ > MB + NaCl > MB (0
 278 mM salt & additive) > MB+NaNO₃. Whereas, in case of MO, high rate was obtained in the
 279 presence of Na₂SO₄ and then followed the order: MO+Na₂SO₄ > MO + NaNO₃ > MO+H₂O₂
 280 > MO + NaCl > MO (0 mM salt & additive) > MO+Na₂CO₃. But in both cases, it can be seen
 281 that H₂O₂ has a great impact on degradation of dye molecules, due to formation OH• radicals.
 282 So, H₂O₂ can be used as an additive effectively.



289

290 **Figure 8:** Comparison of degradation of MO with and without salt and additive.

291

292 4. Conclusion

293 The present work has shown that Dye can be effectively removed from water by ultrasound
294 irradiation. This study demonstrates that sonochemical degradation occurs mainly through
295 reactions with hydroxyl radicals. It was found that the initial degradation of dye molecule
296 increased. The addition of salt and additives enhanced the rate of degradation. So, it can be
297 concluded after this research work that, the dye stuffs can be removed from water by using
298 the ultrasound system in presence of salt and additives effectively.

299

300 References:

301 [1] G.K. Parshetti, A.A. Telke, D.C. Kalyani, S.P. Govindwar, Decolorization and
302 detoxification of sulfonated azo dye methyl orange by *Kocuria rosea* MTCC 1532, *J. Hazard.*
303 *Mater.* 176 (2010) 503–509.

304

305 [2] J.S. Chang, C. Chou, Y.C. Lin, P.J. Lin, J.Y. Ho, T.L. Hu, Kinetic characteristics of
306 bacterial azo-dye decolorization by *Pseudomonas luteola*, *Water Res.* 35 (2001) 2841–2850.

307

308 [3] O. Hamdaoui, M. Chiha, Removal of methylene blue from aqueous solutions by
309 wheat bran, *Acta Chim. Slov.* 54 (2007) 407–418.

310

311 [4] J. Wang, Z. Jiang, Z. Zhang, Y. Xie, X. Wang, Z. Xing, R. Xu, X. Zhang, Sonocatalytic
312 degradation of acid red B and rhodamine B catalyzed by nanosized ZnO powder under
313 ultrasonic irradiation, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 15 (2008) 768–774.

314

315 [5] M. Ahmad, E. Ahmed, Z.L. Hong, W. Ahmed, A. Elhissi, N.R. Khalid, Photocatalytic,
316 sonocatalytic and sonophotocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B using ZnO/CNTs
317 composites photocatalysts, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 21 (2014) 761–773.

318

319 [6] N.B. Bokhale, S.D. Bomble, R.R. Dalbhanjan, D.D. Mahale, S.P. Hinge, B.S. Banerjee,
320 A.V. Mohod, P.R. Gogate, Sonocatalytic and sonophotocatalytic degradation of rhodamine
321 6G containing wastewaters, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 21 (2014) 1797–1804.

322

323 [7] E. Guivarch, S. Trevin, C. Lahitte, M.A. Oturan, Degradation of azo dyes in water by
324 Electron–Fenton process, *Environ. Chem. Lett.* 1 (2003) 38–44.

325

326 [8] G.N.P. Kumar, K.B. Sumangala, Decolorization of azo dye Red 3BN by bacteria, *Int.*
327 *Res. J. Biol. Sci.* 1 (2012) 46–52.

328

329 [9] A. Pandey, P. Singh, L. Iyengar, Bacterial decolorization and degradation of azo dyes, *Int.*
330 *Biodeterior. Biodegradation* 59 (2007) 73–84.

331

332 [10] A.L. Ahmad, S.W. Puasa, Reactive dyes decolourization from an aqueous solution by
333 combined coagulation/micellar-enhanced ultrafiltration process, *Chem. Eng. J.* 132 (2007)
334 257–265.

335

- 336 [11] B. Shi, G. Li, D. Wang, C. Feng, H. Tang, Removal of direct dyes by coagulation: the
337 performance of preformed polymeric aluminum species, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 143 (2007) 567–
338 574.
339
- 340 [12] J.H. Mo, Y.H. Lee, J. Kim, J.Y. Jeong, J. Jegal, Treatment of dye aqueous solutions
341 using nanofiltration polyamide composite membranes for the dye wastewater reuse, *Dyes*
342 *Pigm.* 76 (2008) 429–434.
343
- 344 [13] E.N. El Qada, S.J. Allen, G.M. Walker, Adsorption of basic dyes from aqueous
345 solution onto activated carbons, *Chem. Eng. J.* 135 (2008) 174–184.
346
- 347 [14] B.H. Hameed, A.A. Ahmad, N. Aziz, Isotherms, kinetics and thermodynamics of acid
348 dye adsorption on activated palm ash, *Chem. Eng. J.* 133 (2007) 195–203.
349
- 350 [15] S. Boutemedjet, O. Hamdaoui, Sorption of Malachite green by eucalyptus bark
351 as a non-conventional low-cost biosorbent, *Desalination Water Treat.* 8 (2009) 201–210.
352
- 353 [16] T. An, H. Gu, Y. Xiong, W. Chen, X. Zhu, G. Sheng, J. Fu, Decolourization and COD
354 removal from reactive dye-containing wastewater using sonophotocatalytic technology, *J.*
355 *Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 78 (2003) 1142–1148.
356
- 357 [17] P.C. Fung, Q. Huang, S.M. Tsui, C.S. Poon, Treatability study of organic and colour
358 removal in desizing/dyeing wastewater by UV/ US system combined with hydrogen
359 peroxide, *Water Sci. Technol.* 40 (1999) 153–160.
360
- 361 [18] Y.G. Adewuyi, Sonochemistry in environmental remediation II: heterogeneous
362 sonophotocatalytic oxidation processes for the treatment of pollutants in water, *Environ. Sci.*
363 *Technol.* 39 (2005) 8557–8570.
364
- 365 [19] N.N. Mahamuni, Y.G. Adewuyi, Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) involving
366 ultrasound for waste water treatment: a review with emphasis on cost estimation, *Ultrason.*
367 *Sonochem.* 17 (2010) 990–1003.
368
- 369 [20] J.O. Tijani, O.O. Fatoba, G. Madzivire, L.F. Petrik, A review of combined advanced
370 oxidation technologies for the removal of organic pollutants from water, *Water Air Soil*
371 *Pollut.* 225 (2014) 2102.
372
- 373 [21] J.O. Tijani, O.O. Fatoba, G. Madzivire, L.F. Petrik, A review of combined advanced
374 oxidation technologies for the removal of organic pollutants from water, *Water Air Soil*
375 *Pollut.* 225 (2014) 2102.
376
- 377 [22] A.S. Stasinakis, Use of selected advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) for wastewater
378 treatment—a mini review, *Global NEST J.* 10 (2008) 376–385.
379
- 380 [23] H. Okuno, B. Yim, Y. Mizukoshi, Y. Nagata, Y. Maeda, Sonolytic degradation of
381 hazardous organic compounds in aqueous solution, *Ultrasonics Sonochemistry* 7 (2000) 261–
382 264.
383
384

- 385 [24] C. Pe'trier, M. Lamy, A. Francony, A. Benahcene, B. David, Sonochemical
386 degradation of phenol in dilute aqueous solutions: comparison of the reaction rates at 20 and
387 487 kHz, *J. Physical Chemistry* 98 (1994) 10514–10520.
388
- 389 [25] K. Takagi (Ed.), *Chouonpa Binran*, Maruzen, Japan, 1999 (in
390 Japanese).
391
- 392 [26] T.J. Mason, J.P. Lorimer, D.M. Bates, Quantifying sonochemistry: casting some light on
393 a 'black art', *Ultrasonics* 30 (1992) 40.
394
- 395 [27] R.F. Contamine, A.M. Wilhelm, J. Berlan, H. Delmas, Power measurement in
396 sonochemistry, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 2 (1995) S43.
397
- 398 [28] H. Ghodbane, O. Hamdaoui, Degradation of Acid Blue 25 in aqueous media using 1700
399 kHz ultrasonic irradiation: ultrasound/Fe(II) and ultrasound/H₂O₂ combinations, *Ultrason.*
400 *Sonochem.* 16 (5) (2009) 593–598.
401
- 402 [29] S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, F. Saoudi, M. Chiha, Sonochemical degradation of
403 Rhodamine B in aqueous phase: effects of additives, *Chem. Eng. J.* 158 (3) (2010)
404 550–557.
405
- 406 [30] Z. He, S. Song, H. Zhou, H. Ying, J. Chen, C.I. Reactive Black 5 decolorization by
407 combined sonolysis and ozonation, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 14 (3) (2007) 298–304.
408
- 409 [31] M.A. Behnajady, N. Modirshahla, M. Shokri, B. Vahid, Effect of operational parameters
410 on degradation of Malachite Green by ultrasonic irradiation, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 15 (6)
411 (2008) 1009–1014.
412
- 413 [32] Z. Eren, N.H. Ince, Sonolytic and sonocatalytic degradation of azo dyes by low and high
414 frequency ultrasound, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 177 (1–3) (2010) 1019–1024.
415
- 416 [33] M. Dükkancı, G. Gündüz, Ultrasonic degradation of oxalic acid in aqueous solutions,
417 *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 13 (2006) 517–522.
418
- 419 [34] J.D. Seymour, R.B. Gupta, Oxidation of aqueous pollutants using ultrasound: salt
420 induced enhancement, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 36 (1997) 3453–3457.
421
- 422 [35] S. Findik, G. Gunduz, Sonolytic degradation of acetic acid in aqueous solutions,
423 *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 14 (2007) 157–162.
424
- 425 [36] M.A. Behnajady, N. Modirshahla, S. Bavili Tabrizi, S. Molanee, Ultrasonic
426 degradation of Rhodamine B in aqueous solution: influence of operational parameters, *J.*
427 *Hazard. Mater.* 152 (2008) 381–386.
428
- 429 [37] A. Mehrdad, R. Hashemzadeh, Ultrasonic degradation of Rhodamine B in the presence
430 of hydrogen peroxide and some metal oxide, *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 17 (2010) 168–172.