Generation of Oxidative Radicals by Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs) in Wastewater Treatment: A Mechanistic, Environmental and Economic Review

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Supplementary Material

Appendix A Additional information on hydroxyl radicals

A.1 Bromate formation in ozonation

Bromate (BrO_3^-) has been extensively studied, especially in ozonation applied to drinking water treatment; since the early 1990s, it was recognised as a potential carcinogen by the International Agency for the Research on Cancer (IARC) (Pinkernell and von Gunten, 2001). Bromide (Br^-) is typically found in natural water bodies at concentrations ranging from 4 to $1000 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$, with 50 $\ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ being the threshold at which reactions with O₃ are triggered to form BrO_3^- (Fischbacher et al., 2015; von Gunten, 2003b). Figure A.1 depicts the complexity of this mechanism, since Br^- not only reacts with O₃ but also with •OH radicals, thereby forming other intermediates such as HBrO and BrO⁻ (Fischbacher et al., 2015; von Gunten, 2003b).

When introducing H_2O_2 in a system containing O_3 and Br^- , the impact of •OH radicals on BrO_3^- formation becomes negligible, as the intermediately formed HBrO/BrO⁻ compounds are not oxidised further towards BrO_3^- but are reduced back to Br^- at fast reaction rates (Eqs. A.1 and A.2) with the species involved in the dissociation of H_2O_2 (Eq. A.3) (Fischbacher et al., 2015; von Gunten and Oliveras, 1997).

$$HBrO + HO_2^{-} \longrightarrow Br^{-} + H_2O + O_2$$
(A.1)

$$BrO^- + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow Br^- + H_2O + O_2$$
 (A.2)



Figure A.1: Conventional pathway for bromate formation in the reaction of ozone with bromide, adapted from Fischbacher et al. (2015) (Fischbacher et al., 2015).

$$H_2O_2 \longleftrightarrow H^+ + HO_2^-$$
 (A.3)

A.2 Halogenated byproduct formation in electrochemical AOPs

In an electrochemical cell, ClO_3^- and BrO_3^- can be generated either through a chemical or electrochemical route, as has been observed both forming after interaction with MMOs and on the surface of BDD electrodes (Jung et al., 2010; Polcaro et al., 2008). On the other hand, $ClO_4^$ is purely formed in electrochemical processes, especially with highly oxidising BDD anodes (Bergmann and Rollin, 2007). The occurrence of these byproducts has been observed over a wide range of applied current densities, ranging from 50 to 300 A m⁻². By lowering the current density, this issue would be mitigated at the expense of lower degradation performance, since the production of radicals would be reduced accordingly. Alternatively, combining electrochemical oxidation with a post-treatment such as membrane filtration, activated carbon sorption or microbial reduction has been explored, showing a strong dependency on the specific conditions of each case (e.g., presence of organic matter, NH₃, inorganic and organic ions). In terms of material selection, electrodes such as BDD and Ti/SnO₂ are more suitable for the treatment of wastewater streams with high concentrations of fluorinated surfactants, whereas for halidecontaining influents, it is best to couple the electrooxidation with activated carbon electrodes to minimise the production of toxic byproducts (Comninellis and Chen, 2010; Radjenovic and Sedlak, 2015).

Appendix B Additional information on iodine radicals



Figure B.1: The mechanism of the dye-sensitized activation of IO_4^- for the treatment of dyes, as an organic model compound, adapted from Yun et al. (2017) (Yun et al., 2017).

Wastewater Matrix	Target Pollutant	$\begin{array}{c} {\bf Activation} \\ {\bf Method} \end{array}$	Iodine Load	Pollution Load	Removal	Time	Remarks	Reference
Synthetic	Light green SF yellowish (LGSFY)	IO ₃ ⁻ /UV	$10 \mathrm{~mM}$	$10 \ \mathrm{mg/L}$	98%	$10 \min$	 IO₂• and IO₃• played the most significant role in the decomposition Compounds such as Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and humic acid did not affect the efficiency even at high dosage levels (up to 0.1 M) SO₄⁻ ions significantly reduced efficiency 	
			$10 \mathrm{~mM}$	$20~{\rm mg/L}$	85%	$10 \min$		(Haddad et al., 2019)
			$0 \mathrm{mM}$	$10 \ \mathrm{mg/L}$	36%	$10 \min$		
			$0 \mathrm{mM}$	$20~{ m mg/L}$	18%	$10 \min$		
Synthetic	Phenol	$\mathrm{IO_3}^-/\mathrm{US}$	$3 \mathrm{~mM}$	$25~{ m mg/L}$	91%	90 min	Acidic pH favored phenol degradationCaCl did not affect the efficiency	(Seid-Mohamadi et al., 2015)
Synthetic	Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA)	IO_3^-/US	$45 \mathrm{~mM}$	70.4 mg/L	95.7%	120 min	 Lower pH favored the degradation of organic compounds Any increase in concentration of dissolved oxygen favored the generation of IO₄• and consumption of IO₃• 	(Lee et al., 2016)
Synthetic	Acid Orange 7 (AO7)	Iodine-doped granular activated carbon	1 g/L I-GAC	$17.5 \mathrm{~mg/L}$	95%	80 min	- Formation of I_3^- and I_5^- when the catalyst is introduced into the solution promoted the interaction between I-GAC and IO ₄ ⁻ , and consequently, increased the generation of IO ₃ ⁻	(Li et al., 2017)
Synthetic	Phenol	$\mathrm{IO_4}^-/\mathrm{MW}$	$200 \mathrm{~mM}$	$100~{\rm mg/L}$	98.8%	$30 \min$	- Alkaline pH promoted phenol degradation	(Mohammadi et al., 2016)
Synthetic	Furfuryl alcohol (FFA)	$IO_4^-/$ Freezing	0.1 mM	$2 \mathrm{~mg/L}$	100%	60 min	- Efficiency increased considerably with increasing iodine concentration and decreasing pH and/or freezing temperature	(Choi et al., 2018)
Synthetic	Basic Yellow 28	Catalytic $(1 \text{ g/L of } \text{TiO}_2)$	$5 \mathrm{~mM}$	$100~{\rm mg/L}$	68%	$180 \min$	- 1 g/L of TiO ₂ at pH 3.0 was considered an efficient method to achieve a complete degradation and a considerable mineralization of the pollutants	(Gözmen et al., 2009)
	Basic Red 46			$100~{\rm mg/L}$	76%	$180 \min$		
	$\operatorname{BY28}$ and $\operatorname{BR46}$			$50 \mathrm{~mg/L}$	75%	180 min		
Synthetic	Phenol	ZVI (3 mM)/US	$2 \mathrm{~mM}$	$50 \mathrm{~mg/L}$	100%	90 min	- Optimum phenol degradation was achieved under acidic conditions (pH=3) - The efficiency of the methods studied was reported as US $< \rm IO_4^- < \rm IO_4^-/\rm ZVI < \rm IO_4^-/\rm US < \rm ZVI/I_4^-/\rm US$	(Seid-Mohammadi et al., 2019)

 Table B.1: Degradation of organic compounds using various periodate activation systems.

Appendix C Alternative radicals

C.1 Reactive Nitrogen Species (RNS)

Reactive nitrogen species (RNS) have emerged mainly under UV oxidation systems, for instance, with chloramine (NH₂Cl) as a precursor, which is a compound generated during chlorination in conventional wastewater treatment. Figure C.1 presents the mechanism of the UV/NH₂Cl process. Briefly, Cl[•] and •NH₂ radicals are produced by the photolysis of NH₂Cl. Subsequently, Cl[•] forms secondary radicals, such as •OH and $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$, involved in the degradation of organic compounds. On the other hand, •NH₂ can react with oxygen present in the medium to generate NH₂OO[•], which can be transformed into NO[•] to react with •OH or O₂, resulting in the further formation of nitrite (NO₂⁻). NO₂[•] is rapidly formed by the reaction of NO₂⁻ with •OH or $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$ (Wu et al., 2019).



Figure C.1: Reaction mechanisms involved in the UV photolysis of NH_2Cl , adapted from Wu et al. (2019) (Wu et al., 2019).

There are a few studies published on the application of UV/RNS for the treatment of industrial effluents. For instance, the effective degradation of organic micropollutants, including triclosan, carbamazepine, sulfamethoxazole, estradiol (E2), and ethinylestradiol (EE2), under this system was reported by Wu et al. (2019) (Wu et al., 2019). They indicated that the degradation reactions involving RNS were selective for organic molecules with electron-rich moieties. As an example, ${}^{\circ}NO_2$ was able to oxidise electron-rich moieties with moderate rate constants, such as phenolic groups, anilines, phenothiazines, and thiols. Hence, the phenolic moiety on E2 and EE2 played an important role in the degradation of these compounds using the UV/NH₂Cl process. However, it has been reported that ${}^{\circ}NH_2$ is significantly less active than ${}^{\circ}Cl$ and its daughter radicals, such as $Cl_2{}^{\circ}$ and ${}^{\circ}OH$ (Zhang et al., 2019).

There are also some other types of RNS that can derived from nitrate (NO_3^-) . Recent studies have indicated that UV irradiation of wastewater containing this ion can result in the formation of oxidative compounds, such as $ONOO^-$, NO_2^{\bullet} and $\bullet OH$ (Huang et al., 2018). Figure C.2 represents the possible reactions involving NO_3^- activation at 254 nm under mild alkaline conditions (i.e., pH 7-9) in the presence of oxygen (Huang et al., 2018). Bu et al. (2020) evaluated the UV/RNS-driven degradation of atrazine compared to that by UV photolysis and $\bullet OH$ radicals (Bu et al., 2020). They indicated that the reaction of nitrogen species with hydroxyatrazine (with electron-rich moieties) was the main route for the degradation of atrazine. They also discussed the possibility of the generation of ${}^{\bullet}OH$ and RNS such as NO₂ ${}^{\bullet}$, O(³P) and ONOO⁻ under the photolysis of NO₃⁻ (Eqs. C.1 - C.5).



Figure C.2: Main reactions involved in the photolysis of nitrate at 254 nm under alkaline pH, adapted from Huan et al. (2018) (Huang et al., 2018).

$$NO_3^- \xrightarrow{hv} NO_2^{\bullet} + O^{\bullet-}$$
(C.1)

$$O^{\bullet-} + H_2 O \longrightarrow {}^{\bullet} OH + OH^-$$
(C.2)

$$\mathrm{NO}_3^- \xrightarrow{hv} \mathrm{NO}_2^- + \mathrm{O}(^3\mathrm{P})$$
 (C.3)

$$NO_2^{\bullet} + {}^{\bullet}OH \longrightarrow HOONO$$
 (C.4)

$$NO_2^- + {}^{\bullet}OH \longrightarrow NO_2^{\bullet} + OH^-$$
 (C.5)

Recently, NO_2^- has also been used as an oxidation agent for the treatment of recalcitrant organic compounds under UV irradiation through the generation of NO[•] radicals (Eq. C.6) (Wu et al., 2020). It has been reported that the quantum yields of •OH and RNS resulting from the photolysis of NO_2^- are higher than those resulting from the photolysis of NO_3^- (Bu et al., 2020). Similarly, it has been emphasised that the selection of a UV wavelength is of great importance in the generation of reactive species. In fact, under short wavelengths (i.e., 254 nm), the quantum yields of $^{\bullet}$ OH generated from NO₃⁻ photolysis were higher than those under greater wavelengths (i.e., 300 nm): approximately 9% and 1%, respectively (Bu et al., 2020).

$$\mathrm{NO}_2^- \xrightarrow{hv} \mathrm{NO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{O}^{\bullet-}$$
 (C.6)

Near-neutral pH conditions (i.e., pH 6–8) have been reported as optimal for the degradation of recalcitrant organic pollutants using RNS (Zhou et al., 2020a). In addition to NO_2^{\bullet} (+1.03 V standard redox potential) and NO^{\bullet} (+0.39 V standard redox potential) being considered of moderate strength, they are also very efficient as nitrating and nitrosating agents (Zhou et al., 2020a).

Finally, special consideration should be given to the potential for increased effluent toxicity after treatment. In particular, in the presence of NO_2^- ions, nitro-products may be unexpectedly formed, which are often more toxic than the parent pollutant (Rayaroth et al., 2022). Rayaroth et al. (2022) reviewed this recurring issue across multiple AOPs, and highlighted ozonation and electrochemical treatments as solutions to minimise this risk (Rayaroth et al., 2022).

C.2 Carbonate radicals

Carbonate radicals ($CO_3^{\bullet-}$, +1.78 V standard redox potential) are also possible oxidation agents for the degradation of recalcitrant organic compounds (Canonica et al., 2005). They normally originate from the oxidation of carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^{-}), which are commonly present in water and are scavengers of other radicals, such as ${}^{\bullet}OH$, $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and Cl[•] (Zhang et al., 2015). Compared to other radical species, $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ radicals are more selective, although they lead to generally slower reaction kinetics. $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ is an electrophilic species that tends to react with electron-rich compounds through mechanisms such as electron transfer or hydrogen abstraction (Liu et al., 2016). Examples of such organic compounds are phenol and its derivatives ($10^6-10^8 M^{-1}s^{-1}$), nitrogen ($10^7-10^9 M^{-1}s^{-1}$) and sulphur ($10^6-10^7 M^{-1}s^{-1}$) containing compounds, as well as indole heterocyclic nucleus containing compounds (> $10^8 M^{-1}s^{-1}$) (Liu et al., 2015). The effectiveness of $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ for the degradation of naproxen ($C_{14}H_{14}O_3$) has also been investigated in combination with different oxidation systems, such as UV/H₂O₂, UV/persulfate, UV/Cl₂ and UV/NH₂Cl (Wu et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020b).

Appendix D Scavenging effects

D.1 Hydroxyl radical scavengers

Carbonate (CO₃²⁻) and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) ions react directly with •OH to form carbonate radicals (CO₃^{•-}) under alkaline conditions (Eqs. D.1 and D.2) (von Gunten, 2003a). These reactions occur at fast reaction rates (up to $4.2 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ and $10 \cdot 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ for CO₃²⁻ and HCO₃⁻, respectively) and can therefore inhibit indirect oxidation pathways (Giannakis et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2019). It is estimated that CO₃²⁻ can inhibit up to 30% of the available •OH radicals (Devi et al., 2016).

$$^{\bullet}\mathrm{OH} + \mathrm{CO}_3{}^{2-} \longrightarrow \mathrm{OH}^- + \mathrm{CO}_3{}^{\bullet-} \tag{D.1}$$

$$^{\bullet}\mathrm{OH} + \mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-} \longrightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O} + \mathrm{CO}_{3}^{\bullet-} \tag{D.2}$$

Natural organic matter (NOM) is also a known scavenger of ${}^{\bullet}$ OH, which partially leads to carbon-centred radicals (NOM[•]) (Eqs. D.3 and D.4) that react with O₂ to further generate superoxide radicals (O₂[•]) (Eq. D.5) (von Gunten, 2003a). These radicals can intervene in other reaction mechanisms, such as ozonation. Nonetheless, O₂[•] radicals are known to be a better reducing agent than an oxidising one (Kehrer et al., 2010).

$$^{\bullet}OH + NOM \longrightarrow NOM^{\bullet} + H_2O \tag{D.3}$$

$$^{\bullet}\mathrm{OH} + \mathrm{NOM} \longrightarrow \mathrm{NOM}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{OH}^{-} \tag{D.4}$$

$$NOM^{\bullet} + O_2 \longrightarrow NOM - O_2^{\bullet} \longrightarrow NOM^+ + O_2^{\bullet}$$
(D.5)

Finally, the potential scavenging effects of chloride ions (Cl⁻) have been investigated, and divergent conclusions can be found in the literature. Some studies have reported an enhancement in the degradation of pollutants (Yang et al., 2010), while others have observed negative impacts (Chan and Chu, 2009) and even thresholds in the concentration of Cl⁻ ions that triggered either enhancing or inhibitory effects (Liang et al., 2006). Therefore, the exact role of Cl⁻ ions is not yet fully understood (Devi et al., 2016). In addition, several studies have reported the formation of refractory chlorinated byproducts of high toxicity (Chan and Chu, 2009; Yuan et al., 2011). When involved in the scavenging of $^{\circ}$ OH radicals, Cl⁻ leads to the formation of intermediate chlorine radicals (Cl[•]) (Eq. D.6), which afterwards can also react and generate other chlorine-based radicals (i.e., Cl₂^{•-}, ClOH^{•-}) and $^{\circ}$ OH radicals in solution (Eqs. D.7 - D.12) (Devi et al., 2016; Monteagudo et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2011).

$$^{\bullet}\mathrm{OH} + \mathrm{Cl}^{-} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Cl}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{OH}^{-} \tag{D.6}$$

$$\operatorname{Cl}^{\bullet} + \operatorname{Cl}^{-} \longleftrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}_{2}^{\bullet-}$$
 (D.7)

$$\operatorname{Cl}_2^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{Cl}_2^{\bullet-} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}_2 + 2 \operatorname{Cl}^-$$
 (D.8)

$$Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O \longrightarrow {}^{\bullet}OH + HCl$$
 (D.9)

$$\operatorname{Cl}_2^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{H}_2 O \longrightarrow \operatorname{ClOH}^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{Cl}^- + \operatorname{H}^+$$
 (D.10)

$$\operatorname{ClOH}^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{H}^+ \longleftrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}^{\bullet} + \operatorname{H}_2\operatorname{O}$$
 (D.11)

$$\text{ClOH}^{\bullet-} \longleftrightarrow^{\bullet}\text{OH} + \text{Cl}^{-}$$
 (D.12)

Table D.1: Reaction rates (M⁻¹s⁻¹) of [•]OH and HO₂[•]/O₂^{•-} radicals with scavenging compounds in aqueous media (Giannakis et al., 2021; Wang and Wang, 2020).

Scavenger	Reaction rate with •OH	Reaction rate with $HO_2^{\bullet}/O_2^{\bullet-}$
$\overline{\mathrm{CO}_3}^{2-}$	$3.2 - 4.2 \cdot 10^8$	$< 4.10^{-2}$
HCO_{3}^{-}	$8.5 - 10 \cdot 10^6$	NA
Cl^-	$3 - 4.3 \cdot 10^9$	$< 1.4 \cdot 10^{2}$
Br^-	$1.1 - 1.9 \cdot 10^{10}$	NA
$\mathrm{NO_3}^-$	NA	NA
NO_2^-	$2.5 - 14 \cdot 10^9$	$5 - 360 \cdot 10^6$
$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	NA	NA
$\mathrm{HPO_4}^{2-}/\mathrm{H_2PO_4}^{-}$	$2 - 15 \cdot 10^4$	$3.5 \cdot 10^{6}$
NOM	$1.39 \cdot 10^8$	NA

D.2 Sulfate radical scavengers

Despite the lower self-scavenging effect of $\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals, carbonates, bicarbonates and chlorides have shown scavenging effects on them (Devi et al., 2016). Both carbonate ($\mathrm{CO}_3^{2^-}$) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ions can scavenge $\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and lead to the formation of $\mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ (Eqs. D.13 and D.14), which has a lower redox potential (i.e., +1.63 V) (Bennedsen et al., 2012). Since $\mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ radicals are formed under alkaline conditions; the higher the pH of the solution is, the more significant the scavenging effects on the overall efficiency via SR-AOPs (Asghar et al., 2015). Some studies have reported an enhancement in the degradation of pollutants in the presence of $\mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ (Grebel et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2010), although the general observation is that $\mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ radicals hinder the efficiency because they are highly selective and participate primarily in scavenging reactions (Devi et al., 2016). Regarding chloride ions (Cl^-), mixed conclusions have been reported, as previously discussed in the case of ${}^{\bullet}\mathrm{OH}$ radicals (Devi et al., 2016). Nonetheless, the reaction involving the scavenging of $\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ has been reported to lead towards the formation of Cl[•] radicals and SO_4^{2-} ions (Eq. D.15), from which the radicals can further react and increase the concentration of [•]OH in solution (Eqs. D.7 - D.12) (Devi et al., 2016; Fang et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2011).

$$\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-} + \mathrm{CO}_3^{2-} \longrightarrow \mathrm{SO}_4^{2-} + \mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$$
 (D.13)

$$\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-} + \mathrm{HCO}_3^- \longrightarrow \mathrm{SO}_4^{2-} + \mathrm{CO}_3^{\bullet-} + \mathrm{H}^+$$
 (D.14)

$$\mathrm{SO}_4^{\bullet-} + \mathrm{Cl}^- \longleftrightarrow \mathrm{Cl}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{SO}_4^{2-}$$
 (D.15)

Table D.2: Reaction rates $(M^{-1}s^{-1})$ of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals with scavenging compounds in aqueous media (Giannakis et al., 2021; Wang and Wang, 2020).

Scavenger	Reaction rate with $SO_4^{\bullet -}$
$\overline{\mathrm{CO}_3}^{2-}$	$1 - 6.1 \cdot 10^6$
HCO_3^-	$1.6 - 9.1 \cdot 10^6$
Cl^-	$2.3 - 660 \cdot 10^6$
Br^-	$3.5 \cdot 10^9$
NO_3^-	$5 - 210 \cdot 10^4$
NO_2^-	$8.8 - 9.8 \cdot 10^8$
$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	NA
$\mathrm{HPO_4}^{2-}/\mathrm{H_2PO_4}^{-}$	$1.2 - 16 \cdot 10^6$
NOM	$7.8 \cdot 10^7$

D.3 Chlorine radical scavengers

Table D.3: Reaction rates $(M^{-1}s^{-1})$ of $Cl^{\bullet}/HClO^{\bullet}$ with scavenging compounds in aqueous media (Giannakis et al., 2021).

Scavenger	Reaction rate with Cl [•] /HClO [•]
$\overline{\mathrm{CO_3}^{2-}}$	5.108
HCO_3^-	$2.2 - 26 \cdot 10^8$
Cl^-	6.5 - $21 \cdot 10^9$ / $1 \cdot 10^5$
Br^-	$1.2 \cdot 10^{10}$
NO_3^-	$0.9 - 1.1 \cdot 10^8$
NO_2^-	$4.8 - 5.2 \cdot 10^9$
$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	$1.5 - 2.5 \cdot 10^8$
$\mathrm{HPO_4}^{2-}/\mathrm{H_2PO_4}^{-}$	NA
NOM	$1.08 \cdot 10^8$

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