

Phenanthrene degradation using Fe(III)-EDDS photoactivation under simulated solar light: A model for soil washing effluent treatment

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| 28 | Abstract | | | | |

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In this work, for the first time, the nonionic surfactant polyoxyethylene-(20)-sorbitan 29 monooleate (Tween 80, C₆₄H₁₂₄O₂₆) aided soil washing effluent was treated by enhanced 30 31 activation of persulfate (PS) using Fe(III)-EDDS (EDDS: ethylenediamine-N, N-disuccinic acid) complexes under simulated solar light irradiation. The performance of this system was 32 followed via the production and reactivity of radical species ($SO_4^{\bullet-}$, HO^{\bullet} , $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$) and 33 degradation of phenanthrene (PHE) used as a model pollutant in soils. Different 34 physico-chemical parameters such as the concentration of reactive species and pH were 35 investigated through the PHE degradation efficiency. The second-order rate constants of the 36 reactions for generated radicals with PHE and Tween 80 in solution were identified through 37 competitive reaction experiments under steady-state conditions and application of nanosecond 38 laser flash photolysis (LFP) as well. A kinetic approach was applied to assess the selectivity 39

and reactivity of photo-generated radicals in aqueous medium in order to explain the observed
degradation trends. This work proposes an innovative technology of management of soil
washing solutions using Fe(III)-EDDS complexes and solar light for the activation of
persulfate.

Keywords: Advanced oxidation processes, sulfate radical, iron complexes, soil depollution,
photochemistry.

46 1. Introduction

Soil contamination is known to be a severe and ubiquitous problem worldwide. Specially, soil 47 pollution caused by hydrophobic organic compounds (HOCs) have attracted more attention 48 and been taken seriously by governments and enterprises due to the characters of high-toxicity 49 and long-refractory of this kind of pollutant. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are 50 typical representatives of HOCs, which are notable and distinguished by their high health 51 52 risks of mutability, carcinogenicity and teratogenicity through long-term bioaccumulation in the environment (Yap et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012; Trellu et al., 2016). The characteristics of 53 low solubility in water and poor mobility in soil of PAHs impede the elimination of this type 54 55 of compound from soils. Comprehensive researches of in-situ technologies such as bioremediation (Tiehm et al., 1997), phytoremediation (Huang et al., 2004) and electrokinetic 56 remediation (Reddy et al., 2006) technologies are available in the literature (Gan et al., 2009a). 57 In Ye's (Ye et al., 1995) study of biodegradation of PAHs by Sphingomonas paucimobilis, 58 after 16 h of incubation of pyrene, benz[a]anthracene (B[a]A), benzo[a]pyrene (B[a]P), 59 benzo[b]fluoranthene (B[b]F) for each with 10 mg/L , the degradation percentage was $1.3\pm$ 60 0.4, 1.8 ± 0.1 , 9.6 ± 1 , 5.0 ± 0.6 , respectively. Lee's group (Lee et al., 2008) compared four 61 native Korean plant species for phytoremediation of phenanthrene (PHE) and pyrene, the 62 maximum removal efficiency of phenanthrene was >99%, for pyrene was 94% in planted soil 63

after 80 days of experiments. Maturi's group (Maturi and Reddy, 2006) investigated modified 64 cyclodextrin enhanced electrokinetic remediation of PHE and Nickel contaminated soil, the 65 optimal 10% removal efficiency of PHE was achieved with 1% cyclodextrin addition after 66 around 166 days elapsed duration. However, all these in-situ techniques present at least one 67 non-negligible disadvantages such as time-consuming treatment requirements, low 68 remediation efficiency and high economic input. In this case, ex-situ techniques represented 69 70 by surfactant aided soil washing processes appeal to more and more researchers. During the past several decades, ex-situ soil washing (SW) and in-situ soil flushing (SF) techniques, 71 72 improved by application of surfactants as the extracting agents, have exhibited high performances for PAH elimination from soils (Gan et al., 2009b; Mousset et al., 2014a). 73 Nonionic surfactant Polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monooleate (Tween 80), Dodecyl 74 75 polyglycol ether(Brij 35), Polyoxyethylene (10) isooctylphenyl ether (Triton X-100), anionic surfactant sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) and sodium dodecyl benzene sulphonate 76 (SDBS) are commonly used in the literature of surfactant enhanced soil remediation (Mao et 77 al., 2015). Among these surfactants, the application of Tween 80 (TW80) was more extensive 78 and prominent due to its lower toxicity and higher solubility capacity (Cheng et al., 2008). 79 Except for the common application for PAHs, TW80 was supposed to be an excellent 80 alternative for numerous hydrophobic contaminants such as PAHs anthracene, fluoranthene, 81 pyrene and phenanthrene (Alcántara et al., 2008; Peng et al., 2011), Petroleum Hydrocarbons 82 83 (Huguenot et al., 2015), p-cresol (Rosas et al., 2011), Decabromodiphenyl ether (Zhou et al., 2007), 4,4'-dichlorobiphenyl (Chu and Kwan, 2003), p-Nitrochlorobenzene (Guo et al., 2009) 84 and pesticides like Diazinon (Hernández-Soriano et al., 2012), DDT (Zheng et al., 2012). The 85 application of TW80 in the remediation of PAHs contaminated soil is especially ubiquitous 86 owing to its better solubilization characteristic than other surfactants. It was reported that 87 TW80 was efficient for solubilizing a plenty of PAHs such as Pyrene, PHE, Fluorene, 88

Acenaphthene, Naphthalene and TW80 exhibited superior capacity than other nonionc 89 surfactants such as Tween 20, Triton X-100, Triton X-305, Triton X-405 (Zhu and Zhou, 90 2008). In another work, TW80 was suggested as the highest solubilization capacity than 91 Brij35, TX100 and SDS for PHE on the basis of molar solubilization ratios (MSR) (Zhao et 92 al., 2005). Nevertheless, as a consequence of these soil washing/flushing processes, a 93 complicated mixture of waste liquids containing great loads of extractants, PAHs and other 94 accompanying organics is generated and should be further treated to reduce the potential 95 environment concern of discharge the effluent into environment. Owing to the complexity of 96 the mixed components of SW solutions, the management and disposal are a tremendous 97 challenge for environmental engineering (Rosas et al., 2013; Trellu et al., 2016). Soil washing 98 effluent could be treated with biological method, adsorption techniques as well as Advanced 99 oxidation process (AOPs). However, biological treatments bear the drawbacks of long 100 duration and low efficiency (Gharibzadeh et al., 2016), while adsorption technologies possess 101 potential risks since contaminants could not be completely discomposed (Ahn et al., 2008; 102 103 Zhou et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014). In this case, AOPs including electrochemical oxidation 104 (Gómez et al., 2010; Mousset et al., 2014c, b; Trellu et al., 2017a), ozone oxidation (Liu, 2018), photocatalytic oxidation (Zhang et al., 2011; Bai et al., 2019) have been developed to 105 the most popular and common applied technology for PAHs and various surfactant involved 106 soil washing effluent treatments. As reviewed in Table S1, AOPs based on radical oxidation 107 mechanism could effectively decompose PAHs into various products during the processes of 108 soil washing effluent treatment with PAHs dosage from 1 mg L^{-1} to around 200 mg L⁻¹ and 109 optimal surfactants ranging from 1g L⁻¹ to 10g L⁻¹. Among multiple AOPs, Sulfate radicals 110 based advanced oxidation processes (SR-AOPs) have been widely applied as effective and 111 practicable techniques for remediation of contaminated waters and soils (Yen et al., 2011; 112 Wacławek et al., 2017). Persulfate (S₂O₈²⁻, PS) is an ideal alternative oxidant (E₀ = 2.01 V), 113

which can be activated to produce stronger sulfate radicals $(SO_4^{\bullet^-})$ (E₀ = 2.6 V) by various chemical or physical methods (Usman et al., 2012). In addition to its strong oxidation capacity, sulfate radical has revealed several advantages over other oxidants. $SO_4^{\bullet^-}$ is more stable than hydroxyl radical (HO[•]) and exhibits a longer half-life time as well as a wider pH range for the application (Anipsitakis and Dionysiou, 2004).

Iron, one of the chemical activators of PS, is the most abundant transition metal present in the 119 earth's crust and exists in a variety of forms in water such as soluble, colloidal and particulate 120 forms. In natural water, insoluble iron-containing oxides account for a large proportion (Faust 121 and Zepp, 1993), while dissolved iron is only found in a small percentage and most of them 122 exists in the form of complex with organic ligands (Zhou et al., 2004). Polycarboxylates and 123 (amino-)polycarboxylates like citrate, malonate, oxalate, EDTA, etc. can react with ferric ions 124 (Fe^{3+}) to form stable and strong complexes and improve its solubility and stability in natural 125 water (Chen et al., 2007). Moreover, such (amino-)polycarboxylate complexes are reported to 126 have strong and fast photochemical reactivity under sunlight irradiation giving rise to 127 oxidative species (Zhang et al., 2009). Those iron complexes such as Fe(III)-EDTA, 128 Fe(III)-EDDS, Fe(III)-oxalate or Fe(III)-citrate have exhibited high efficiency as 129 photo-catalysts and as persulfate and hydrogen peroxide activators for the elimination of a 130 variety of contaminants (Manenti et al., 2015; Miralles-Cuevas et al., 2018; Soriano-Molina et 131 al., 2019). Ethylenediamine-N,N-disuccinic acid (EDDS) is a structural isomer of EDTA, and 132 133 [S,S]-EDDS, [R,R]-EDDS and [R,S/S,R]-EDDS are three stereo isomers of EDDS. Among those isomers, [S,S]-EDDS is recognized and employed as a environmentally safe and 134 friendly substitution for EDTA for environmental restoration since it is easier biodegradable 135 136 than EDTA (Nagaraju et al., 2007).

In this work, Fe(III)-EDDS complex was used to improve the PS photo-activation for the
phenanthrene (PHE) degradation in soil washing solution. Main physico-chemical parameters

such as concentration of chemical species and pH were investigated using simulated solar radiation to generate the sulfate radical from PS. This work provides a novel proposal of application of Fe(III)-EDDS for soil washing effluent treatments.

142 **2. Experimental Details**

143 **2.1 Chemicals**

Tween 80 (TW80), phenanthrene (PHE) and ferric perchlorate (Fe(ClO₄)₃·9H₂O) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Ethylenediamine-N,N-disuccinic acid trisodium salt solution (35% in water) was purchased from Fluka. All the other used reagents and chemicals were of analytical grade and all the solutions employed in this work were prepared with purified water from Millipore Ultra-Pure System (18.2 M Ω cm). The stock solutions of Fe(III)-EDDS were a mixture of appropriate amount of newly prepared aqueous solutions of ferric perchlorate and EDDS at a stoichiometry ratio of 1:1.

151 **2.2 Preparation of the synthetic SW solution**

TW80 is one of the suggested and most applied enhancing-solubility nonionic surfactants that 152 increases the solubility of HOCs due to its notable features of lower soil sorption capacity and 153 critical micellar concentration (CMC), low toxic property as well as higher solubilization 154 ability and higher cost-effectiveness (Mulligan et al., 2001). It is known that above CMC, the 155 surface tension of HOCs varies with a much smaller slope and the solubility of HOCs is 156 strongly improved (Trellu et al., 2016). The CMC of TW80 is equal to 0.016 g L^{-1} 157 (López-Vizcaíno et al., 2012) which is much lower compared to other surfactants. Due to the 158 above advantages, TW80 was chosen as the aiding compound and its solubilization capacity 159 of PHE was investigated. 160

161 **2.3 Irradiation experiments and degradation kinetic**

162 50 mL of samples were irradiated in a jacked cylindrical Pyrex reactor connected to water

163 cooling system and placed in a rectangular wood box to prevent the interference from the 164 external light sources. Four tubular lamps (Sylvania, F15W/350BL), used as irradiation 165 sources, were fixed on the top of the wood box. The irradiation energy was determined 166 employing an optical fiber with a charge coupled device (CCD) spectrophotometer (Ocean 167 Optics USD 2000 + UV–vis) previously calibrated with a DH-2000-CAL reference lamp. The 168 energy reaching the reactor determined between 300 and 400 nm (1390 μ W cm⁻²) was very 169 closed to the typical solar emission in the same wavelength range (Bianco et al., 2016).

In Figure 1 emission spectrum of light sources and UV-vis absorption spectra of chemical species (carried out with a Cary 300 UV-visible spectrophotometer) were presented. An overlap between the emission spectrum of the lamps and the absorption spectrum Fe(III)-EDDS complex was highlighted. PHE absorbed in the ultraviolet region with two maxima at 252 nm and 295 nm. The main absorption region was located at $\lambda < 250$ nm for PS and $\lambda < 300$ nm for PHE in TW80 solution. Fe(III)-EDDS clearly exhibited a broad but gradual decrease absorption at the region of wavelengths up to approximately 400 nm and the

177 overlapping absorption with the lamp emission spectrum from 300 nm and 400 nm as well.

All experiments were carried out at 293 ± 2 K and solutions were magnetically stirred with a magnetic bar to insure the homogenous mixture of the solution. At regular intervals, 0.5 mL of sample was withdrawn and analyzed by an UPLC-UV system (Alliance) equipped with a photodiode array detector. The eluent was a mixture of water and acetonitrile (30/70, v/v) with isocratic mode in a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹. The column was a Nucleodur 100-5 C18 of 150 mm × 4.6 mm with particle size 5 µm. The pseudo-first-order decay of PHE was determined using the following exponential equation:

185
$$\frac{[PHE]}{[PHE]_{o}} = \exp(-k't)$$

Where $[PHE]_0$ and [PHE] are the initial and residual concentrations of PHE at time *t*, *k*' is the pseudo-first-order apparent rate constant (s⁻¹). The initial conversion rate of PHE (R_{PHE}) was calculated as R_{PHE} (M s⁻¹) = k' × [PHE]_0. The retention time and the analysis of PHE were not modified by the presence of TW80. The pHs of the solutions were adjusted with 0.1 M of HClO₄ or NaOH solutions and no significant pH variation was observed during irradiation.

191 **2.4 Laser flash photolysis**

The determination of the second order rate constants were carried out with the nanosecond laser flash photolysis (LFP) apparatus from Applied Photophysics (LKS60). A 266 nm excitation was used to generate radicals from solution and apparatus description as well as competition kinetic approaches have been reported elsewhere and a brief description is given in the supplementary materials section (Huang et al., 2018).

197 **3. Results and discussion**

198 **3.1 PHE degradation under various systems**

The solubility of PHE was tested using different concentration of TW80 in water. The results reported in Figure SM1 indicate that PHE solubility increased with the concentration of TW80 and a maximum of PHE solubility was reached around 16 mg L⁻¹ (corresponding to a concentration of 90 μ M). This maximum of solubility of PHE was obtained from 0.5 g L⁻¹ of TW80. This concentration of TW80 was then used to prepare PHE solution for all experiments.

The PHE degradation under simulated solar light at pH 3.5, using different mixture of Fe(III)–EDDS, Fe(III) and PS is reported in Figure 2. Control experiments showed that very

low degradation of PHE (less than 5%) occurred with the involvement of Fe(III)-EDDS 207 complex and PS in the dark. Under irradiation, the direct photolysis (without PS and iron 208 complexes) of PHE was negligible, less than 8% and addition of Fe(III)-EDDS (0.5 mM) not 209 significantly changed the efficiency of PHE degradation after 150 min of irradiation. As a 210 contrary, about 30% removal of PHE was being achieved in the presence of PS (5 mM) with 211 UVA light due to the photogeneration of sulfate radicals that contributed to PHE degradation. 212 Under UVA irradiation with addition of Fe(III) to PS solution, almost 35% of PHE removal 213 was obtained under irradiation. So, although Fe(III) can be photo-reduced to Fe(II) (Brand et 214 215 al., 1998) which is able to activate PS leading to the generation of sulfate radicals (Anipsitakis and Dionysiou, 2004; Liang et al., 2004), only 5% of PHE degradation was promoted 216 compared to PS/UV system. In the system with replacement of Fe(III) by Fe(III)-EDDS (0.5 217 218 mM) to PS solution, the performance was much more pronounced and PHE removal was remarkably strengthened under irradiation, especially in the first 30 minutes. This difference 219 can be explained by the lower photoreactivity of Fe(III) aquacomplexes in comparison with 220 Fe(III)-EDDS at pH around 3.5 (Catastini et al., 2004; Huang, 2012) since Fe(II) formation 221 from Fe(III) aquacomplexes is lower than from Fe(III)-EDDS at $\lambda > 300$ nm. Therefore, in the 222 presence of PS, sulfate radical formation is more important with Fe(III)-EDDS (reactions 1 223 224 and 2):

225
$$\operatorname{Fe(III)}\text{-}\operatorname{EDDS} + h\nu \rightarrow [\operatorname{Fe(III)}\text{-}L]^* \rightarrow \operatorname{Fe(II)} + \operatorname{EDDS}^{\bullet}$$
 (1)

226
$$\operatorname{Fe}(\mathrm{II}) + \operatorname{S}_2 \operatorname{O}_8^{2^-} \to \operatorname{Fe}(\mathrm{III}) + \operatorname{SO}_4^{2^-} + \operatorname{SO}_4^{\bullet^-}$$
 (2)

227 $\operatorname{Fe}(\operatorname{OH})^{2+} + hv \to \operatorname{Fe}(\operatorname{II}) + \operatorname{HO}^{\bullet}$ (3)



different decay steps (Figure 2). In the first 30 mins of irradiation, Fe(III)-EDDS was almost 229 completely degraded at pH 3.5 (Figure 3) to produce Fe(II) which represented the 230 rate-limiting parameter for $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ formation. In the second step, after complete decomposition 231 of Fe(III)-EDDS, iron remained in the form of Fe(III) aquacomplexes, and under the influence 232 of UVA light, hydroxyl radical and Fe(II) could be generated as well (reaction 3) (Mailhot et 233 al., 2002; Krýsová et al., 2003). In the presence of PS, Fe(II) led to Fe(III) again (reaction 2) 234 and we were in the presence of the (photo)chemical cycle involving Fe(III) and Fe(II). In this 235 system, the degradation of PHE was mainly attributed to the formation of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and $HO^{\bullet-}$ 236 through analogous reactions obtained with Fe(III) aquacomplexes in solution and the 237 subsequent cycle of Fe(III)/Fe(II). In fact, the degradation kinetic after 30 minutes followed 238 the same profile compared with those obtained where PS was mixed with Fe(III) 239 240 aquacomplexes.

Same experiments conducted at pH 7.0 (Figure SM2) indicated that an enhancement of PHE degradation was still acquired with Fe(III)-EDDS, suggesting that the iron complex is photoactive also at higher pH (Wu et al., 2014). As a contrary, a strong inhibition of PHE degradation occurred with the dosing of Fe(III) aquacomplexes and PS. This effect could be ascribed to the precipitation of Fe(III) at pH > 4.0, resulting in absorption of light by iron particles and a potential screening effect for the photolysis of PS and also a very low photoreactivity of precipitated iron species.

What should be noted is on the contrary of many studies involving iron species, in our system UV/PS/Fe(III)-EDDS no significant effect of pH in the range 3.0 to 8.5 was obtained (Figure SM3). This observation was quite surprising, if we compare with former studies (Wu et al., 251 2014; Wu et al., 2015) but could be due to the presence of TW80 which modified the252 reactivity of radical species (see following results).

253 **3.2 Effect of Fe(III)-EDDS and PS concentrations**

The effects of persulfate (PS) and Fe(III)-EDDS concentrations were investigated on the PHE 254 degradation efficiency. PHE degradation involving different concentrations of Fe(III)-EDDS 255 with 5 mM PS are reported in Figure 3A. An enhancement of PHE degradation, after 30 min 256 of irradiation, more than 3 times was achieved with the Fe(III)-EDDS concentration increased 257 from 0 to 0.5 mM (Figure 3B). However, the degradation efficiency of PHE decreased with 258 the further increase of iron complex concentration. In fact, a scavenging effect of 259 Fe(III)-EDDS and Fe(II) toward $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ was expected at higher concentrations (Peng et al., 260 2017; Yu et al., 2018). Considering that a second order rate constant of 9.9×10^9 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ has 261 been determined for the reaction between sulfate radical and Fe(II) (E. et al., 1966), it was 262 possible to argue that scavenging effect of ferrous ions, that were more stable in solution at 263 pH 3.5, became significant at higher dosage of Fe(III)-EDDS. The maximum degradation of 264 PHE (33%) after 30 mins was reached using 0.5 mM Fe(III)-EDDS, while after 150 minutes 265 the highest degradation efficiency (55%) was obtained with 0.25 mM of Fe(III)-EDDS 266 (Fig.3B). This shift of the maximum efficiency after 30 min was attributed to the higher load 267 of Fe(II) and EDDS at higher concentration of Fe(III)-EDDS and so stronger scavenging 268 effect of sulfate radicals. 269

To further explore the degradation performance of PHE in the system PS/Fe(III)-EDDS, the effect of persulfate concentration was investigated. As shown in Figure 4, PHE degradation efficiency was strongly promoted by increasing PS loading from 0 to 30 mM both for the photolysis of PS alone in solution and in the presence of Fe(III)-EDDS. The influence of Fe(III)-EDDS was much pronounced at higher concentration of persulfate. In the presence of Fe(III)-EDDS and after 150 min of irradiation, the enhancement of PHE degradation with 2 mM of PS was less than 2% while with 5 mM of PS the enhancement was around 18% andmore than 50% with 15 and 30 mM of PS.

These results suggested that Fe(III)-EDDS had stronger impact at higher concentration of PS showing that the generation of sulfate radical through reaction between PS and Fe(II) was the main contribution of the efficiency of the system.

281 **3.3. Effect of Fe(III)/EDDS ratio**

According to previously reported works; the ratio of Fe(III) and EDDS concentrations 282 represented a key parameter for the efficiency of the pollutants removal in water (Li et al., 283 2010). The concentration of PS was kept constant at 5 mM while various initial loads of Fe(III) 284 were applied. As shown in Figure SM4, the initial degradation rate of PHE increased with a 285 higher concentration of Fe(III). At 1 mM of Fe(III) the final elimination of PHE was higher 286 than at 0.5 or 0.25 mM. This observation was resulted from the fact that at 1 mM of Fe(III), 287 there were in solution 0.5 mM of Fe(III)-EDDS and 0.5 mM of Fe(III) aquacomplexes. The 288 two iron species were photo-transformed into Fe(II) which could activate PS to generate 289 290 sulfate radicals and moreover Fe(III) aquacomplexes generated photochemically also 291 hydroxyl radicals. So in these conditions, a higher amount of sulfate and hydroxyl radicals were generated increasing the degradation of PHE. At concentrations of Fe(III) of 0.25 or 0.5 292 mM, the final removals of PHE were very close with a little higher efficiency at 0.25 mM. 293 During the first step of reactions, Fe(III) was reduced into Fe(II) and EDDS was oxidized. 294 However if there were some residual EDDS remaining in solution, Fe(II) species were easily 295 re-oxidized to Fe(III) and combined with EDDS to generate Fe(III)-EDDS complex (Li et al., 296 2010). As a consequence, the formation of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and the degradation of PHE photoinduced by 297 Fe(III)-EDDS complex could continue. 298

299 **3.4 Effect of TW80 concentration.**

To better explore the role of TW80 in this system, experiments with 0.5, 0.75 and 1 g L^{-1} of

TW80 were carried out. The increase of the surfactant concentration from 0.5 to 1.0 g L^{-1} 301 inhibited significantly PHE degradation (Figure SM5A). In fact, when TW80 concentration 302 increased to a factor of 1.5 and 2, the apparent rate constant of PHE degradation was reduced 303 by a factor 1.8 and 3.3 (Figure SM5B). The negative effect acquired at higher TW80 304 concentrations could be ascribed to the competition between TW80 and PHE for the reactivity 305 with photogenerated sulfate radicals. In fact, as reported in Table 1, a second order rate 306 constant between SO₄^{•-} and TW80 ($k_{TW80,SO_4}^{\bullet-}$) of 4.6±0.2×10⁹ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ has been determined 307 (see SM for more details). At 0.5 g L^{-1} of TW80 and considering the reactivity between SO₄^{$\bullet-$} 308 and Fe(III)-EDDS and PS (Neta et al., 1988; Bianco et al., 2017) reported in literature, we can 309 argue that about 33 % of photogenerated SO₄^{•-} reacted with TW80 while only 7 % with PHE 310 in solution. However, increasing the concentration of TW80 to 1 g L⁻¹, the values were 311 312 respectively 49 and 5 %. Moreover, in previously works it has been suggested that PHE was trapped into the micelle core of the surfactant, leading to a lower availability toward oxidizing 313 radicals (Trellu et al., 2016; Trellu et al., 2017b). The significant sulfate radical selectivity 314 between TW80 and PHE clearly demonstrated that the concentration of TW80 was the major 315 parameter determining the efficiency of oxidative treatment adopted for PHE removal. 316

317 **3.5 Effect of chloride ions addition**

Inorganic species such as chloride ions are widely present in soil, resulting in the presence of such ions into the effluent of the procedure of soil washing. However, the existence of chloride ions (Cl⁻) in wastewater has been reported to affect the degradation efficiency of contaminants during the advanced oxidation processes and more particularly in PS oxidation treatments (Huang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Different roles of chloride ions (Cl⁻) are

reported in the literature on the efficiency of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and HO^{\bullet} based oxidations. Generally, it is 323 reported that Cl⁻ acts as a radical scavenger that substantially inhibits the efficiency of UV 324 based activation of H_2O_2 and $S_2O_8^{2-}$ (Tsuneda et al., 2002). However, some researchers find 325 that reactive species produced from chloride ions, chlorine and dichlorine radicals $(Cl^{\bullet}/Cl_2^{\bullet})$, 326 show high selectivity when react with organic pollutants and increase the efficiency of 327 removal (Yang et al., 2014). Moreover, in other investigations it is suggested that Cl⁻ could 328 react with SO₄^{•-} to generate HO[•] in circumneutral and alkaline pH (Kiwi et al., 2000). In 329 addition, the involvement of Cl⁻ is reported to modify the degradation mechanism using 330 $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ based oxidation processes (Fang et al., 2012). As reported in Figure 5, complete 331 degradation of PHE was achieved in 150 min of irradiation with 10 mM of Cl⁻, while with 50 332 mM or 100 mM of Cl⁻, the same efficiency could be obtained within 60 min, demonstrating 333 334 that the presence of higher dosages of Cl⁻ remarkably enhanced PHE degradation using Fe(III)-EDDS under UVA irradiation. This result was totally distinguished with other studies 335 where Cl⁻ acted as an inhibitor or where its effect was negligible (Yang et al., 2016). To 336 337 better understand the mechanism, for the first time, we determined the second order rate constants of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ with PHE $(k_{PHE,Cl_2^{\bullet-}})$ and TW80 $(k_{TW80,Cl_2^{\bullet-}})$ respectively at $4.6\pm0.3\times10^8$ 338 M^{-1} s⁻¹ and 7.1±0.1×10⁶ M^{-1} s⁻¹ (table 1). This results suggested that second order rate constant 339 between PHE and dichlorine radical anion $(k_{PHE,Cl_2^{\bullet-}})$ was almost 65 times higher than the 340 one between TW80 and the same radical $(k_{TW80,Cl_2^{\bullet-}})$. Therefore, $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$ generated by Cl^{-} 341 exhibited much more selectivity to PHE in our soil washing solution. Moreover, the form of 342 kinetics demonstrated that reactivity between $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and Cl^- played an important role to 343 maintain PHE degradation, especially after 30 min of irradiation. 344

If we simplified our chemical system considering that generated radical species (HO^{\bullet}, SO₄^{\bullet}, 345 Cl_2^{\bullet}) could react only with TW80 or PHE in solution, it was possible to explain, from a 346 347 chemical kinetic point of view the impact of chloride on the system efficiency. In fact, in the absence of chloride ions mainly $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ was generated in solution trough reaction (2) and 348 photolysis of persulfate ions. Considering the concentration of chemical species (i.e. TW80 349 and PHE) and reactivity constant, about 82% of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ were trapped by TW80. However, if we 350 considered that all $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ was significantly converted into $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$ (about 90% using 100 mM of 351 Cl^{-}), in this case, the stronger reactivity between $Cl_{2}^{\bullet-}$ and PHE compared to those determined 352 for TW80 suggested that only 6% of $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$ react with the surfactant and 94% with PHE. 353

354

3.6 Radical species involvement

In order to clearly clarify the significance of the different radicals formed during the process 355 356 and their roles in this system and so further elucidate the oxidation mechanism of PHE degradation, free radicals scavenging tests were carried out. Methanol (MeOH) was employed 357 as scavenger for both HO[•] $(k_{HO^{\bullet},MeOH} = 9.7 \times 10^8 M^{-1} s^{-1})$ and SO₄^{•-} $(k_{SO_4^{\bullet-},MeOH} = 1.0 \times 10^8 M^{-1} s^{-1})$ 358 $10^7 M^{-1} s^{-1}$), and tert-Butanol (t-But) has higher selectivity for reactivity with HO[•] 359 $(k_{HO^{\bullet},t-But} = 3.1 \times 10^{9} M^{-1} s^{-1})$ than with SO_4^{\bullet} $(k_{SO_4^{\bullet-},t-But} = 8.4 \times 10^{5} M^{-1} s^{-1})$ 360 (Buxton et al., 1988; Neta et al., 1988). With the addition of 50 mM of tert-Butanol, PHE 361 oxidation decreased (Figure.6), which revealed that HO[•] was partly responsible for PHE 362 oxidation. PHE removal was more attenuated with methanol addition indicating that $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ 363 was also radical species involved in the transformation of PHE. The degradation efficiency of 364 PHE reduced from 48% (without scavenger) to 40% and 23% with tert-Butanol and methanol, 365 respectively. 366

With the different rate constants and concentrations of chemicals (TW80 and PHE) present in 367 solution, we can deduce that, without scavengers about 18% of photogenerated $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and 13% 368 of HO[•] reacted with PHE. However, i) In the presence of tert-Butanol (50 mM), HO[•] radicals 369 were almost completely trapped, only 0.3% of HO[•] still reacted on PHE. There was no effect 370 on the percentage of SO_4^{\bullet} reacting with PHE. The addition of tert-Butanol resulted in 40% 371 PHE degradation instead of 48%. ii) With the addition of methanol (50 mM), about 1% of 372 HO^{\bullet} and 15% of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ still reacted with PHE in solution. In this condition PHE concentration 373 decreased by 25%. 374

As a consequence, in the presence of tert-Butanol almost no more HO[•] reacted on PHE and 375 the percentage of PHE degradation decreased by 8%, while with the dosing of methanol only 376 1% of HO[•] and 15% of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ reacted on PHE and the percentage of PHE degradation 377 decreased by 25%. With these data, we can evaluate that 1% of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ contributed to 6% of 378 PHE degradation and 1% of HO[•] contributed only to 0.6% of PHE degradation. In another 379 word $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals contributed 10 times more than the HO[•] for the degradation of PHE in the 380 presence of surfactant TW80. This result was not in agreement with the rate constant which 381 was 1.4 times higher with HO[•] than with $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ (table 1). Thus, this result highlighted the 382 surrounding environment of the pollutant for the efficiency of the radical species. PHE in 383 surfactant presented an opposite reactivity with HO[•] and $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ if you compared with PHE 384 alone in aqueous solution. 385

386

387 4 Conclusion

A novel application of Fe(III) complexes was studied to improve the photochemical activation
of persulfate for treatments of soil washing effluent. Experimental parameters such as

390 Fe(III)-EDDS concentration, PS concentration, TW80 concentration exhibited great effects on the PHE photodegradation in this system. The PHE degradation included two stages and the 391 first period of Fe(III)-EDDS decomposition was the rate-limiting step. Quenching 392 experiments proved that $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ played a more important role than HO[•] on PHE degradation 393 more particularly in the presence of surfactant which completely modified the reactivity of 394 radical species. Moreover, we provided the evidence that the presence of chloride ions could 395 significantly improve the PHE removal in this system. The higher selectivity of Cl_2^{\bullet} between 396 PHE and TW80 was responsible for the efficiency increase. 397

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Table 1: Second-order rate constants $(M^{-1} s^{-1})$ of TW80 and PHE with different radicals determined using LFP and competition kinetic method.

| Compounds | k _{HO} • | $k_{_{SO_4^{\bullet^-}}}$ | $k_{Cl_2^{\bullet-}}$ |
|-----------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| TW80 | 9.9±0.1×10 ⁹ | 4.6±0.2×10 ⁹ | $7.1 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{6}$ |
| PHE | 6.1±0.2×10 ⁹ | 4.3±0.4×10 ⁹ | 4.6±0.3×10 ⁸ |

593 **Figures Caption**

1) Absorption spectra of Fe(III)-EDDS (0.5 mM), $S_2O_8^{2-}$ (5 mM) and 90 μ M of PHE in 0.5 g L⁻¹ of TW80. Emission spectrum of the adopted irradiation lamps with a maximum centred at 365 nm.

- 2) Degradation of PHE in TW80 0.5 gL⁻¹ and degradation of Fe(III)-EDDS in different systems (Blue marked). Initial conditions are: [PS] = 5 mM, [Fe(III)] = 0.5 mM, [Fe(III)-EDDS] = 0.5mM, [TW80] = 0.5 g L⁻¹, pH: 3.5 ± 0.2 .
- 600 3) **A**) Influence of Fe(III)-EDDS concentration on the photodegradation of PHE in 601 aqueous solution. **B**) Degradation percentage of PHE after 30 and 150 minutes of 602 irradiation as a function of different Fe(III)-EDDS concentrations. Initial conditions are: 603 $[PS] = 5 \text{ mM}, [TW80] = 0.5 \text{ g L}^{-1} \text{ and pH: } 3.5\pm0.2.$
- 4) Influence of PS concentration on the photodegradation of PHE in aqueous solution.
- Initial conditions are: [Fe(III)-EDDS] = 5 mM, $[TW80] = 0.5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ and pH: 3.5 ± 0.2 .
- 5) Influence of concentration of Cl⁻ for photodegradation of PHE in aqueous solution.
- 607 [PS]=5mM, [Fe(III)-EDDS] = 5 mM, [TW80] = 0.5 g L^{-1} and pH: 3.5 ± 0.2 .
- 608 6) Free radical scavenging tests photodegradation of PHE in aqueous solution. [PS] =
- 509 5mM, [Fe(III)-EDDS] = 0.5 mM. [tert-Butanol] = 50 mM, [Methanol] = 50 mM, pH:
- 610 3.5±0.2.















