



Université de Constantine 3 Salah Boubnider
Faculté de Génie des Procédés
Département de Génie Chimique

**OXYDATION DES MICROPOLLUANTS ORGANIQUES DANS L'EAU PAR DES
ESPECES OXYDANTES ACTIVEES PAR DIFFERENTES TECHNIQUES.**

THESE

Présentée pour l'Obtention du
Diplôme de Doctorat en Génie des Procédés
Option : Génie Chimique

Par
Hafida BENDJAMA

Année Universitaire
2020-2021



Université de Constantine 3 Salah Boubnider
Faculté de Génie des Procédés
Département Génie Chimique

N° de série :

N° d'ordre :

**OXYDATION DES MICROPOLLUANTS ORGANIQUES DANS L'EAU PAR DES
ESPECES OXYDANTES ACTIVEES PAR DIFFERENTES TECHNIQUES**

THESE

Présentée pour l'Obtention du
Diplôme de Doctorat en Génie des Procédés
Option : Génie Chimique

Par
Hafida BENDJAMA

Devant le Jury Composé de :

Mustapha CHIKHI	Président	Professeur	Université de Constantine 3
Slimane MEROUANI	Directeur	Professeur	Université de Constantine 3
Yacine BENGUERBA	Examinateur	Professeur	Université FA- Sétif 1
Youcef HAMLAOUI	Examinateur	Professeur	Université de Souk Ahras
Zahir BAKIRI	Examinateur	MCA	Université de Constantine 3
Nabil MESSIKH	Examinateur	MCA	Université de 20 août 1955 Skikda
Mohammed BOUHELASSA	Invité	Professeur	ENSB- Constantine

Année Universitaire
2020-2021



Nom et Prénom : Hafida BENDJAMA
Titre : Oxydation des Micropolluants Organiques dans l'Eau par des Espèces Oxydantes Activées par Différentes Techniques

Thèse en vue de l'Obtention du Diplôme de Doctorat en Génie des Procédés option :
Génie Chimique

RESUME

La photolyse assistée est une technique destructive permettant la dégradation des colorants organiques réfractaires. Ce travail de thèse consiste en l'étude de la dégradation d'un colorant azoïque, le noir chlorazol (NC), en solutions aqueuses par les procédés UV/persulfate, UV/périodate et UV/acétone dans diverses matrices naturelles.

L'acétone photoactivé à 253,7 nm peut être considéré comme un procédé innovant pour le traitement des eaux contaminées par des colorants textiles. La photodégradation du NC était fortement accélérée par l'acétone grâce de l'implication du radical méthyle, généré lors de la photolyse de l'acétone. La concentration de l'acétone et la température du liquide influencent fortement le phénomène d'intensification. La saturation de la solution avec des gaz inertes comme N₂, CO₂ et l'argon a encore améliorée l'effet intensifiant de l'acétone, par contre, l'oxygène l'a complètement inhibé à cause de son effet piégeur envers les radicaux méthyles. Les sels minéraux n'ont pas altéré la performance du procédé UV/acétone, cependant, une inhibition a été enregistrée avec le NaNO₃ et le KBr. Par ailleurs, parmi plusieurs additifs organiques étudiés, l'acide ascorbique est le seul qui a montré un impact très négatif sur l'efficacité du procédé. Le procédé a présenté une efficacité élevée dans des matrices naturelles telles que l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer.

D'autre part, les procédés d'oxydation UV/IO₄⁻ et UV/S₂O₈²⁻ ont été trouvés très efficaces pour l'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer. La quantité élevée des sels présents dans l'eau de mer n'a pas altérée significativement l'efficacité des systèmes UV/IO₄⁻ et UV/S₂O₈²⁻ envers la destruction du NC. Le taux de dégradation du colorant par les deux procédés était considérablement plus élevé que celui du rayonnement UV seul. Cette amélioration significative est due à l'implication des radicaux libres très réactives (iodyl pour le procédé UV/périodate et Cl₂^{•-} pour le procédé UV/persulfate) dans les processus de dégradation. Par ailleurs, les deux procédés ont montré une limitation du pH dans les différentes matrices naturelles investiguées, où une forte précipitation a été observée lorsque le pH dépasse 8. Cependant, des taux de dégradation élevés ont été enregistrés pour des doses élevées des oxydants et de faibles concentrations en polluant. La majorité des additifs organiques et minéraux ajoutés lors de la dégradation du NC par les deux procédés n'a pas présenté une influence importante sur l'efficacité du traitement.

Mots clés : Pollution des eaux, Procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA), Noir Chlorazol (NC),
UV/acétone, UV/périodate, UV/persulfate

Directeur de thèse : Slimane MEROUANI, Université Salah Boubnider-Constantine 3

Année Universitaire : 2020/2021

REMERCIEMENTS

Ce travail a été réalisé au Laboratoire de l'Ingénierie des Procédés de l'Environnement (LIPE) du Département de Génie des Procédés de l'Université Saleh Boubnider-Constantine 3.

Tout d'abord, je tiens à remercier notre dieu tout puissant qui m'a donné la santé, la volonté et la patience afin de réaliser ce travail.

Je tiens tout particulièrement à exprimer ma profonde gratitude à Monsieur MEROUANI Slimane, Professeur à l'Université de Constantine 3-Salah Boubnider et directeur de cette thèse pour l'intérêt constant qu'il a réservé à ce travail. Je voudrais aussi le remercier pour le temps qu'il m'a consacré et la patience avec laquelle il a accompagné mes travaux de thèse et la réalisation de ce manuscrit.

Je remercie profondément Monsieur HAMDAOUI Oualid, Professeur à l'Université du Roi-Saoud, Monsieur BOUHELASSA Mohammed, Professeur à l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Biotechnologie Constantine, pour leurs orientations et remarques pointues, tout au long de cette étude.

Je suis très sensible à l'honneur que me fait Monsieur Mustapha CHIKHI, Professeur à l'Université de Constantine 3, en acceptant de présider le jury de soutenance.

Je tiens à témoigner ici ma respectueuse reconnaissance à Monsieur Yacine BENGUERBA, Professeur à l'Université de Ferhat Abbas Sétif 1, Monsieur Youcef HAMLAOUI, Professeur à l'Université de Souk Ahras, Monsieur Mohammed BOUHELASSA, Professeur à l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Biotechnologie Constantine, Monsieur Zahir BAKIRI, Maître de conférences à l'Université de Constantine 3 et Monsieur Nabil MESSIKH, Maître de conférences à l'Université de 20 août 1955 Skikda, pour l'intérêt qu'ils ont porté à mon travail en acceptant de l'examiner.

DEDICACE

Avec l'expression de ma reconnaissance, je dédie ce modeste travail à :

- Mes chers parents aucune dédicace ne saurait exprimer mon respect, mon amour éternel et ma considération pour les sacrifices que vous avez consenti pour mon instruction et mon bien être. je vous remercie pour tout le soutien et l'amour que vous me portez depuis mon enfance.
- Mes chères sœurs Houda, Dounia, Yousra et Rym qui n'ont pas cessée de me conseiller, encourager et soutenir tout au long de mes études.
- Mon adorable petit frère Mouhamed.
- Ma chère grand-mère.
- Mes chères amies et collègues en particulier Chadi Nor elhouda et Belghit Awatef pour leur amitié et leur soutien dans les bons et difficiles moments passés ensemble.

Tous ceux qui de près ou de loin ont contribué à l'accomplissement de ce travail.

TABLE DES MATIERES

LISTE DES FIGURES	viii
LISTE DES TABLEAUX	x
LISTE DES ABRIVIATIONS	xi
RESUME	xiii
INTRODUCTION GENERALE	1
CHAPITRE I	
REVUE BIBLIOGRAPHIQUE	
Introduction	6
1.1. Principaux usages de l'eau	7
1.2. Pollution de l'eau	7
1.3. Différents types de pollution de l'eau	7
1.3.1. Pollution organique	7
1.3.2. Pollution chimique	7
1.4. Principales voies de réutilisation de l'eau	8
1.5. Les colorants	9
1.5.1. Classification des colorants	10
1.5.2. Toxicité des colorants	10
1.5.3. Méthodes de traitement des colorants	10
1.5.3.1. Les méthodes conventionnelles	13
A. Méthodes physiques	13
B. Méthodes biologiques.....	14
C. Méthodes chimiques	14
1.6. Les procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA).....	16
1.6.1. Quelques procédés d'oxydation avancée (POA)	18
1.6.1.1. Réactif de Fenton (H_2O_2/Fe^{2+}).....	18
1.6.1.2. Ozonation	18
1.6.1.3. Peroxonation (O_3/H_2O_2)	19
1.6.1.4. Procédés photochimiques d'oxydation avancée	19
A. Photolyse du peroxyde d'hydrogène (UV/ H_2O_2)	20
B. Couplage ozone/ultraviolet (UV/ O_3)	20

C. Photocatalyse hétérogène	21
Conclusion	22
Références	23

CHAPITRE II

TECHNIQUES EXPERIMENTALES

2.1. Réactifs	27
2.1.1. Noir chlorazol	27
2.1.2. Autres réactifs	28
2.2. Appareillages et méthodologie de travail	30
2.2.1. Montage experimental	30
2.2.2. Analyse	30
2.2.3. Méthodologie de travail	31
Références	33

CHAPITRE III

APPLICATION DU PROCEDE UV/ACETONE POUR LA DEGRADATION DU NOIR CHLORAZOL EN SOLUTIONS AQUEUSES : RÔLE DES RADICAUX METHYLES (CH_3^\bullet) ET INFLUENCE DES MATRICES NATURELLES

Introduction	34
3.1. Résultats et discussion	37
3.1.1. Dégradation du NC par les procédés UV et UV/Acétone	37
3.1.2. Mécanisme d'intensification de la photodégradation par l'acétone	38
3.1.3. Effet de la température du liquide.....	41
3.1.4. Effet du pH initial	43
3.1.5. Effet des gaz de saturation	44
3.1.6. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC.....	46
3.1.7. Effet des sels minéraux	48
3.1.8. Effet des additifs organiques	50
3.1.10. Influence des matrices naturelles	53
Conclusion	54
Références	56

CHAPITRE IV

DEGRADATION DES POLLUANTS ORGANIQUES REFRACTAIRES DANS L'EAU SALINE PAR LE PROCEDE UV/PERIODATE: CAS DU NOIR CHLORAZOL

Introduction	61
4.1. Résultats et discussion	64
4.1.1. Essais préliminaires.....	64
4.1.2. Identification des principaux oxydants impliqués dans la dégradation du NC	65
4.1.3. Effet de la salinité de l'eau de mer sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻	68
4.1.4. Effet du pH de la solution sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻	70
4.1.5. Effet de la concentration initiale du périodate sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻	71
4.1.6. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻ ...	73
4.1.7. Effet de la température du liquide sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻	75
4.1.8. Effet des tensioactifs sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO ₄ ⁻	75
4.1.9. Performance du procédé dans d'autres matrices naturelles	76
Conclusion	78
Références	80

CHAPITRE V

DEGRADATION DU NOIR CHLORAZOL DANS L'EAU DE MER PAR LE PROCEDE UV/PERSULFATE : IDENTIFICATION DES RADICAUX ET INFLUENCE DES PARAMETRES OPERATOIRES

Introduction	85
5.1. Résultats et discussion	87
5.1.1. Tests préliminaires	87
5.1.2. Identification des espèces oxydantes impliquées dans la dégradation	87
5.1.3. Effet des paramètres opératoires	90
5.1.3.1. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC	90
5.1.3.2. Effet de la concentration initiale du persulfate	91
5.1.3.3. Effet du pH	92
5.1.3.4. Effet de la température du liquide.....	93
5.1.3.5. Effet des additifs organiques.....	94
Conclusion	96

Références.....	97
CONCLUSION GENERALE.....	100
LISTES DES ANNEXES.....	102

LISTE DES FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	Schéma de la réutilisation directe et indirecte des eaux usées.....	8
1.2	Classification des procédés d'oxydation avancés.....	17
1.3	Mécanisme réactionnel à la surface de la particule d'un semi-conducteur TiO ₂	21
2.1	Schéma du montage expérimental.....	31
2.2	Spectre d'absorption UV-visible (a) et courbe d'étalonnage (b) du NC en solution aqueuses.....	32
3.1	Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV et UV/acétone, pour plusieurs concentrations d'acétone.....	38
3.2	Effet de l'oxygène (a) et de NaNO ₂ (b) sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC....	40
3.3	Effet du propanol 2 sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	42
3.4	Effet de la température sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	43
3.5	Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	44
3.6	Effet des gaz de saturation sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	46
3.7	Effet de la concentration initiale du NC sur la cinétique de dégradation	47
3.8	Effet des sels minéraux sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	49
3.9	Effet des additifs organiques sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	51
3.10	Effet des tensioactifs sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	52
3.11	Effet des matrices naturelles sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC	54
4.1	Influence de IO ₄ ⁻ , UV et UV/IO ₄ ⁻ sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer.....	64
4.2	Changement du spèctre UV durant la photolyse du périodate dans l'eau de mer...	65
4.3	Effet du propanol 2 sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer.....	66
4.4	Effet du phénol sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer.....	68
4.5	Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV et UV/IO ₄ ⁻ dans l'eau distillée (ED) et l'eau de mer (EM)	69
4.6	Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer	71
4.7	Diagramme de spéciation du périodate (0.5 mM) dans l'eau pure.....	72
4.8	Effet de la concentration initiale du périodate sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer.....	73

4.9	Effet de la concentration initiale du colorant sur sa cinétique de dégradation dans l'eau de mer	74
4.10	Effet de la température du liquide sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer.....	75
4.11	Effet des tensioactifs sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer (a) et l'eau distillée (b-f) par le procédé UV/ IO_4^-	77
4.12	Effet des matrices naturelles sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC.....	78
5.1	Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV, persulfate et UV/persulfate dans l'eau de mer.....	88
5.2	Effet des piégeurs des radicaux, tert-butanol (TBA), phénol et acide benzoïque (AB), sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate.....	89
5.3	Effet de la concentration initiale du colorant sur sa cinétique de dégradation dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate.....	90
5.4	Effet de la concentration initiale du persulfate sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate	91
5.5	Comparaison des vitesses initiales de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer et l'eau distillée pour différentes concentrations du persulfate.....	92
5.6	Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate.....	93
5.7	Effet de la température du liquide sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate.....	94
5.8	Effet d'acide cinétique et formique et des tensioactifs sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate.....	95

LISTE DES TABLEAUX

Tableau		Page
1.1	Exemples de groupes chromophores et auxochromes.....	9
1.2	Classification chimique des colorants.....	11
1.3	Classification tinctoriale des colorants.....	12
1.4	Quelques colorants azoïques révélés mutagènes et/ou carcinogènes.....	13
1.5	Les degrés de fixation des différents colorants aux fibres de textile.....	13
1.6	Comparaison de technologies physiques et chimiques, de dépollution des effluents textiles chargés de colorants synthétiques	16
2.1	Caractéristiques physiques et chimiques du noir chlorazol	27
2.2	Concentrations micellaires critiques des tensioactifs employés.....	30
5.1	Constantes de réaction des piégeurs sélectionnés avec les radicaux dans le system UV/persulfate.....	88

LISTE DES ABREVIATIONS

AB : Acide benzoïque

C_0 : Concentration initiale [mg L⁻¹]

CMC : Concentration micellaire critique [mM]

COT : Carbone organique total [mg L⁻¹]

DBO : Demande biologique en oxygène [mg L⁻¹]

DCO : Demande chimique en oxygène [mg L⁻¹]

DSS : Le dodécylsulfate de sodium

E^0 : Potentiel d'oxydoréduction [V]

ED : Eau distillée

EM : Eau de mer

HAP : Hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques

k_i : Constante de vitesse [M⁻¹s⁻¹]

min : Minute

MON : Matière organique naturelle

NC : Noir chlorazol

PCB : Polychlorobiphényle

Ph : Phénol

POA : Procédé d'oxydation avancé

POP : Polluant organique persistant

r_0 : La vitesse initiale de dégradation [mg L⁻¹ min⁻¹]

RPE : Résonance paramagnétique électronique

S* : Substrat excitée

TBA : Tert-butanol

tBuOH : Hydroxyde de tert-butyle

Ti (III) : Chlorure de titane

US : Ultrason

UV : Lumière ultraviolette

V : Volt

ε : L'absorptivité [M⁻¹ cm⁻¹]

λ_{\max} : Longueur d'onde d'absorption maximale [nm]

RESUME

La photolyse assistée est une technique destructive permettant la dégradation des colorants organiques réfractaires. Ce travail de thèse consiste en l'étude de la dégradation d'un colorant azoïque, le noir chlorazol (NC), en solutions aqueuses par les procédés UV/persulfate, UV/périodate et UV/acétone dans diverses matrices naturelles.

L'acétone photoactivé à 253,7 nm peut être considéré comme un procédé innovant pour le traitement des eaux contaminées par des colorants textiles. La photodégradation du NC était fortement accélérée par l'acétone grâce de l'implication du radical méthyle, généré lors de la photolyse de l'acétone. La concentration de l'acétone et la température du liquide influencent fortement le phénomène d'intensification. La saturation de la solution avec des gaz inertes comme N₂, CO₂ et l'argon a encore améliorée l'effet intensifiant de l'acétone, par contre, l'oxygène l'a complètement inhibé à cause de son effet piégeur envers les radicaux méthyles. Les sels minéraux n'ont pas altéré la performance du procédé UV/acétone, cependant, une inhibition a été enregistrée avec le NaNO₃ et le KBr. Par ailleurs, parmi plusieurs additifs organiques étudiés, l'acide ascorbique est le seul qui a montré un impact très négatif sur l'efficacité du procédé. Le procédé a présenté une efficacité élevée dans des matrices naturelles telles que l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer.

D'autre part, les procédés d'oxydation UV/IO₄⁻ et UV/S₂O₈²⁻ ont été trouvés très efficaces pour l'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer. La quantité élevée des sels présents dans l'eau de mer n'a pas altérée significativement l'efficacité des systèmes UV/IO₄⁻ et UV/S₂O₈²⁻ envers la destruction du NC. Le taux de dégradation du colorant par les deux procédés était considérablement plus élevé que celui du rayonnement UV seul. Cette amélioration significative est due à l'implication des radicaux libres très réactives (iodyl pour le procédé UV/périodate et Cl₂^{•-} pour le procédé UV/persulfate) dans les processus de dégradation. Par ailleurs, les deux procédés ont montré une limitation du pH dans les différentes matrices naturelles investiguées, où une forte précipitation a été observée lorsque le pH dépasse 8. Cependant, des taux de dégradation élevés ont été enregistrés pour des doses élevées des oxydants et de faibles concentrations en polluant. La majorité des additifs organiques et minéraux ajoutés lors de la dégradation du NC par les deux procédés n'a pas présenté une influence importante sur l'efficacité du traitement.

Mots clés: Pollution des eaux, Procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA), Noir Chlorazol (NC), UV/acétone, UV/périodate, UV/persulfate.

ABSTRACT

Assisted photolysis is a destructive technique that allows the degradation of refractory organic dyes. The aim of this work was to study the degradation of an azo dye, Chlorazol Black (CB), in aqueous solutions by UV/acetone, UV/periodate and UV/persulfate processes in different natural environmental matrices.

Photoactivated acetone at 253.7 nm can be considered as an innovative process for the treatment of water contaminated by textile dyes. The photodegradation of CB was strongly accelerated by acetone because of the involvement of the methyl radical, generated upon UV photolysis of acetone, in the degradation process. Acetone concentration and liquid temperature showed a crucial influence on the observed intensification event. Saturation of the solution with inert gases, i.e. N₂, CO₂ or argon, enhanced further the beneficial effect of acetone whereas O₂ completely quenched it due to its scavenger character toward methyl radicals. Salts did not alter the performance of the UV/acetone process, whereas NaNO₃ and KBr showed a marked inhibition. On the other hand, among several studied organic additives, only ascorbic acid has shown a negative impact on the process efficiency. The process has shown a high efficiency in natural matrices such as mineral water and seawater.

Both UV/IO₄⁻ and UV/S₂O₈²⁻ have showed a similar intensification behavior as that of UV/acetone. The very high quantity of salts existing in seawater did not alter the efficiency of UV/IO₄⁻ and UV/S₂O₈²⁻ systems. The degradation rate of the dye by these two processes was drastically advanced compared to direct UV alone. This significant improvement was due to the involvement of reactive radicals such as iodyl and chlorine in the degradation pathway. The two processes have shown a pH limitation, they can work only for pH < 8 to avoid the precipitation of the oxidants in the alkaline medium. However, higher degradation degrees were achieved at relatively higher oxidants levels and lower dye concentrations. Practically, most of the investigated organic and mineral compounds did not alter the processes efficacy, thereby confirming the promising of these two photoactivated processes for the removal of dyes from saline wastewaters.

Keyword: Water pollution, Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), Chlorazol Black (CB), UV/acetone, UV/periodate, UV/persulfate.

ملخص

التفكك الضوئي المدعوم هو تقنية تفكك تسمح بالتحلل الكلي للأصباغ العضوية العকوسية. الهدف من هذه المذكورة هو دراسة التحلل الكيميائي الضوئي لملون صبغي ، الكلورازول الاسود، في المحاليل المائية بواسطة الطرق التالية: **البيرسلافات، البريوسات والأسيتون المنشطة** بواسطة الأشعة فوق البنفسجية في العديد من الاوساط المائية الطبيعية.

يعتبر الأسيتون المنشط ضوئيا عند 253.7 نانومتر عملية واعدة لمعالجة المياه الملوثة بأصباغ النسيج. لاحظنا تسارع في التفكك الضوئي للملون كلورازول الاسود (CB) في وجود الاستون و هذا يعود لإنتاج الجذور الميثيلية الناتجة عن تفكك الاستون بفعل الأشعة فوق البنفسجية. أثناء عملية تحليل الملون كان لتركيز الاستون و درجة حرارة الوسط التفاعلي تأثير واضح على عملية التفكك. تشبع محلول بالغازات الحيادية كغاز النتروجين و ثاني أكسيد كربون و الأرغون عزز الأثر الإيجابي للأستون في عملية التفكك بينما غاز ثاني الأكسجين عطل كلبا دوره و هذا راجع لكونه مثبط للجذور الميثيلية. تأثير الأملاح المستعملة على فعالية العملية (الأشعة فوق البنفسجية/الأسيتون) كان طفيف، إلا أن نترات الصوديوم وبروم البوتاسيوم أظهرت انخفاضا كبيرا في سرعة تفكك الملون. من بين المركبات العضوية المختلفة المستعملة وحده حمض الاسكوربيك اثر سلبا على مردود التفكك. هذا النظام اظهر فعالية كبيرة في معالجة مختلف المياه الطبيعية كمياه البحر و المياه المعدنية.

نتائج الدراسة بينت توافق بين عملتي الأكسدة UV/IO_4^- ، $\text{UV}/\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ و UV/Aston إذ حققت الطرق المستعملة نجاحا في تحليل الملون في مياه البحر بحيث أن كمية الأملاح الكبيرة فيها لم تؤثر على فعالية هاتين الطريقتين. سرعة تحلل الملون باستعمال البرسلافات و البريوسات المنشطين ضوئيا كانت أكبر من استعمال الأشعة فوق البنفسجية وحدها، هذا التحسن يعود لوجود جذور السلففات، الكلور و اليود في عملية التحليل. العمليتين UV/IO_4^- و $\text{UV}/\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ أظهرتا نجاحا و فعالية أكبر في الأوساط ذات $\text{pH} < 8$ وذلك لتجنب ترسب المؤكسدات. كما تم تسجيل مردود أفضل عند استعمال هذا النظام لمعالجة المياه الطبيعية عند تراكيز مرتفعة للمؤكسدات و تراكيز منخفضة للملون. وجود المؤثرات السطحية كان له دور مهم على مردود الطريقتين.

الكلمات المفتاحية: تلوث المياه، عمليات الأكسدة المتقدمة، الكلورازول الاسود، UV/Aston ، $\text{UV}/\text{بريوسات}$ ، $\text{UV}/\text{برسلافات}$.

INTRODUCTION GENERALE

Dans l'industrie, l'eau a trois grands rôles essentiels: un rôle d'entraînement (cheminement des matières premières dans les usines), un rôle de refroidissement et un rôle de matière première. L'eau peut ainsi être contaminée lors de ces différents emplois et dans toutes les branches de l'activité économique: industries de la chimie minérale et de la chimie organique, de l'agroalimentaire, du papier-carton, de la métallurgie, de la sidérurgie, de la pétrochimie, du nucléaire, de la culture microbienne, de la pharmacie, etc (Hartemann and Montiel 2003). Le monde entier est aujourd'hui confronté à des problèmes énormes d'eau potable et stérile pour la consommation humaine, en raison de la contamination des eaux par les effluents industriels. Les eaux usées provenant de ces industries, qui contiennent des solides en suspension, des matières organiques et une quantité considérable de colorants, ont un impact indésirable sur les espèces vivantes (Sartaj et al. 2020). Il a été estimé que l'industrie textile consomme environ $21\text{-}377 \text{ m}^3$ d'eau par tonne de textile produite (Sahunin and Kaewboran 2006). Il a été rapporté que seulement 87 % des effluents aqueux résultants sont traités (Brow 1986). Les concentrations des colorants dans les effluents doivent être réduites à des limites acceptables avant de les rejeter dans l'environnement.

Afin de préserver et d'améliorer la qualité de ces eaux, plusieurs techniques de traitement classiques d'eau ont été développées ces dernières années. Elles font intervenir plusieurs procédés physico-chimiques tels que l'adsorption sur différents types de supports solides (charbon actif, argiles...), l'oxydation chimique (chlore, dioxyde de chlore et l'ozone, par exemple), la coagulation/flocculation et la biodégradation (Guo et al. 2007; Meier et al. 2002). Cependant, plusieurs études ont rapporté que ces méthodes conventionnelles sont incapables d'éliminer en totalité les matières organiques présentes dans les effluents textiles (Brow 1986; Azbar and Yonar 2004). Par conséquent, les procédés d'oxydation avancés sont appliqués pour le traitement chimique des eaux usées pour atteindre une minéralisation complète des polluants ou au moins de les transformer en produits biodégradables et plus inoffensifs (Poyatos et al. 2009).

Les procédés d'oxydation avancés sont basés sur la génération *in situ* des radicaux libres très actifs. Des oxydants tels que le peroxyde d'hydrogène (H_2O_2), le persulfate

($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$) ou le périodate (IO_4^-) peuvent être activés par plusieurs techniques telles que l'électrochimie, la photolyse, la radiolyse et la sonolyse pour produire des espèces radicalaires ($\bullet\text{OH}$, $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , ...) très réactives vis-à-vis de la matière organique (Kouadio et al. 2014). Les procédés photochimiques ont été largement investigués pour le traitement des effluents d'eaux usées réfractaires (Konstantinou and Albanis 2004; Legrini et al. 1993). Cependant, l'irradiation UV seule ne suffit pas et une combinaison avec ces oxydants est nécessaire pour dégrader les colorants organiques réfractaires (Boczkaj and Fernandes 2017).

Les procédés d'oxydation avancés basés sur la génération des radicaux sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$) et iodyle (IO_3^\bullet) ont été largement étudiés dans la littérature. Ces radicaux peuvent être produits par l'activation du persulfate ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$) et du périodate (IO_4^-) en milieu aqueux par la lumière ultraviolette, les métaux de transition, les bases et la sonolyse (Hamdaoui and Merouani 2017; Khandarkhaeva et al. 2018; Wei et al. 2018; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui 2016; Lee and Yoon 2004). Cependant, les études portées sur l'applicabilité de ces procédés pour le traitement des polluants dans des matrices réelles et complexes, telles que les eaux des rivières et les effluents salins, sont très limitées en raison de la forte réactivité des radicaux libres envers les sels et les matières organiques naturelles (MON) de ces effluents (Neta et al. 1988). Par ailleurs, les recherches menées sur le procédé UV/acétone sont très rares et le mécanisme d'oxydation est non encore bien établi, que ce soit dans l'eau pure (distillée) ou dans les eaux usées.

Organisé en cinq chapitre, ce travail de thèse s'inscrit donc dans le contexte de traitement des eaux usées contaminées par des polluants organiques en utilisant trois procédés photochimiques d'oxydation l'UV/périodate, l'UV/persulfate et l'UV/acétone, investigués pour plusieurs matrices réelles d'eaux usées. Le polluant modèle choisi est le noir chlorazol (NC), qui est un colorant textile très persistant et toxique.

Le premier chapitre présente une étude bibliographique sur la pollution des eaux, les colorants synthétiques et leur impact sur l'environnement, et les procédés d'oxydation avancés.

Le deuxième chapitre présente les produits et les réactifs utilisés, le montage expérimental adopté ainsi que les procédures analytiques suivies. Les spécifications et les propriétés spectrales du noir chlorazol sont présentées dans ce chapitre.

Le troisième chapitre est consacré à l'application du procédé UV/acétone pour la dégradation du noir chlorazol en solution aqueuses. Il examine l'implication des radicaux méthyles CH_3^\bullet ainsi que l'effet des matrices naturelles et l'effet de plusieurs additifs minéraux et organiques sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC par l'acétone photoactivé à 253,7 nm.

Le quatrième chapitre examine la dégradation du noir chlorazol dans l'eau de mer en utilisant le procédé UV/périodate. Les principaux radicaux responsables de la dégradation du colorant sont identifiés et leurs interactions avec les composés qui se trouvent dans l'eau de mer sont clarifiées. L'impact de plusieurs tensioactifs sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/périodate dans l'eau distillée et l'eau de mer est également étudié.

Enfin, le cinquième chapitre s'intéresse à l'application du procédé UV/persulfate pour la dégradation du noir chlorazol dans l'eau de mer. L'implication des radicaux chlorés, résultants de la conversion des radicaux sulfates en milieu riche en chlorures, dans le processus d'oxydation est confirmée. L'effet des paramètres opératoires et des tensioactifs sur l'efficacité du procédé envers l'élimination du colorant dans l'eau de mer est examiné.

Références

- Azbar N, Yonar T (2004) Comparison of various advanced oxidation processes and chemical treatment methods for COD and color removal from a polyester and acetate fiber dyeing effluent. *Chemosphere* 55:35–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2003.10.046>
- Boczkaj G, Fernandes A (2017) Wastewater treatment by means of advanced oxidation processes at basic pH conditions: A review. *Chem Eng J* 320:608–633. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2017.03.084>
- Brow U, et al (1986) The degradation of dyestuffs: part II behaviour of dyestuffs in aerobic biodegradation tests. 479–491
- Ghodbane H, Hamdaoui O (2016) Degradation of anthraquinonic dye in water by photoactivated periodate. *Desalin Water Treat* 57:4100–4109. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2014.988657>
- Guo WS, Vigneswaran S, Ngo HH, Chapman H (2007) Experimental investigation of adsorption – flocculation – microfiltration hybrid system in wastewater reuse. 242:27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.memsci.2003.06.006>
- Hamdaoui O, Merouani S (2017) Improvement of sonochemical degradation of Brilliant blue R in water using periodate ions: Implication of iodine radicals in the oxidation process. *Ultrason Sonochem* 37:344–350. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ulsonch.2017.01.025>
- Hartemann P, Montiel A (2003) Pollution des eaux. *Encycl Médico-Chirurgicale* 1:1–11. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1155-1925\(03\)00062-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1155-1925(03)00062-4)
- Khandarkhaeva MS, Aseev DG, Sizykh MR, Batoeva AA (2018) Oxidation of Atrazine by Photoactivated Potassium Persulfate in Aqueous Solutions. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S003602441611011X>
- Konstantinou IK, Albanis TA (2004) TiO₂-assisted photocatalytic degradation of azo dyes in aqueous solution: Kinetic and mechanistic investigations: A review. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* 49:1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2003.11.010>
- Kouadio DL, Soro BD, Diarra M, et al (2014) Etude de La degradation photochimique de l'acide Meclofenamique. *Larhyss Journal* 111–126
- Lee C, Yoon J (2004) Application of photoactivated periodate to the decolorization of reactive dye: Reaction parameters and mechanism. *J Photochem Photobiol A Chem* 165:35–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2004.02.018>

- Legrini O, Oliveros E, Braun AM (1993) Photochemical processes for water treatment. *Chem Rev* 93:671–698. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr00018a003>
- Meier J, Melin T, Eilers LH (2002) Nanofiltration and adsorption on powdered adsorbent as process combination for the treatment of severely contaminated waste water. *Desalination* 146:361–366. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0011-9164\(02\)00513-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0011-9164(02)00513-1)
- Neta P, Huie RE, Ross AB (1988) Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. *J Phys Chem Ref Data* 17:1027–1284. [https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/\\$21.00](https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/$21.00)
- Poyatos JM, Muñio MM, Almecija MC (2009) Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment: State of the Art. *Water Air and Soil Pollution* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-009-0065-1>
- Sahunin C, Kaewboran J (2006) Treatment of textile dyeing wastewater by photo oxidation using UV/H₂O₂/Fe²⁺ reagents. *Science Asia* 32:181–186. <https://doi.org/10.2306/scienceasia1513-1874.2006.32.181>
- Sartaj S, Ali N, Khan A, et al (2020) Performance evaluation of photolytic and electrochemical oxidation processes for enhanced degradation of food dyes laden wastewater. *Water Science and Technologie* 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wst.2020.182>
- Wei L, Chen W, Li Q, et al (2018) wastewater in heat-activated persulfate system. *RSC Adv* 8:20603–20611. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C8RA01995A>

CHAPITRE I

REVUE BIBLIOGRAPHIQUE

Introduction

L'eau est la clé essentielle du développement durable; cependant, il s'agit d'une ressource limitée. Le réchauffement climatique a entraîné une terrible diminution des ressources d'eau douce et de leur accessibilité, provoquant ainsi un grand défi dans le monde entier. L'eau présente 60% du corps humain, nous avons besoin quotidiennement d'une quantité moyenne de 1,5 litre d'eau. Par conséquent, La qualité de l'eau a une importance majeure pour l'humanité. Mais par le développement industrielle il a été rapporté que deux milliards de personnes consomment encore de l'eau contaminée (Neira 2017). Comme l'eau est un très bon dissolvant, il absorbe les molécules d'une manière rapide et facile, par conséquent il peut être infecté facilement par de nombreux polluants. Parmi les principaux polluants de l'eau, on trouve les engrains et les pesticide qui sont la source d'azote (nitrates et phosphates), les hydrocarbures, les détergents, les métaux lourds, résidus plastiques et les médicamenteux (Hartemann and Montiel. 2003). Le choix du meilleur traitement pour la récupération des eaux usées est un objectif principal pour l'homme.

Par conséquent, il est nécessaire de disposer des techniques moins coûteuses, robustes et plus efficaces pour nettoyer et assainir les eaux usées sans menacer la santé de l'homme ou stresser la nature par l'assainissement lui-même. Dans ce sens, les procédés d'oxydation avancés (PAO) sont considérés comme une technique très raisonnable pour le traitement de l'eau afin d'éliminer les contaminants organiques classés comme biorécalcitrants.

Ce chapitre passe en revue la pollution des eaux et son impact sur l'environnement, les colorants synthétiques et la nécessité de traitement des effluents colorés et les procédés d'oxydation avancés appliqués pour la destruction de la pollution organique réfractaire.

1.1. Principaux usages de l'eau

Les principaux usages de l'eau peuvent être classés selon les secteurs suivants :

- ✓ Agriculture
- ✓ Industrie
- ✓ Agglomération urbaine

Chaque secteur nécessite une eau ayant des propriétés physiques et chimiques spécifiques.

1.2. Pollution de l'eau

La pollution est une modification défavorable du milieu naturel pouvant affecter l'homme directement ou traverse des ressources agricoles, hydriques ou d'ordre biologique (Awomeso 2008). Elle peut affecter aussi ou altérer le milieu physique et les possibilités récréatives dans la nature.

La pollution de la ressource en eau se caractérise par la présence de micro-organismes, de substances chimiques ou encore de déchets industriels (Karen 2018). Elle peut concerner les cours d'eau, les nappes d'eau, les eaux saumâtres mais également l'eau de pluie, la rosée, la neige et la glace polaire.

1.3. Différents types de pollution de l'eau

Selon la nature de la pollution, le terme de pollution peut être classé en trois catégories : la pollution physique, chimique et biologique. Selon la nature du polluant, le terme de pollution peut être classé en deux catégories, pollution organique et pollution chimique.

1.3.1. Pollution organique

Elle concerne les microorganismes pathogènes présents dans l'eau comme les bactéries et les virus, les parasites, les champignons, etc (Berradi et al. 2016).

1.3.2. Pollution chimique

Elle résulte de la mise en décharge de divers déchets domestiques, agricoles et industriels, chargés de grandes quantités de produits chimiques : hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP), pesticides, insecticides, acide humique, nitrates d'ammonium, etc (Berradi et al. 2016). Cette pollution peut avoir des origines diverses (Hartemann and Montiel. 2003):

- Pollution industrielle avec les rejets de produits chimiques comme les hydrocarbures ou le polychlorobiphényles (PCB) rejetés par les industries ainsi que les eaux évacuées par les usines.
- Pollution agricole avec les déjections animales mais aussi les produits phytosanitaires/pesticides (herbicides, insecticides, fongicides) contenus dans les engrains et utilisés dans l'agriculture. Ils pénètrent alors dans les sols jusqu'à atteindre les eaux souterraines.
- Pollution domestique avec les eaux usées provenant des toilettes, les produits d'entretien ou cosmétiques (savons de lessives, détergents), les peintures, solvants, huiles de vidanges, etc.
- Pollution accidentelle avec le déversement accidentel de produits toxiques dans le milieu naturel et qui viennent perturber l'écosystème (Hartemann and Montiel. 2003).
- Les micropolluants d'origine médicamenteuse: des résidus de substances médicamenteuses sont parfois retrouvées à très faibles doses dans le milieu naturel (fleuves ou rivières) ou dans les eaux usées des industries chimiques et pharmaceutiques, avec pour conséquence un déséquilibre de l'écosystème aquatique (flore et faune).

1.4. Principales voies de réutilisation de l'eau

En fonction des exigences de qualité des consommateurs, deux grandes classes de réutilisation peuvent être définies (David 2001):

- Les usages potables qui peuvent être directs, après un traitement poussé, ou indirects, après passage dans le milieu naturel (Figure 1.1).
- Les usages non potables dans les secteurs agricoles (irrigation), industriel et urbain.

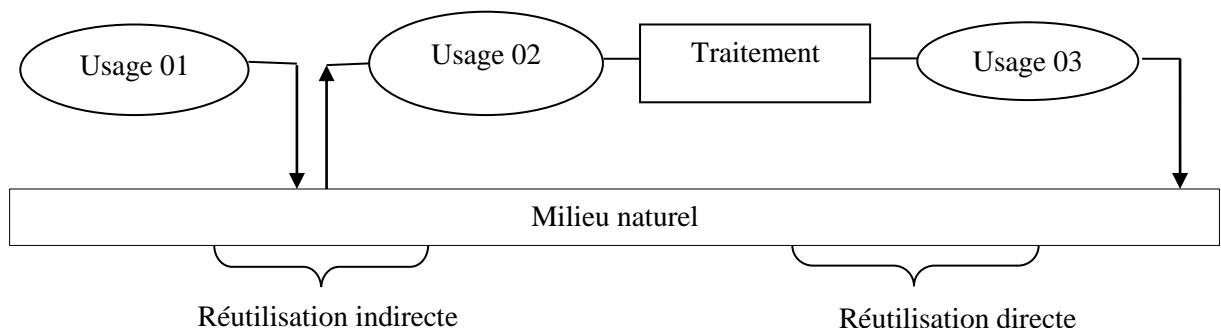


Figure 1.1 : Schéma de la réutilisation directe et indirecte des eaux usées (David 2001).

Au plan mondial, l'utilisation de cette technique par l'agriculture, l'industrie et les usages domestiques couvre respectivement 70, 20 et 10 % de leur demande en eau (David 2001).

1.5. Les colorants

Un colorant est une substance chimique qui possède deux propriétés spécifiques indépendantes, une couleur et l'aptitude à être fixée sur un support (le textile par exemple). Ils sont caractérisés par leur capacité à absorber la lumière visible (Lamri 2010). Les colorants ont été utilisés depuis les premiers temps, en utilisant divers matériaux provenant de la plante, d'animaux et de différents minéraux. Ils sont utilisés pour colorer les textiles, les encres, les peintures, les vernis, les produits alimentaires, etc.

En général, les colorants consistent en un assemblage de groupes chromophores, auxochromes et de structures aromatiques (Tableau 1.1) (Ferkous 2016). Un chromophore est un groupement d'atomes permettant l'absorption de lumière visible. Cependant, un auxochrome, est un groupement d'atomes ionisables pouvant changer la fréquence, et donc la longueur d'onde, d'absorption d'un chromophore (Lamri 2010).

Tableau 1.1 : Exemples de groupes chromophores et auxochromes (Merouani 2010).

Groupes chromophores	Groupes auxochromes
Azo ($-N=N-$)	Amino ($-NH_2$)
Nitroso ($-NO$ ou $-N-OH$)	Méthylamino ($-NHCH_3$)
Carbonyl ($=C=O$)	Diméthylamino ($-N(CH_3)_2$)
Vinyl ($-C=C-$)	Hydroxyl ($-HO$)
Nitro ($-NO_2$ ou $=NO-OH$)	Alkoxy ($-OR$)
Sulfure ($>C=S$)	Groupes donneurs d'électrons

Il existe deux grandes classes de colorants : les colorants naturels et les colorants synthétiques. Les colorants naturels sont extraits des éléments naturels par des procédés simples comme le chauffage ou le broyage. La majorité des colorants utilisés sont d'origine végétale, extraits des plantes ou des arbres, ou bien d'origine animale, extraits des insectes ou des mollusques. Cependant, le nombre des colorants naturels n'a jamais excédé quelques dizaines (Siva 2017).

Les colorants synthétiques ont progressivement supplanté les colorants naturels. Les recherches, menées depuis le milieu du XIXe siècle, ont débouché sur la fabrication de très nombreuses familles de colorants, où l'on trouve souvent des imitations de la structure

chimique des colorants naturels. Cette recherche a joué également un rôle important dans l'essor de la chimie organique et dans la compréhension de la nature des molécules (Ben Mansour et al. 2013).

1.5.1. Classification des colorants

Les principaux modes de classification des colorants reposent soit sur leur constitution chimique, soit sur leurs méthodes d'application aux différents substrats (fibres textiles, papier, cuir, matières plastiques, ... etc). Le classement d'après la structure chimique s'appuie principalement sur la nature du chromophore (Tableau 1.2), qui constitue le squelette nécessaire à la coloration de la molécule. L'ensemble des chromophores ont en commun la présence au sein de l'édifice moléculaire d'une suite de doubles liaisons conjuguées, parmi lesquelles figurent le plus souvent des noyaux aromatiques ou pseudo-aromatiques. Les auxochromes, quant à eux, sont des groupements ionisables de types $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{COOH}$, $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$. Ils permettent d'assurer la solubilité dans l'eau, mais surtout de créer une liaison plus ou moins solide entre le colorant et le substrat. C'est ainsi que les auxochromes définissent la classe tinctoriale (Tableau 1.3) : la présence de groupes aminés caractérise un colorant basique ; celle des groupes sulfoniques caractérise les colorants acides (même en présence de groupes aminés) (Fues 2020).

1.5.2. Toxicité des colorants

Les travaux effectués sur les colorants azoïques ont démontré que ces composés chimiques présentent des effets mutagènes et cancérogènes (Ben Mansour et al. 2013).

Le Tableau 1.4 regroupe un ensemble des colorants textiles dont les actions mutagène et cancérogène sont bien établies.

1.5.3. Méthodes de traitement des colorants

Des quantités plus ou moins importantes de colorants sont rejetées dans l'environnement. Ceci est dû en grande partie au degré de fixation des colorants aux fibres cellulosiques. Le Tableau 1.5 résume l'estimation des degrés de fixation des différents colorants aux fibres de textile. La filière de l'épuration des eaux usées recommande différentes techniques à divers niveaux technologiques souvent très élaborées ceci est illustré comme étant des méthodes classiques de traitement; ainsi que des nouvelles techniques visant la protection de l'environnement et la sauvegarde du milieu naturel.

Tableau 1.2 : Classification chimique des colorants (Merouani 2010).

Colorants	Application	Propriétés	Exemple
Azoïque		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Présence du groupe fonctionnel Azo ($-N=N-$) qui peut être répété plusieurs fois dans la molécule pour former les diazoïques, triazoïques,...etc, - Toxiques, cancérogènes et récalcitrants aux traitements biologiques, - Se répartissent en colorants acides, basiques, directs et réactifs solubles dans l'eau, dispersés, ...etc. 	
Anthraquinoniques		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Le chromophore est un noyau quinonique sur lequel peuvent s'attacher des groupes hydroxyles ou amino. - Couvrant une gamme variée de couleurs (bleu, turquoise, jaune, rouge, orange). 	
Indigoïdes		Ils se caractérisent par une remarquable résistance aux traitements de lavage, alors que la solidité à la lumière est très moyenne.	
Diphénylméthane ou triphenylméthane		Ils permettent de couvrir la totalité de la gamme de nuances, du jaune au bleu en passant par le rouge et même le vert. Ces matières colorées sont généralement obtenues à partir du diphénylméthane ou du triphénylméthane.	
Phtalocyanines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - L'industrie des pigments pour: peinture et encres - Teinture des fibres textiles 	Structure complexe basée sur l'atome central de cuivre.	
Nitrés et nitrosés		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Il se caractérise par la présence d'un groupe nitro ($-NO_2$) en position ortho par rapport à un groupement électrodonneur (hydroxyle ou groupes aminés). - Ce sont généralement des complexes métalliques de dérivés nitrosophénol en position ortho 	
Xanthènes		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intense fluorescence - Marqueurs lors d'accident maritime ou traceurs d'écoulement pour des rivières souterraines. - Peu utilisés en tant que teinture 	

Tableau 1.3 : Classification tinctoriale des colorants (Hunger 2007).

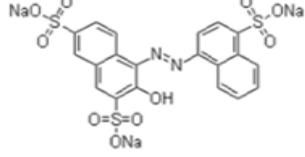
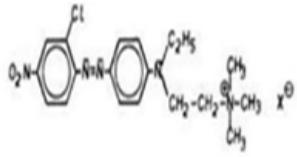
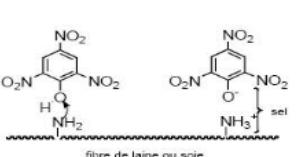
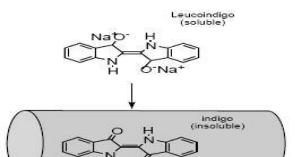
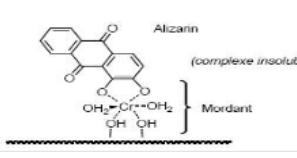
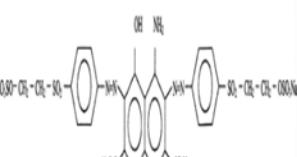
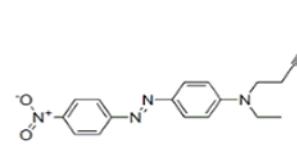
Colorants	Application	Propriétés	Exemple
Acides ou anioniques	Polyamide (70 à 75 %), laine (25 à 30 %) soie, fibres acryliques.	Soluble dans l'eau grâce à la présence de groupes sulfonates ou carboxylates.	
Basiques ou cationiques	Fibres : acryliques, polyamide.	Azoïques contiennent un groupe amine quaternaire. Ce sont des sels aminés organiques.	
Directs	Viscose, le lin, le jute, la soie, les fibres polyamides et le coton.	Solubles dans l'eau avec une Affinité élevée pour les fibres cellulosiques sans application de mordant.	
Cuve	Teinture et l'impression du coton et de fibres cellulosiques polyamide et de polyester avec des fibres cellulosiques	- Insolubles dans l'eau - Utilisés pour l'application de l'indigo - Bonne résistance aux agents de dégradation.	
Mordants	Laine, soie.	Azoïques avec du chrome favorisant sa fixation.	
Réactifs	La teinture du coton et laine et des polyamides.	Azotiques, ils ont la particularité de posséder des groupements chimiques spécifiques capables de former des liaisons covalentes avec le support textile.	
Dispersés	Polyester fibres Cellulosiques fibres de Polyamide et d'acrylique.	Très peu solubles dans l'eau Application sous forme d'une fine poudre dispersée dans le bain de teinture.	

Tableau 1.4 : Quelques colorants azoïques révélés mutagènes et/ou carcinogènes.

Colorants azoïques	Effet mutagène et/ou carcinogène
Soudan I: mono azoïque	Mutagène et carcinogène.
Soudan II	Carcinogène.
Soudan III diazoïque	Mutagène et carcinogène.
Soudan IV	Mutagène.
Colorant azoïque à base de benzidine: vert Direct1; Noire directe 38; Rouge directe 17 Rouge directe 28; Bleue directe 2	Carcinogène.
Bleue disperse 373; Violet disoers 93 et Orange disperse 37	Très mutagène et carcinogène.
N,N-diméthyle-4-aminobenzéne et N-méthyle- 4-aminoazobenzéne	Très mutagène et carcinogène.
Rouge de méthyle et Jaune méthyle	Très mutagène.
Bleue disperse 291	Mutagène.
Orange de méthyle	Mutagène.
Acide violet 7	Mutagène et carcinogène.

Tableau 1.5 : Les degrés de fixation des différents colorants aux fibres de textile.

Classe des colorants utilisés	Fixation(%)	Fibres
Acide	80-93	Laine,nylon
Azoïques	90-95	Cellulose
Basique	97-98	Acrylique
De cuve	80-95	Cellulose
Direct	70-95	Cellulose
Dispersé	80-92	Synthétique
Réactif	50-80	Cellulose
Soufré	60-70	Cellulose

1.5.3.1. Les méthodes conventionnelles

Le traitement de l'eau nécessite des processus chimiques, physiques et parfois biologiques pour éliminer les contaminants. Les procédés chimiques et physiques sont les plus couramment utilisés dans le traitement de l'eau usée.

A. Méthodes physiques

Les processus physiques comprennent :

- (i) L'adsorption sur charbon actif : cette technique constitue l'un des plus importants procédé physico-chimiques d'élimination de la plupart des micropolluants organiques et minéraux. Un grand nombre d'études mettent en évidence l'intérêt d'utiliser le charbon actif pour le traitement des eaux (Ferrandon et al. 2001; Allali-hassani et al.1990; Thomas et al.1994).

- (ii) La filtration membranaire : qui est un procédé de séparation physique en phase liquide. Elle repose sur le principe de perméation à travers une membrane perméable sélective (Causserand et al. 1990). La filtration sur membrane pilotée par pression hydraulique se décline en microfiltration, ultrafiltration, nanofiltration et osmose inverse. Parmi les quatre types de procédés, la nanofiltration et l'osmose inverse sont les plus adaptés à la réduction partielle de la couleur et des petites molécules organiques (Bastos et al. 2020), mais l'osmose inverse reste la plus répandue (Calabro et al. 1990).
- (iii) La coagulation-flocculation : le principe de cette technique est basé sur la désagrégation des particules en suspension par l'injection et la dispersion rapide des produits chimiques afin de favoriser leur agglomération et de permettre leur décantation. La plupart de ces travaux ont utilisé un seul coagulant, le plus souvent des sels d'aluminium ou de fer (Achak et al. 2008), peu de travaux ont essayé la combinaison de deux coagulants pour le traitement des effluents de textile (Georgiou et al. 2003).

B. Méthodes biologiques

Les procédés biologiques d'épuration sont multiples et de conceptions variées. Ils sont basés essentiellement sur la faculté des microorganismes. Le principe est le même que celui des milieux épurateurs naturels. On distingue les procédés intensifs à cultures libres (par exemple : boues activées), les procédés à cultures fixées (par exemple: lits bactériens, disques biologiques) et les procédés extensifs (lagunage). Le principal procédé utilisé pour l'épuration des effluents pollués est celui dit « boues activées ». Il reproduit l'action d'une rivière avec une dynamique intense des populations microbiennes aérobies maintenues en suspension. L'effluent brut subit tout d'abord un prétraitement et une décantation primaire. La décantation primaire permet d'éliminer les éléments en suspension pouvant se déposer par simple pesanteur. L'effluent traité séjourne ensuite quelques heures jusqu'à 24 heures pour un effluent urbain, dans un bassin d'aération où se produit le traitement secondaire (biologique). À l'inverse de ce procédé rapide, le lagunage et les techniques dérivées sont caractérisées par une cinétique bactérienne lente. Mais, ils possèdent un faible coût d'installation et de fonctionnement, une bonne élimination de la charge microbienne et une faible production de boues. Ils sont utilisés de plus en plus fréquemment dans de nombreux pays (Benyahya et al. 1998).

C. Méthodes chimiques

Dans la littérature, les techniques chimiques d'oxydation sont généralement appliquées (i) pour le traitement des composés organiques dangereux présents en faibles

concentrations, (ii) en prétraitement avant des procédés biologiques, (iii) pour le traitement d'eaux usées chargées de constituants résistant aux méthodes de biodégradation et enfin (iv) en post-traitement pour réduire la toxicité aquatique. Parmi les méthodes de traitement chimique, on distingue (Ben Mansour et al. 2013):

- les procédés d'oxydation chimique.
- les procédés d'oxydation avancée.

Le procédé classique d'oxydation chimique nécessite l'utilisation d'oxydants chimiques pour réduire le niveau de la DCO/DBO, et pour éliminer les composés oxydables inorganiques et organiques. Une large variété de produits chimiques est utilisée. En voici quelques uns:

- **Peroxyde d'hydrogène (H_2O_2):** Grâce à ses propriétés d'oxydante efficace, puissant, versatile et non dangereux, le peroxyde d'hydrogène est largement utilisé. Les polluants les plus difficiles à oxyder nécessitent un traitement au peroxyde d'hydrogène avec l'utilisation d'un catalyseur tel que le fer, le cuivre, le manganèse ou un autre métal de transition.
- **Ozone (O_3):** C'est un oxydant très fort qui a presque le même avantage que l'oxygène ou le peroxyde d'hydrogène. Le problème majeur lié à l'utilisation de cet oxydant est son instabilité, d'où la nécessité de production sur le site.
- **Combiner l'ozone et le peroxyde d'hydrogène**
- **Oxygène:** L'oxygène peut également être utilisé comme oxydant, par exemple pour l'oxydation du fer et du manganèse. Les réactions qui ont lieu lors de l'oxydation par l'oxygène sont sensiblement similaires.

Pour le fer et pour le manganèse:



Il a été observé que l'oxydation chimique avec l'un de ces oxydants n'est pas toujours efficace pour le traitement des polluants organiques persistants. Dans ce cas, on fait appel aux procédés d'oxydation avancée. Ceux-ci sont fondés sur la formation d'une entité radicalaire extrêmement réactive : le radical hydroxyle ($\cdot\text{OH}$) qui possède un temps de vie très court, un potentiel d'oxydation élevé et une forte réactivité vis-à-vis de nombreux composés organiques. Le Tableau 1.6 présente les principaux avantages et

inconvénients de quelques procédés chimiques et physiques utilisés pour la dépollution des effluents textiles chargés de colorants synthétiques.

Tableau 1.6 : Comparaison des technologies physiques et chimiques, de dépollution des effluents textiles chargés de colorants synthétiques (Ben Mansour et al. 2013; Lambert et al. 1997).

Technologie	Exemples	Avantages	Inconvénients
Coagulation -floculation	Alun : Al(OH)_3 Ca(OH)_2 FeCl_3 Polyélectrolytes	Equipement simple Décoloration relativement rapide Réduction significative de la DCO	Formation des boues Adjonction obligatoire de produits chimiques Fonctionnement onéreux Coagulants non réutilisables Réduction spécifique de la couleur Peu d'information sur la réduction de DBO et DCO
Filtration sur membranes	Osmose inverse Nano filtration Micro filtration Ultra filtration	Utilisation simple et rapide pas d'addition de produits chimiques Faible consommation énergétique Réduction de la couleur Traitement de grands volumes	Investissement important Sélectif Encrassement rapide des membranes colmatage Pré et post-traitements nécessaires
Adsorption	Carbone activé Silice	Réduction efficace de la couleur Technologie simple Faible cout d'utilisation pour certains adsorbants	Investissements et couts de fonctionnement élevés Lent et limité en volume Régénération onéreuse des adsorbants Sélectif; Non destructive Formation de boues
Oxydation chimique	Ozone Réactif de fenton Chloration	Traitement de gros volumes Diminution nette de la coloration Décoloration rapide et efficace des colorants solubles et insolubles Opération simple Oxydant puissant Décoloration rapide et efficace	Investissements et couts de fonctionnement élevés Efficacité limitée pour certains colorants Sous-produits d'oxydation inconnus Couts élevés Sous-produits d'oxydation inconnus Formation de sous-produits de Chloration (trihalométhanes cancérogènes)
Réduction chimique	Chlorure d'étain Hydrosulfite de sodium	Décoloration rapide et efficace des azoïques	Formation d'amines aromatique (toxiques) Dégradation incomplète

1.6. Les procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA)

La dépollution des eaux usées et l'assainissement des réserves d'eau potable sont aujourd'hui une préoccupation majeure. Parmi les progrès les plus récents dans le traitement de l'eau, les POA apportent une solution en prouvant leur efficacité, permettent

la minéralisation en milieu aqueux des composés organiques biologiquement récalcitrants qui sont considérés toxiques pour l'homme et pour l'environnement (Bouafia and Alloune 2007). Ces méthodes reposent sur la formation d'entités chimiques très réactives (souvent des radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$, $E^\circ = 2.8 \text{ V}$) qui vont décomposer les molécules les plus récalcitrantes en molécules biologiquement dégradables ou en composés minéraux, tels que CO_2 et H_2O (Ghernaout et al. 2020). Les radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$ sont non sélectifs et possèdent un pouvoir oxydant supérieure à celui des oxydants traditionnels, tels que Cl_2 , ClO_2 ou O_3 (Amor et al. 2019). Ces radicaux sont capables de minéraliser partiellement ou en totalité la plupart des composés organiques.

La souplesse d'utilisation des POA est liée à la possibilité de produire les radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$ *in situ* en raison de leur courte durée de vie par différentes techniques y compris un mélange d'agents oxydants (ozone et peroxyde d'hydrogène), des ultrasons (US) ou l'irradiation (UV) et les catalyseurs (Garrido cardenas et al. 2020). Les POA peuvent être classés en plusieurs types, tel que montré sur la Figure 1.2.

Les potentialités offertes par les POA peuvent être combinées avec les traitements biologiques procédant à une dégradation oxydante des substances toxiques réfractaires entrant ou sortant d'une traitement biologique (Andreozzi et al. 1999).

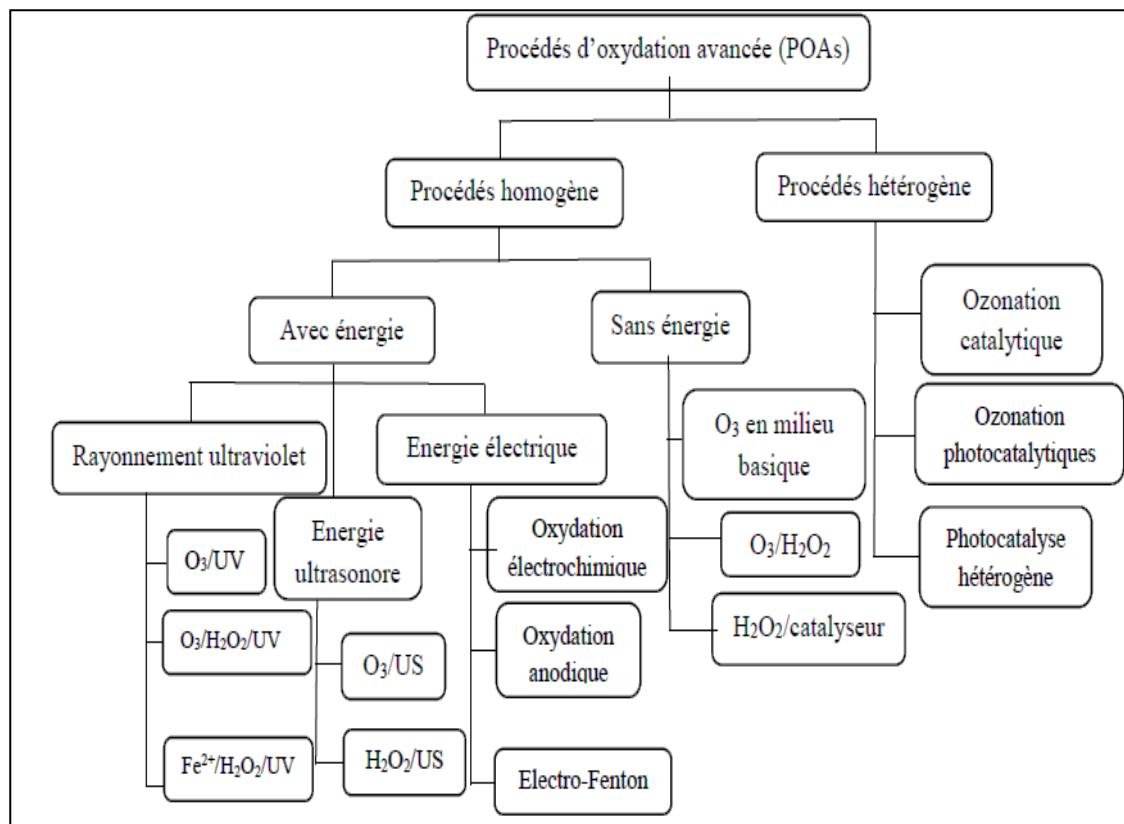
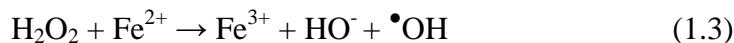


Figure 1.2 : Classification des procédés d'oxydation avancés (Amor et al. 2019).

1.6.1. Quelques procédés d’oxydation avancée (POA)

1.6.1.1. Réactif de Fenton ($\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{Fe}^{2+}$)

Des travaux ultérieurs ont montré que la combinaison de H_2O_2 et de Fe^{2+} , nommée « réactif de Fenton », était un oxydant efficace pour une grande variété de substrats organiques, notamment les phénols, les pesticides, les aromatiques polycycliques et des colorants, en particulier les azoïques. La réaction globale est :



La vitesse de décomposition de H_2O_2 par le Fe(II) augmente lorsque le pH augmente (≤ 5) (Sychev et Isak. 1995; Meghlaoui et al. 2019). Les micropolluants organiques, notamment les colorants synthétiques, sont ensuite oxydés par le radical hydroxyle selon une cascade réactionnelle complexe (Ben Mansour et al. 2013).

1.6.1.2. Ozonation

L’ozone est un agent oxydant puissant ($E^0 = 2,08 \text{ V}$), comparé à d’autres agents, tels que H_2O_2 ($E^0 = 1,78 \text{ V}$), il peut réagir avec plusieurs types des composés par des réactions directes ou indirectes. En l’absence de lumière, l’ozone peut réagir directement avec un substrat organique S par des réactions lentes et sélectives de substitution électrophile ou de cyclo-addition dipolaire :



L’ozone peut également réagir indirectement par une réaction rapide et non sélective du radical libre $\cdot\text{OH}$ généré par sa décomposition, favorisé en milieu basique (Augugliaro et al. 2007) :



Mais, en raison de son instabilité, l’ozone doit être généré sur site, juste avant son utilisation. L’ozone peut être produit, soit à partir d’oxygène pur, soit à partir d’air (éventuellement enrichi en oxygène) avec un rendement environ deux fois plus faible. La réaction globale de formation est la suivante :

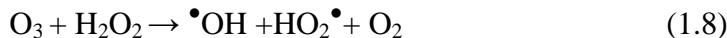
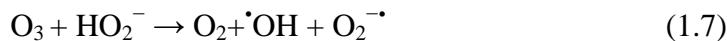


Le procédé d’ozonation et le mécanisme réactionnel correspondant a fait l’objet de plusieurs travaux traitant la décoloration des eaux contenant des colorants synthétiques (Azbar N et al. 2004; Susan and Simon. 1994; Raj et al. 2007). Il a été constaté aussi que l’ozone décompose efficacement les colorants azoïques résiduaires des eaux usées issues des unités textiles; tandis que, certains composés demeurent réfractaires à une oxydation

directe par l'ozone, alors qu'ils sont susceptibles de réagir avec les radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$. Par conséquent, en traitement des eaux, l'ozonation est de préférence mise en œuvre dans des conditions qui favorisent les mécanismes radicalaires, c'est-à-dire la décomposition de l'ozone. Pour cela, l'ozone est le plus souvent combiné, soit à une irradiation UV, soit au peroxyde d'hydrogène, soit à une combinaison des deux (Susan and Simon 1994; Shu 2006).

1.6.1.3. Peroxonation ($\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$)

Le principe de la peroxonation est basé sur un couplage entre l'ozone (O_3) et l' H_2O_2 , ce qui entraîne la génération de radicaux oxydants. Le processus de peroxonation devrait être plus efficace que l'ozonation seule, car H_2O_2 augmente la vitesse de décomposition d' O_3 dans l'eau, ce qui produit un plus grand nombre des radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$ très réactifs. Le mécanisme et les conditions d'application de la peroxonation ont été étudiés par (Andreozzi et al. 1999; Susan et al. 1994), qui ont montré qu'une réaction très rapide se produisait entre H_2O_2 sous sa forme ionisée (HO_2^- , $\text{pK}_a = 11,6$) et l'ozone, conduisant à la formation de radicaux $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Oturan et Aaron 2014) :



Même si ce procédé est plus efficace que l'ozonation pour de nombreux substrats organiques, notamment pour les colorants, son efficacité reste limitée par la vitesse de la réaction entre O_3 et H_2O_2 . Ce système est affecté par les mêmes contraintes que l'ozonation. En revanche, l'ozonation et la peroxonation présentent l'avantage, par rapport aux procédés avec irradiation UV, de pouvoir fonctionner dans une eau à forte turbidité, car le système ne dépend pas de la transmission des rayonnements dans l'effluent.

1.6.1.4. Procédés photochimiques d'oxydation avancés

Les technologies photochimiques ont l'avantage d'être simples et propres, relativement peu coûteux, et généralement plus efficaces que les autres POA chimiques. De plus, ils peuvent désinfecter les eaux et détruire les polluants (Oturan et Aaron 2014). Par conséquent, les UV ont été couplés à des oxydants puissants tels que O_3 et H_2O_2 , y compris, dans certains cas, une catalyse au Fe^{3+} ou au TiO_2 , résultant en divers types de POA photochimiques importants. Ces processus photochimiques sont capables de dégrader et/ou de détruire les polluants grâce à trois réactions possibles, y compris la photodécomposition, basées sur l'irradiation UV, l'excitation et la dégradation des

molécules de polluants, l’oxydation par action directe d’O₃ et H₂O₂, et l’oxydation par photocatalyse (avec Fe³⁺ ou TiO₂), induisant la formation des radicaux •OH (Oturan and Aaron 2014). Dans cette section, nous avons examiné les principes de ces différents PAO, à savoir la photolyse de H₂O₂ (H₂O₂/UV), la photolyse de l’O₃ (O₃/UV), et la photocatalyse hétérogène (TiO₂/UV).

A. Photolyse du peroxyde d’hydrogène (UV/H₂O₂)

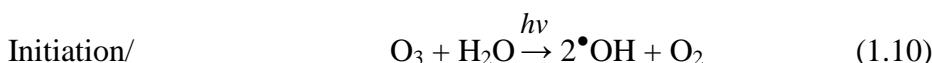
Sous irradiation ultraviolette, la molécule de peroxyde d’hydrogène subit une coupure homolytique pour conduire à deux radicaux hydroxyles (Oppelt 1998) :



La photolyse de H₂O₂ est plus avantageuse que l’ozonation et la peroxydation et son application est moins complexe, mais son efficacité est moindre en raison du faible coefficient d’extinction de H₂O₂ dans l’UV. Dans un système à réacteur fermé, le gain en efficacité pour des eaux de forte absorption UV sera limité malgré une hausse de la concentration en peroxyde. De plus, ce réactif est extrêmement instable lorsqu’il est concentré et sa décomposition en eau et en oxygène est fortement exothermique. Par ailleurs, la production des radicaux est affectée par les conditions de milieu telles que la température, le pH, la concentration en H₂O₂ et la présence de consommateurs des radicaux (Andreozzi et al. 1999; Muruganandham et al. 2014). Les colorants acides se dégradent plus facilement selon ce type de procédé mais l’efficacité diminue avec l’augmentation du nombre de liaisons azoïques. Cependant, la dégradation des colorants de type réactif jaunes ou verts nécessite un temps de contact très important alors que pour certains autres, comme ceux de type direct, métal - complexe et disperse, la décoloration est très rapide.

B. Couplage ozone/ultraviolet (O₃/UV)

L’ozone en solution aqueuse absorbe les radiations UV avec un maximum d’adsorption à 253,7 nm (Gogate et Pandit 2004). Cette réaction conduit à la production de radicaux libres qui sont des espèces oxydantes très réactives et efficaces pour éliminer les polluants organiques et bactériens (Zaviska et al. 2009).





Le processus de photolyse de l'ozone devrait être plus efficace dans ces conditions (lampe Hg à basse pression $\lambda = 253,7$ nm) que la photolyse de H_2O_2 (Oturan et al. 2014). C'est pour cette raison que le procédé O_3/UV a été largement appliqué par rapport aux autres procédés d'oxydation dans le traitement des eaux usées pour l'élimination des polluants organiques persistants toxiques, tels que les pesticides et les composés phénoliques (Hutagalung et al. 2020).

C. Photocatalyse hétérogène

La photocatalyse hétérogène est une technologie basée sur l'irradiation d'un catalyseur, en général un semi-conducteur tel que TiO_2 , qui peut être photo-excité pour former des sites électro-donneurs ou électro-accepteurs d'électrons et ainsi induire des réactions d'oxydoréduction (Hazime 2012). En effet, si les photons absorbés possèdent une énergie supérieure au gap d'énergie entre la bande de valence et la bande de conduction, des paires d'électron-trou se créent dans le semi-conducteur (Meng Nan Chong et al. 2010), ce qui correspond au schéma du principe montré dans la Figure 1.3. Ces paires électron-trou peuvent se recombiner pour libérer de la chaleur ou migrer à la surface du semi-conducteur et ainsi réagir avec les espèces adsorbées à la surface. Parmi les différents semi-conducteurs photocatalytiques, le dioxyde de titane (TiO_2) semble particulièrement bien adapté au traitement des eaux, car il est chimiquement et biologiquement inerte, facile à produire et à utiliser, peu coûteux, et actif d'un point de vue photocatalytique (Zaviska et al. 2009).

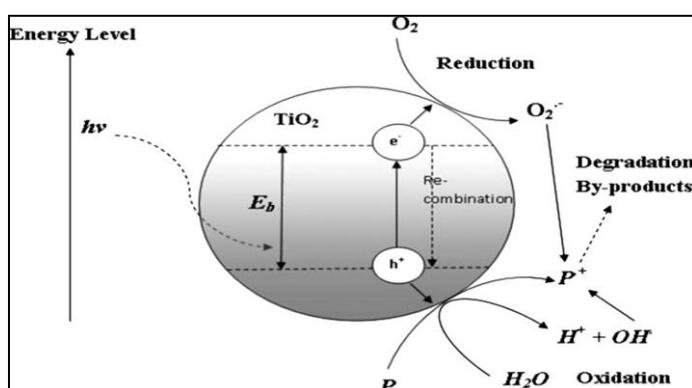


Figure 1.3 : Mécanisme réactionnel à la surface de la particule d'un semi-conducteur TiO_2 (Meng Nan Chong et al. 2010).

Conclusion

Ce chapitre a fait ressortir que les eaux usées industrielles regroupent toutes les eaux qui sont en principe rejetées par l'usine dans le milieu extérieur, après avoir contribué à la fabrication, au nettoyage, au transport et au refroidissement, et que la non-biodégradabilité et la toxicité de ces eaux sont principalement dues à la présence des colorants synthétiques, qui sont utilisés dans de nombreux secteurs industriels. Ces derniers sont difficiles à éliminer par des procédés classiques d'épuration. Pour faire face à ce problème, les procédés d'oxydation avancés (POAs) peuvent se substituer à l'utilisation des techniques d'épuration qui conduisent à une minéralisation partielle ou totale des polluants organiques. Ces procédés ont pour objectif de produire des espèces très réactives, particulièrement le radical hydroxyle ($\bullet\text{OH}$), dont le pouvoir oxydant est supérieur à celui des oxydants conventionnels.

Références

- Achak M, et al (2008) Caractérisation des margines issues d'une huilerie moderne et essais de leur traitement par coagulation-flocculation par la chaux et le sulfate d' aluminium .Revue des sciences de l'eau 21: 53–67. doi: .org/10.7202/017930ar.
- Amor C, et al (2019) Application of advanced oxidation processes for the treatment of recalcitrant agro-industrial wastewater : A Review. Water 205. doi: 10.3390/w11020205.
- Andreozzi R, et al (1999) Advanced oxidation processes (AOP) for water purification and recovery. Catalysis Today.53:51–59.
- Augugliaro V, et al (2007) The combination of heterogeneous photocatalysis with chemical and physical operations : A tool for improving the photoprocess performance. Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology C: Photochemistry Reviews 7:127–144. doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochemrev.2006.12.001.
- Awomeso O (2008) Water and pollution agents in the 21st century. Nature and Science 6: 16–24.
- Azbar N, Yonar T (2004) Comparison of various advanced oxidation processes and chemical treatment methods for COD and color removal from a polyester and acetate fiber dyeing effluent . Chemosphere 55: 35–43. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2003.10.046.
- Bastos Pedro, Maria Antonio Santos, Pedro Jorge Carvalho (2020) Reverse osmosis performance on stripped phenolic sour water treatment A study on the effect of oil and grease and osmotic pressure. Journal of Environmental Management 261: 1–8. doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2020.110229.
- Ben Mansour H, Boughzala O, et al (2013) Les colorants textiles sources de contamination de l'eau : criblage de la toxicité et des méthodes de traitement. journal of Water Science, 24: 209–238. doi: 10.7202/1006453ar.
- Benyahya M, et al (1998) Les virus des eaux usées et leur élimination au cours des traitements des effluents pollués. L'Année Biologique 37 :95–105. doi: org/10.1016/S0003-5017(98)80002-0.
- Berradi M, et al (2016) Review of the pollution of surface water by effluents from the textile finishing industry. Journal of Water Sciences & Environment Technologies Cit 01: 76–82.
- Bouafia S, Alloune R (2007) Procédé d'oxydation avancée pour le traitement des eaux usées : Principe et applications. Revue des Energies Renouvelables: 163–170.

- Calabro V, et al (1990) Experimental study on integrated membrane processes in the treatment of solutions simulating textile effluents . Desalination 78: 257–277.
- Causserand C, Claire A (2017) Filtration membranaire (OI, NF, UF, MF) - Applications en traitement des eaux. Technique de l'ingénieur. <https://www.techniques-ingenieur.fr/traitement-des-effluents-et-des-eaux-residuaires-j2794v2niv10004.html> (Accessed: 28 March 2020).
- David E (2001) Techniques alternatives en vue de subvenir à la pénurie d'eau dans le monde. Qualité et Gestion de l'Eau . <https://www.upicardie.fr/beauchamp/duee/ecosse/ecosse.htm>.
- Ferkous H (2016) Elimination du colorant azoïque bleu noir naphtol dans l'eau par sonochimie et procédés innovants d'oxydation. Badji-Mokhtar Annaba University.
- Ferrandon O, Bouabane H (2001) Influence d'alcools aliphatiques sur l'adsorption d'acides aminés sur charbon actif. Chemistry 4: 879–883.
- Fues D (2020) Colorants. Encyclopædia Universalis. <http://www.universalis.fr/encyclopedie/colorants> (Accessed: 23 March 2020).
- Garrido-cardenas JA , Agüera A (2020) Wastewater treatment by advanced oxidation process and their worldwide research trends. Environmental Research and Public Health 17: 170. doi: doi:10.3390/ijerph17010170.
- Georgiou D, et al (2003) Treatment of cotton textile wastewater using lime and ferrous sulfate.Water Research 37:2248–2250.
- Ghernaout D, Elboughdiri N (2020) Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment : facts and future trends. Open Access Library Journal 7: 1–11. doi: 10.4236/oalib.1106139.
- Gogate PR, Pandit AB (2004) A review of imperative technologies for wastewater treatment II: Hybrid methods. Advances in Environmental Research 8:553–597. doi: 10.1016/S1093-0191(03)00031-5.
- Hartemann P, Montiel A (2003) Pollution des eaux. Encyclopédie Médico-Chirurgicale 1: 1–11. doi: 10.1016/S1155-1925(03)00062-4.
- Hazime (2012) Les espèces actives durant la dégradation photacatalytique. université de lyon.
- Hunger K (2007) Industrial Dyes:Chemistry, Properties, Applications.
- Hutagalung SS, et al (2020) Textile wastewater treatment using advanced oxidation process (AOP).Materials Science and Engineering paper 722: 1–9. doi: 10.1088/1757-899X/722/1/012032.

- Karen A, Hudson E (2018) Water Pollution. The Encyclopedia of Archaeological Sciences : 1-2. doi: 10.1002/9781119188230.
- Lambert et al (1997) Evaluation of inorganic adsorbents for the removal of problematic textile dyes and pesticides. *Water Science and Technology* 36: 173–180. doi: 10.1016/S0273-1223(97)00385-5.
- Lamri Naidja (2010) Elimination du colorant organique en solution aqueuse, par voie photochimique et par adsorption. *Mentouri Constantine*.
- Mazet M, Farkhani B, Baudu M (1994) Influence d'un traitement thermique ou chimique des charbons actifs sur l'adsorption de composés organiques. *Water resource* 28:1609–1617.
- Meghlaoui FZ, et al (2019) Rapid catalytic degradation of refractory textile dyes in Fe(II)/chlorine system at near neutral pH: Radical mechanism involving dichlorine radical anion-mediated transformation pathways and impact of environmental matrices. *Separation and Purification Technology* . doi: 10.1016/j.seppur.2019.115685.
- Meng Nan Chong, Bo Jin , Christopher WK, Chow, Saint C (2010) Recent developments in photocatalytic water treatment technology : A review. *Water Research*. Elsevier 44: 2997–3027. doi: 10.1016/j.watres.2010.02.039.
- Merouani S (2010) Dégradation sonochimique de la Rhodamine B en solutions aqueuses: Effets des ions hydrogénocarbonates et carbonates et des matrices complexes. Université Badj Mokhtar.
- Mohamed A, Odile D, Michel M (1990) Elimination de micropolluants par adsorption sur charbon actif dans l'eau: cas d'un tensioactif non ionique ; influence de co-adsorbats. *Water Research* 24: 699–708. doi: org/10.1016/0043-1354(90)90025-2.
- Muruganandham M, et al (2014) Recent developments in homogeneous advanced oxidation processes for water and wastewater treatment. *International Journal of Photoenergy*: 1–21. doi: .org/10.1155/2014/821674.
- Neira M (2017) Une augmentation majeure des investissements dans l'eau et l'assainissement est nécessaire pour atteindre les cibles en matière de développement. organisation mondiale de la santé . <https://www.who.int/fr/news/item/13-04-2017-radical-increase-in-water-and-sanitation-investment-required-to-meet-development-targets> (Accessed: 26 January 2021).
- Oppelt (1998) Advanced photochemical oxidation processes. *Environmental Protection Agency*. Washington.

- Oturau MA, Aaron J (2014) Advanced oxidation processes in water/wastewater treatment : principles and applications . A Review in Water/Wastewater Treatment : Principles and Applications. *Environmental Science and Technology* 44:1547-6537. doi: 10.1080/10643389.2013.829765.
- Raj Giri R, et al (2007) Synergy of ozonation and photocatalysis to mineralize low concentration 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid in aqueous solution. *Chemosphere* 66 :pp. 1610–1617. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2006.08.007.
- Shu HY (2006) Degradation of dyehouse effluent containing C.I. Direct Blue 199 by processes of ozonation, UV/H₂O₂ and in sequence of ozonation with UV/H₂O₂. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 133: 92–98. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2005.09.056.
- Siva R (2017) In India status of natural dyes and dye-yielding. *Current Science* 92: 916–925. Available at: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24097672>.
- Susan J M , Simon HR (1994) The use of ozonation to degrade organic contamination in wastewaters. *Environ Sci Technol* 28: 180–185.
- Sychev AY, Isak VG (1995) Iron compounds and the mechanisms of the homogeneous catalysis of the activation of O₂ and H₂O₂ and of the oxidation of organic substrates. *Russian Chemical Reviews* 1105:1105–1129.
- Zaviska F, et al (2009) Procédés d'oxydation avancée dans le traitement des eaux et des effluents industriels: Application à la dégradation des polluants réfractaires. *Revue des sciences de l'eau* 22: 535. doi: 10.7202/038330ar.

CHAPITRE II

TECHNIQUES EXPERIMENTALES

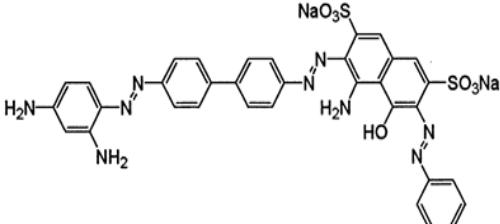
Dans ce chapitre, nous présentons les produits et les réactifs utilisés, le montage expérimental adopté ainsi que les procédures expérimentales et analytique suivies.

2.1. Réactifs

2.1.1. Noir chlorazol

Le noir chlorazol (abréviation : NC, produit de Sigma-Aldrich) est le polluant modèle dans ce travail de thèse. C'est un colorant très soluble dans l'eau (solubilité : 781,73 g/L), largement utilisé pour diverses applications telles que la teinture des tissus, du cuir, du coton, des matériaux cellulosiques et du plastique (Pohanish 2012). Ce produit chimique est irritant pour les yeux et sa toxicité est modérée par inhalation et ingestion (Lewis 2008). Les effets cancérogènes et mutagènes du NC sur l'homme et l'animal ont été confirmés expérimentalement (Lewis 2008). Les propriétés physiques et chimiques principales de ce colorant sont données dans le Tableau 2.1.

Tableau 2.1 : Caractéristiques physiques et chimiques du noir chlorazol.

Numéro de CAS	1937-37-7
Numéro C.I.	30235
Nom UPAC	Sel disodique de l'acide 4-Amino-3-[[4'-[[2,4-diaminophényl]azo][1,1'biphényl]-4-yl]azo]-5-hydroxy-6-(phénylazo)-2,7-naphtalènedisulfonique)
Formule moléculaire	C ₃₄ H ₂₅ N ₉ Na ₂ O ₇ S ₂
Structure Chimique	
Masse molaire	781,7 g mole ⁻¹
Longueur d'onde d'absorption maximale (λ_{max})	578 nm

Le NC est très stable à la lumière solaire. De plus, des tests de dégradation du NC (C_0 : 20 mg L⁻¹, 25.5 µM) par des oxydant forts comme l’H₂O₂ ($E^\circ = 1.78$ V), le S₂O₈²⁻ ($E^\circ = 2.07$ V) et le IO₄⁻ ($E^\circ = 1.4$ V) ont été conduits dans l’eau distillé à 25 °C et à pH 3. Les résultats obtenus n’ont montré aucun changement de l’absorbance du colorant à λ_{max} pendant 1 heure sous agitation magnétique à 300 tr min⁻¹, ce qui montre que ce colorant est très persistant envers l’oxydation directe même avec des oxydants forts.

2.1.2. Autres réactifs

Les réactifs cités ci-dessous ont été employés sans aucune purification préalable.

- **Oxydants**

- ✓ Persulfate de potasodium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire: K₂S₂O₈; poids moléculaire : 270 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Periodate de sodium (pureté >99 % ; formule moléculaire:NaIO₄ ; poids moléculaire : 213,89 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.

- **Additifs organiques**

- ✓ Acétone (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₃H₆O; poids moléculaire : 58,08 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Propanol-2 (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₃H₈O; poids moléculaire : 60,1 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Tert-butanol (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire: C₄H₁₀O; poids moléculaire 74,12 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Phénol (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₆H₅OH ; poids moléculaire : 94,11 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Saccharose (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₁₂H₂₂O₁₁; poids moléculaire : 342,3 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Glucose (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₆H₁₂O₆ ; poids moléculaire : 180,156 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Acide acétique (pureté 99% ; formule moléculaire : C₂H₄O₂; poids moléculaire : 60.05 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Acide formique (pureté 99% ; formule moléculaire : HCOOH; poids moléculaire : 46 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Acide ascorbique (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : C₆H₈O₆; poids moléculaire : 176,12 g mole⁻¹), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.



• Additifs minéraux

- ✓ Nitrite de sodium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : NaNO_2 ; poids moléculaire : $68,99 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Chlorure de sodium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : NaCl ; poids moléculaire : $58,44 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Sulfate de sodium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : Na_2SO_4 ; poids moléculaire : $142,04 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Bicarbonate de sodium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : NaHCO_3 ; poids moléculaire : 84 g mole^{-1}), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Nitrate de sodium (pureté 98% ; formule moléculaire : NaNO_3 ; poids moléculaire : $84,99 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Carbonate de sodium (pureté 96 % ; formule moléculaire : Na_2CO_3 ; poids moléculaire : $105,98 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Bromure de potassium (pureté 99 % ; formule moléculaire : KBr ; poids moléculaire : 119 g mole^{-1}), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.

• Tensioactifs

- ✓ Triton X-100 (pureté > 99% ; formule moléculaire : $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O})_n$, poids moléculaire : $624,8232 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Tween 20 (pureté > 99% ; formule moléculaire : $\text{C}_{58}\text{H}_{114}\text{O}_{26}$, poids moléculaire : $1\,227,54 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Tween 80 (pureté > 99%; formule moléculaire : $\text{C}_{64}\text{H}_{124}\text{O}_{26}$, poids moléculaire : 1310 g mole^{-1}), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Dodécylsulfate de sodium « DSS » (pureté > 99% ; formule moléculaire : $\text{NaC}_{12}\text{H}_{25}\text{SO}_4$, poids moléculaire : $288,372 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.
- ✓ Adogen 464 (pureté > 99% ; poids moléculaire : $1338,73 \text{ g mole}^{-1}$), produit par Sigma-Aldrich.

Les concentrations des tensioactifs ont été sélectionnées de façon à ne pas dépasser leurs concentrations micellaires critiques (CMC) portées dans le Tableau 2.2

• Gaz de saturation

- ✓ Air atmosphérique.
- ✓ Oxygène, O_2 .
- ✓ Azote, N_2 .
- ✓ Argon, Ar .

- ✓ Dioxyde de carbon, CO₂.

- **Matrices**

- ✓ Eau distillée.
- ✓ Eau de mer de la Méditerranée, collectée au nord-est de l'Algérie (Annaba) à l'automne de 2018. Sa salinité est de ~ 35,7 g L⁻¹, distribuée comme suit : Na⁺ ≈ 11 g L⁻¹, Mg²⁺ = 1,3 g L⁻¹, Ca²⁺ ≈ 0,4 g L⁻¹, Cl⁻ ≈ 20 g L⁻¹ et SO₄²⁻ = 3 g L⁻¹.
- ✓ Eau naturelle minérale : pH 7.2, Ca²⁺ = 81 mg/L, Mg²⁺ = 24 mg/L, Na⁺ = 15.8 mg/L, Cl⁻ = 72 mg/L (2 mM), SO₄²⁻ = 53 mg/L (0.55 mM), HCO₃⁻ = 265 mg/L (4.34 mM).
- ✓ Eau d'une station d'épuration (STEP) : pH 7,6, Salinity = 0.8 g/L, DBO₅ = 13 mg/L.

Tableau 2.2 : Concentrations micellaires critiques des tensioactifs employés

Tensioactif	Caractère	Masse molaire (g/mol)	CMC (mM)
Triton X-100	Non-ionic	625	0.29–0.3 (Mandal et al. 1988)
DSS	anionic	288.37	8–8.27 (Mandal et al. 1988)
TWEEN 20	Non-ionic	1228	0.049–0.06 (Sigma-Aldrich)
TWEEN 80	Non-ionic	1310	(1.53-1.68)×10 ⁻² (Mandal et al. 1988)
ADOGEN 464	cationic	1338.735	0.8–0.9 (Mallick et al. 2016)

2.2. Appareillages et méthodologie de travail

2.2.1. Montage expérimental

Le montage expérimental est présenté sur la Figure 2.1. Il consiste d'un réacteur à double enveloppe en verre d'un volume total de 500 mL. Le milieu du réacteur est équipé d'un tube en quartz dans lequel une lampe à vapeur de mercure à basse pression (Oriel 6035, 15 m Wcm⁻¹, émission maximale à 253,7 nm) est placée verticalement. La température de la solution a été maintenue constante par recirculation d'eau, provenant d'un thermo-cryostat (RC6 Lauda), dans la double enveloppe. Pour l'affichage de la température, un thermocouple a été plongé dans la solution à traiter. Le pH des solutions a été mesuré à l'aide d'un pH mètre Jenway 3505.

2.2.2. Analyse

Toutes les analyses des concentrations ont été effectuées à l'aide d'un spectrophotomètre UV-Vis JASCO V-730, piloté par ordinateur à l'aide du logiciel

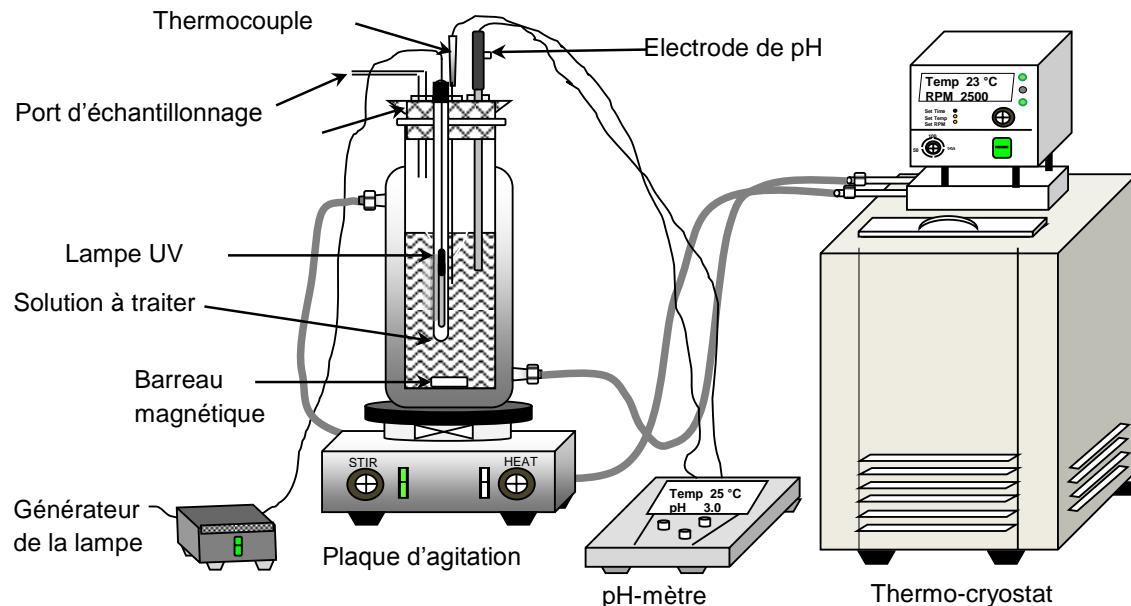


Figure 2.1 : Schéma du montage expérimental.

SpectraManager. Ce spectrophotomètre à double faisceau dispose une gamme large de longueurs d'onde de 190 à 1100 nm. Deux cuvettes en quartz, l'une pour le solvant témoin et l'autre pour l'échantillon, ont été utilisées pour les analyses.

2.2.3. Méthodologie de travail

Toutes les solutions de réactifs ont été préparées dans l'eau distillée. Des solutions mères de NC (500 mg/L), de périodate (50 mM) et de persulfate (50 mM) ont été préparées et conservé dans un réfrigérateur à 4°C. Des dilutions appropriées ont été ensuite faites pour préparer des solutions avec des concentrations opératoires.

La longueur d'onde d'absorption maximale du colorant ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 578 \text{ nm}$) a été déterminée à l'aide d'un balayage spectral (200–800 nm) d'une solution de NC de 20 mg L⁻¹ à pH naturel (Figure 2.2(a)). Il est à noter que la valeur de λ_{max} et l'absorbance correspondante sont indépendantes du pH et de la nature de la matrice (eau distillée ou eau de mer) dans intervalle de pH 2 à 11. La courbe d'étalonnage, portée sur la Figure 2.2(b), a été établie pour l'eau distillée à $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 578 \text{ nm}$.

Les expériences photochimiques ont été réalisées avec un volume de 250 mL. Pendant la photolyse le réacteur a été ouvert à l'air. Le pH de la solution a été ajusté par ajout de NaOH ou H₂SO₄ (0.1 M). Une agitation magnétique modérée (300 tr min⁻¹) de la solution a été assurée à l'aide d'un barreau magnétique. Des échantillons ont été prélevés

périodiquement pour suivre spectrophotométriquement la concentration du colorant au cours de la dégradation.

Pendant les expériences examinant l'influence des gaz dissous (argon, air, N₂ et CO₂), le gaz a été injecté en continu (100 mL/min) au fond de la solution à l'aide d'un diffuseur en inox afin de générer des bulles de très fines tailles. L'injection du gaz commence 10 min avant la photolyse et continue jusqu'à la fin de l'expérience.

Toutes les expériences ont été répétées au moins trois fois et les valeurs moyennes ont été rapportées sur les figures (les barres d'erreur insérées indiquent des intervalles de confiance de 95%).

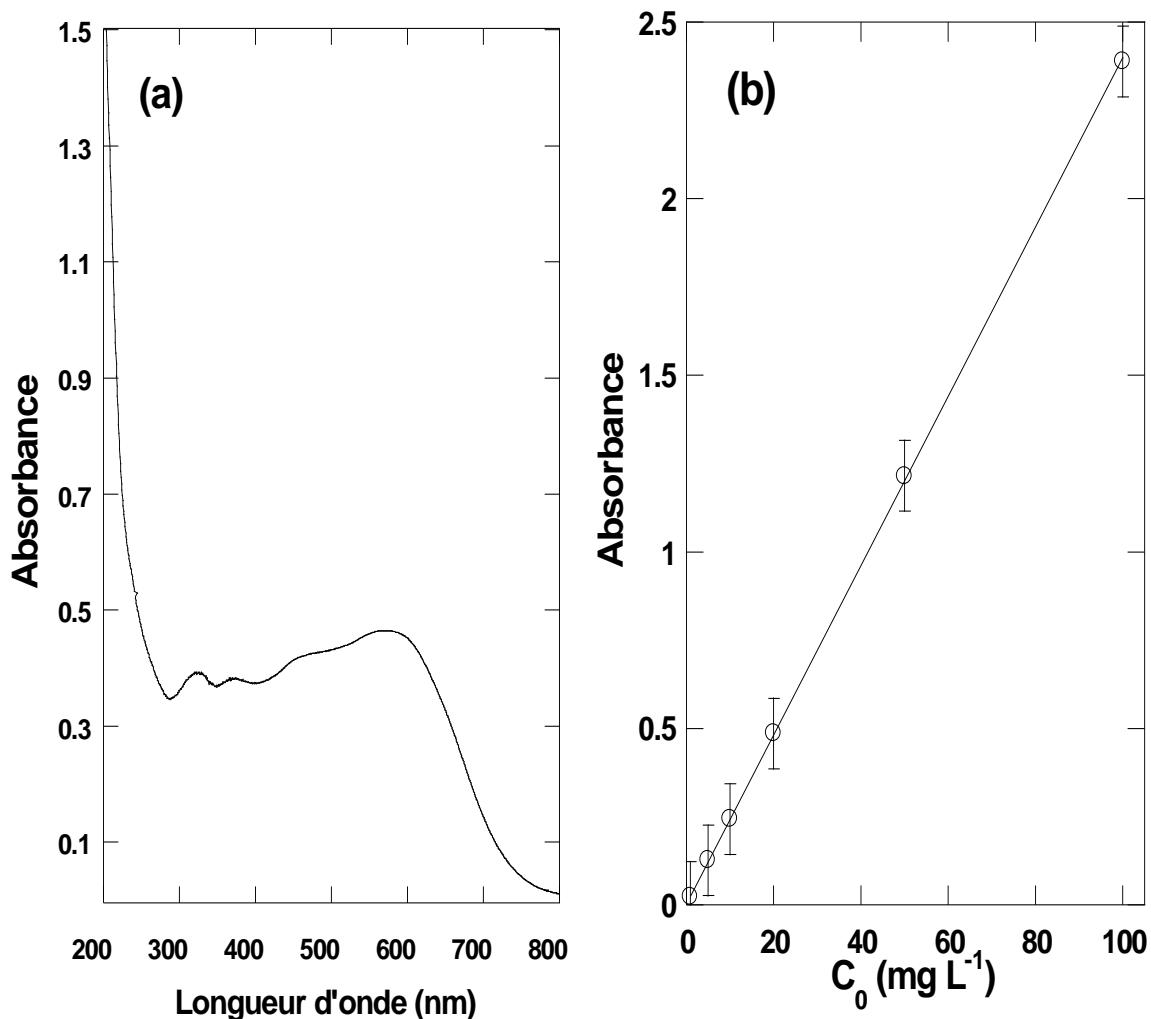


Figure 2.2 : Spectre d'absorption UV-visible (a) et courbe d'étalonnage (b) du NC en solutions aqueuses [$C_0 = 20 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ pour (a) et $1\text{-}100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ pour (b), pH ~ 6]. Le pH entre 2 et 11 n'a aucune influence sur λ_{\max} .

Références

- Lewis RJ (2008) Hazardous chemicals desk reference. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New Jersey
- Mallick S, Pal K, Koner AL (2016) Probing microenvironment of micelle and albumin using diethyl 6-(dimethylamino)naphthalene-2,3-dicarboxylate: An electroneutral solvatochromic fluorescent probe. *J Colloid Interface Sci* 467:81–89. doi: 10.1016/j.jcis.2015.12.022
- Mandal BU, Nair D, Ramaswamy AB (1988) Determination of the critical micelle concentration of surfactants and the partition coefficient of an electrochemical probe by using cyclic voltammetry. *Langmuir* 4:736.
- Pohanish R (2012) Sittig's handbook of toxic and hazardous chemicals and carcinogens. Elsevier, UK.
- SigmaAldrich. https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/content/dam/sigmaaldrich/docs/Sigma/Product_Information_Sheet/1/p5927pis.pdf.

CHAPITRE III

APPLICATION DU PROCEDE UV/ACETONE POUR LA DEGRADATION DU NOIR CHLORAZOL EN SOLUTIONS AQUEUSES : RÔLE DES RADICAUX METHYLES ($\text{CH}_3\cdot$) ET INFLUENCE DES MATRICES NATURELLES^{1,2,3}

Introduction

Pour réduire les risques environnementaux liés aux polluants organiques, il est important de contrôler leurs sources. Les composés organiques dangereux et toxiques présents dans les effluents d'eaux usées industrielles ou domestiques doivent être éliminés ou détruits à un niveau acceptable avant d'être rejetés dans les milieux récepteurs. Les méthodes de traitement basées sur les radicaux libres sont parmi les techniques les plus efficaces pour l'oxydation rapide et non sélective d'une large gamme de polluants organiques (Tarr 2003; Parsons 2004). Les procédés UV/ H_2O_2 , UV/ TiO_2 , UV/persulfate, UV/périodate, Réaction de Fenton et Fe(II)/persulfate génèrent des radicaux hydroxyle ($\cdot\text{OH}$), sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$) et iodine ($\text{IO}_3^{\bullet-}$), et ils sont classés comme des procédés d'oxydation avancés (POAs) (Gogate and Pandit 2004; Tsitonaki et al. 2010; Asghar et al. 2015; Ribeiro et al. 2015). Ces radicaux peuvent oxyder les polluants organiques avec des constantes de réaction élevées $\sim 10^8\text{--}10^{11}\text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al. 1988; Neta et al. 1988; Chia et al. 2004; Wang and Xu 2012). Les composés organiques sont détruits par les POAs en dioxyde de carbone, en eau et en simples acides minéraux ou ions inorganiques.

La recherche d'autres radicaux générés par de nouveaux procédés POAs plus facile à mettre en œuvre et moins couteux continue à faire l'objet d'un grand intérêt actuellement par de nombreux chercheurs ; ainsi, récemment, la photoactivation de l'acétone par

¹ Bendjama H, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhellassa M (2019), UV-photolysis of Chlorazol Black in aqueous media: Process intensification using acetone and evidence of methyl radical implication in the degradation process. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology A: Chemistry* 368:268–275. doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochem.2018.09.047, Journal impact factor: 3,261.

² Bendjama H, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhellassa M (2019), Using photoactivated acetone for the degradation of Chlorazol Black in aqueous solutions: Impact of mineral and organic additives. *Science of The Total Environment* 653:833–838. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.007, Journal impact factor: 5,589.

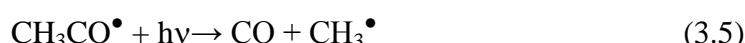
³ Bendjama H, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhellassa M (2019), Acetone photoactivated process: application to the degradation of refractory organic pollutants in very saline waters. *Water and Environment Journal*, in press, doi: 10.1111/wej.12507. Journal impact factor: 1,178.

irradiation UV à 254 nm a constitué une nouvelle approche pour l'élimination des composés organiques (Chu and Tsiu 2001; Banat et al. 2005; Fassi et al. 2012). Les études qui se sont intéressées à ce thème, à travers la bibliographie, sont très limitées , en effet, seule la dégradation de quelques colorants et de la méthionine en phase aqueuse a été mentionnée (Chu and Tsiu 2001; Banat et al. 2005; Fassi et al. 2012). Le mécanisme de dégradation proposé par ces études est un procédé de photosensibilisation. L'acétone a une énergie très élevée à l'état triplet (79-82 kcal/mol) (Wei and Tsui 1999). Après que l'acétone est excitée par la lumière UV, une collision entre l'acétone triplet ($\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}_3^*$) et la molécule de substrat (S) s'accomplit un transfert d'énergie, ce qui entraîne la destruction du substrat, comme indiqué dans les Equations 3.1 - 3.3.



Selon le mécanisme ci-dessus, le sensibilisateur (l'acétone) pourrait être régénéré une fois le transfert d'énergie terminé, rendant possible son recyclage sans aucune perte (Wei and Tsui 1999). Cependant, certains études ont montré que l'irradiation à 253,7–270 nm décompose efficacement l'acétone en solution aqueuse (Pieck and Steacie 1955; Anpo and Kubokawa 1977); cette observation est en forte contradiction avec le processus de sensibilisation, en particulier lorsque l'on sait que l'énergie de la lumière à 253,7 nm (~ 113 kcal) est suffisamment élevée pour permettre la rupture d'une liaison C–C de la molécule d'acétone (70 kcal) (Davis 1947).

D'autre part, la photochimie de l'acétone (190-300 nm) en phases liquide et gazeux a été étudiée par de nombreux chercheurs depuis plus de 50 ans (Damon and Daniels 1933; Feldman et al. 1945; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie 1950; Ridge and Steacie 1954; Pieck and Steacie 1955; Matsuura et al. 1969). Les travaux les plus intéressants sur la photolyse de l'acétone en phase gazeuse ont été revus par Davis (1947). Le mécanisme et les produits de la photolyse des vapeurs d'acétone ont été bien établis. Le méthane (CH_4), l'éthane (C_2H_6) et le monoxyde de carbone (CO) ont été identifiés par plusieurs auteurs (Damon and Daniels 1933; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie 1950; Ridge and Steacie 1954; Pieck and Steacie 1955; Matsuura et al. 1969) et le schéma suivant, dans lequel le radical méthyle joue un rôle clé, a été convenu :





Les données disponibles indiquent clairement que la décomposition photochimique de l'acétone se fait principalement par un mécanisme radicalaire (McNesby et al. 1953). L'effet de plusieurs paramètres opératoires tels que la pression de l'acétone, la température et l'addition de gaz externes sur les rendements des produits de la photolyse (CO, C₂H₆ et CH₄) indique que le procédé est très sensible aux paramètres opératoires (Davis 1947). Par exemple, le rendement des produits augmente considérablement avec l'augmentation de la pression et de la température de l'acétone (Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie 1950; Darwent and Allard 1960). En parallèle, Pieck et Steacie (1955) ont étudié la photolyse de l'acétone en phase liquide à 253,7 nm dans laquelle les produits gazeux de la réaction ont été identifiés à différentes températures du liquide. Les mêmes produits que celle de la photolyse en phase gazeuse ont été détectés, et un comportement similaire des rendements des produits par rapport à la température a été observé, ce qui a conduit les auteurs à suggérer que le radical méthyle peut être généré et réagir de manière identique que celle rapporté pour la phase gazeuse. Les auteurs ont également fait des expériences avec des mélanges acétone-eau et ont démontré que l'eau agit essentiellement comme solvant inerte (les produits de la phase gazeuse sont les mêmes) et que la réaction :



ne peut pas se produire, car l'énergie de dissociation de la liaison H–OH est élevée (~ 118 kcal) par rapport à celle de l'irradiation UV à 253,7 nm (~ 113 kcal).

En tenant compte de l'analyse ci-dessus, l'oxydation par voie radicalaire, via le radical méthyle, peut être alors une alternative potentielle au processus de photosensibilisation pour la dégradation des polluants organiques par le procédé UV/acétone. Cette approche peut d'ailleurs être confirmé par le fait que le radical CH₃[•] est très réactif envers certains composés en solutions aqueuses (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968; Turkevich et al. 1972). Tout comme le cas du radical •OH, le radical méthyle peut réagir avec les substrats organiques par addition ou abstraction d'atome (Macken and Sidebottom 1952; Christie 1959; Laufer and Bass 1975; Arican and Arthur 1983).

Ainsi, et afin de contribuer à l'approfondissement des connaissances du procédé UV/acétone, utilisant l'acétone comme agent photosensibilisateur, notre étude a été axée les objectifs principaux suivants :

- (i) Explorer, en mode batch, l'effet de l'acétone sur la photodégradation d'un colorant azoïque très persistant, le noir chlorazol (NC), et élucider le mécanisme d'accélération de la dégradation par l'addition de l'acétone.
- (ii) Examiner l'influence des différents paramètres opératoires sur l'efficacité de dégradation du NC, en mettant un accent spécial sur l'effet des gaz de saturation.
- (iii) Etudier, pour la première fois à notre connaissance :
 - Les effets de plusieurs additifs minéraux et organiques sur la performance du procédé UV/acétone.
 - L'efficacité du procédé UV/acétone, dans des matrices naturelles telles que l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer.

3.1. Résultats et discussion

3.1.1. Dégradation du NC par les procédés UV et UV/Acétone

La Figure 3.1 montre la dégradation du NC (20 mg/L) en fonction du temps sous irradiation UV en l'absence et en présence d'acétone à différentes concentrations (0-500 mM) et à pH ~ 7. 35 % du NC sont éliminés après 30 minutes en présence de rayonnements UV seuls. En revanche, une augmentation rapide du taux de dégradation est observée en présence d'acétone. La vitesse de dégradation augmente avec l'augmentation de la concentration de l'acétone jusqu'à 50 mM, cependant aucune amélioration n'est observée pour des concentrations supérieures (> 50 mM). Des taux d'éliminations importantes, 70 %, 92 % et 98 % ont été enregistrées après 30 minutes pour 10, 30 et 50 mM d'acétone, respectivement. Par ailleurs, et dans le même ordre la vitesse initiale de dégradation est multiplié par 1,75, 5,46 et 5,8 fois, par rapport celle obtenue avec des rayonnements UV seules. Il est important de mentionner ici qu'il n'y a pas eu d'élimination du NC en présence d'acétone seule et dans l'obscurité. Toutes ces observations sont en accords à celles de quelques études rapportées dans la littérature (Gennari and Jori 1970; Wei and Tsui 1999; Chu and Tsiu 2001; Fassi et al. 2012).

L'effet insignifiant de l'acétone pour des concentrations supérieures à 50 mM suggère que la dégradation du NC par le système UV/acétone à un comportement similaire à celui de plusieurs POAs. Par exemple, pour les systèmes UV/H₂O₂ et UV/S₂O₈²⁻, les radicaux produits •OH ou SO₄^{•-} réagissent avec l'excès de H₂O₂ (ou S₂O₈²⁻) au-delà d'une certaine concentration et la cinétique de dégradation du substrat se trouve ralentie (Hu et al. 2008; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui 2010; Yoon et al. 2011; Ghodbane et al. 2017).

En outre, Il est important de souligner qu'au cours de la dégradation, le pH de la solution a progressivement diminué de 7 à ~ 4, ce qui laisse suggérer que des acides aliphatiques (composés photo-stables) (Makoś et al. 2017, 2018) et du CO₂ pourraient être les principaux produits résultant de la dégradation du NC par le système UV/acétone.

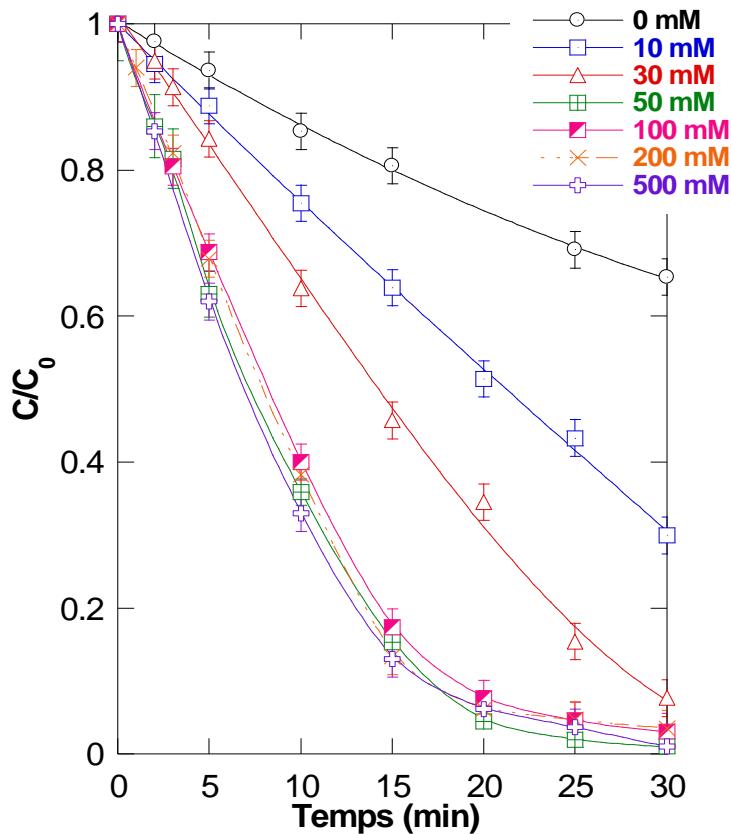


Figure 3.1 : Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV et UV/acétone, pour plusieurs concentrations d'acétone (conditions – volume : 250 mL, [NC]₀: 20 mg/L (25,5 µM), [Acétone]₀ : 10-500 mM, pH ~ 7, température: 25 ± 1°C).

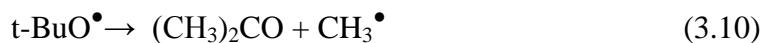
3.1.2. Mécanisme d'intensification de la photodégradation par l'acétone

Comme nous l'avons déjà indiqué dans l'introduction, la photolyse de l'acétone peut améliorer la dégradation des polluants à travers deux scénarios :

- (i) l'implication du radical méthyle.
- (ii) la photosensibilisation.

Afin d'apprécier la contribution de chaque scénario dans la dégradation du NC, la technique de piégeage chimique a été adoptée. Turkevich et ses collaborateurs (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968; Turkevich et al. 1972) ont étudié, par spectroscopie de résonance paramagnétique électronique (RPE), la cinétique de production des radicaux méthyle en solutions aqueuses utilisant le système chlorure de titane (III)/ hydroxyde de *tert*-butyle (t-

BuOH) (Equations 3.9 et 3.10). Ils ont montré que la désintégration du radical méthyle est de pseudo-seconde ordre avec une constante de réaction de $2,2 \cdot 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968). Lorsque du nitrite est ajouté dans le système réactionnel, l'intensité de la chimiluminescence du radical méthyle est réduite à zéro pour une concentration inférieure à 0,5 mM de NO_2^- , indiquant que le NO_2^- est un piégeur efficace du radical CH_3^\bullet (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968). De plus, lorsque la solution de t-BuOH est saturée en O_2 , l'intensité des pics de CH_3^\bullet tombe à zéro (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968; Turkevich et al. 1972); l'oxygène est également un agent piégeur (oxydant) du radical méthyle (Equation 3.11, $k_{11} = 7,04 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ pour une réaction en phase gazeuse (Laufer and Bass 1975)) (Dever and Calvert 1962; Mickewich and Turkevich 1968; Turkevich et al. 1972; Laufer and Bass 1975; Parkes 1977).



Ainsi, en se basant sur les résultats intéressants de Turkevich et ses collaborateurs (Mickewich and Turkevich 1968; Turkevich et al. 1972), si le radical méthyle est un participant majeur dans la dégradation du NC lors du traitement par UV/acétone, nous devrions pouvoir supprimer l'effet bénéfique de l'acétone sur la vitesse de dégradation en saturant la solution par l'oxygène ou en ajoutant du nitrite. La Figure 3.2 montre l'effet de ces deux agents sur la dégradation du NC par UV en présence de 50 mM d'acétone.

La saturation en O_2 a complètement inhibé l'effet positif de l'acétone (Figure 3.2(a)). Il est à noter que la photodégradation seule, sans acétone, sous atmosphère d' O_2 ou d'air a montré la même courbe de dégradation. Cette courbe est mentionnée par 'UV' sur la Figure 3.2. De même, plus de 80% de l'effet bénéfique de l'acétone a été réduit avec 0,1 mM de nitrite alors qu'avec 1 à 100 mM, l'effet de l'acétone a été complètement supprimé et la dégradation devient identique à celle obtenue par UV seule (Figure 3.2(b)). Par conséquent, le mécanisme principal de destruction du NC par le système UV/acétone est l'oxydation chimique par les radicaux méthyles. Ce mécanisme est proposé et confirmé ici pour la première fois. Il est également important d'indiquer que le nitrite est un photosensibilisateur qui est habituellement utilisé pour améliorer la dégradation photolytique des polluants (Mack and Bolton 1999; Kim et al. 2014).

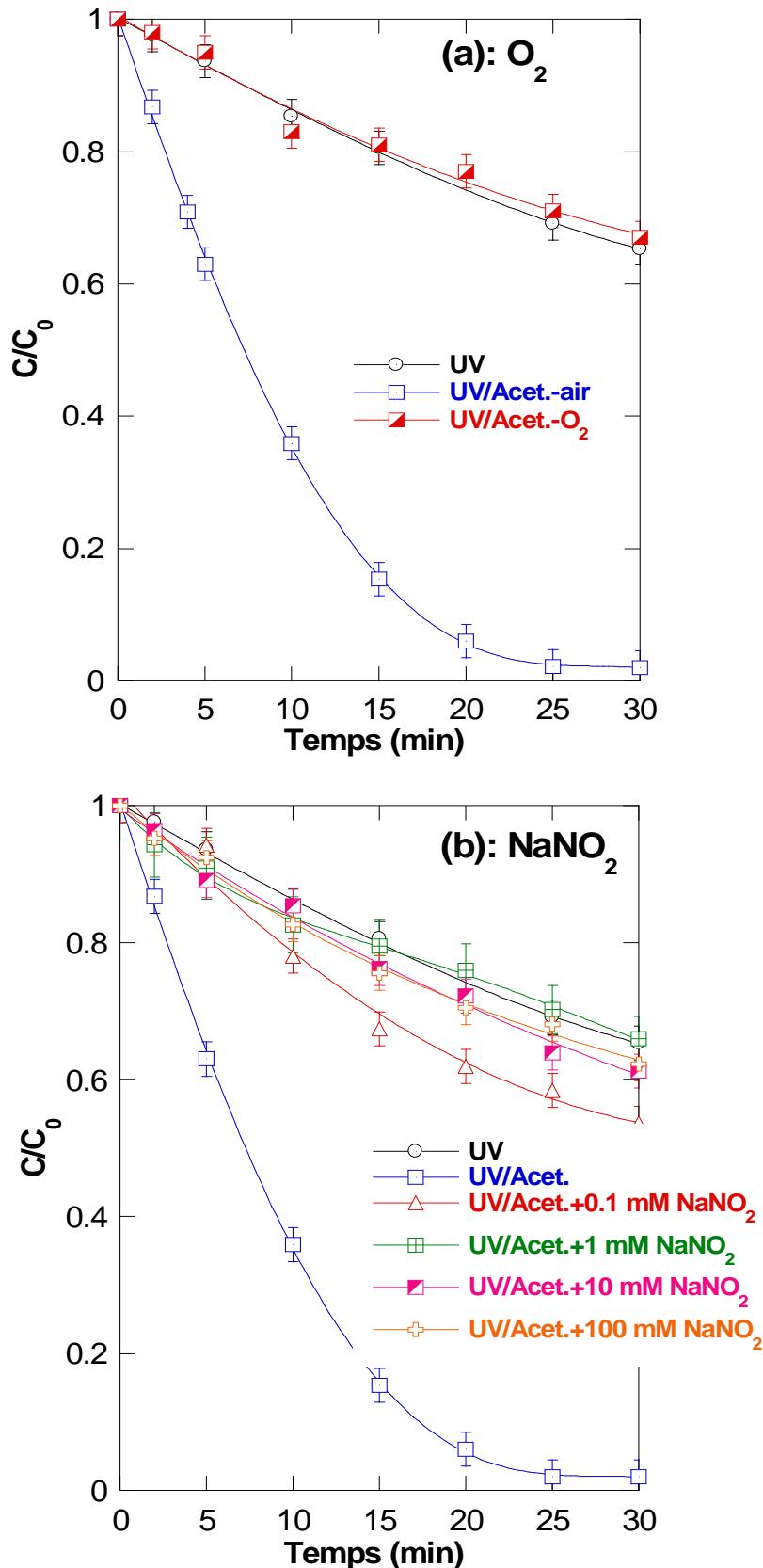


Figure 3.2 : Effet de l'oxygène (a) et de NaNO_2 (b) sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[\text{NC}]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μM), [Acétone]₀ : 50 mM, $[\text{NaNO}_2]_0 = 0,1\text{-}100 \text{ mM}$, pH ~ 7 , température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Cependant, en présence d'acétone, il agit principalement comme piégeur, même s'il est présent avec des concentrations élevées, comme le montre la Figure 3.2(b). Une autre observation importante que l'on peut tirer est que, lorsque la réaction entre NO_2^- et CH_3^\bullet est sous la forme $\text{CH}_3^\bullet + \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow$ produits, la concentration du radical méthyle impliquée dans la dégradation du NC est entre 0,1 et 1 mM, car le nitrite au-dessus de 1 mM n'a aucun effet supplémentaire sur le l'efficacité d'élimination du NC (Figure 3.2(b)). Plus précisément, en utilisant la stoechiométrie de l'Equation 3.11, la concentration des radicaux méthyles est d'environ 0,256 mM, telle que calculée à partir de l'effet inhibiteur de l'oxygène O_2 (Figure 3.2(a)), en considérant que la concentration en oxygène dans l'eau est de ~ 8,2 mg/L à 25°C (Truesdale et al. 1955).

Selon l'Equation 3.8, le radical méthyle peut subir une hydrolyse dans l'eau pour former le radical hydroxyle. Pour vérifier la non-implication du radical hydroxyle dans le processus d'oxydation induit par le système UV/acétone, des expériences supplémentaires ont été effectuées avec le propanol 2, qu'est un piégeur connu des radicaux $^\bullet\text{OH}$ ($k_{\bullet\text{OH}} = 1,9 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Comme l'indique la Figure 3.3, la présence de propanol 2 même avec des concentrations élevées (1-100 mM) n'a pratiquement pas altéré l'effet améliorant de l'acétone sur la photodégradation du NC, ce qui confirme la non occurrence de la Réaction 3.8. De ce fait, le radical $^\bullet\text{OH}$ n'est pas impliqué dans le procédé UV/acétone.

Après avoir déterminé le mécanisme de dégradation, les résultats de la Figure 3.1 peuvent être expliqués comme suit : la génération des radicaux méthyles à partir de la photolyse de l'acétone pourrait être plus importante en augmentant la concentration initiale de l'acétone jusqu'à 50 mM, accélérant la vitesse de dégradation du NC. Cependant, la diminution de l'effet positif de l'acétone au-dessus de 50 mM peut être attribuée au captage des radicaux CH_3^\bullet par l'excès d'acétone (Réaction 3.6). L'effet négatif causé par l'excès d'acétone, peut aussi dû à une génération élevée de radicaux méthyles, dont l'auto-recombinaison via la Réaction 3.7 inhibe la dégradation tout en favorisant la réaction radical-radical au lieu de la réaction $\text{CH}_3^\bullet -$ polluant. Une situation similaire a été rapportée pour la dégradation du périodate photoactivé dans l'eau de mer (Bendjama et al. 2018).

3.1.3. Effet de la température du liquide

La Figure 3.4 montre que l'effet positif de l'acétone envers la photodégradation du NC devient de plus en plus important lorsque la température du liquide augmente dans l'intervalle de 25 à 65 °C. Après 5 min de traitement, le taux d'élimination du colorant augmente de 37 % pour 25 °C à 47 %, 61 %, 89 % et 93 % pour 35, 45, 55 et 65 °C,

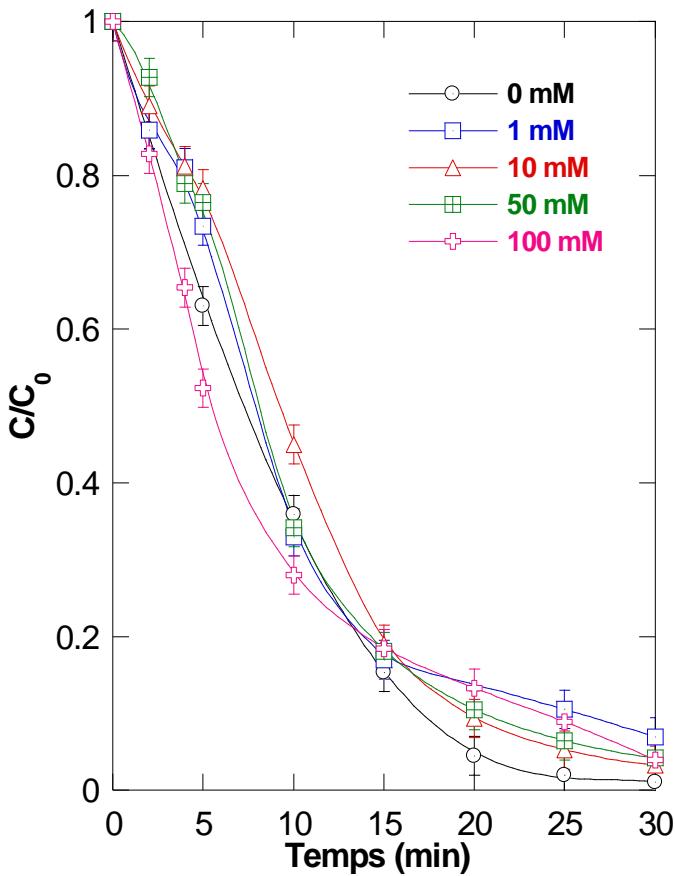


Figure 3.3 : Effet du propanol 2 sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, $[propanol\ 2]_0$ = 1-100 mM, pH ~ 7, température: 25 ± 1 °C).

respectivement, avec facteur d'augmentation correspondante de 1,27, 1,66, 2,4 et 3 de la vitesse initiale de dégradation. Les données disponibles sur la photolyse de l'acétone en phase gazeuse et en phase liquide ont montré que les rendements en méthane et en éthane augmentent de façon significative avec l'augmentation de température (Damon and Daniels 1933; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie 1950; Ridge and Steacie 1954; Pieck and Steacie 1955; Matsuura et al. 1969). Comme le mécanisme de formation de ces deux produits dépend principalement du radical méthyle, comme l'illustre les Equations 3.6 et 3.7, il est donc légitime d'en déduire que des concentrations élevées de CH_3^\bullet sont générées par l'augmentation de la température (Davis 1947). Par conséquent, l'effet intensifiant de l'acétone est favorisé lorsque la température de la solution augmente (Figure 3.4), la cause principale est une vitesse de production des radicaux CH_3^\bullet , induisant une augmentation de la vitesse de dégradation du NC. Il est à noter que la photolyse seul du NC (sans acétone), n'a pas été affectée par la température dans l'intervalle 25-65 °C, comme le montre les graphes insérés dans la Figure 3.4

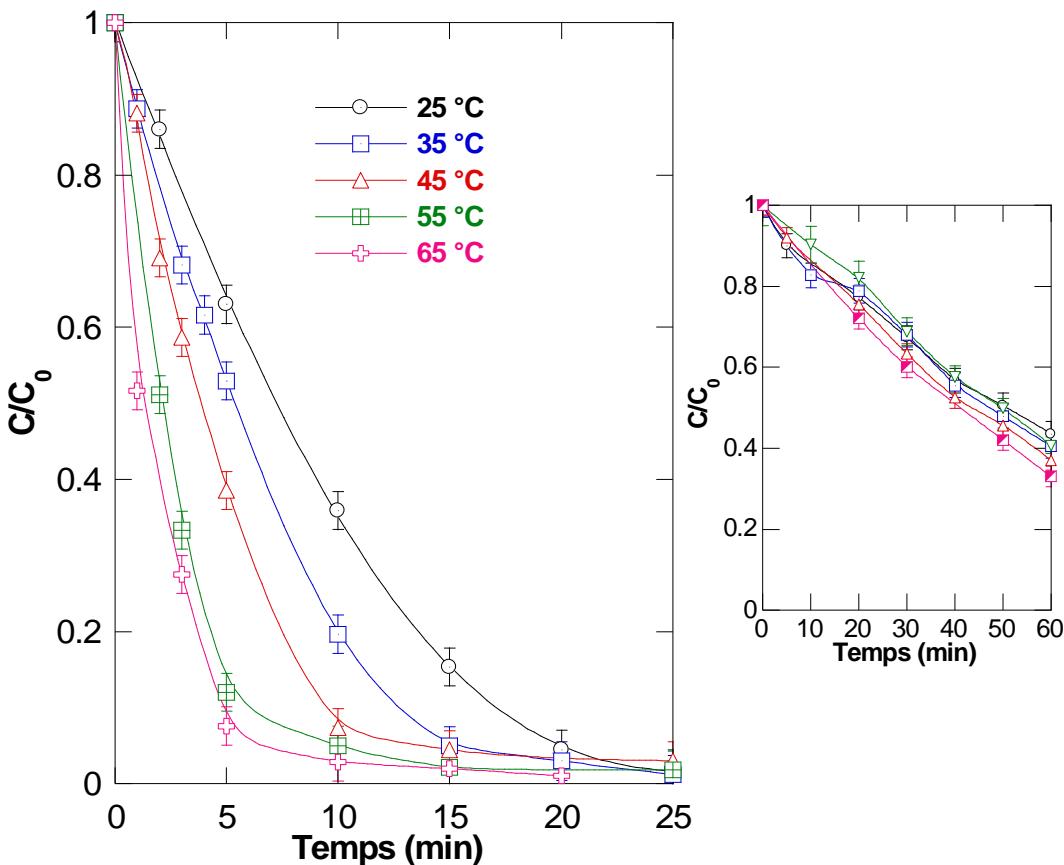


Figure 3.4 : Effet de la température sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, pH ~ 7, température: 25-65 °C). La Figure insérée présente l'effet de la température sur la photolyse seule du NC (sans acétone).

3.1.4. Effet du pH initial

La Figure 3.5 montre l'effet du pH initial de la solution sur la dégradation du NC (20 mg/L) à 25 °C par le procédé UV/acétone (50 mM). Le taux d'élimination du colorant n'est pas affecté par l'augmentation du pH de 3 à 9, ce qui est en accord avec les résultats de Chu et Tsiu (2001) qui ont étudié la dégradation du colorant disperse orange 11. Cependant, des améliorations relativement faibles ont été observées aux pH 11 et 13. Ce comportement était exactement similaire à celui obtenu sous irradiation UV seul (voire la Figure insérée dans la Figure 3.5), ce qui signifie que le procédé UV/acétone n'a pas un comportement particulier par rapport au caractère acido-basique du milieu. En effet, le pKa de l'acétone est ~ 19 (Guthrie et al. 1982) et, par conséquent, la molécule conserve la même forme non ionique pour toute la gamme étudiée de pH. D'autre part, les colorants azoïques ont des pK_a compris entre 6 et 10 (Etaiw and Abdel-salam 1980; Hilal et al. 1994). Par conséquent, l'augmentation du taux de dégradation du NC pour des pH basiques est probablement due au changement structurel du colorant azoïque par perte de protons, ce

entraîne une forme ionisée qui peut mieux absorber la lumière UV. Un autre mécanisme possible pour cette augmentation est l'implication d'autres radicaux libres, en particulier $\cdot\text{OH}$ et HO_2^\bullet , qui peuvent être formés lorsque les photons UV sont absorbés par l'eau en présence d'oxygène à pH basique (Kagan 1993).

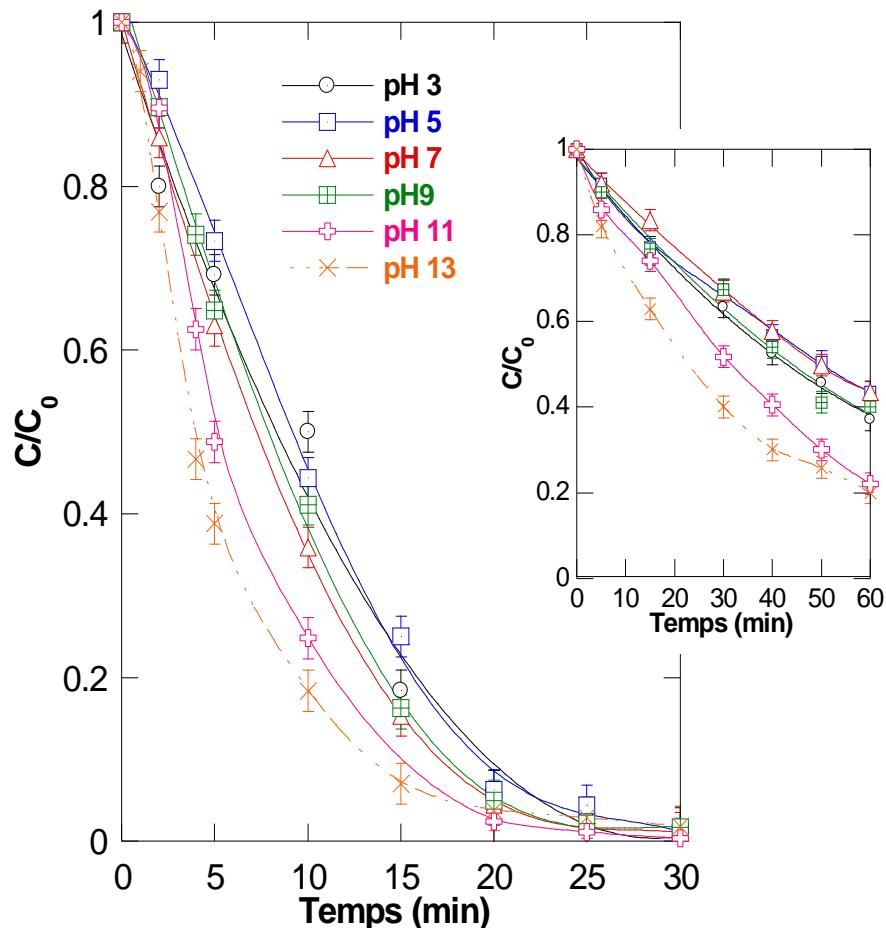


Figure 3.5 : Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions –volume : 250 mL, $[\text{NC}]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μM), $[\text{Acétone}]_0$: 50 mM, pH 3-13, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$). La Figure insérée présente l'effet du pH initial sur la photolyse seule du NC (sans acétone).

3.1.5. Effet des gaz de saturation

En plus de l'oxygène et de l'air, l'effet de trois autres gaz dissous (argon, N_2 et CO_2) sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/acétone vis-à-vis l'oxydation du NC a été étudiée et les résultats obtenus sont présentés sur la Figure 3.6. L' O_2 inhibe complètement l'effet positif de l'acétone, en revanche, les autres gaz accélèrent encore l'élimination du colorant d'environ 28% à 5 min, qui correspond à augmentation de la vitesse initiale de dégradation avec un facteur de 1,85.

Comme il a été indiqué précédemment, l'effet de l'oxygène est principalement dû à son action de « scavenger » vis-à-vis du radical méthyle (Equation 3.11). Parkers (1977) a réalisé des travaux importants sur l'oxydation du radical méthyle par l'oxygène en phase gazeuse. Les résultats obtenus montrent que l'intensité du radical méthyle diminue considérablement avec l'augmentation de $[O_2]$, alors que la concentration du produit de la réaction, le CH_3O_2 , augmente progressivement jusqu'à atteindre un palier correspondant à une consommation totale du radical CH_3^\bullet . En revanche, pour le même système réactionnel, il a été montré dans une autre étude que la production des radicaux méthyles se trouve améliorée par l'injection des gaz externes tels que l'azote, l'argon et le CO_2 (Davis 1947). Iredale et Lyons (1944) ont étudié l'effet du N_2 et du CO_2 sur la vitesse de formation du CO lors de la photodécomposition de l'acétone en phase gazeuse. Ils ont montré que la vitesse de formation du CO et du C_2H_6 , à partir des Equations 3.5 et 3.7, augmente avec l'injection des gaz inertes, ce qui confirme que la concentration de CH_3^\bullet est beaucoup plus élevée en présence de CO_2 et de N_2 . De ce fait, l'injection des gaz autres que l'oxygène va réduire la teneur en oxygène (piégeur du radical CH_3^\bullet) dans le milieu réactionnel.

Cette conclusion a été confirmée par nos résultats expérimentaux de la Figure 3.6, dans laquelle le N_2 , l'argon et le CO_2 contribuent avec un taux d'amélioration identique dans la dégradation du NC. L'effet favorable de ces gaz est essentiellement attribué à leur rôle et leur aptitude à désoxygénérer la solution, intensifiant donc la vitesse de formation des radicaux méthyles. Cependant, il faut noter qu'après 20 min de traitement, la dégradation du NC sous atmosphères de N_2 , de CO_2 et d'argon diminue et devient inférieure à celle observée pour l'air (Figure 3.6). Ce comportement peut être attribué à une forte compétition exercé par la grande quantité des intermédiaires formés par une destruction rapide du NC sous atmosphères de N_2 , de CO_2 ou d'argon.

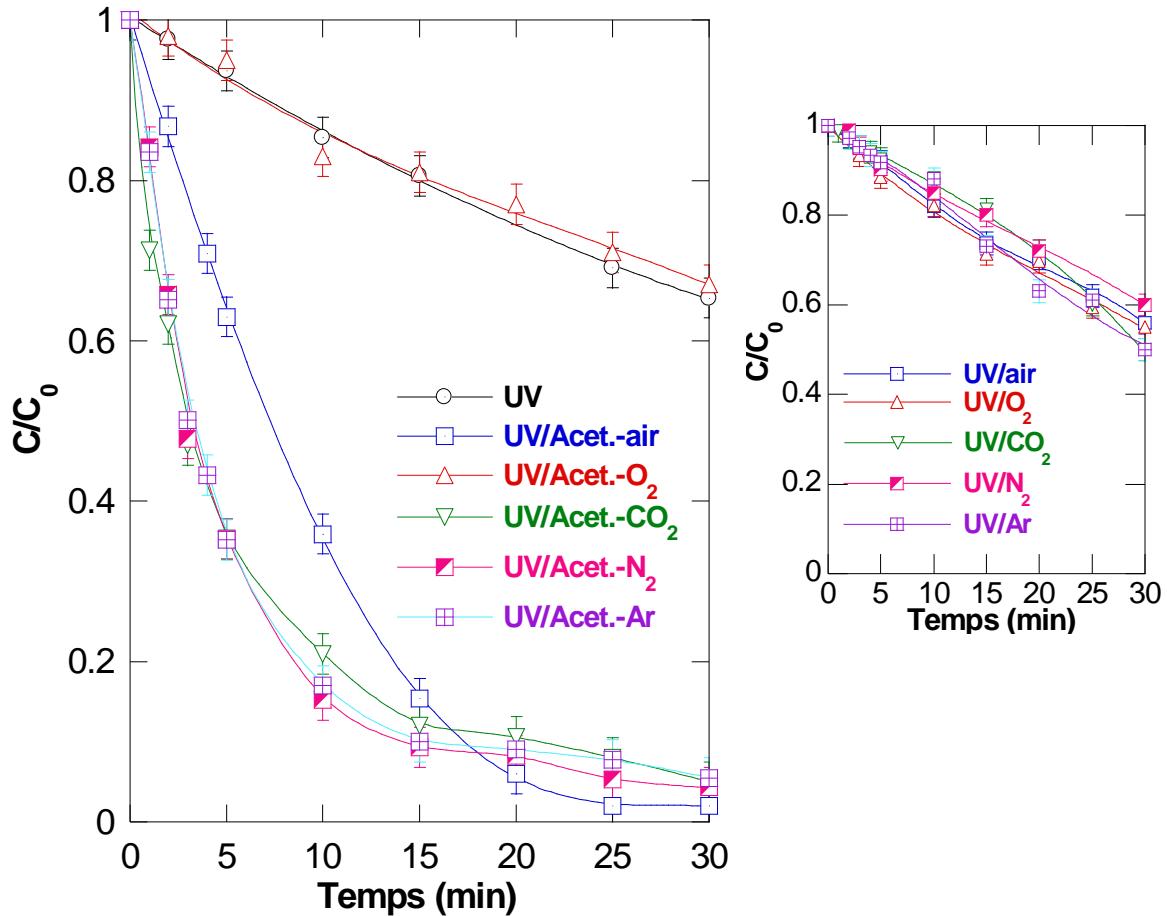


Figure 3.6 : Effet des gaz de saturation sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, pH ~ 7, température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ °C). La Figure insérée présente l'effet de différents gaz de saturation sur la photolyse seule du NC (sans acétone).

3.1.6. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC

Des expériences de dégradation ont été effectuées en faisant varier la concentration initiale du NC dans l'intervalle de 5 à 50 mg/L pour une concentration de 50 mM d'acétone et un pH initial égal à 7. Les résultats obtenus sont présentés sur Figure 3.7. L'efficacité d'élimination augmente avec la diminution de la concentration initiale du colorant. Pour une concentration initiale de 5 mg/L, l'élimination complète a été obtenue après 20 minutes, mais des pourcentages de 95%, 80% et 37,4% ont été enregistrés pour 20, 30 et 50 mg/L du NC, respectivement. De plus, la concentration du NC semble diminuer de façon exponentielle avec le temps quelques soit la concentration initiale du NC, suggérant une cinétique de pseudo-premier ordre. Cependant, la variation de la vitesse initiale de dégradation (r_0) en fonction de la concentration initiale du NC (C_0) a montré une relation non linéaire (Figure 3.7). En effet, r_0 augmente par un facteur de 1,46 et 2,51

lorsque C_0 passe de 5 mg/L à 10 et 20 mg/L, respectivement, mais pour C_0 supérieur à 20 mg/L, la vitesse initiale de dégradation se maintient une valeur constante de $\sim 1,54$ mg/L min. Ces résultats peuvent être expliqués comme suit : pour une dose constante d'acétone, la vitesse de formation des espèces réactives (CH_3^\bullet) dans le mélange réactionnel est uniquement en fonction de l'intensité lumineuse appliquée. L'augmentation de la concentration initiale du colorant entraîne une augmentation de la fraction des radicaux captés par les molécules du NC, ce qui conduit à des vitesses de conversion plus élevées. Ainsi, puisque la relation entre r_0 et C_0 n'est pas linéaire, donc la dégradation du NC ne peut pas être définie par une loi cinétique de pseudo-premier ordre. C'est la raison pour laquelle tous les résultats précédents ont été comparés en utilisant le pourcentage d'élimination à un temps donné et la vitesse initiale de dégradation au lieu d'utiliser la constante de pseudo-premier ordre.

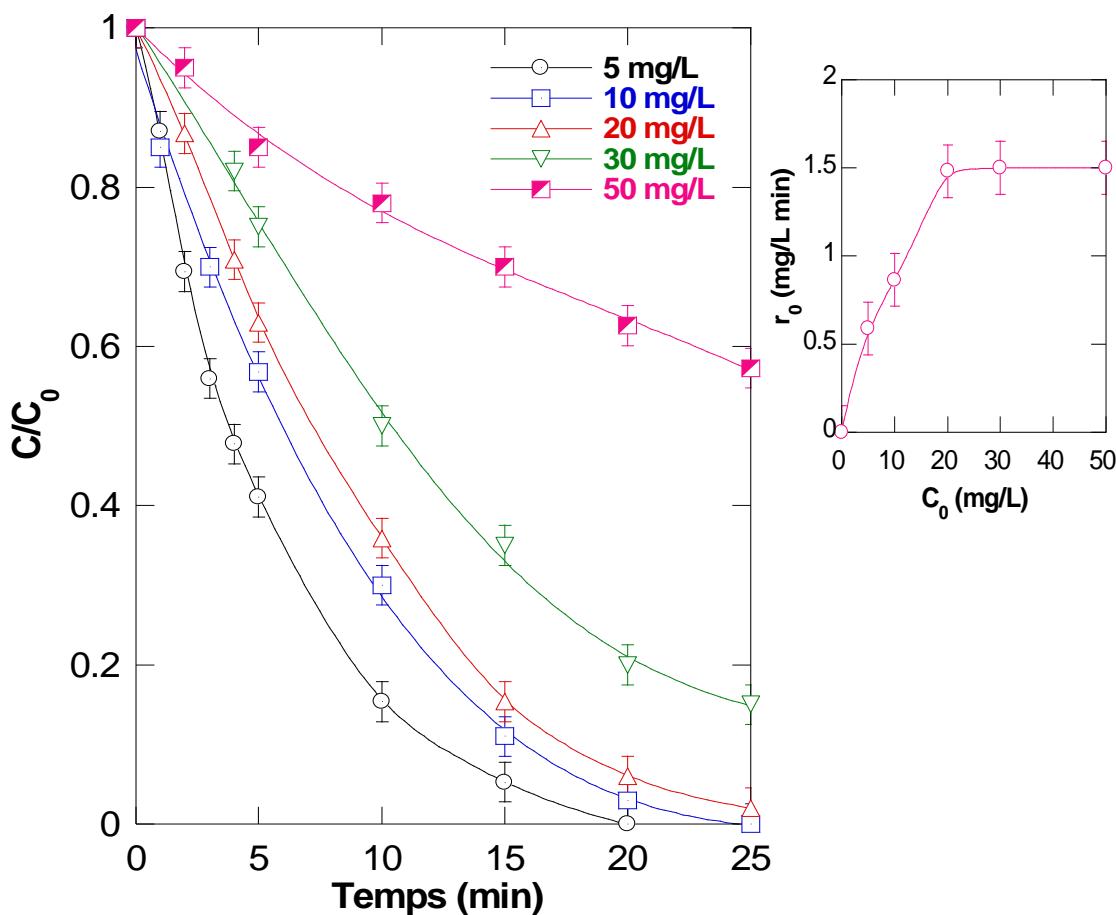


Figure 3.7 : Effet de la concentration initiale du NC (C_0) sur la cinétique de dégradation (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[\text{NC}]_0$: 5-50 mg/L (25.5-64 μM), $[\text{Acétone}]_0$: 50 mM, pH ~ 7 , température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ C). La Figure insérée présente la variation de la vitesse initiale de dégradation (r_0) en fonction de C_0 .

3.1.7. Effet des sels minéraux

Les Figures 3.8 (a)-(f) montrent l'effet de 1 à 50 mM de différents sels (NaCl, Na₂SO₄, NaHCO₃, Na₂CO₃, NaNO₃, kBr) sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC par le procédé UV/acétone. La concentration initiale d'acétone et le pH initiale ont été fixés à 50 mM et 7 respectivement pour toutes les expériences, sauf pour les l'effet des ions hydrogénocarbonates et carbonates ou le pH est gardé libre à 8.4 et 11.1, respectivement (pH imposée par l'équilibre calco-carbonique de l'eau).

Les Figures 3.8(a) et 3.8(b) indiquent que le NaCl et le Na₂SO₄ n'ont pas d'influence significative. Cette observation s'accorde partiellement avec celle de Mickewich et Turkevic (1968) qui ont signalé que la réaction entre le radical méthyle et le KCl en milieu aqueux est très lente. Ainsi, les ions sulfate et chlorure sont non réactifs envers les radicaux CH₃[•]. L'effet de ces deux anions est très similaire à leur impact sur l'efficacité de plusieurs POAs (Gu et al. 2011; Ghodbane et al. 2017; Merouani et al. 2017; Bendjama et al. 2018).

D'autre part, les ions bicarbonates et carbonates modifient légèrement l'effet positif de l'acétone sur l'élimination du NC (Figure 3.8(c) et 3.8(d)). En effet, des réductions d'environ 10 % et 18 % ont été imposée par le carbonate et le bicarbonate, respectivement. De plus, l'impact de ces anions est indépendant de leurs concentrations, ce qui montre que les bicarbonates et carbonates ont une réactivité lente avec le radical méthyle. Ces observations sont très analogue à la réactivité de ces anions avec le radical sulfate (Merouani et al. 2017).

Contrairement aux ions nitrites, les ions nitrates n'ont aucun impact sur la vitesse d'élimination du NC au début de la réaction ($t < 10$ min) (Figure. 3.8(e)). Cependant, un effet inhibiteur est constaté lorsque le temps de la réaction est supérieur à 10 min. Après 20 min, le NaNO₃ réduit le pourcentage d'élimination de 10 %, 22 % et 27 % pour 1, 10 et 50 mM, respectivement. Il est à noter que le nitrate est un photosensibilisateur qui est de loin utilisé pour accélérer la dégradation photolytique des polluants organiques (Mark et al. 1996; Kim et al. 2014). En effet la photolyse du nitrate est une source de plusieurs espèces oxydantes tels que •OH, NO₂[•], NO[•] et O(³P) (Mark et al. 1996; Kim et al. 2014). Cependant, en présence d'acétone, l'effet insignifiant du nitrate sur la dégradation du NC au stade initial de traitement peut être attribué à la prédominance de l'absorption de la lumière UV par l'acétone plutôt que par le nitrate. En fait, l'absorptivité du nitrate à 254 nm est quatre fois plus lente par rapport à celle de l'acétone ($\epsilon_{\text{nitrato}} = 4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Mark et al. 1996), $\epsilon_{\text{acétone}} = 16 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Stefan et al. 1996)). En revanche, l'altération imposée par

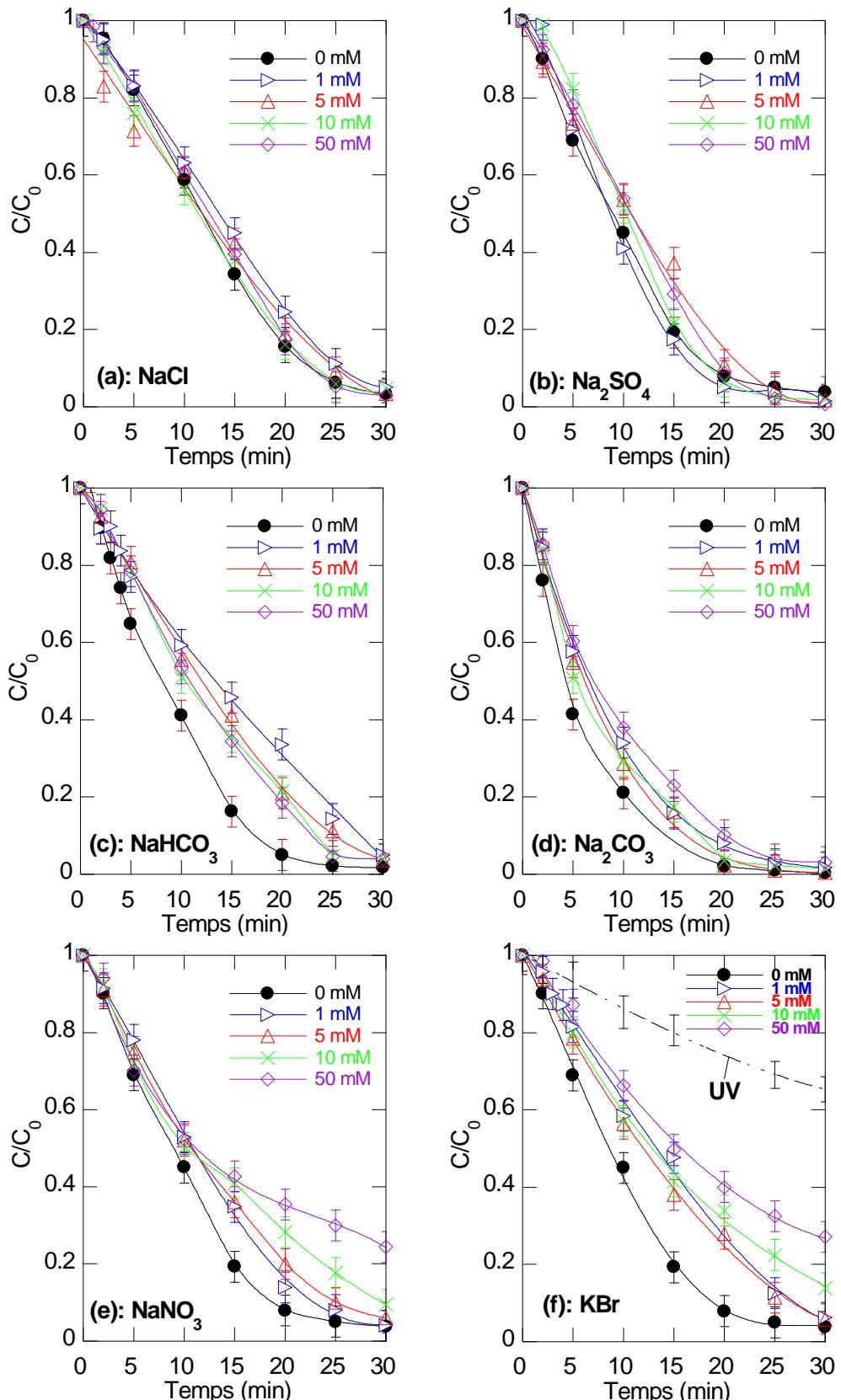


Figure 3.8 : Effet des sels minéraux sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[\text{NC}]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μM), $[\text{Acétone}]_0$: 50 mM, pH \sim 7 sauf pour (c) : pH 8,4 et (d) : pH 11,1, [sels] : 1-50 mM, température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ C).

les ions NO_3^- au stade finale de la réaction peut être attribuée à une réaction possible entre les radicaux méthyles et les produits générés par la photolyse du nitrate.

Mickewich et Turkevich (1968) ont montré que le KBr réagit moins rapidement avec le radical méthyle que le KNO_2 . Nos résultats de la Figure 3.8(f) confirme ceci; les ions bromures inhibent la vitesse de dégradation du NC par le piégeage des radicaux méthyles, mais à un degré plus faible que celui imposé par les ions nitrites. La présence de 1, 10 et 50 mM de KBr dans la solution réduit l'élimination du NC de 20%, 26% et 32%, respectivement (rendements calculés après 20 min d'irradiation).

Il convient de noter ici que les cations K^+ et Na^+ , n'ont aucune réactivité avec le radical méthyle car le remplacement de NaCl par KCl n'a produit aucun effet.

3.1.8. Effet des additifs organiques

La dégradation du NC par le système UV/acétone a été effectuée en présence de plusieurs substrats organiques, à savoir: l'acide ascorbique, comme agent réducteur des radicaux libres, le saccharose et le glucose, en tant que matières organiques saturées présentes souvent dans des effluents alimentaires (Merouani et al. 2010), l'acide humique, en tant que matière organique naturelle et l'acide formique, pour évaluer son effet en tant que produit final suspect de dégradation. La Figure 3.9 montre l'effet de ces additifs avec des concentrations comprises entre 1 à 50 Mm sur la dégradation de 20 mg/L du NC en présence de 50 mM d'acétone (l'acide humique a été étudié pour des concentrations naturelles de 1 à 20 mg/L).

L'acide ascorbique à seulement 0,1 mM annule complètement l'effet positif de l'acétone (Figure 3.9(a)). Avec 1 mM ou plus d'acide ascorbique la dégradation du NC a été complètement bloquée. Ces observations confirment que la dégradation du NC par le système UV/acétone se passe par voie radicalaire. De même, la dégradation du colorant a été légèrement réduite en présence du saccharose, du glucose et d'acide humique (Figures 3.9(b)-(d)), ce qui montre une très faible réactivité des radicaux méthyles vis-à-vis du saccharose, du glucose et d'acide humique.

L'acide formique est largement détecté comme produit final de dégradation pour plusieurs applications des POAs (Navarro et al. 2011). Il est donc important d'examiner son effet sur l'élimination du NC par le procédé UV/acétone. Comme le montre la Figure 3.9(e), l'acide formique a relativement réduit la vitesse de dégradation du NC, mais.

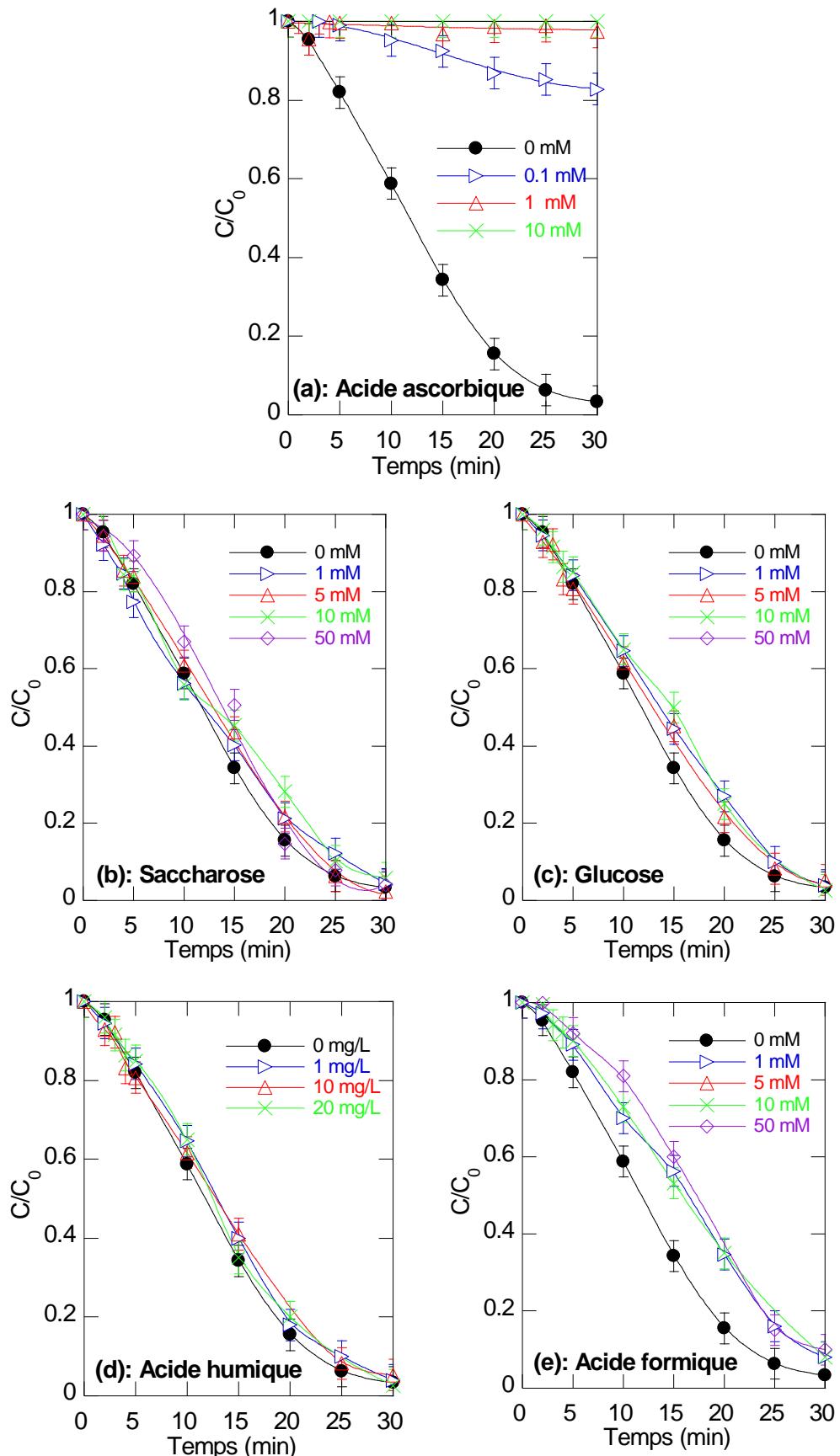


Figure 3.9 : Effet des additifs organiques sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, pH ~ 7, température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ C)

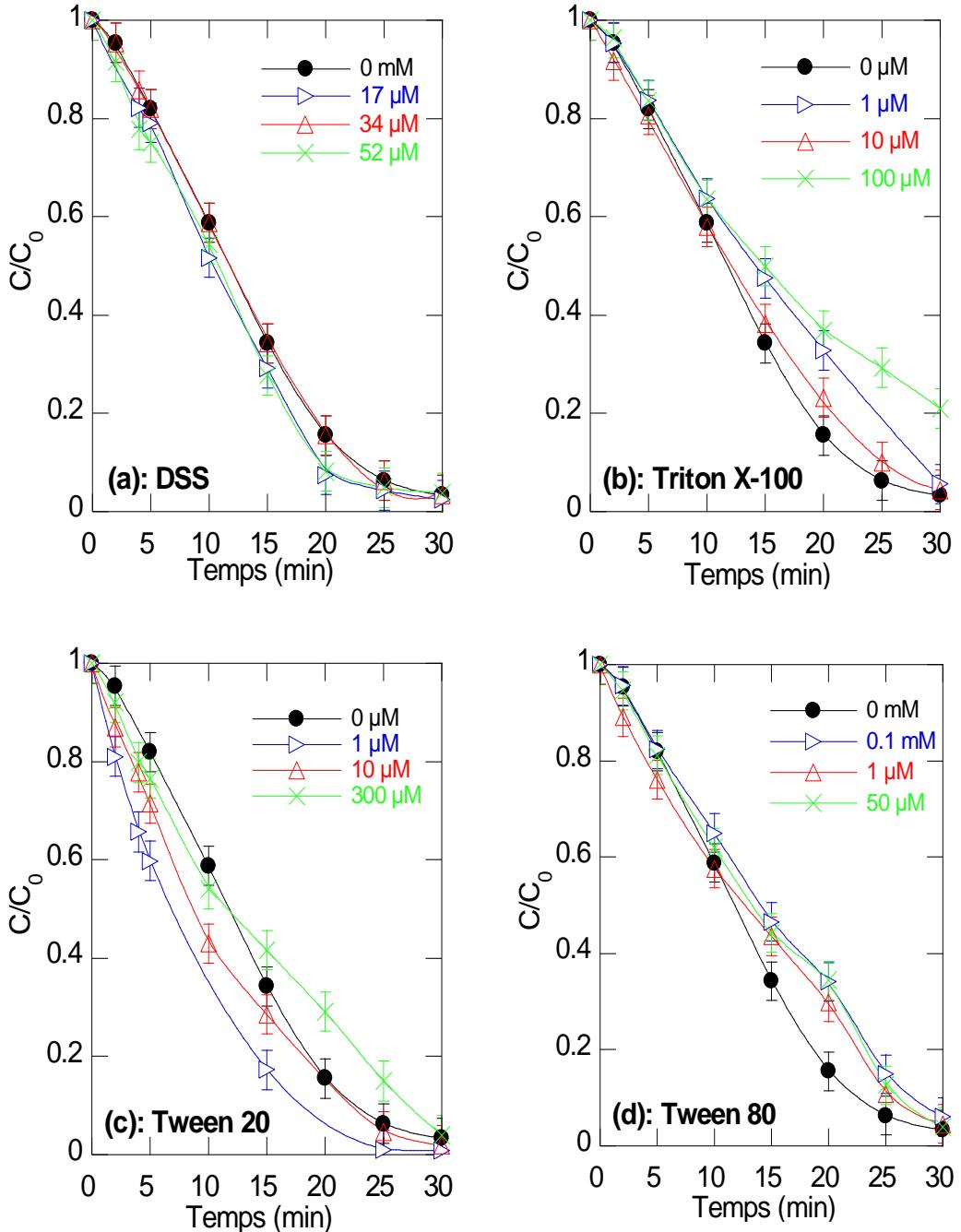


Figure 3.10 : Effet des tensioactifs sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, pH ~ 7, température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ C).

indépendamment de sa concentration initiale dans la solution. Une réduction maximale d'environ 20 % a été observée après 20 min, par rapport au procédé UV/acétone seul.

Par ailleurs, différentes catégories et types de tensioactifs utilisés dans les procédés industriels et les activités domestiques ont été testés (Arslan-alaton et al. 2013). Les eaux usées reforment usuellement des tensioactifs avec des concentrations variables. Ces

tensioactifs sont: le dodécylsulfate de sodium (DSS); le tween 20, le tween 80 et le triton X-100. Les concentrations des tensioactifs ont été sélectionnées de façon à ne pas dépasser leurs concentrations micellaires critiques (CMC, voir le Tableau 2.2 du chapitre II)

Les résultats obtenus sont portés sur les Figures 3.10(a)-(d). Globalement, au-dessous de leurs CMC, les tensioactifs testés montrent une réduction maximale d'environ 10 % de la vitesse de dégradation du NC par l'acétone photoactivé

Par conséquent, le système UV/acétone semble être efficace pour dégrader des colorants persistants comme le NC dans des effluents réels contenant du saccharose, du glucose, des tensioactifs et même de l'acide formique.

3.1.10. Influence des matrices naturelles

En plus de l'eau distillée, la dégradation du NC par le procédé UV/acétone a été testée dans l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer. Les caractéristiques principales de ces deux matrices sont données dans le chapitre II. Les résultats de la Figure 3.11 montrent clairement que le procédé UV/acétone est encore efficace dans l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer. Comme pour l'eau distillée, le NC a été presque complètement éliminé après 30 min dans l'eau minérale, mais avec une vitesse initiale de dégradation relativement lente par rapport à l'eau pure. Compte tenu de la concentration relativement élevée de bicarbonate dans l'eau minérale (4,34 mM), on présume que le bicarbonate est la principale espèce responsable de la diminution de la dégradation du NC dans l'eau minérale. Pour confirmer cette suggestion, un essai de dégradation dans l'eau distillée a été réalisé en présence de 4,34 mM de bicarbonate et la courbe a été insérée sur la Figure 3.11. Effectivement, la courbe de dégradation dans la solution synthétique est presque superposée à celle obtenue dans l'eau minérale naturelle, ce qui confirme la responsabilité effective des ions bicarbonates dans la diminution de la vitesse de dégradation dans l'eau minérale.

Par ailleurs, bien que l'eau de mer comprenne une charge minérale très élevée (35 g/L), l'efficacité du procédé UV/acétone a été faiblement affectée car seulement environ 10% de réduction, par rapport à l'eau distillée, a été enregistrée dans l'eau de mer. Cette réduction est probablement due à l'atténuation de la lumière, par les sels qui bloquent son passage à travers la solution, diminuant ainsi la photoactivation de l'acétone. Il est important de mentionner ici qu'une étude complète a été faite sur la dégradation du NC dans le l'eau de mer (voir Annexe C). L'étude portée en annexe C montre clairement que l'acétone photoactivé est une technique prometteuse pour la destruction des polluants organiques dans des matrices très salines comme l'eau de mer.

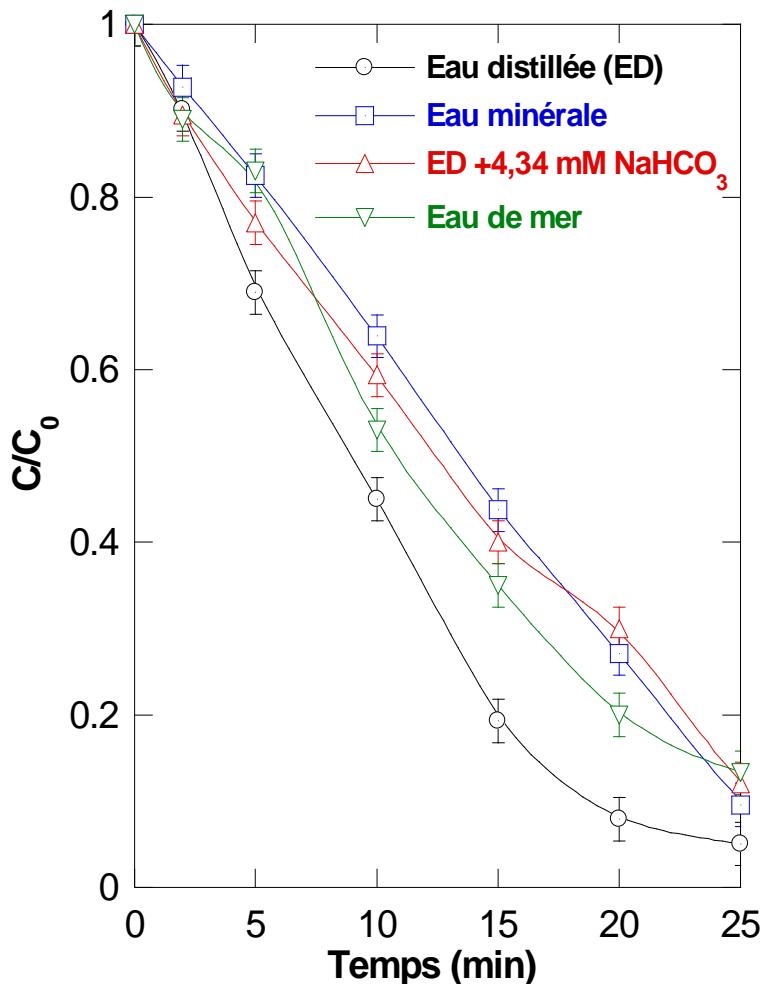


Figure 3.11 : Effet des matrices naturelles sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[NC]_0$: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), $[Acétone]_0$: 50 mM, pH~7, température: $25^\circ \pm 1$ C).

Conclusion

Les effluents textiles constituent une source de préoccupation environnementale importante en raison de la présence des colorants synthétiques persistants. Parallèlement, l’acétone fait partie des composés organiques identifiés comme polluants dangereux de l’air et des eaux usées industrielles. Les résultats de cette étude ont montré que la photodégradation du colorant azoïque NC était fortement accélérée par l’acétone à cause de l’implication du radical méthyle, généré lors de la photolyse de l’acétone à 254 nm. La concentration de l’acétone et la température du liquide ont montré une influence majeure sur le phénomène d’intensification. La saturation de la solution avec des gaz inertes, tels que le N₂, le CO₂ et l’argon a encore améliorée l’effet intensifiant de l’acétone tandis que l’oxygène l’a complètement inhibé à cause son effet piégeur des radicaux méthyles. Il est intéressant de noter que le procédé UV/acétone s’est révélé plus efficace pour la

dégradation du NC à pH alcalin, ce qui est un avantage supplémentaire de cette technique par rapport aux autres techniques d'oxydation similaires telles que le procédé photo-Fenton et UV/H₂O₂.

Les sels minéraux comme NaCl et Na₂SO₄ n'ont pas altéré la performance du procédé UV/acétone, en revanche, NaHCO₃ et Na₂CO₃ l'ont légèrement inhibée, cependant, une inhibition beaucoup plus marquée a été enregistrée avec NaNO₃ et KBr. Par ailleurs, parmi plusieurs additifs organiques étudiés, seul l'acide ascorbique a montré un impact très négatif sur l'efficacité du procédé. Le procédé a gardé une efficacité élevée envers la dégradation du NC dans des matrices naturelles telles que l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer.

Par conséquent, l'acétone photoactivé à 253,7 nm peut être considéré comme un procédé innovant prometteur pour le traitement des eaux contaminées par des colorants textiles persistants. Cependant, pour pouvoir confirmer la viabilité de ce procédé à l'échelle industriel, il est nécessaire d'évaluer la quantité d'acétone restante et procéder à sa récupération éventuellement, il faut analyser aussi les sous-produits de dégradation et mesurer l'abattement du carbone organique total.

Références

- Anpo M, Kubokawa Y (1977) Reactivity of excited triplet alkyl ketones in solution. I. Quenching and hydrogen abstraction of triplet acetone. Bull Chem Soc Jpn 1913–1916
- Arican H, Arthur NL (1983) Reactions of methyl radicals .IV* Hydrogen abstraction from tetramethylsilane by methyl radicals produced by the photolysis of both acetone and azomethane. Aust J Chem 36:2185–2194
- Arslan-alaton I, Olmez-hancı T, Genç B, Dursun D (2013) Advanced oxidation of the commercial nonionic surfactant octylphenol polyethoxylate Triton TM X-45 by the persulfate/UV-C process: effect of operating parameters and kinetic evaluation. Frontiers in chemistry 1:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2013.00004>
- Asghar A, Aziz A, Raman AAA, et al (2015) Advanced oxidation processes for in-situ production of hydrogen peroxide/hydroxyl radical for textile wastewater treatment: A review. J Clean Prod 87:826–838. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.010>
- Banat F, Al-Asheh S, Al-Rawashdeh M, Nusair M (2005) Photodegradation of methylene blue dye by the UV/H₂O₂ and UV/acetone oxidation processes. Desalination 181:225–232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2005.04.005>
- Bendjama H, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhelassa M (2018) Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: Case of chlorazol black. Mar Pollut Bull 126:557–564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>
- Buxton GV, Greenstock CL, Helman WP, Ross AB (1988) Critical review of rate constants for reactions of hydrated Electrons, hydrogen atoms and hydroxyl radicals ('OH/O⁻) in aqueous solution. J Phys Chem Ref Data 17:515–886. [https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/020513-374\\$20.00](https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/020513-374$20.00)
- Chia LH, Tang X, Weavers LK (2004) Kinetics and mechanism of photoactivated periodate reaction with 4-chlorophenol in acidic solution. Environ Sci Technol 38:6875–6880. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es049155n>
- Christie MI (1959) The Photochemical decomposition of methyl iodide in presence of nitric oxide. I. The reaction of methyl radicals with nitric oxide. Proc R Soc A Math Phys Eng Sci 249:248–257. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.1959.0020>
- Chu W, Tsiu SM (2001) Photoreductive model of disperse orange 11 in aqueous acetone and triethylamine. J Environ Eng 127:741–747. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9372\(2001\)127:8\(741\)](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9372(2001)127:8(741))

- Damon GH, Daniels F (1933) The Photolysis of gaseous acetone and the influence of water. *J Am Chem Soc* 55:2363–2375. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01333a022>
- Darwent B, Allard M (1960) The Photolysis of Acetone. *J Phys* 1847–1850. <https://doi.org/10.1021/j100841a010>
- Davis W (1947) Th gas-phase photochemical decomposition of the aliphatic ketons. *Chem Rev* 109:201–250
- Dever DF, Calvert JG (1962) Rate Studies of the Oxidation of Methyl Radicals in Oxygen-rich Media at 25°. *J Am Chem Soc* 84:1362–1368. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00867a006>
- Etaiw SH, Abdel-salam ME (1980) Studies on azo compounds: Part VII-protonation constants and kinetics of some thiazole azo and azomethine Dyes. *Indian J Text Res* 143–147
- Fassi S, Bousnoubra I, Sehili T, Djebbar K (2012) Degradation of “bromocresol green” by direct UV photolysis, Acetone/UV and advanced oxidation processes (AOP’s) in homogeneous solution (H_2O_2/UV , $S_2O_8^{2-}/UV$). Comparative study. *J Mater Environ Sci* 3:732–743
- Feldman MH, Burton M, Ricci JE, Davis TW (1945) Determination of Free Radicals in Acetone Photolysis. 440:. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1723972>
- Gennari G, Jori G (1970) Acetone-sensitized anaerobic photo-oxidation of methionine. *Febs Lettres* 10:129–131
- Ghodbane H, Hamdaoui O (2010) Decolorization of antraquinonic dye, C.I. Acid Blue 25, in aqueous solution by direct UV irradiation, UV/ H_2O_2 and UV/Fe(II) processes. *Chem Eng J* 160:226–231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.03.049>
- Ghodbane H, Hamdaoui O, Merouani S (2017) Degradation of C.I. acid blue 25 in water using UV/ $K_2S_2O_8$ process: Effect of salts and environmental matrix. *Desalin Water Treat* 74:395–401. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20612>
- Gogate PR, Pandit AB (2004) A review of imperative technologies for wastewater treatment I: Oxidation technologies at ambient conditions. *Adv Environ Res* 8:501–551. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1093-0191\(03\)00032-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1093-0191(03)00032-7)
- Gu X, Lu S, Li L, et al (2011) Oxidation of 1,1,1-Trichloroethane Stimulated by Thermally Activated Persulfate. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 50:11029–11036. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie201059x>
- Guthrie JP, Cossar J, Klym A (1982) The pKa of acetone: A kinetic method for determining the pKas of ketones in aqueous solution. *J Am Chem SOC* 104:895–896

- Hilal SH, Carreira LA, Baughman GL, et al (1994) Estimation of ionization constants of azo dyes and related aromatic amines: Environmental implication. *J Phys Org Chem* 7:122–141. <https://doi.org/10.1002/poc.610070304>
- Hu Q, Zhang C, Wang Z, et al (2008) Photodegradation of methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) by UV/H₂O₂ and UV/TiO₂. *J Hazard Mater* 154:795–803. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2007.10.118>
- Iredale T, Lyons E (1944) Influence of inrt gases on the photodecomposition of gaseous acetone. *J Chem Soc* 44:588–590
- Kagan J (1993) Organic photochemistry : principales and applications. Academic press, San diego.
- Kim DH, Lee J, Ryu J, et al (2014) Arsenite oxidation initiated by the uv photolysis of nitrite and nitrate. *Environ Sci Technol* 48:4030–4037. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es500001q>
- Laufer AH, Bass AM (1975) Rate constants of the combination of methyl radicals with nitric oxide and oxygen. *Int J Chem Kinet* VII:639–648
- Mack J, Bolton JR (1999) Photochemistry of nitrite and nitrate in aqueous solution: a review. *J Photochem Photobiol A Chem* 128:1–13. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030\(99\)00155-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030(99)00155-0)
- Macken KV, Sidebottom HW (1952) The reactions of methyl radicals with chloromethanes. *Int J Chem Kinet* XI:511–527. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1699147>
- Makoś P, Fernandes A, Boczkaj G (2017) Method for the determination of carboxylic acids in industrial effluents using dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction with injection port derivatization gas chromatography–mass spectrometry. *J Chromatogr A* 1517:26–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2017.08.045>
- Makoś P, Fernandes A, Przyjazny A, Boczkaj G (2018) Sample preparation procedure using extraction and derivatization of carboxylic acids from aqueous samples by means of deep eutectic solvents for gas chromatographic-mass spectrometric analysis. *J Chromatogr A* 1555:10–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2018.04.054>
- Mark G, Korth HG, Schuchmann HP, Von Sonntag C (1996) The photochemistry of aqueous nitrate ion revisited. *J Photochem Photobiol A Chem* 101:89–103. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030\(96\)04391-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030(96)04391-2)
- Matsuura T, Cassano AE, Smith M (1969) Acetone photolysis: kinetic studies in a flow reactor. *AIChE J* 15:495–501
- McNesby JR, Davis TW, Gordon AS (1953) The mechanism of acetone pyrolysis. *J Chem*

- Phys 21:956–956. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1699091>
- Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhelassa M (2017) Degradation of Safranin O by thermally activated persulfate in the presence of mineral and organic additives: impact of environmental matrices. 75:202–212. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20404>
- Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Saoudi F, Chiha M (2010) Sonochemical degradation of Rhodamine B in aqueous phase: Effects of additives. Chem Eng J 158:550–557. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.01.048>
- Mickewich D, Turkevich J (1968) Methyl radicals in aqueous solution as studied by electron spin resonance spectroscopy. J Phys Chem 72:1966–1969
- Navarro NM, Chave T, Pochon P, et al (2011) Effect of ultrasonic frequency on the mechanism of formic acid sonolysis. J Phys Chem B 115:2024–2029. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp109444h>
- Neta P, Huie RE, Ross AB (1988) Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. J Phys Chem Ref Data 17:1027–1284. [https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/\\$21.00](https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/$21.00)
- Parkes DA (1977) The oxidation of methyl radical at room temperature. International journal of chemical kinetics IX:451–469. <https://doi.org/10.1002/kin.550090313>
- Parsons S (2004) Advanced oxidation processes for water and wastewater treatment. IWA Publishing, London
- Pieck R, Steacie EWR (1955) The photolysis of acetone in the liquid phase: the gaseous products. Can J Chem 33:1304–1315. <https://doi.org/10.1139/v55-159>
- Ribeiro AR, Nunes OC, Pereira MFR, Silva AMT (2015) An overview on the advanced oxidation processes applied for the treatment of water pollutants defined in the recently launched Directive 2013/39/EU. Environ Int 75:33–51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2014.10.027>
- Ridge MJ, Steacie EWR (1954) The photolysis of acetone in presence of bromide. Can J Chem 33:383–390. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1750963>
- Stefan MI, Hoy AR, Bolton JR (1996) Kinetics and mechanism of the degradation and mineralization of acetone in dilute aqueous solution sensitized by the UV photolysis of hydrogen peroxide. Environ Sci Technol 30:2382–2390. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es950866i>
- Tarr MA (2003) Chemical degradation methods for wastes and pollutants. Mark Dekker, Inc., New York
- Trotman-Dickenson AF, Steacie EWR (1950) The reactions of methyl radicals. I. The

- photolysis of acetone. *J Chem Phys* 18:1097–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1747868>
- Truesdale GA, Downing AL, Lowden GF (1955) The solubility of oxygen in pure and sea-water. *J Appl Chem* 5:53–62
- Tsitonaki A, Petri B, Crimi M, et al (2010) In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate : A review. *Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol* 40:37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643380802039303>
- Turkevich J, Mickewich DJ, Reynolds G (1972) Chemiluminescence in reaction of methyl radicals with oxygen in aqueous solution. *Zeitschrift für Phys Chemie Neue Folge* 82:185–194
- Wang JL, Xu LJ (2012) Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment: formation of hydroxyl radical and application. *Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol* 42:251–325. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2010.507698>
- Wei C, Tsui SM (1999) Photo-sensitization of diazo disperse dye in aqueous acetone. *Chemosphere* 39:1667–1677. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535\(99\)00067-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535(99)00067-3)
- Yoon SH, Lee S, Kim TH, et al (2011) Oxidation of methylated arsenic species by UV/ $S_2O_8^{2-}$. *Chem Eng J* 173:290–295. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2011.04.057>

CHAPITRE IV

DEGRADATION DES POLLUANTS ORGANIQUES REFRACTAIRES DANS L'EAU SALINE PAR LE PROCEDE UV/PERIODATE : CAS DU NOIR CHLORAZOL^{1,2}

Introduction

L'eau reçus habituellement plusieurs types de rejets et de déversements des déchets contenant des niveaux élevés des polluants organiques persistants (POP) provenant de diverses activités industrielles et humaines. Les eaux usées textiles ont une composition très variable avec une couleur intense, une forte concentration en DCO (demande chimique en oxygène) et une concentration relativement faible en DBO (demande biologique en oxygène) (Eren 2012). Selon les estimations, environ $7 \cdot 10^5$ tonnes des colorants sont produits chaque année et plus de 20% de cette quantité s'est terminée dans les rejets textiles (Asghar et al. 2015). Comme les colorants sont conçus pour résister la dégradation, ils sont chimiquement stables, non biodégradables et peuvent avoir des caractéristiques toxiques et cancérogènes (Brown and De Vito 1993; Konstantinou and Albanis 2004). Le rejet d'une petite quantité de colorant (de l'ordre de 1 mg/L) n'est pas acceptable et peut constituer un risque potentiel pour la santé humaine et l'environnement (Taamallah et al. 2016).

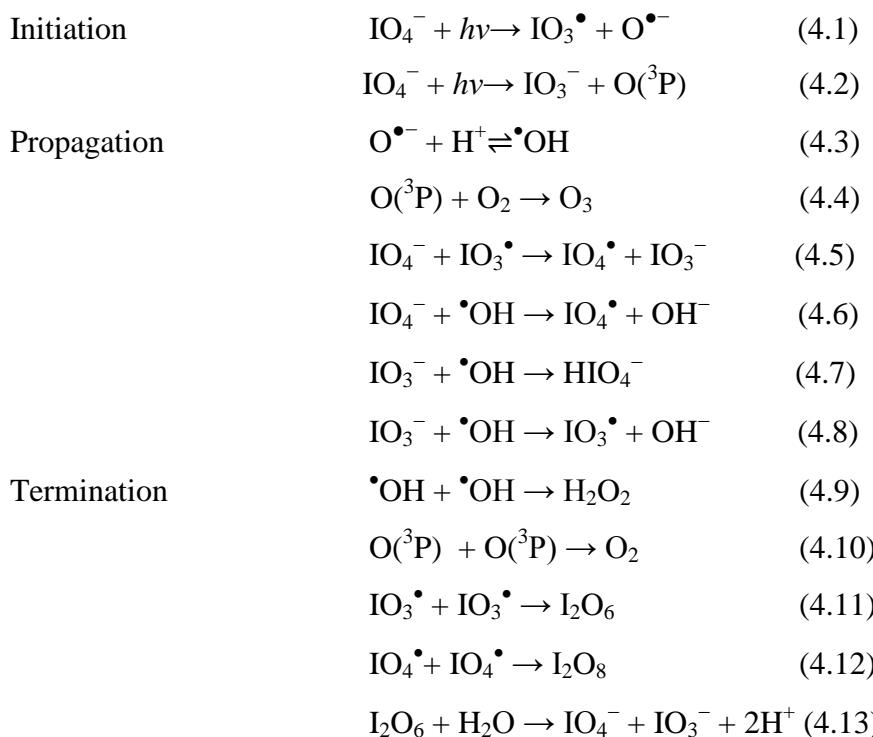
Les procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA) ont été proposés et utilisés efficacement pour le traitement des polluants organiques récalcitrants dans les eaux usées (Tarr 2003). Les POAs sont basées sur la production *in situ* d'espèces très réactives, telles que $\cdot\text{OH}$ et $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ (Petri et al. 2011; Wang and Xu 2012), qui pourrait dégrader une variété de polluants organiques avec des constantes de vitesse dans l'ordre de $10^8\text{-}10^{11}\text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al. 1988; Neta et al. 1988). Des oxydants tels que le périodate (IO_4^-), le peroxyde d'hydrogène (H_2O_2) et le persulfate ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$) peuvent être convertis en radicaux

¹ Bendjama H., Merouani S., Hamdaoui, Bouhelassa M. (2018), Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: Case of chlorazol black, Marine Pollution Bulletin 126 (2018) 557–564. Doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059, Journal impact factor: 4.049

² Djaballah M.L, Merouani S., Bendjama H., Hamdaoui O., 2021, Development of a free radical-based kinetics model for the oxidative degradation of chlorazol using periodate photoactivated process, Journal of Photochemistry & Photobiology, A: Chemistry 408 (2021) 113102, Doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochem.2020.113102, Journal impact factor: 3.306

intermédiaires très réactifs, tels que les radicaux iodyl (IO_3^\bullet), hydroxyle ($\cdot\text{OH}$) et sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$), par différentes méthodes d'activation (Weavers et al. 1997; Tsitonaki et al. 2010; Wang and Xu 2012). Notamment, la réduction d'un électron de H_2O_2 par Fe^{2+} conduit à la production de $\cdot\text{OH}$ (réaction de Fenton). De même, l'activation de $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ par des métaux de transition tels que Fe^{2+} et Co^{2+} génère les radicaux $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ (Rodríguez 2003; Anipsitakis et al. 2006; Long et al. 2014). $\cdot\text{OH}$ et $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ peuvent également être formés par clivage homolytique des liaisons peroxydes de H_2O_2 et $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ par radiolyse, photolyse et thermolyse (Parsons 2004; Petri et al. 2011). Le périodate peut également être activé en radicaux intermédiaires réactifs par l'irradiation UV ($\lambda < 300 \text{ nm}$), et cette technique a été appliquée avec succès pour dégrader plusieurs types de polluants organiques (Weavers et al. 1997; Chia et al. 2004; Lee and Yoon 2004; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui 2016). Le UV/périodate est actuellement considéré comme étant un procédé innovant d'oxydation (Tang and Weavers 2008).

La photolyse de IO_4^- dans l'eau pure a été étudiée précédemment par plusieurs chercheurs pour une large gamme du pH (Bhattacharyya and Bardhan 1970; Barat et al. 1971; Klaning et al. 1981; Wagner and Strehlow 1982; Patil et al. 1990). Le mécanisme présenté ci-dessous (Réactions 4.1–4.14) englobe les principales réactions produites par le système UV/ IO_4^- dans la gamme de pH 2-8 (Weavers et al. 1997; Chia et al. 2004; Lee and Yoon 2004; Tang and Weavers 2007, 2008; Hamdaoui et al. 2017).





Selon le mécanisme montré ci-dessus, la photolyse du périodate peut produire un certain nombre des radicaux réactifs et d'intermédiaires non radicalaires, comprenant IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO_3^- , $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$, H_2O_2 et O_3 . Cependant, Chia et al (2004) ont déterminé des rendements négligeables de H_2O_2 et O_3 lors de la photolyse du périodate sous atmosphère d'air, ce qui montre que H_2O_2 et O_3 n'ont pas un rôle significatif dans l'oxydation des polluants par le système UV/ IO_4^- . De plus, il est bien démontré que H_2O_2 , IO_3^- et IO_4^- sont inefficaces pour l'oxydation directe des polluants organiques persistants (Ghodbane and Hamdaoui 2010; Hamdaoui and Merouani 2017). D'autre part, une légère diminution de vitesse de dégradation de plusieurs polluants a été observée en présence de *tert*-butanol (un piégeur de $\cdot\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$) (Chia et al. 2004; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui 2016), ce qui signifie que $\cdot\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$ ne sont pas impliqués dans le processus d'oxydation induit par le système UV/ IO_4^- . Par conséquent, les radicaux iodés (IO_3^\bullet et IO_4^\bullet) sont censés jouer le rôle clé dans la dégradation photo-assistée des polluants organiques dans l'eau pure.

Comme la photochimie du périodate dans l'eau pure ait été largement étudiée et relativement bien élucidée, il existe encore peu de rapports sur l'application du périodate photoactivé dans le domaine du traitement des eaux. En particulier, aucune recherche n'a été effectuée pour étudier l'applicabilité du procédé dans des matrices naturelles réelles telles que l'eau de mer, où le contenu de ces matrices en sels peut inhiber ou supprimer complètement l'effet du traitement radicalaires. Par conséquent, l'influence de la matrice aqueuse doit être prise en compte lors de l'application du procédé UV/ IO_4^- dans la réalité. C'est pourquoi, dans cette étude, nous avons tenté d'appliquer le périodate photoactivé pour le traitement de l'eau de mer contaminée par le noir chlorazol (NC). Le NC est un colorant azoïque très persistant et toxique comme nous l'avons déjà mentionné dans le Chapitre II (paragraphe 2.1.1). Les principaux objectifs de ce chapitre sont :

- (i) D'examiner l'applicabilité du périodate photoactivé comme technologie alternative de décontamination des eaux très salines.
- (ii) D'élucider les principaux oxydants responsables de la dégradation du NC et de préciser leurs interactions avec la charge saline de l'eau de mer.
- (iii) D'étudier les effets des paramètres opératoires et des tensioactifs sur la performance du procédé vis-à-vis la dégradation du NC.

Notons que le montage expérimental, les procédures suivies pour effectuer les manipes ainsi que les caractéristiques principales de l'eau de mer employée sont présentés dans le chapitre II.

4.1. Résultats et discussion

4.1.1. Essais préliminaires

Des expériences préliminaires ont été réalisées pour évaluer la dégradation du NC (20 mg/L) dans l'eau de mer par les systèmes: (i) périodate seul (0,5 mM), (ii) UV seule et (iii) UV en présence de 0,5 mM de périodate. La Figure 4.1 montre les profils concentration-temps obtenus. Comme on peut l'observer, une perte négligeable du NC (3% de la concentration de départ) a été observée dans le cas de IO_4^- seul. Le rendement de dégradation par UV a été déterminé à environ 38 % après 40 min. Cependant, dans le cas de UV/ IO_4^- , une dégradation rapide du polluant s'est produite, 82 % du NC a été éliminé après 40 minutes avec une vitesse initiale de dégradation de 13,16 fois plus élevée que celle obtenue sous irradiation UV seule. Cette augmentation notable a été attribuée à l'implication des radicaux libres dans le processus de dégradation.

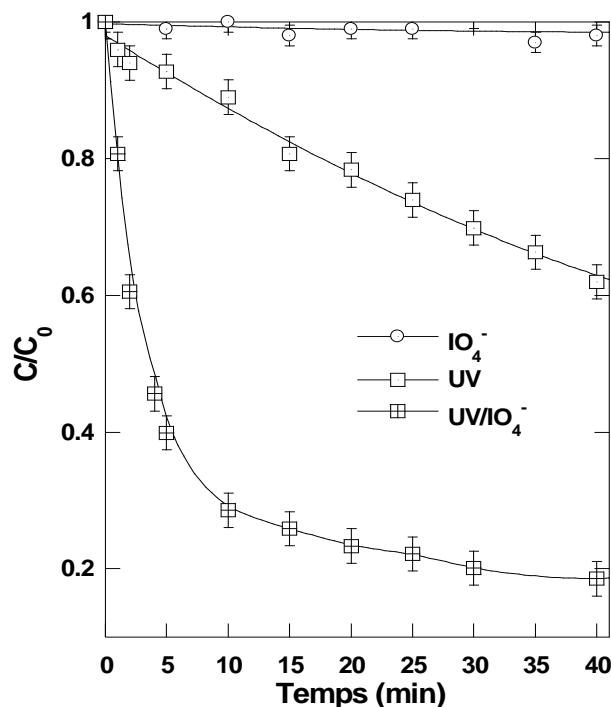


Figure 4.1 : Influence de IO_4^- , UV et UV/ IO_4^- sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20$ mg/L (25,5 μM), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5$ mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Comme on l'a déjà expliqué dans l'introduction, des espèces réactives radicalaires et non radicalaires (IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $^\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$) sont susceptibles de se former pendant la photolyse du périodate (l'ozone n'a pas été considéré car il s'est formé avec des concentrations négligeable (Chia et al. 2004)). Ces espèces peuvent attaquer efficacement le polluant, ce qui induire une vitesse de dégradation très rapide.

4.1.2. Identification des principaux oxydants impliqués dans la dégradation du NC

La Figure 4.2 montre l'évolution du spectre UV (200-400 nm) du périodate pendant la photolyse de 0,25 mM d' IO_4^- à pH 3. Le spectre initial montre une bande intense à $\lambda_{\max} = 222$ nm. Une diminution rapide de la bande d'absorption a été enregistrée lors de l'irradiation UV, où 80% de l'absorbance initiale à 222 nm a été disparu après seulement 7 min. Cette photodissociation rapide du périodate est en forte correspondance avec l'abattement du NC où environ 70 % du colorant a été éliminé après la même durée de traitement (Figure 4.1).

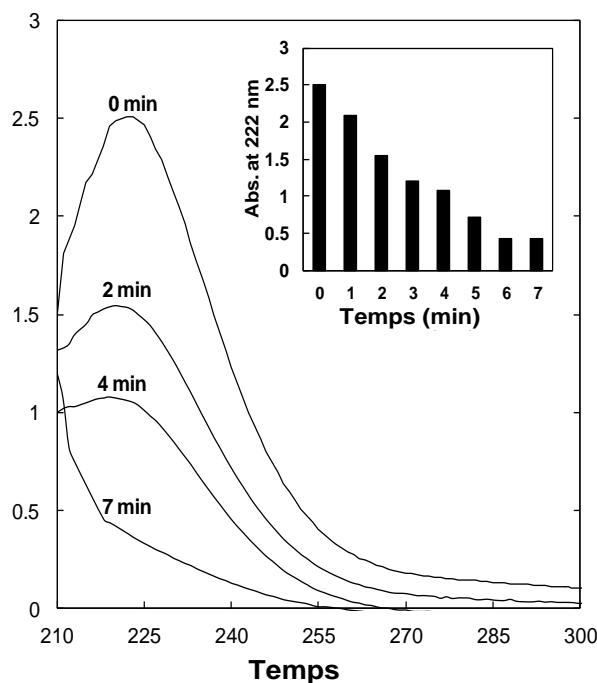


Figure 4.2 : Changement du sp̄ctre UV durant la photolyse du périodate dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,25 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$)

Pour vérifier la génération des espèces oxydantes dans le système UV/ IO_4^- et confirmer leur contribution dans la dégradation du NC, la méthode de piégeage des radicaux a été adoptée. Deux piégeurs (le propanol 2 et le phénol) de réactivité différente envers les espèces radicalaires susceptibles d'être formée ont été utilisés pendant

l'oxydation du NC. Le propanol 2 réagit avec $\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$ avec des constantes de vitesse de $1,9 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al. 1988) et $0,96 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Kato and Cvetanovic 1968), respectivement. Sur la base de ces propriétés, le propanol 2 a été utilisé pour identifier la contribution à la fois de $\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$ dans la dégradation du NC. Le propanol 2 a été ajouté à 1, 3 et 5 mM et les résultats sont présentés sur la Figure 4.3. La présence de propanol 2 en excès (rapport molaire alcool/NC= 39, 117 et 195 pour les trois doses respectives d'alcool) a eu une influence négligeable sur le taux d'élimination du NC, ce qui signifie que $\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$ ne sont pas impliqués dans la dégradation du colorant. Cette affirmation est en bon accord avec celle de Li et al (2016) qui utilisent l'éthanol comme piègeur de $\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$ pendant l'activation du périodate par le charbon actif en grain pour la dégradation de l'acide orange 7 dans l'eau distillée. D'autre part, Yun et al (2017) ont démontré que les principales espèces responsables de la dégradation du phénol par l'activation du périodate sensibilisée par la Rhodamine B dans l'eau distillée sont les radicaux iodés (IO_3^\bullet et IO_4^\bullet). Ainsi, en éliminant la contribution à la fois de $\bullet\text{OH}$ et $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$, le phénol pourrait être efficace pour vérifier la contribution des radicaux iodés dans la dégradation photo-assistée du NC.

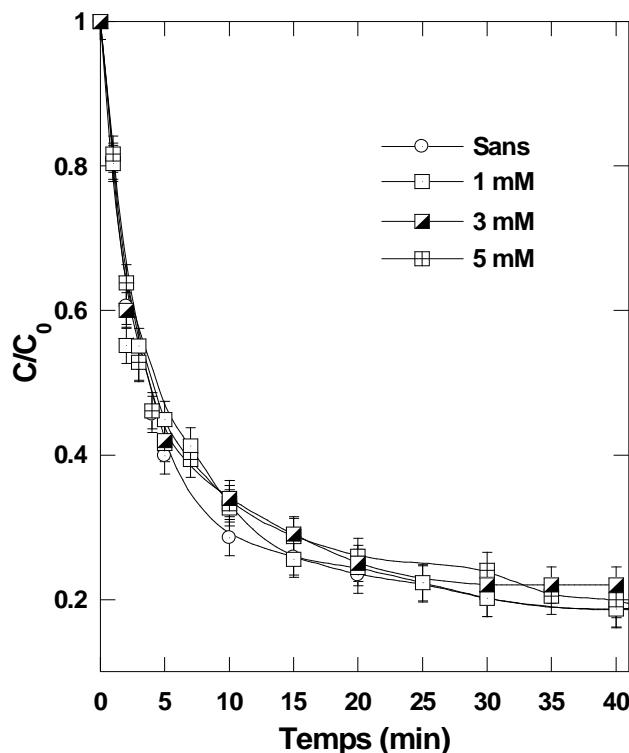
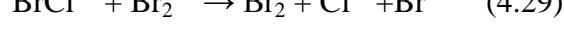
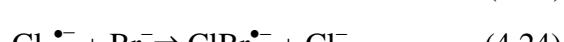
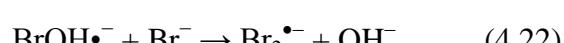
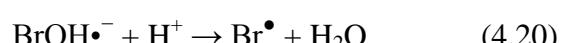
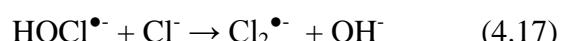


Figure 4.3 : Effet du propanol 2 sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ ($25,5 \mu\text{M}$), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{propanol2}]_0 = 1-5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

La Figure 4.4 illustre l'effet de l'addition du phénol à 0,01, 0,1 et 1 mM (rapport molaire phénol/NC= 0,39, 3,9 et 39 pour les trois doses respectives du phénol) sur la cinétique d'élimination du colorant. La dégradation du colorant a été considérablement réduite par l'addition du phénol à 0,01 et 0,1 mM, alors qu'une inhibition de 100% a été obtenue avec 1 mM du phénol. Ceci indique le rôle central joué par les radicaux iodés (IO_3^\bullet et IO_4^\bullet) dans le processus de dégradation. Par conséquent, l'analyse de piégeage chimique des radicaux démontre que la dégradation du NC par le système UV/ IO_4^- est probablement conduite par les radicaux iodés. Cependant, il est également possible que des radicaux chlorés (Cl^\bullet et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$) et bromés (Br^\bullet et $\text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$), provenant de la réaction des radicaux $\bullet\text{OH}$ et IO_3^\bullet avec les ions chlorures et bromures (Equations 4.15- 4.30, (Belghit et al. 2020)), peuvent également être impliqués dans le processus de dégradation. Bien que sélectifs, les radicaux Cl^\bullet et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ sont connus comme étant des oxydants puissants ($E^\circ = 2.43$ V pour Cl^\bullet et 2.13 V pour $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$) qui jouent un rôle centrale dans la dégradation des polluants organique par le system UV/chlore (Remucal and Manley 2016; Laat and Stefan 2017). Il est cependant difficile de confirmer leurs contributions directes dans le system UV/périodate/eau de mer à cause de la complexité de ce dernier système.



Il est important de noter ici qu'une analyse complète de la contribution des radicaux oxygénés et iodés dans la dégradation du NC dans l'eau pure a été faite grâce à une étude de simulation approfondie, où un mécanisme réactionnel de 45 réactions chimiques a été validé par les résultats expérimentaux de dégradation. Cette étude, qui est portée en Annexe E, a montré que dans toutes les conditions imposées, les radicaux IO_3^\bullet et $\bullet\text{OH}$ sont responsables de la dégradation du NC avec une contribution de 21 et 79% pour IO_3^\bullet et $\bullet\text{OH}$ respectivement.

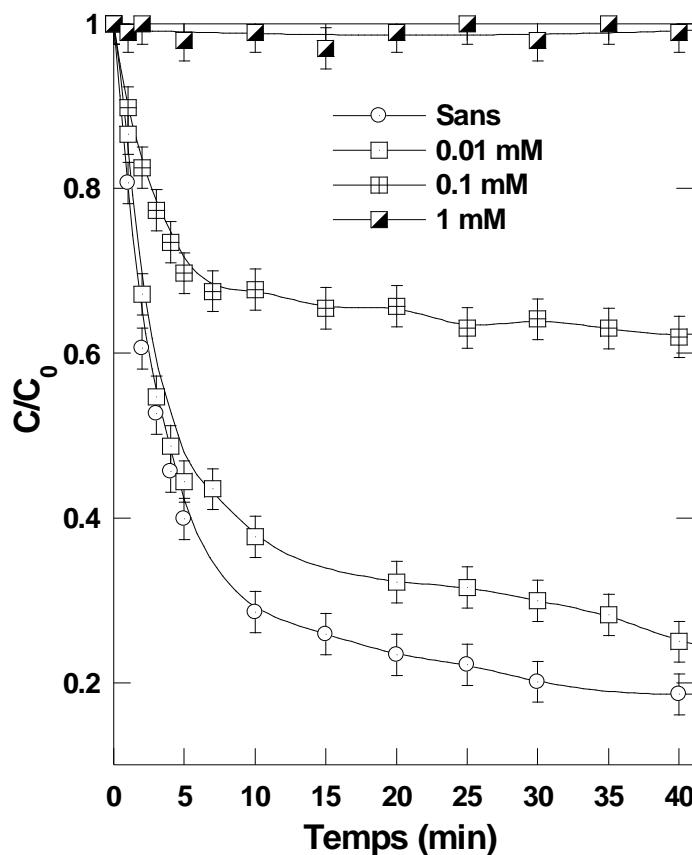


Figure 4.4 : Effet du phénol sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $\text{C}_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ ($25,5 \mu\text{M}$), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, [phénol]₀ = 0,01-1 mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

4.1.3. Effet de la salinité de l'eau de mer sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/ IO_4^-

Comme nous l'avons déjà mentionné, l'eau de mer est une matrice complexe contenant une charge excessive de piégeurs des radicaux tels que Cl^- , Br^- et SO_4^{2-} . En particulier, les ions chlorures et bromures ont montré un effet inhibiteur sur l'efficacité de plusieurs procédés d'oxydation avancés (Yang et al. 2010; Gu et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2011; Chadi et al. 2019; Meghlaoui et al. 2019). Pour évaluer l'impact de la salinité de

l'eau de mer (~ 35 g/L de sels) sur la performance du procédé UV/ IO_4^- , la dégradation du NC par UV et UV/ IO_4^- dans l'eau de mer a été comparée avec celle obtenue dans l'eau distillée et les résultats trouvés sont présentés sur la Figure 4.5. Pour les deux procédés, UV et UV/ IO_4^- , la vitesse de dégradation du NC est plus élevée dans l'eau distillée que dans l'eau de mer.

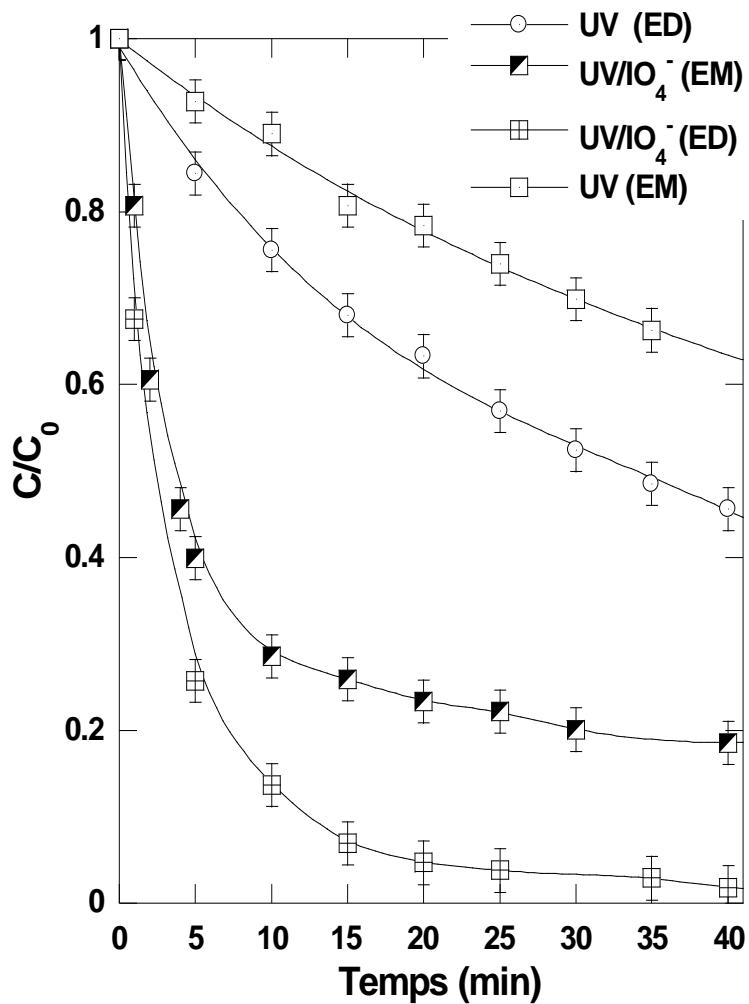


Figure 4.5 : Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV et UV/ IO_4^- dans l'eau distillée (ED) et l'eau de mer (EM) (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20$ mg/L (25.5 μM), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5$ mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

La salinité de l'eau de mer exerce une réduction similaire d'environ 17% sur le rendement d'élimination, calculé après 40 min, pour les deux procédés (UV et UV/ IO_4^-). Le fait que l'eau de mer impose le même degré de réduction pour les deux systèmes, il est possible de conclure qu'il n'y a pas de réactions significatives entre les radicaux iodés et les anions chlorures et bromures et que la réduction de 17% imposé par l'eau de mer sur

l'efficacité des deux systèmes (UV et UV/périodate) est probablement attribuée à l'atténuation de la lumière, dans laquelle les sels agissant comme un écran lumineux, réduisant ainsi l'efficacité de réception des photons et, par conséquent, diminuant le taux de dégradation du polluant.

4.1.4. Effet du pH de la solution sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO₄⁻

L'effet du pH sur la dégradation des polluants organiques par le procédé UV/IO₄⁻ est jusqu'à présent non claire. Dans cette étude, l'influence du pH sur la performance du procédé UV/IO₄⁻ envers l'élimination du NC (20 mg/L) dans l'eau mer a été étudiée à différents pH initiaux allant de 2 à 7 (Figure 4.6). La concentration initiale du périodate est maintenue constante à 0,5 mM. La Figure 4.6 indique que l'efficacité de dégradation du polluant est plus élevée dans des conditions acides (pH 2-4). Après 15 minutes de réaction, 25 % du NC reste dans la solution pour un pH de 3-4, le taux de dégradation diminue ensuite graduellement de pH 4 à pH 6 tandis qu'une forte inhibition de la dégradation est obtenue à pH 7. Toutefois, 65, 58 et 27 % de la concentration initiale du NC sont éliminés à pH 5, 6 et 7 respectivement. Il convient de noter qu'une légère précipitation a été observée à pH 7 et ce phénomène a devenu massif pour des valeurs de pH supérieures à 7. De ce fait, l'application du procédé UV/périodate dans l'eau de mer est faisable uniquement pour des pH inférieurs à 7.

Les résultats rapportés dans la littérature sur l'effet du pH sont très controversés. Par exemple, Tang et Weavers (2008) ont trouvé qu'un milieu acide (pH 3) favorise l'élimination du COT que des conditions neutre (pH 7) et basique (pH 10). Lee et Yoon (2004) ont montré qu'un pH varie entre 1,5 et 10 n'a aucun impact sur la vitesse dégradation du colorant azoïque réactive noir 5. En outre, des valeurs optimales du pH de 7,6 et 6,4 ont été rapportées pour la dégradation de la Triethanolamine et d'acide bleu 25, respectivement (Weavers et al. 1997; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui, 2014). Cependant, il convient de mentionner que tous les travaux de la littérature ont été réalisés dans l'eau distillée où le diagramme de spéciation du périodate, qui est disponible pour l'eau pure, a été utilisé pour expliquer les résultats obtenus. Le diagramme de spéciation du périodate (0.5 mM IO₄⁻) dans l'eau distillée a montré que IO₄⁻ est l'espèce prédominante pour un pH < 8 alors que la forme dimère, H₂I₂O₁₀⁴⁻, est l'espèce dominante pour un pH supérieur à 8 (Figure 4.7). L'étude de simulation menée sur la dégradation du NC dans l'eau distillée (Annexe E) a confirmé que la photodissociation du périodate et la concentration des

radicaux libres se trouvent diminuer avec l'augmentation du pH de la solution. Cependant, malgré cela, l'interprétation de l'effet du pH dans notre cas reste difficile en raison de l'indisponibilité du diagramme de spéciation du périodate dans l'eau de mer. Néanmoins, sur la base des résultats observés, il est recommandé d'opérer le procédé UV/périodate pour des pH inférieurs à 7 afin d'éviter la précipitation du périodate et ainsi la réduction du rendement de dégradation.

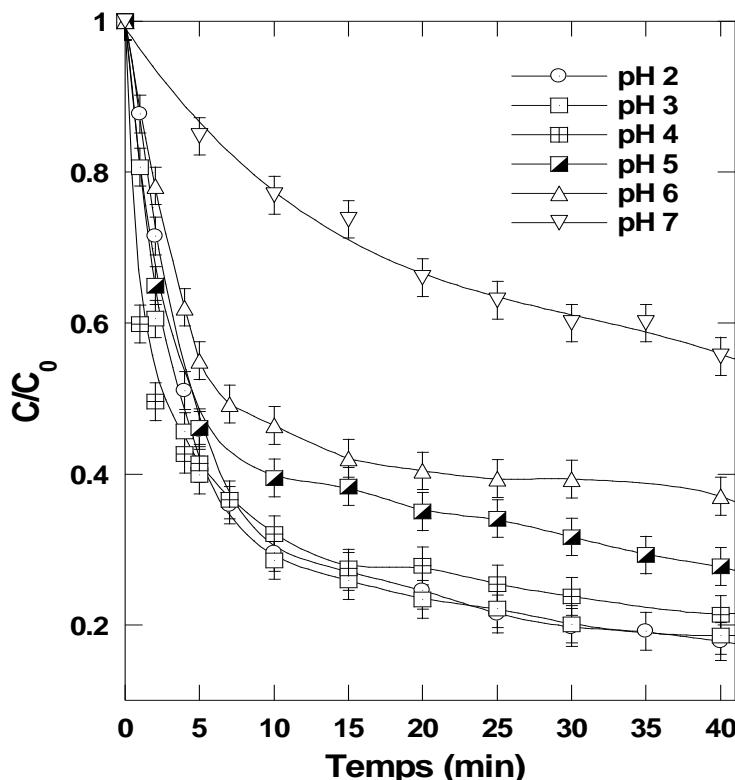


Figure 4.6 : Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ ($25,5 \mu\text{M}$), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 2-7, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

4.1.5. Effet de la concentration initiale du périodate sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/ IO_4^-

Des expériences de dégradation ont été menées en fixant la concentration initiale du NC à 20 mg/L et en faisant varier la concentration du périodate de 0,05 à 5 mM. Un essai témoin, sans périodate, a également été effectué à titre de comparaison. La Figure 4.8 représente les concentrations normalisées du NC (C/C_0) en fonction du temps pour les différentes doses du périodate. Comme le montre cette Figure, l'efficacité de dégradation a été fortement augmentée avec l'augmentation de la concentration du périodate de 0,05 à 1 mM, mais lorsque la concentration de IO_4^- a encore augmenté au-dessus de 1 mM, la

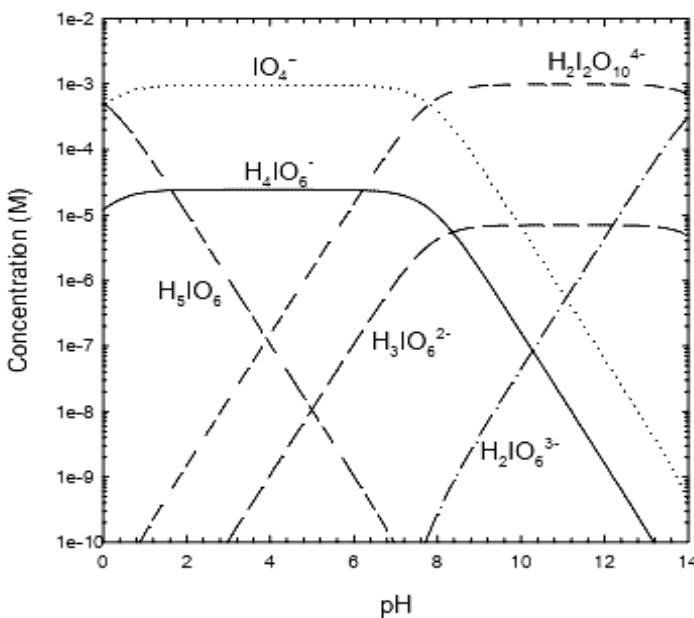


Figure 4.7 : Diagramme de spéciation du périodate (0.5 mM) dans l'eau pure (Lee et al. 2014)

vitesse initiale de dégradation a été améliorée de façon insignifiante. Après 40 min de traitement, le pourcentage d'élimination du NC est passé de 35% (sans IO₄⁻) à 49, 55, 75, 82 et 88 % pour, respectivement, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 et 1 mM de IO₄⁻. La vitesse initiale de dégradation du polluant est 4, 11.68, 13.16 et 14 fois plus grande lorsque le traitement par UV est assisté par 0.05, 0.3, 0.5 et 1 mM de IO₄⁻, respectivement. Comme les radicaux iodés sont les principaux oxydants impliqués dans la dégradation du colorant, la photodissociation du périodate pourrait être plus importante à des concentrations plus élevées de IO₄⁻ et, par conséquent, une plus grande quantité des radicaux serait générée, ce qui provoquerait un taux de dégradation plus rapide. Ce scénario a été bien confirmé par l'étude de simulation porté en annexe E, où la concentration des radicaux IO₃[•] et •OH augmente de manière significative avec l'augmentation de la dose du périodate lors de la dégradation du NC dans l'eau distillée. Cependant, la diminution de l'effet positif du [IO₄⁻]₀ au-dessus de 1 mM peut être due au piégeage des radicaux libres par l'excès de IO₄⁻ selon la Réaction 4.5. Cette dernière réaction est caractérisée par une constante de vitesse élevée de (2–7).10⁸ M⁻¹s⁻¹ (Chia et al. 2004). De plus, pour des concentrations élevées en radicaux, les réactions de recombinaison radicalaire (Equations 4.11 et 4.12) pouvant entrer en compétition avec les réactions radicaux-NC, ce qui réduit la portion des radicaux régissant avec le polluant. En particulier, la Réaction 4.11 a une constante de vitesse élevée de 7,5.10⁸ M⁻¹s⁻¹ (Barat et al. 1982), ce qui en ferait une réaction parasitaire

importante qui réduit la dégradation du colorant à une dose élevée du périodate. Une situation similaire a été rapportée par Hamdaoui et Merouani (2017) pour la sono-activation du périodate appliquée pour la dégradation du colorant Brilliant bleu R dans l'eau distillée pour des concentrations élevées en IO_4^- .

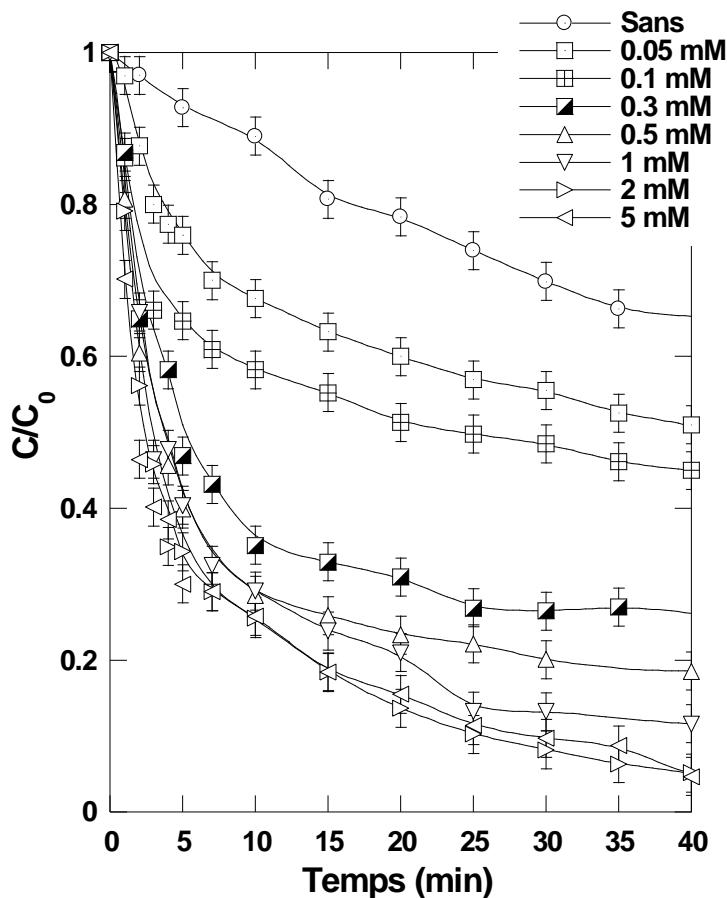


Figure 4.8 : Effet de la concentration initiale du périodate sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ ($25,5 \mu\text{M}$), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0-5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

4.1.6. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/ IO_4^-

Des expériences de dégradation par le système UV/ IO_4^- ont été réalisées dans l'eau de mer à pH 3 pour des concentrations initiales en NC de 5, 10, 20 et 50 mg L⁻¹. La concentration initiale de IO_4^- a été fixée à 0,5 mM. Les résultats obtenus sont représentés sur la Figure 4.9(a) Comme on peut l'observer, l'efficacité d'élimination après 15 min de traitement est diminuée de 100 % pour $C_0 = 5 \text{ mg/L}$ à 86.6% pour $C_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, 75.1 % pour $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ et 45 % pour $C_0 = 50 \text{ mg/L}$ (Figure 4.9(a)). En revanche, la quantité éliminée du colorant augmente de manière significative, passant de 8,66 mg/L pour $C_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$ à 15 et 22,5 mg/L pour $C_0 = 20$ et 50 mg/L, respectivement. Ainsi, la vitesse de

dégradation est plus élevée lorsque la concentration initiale du colorant est plus grande (Figure 4.9(b)). Cependant, il convient d'indiquer ici que la dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer ne peut pas être décrite avec une loi cinétique de pseudo-premier ordre car il n'existe pas une relation linéaire entre la vitesse initiale de dégradation (r_0) et la concentration initiale du NC (C_0), comme le montre la Figure 4.9(b). Toutes ces observations sont en accord avec celles rapportées par Ghodbane et Hamdaoui (2016) pour la dégradation d'acide Bleu 25 dans l'eau distillée. En général, pour une concentration fixée en périodate la vitesse de photogénération des radicaux est théoriquement constante. L'augmentation de la concentration initiale du NC dans le milieu réactionnel limite la recombinaison radicalaire et favorise les réactions radicaux-colorant. Ainsi, la quantité des radicaux piégés par les molécules du colorant serait augmentée, ce qui se traduirait par des vitesses initiales de dégradation plus élevées.

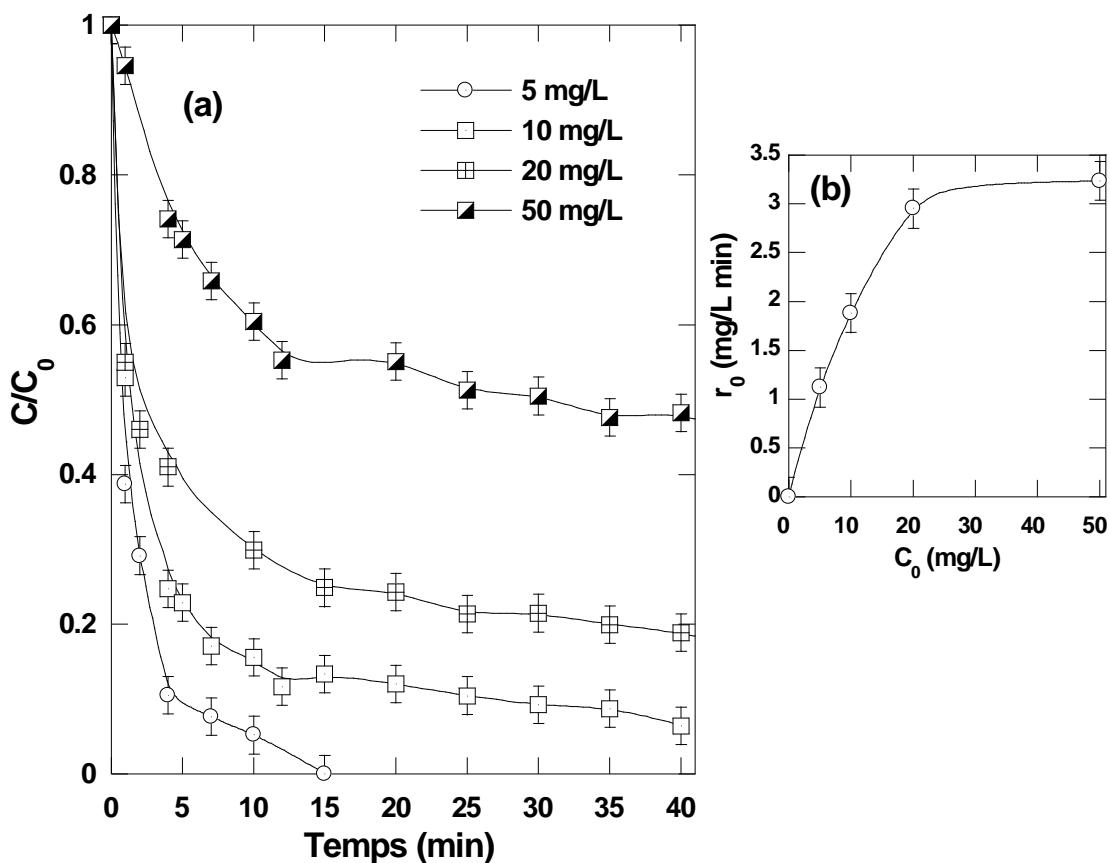


Figure 4.9 : Effet de la concentration initiale du colorant sur sa cinétique de dégradation dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 5-50$ mg/L, $[IO_4^-]_0 = 0,5$ mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$). La figure insérée (b) insérée représente la variation de la vitesse initiale de dégradation (r_0) en fonction de la concentration initiale du colorant (C_0).

4.1.7. Effet de la température du liquide sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO₄⁻

La température du liquide a un effet important sur l'efficacité de plusieurs PAO basées sur les radicaux •OH et SO₄•⁻ (Jiang et al. 2006; Son and Zoh 2012; Merouani et al. 2016, 2017). L'effet de la température du liquide sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO₄⁻ n'a pas été étudié dans la littérature, ni dans l'eau d'ionisée ni dans l'eau de mer. La Figure 4.10 montre la cinétique de dégradation du NC (20 mg/L) par UV/IO₄⁻ (0.5 mM) pour 25, 35, 45 et 55 °C. La dégradation du NC n'a pas été affectée par l'augmentation de la température du liquide, ce qui reflète la stabilité thermique du périodate dans l'intervalle de température de 25-55 °C.

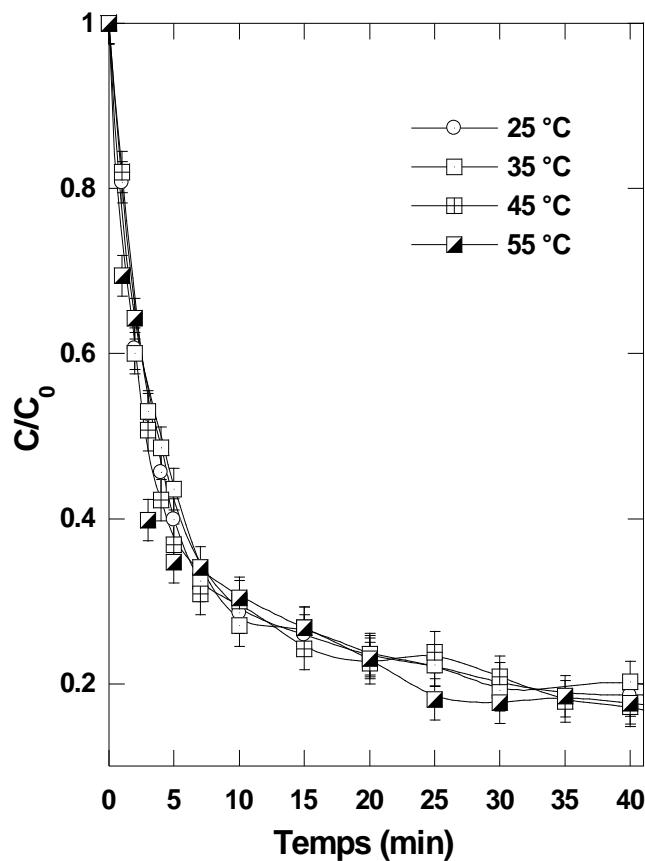


Figure 4.10 : Effet de la température du liquide sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, C₀ = 20 mg/L (25,5 µM), [IO₄⁻]₀ = 0,5 mM, pH 3, température: 25-55 °C).

4.1.8. Effet des tensioactifs sur l'efficacité du procédé UV/IO₄⁻

Les tensioactifs sont usuellement déchargés dans les eaux usées domestiques et industrielles en quantités considérables. Il sera donc intéressant d'examiner l'effet des tensioactifs sur la performance du procédé UV/IO₄⁻ envers l'élimination des polluants organiques. La Figure 4.11(a) a montré l'effet du tensioactif anionique dodécylsulfate de

sodium (DSS) sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer. Comme le montre cette figure, la présence du DSS avec des concentrations allant de 17 à 70 μM n'a aucune influence sur l'élimination photo-assistée du NC par le périodate. La même tendance a été observée dans l'eau distillée (Figure 4.11(b)). D'autres manipes ont été effectuées avec d'autres tensioactifs (triton X-100, tween 20, tween 80 et adogen 464), mais cette fois-ci dans l'eau distillée (Figures 11(c)-(f)). Similairement à l'effet de DSS, le tween 20 et tween 80 n'ont pas influencé la performance d'élimination du NC, et ce pour des concentrations de 0.1-30 μM pour le tween 20 et 0.1-10 μM pour le tween 80 (Figures 11(c) et 11(d)). Par contre, le tensioactif triton X-100 et adogen 464 ont montré un effet inhibiteur remarquable sur la dégradation du NC dans l'eau distillée (Figures 11(e) et 11(f)). Cet effet inhibiteur imposé par le triton X-100 et l'adogen 464 a été remarqué pour plusieurs contaminants traités par différents types de PAO (Destaillets et al. 2001; Almarhabi and Ashokkumar 2015; Rayaroth et al. 2015). Le même effet est également observé pour le cas du triton X-100 sur la dégradation du NC par l'acétone photoactivé (Chapitre III, paragraphe 3.1.8). Il convient de noter ici que Les concentrations des tensioactifs ont été sélectionnées de façon à ne pas dépasser leurs concentrations micellaires critiques (CMC, voir le Tableau 2.2 du chapitre II)

4.1.9. Performance du procédé dans d'autres matrices naturelles

En plus de l'eau de mer, la dégradation du NC a été étudiée dans une eau naturelle minérale et une eau sortant d'une station d'épuration (STEP), tout en gardant les mêmes conditions opératoires précédentes (25°C , $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$). Les caractéristiques principales de l'eau minérale et l'eau de STEP sont données dans le Chapitre II, paragraphe 2.1.2. Les résultats présentés sur la Figure 4.12 montrent que le procédé garde une performance élevée de traitement dans l'eau minérale, mais une perte importante d'efficacité est observée dans l'eau de STEP.

L'ordre de l'efficacité du procédé est : Eau distillée ~ Eau minérale > Eau de mer > Eau de STEP. Le fait que l'eau minérale et l'eau distillée imposent le même taux d'élimination, ceci signifie qu'il n'y a pas de réactions entre les radicaux iodés et les constituants minéraux (chlorure ou sulfate) de l'eau minérale.

Cependant, les sels d'eau de mer exercent une réduction d'environ 17% par apport à l'eau distillée. Cette diminution a été expliquée précédemment par l'atténuation de la lumière, dans laquelle les sels agissant comme écran lumineux, réduisant ainsi l'efficacité de réception des photons.

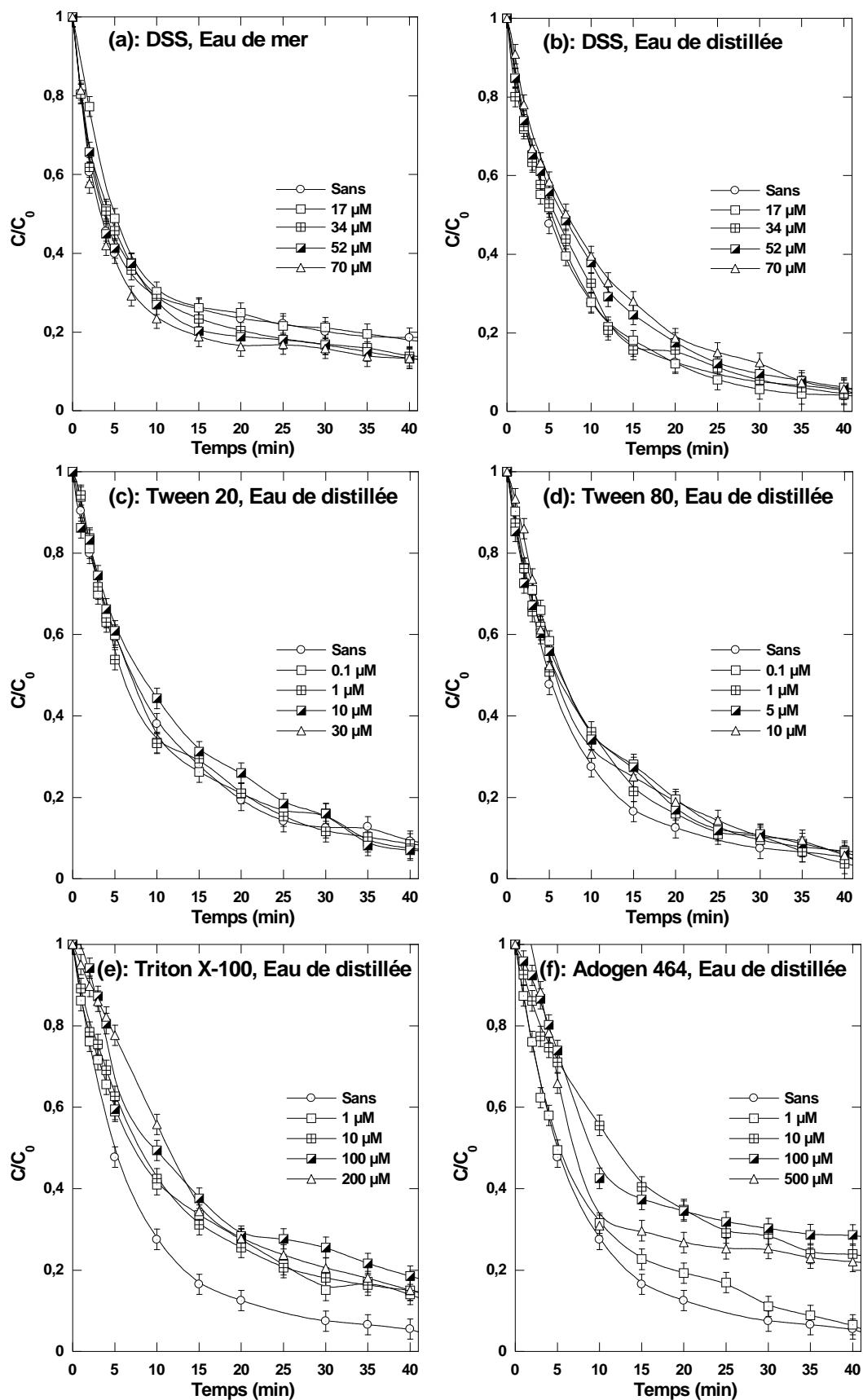


Figure 4.11 : Effet des tensioactifs sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer (a) et l'eau distillée (b-f) par le procédé UV/IO₄⁻ (conditions – volume : 250 mL, C₀ = 20 mg/L (25,5 µM), [IO₄⁻]₀ = 0,5 mM, pH 3, température: 25 ± 1°C).

Par contre, l'eau épurée exerce une réduction d'environ 30 % par rapport à l'eau distillée. Cette observation peut être attribuée à la présence des matières organiques naturelles (MON : acides humiques et fulviques) dans cette matrice complexe. Les MON peuvent entrer en compétition avec les molécules du NC pour réagir avec les radicaux libres, ce qui réduit l'efficacité du processus de dégradation radicalaire. Il est également possible que cette perte remarquable d'efficacité dans l'eau de STEP est due à la présence de matières colloïdales en suspensions qui bloquent la pénétration de la lumière UV dans l'ensemble de la solution.

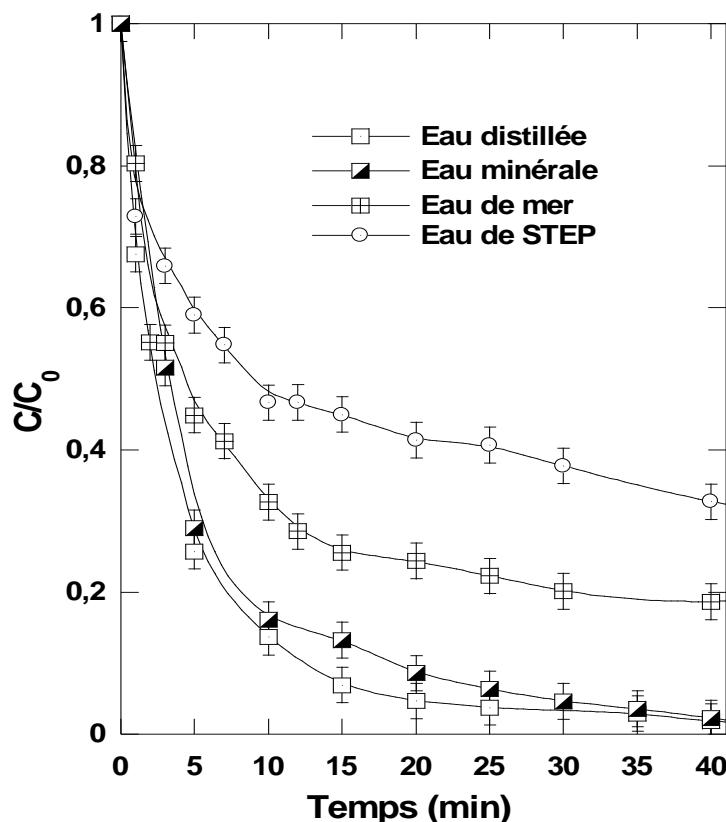


Figure 4.12 : Effet des matrices naturelles sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ (25,5 μM), $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ °C)

Conclusion

Les résultats de ce chapitre ont montré que le procédé d'oxydation UV/ IO_4^- fournit de bonnes performances vis-à-vis la dégradation des polluants organiques persistants dans l'eau de mer. La quantité trop élevée des sels présents dans l'eau de mer n'a pas altéré significativement l'efficacité du système UV/ IO_4^- pour la dégradation du colorant azoïque noir chlorazol. Par ailleurs, le procédé garde une efficacité très élevée dans l'eau minérale naturelle tandis qu'il perd considérablement son pouvoir d'application dans une eau

épurée. Le taux de dégradation du colorant par UV/périodate dans l'eau de mer était considérablement plus élevé que celui d'UV seule. Cette amélioration significative est due à l'implication des radicaux libres résultant de la photodissociation du périodate par la lumière ultraviolette. Le taux de dégradation augmente avec l'augmentation de la concentration initiale de IO_4^- mais une dose optimale a été considérée pour obtenir un meilleur taux de dégradation. Le procédé UV/ IO_4^- ne peut s'appliquer que pour des pH inférieurs à 7 pour les matrices naturelles (eau de mer, eau minérale et eau de STEP). Les conditions acides assurent la meilleure performance du procédé dans toutes les matrices étudiées.

References

- Almarhabi S, Ashokkumar M (2015) Sonochemical degradation of p-toluenesulfonic acid in aqueous environment. *Energy Environ Focus* 4:239–244. doi: 10.1166/eef.2015.1166
- Anipsitakis GP, Dionysiou DD, Gonzalez MA (2006) Cobalt-mediated activation of peroxyomonosulfate and sulfate radical attack on phenolic compounds . Implications of chloride Ions. *Environmantal Sci Technol* 40:1000–1007.
- Asghar A, Aziz A, Raman A, et al (2015) Advanced oxidation processes for in-situ production of hydrogen peroxide/hydroxyl radical for textile wastewater treatment: A review. *J Clean Prod* 87:826–838. doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.010
- Barat F, Gilles L, Hickel B, Lesigne B (1971) Transient species in the pulse radiolysis of periodate ion in neutral aqueous solutions. *Chem Commun* 847:847–848. doi: 10.1039/C29710000847
- Barat F, Gilles L, Hickel B, Lesigne B (1982) Pulsed radioIysis and flash photolysis of iodates in aqueous solution. *J Phys Chem* 76:302–307. doi: 10.1021/j100647a004
- Belghit A, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, et al (2020) The multiple role of inorganic and organic additives in the degradation of reactive green 12 by UV/chlorine advanced oxidation process. *Environ Technol*:1–27. doi: 10.1080/09593330.2020.1807609
- Bhattacharyya SN, Bardhan dK (1970) Radiolysis of aqueous solution of potassium periodate. *Bull Chem Soc Jpn* 43:2808–2811. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1246/bcsj.43.2808>
- Brown MA, De Vito SC (1993) Predicting azo dye toxicity. *Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol* 23:249–324. doi: 10.1080/10643389309388453
- Buxton GV, Greenstock CL, Helman WP, Ross AB (1988) Critical review of rate constants for reactions of hydrated Electrons, hydrogen atoms and hydroxyl radicals ('OH/O⁻) in aqueous solution. *J Phys Chem Ref Data* 17:515–886. doi: 0047-2689/88/020513-374\$20.00
- Chadi NE, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, et al (2019) Influence of mineral water constituents, organic matter and water matrices on the performance of the H₂O₂/IO₄⁻ advanced oxidation process. *Environ Sci Water Res Technol* 5:1985–1992. doi: 10.1039/c9ew00329k
- Chia LH, Tang X, Weavers LK (2004) Kinetics and mechanism of photoactivated periodate reaction with 4-chlorophenol in acidic solution. *Environ Sci Technol* 38:6875–6880. doi: 10.1021/es049155n

- Destaillets H, Alderson TW, Hoffmann MR (2001) Applications of ultrasound in NAPL remediation: Sonochemical degradation of TCE in aqueous surfactant solutions. *Environ Sci Technol* 35:3019–3024. doi: 10.1021/es0018926
- Eren Z (2012) Ultrasound as a basic and auxiliary process for dye remediation: A review. *J Environ Manage* 104:127–141. doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2012.03.028
- Ghodbane H, Hamdaoui O (2016) Degradation of anthraquinonic dye in water by photoactivated periodate. *Desalin Water Treat* 57:4100–4109. doi: 10.1080/19443994.2014.988657
- Ghodbane H, Hamdaoui O (2010) Decolorization of antraquinonic dye, C.I. Acid Blue 25, in aqueous solution by direct UV irradiation, UV/H₂O₂ and UV/Fe(II) processes. *Chem Eng J* 160:226–231. doi: 10.1016/j.cej.2010.03.049
- Gu X, Lu S, Li L, et al (2011) Oxidation of 1,1,1-Trichloroethane stimulated by thermally activated persulfate. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 50:11029–11036. doi: 10.1021/ie201059x
- Hamdaoui O, Merouani S (2017) Improvement of sonochemical degradation of brilliant blue R in water using periodate ions: Implication of iodine radicals in the oxidation process. *Ultrason Sonochem* 37:344–350. doi: 10.1016/j.ultsonch.2017.01.025
- Jiang Y, Petrier C, Waite TD (2006) Sonolysis of 4-chlorophenol in aqueous solution: effects of substrate concentration, aqueous temperature and ultrasonic frequency. *Ultrason Sonochem* 13:415–22. doi: 10.1016/j.ultsonch.2005.07.003
- Kato A, Cvetanovic RJ (1968) Reactions of oxygen atoms with 2-propanol and methanol. *Can J Chem* 46:235–240. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1139/v68-037>
- Klaning UK, Sehested K, Wolef T (1981) Laser flash photolysis and pulse radiolysis of iodate and periodate in aqueous solution. *J Chem Soc, Faraday Trans* 77:1707–1718. doi: 10.1039/F19817701707
- Konstantinou IK, Albanis TA (2004) TiO₂-assisted photocatalytic degradation of azo dyes in aqueous solution: Kinetic and mechanistic investigations: A review. *Appl Catal B Environ* 49:1–14. doi: 10.1016/j.apcatb.2003.11.010
- Laat J DE, Stefan M (2017) UV/chlorine process. In: Stefan MI (ed) Advanced oxidation processes for water treatment. IWA Publishing, London, UK: 383–428
- Lee C, Yoon J (2004) Application of photoactivated periodate to the decolorization of reactive dye: Reaction parameters and mechanism. *J Photochem Photobiol A Chem* 165:35–41. doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochem.2004.02.018
- Lee H, Yoo HY, Choi J, et al (2014) Oxidizing capacity of periodate activated with iron-based bimetallic nanoparticles. *Environ Sci Technol* 48:8086–8093. doi:

10.1021/es5002902

Li X, Liu X, Qi C, Lin C (2016) Activation of periodate by granular activated carbon for acid orange 7 decolorization. *J Taiwan Inst Chem Eng* 68:211–217. doi: 10.1016/j.jtice.2016.08.039

Long A, Lei Y, Zhang H (2014) Degradation of toluene by a selective ferrous ion activated persulfate oxidation process. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 53:1033–1039.

Meghlaoui FZ, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, et al (2019) Rapid catalytic degradation of refractory textile dyes in Fe(II)/chlorine system at near neutral pH: Radical mechanism involving chlorine radical anion ($\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$)-mediated transformation pathways and impact of environmental matrices. *Sep Purif Technol* 227:115685. doi: 10.1016/j.seppur.2019.115685

Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Bouhelassa M (2017) Degradation of Safranin O by thermally activated persulfate in the presence of mineral and organic additives: impact of environmental matrices. *Desalin Water Treat* 75:202–212. doi: 10.5004/dwt.2017.20404

Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, Boutamine Z, et al (2016) Experimental and numerical investigation of the effect of liquid temperature on the sonolytic degradation of some organic dyes in water. *Ultrason Sonochem* 28:382–392. doi: 10.1016/j.ultsonch.2015.08.015

Neta P, Huie RE, Ross AB (1988) Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. *J Phys Chem Ref Data* 17:1027–1284. doi: 0047-2689/88/031027-258/\$21.00

Parsons S (2004) Advanced oxidation processes for water and wastewater treatment. IWA Publishing., London, UK

Patil SF, Patil RM, Mudaliar M (1990) Effect of iso-propanol on the radiolysis of aqueous solutions of periodate. *J Radioanal Nucl Chem* 139:323–329.

Petri BG, Watts RJ, Tsitonaki A, et al (2011) Fundamentals of ISCO using persulfate. In: Siegrist RL, Crimi M, Simpkin TJ (eds) *In situ chemical oxidation for groundwater remediation*. Springer, New York: 3:33-88.

Rayaroth MP, Aravind UK, Aravindakumar CT (2015) Sonochemical degradation of Coomassie Brilliant Blue: Effect of frequency, power density, pH and various additives. *Chemosphere* 119:848–855. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.08.037

Remucal CK, Manley D (2016) Emerging investigators series: The efficacy of chlorine photolysis as an advanced oxidation process for drinking water treatment. *Environ Sci*

- Water Res Technol 2:565–579. doi: 10.1039/c6ew00029k
- Rodríguez M (2003) Fenton and UV-vis based advanced oxidation processes in wastewater treatment: Degradation, mineralization and biodegradability enhancement. 296.
- Son H, Zoh K (2012) Effects of Methanol and Carbon Tetrachloride on Sonolysis of 1,4-Dioxane in Relation to Temperature.
- Taamallah A, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O (2016) Sonochemical degradation of basic fuchsin in water. Desalin Water Treat 3994:0–17. doi: 10.1080/19443994.2016.1168320
- Tang X, Weavers LK (2008) Using photoactivated periodate to decompose TOC from hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents. J Photochem Photobiol A Chem 194:212–219. doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochem.2007.08.014
- Tang X, Weavers LK (2007) Decomposition of hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents using photoactivated periodate. J Photochem Photobiol A Chem 187:311–318. doi: 10.1016/j.jphotochem.2006.10.029
- Tarr MA (2003) Chemical degradation methods for wastes and pollutants. Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York, USA
- Tsitonaki A, Petri B, Crimi M, et al (2010) In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate : A review. Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol 40:55–91. doi: 10.1080/10643380802039303
- Wagner I, Strehlow H (1982) Flash photolysis in aqueous periodate-solutions. Ber Bunsenges Phys Chem 86:297–301. doi: 0005-9021/82/0404-0297 S 02.50/0
- Wang JL, Xu LJ (2012) Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment: formation of hydroxyl radical and application. Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol 42:251–325. doi: 10.1080/10643389.2010.507698
- Wang Z, Yuan R, Guo Y, et al (2011) Effects of chloride ions on bleaching of azo dyes by Co_2^+ /oxone reagent: Kinetic analysis. J Hazard Mater 190:1083–1087. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.04.016
- Weavers LK, Hua I, Hoffmann MR (1997) Degradation of triethanolamine and chemical oxygen demand reduction in wastewater by photoactivated periodate. Water Environ Res 69:1112–1119. doi: 10.2175/106143097X125849
- Yang S, Wang P, Yang X, et al (2010) Degradation efficiencies of azo dye Acid Orange 7 by the interaction of heat, UV and anions with common oxidants: Persulfate, peroxymonosulfate and hydrogen peroxide. J Hazard Mater 179:552–558. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.03.039
- Yun ET, Yoo HY, Kim W, et al (2017) Visible-light-induced activation of periodate that

mimics dye-sensitization of TiO₂: Simultaneous decolorization of dyes and production of oxidizing radicals. *Appl Catal B Environ* 203:475–484. doi: 10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.029

CHAPITRE V

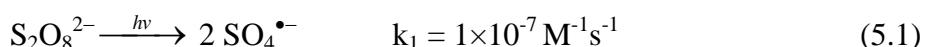
DEGRADATION DU NOIR CHLORAZOL DANS L'EAU DE MER PAR LE PROCEDE UV/PERSULFATE : IDENTIFICATION DES RADICAUX ET INFLUENCE DES PARAMETRES OPERATOIRES¹

Introduction

Les procédés d'oxydation avancés (POA) sont des moyens efficaces pour éliminer les substances persistantes et nocives dans les effluents des eaux usées (Parsons 2004). Les POA traditionnels basés sur la génération des radicaux hydroxyle ($\bullet\text{OH}$) et sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$), tels que le procédé Fenton ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$), la photocatalyse, l'UV/ H_2O_2 , l'UV/persulfate et l' $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, ont été largement appliqués pour le traitement des eaux usées et la lutte contre la pollution (Parsons 2004). Cependant, l'application de ces procédés pour les eaux usées salines est limitée par la forte réactivité des espèces radicalaires vis-à-vis les ions chlorures, sulfates, bromures, etc (Neta et al. 1988).

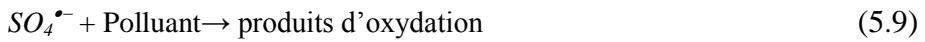
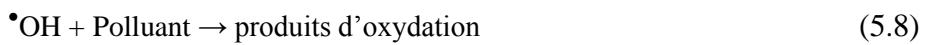
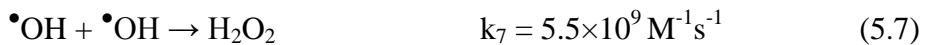
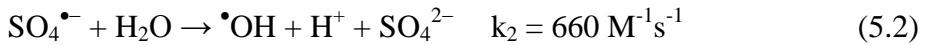
Le persulfate ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$) est considéré comme étant un oxydant très efficace pour la dégradation des polluants organiques [$E^\circ(\text{SO}_4^-/\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}) = 2.07$] (Hamdaoui and Merouani 2017). Cependant, il a été classé comme non efficace envers la dégradation des polluants organiques persistants (Song et al. 2018). Le $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ peut être transformé en espèces très réactives vis-à-vis la matière organique via plusieurs techniques d'activation telles que la lumière ultraviolette, les métaux de transition, la sonolyse (US), la radiolyse, les micro-ondes et la chaleur (Hamdaoui and Merouani 2017). Parmi plusieurs méthodes d'activation par rayonnement (UV, rayons gamma, US, etc.), l'ultraviolet a été considéré comme la méthode la plus rentable pour activer le persulfate.

La photoactivation du $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ conduit à la formation des radicaux sulfates (Equation 5.1) qui sont plus sélectives et possèdent un potentiel redox égale à 2.6 V (Song et al. 2018):



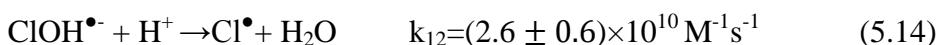
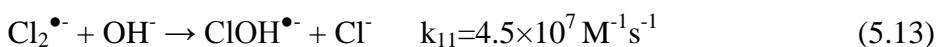
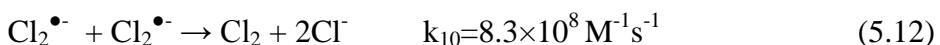
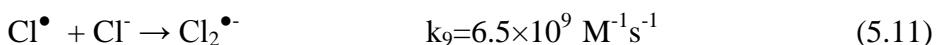
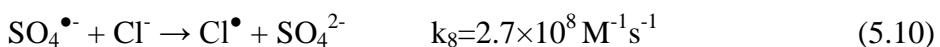
¹ Merouani S., Hamdaoui O., Bendjama H., 2020, Removal of emerging organic pollutants from seawater using photoactivated persulfate, Chap 7, In: Charles L. (editor), Marine environments diversity - Threats and conservation, Nova Science Publisher, URL:<https://novapublishers.com/shop/marine-environments-diversity-threats-and-conservation/>

Pendant la réaction, le $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ favorise la production d'autres produits intermédiaires (Amor et al. 2018). Cela peut déclencher une série des réactions libère des radicaux qui conduiront à la rupture des chaînes moléculaires des polluants (Equations 5.2- 5.9).



La photolyse de persulfate (190-300 nm) a été étudiée par de nombreux chercheurs (Zhou et al. 2016; Khandarkhaeva et al. 2015; Ruochun et al. 2015; Criquet et al. 2009; Khandarkhaeva et al. 2018). Amor et al (2018) ont montré que les principaux produits de l'oxydation du persulfate sont relativement inoffensifs pour l'environnement en raison de la haute solubilité et la stabilité du persulfate à des températures ambiantes. Cependant, des études de la littérature indiquent que les eaux usées riches en sels, particulièrement en ions chlorures, influençait fortement l'efficacité d'oxydation du système UV/persulfate (Wan et al. 2019; Dong 2018).

Par ailleurs, une nouvelle approche basée sur la photoactivation des chlorures a été rapportée (Wan et al. 2019), permettant la génération des radicaux chlorés (Cl^\bullet , $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$) à partir de la réaction des ions Cl^- avec les radicaux $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ ou $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Réactions 5.10-5.14). Bien que moins réactifs que les radicaux hydroxyles, les radicaux Cl^\bullet et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ sont sélectifs et possédant une durée de vie plus longue que celle des radicaux hydroxyles (Belghit et al. 2020).



Par conséquent, la photolyse du persulfate dans des eaux chargées en chlorures pourrait être une source des radicaux chlorés, qui pourraient être impliqués dans la dégradation des polluants organiques persistants. Les radicaux Cl^{\bullet} et $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ peuvent réagir avec les substrats par abstraction et addition d'atomes. Ils ont montré des réactivités différentes envers certains composés dans des solutions aqueuses (Belghit et al. 2020).

Il convient de noter que toutes les études qui se trouvent dans la littérature (Ma et al. 2018; Amor et al. 2018; Huang et al. 2019; Wan et al. 2019; Ao and Liu 2016; Devi et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2017) ont investigué l'effet de chlorures sur le procédé UV/Persulfate dans l'eau distillée ou les ions chlore ont été ajoutés avec des concentrations bien déterminées. En revanche, aucune recherche n'a été faite pour étudier l'applicabilité de ce procédé dans des matrices réelles très salines comme l'eau de mer, où la salinité élevée ($\sim 35 \text{ g/L}$) peut inhiber la réaction des radicaux libres avec les contaminants organiques. De ce fait, l'objectif de ce chapitre est d'évaluer l'applicabilité du procédé UV/persulfate pour la dégradation du colorant noir chlorazol (NC) dans l'eau de mer. La conversion des radicaux sulfate en radicaux chlorées a été confirmée et l'influence de différents paramètres opératoires a été clarifiée.

5.1. Résultats et discussion

5.1.1. Tests préliminaires

Pour examiner l'effet du procédé UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ sur la dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer, trois tests préliminaires ont été effectués en utilisant trois systèmes différents : (i) l'UV seul, (ii) le persulfate seul (0,5 mM) et (iii) la combinaison UV/persulfate. Les résultats obtenus, représentés sur la Figure 5.1, montrent une dégradation négligeable du NC, d'environ 1 %, en présence de 0,5 mM de persulfate au bout de 45 min de contact, tandis qu'avec les UV seuls, nous observons un taux de dégradation de plus de 40 %, mais la combinaison de ces deux systèmes donne une vitesse de dégradation plus rapide où 77 % du NC a été éliminé après 45 min. Cette augmentation est due à l'implication des radicaux libres résultant de la photodécomposition de $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ dans l'eau de mer.

5.1.2. Identification des espèces oxydantes impliquées dans la dégradation

Comme nous l'avons signalé dans l'introduction, les radicaux sulfate, hydroxyle et chlorés peuvent tous contribuer à la dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer. Pour déterminer quelles sont les espèces qui jouent un rôle prédominant, le processus de dégradation a été examiné en présence de trois sondes chimiques [*tert*-butanol (TBA), acide benzoïque (AB)

et phénol (Ph)] sélectifs vis-à-vis les radicaux formés dans le système. Le Tableau 5.1 montre la réactivité de TBA, AB et Ph envers les radicaux $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, $\cdot\text{OH}$, Cl^{\bullet} et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. Le phénol peut réagir efficacement avec tous les radicaux, il a été utilisé pour confirmer la voie radicalaire de la décomposition du NC. Le TBA peut capter à la fois $\cdot\text{OH}$ et Cl^{\bullet} , mais la réactivité du TBA envers $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ est négligeable. Le TBA est par conséquent utilisé pour apprécier le rôle commun de $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. L'AB peut réagir avec à la fois $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ et Cl^{\bullet} mais sa réactivité envers le radical $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ est négligeable. Il est ensuite utilisé pour apprécier le rôle de $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ seul.

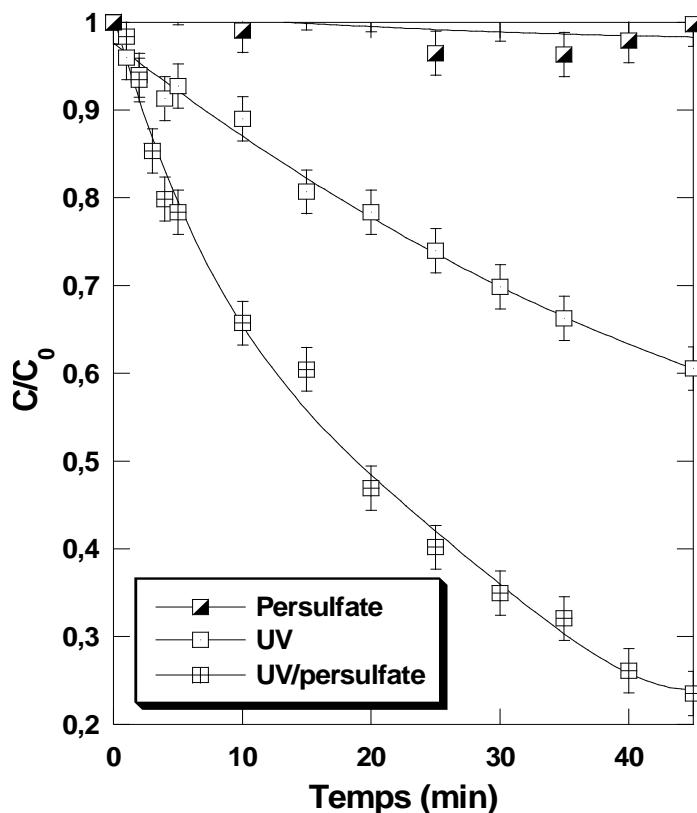


Figure 5.1 : Cinétique de dégradation du NC par UV, persulfate et UV/persulfate dans l'eau de mer (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ (25,5 μM), $[\text{persulfate}]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Tableau 5.1 : Constantes de réaction des piégeurs sélectionnés avec les radicaux dans le système UV/persulfate (Ziajka and Pasiuk-Bronikowska 2005; Tsitonaki et al. 2010; Meghlaoui et al. 2020)

Radicaux	Acide benzoïque (AB)	<i>tert</i> -butanol (TBA)	Phénol (Ph)
$\cdot\text{OH}$	$1,8 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$6 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$6,6 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$	$1,2 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$8,9 \cdot 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$8,8 \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
Cl^{\bullet}	$1,8 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$(0,8-2,5) \cdot 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$	$(0,2-1,8) \cdot 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$0-700 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$(2,5-5) \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$

La Figure 5.2 montre l'influence des trois piégeurs sur la cinétique de photodégradation du NC ($25.5 \mu\text{M}$) dans l'eau de mer en présence de 0.5 mM de persulfate. Les concentrations initiales des piégeurs sont fixées à 100 mM pour le TBA et 1 mM pour l'AB et le Ph. Ces doses ont été sélectionnées pour assurer un excès par rapport au colorant ($[\text{TBA}]_0/[\text{NC}]_0 \sim 3920$ et $[\text{Ph}]_0/[\text{NC}]_0 \sim 40$). L'addition du phénol a dramatiquement inhibé l'élimination du NC; plus 90 % du colorant est resté dans la solution après 45 min de réaction. Ceci confirme que la dégradation du NC s'effectue par voie radicalaire. De plus, l'addition de TBA a réduit l'élimination du NC par seulement 10% après 45 min, indiquant que $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ et $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ peuvent être impliqués dans la dégradation du NC. En revanche, la dégradation du NC est complètement non affectée par la présence d'AB, ce qui signifie que le radical $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ est l'espèce oxydante clé dans le système UV/persulfate/eau de mer. Cette distribution des radicaux est en très bon accord avec celle fournie par Fang et al (2012) pour la dégradation des Biphenyles polychlorés par UV/persulfate en présence des concentrations élevées d'ions chlorures ($>50 \text{ mM}$).

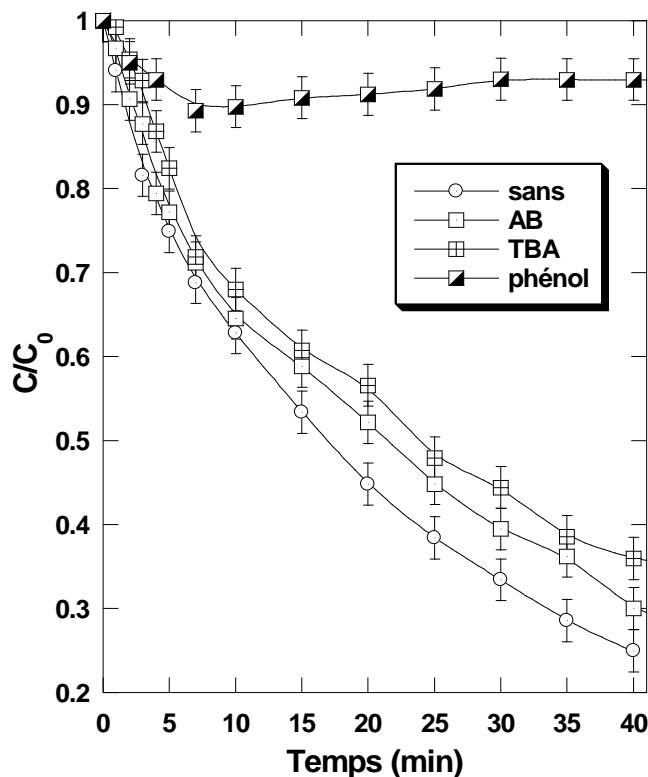


Figure 5.2 : Effet des piégeurs des radicaux, *tert*-butanol (TBA), phénol et acide benzoïque (AB), sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume: 250 mL , $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ ($25.5 \mu\text{M}$), $[\text{persulfate}]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{TBA}]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{AB}]_0 = [\text{Phénol}]_0 = 1 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

5.1.3. Effet des paramètres opératoires

5.1.3.1. Effet de la concentration initiale du NC

Pour vérifier l'effet de la concentration initiale du NC sur la performance du procédé UV/ $S_2O_8^{2-}$ dans l'eau de mer, des expériences ont été réalisées en utilisant $C_0 = 5, 10, 20$ et 50 mg/L du NC, pour une concentration initiale de 0.5 mM en persulfate à $\text{pH}=3$. Comme le montre la Figure 5.3(a), une dégradation totale du colorant a été obtenue en 20 minutes pour $C_0 = 5 \text{ mg/L}$. L'efficacité de dégradation est ensuite diminuée avec l'augmentation de la concentration du polluant, passant de 95% pour $C_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$ à 68% pour $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ et 34% pour $C_0 = 50 \text{ mg/L}$. Cependant, la quantité éliminée du NC augmente avec l'augmentation de la concentration initiale du NC, comme le montre la Figure 5.3(b). Cette dernière Figure montre également une relation non linéaire entre la vitesse de dégradation initiale (r_0) et la concentration initiale du polluant (C_0). Par conséquent, l'élimination du NC ne pouvait pas suivre une loi cinétique de pseudo-premier ordre. L'ensemble de ces observations ont été attribuées à l'augmentation de la probabilité de la réaction entre les molécules du NC et les radicaux $Cl_2^{\bullet-}$ lorsque la concentration initiale du polluant dans la solution est augmentée.

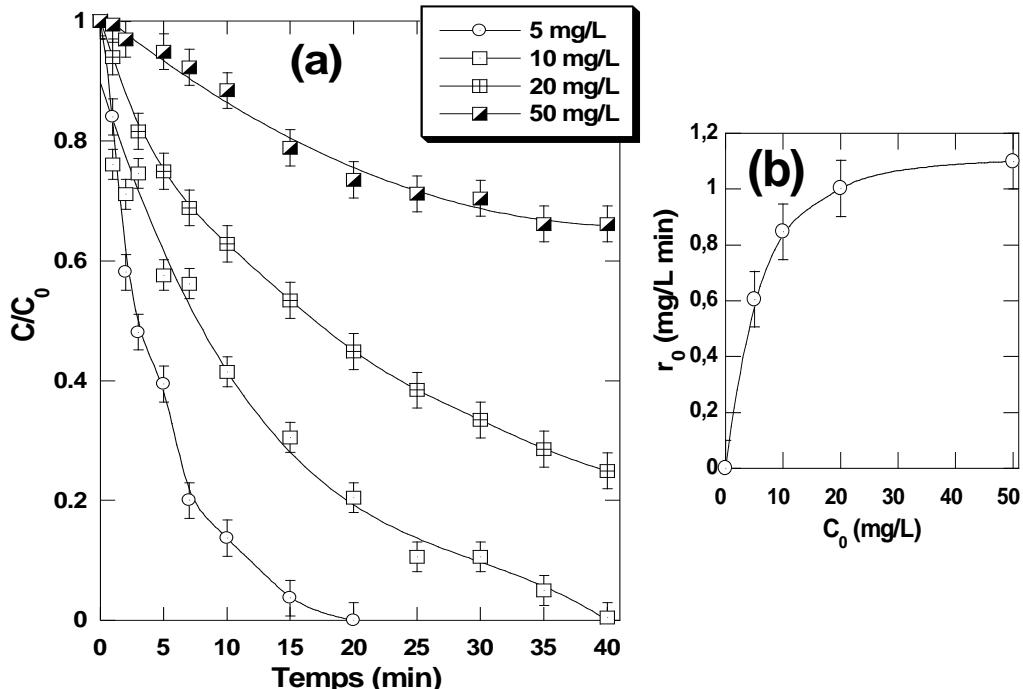


Figure 5.3 : Effet de la concentration initiale du colorant sur sa cinétique de dégradation dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 5-50 \text{ mg/L}$, $[persulfate]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

5.1.3.2. Effet de la concentration initiale du persulfate

La concentration de l'oxydant a un rôle critique dans les procédé UV/persulfate. L'effet de $[S_2O_8^{2-}]_0$ dans l'intervalle de 0.05-5 mM a été étudié à pH 3 et $C_0 = 20$ mg/L. Les résultats obtenus, illustrés sur la Figure 5.4, montrent une amélioration significative du taux d'oxydation du NC avec l'augmentation de la concentration initiale du persulfate. Des éliminations de 42 %, 53 %, 75 %, 98 % et 100 % du NC ont été achevées pour des doses initiales en persulfate de 0,05, 0,1, 0,5, 1 et 2 mM, respectivement. Cela pourrait être attribué à l'augmentation de la quantité des radicaux libres impliqués dans le processus d'oxydation lorsque la concentration du persulfate est augmentée. Cependant, il convient de mentionner qu'une quantité excessive de radicaux libres dans la solution pourrait avoir un effet inhibiteur sur le processus d'oxydation car les radicaux, lorsqu'ils sont en forte concentration, préfèrent la réaction entre eux que la réaction avec les substrats organiques (la recombinaison radicalaire dans ce cas est dominante (Equations 5.6 et 5.12)). Aussi, la capture des radicaux par l'excès de persulfate est un autre scénario capable de réduire la réaction entre les molécules du NC et les radicaux libres (particulièrement les radicaux $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ (Equation 5.4)).

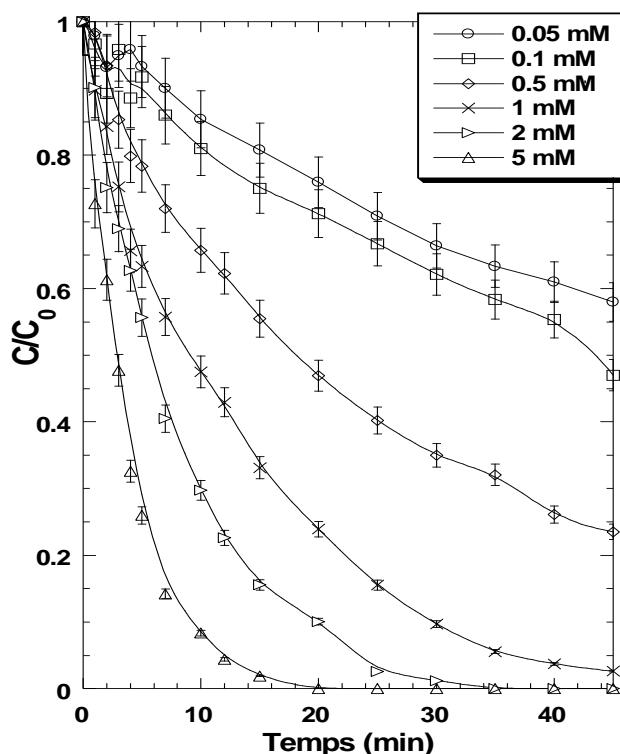


Figure 5.4 : Effet de la concentration initiale du persulfate sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20$ mg/L, $[persulfate]_0 = 0\text{--}5$ mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Cependant, cette situation n'a pas été observée dans l'eau de mer, ce qui indique qu'avec l'augmentation de la dose du persulfate jusqu'à 5 mM, on n'a pas encore atteint le niveau critique de $S_2O_8^{2-}$ qui peut inhiber la performance du procédé. Sur la Figure 5.5, une comparaison entre la vitesse dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer et l'eau distillée est montrée pour différentes doses de persulfate. Il est observé que la vitesse initiale de dégradation dans l'eau distillée est supérieur à celle dans l'eau mer pour une concentration de persulfate varie entre 0.05 et 1 mM. Cependant, au-delà de 1 mM, l'eau de mer favorise mieux la dégradation du polluant par rapport à l'eau distillée.

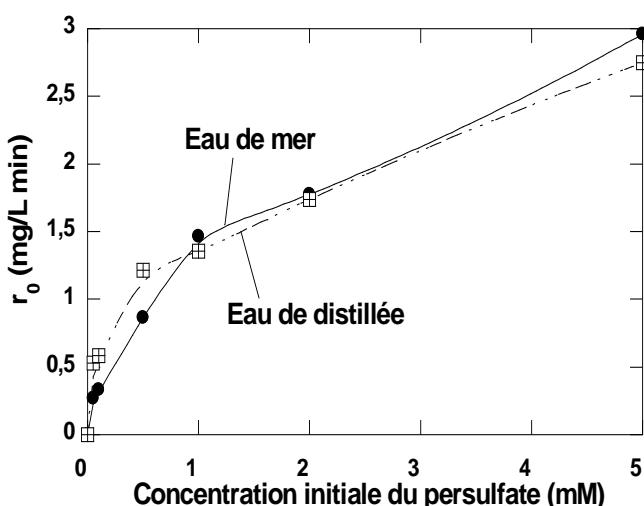


Figure 5.5 : Comparaison des vitesses initiales de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer et l'eau distillée pour différentes concentrations du persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20$ mg/L, $[persulfate]_0 = 0\text{--}5$ mM, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$)

5.1.3.3. Effet du pH

Le pH est un des plus importants paramètres qui peuvent influencer la dégradation des composés organiques par le procédé UV/ $S_2O_8^{2-}$. Pour mieux manipuler le processus de décomposition, nous devrions donc savoir l'effet du pH sur la génération d'espèces radicalaires. Dans l'eau pure, il a été prouvé que pour un $\text{pH} < 7$, le radical principal est le $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, tandis que le radical $\bullet\text{OH}$ prédomine pour des $\text{pH} > 8$ (Liang and Su 2009).

Dans cette étude, l'effet du pH initial de la solution (pH 3-9) sur l'élimination du NC a été étudié pour une concentration initiale en NC de 20 mg/L et 0,5 mM de $[S_2O_8^{2-}]_0$. Comme le montre la Figure 5.6, le taux d'élimination le plus élevé (~ 80 %) a été obtenu dans l'intervalle de pH 3-7, cependant, la vitesse de dégradation a été diminuée à pH=9 où seulement 57% du NC a été éliminé après 45 min de traitement. L'effet non significatif du

pH 3-7 sur la dégradation du NC est attribué à la prédominance du radical $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ dans les milieux acide et neutre. En effet, une étude de distribution des radicaux a été effectuée par Fang et al (2012) pour le système UV/persulfate/chlorures (100 mM). Il a été confirmé que le radical $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ est l'espèce prédominante pour des pH allant jusqu'à 8, au-delà de ce point, $\bullet\text{OH}$ est devenue l'espèce dominante. Cependant, la réduction intensive de la vitesse de dégradation à pH 9 est due à la précipitation du persulfate dans l'eau de mer pour un pH basique (phénomène visible à l'œil nu).

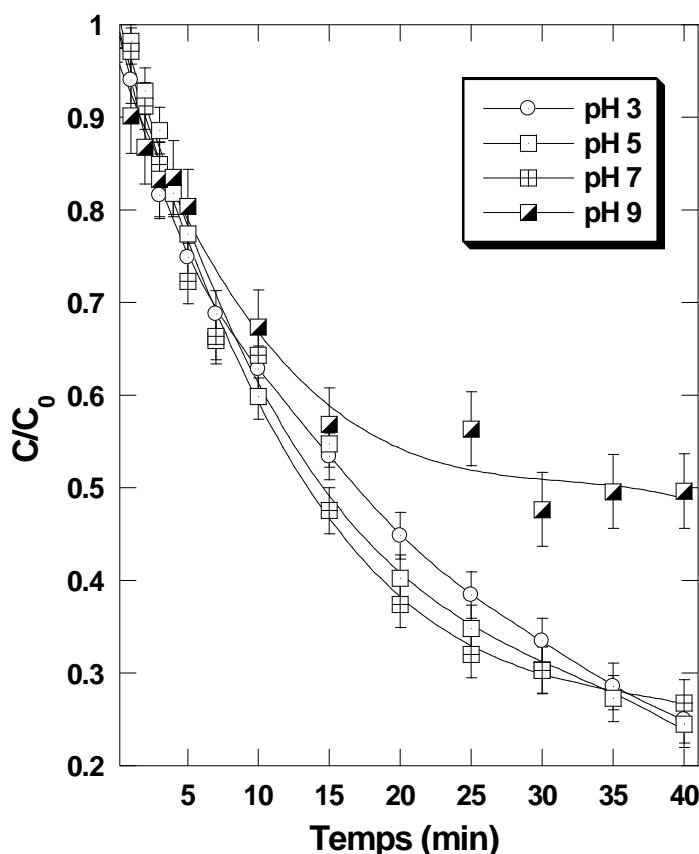


Figure 5.6 : Effet du pH initial sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ (25,5 μM), [persulfate]₀ = 0,5 mM, pH 3–9, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

5.1.3.4. Effet de la température du liquide

Le persulfate peut être activé par différentes techniques, notamment l'activation thermique et la photoactivation. De nombreuses études dans la littérature ont porté sur le persulfate photoactivé (Zhou et al. 2016; Khandarkhaeva et al. 2015; Ruochun et al. 2015; Criquet et al. 2009) et peu d'entre elles ont vérifié l'effet de la température sur l'efficacité du processus UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ (Li 2018). Dans cette étude, nous avons étudié l'effet de la

température en la faisant varier de 25 à 55°C pour des concentrations fixes de $[S_2O_8^{2-}]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ et $\text{pH}=3$. La Figure 5.7 montre une légère augmentation de la vitesse d'élimination du NC à 55°C. Cette faible amélioration a été attribuée à l'activation thermique du persulfate. Cependant, l'absence d'un effet significatif de la température est principalement causée par la faible dose utilisée de persulfate (0.5 mM). Il est bien établi que l'activation thermique du persulfate nécessite des concentrations élevées du persulfate ($> 1 \text{ mM}$) (Wei et al. 2018).

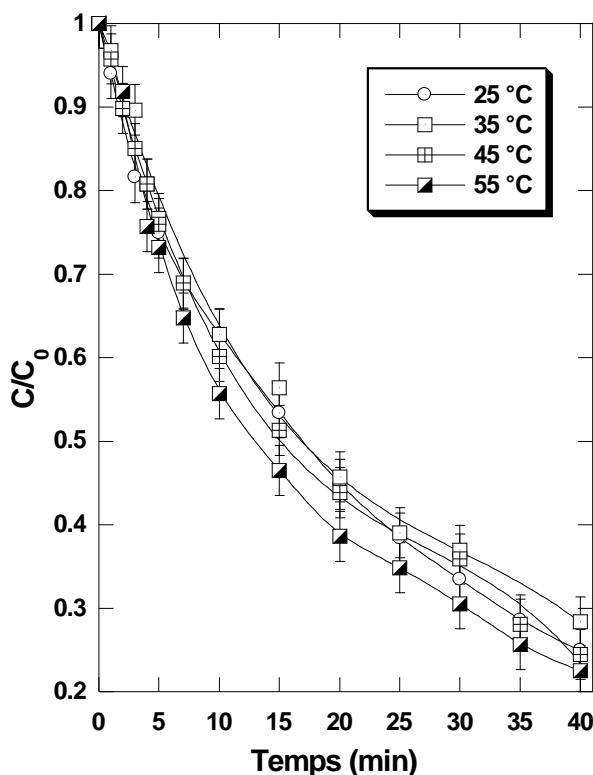


Figure 5.7 : Effet de la température du liquide sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ (25,5 μM), $[\text{persulfate}]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: 25-55 °C).

5.1.3.5. Effet des additifs organiques

De nombreux composés organiques largement utilisés par l'industrie sont rejetés dans l'eau de mer. Ces composés doivent donc être pris en considération dans chaque processus de traitement. Dans le présent travail, nous avons étudié l'effet de plusieurs tensioactifs et d'acide formique et acétique sur la cinétique de dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer ($[S_2O_8^{2-}]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ et $\text{pH} = 3$). Les Figures 5.8(a) et 5.8(b) montrent que la présence de 1, 10 et 50 mM d'acide acétique n'a pas eu un effet sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC. Par contre, l'acide formique a eu un effet inhibiteur dans

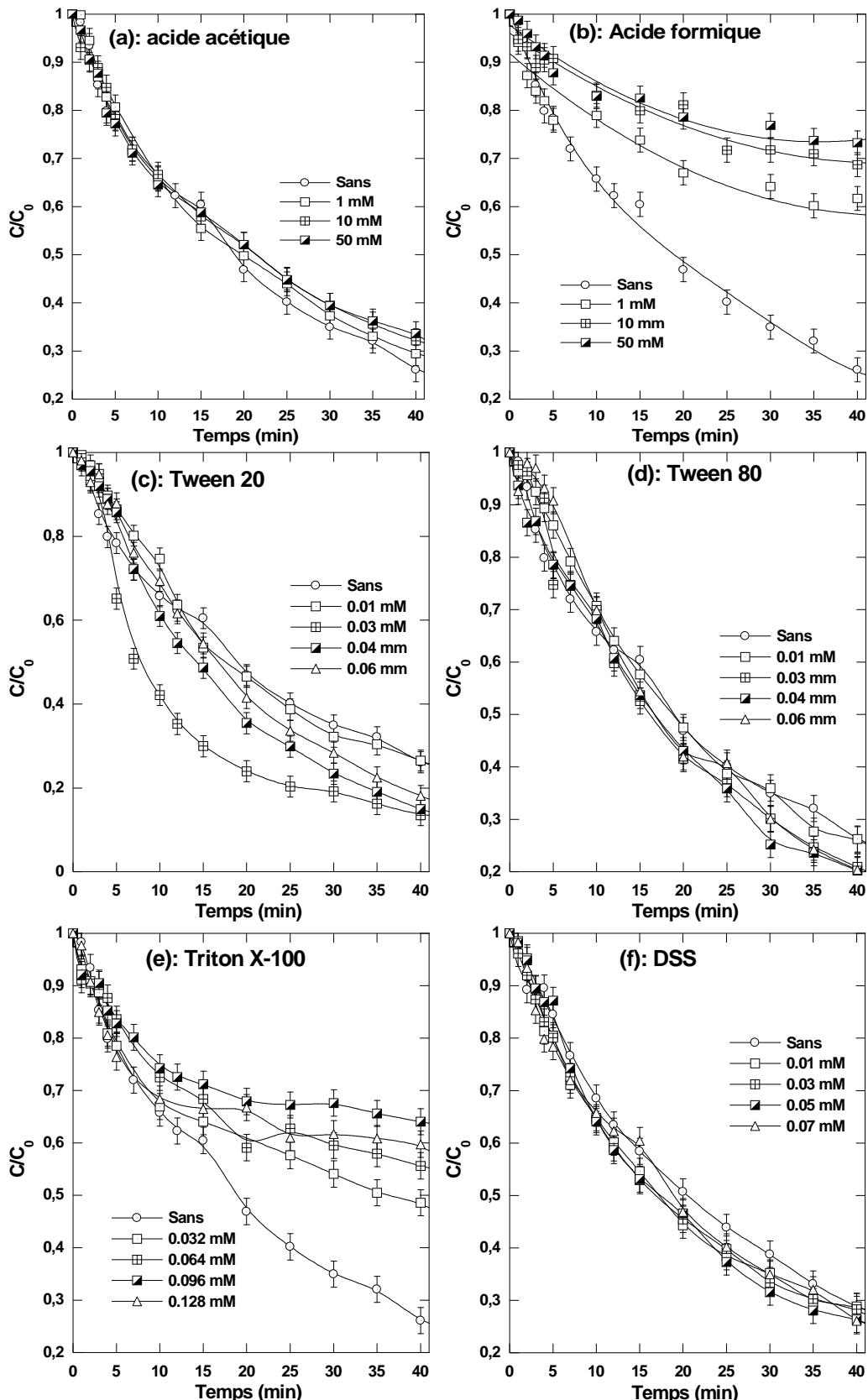


Figure 5.8 : Effet d'acide acétique et formique et des tensioactifs sur la cinétique d'élimination du NC dans l'eau de mer par le procédé UV/persulfate (conditions – volume : 250 mL, $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg/L}$ (25,5 μM), $[\text{persulfate}]_0 = 0,5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, température: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

lequel le taux de dégradation du noir chlorazol a été diminué de 76% à 46%, 32% et 26% par l'addition de 1, 10 et 50 mM d'acide formique, respectivement. Dans l'autre côté, les tensioactifs DSS, tween 20 et tween 80 n'affectent pas la vitesse d'élimination du NC, mais le triton X-100 la réduit par 40%. Ces observations indiquent une forte réactivité des radicaux $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ envers l'acide formique et le triton X-100.

Conclusion

Dans ce travail, le procédé UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ a été appliqué avec succès pour la dégradation du NC, comme polluant modèle, dans l'eau de mer. La performance du procédé a été évaluée dans diverses conditions expérimentales de température, du pH de la solution et de concentrations de persulfate et de polluant. Le taux de dégradation du colorant par le procédé UV/persulfate était considérablement plus élevé que la somme des deux procédés séparés. Cette amélioration significative est due à l'implication du radical $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ formé par réaction des ions chlorures avec les radicaux sulfates générés lors de la photoactivation du persulfate dans l'eau de mer. Le procédé est efficace dans toutes les conditions expérimentales, sauf en milieu basique ($\text{pH} > 7$). Des expériences comparatives de dégradation en utilisant de l'eau pure ont montré que la dégradation du NC était légèrement réduite dans l'eau de mer. Par conséquent, le procédé de photoactivation de persulfate peut être considéré comme un procédé prometteur pour le traitement des eaux très salins contaminés par des polluants organiques dangereux.

Références

- Amor AC, Rodr J, Joana L, Lucas MS (2018) Winery wastewater treatment by sulphate radical based-advanced oxidation processes (SR-AOP): thermally vs UV-assisted persulphate activation. *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psep.2018.11.016>
- Ao X, Liu W (2016) Degradation of sulfamethoxazole by medium pressure UV and oxidants: peroxyomonosulfate, persulfate, and hydrogen peroxide. *Chem Eng J*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2016.12.089>
- Belghit A, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O (2020) The multiple role of inorganic and organic additives in the degradation of reactive green 12 by uv/chlorine advanced oxidation Process. *Environ Technol*:1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593330.2020.1807609>
- Criquet J, Karpel N, Leitner V (2009) Chemosphere degradation of acetic acid with sulfate radical generated by persulfate ions photolysis. *Chemosphere* 77:194–200. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2009.07.040>
- Devi P, Das U, Dalai AK (2016) In-situ chemical oxidation: Principle and applications of peroxide and persulfate treatments in wastewater systems. *Sci Total Environ* 571:643–657. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.07.032>
- Dong W (2018) Degradation of Ibuprofen by thermally activated persulfate in soil systems. *Chem Eng J*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2018.09.002>
- Fang GD, Dionysiou DD, Wang Y, et al (2012) Sulfate radical-based degradation of polychlorinated biphenyls: Effects of chloride ion and reaction kinetics. *J Hazard Mater* 227–228:394–401. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2012.05.074>
- Hamdaoui O, Merouani S (2017) Ultrasonic destruction of acid orange 7 : effect of humic acid, surfactants and complex matrices. *Water Environ Reasearch* 89:250–259. <https://doi.org/10.2175/106143016X14798353399539>
- Huang Y, Sheng B, Yang F, et al (2019) Chemosphere Chlorine incorporation into dye degradation by-product (coumarin) in UV/peroxyomonosulfate process : A negative case of end-of-pipe treatment. *Chemosphere* 229:374–382. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.05.024>
- Khandarkhaeva MS, Aseev DG, Sizykh MR, Batoeva AA (2018) Oxidation of atrazine by photoactivated potassium persulfate in aqueous solutions. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S003602441611011X>
- Khandarkhaeva MS, Batoeva AA, Aseev DG, Sizykh MR (2015) Photoactivation of the oxidation process of para-Chlorophenol in aqueous solutions. 88:1605–1611.

- https://doi.org/10.1134/S1070427215100080
- Li L (2018) Efficient PFOA degradation by persulfate-assisted photocatalytic ozonation. Sep Purif Technol. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2018.06.059
- Liang C, Su HW (2009) Identification of sulfate and hydroxyl radicals in thermally activated persulfate. Ind Eng Chem Res 48:5558–5562. https://doi.org/10.1021/ie9002848
- Ma Y, Chen F, Yang Q, et al (2018) Sulfate radical induced degradation of Methyl Violet azo dye with CuFe layered doubled hydroxide as heterogeneous photoactivator of persulfate. J Environ Manage 227:406–414. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2018.08.030
- Meghlaoui FZ, Merouani S, Hamdaoui O, et al (2020) Fe(III)-catalyzed degradation of persistent textile dyes by chlorine at slightly acidic conditions: the crucial role of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ radical in the degradation process and impacts of mineral and organic competitors. Asia-Pacific J Chem Eng.:1–12. https://doi.org/10.1002/apj.2553
- Neta P, Huie RE, Ross AB (1988) Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. J Phys Chem Ref Data 17:1027–1284. https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/\$21.00
- Parsons S (2004) Advanced oxidation processes for water and wastewater treatment. IWA Publishing, London.
- Ruochun Z, Peizhe S, Treavor, et al (2015) Degradation of Pharmaceuticals and Metabolite in Synthetic Human Urine by UV, UV/ H_2O_2 and UV/PDS. https://doi.org/10.1021/es504799n
- Song W, Li J, Wang Z, Zhang X (2018) A mini review of activated methods to persulfate-based advanced oxidation process. Journal of Water and Climate Change 1–7. https://doi.org/10.2166/wcc.2018.168
- Tsitsonaki A, Petri B, Crimi M, et al (2010) In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate : A review. Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol 40:37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/10643380802039303
- Wan Y, Xie P, Wang Z, et al (2019) Comparative study on the pretreatment of algae-laden water by UV/persulfate, UV/chlorine, and UV/ H_2O_2 : Variation of characteristics and alleviation of ultrafiltration membrane fouling. Water Res. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2019.04.034
- Wei L, Chen W, Li Q, et al (2018) Wastewater in heat-activated persulfate system. RSC Adv 8:20603–20611. https://doi.org/10.1039/C8RA01995A

- Wu Y, Zhu S, Zhang W, et al (2019) Comparison of diatrizoate degradation by UV/chlorine and UV/chloramine processes: Kinetic mechanisms and iodinated disinfection byproducts formation. *Chem Eng J* 375:121972. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2019.121972>
- Wu Z, Guo K, Fang J, et al (2017) Factors affecting the roles of reactive species in the degradation of micropollutants by the UV/chlorine process. *Water Research*. doi: 10.1016/j.watres.2017.09.028
- Zhou L, Ferronato C, Chovelon J, et al (2016) Investigations of diatrizoate degradation by photo-activated persulfate. *Chem Eng J*:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2016.11.066>
- Ziajka J, Pasiuk-Bronikowska W (2005) Rate constants for atmospheric trace organics scavenging SO_4^- in the Fe-catalysed autoxidation of S(IV). *Atmos Env* 38:1431–1438 doi.10.1016/j.atmosenv.2004.11.024.

CONCLUSION GENERALE

Ces travaux de recherche, qui s'inscrivent dans le cadre de traitement des eaux usées, ont eu pour but d'étudier différents procédés d'oxydation photochimiques pour la dégradation du noir chlorazol, qui est un colorant largement utilisé pour diverses applications industrielles et qui possède des effets cancérigènes et mutagènes, dans des matrices naturelles réelles. Les procédés d'oxydation avancée (POA) sont des méthodes efficaces pour éliminer les substances persistantes et nocives dans les effluents des eaux usées. L'UV/persulfate, l'UV/périodate et l'UV/acétone sont les techniques d'oxydation sélectionnées dans ces travaux de recherches. Ces procédés sont générateurs de nombreux radicaux, hydroxyle ($\bullet\text{OH}$), sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$), iodyl ($\text{IO}_3^{\bullet-}$) et méthyle ($\text{CH}_3^{\bullet-}$), qui ont une forte réactivité avec la matière organique.

Les résultats présentés dans le troisième chapitre ont montré que la photodégradation du colorant azoïque NC était fortement accélérée par l'acétone à cause de l'implication du radical méthyle, généré lors de la photolyse de l'acétone à 253.7 nm. La génération des radicaux méthyles a été confirmée en utilisant des piégeurs des radicaux méthyles où la saturation de la solution avec l'oxygène a complètement inhibée l'effet intensifiant de l'acétone, tandis que les autres gaz inertes utilisés, tels que le N₂, le CO₂ et l'argon, a encore l'amélioré. La concentration de l'acétone et la température du liquide ont montré une influence majeure sur le phénomène d'intensification. L'efficacité de ce procédé a été examinée en présence de plusieurs additifs organiques et sels minéraux. La majorité de ces additifs n'a pas altéré la performance du procédé UV/acétone. Par ailleurs, parmi plusieurs additifs organiques et minéraux étudiés, seules le NaNO₃, le KBr et l'acide ascorbique ont montré un impact très négatif sur l'efficacité du procédé. Il est intéressant de noter que le procédé UV/acétone s'est révélé plus efficace pour la dégradation du NC à pH alcalin. Le procédé a gardé une efficacité élevée envers la dégradation du NC dans des matrices naturelles telles que l'eau minérale et l'eau de mer.

Le procédé d'oxydation UV/IO₄⁻ a été étudié dans le quatrième chapitre, les résultats expérimentaux ont montré que le procédé UV/IO₄⁻ fournit une bonne performance de dégradation des polluants organiques persistants dans l'eau de mer. Il a été confirmé que la quantité trop élevée des sels présents dans l'eau de mer n'a pas altérée l'efficacité du système UV/IO₄⁻ pour la dégradation du noir chlorazol. Il a été confirmé que les radicaux

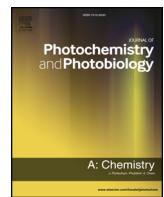
libres de l'iode sont efficacement impliqués dans la dégradation du NC. Pour une meilleure performance de ce procédé dans des matrices environnementales naturelles, le pH ne doit pas dépasser 7. Les résultats expérimentaux montrent que les conditions acides produisent les meilleurs rendements de dégradation. Il est intéressant de noter que la présence des tensioactifs dans le milieu réactionnel n'a pas affecté la vitesse de dégradation du colorant.

Par ailleurs, le procédé UV/S₂O₈²⁻ a été appliqué avec succès pour la dégradation du NC dans l'eau de mer. Le taux de dégradation du colorant par le procédé émergent était considérablement plus élevé que celui du rayonnement UV seul. Cette amélioration significative est due à l'implication des radicaux chlorés (Cl₂•⁻), résultant de la réaction des radicaux sulfates et des ions chlorures, dans le processus de dégradation. Le mécanisme réactionnel qui se déroule entre SO₄•⁻ et Cl⁻ ainsi que la production des radicaux Cl₂•⁻ a été bien défini dans le cinquième chapitre. La performance du procédé a été évaluée pour plusieurs conditions expérimentales de température, du pH et de concentrations initiales de persulfate et du polluant. Les résultats obtenus montrent que le procédé UV/S₂O₈²⁻ peut être appliqué dans l'eau de mer uniquement pour des pH acide et neutre (PH < 7). La température de la solution a un effet mineur sur la cinétique de dégradation. Parmi plusieurs additifs organiques testés, seules l'acide formique et le tensioactif triton X-100 ont montré un effet inhibiteur notable. Des expériences de comparaison en utilisant de l'eau distillée ont montré que la dégradation du NC était légèrement affectée par le milieu salin.

Par conséquent, les procédés de photoactivation du persulfate, du périodate et de l'acétone à 253,7 nm pouvant être considérés comme innovants et prometteurs pour le traitement des eaux usées contaminées par des colorants textiles persistants dans l'eau de mer et dans les autres matrices étudiées. Cependant, pour confirmer la viabilité de ces procédés examinés à l'échelle industriel, il est nécessaire de :

1. Evaluer les quantités résiduelles des oxydants et procéder à leur récupération éventuelle.
2. Analyser les intermédiaires et les sous-produits de dégradation.
3. Mesurer l'abattement du carbone organique total (COT) et de la demande chimique en oxygène (DCO).
4. Evaluer le coût de chaque traitement dans les conditions optimales de fonctionnement.

Annexe A



UV-photolysis of Chlorazol Black in aqueous media: Process intensification using acetone and evidence of methyl radical implication in the degradation process



Hafida Bendjama^a, Slimane Merouani^{a,b,*}, Oualid Hamdaoui^b, Mohammed Bouhelassa^a

^a Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, Salah Boubnider – Constantine 3 University, 25000, Constantine, Algeria

^b Laboratory of Environmental Engineering, Department of Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Badji Mokhtar – Annaba University, 23000, Annaba, Algeria

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

UV/acetone process
Chlorazol black (CB)
Degradation
Intensification
Methyl radical

ABSTRACT

This work explores and elucidates the effect of acetone on the batch photolytic degradation at 253.7 nm of chlorazol black (CB) azo dye in deionized water with relation to various operating parameters, i.e. acetone and CB initial concentrations, liquid temperature and solution pH. A special emphasis has been made, for the first time, on the influence of saturation gases on the acetone effect. It was found that acetone (50 mM) assisted-UV treatment of CB (20 mg/L) resulted in 5.6-fold increase in the initial degradation rate, as compared with UV alone, and near complete removal of CB was achieved after 30 min face to ~35% with the sole UV irradiation. Radical scavenger tests using sodium nitrite and oxygen saturation have showed that methyl radical was probably the main species responsible for the efficient degradation of CB in UV/acetone system. The degradation rate of the dye increased monotonically with increasing acetone concentration up to 50 mM, above which further increase did not enhance the CB removal rate. Increasing the liquid temperature in the interval 25–65 °C intensified the beneficial effect of acetone whereas the reaction rate was not influenced by varying the solution pH in the range of 3–9. Besides, the degradation rate increased notably with increasing initial CB concentration in the range of 5–50 mg/L. Finally, the degradation of CB upon UV/acetone process was more effective when solutions are saturated with nitrogen, argon and CO₂ while oxygen completely suppressed the obtained beneficial effect of acetone toward the degradation rate of the dye.

1. Introduction

Textile wastewater is highly variable in composition with intense color, high concentration of chemical oxygen demand, relatively low concentration of biological oxygen demand, and suspended and dissolved salts that damage the aesthetics of receiving waters and hinder the penetration of oxygen [1]. Estimates indicate that approximately 7×10^5 tons of dyestuffs are produced annually and 280,000 tons of the textile dyes are ended in water basins through textile effluents [2]. Since dyes are designed to resist degradation, these are chemically stable, non-biodegradable and exist as substances that possess toxic and carcinogenic characteristics [3,4]. The discharge of even a small quantity (i.e. 1 mg/L) of dye is thus not acceptable and may constitute a potential risk factor for both human health and environment [5]. Therefore, a proper treatment strategy is required to meet the pollution control requirements. Conventional treatment processes for textile

wastewater usually involve coagulation-flocculation, adsorption, and activated sludge, all of which are quite ineffective because dyes are of high molecular weight, high water solubility and of stable against biological degradation [6,7]. Additionally, these processes do not destroy or degrade dyes; they only remove them physically from the effluent, leaving sludge for eventual disposal in landfills.

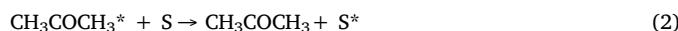
Photochemical processes have been extensively investigated for treating refractory wastewater effluent [4,8]. However, UV irradiation alone might not be effective in degrading refractory organic dyes and combination with oxidizing agents, e.g. hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), persulfate (S₂O₈²⁻) or periodate (IO₄⁻), is needed to produce highly efficient free radicals [9]. UV/H₂O₂, UV/O₃ and photocatalysis are few of the most common photochemical methods known as advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) [10]. AOPs have been of substantial interest for many years [11]. They combine high effectiveness of pollutant removal through oxidation reactions with highly efficient generation of

* Corresponding author at: Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, Salah Boubnider – Constantine 3 University, 25000, Constantine, Algeria.

E-mail addresses: s.merouani@yahoo.fr, s.merouani03@gmail.com (S. Merouani).

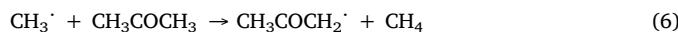
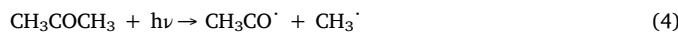
reactive radicals, often aided by catalytic and photocatalytic processes [12,13]. In UV/H₂O₂ and UV/S₂O₈²⁻ systems, hydroxyl and sulfate radicals are formed when water containing H₂O₂ or S₂O₈²⁻ is exposed to UV light in the range of 200–280 nm [9]. Free radicals offer a high potential oxidation (e.g. $E_0 = 2.6$ V for SO₄²⁻ and 2.8 for ·OH) and react with organic compounds with rate constants in the order of 10⁶–10⁹ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ [14].

Lately, photoactivation of acetone with UV irradiation at 254 nm has become an emerging approach for the removal of organic compounds [15–17]. Reports on this subject are very limited and, for instance, only the degradation of some dyes and methionine in aqueous phase has been reported [15–17]. The common mechanism gathering all these investigations is the photosensitization process. Acetone has a highly energy in the triplet state (79–82 kcal/mol) [18]. After the acetone is excited by UV light, a collision between the triplet acetone (CH₃COCH₃^{*}) and the substrate molecule (S) with accomplish an energy transfer, which results in the decay of the substrate, as shown in Eqs. (1)–(3).



According to the above mechanism, the sensitizer (acetone) could be regenerated after the energy transfer is complete, which makes the recycling of acetone is feasible without any loss [18]. However, some experimental reports showed that irradiation at 253.7–270 nm efficiently decomposes acetone in aqueous solution [19,20]; the observation which is in strong contradiction with sensitization process, specifically when knowing that the energy per einstein of 253.7 nm light (~113 kcal) is large enough to that necessary to break one C–C bond in acetone molecule (70 kcal [21]).

On the other hand, acetone photochemistry (190–300 nm) has been studied by many workers in the pure liquid as well in the gas phase for over 50 years [19,22–26]. The most interesting works given on the gas-phase photolysis of acetone have been reviewed by Davis [21]. The mechanism and the products of the photolysis of acetone vapor have been well established. Methane (CH₄), ethane (C₂H₆) and carbon monoxide (CO) have been identified by many authors [19,22–25] and the following scheme, involving methyl radical as a key species, has been agreed:



The data available indicate quite strongly that the photochemical

decomposition of acetone proceeds mainly by a free radical mechanism [27]. The effect of several operating parameters including, acetone pressure, temperature and adding of external gases on yields of the photolysis products (CO, C₂H₆ and CH₄) indicated that the process is strongly sensitive to operating conditions [21]. For example, the yield of the products increased substantially with increasing acetone pressure and temperature [22,28]. Adding external gases, such as N₂, H₂ or CO₂, increased hardly the yield of the products [29,30]. In parallel, Pieck and Steacie [19] have investigated the photolysis of acetone in liquid phase at 253.7 nm in which the gaseous products of the reaction have been identified at various liquid temperatures. The same products as those of the gas-phase photolysis have been detected and similar comportment of the products yields with respect to temperature have been observed; conducting the authors to suggest that methyl radical can be generated and reacted analogously to the gas-phase mechanism. The authors have also made experiments with acetone-water mixture and evidenced that water acts essentially as inert solvent, as far as the products of gaseous phase are the same, and that the reaction



does not occur, which is expected in view of the high H–OH bond dissociation energy (~118 kcal).

In view of the above analysis, the free radical attack, via methyl radical, may be a potential alternative to the photosensitization process toward the oxidation of organic pollutants by UV/acetone process. This may be supported by the fact that CH₃[·] has shown a strong reactivity to some compounds in aqueous solutions [31,32]. Similar to other reactive radicals, methyl radical may react with substrates through addition and atom abstraction [33–36].

Therefore, the main objective of the present investigation was to explore the effect of acetone on the photodegradation of chlorazol black (CB), an azo dye, and to elucidate the mechanism of acetone-induced possible enhancement in the degradation rate of the dye. CB is a highly water soluble which is widely used for various applications like dyeing of fabric, leather, cotton, cellulose materials and plastic [37]. It is an eye irritant chemical and is moderately toxic by inhalation and ingestion [38]. The carcinogenic and mutagenic effects of the dye towards humans and animals have been experimentally confirmed [38]. Additionally, laboratory experiments showed that CB is very persistent to direct oxidation with H₂O₂, persulfate and periodate oxidants [39]. The experiments have been conducted in batch mode for various conditions of acetone and CB concentrations, liquid temperature and solution pH. A special emphasis has been focused, for the first time, on the effect of saturation gases on the acetone-induced effect.

2. Materials and methods

All solutions were prepared in deionized water. The azo dye chlorazol black (CB) and acetone (Acet.) were purchased from Sigma-

Table 1
Principal physicochemical data of Chlorazol black and acetone.

Molecule	Chlorazol black (CB)	Acetone (Acet.)
CAS number	1937-37-7	67-64-1
C.I. number	30235	—
Molecular formula	C ₃₄ H ₂₅ N ₉ Na ₂ O ₇ S ₂	C ₃ H ₆ O
Chemical structure		
Molecular weight (g/mol)	781.73	58.08
Maximum absorption wavelength (λ_{max})	576 nm	264 nm
pKa	—	~19

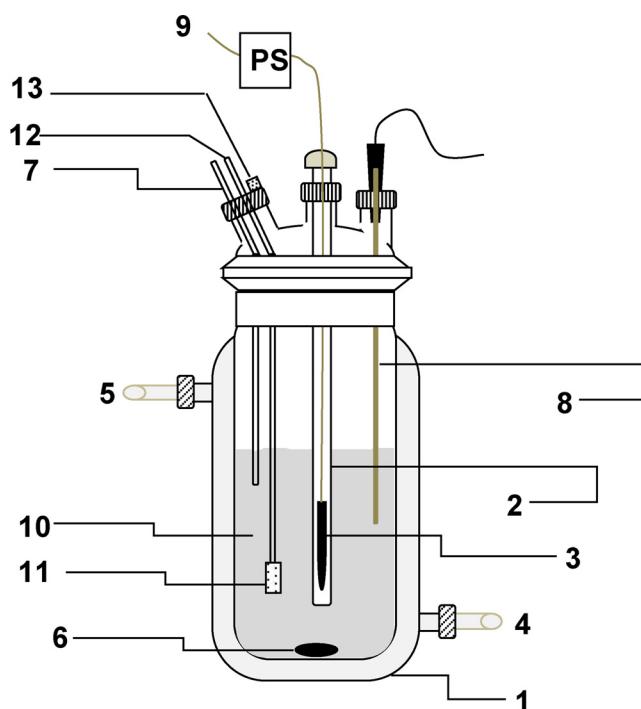


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the experimental setup applied for UV/acetone process: (1) Glass water-jacketed reactor, (2) quartz jacket, (3) UV lamp, (4)-(5) cooling water inlet and outlet, (6) magnetic stirrer bar, (7) sampling port, (8) thermocouple, (9) power supply (PS), (10) solution volume, (11) glass-frit, (12) gas inlet and (13) gas outlet.

Aldrich. Their structures and their main physicochemical properties are listed in Table 1. Sodium nitrite, 2-propanol, sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide (all from Sigma-Aldrich) were at least analytical grade and were used as received.

Photochemical experiments were carried out in a cylindrical glass water-jacketed reactor with the overall volume of 500 mL (Fig. 1). The middle of the reactor was occupied with a quartz tube in which a low pressure mercury lamp (Oriel 6035, 15 mW cm⁻², predominately emits at 253.7 nm) was placed vertically. The treated solution (250 mL) was agitated by means of a magnetic stirrer. The temperature of the tank was controlled through the cooling jacket and displayed by a thermocouple immersed in the reacting medium. Samples were withdrawn at different time intervals and the concentration of the dye was determined using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Jenway 6405) at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 578 \text{ nm}$. The pH of the solution was adjusted using NaOH or H₂SO₄. Note that no change in λ_{max} of the dye was recorded for the pH range of 3-11. All experiments were conducted in air-equilibrated solutions except when the effect of saturation gases was investigated. In this case, a medium porosity glass-frit (millimeter scale) emerged in the solution was used for bubbling Ar, CO₂ or N₂ at least 15 min prior to start and until completion of experiments. To ensure permanent mixing of the solution and minimize the stripping of acetone, the gas was introduced in the solution at relatively low flowrate (100 mL/min) and moderate magnetic stirring speed of the reaction medium was used.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. CB degradation by UV and UV/acetone processes

Fig. 2 shows the time-dependent degradation of CB (20 mg/L) under UV irradiation in the absence and presence of various acetone concentrations (0 – 500 mM) at pH ~ 7. 35% of CB was degraded within 30 min under UV alone. On the other hand, rapid increases in the degradation rate were observed in the presence of acetone. The CB

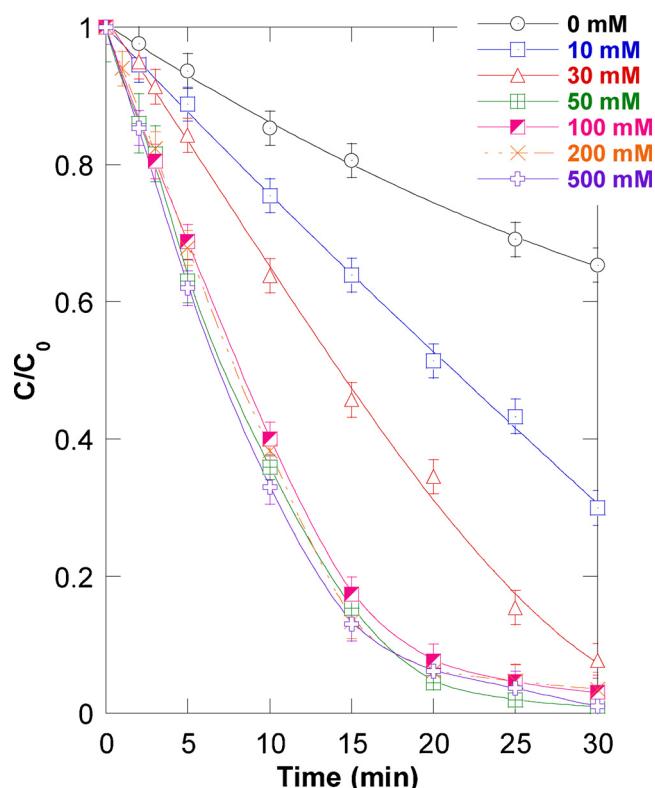


Fig. 2. Effect of initial acetone concentration on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μM), initial acetone concentration: 0–500 mM, pH 7, temperature: 25 \pm 1 °C).

degradation rate increased monotonically with increasing acetone dosage up to 50 mM, but no further enhancement was obtained above this level (> 50 mM). Dramatic removals of 70%, 92% and 98% were recorded within 30 min for, respectively, 10, 30 and 50 mM of acetone. Correspondingly, the presence of acetone at 10, 30 and 50 mM yielded, respectively, 1.75, 5.46 and 5.8-fold increase in the initial degradation rate of the dye. The effect of acetone dosage on CB degradation was similar to that of many literature reports [15,16,18,40]. The insignificant effect of rising acetone dosage above 50 mM suggests that the degradation of CB happens through a regime similar to that of several AOPs. For example, when ·OH or SO₄^{·-} is produced in systems such UV/H₂O₂ and UV/S₂O₈²⁻, ·OH (SO₄^{·-}) would react with the excess of H₂O₂ (S₂O₈²⁻) such that the kinetics of substrate degradation is limited at high concentration of H₂O₂ (S₂O₈²⁻) [41–44]. Note that no CB removal has been occurred with acetone alone in dark conditions.

It is important to point out that during the degradation process, the solution pH gradually decreased from pH 7 to ~ 4. Thus, the reduction in the dye concentration is accompanied by a decline in pH, which suggests that aliphatic acids (i.e. photo-stable compounds [45,46]) and CO₂ may be the major end-products of the CB degradation upon UV/acetone treatment.

3.2. Mechanism of acetone-induced intensification of CB photodegradation

As stated in the introduction, acetone photolysis may enhance the degradation of pollutants through two mechanisms: (i) involvement of methyl radical and (ii) acetone photosensitization. In order to appreciate the contribution of each mechanism in the degradation of CB, chemical probes technique has been adopted. Turkevich and coworkers [31,32] have studied, with electron spin resonance spectroscopy, the kinetics of the production and reactions of methyl radicals in aqueous solutions produced by the reaction of titanium (III) chloride with

tertiary-butyl hydroxide (*t*-BuOOH) (Eqs. (9) and (10)). They found that the decay of methyl radical is pseudo-second order with a reaction constant of $2.2 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [32]. When nitrite is added into the system, the chemiluminescence intensity from methyl radical drops to zero at concentration lesser than 0.5 mM of NO_2^- indicating that NO_2^- is an efficient scavenger of CH_3^\cdot radical [32]. Additionally, when the *t*-BuOOH solution was saturated with O_2 , the intensity of CH_3^\cdot peaks fell to zero [31,32]. Oxygen is a strong scavenger (oxidizer) of methyl radical in both gas and liquid reaction phases (Eq. (11), $k_{11} = 7.04 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for gas phase reaction) [31–33,47,48].



Thus, based on the interesting findings of Turkevich and coworkers [31,32], if the methyl radical is a major participant in the degradation of CB upon UV/acetone treatment, we should be able to suppress the beneficial effect of acetone on the degradation by O_2 saturation or nitrite addition. Fig. 3 shows the effect of oxygen saturation and NaNO_2 addition at 0.1–100 mM on the UV-degradation of CB in the presence of 50 mM of acetone. As seen, O_2 saturation completely quenched the positive effect of acetone toward the degradation rate of the dye (note that the sole photodegradation, without acetone, under O_2 or air saturation gives the same disappearance curve, i.e. mentioned as 'UV' in Fig. 3(a)). Similarly, more than 80% of the acetone-effect was reduced with 0.1 mM of nitrite whereas with 1 to 100 mM of NO_2^- , the effect of acetone was completely nullified and the degradation rate becomes as that obtained under UV alone. Therefore, the main mechanism of CB destruction in UV/acetone system is chemical oxidation by methyl radicals. Note that the present experimental evidence of methyl radical involvement in the oxidation process has been made herein for the first time. It should be also important to indicate that nitrite is a photosensitizer which usually used for enhancing the UV-degradation of pollutants [49,50]. However, in the presence of acetone it acts mainly as scavenger, even if present at very high concentration, as reveals Fig. 3(b). Another important statement that can be made is that if the reaction between nitrite and CH_3^\cdot is as $\text{CH}_3^\cdot + \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow$ products, the concentration of methyl radical implicated in CB degradation is between 0.1 – 1 mM, as nitrite above 1 mM has no additional effect on the removal rate of CB (Fig. 3(b)). More closely, methyl radical concentration is of ~0.256 mM, as calculated from the effect of O_2 -saturation (Fig. 3(a)) by using the stoichiometry of Eq. (11) and considering that the concentration of oxygen in O_2 -saturated water is ~8.2 mg/L [51].

According to Eq. (8), methyl radical may be converted into hydroxyl radical through hydrolysis in water. To verify the non-involvement of hydroxyl radical in the UV/acetone oxidative process, additional experiments have been conducted with 2-propanol, a well-known $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical scavenger ($k_{\cdot\text{OH}} = 1.9 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [52]). As indicated in Fig. 4, the addition of 2-propanol even at very high concentrations (1–100 mM) practically did not alter the valuable effect of acetone toward the photodegradation of CB, confirming the non-occurrence of eq. 8, as suggested by Pieck and Steacie [19]. Thus, $\cdot\text{OH}$ was not involved in the UV/acetone process.

Therefore, the results of Fig. 3 can be explained as follow: as methyl radicals is the key oxidant implicated in the degradation of the dye, photo-dissociation of acetone could be more significant at higher concentrations and, hence, higher concentration of radicals would be generated provoking faster CB-removal rate. However, the decline in the positive effect of acetone above 50 mM can be due to the quench of free radicals with the excess of acetone as in reaction 6. Also, methyl radical recombination through Eq. (7) becomes efficient competitors for radical-organic reactions at high radical concentrations. This would make reaction 7 as a parasite reaction that reduces the degradation of

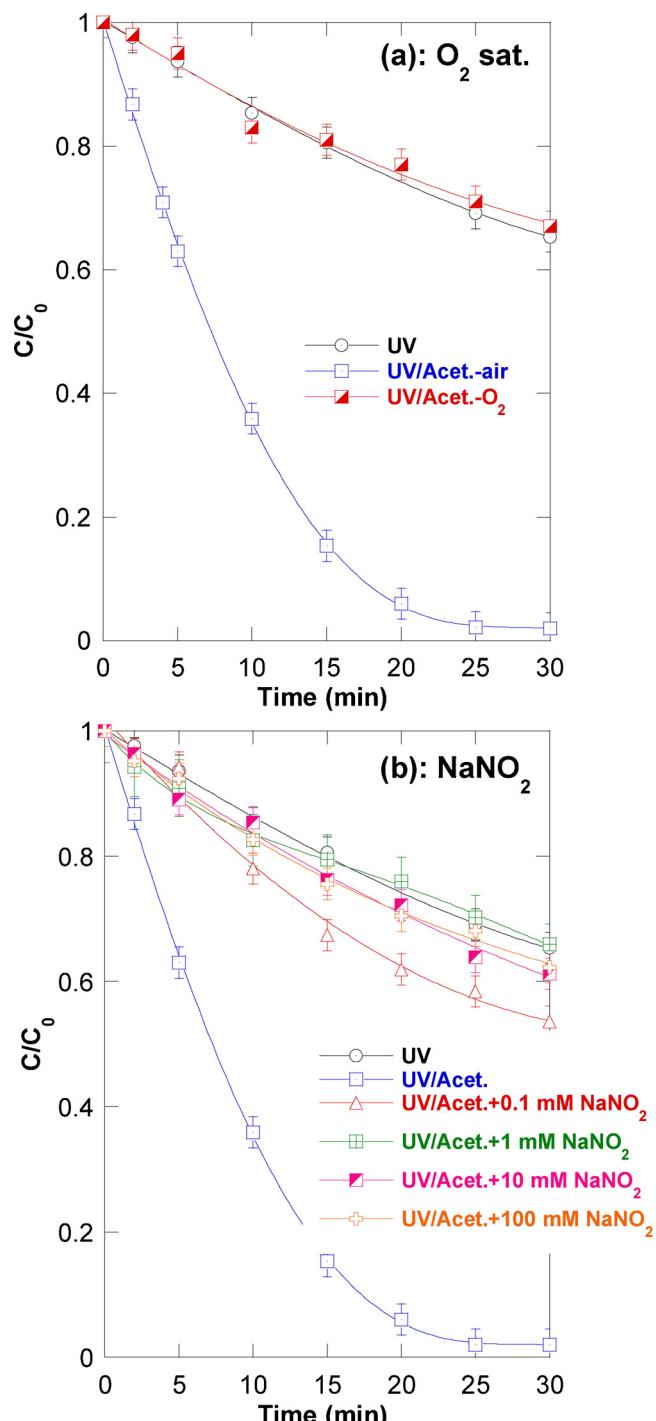


Fig. 3. Effect of O_2 -saturation (a) and NaNO_2 addition (b) on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μM), initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, initial NaNO_2 concentration: 0.1–100 mM, pH 7, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

the dye at high acetone loading when higher concentration of radicals is suspected to be produced. A similar situation has been reported by Bendjama et al. [39] for the degradation of CB using photoactivated periodate in seawater.

3.3. Effect of liquid temperature

Fig. 5 shows that the intensifying effect of acetone toward the photodegradation of CB become more and more pronounced with

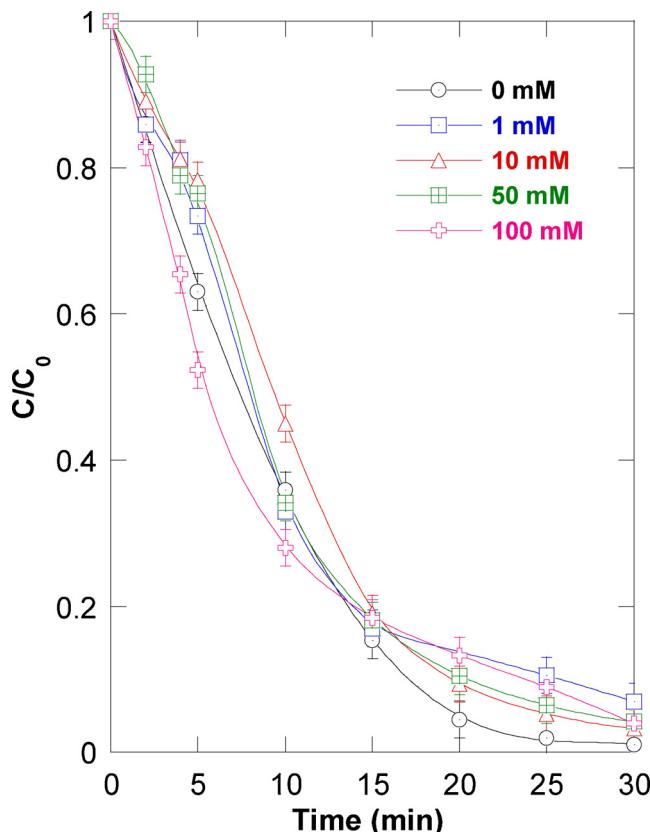


Fig. 4. Effect of 2-propanol addition on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, initial alcohol concentration: 1–100 mM, pH 7, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

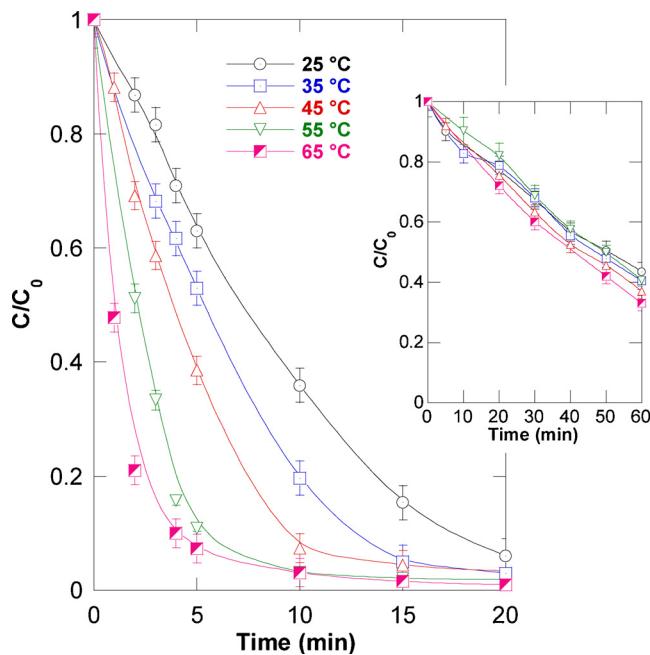


Fig. 5. Effect of solution temperature on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, pH 7, temperature: 25–65 °C). The insert represents the effect temperature on the UV-degradation of CB in the absence of acetone.

elevating the liquid temperature at fixed acetone and CB concentrations ($C_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$). The dye removal within 5 min increased from 37% at 25 °C to 47%, 61%, 89% and 93% for, respectively, 35, 45, 55 and 65 °C with an associated elevation of 1.27, 1.66, 2.4 and 3-fold in the initial degradation rates, as compared with that calculated at 25 °C.

The data of the gas-phase and liquid-phase photolysis of acetone showed that the yields of methane and ethane increased monotonically with temperature increase [19,22–25]. The formation mechanism of these two products was mainly methyl radical-dependent [21]. While ethane is formed through methyl radical recombination (Eq. (7)), methane was generated via the reaction of CH_3^\cdot with acetone (Eq. (6)) [28]. Thus, it was concluded that higher concentration of CH_3^\cdot could be generated with temperature elevation [21]. Based on these observations, the higher degradation rate of CB at higher solution temperature could mainly be attributed to the higher amount of methyl radical, generated through reactions 4 and 5, produced at higher liquid temperature. This judgment is supported by the fact that trials have showed an insignificant effect of the temperature rise on the sole UV photolysis of CB (without acetone), as can be seen in the insert of Fig. 5.

3.4. Effect of initial solution pH

Fig. 6 displays the effect of initial solution pH on the degradation of CB (20 mg/L) at 25 °C by the UV/acetone process ($[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$). The removal rate of the dye was not affected by the pH elevation from 3 to 9, which is consistent with the results of Chu and Tsui [15] for the degradation of disperse orange 11 anthraquinonic dye (DO11). However, relative enhancements were observed at pH 11 and 13. This behavior was exactly similar to that of UV alone (Fig. 6, the insert), meaning that UV/acetone process has not a special comportment with respect to the acid/base character of the medium. In fact, the pKa of acetone is ~ 19 [53] and, thus, the molecule saves the same non-ionic form in the investigated pHs of 3–13. On the other hand, azo dyes have mostly pKa values between pH 6 to 10 [54,55]. Therefore, the enhancement of the degradation rate of CB at very high pH levels is likely

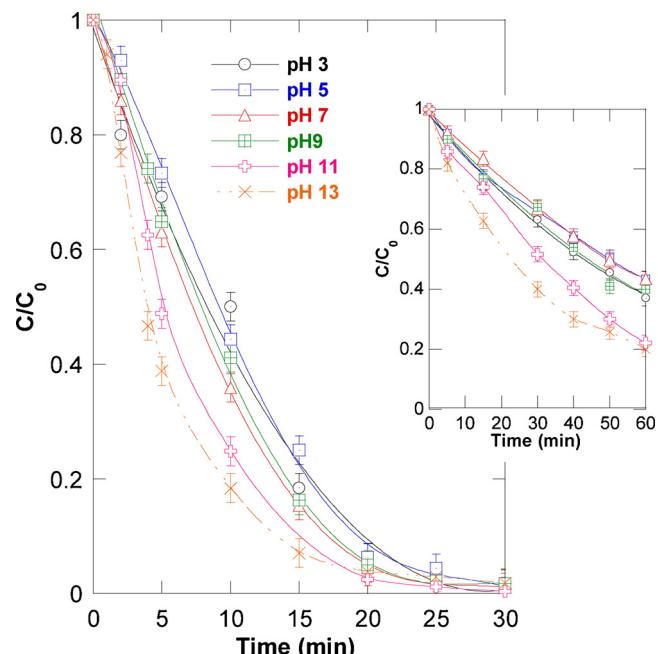


Fig. 6. Effect of initial solution pH on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$). The insert represents the effect of pH on the UV-degradation of CB in the absence of acetone.

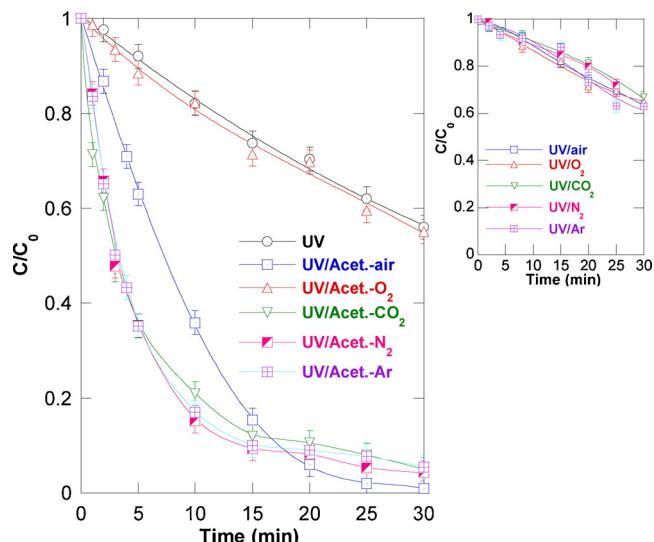


Fig. 7. Effect of different saturation gases on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg/L (25.5 μ M), initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, pH 7, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C). The insert represents the effect of saturation gases on the UV-degradation of CB in the absence of acetone.

due to the structural change of the azo dye by loss of proton, which resulted in ionized form that may absorb UV light at higher extent than its original form. Another probable mechanism for the rate enhancement at higher pH is the involvement of free radical reactions, since hydroxyl and hydroperoxyl radicals are suspected to be generated when UV is absorbed by water in the presence of oxygen at high pH levels [56]. It is possibly that the photodegradation of CB is partly caused by free radical reaction involving the hydroxyl and hydroperoxyl radicals at elevated pH levels. Finally, it should be emphasized that the effectiveness of the investigated process in alkaline pH is of huge interest because in many cases (i.e. petroleum effluent [57]) it is very hard to obtain an effective degradation in basic medium (natural pH of the effluent) and pH change to acidic is impossible due to the presence of sulfide ions (hydrogen sulfide formation) [58,59].

3.5. Effect of purging gases

In addition to oxygen and air, the effect of three other dissolved gases (argon, N₂ and CO₂) on the efficiency of the UV/acetone process toward the oxidation of CB has been investigated and the obtained results are displayed in Fig. 7. As seen, while O₂ completely quenches the positive effect of acetone, as compared with air, gases such as nitrogen, carbon dioxide and argon advanced further the degradation of the dye by about 28% within 5 min. A 1.85-fold increase in the initial degradation rate was recorded with N₂, Ar or CO₂, as compared with air. Moreover, the observed enhancement is independent of the nature of the dissolved gas.

As elucidated in section 3.2, the effect of oxygen was mainly due to its higher reactivity toward methyl radical (scavenger action, Eq. (11)). Parkers [48] have made extensive works on the oxidation of methyl radical, generated through gas-phase photolysis of acetone, with oxygen. They found that the intensity of methyl radical decreased substantially with [O₂] increase while the concentration of the resulted product, CH₃O₂, increased up reaching a plateau corresponding to a total consumption of CH₃· radical. The effect of several gases such as N₂ and argon (as third body species) on the gas-phase reaction CH₃· + O₂ → CH₃O₂ have been studied experimentally by Laufer and Bass [33]. Their results revealed that the rate constant of the reaction is independent of the nature of the third body at high pressure limit. Further, experiments on the photodecomposition of acetone in gaseous

phase indicated that the production of methyl radical must be quite important with adding foreign gases such as N₂, Ar and CO₂ [21]. Iredale and Lyons [29] have investigated the effect of N₂ and CO₂ on the formation rate of CO during the photodecomposition of acetone. They showed that the formation rate of CO and C₂H₆, from Eqs. (5) and (7), increased with addition of inert gases, confirming that the concentration of CH₃· is much higher in the presence of CO₂. Thus, gases other than O₂ are considered as inert toward methyl radical; the observation which is supported by our experimental results of Fig. 7 in which N₂, argon and CO₂ contributes with the same enhancing rate vis-à-vis the degradation of CB. The benefic effect of these gases was, therefore, mainly attributed to its de-oxygenation role of the solution. In another word, O₂ containing in air (~20%), reduces the effective yield of methyl radical and with using inert gases, e.g. N₂, Ar and CO₂, we pushes-out the oxygen and intensifies the available amount of CH₃· in the solution. It should be noted that after 20 min of treatment, the CB degradation under N₂, CO₂ and Ar atmospheres declined and becomes lower than that observed with air. This behavior was attributed to the strong competitive effect imposed by the high quantity of degradation by-products resulted from the rapid CB-degradation upon N₂, CO₂ and Ar atmospheres.

3.6. Effect of initial CB concentration

Photolytic experiments were performed by varying initial CB concentration in the range 5–50 mg/L at 50 mM acetone dosage and solution pH equal to 7. The results are shown in Fig. 8. As can be seen, the removal efficiency increases with decreasing initial concentration; for instance, complete removal was achieved after 20 min for 5 mg/L dye concentration and this decreased to about 95%, 80% and 37.4% for 20, 30 and 50 mg/L of CB, respectively. Furthermore, it is clearly observed that the concentration of CB decreased exponentially with time, suggesting a first-order kinetics dependence of CB degradation. However, the change of initial degradation rate (r_0) versus initial CB concentration (C_0) showed a non-linear relationship, as can be shown in the insert of Fig. 8. r_0 increases by factor of 1.46 and 2.51 when C_0 increases from 5 mg/L to 10 and 20 mg/L, respectively, but for C_0 higher than 20 mg/L, the initial degradation rate maintains a constant value of about 2.54 mg/L min. These findings are widely observed for several ·OH and SO₄²⁻-based AOPs and can readily be explained as follow: the formation

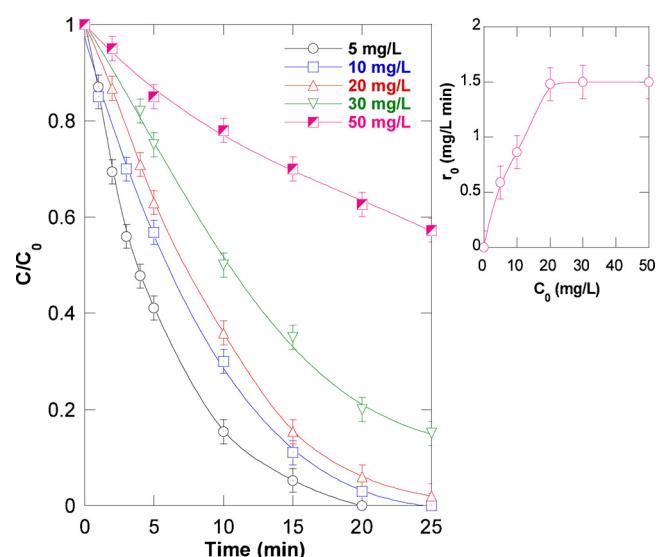


Fig. 8. Effect of initial CB concentration on its removal kinetics upon UV/acetone treatment (conditions - volume: 250 mL, initial acetone concentration: 50 mM, initial CB concentration: 5–50 mg/L (6.4–64 μ M), pH 7, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C). The insert is the variation of the CB initial degradation rate (r_0) vs. initial substrate concentration (C_0).

rate of reactive moieties, i.e. CH_3^\cdot , in the reaction mixture is solely a function of the applied irradiation intensity (at a given acetone dosage) and should remain constant regardless the substrate concentration. Increasing initial CB concentration in the solution results in increasing the probability of radicals scavenger by the dye molecules and this conducted to higher conversion rates. Thus, since the relation between r_0 and C_0 is not linear, the degradation of CB could not be described with first order kinetics law. This is the reason for why all previous runs have been compared using the removal percentage at given treatment time and the initial degradation rate instead of the pseudo-first-order rate constant (expressed in 1/time).

4. Conclusion

Textile effluents are of significant environmental concerns, due to the presence of dye residuals in dyestuff wastewater. In parallel, acetone is among the organic compounds identified as hazardous air and industrial wastewater pollutants. The results of this study showed that the photodegradation of CB azo dye was strongly accelerated by acetone, probably due to the involvement of methyl radical, generated upon UV photolysis of acetone, in the degradation process. Acetone concentration and liquid temperature showed a crucial influence on the observed intensification event. Saturation of the solution with inert gases, N_2 , CO_2 or argon, enhanced further the beneficial effect of acetone whereas O_2 completely quenched it due to its well-established scavenger character toward methyl radicals. Interestingly, UV/acetone process revealed to be more effective in degrading CB in strong alkaline pH, which is an additional benefit of this technique compared to most AOPs. UV/acetone process may be then regarded as an alternative technique for wastewater treatment although the process required other analysis such as COD, COT and BOD. Theses control-pollution parameters as well as the impact of the environmental matrices are under evaluation. Also, due to the benefit of the developed process in alkaline pH, an effort will be performed to address this achievement to real wastewater treatment in basic pH conditions. Finally, an important aspect that is not often emphasized in the paper focused on usage of UV LEDs which lower the energy consumption, thus increasing the efficiency of the processes. The use of UV LED lamps is one of the recent trends in photochemical processes since such technology is more safety than low-pressure mercury lamps.

References

- [1] Z. Eren, Ultrasound as a basic and auxiliary process for dye remediation: a review, *J. Environ. Manage.* 104 (2012) 127–141, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2012.03.028>.
- [2] A. Asghar, A. Aziz, A. Raman, W. Mohd, A. Wan, Advanced oxidation processes for in-situ production of hydrogen peroxide/hydroxyl radical for textile wastewater treatment: a review, *J. Clean. Prod.* 87 (2015) 826–838, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.010>.
- [3] M.A. Brown, S.C. De Vito, Predicting azo dye toxicity, *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 23 (1993) 249–324, <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389309388453>.
- [4] I.K. Konstantinou, T.A. Albanis, TiO₂-assisted photocatalytic degradation of azo dyes in aqueous solution: kinetic and mechanistic investigations: a review, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 49 (2004) 1–14, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2003.11.010>.
- [5] A. Taamallah, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, Sonochemical degradation of basic fuchsins in water, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 3994 (2016) 0–17, <https://doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2016.1168320>.
- [6] Z. Carmen, S. Daniela, Textile Organic Dyes – Characteristics, Polluting Effects And Separation / Elimination Procedures From Industrial Effluents – A Critical Overview, *Org. Pollut. Ten Years after Stock. Conv. - Environ. Anal. Updat.* (2012), pp. 55–86.
- [7] K. Sarayu, S. Sandhya, Current technologies for biological treatment of textile wastewater-a review, *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* 167 (2012) 645–661, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s121010-012-9716-6>.
- [8] O. Legrini, E. Oliveros, A.M. Braun, Photochemical processes for water treatment, *Chem. Rev.* 93 (1993) 671–698, <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr00018a003>.
- [9] G. Boczkaj, A. Fernandes, Wastewater treatment by means of advanced oxidation processes at basic pH conditions: a review, *Chem. Eng. J.* 320 (2017) 608–633, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2017.03.084>.
- [10] M. Antonopoulou, E. Evgenidou, D. Lambropoulou, I. Konstantinou, A review on advanced oxidation processes for the removal of taste and odor compounds from aqueous media, *Water Res.* 53 (2014) 215–234, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2014.01.028>.
- [11] M. Gagol, A. Przyjazny, G. Boczkaj, Wastewater treatment by means of advanced oxidation processes based on cavitation – a review, *Chem. Eng. J.* 338 (2018) 599–627, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2018.01.049>.
- [12] N.S. Shah, J.A. Khan, M. Sayed, Z.U.H. Khan, A.D. Rizwan, N. Muhammad, G. Boczkaj, B. Murata, M. Imran, H.M. Khan, G. Zaman, Solar light driven degradation of norfloxacin using as-synthesized Bi^{3+} and Fe^{2+} co-doped ZnO with the addition of HSO_5^- : toxicities and degradation pathways investigation, *Chem. Eng. J.* 351 (2018) 841–855, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2018.06.111>.
- [13] A. Fernandes, P. Makos, G. Boczkaj, Treatment of bitumen post oxidative effluents by sulfate radicals based advanced oxidation processes (S-AOPs) under alkaline pH conditions, *J. Clean. Prod.* 195 (2018) 374–384, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.05.207>.
- [14] P. Neta, R.E. Huie, A.B. Ross, Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 17 (1988) 1027–1284 doi 0047-2689/88/031027-258/\$21.00.
- [15] W. Chu, S.M. Tsui, Photoreductive model of disperse orange 11 in aqueous acetone and triethylamine, *J. Environ. Eng. New York (New York)* 127 (2001) 741–747, [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9372\(2001\)127:8\(741\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9372(2001)127:8(741)).
- [16] S. Fassi, I. Bousnoubra, T. Sehil, K. Djebbar, Degradation of “bromocresol green” by direct UV photolysis, Acetone/UV and advanced oxidation processes (AOP’s) in homogeneous solution (H2O2 /UV, S2O82- /UV). Comparative study, *J. Mater. Environ. Sci.* 3 (2012) 732–743.
- [17] F. Banat, S. Al-Asheh, M. Al-Rawashdeh, M. Nusair, Photodegradation of methylene blue dye by the UV/H2O2 and UV/acetone oxidation processes, *Desalination* 181 (2005) 225–232, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2005.04.005>.
- [18] C. Wei, S.M. Tsui, Photo-sensitization of diazo disperse dye in aqueous acetone, *Chemosphere* 39 (1999) 1667–1677, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535\(99\)00067-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535(99)00067-3).
- [19] R. Pieck, E.W.R. Steacie, The photolysis of acetone in the liquid phase: the gaseous products, *Can. J. Chem.* 33 (1955) 1304–1315, <https://doi.org/10.1139/v55-159>.
- [20] M. Anpo, Y. Kubokawa, Reactivity of excited triplet alkyl ketones in solution. I. Quenching and hydrogen abstraction of triplet acetone, *Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn.* (1977) 1913–1916.
- [21] W. Davis, Th gas-phase photochemical decomposition of the aliphatic ketons, *Chem. Rev.* 109 (1974) 201–250.
- [22] A.F. Trotman-Dickenson, E.W.R. Steacie, The reactions of methyl radicals. I. The photolysis of acetone, *J. Chem. Phys.* 18 (1950) 1097–1100, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1747868>.
- [23] G.H. Damon, F. Daniels, The Photolysis of gaseous acetone and the influence of water, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 55 (1933) 2363–2375, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01333a022>.
- [24] M.J. Ridge, E.W.R. Steacie, The photolysis of acetone in presence of bromide, *Can. J. Chem.* 33 (1954) 383–390, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1750963>.
- [25] T. Matsuura, A.E. Cassano, M. Smith, Acetone photolysis: kinetic studies in a flow reactor, *AIChE J.* 15 (1969) 495–501.
- [26] M.H. Feldman, M. Burton, J.E. Ricci, T.W. Davis, Determination of free radicals in acetone photolysis, *J. Chem. Phys.* 13 (1945) 440–447, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1723972>.
- [27] J.R. McNeely, A.S. Gordon, Photolysis of acetone, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 76 (1954) 1416–1418, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01634a038>.
- [28] B. Darwent, M. Allard, The photolysis of acetone, *J. Phys. Chem.* (1960) 1847–1850, <https://doi.org/10.1021/j100841a010>.
- [29] T. Iredale, E. Lyons, Influence of inert gases on the photodecomposition of gaseous acetone, *J. Chem. Soc.* 44 (1944) 588–590.
- [30] J. Caldwell, D.E. Hoare, Carbon monoxide yields in the photolysis of acetone, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 84 (1962) 3987–3990.
- [31] J. Turkevich, D.J. Mickewich, G. Reynolds, Chemiluminescence in reaction of methyl radicals with oxygen in aqueous solution, *Zeitschrift Für Phys. Chemie Neue Folge* 82 (1972) 185–194.
- [32] D. Mickewich, J. Turkevich, Methyl radicals in aqueous solution as studied by electron spin resonance spectroscopy, *J. Phys. Chem.* 72 (1968) 1966–1969.
- [33] A.H. Laufer, A.M. Bass, Rate constants of the combination of methyl radicals with nitric oxide and oxygen, *Int. J. Chem. Kinet. VII* (1975) 639–648.
- [34] H. Arican, N.L. Arthur, Reactions of methyl radicals. IV * Hydrogen abstraction from tetramethylsilane by methyl radicals produced by the photolysis of both acetone and azomethane, *Aust. J. Chem.* 36 (1983) 2185–2194.
- [35] K.V. Macken, H.W. Sidebottom, The reactions of methyl radicals with chloromethanes, *Int. J. Chem. Kinet. XI* (1952) 511–527, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1699147>.
- [36] M.I. Christie, The Photochemical decomposition of methyl iodide in presence of nitric oxide. I. The reaction of methyl radicals with nitric oxide, *Proc. R. Soc. A Math. Phys. Eng. Sci.* 249 (1959) 248–257, <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.1959.0020>.
- [37] R. Pohanish, *Sittig's Handbook of Toxic and Hazardous Chemicals and Carcinogens*, Elsevier, UK, 2012.
- [38] R.J. Lewis, *Hazardous Chemicals Desk Reference*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New Jersey, 2008, <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470335406>.
- [39] H. Bendjama, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: case of chlorazol black, *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 126 (2018) 557–564, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>.
- [40] G. Gennari, G. Jori, Acetone-sensitized anaerobic photo-oxidation of methionine, *Forts. Lett.* 10 (1970) 129–131.
- [41] Q. Hu, C. Zhang, Z. Wang, Y. Chen, K. Mao, X. Zhang, Y. Xiong, M. Zhu,

- Photodegradation of methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) by UV/H₂O₂ and UV/TiO₂, J. Hazard. Mater. 154 (2008) 795–803, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hazmat.2007.10.118>.
- [42] H. Ghodbane, O. Hamdaoui, Decolorization of antraquinonic dye, C.I. Acid Blue 25, in aqueous solution by direct UV irradiation, UV/H₂O₂ and UV/Fe(II) processes, Chem. Eng. J. 160 (2010) 226–231, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.03.049>.
- [43] S.H. Yoon, S. Lee, T.H. Kim, M. Lee, S. Yu, Oxidation of methylated arsenic species by UV/S2O82-, Chem. Eng. J. 173 (2011) 290–295, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2011.04.057>.
- [44] H. Ghodbane, O. Hamdaoui, S. Merouani, Degradation of C.I. Acid blue 25 in water using UV/K₂S₂O₈ process: effect of salts and environmental matrix, Desalin. Water Treat. 74 (2017), <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20612>.
- [45] P. Makoś, A. Fernandes, G. Boczkaj, Method for the determination of carboxylic acids in industrial effluents using dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction with injection port derivatization gas chromatography-mass spectrometry, J. Chromatogr. A 1517 (2017) 26–34, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2017.08.045>.
- [46] P. Makoś, A. Fernandes, A. Przyjazny, G. Boczkaj, Sample preparation procedure using extraction and derivatization of carboxylic acids from aqueous samples by means of deep eutectic solvents for gas chromatographic-mass spectrometric analysis, J. Chromatogr. A 1555 (2018) 10–19, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2018.04.054>.
- [47] D.F. Dever, J.G. Calvert, Rate studies of the oxidation of methyl radicals in oxygen-rich media at 25°, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 84 (1962) 1362–1368, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00867a006>.
- [48] D.A. Parkes, The oxidation of methyl radical at room temperature, Int. J. Chem. Kinet. 9 (1977) 451–469, <https://doi.org/10.1002/kin.550090313>.
- [49] D.H. Kim, J. Lee, J. Ryu, K. Kim, W. Choi, Arsenite oxidation initiated by the uv photolysis of nitrite and nitrate, Environ. Sci. Technol. 48 (2014) 4030–4037, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es500001q>.
- [50] J. Mack, J.R. Bolton, Photochemistry of nitrite and nitrate in aqueous solution: a review, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem. 128 (1999) 1–13, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030\(99\)00155-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030(99)00155-0).
- [51] G.A. Truesdale, A.L. Downing, G.F. Lowden, The solubility of oxygen in pure and sea-water, J. Appl. Chem. 5 (1955) 53–62.
- [52] Z. Boutamine, O. Hamdaoui, S. Merouani, Probing the radical chemistry and the reaction zone during the sono-degradation of endocrine disruptor 2-phenoxethanol in water, Ultrason. Sonochem. 41 (2018) 521–526, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ulsonch.2017.10.019>.
- [53] J.P. Guthrie, J. Cossar, A. Klym, The pKa of acetone: a kinetic method for determining the pKas of ketones in aqueous solution, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 104 (1982) 895–896.
- [54] S.H. Hilal, L.A. Carreira, G.L. Baughman, S.W. Karickhoff, C.M. Melton, Estimation of ionization constants of azo dyes and related aromatic amines: environmental implication, J. Phys. Org. Chem. 7 (1994) 122–141, <https://doi.org/10.1002/poc.610070304>.
- [55] S.H. Etaiw, M.E. Abdel-salam, Studies on azo compounds: part VII-protonation constants and kinetics of some thiazole azo and azomethine Dyes, Indian J. Text. Res. (1980) 143–147.
- [56] J. Kagan, Organic Photochemistry: Principals and Applications, Academic Press, San diego, 1993.
- [57] G. Boczkaj, A. Fernandes, P. Makoś, Study of different advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment from petroleum bitumen production at basic pH, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 56 (2017) 8806–8814, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.iecr.7b01507>.
- [58] M. Gągol, A. Przyjazny, G. Boczkaj, Effective method of treatment of industrial effluents under basic pH conditions using acoustic cavitation – a comprehensive comparison with hydrodynamic cavitation processes, Chem. Eng. Process. - Process Intensif. 128 (2018) 103–113, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cep.2018.04.010>.
- [59] M. Gągol, A. Przyjazny, G. Boczkaj, Highly effective degradation of selected groups of organic compounds by cavitation based AOPs under basic pH conditions, Ultrason. Sonochem. 45 (2018) 257–266, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ulsonch.2018.03.013>.

Annexe B



Using photoactivated acetone for the degradation of Chlorazol Black in aqueous solutions: Impact of mineral and organic additives

Hafida Bendjama ^a, Slimane Merouani ^{a,b,*}, Oualid Hamdaoui ^b, Mohammed Bouhelassa ^a

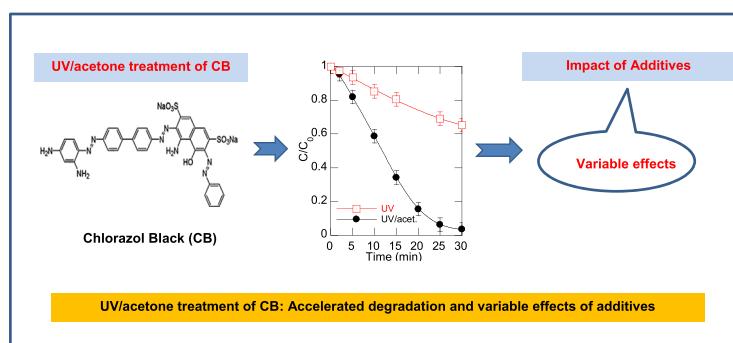
^a Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider – Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

^b Laboratory of Environmental Engineering, Department of Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Badji Mokhtar – Annaba University, 23000 Annaba, Algeria

HIGHLIGHTS

- Acetone-assisted UV-irradiation accelerated drastically the removal of Chlorazol Black (CB).
- Methyl radical implication in the CB removal was confirmed by specific-radical scavengers.
- The beneficial effect of acetone may be unaffected, decreased or suppressed by selected salts.
- Ascorbic acid, as free radicals scavenger, completely quenched the positive effect of acetone.
- Sucrose, glucose and humic acid slightly reduced the CB degradation rate.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 16 September 2018

Received in revised form 31 October 2018

Accepted 1 November 2018

Available online 03 November 2018

Editor: Paola Verlicchi

Keywords:

Acetone photoactivated process

Methyl radicals ($\text{CH}_3\cdot$)

Chlorazol Black (CB)

Degradation

Additives

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effect of different mineral and organic additives on the degradation of Chlorazol Black (CB, 25.5 μM) in aqueous media by UV/acetone process. Initially, it was found that acetone (50 mM)-assisted UV irradiation accelerated the CB removal within 30 min to 98% against 34% for the sole UV, presumably due to the implication of methyl radicals in the degradation process as confirmed by O_2 saturation and nitrite addition (as $\text{CH}_3\cdot$ -specific scavengers). While NaCl and Na_2SO_4 have no impact on the degradation kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone process, NaHCO_3 and Na_2CO_3 slightly inhibited it and a relatively more inhibition was observed with NaNO_3 and KBr . The degradation performance was somewhat decreased in natural mineral water. On the other hand, ascorbic acid, as free radicals scavenger, at low concentration (0.1 mM) completely quenched the positive effect of acetone confirming the free radical mechanism on CB degradation. Besides, the implication of $\cdot\text{OH}$ was excluded by adding 2 propanol (up to 50 mM). Furthermore, the slight decrease in CB removal in the presence of sucrose, glucose and humic acid is a clear indication that UV/acetone process is a promising technique for removing organic dyes from environmental samples.

© 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Water pollution is defined as the presence of toxic chemicals and biological agents that exceed what is naturally found in the water and may pose a threat to human health and the environment (Hassanpour et al., 2018). In recent years, implementation of water reclamation and reuse is gaining attention rapidly worldwide due to the water scarcity

* Corresponding author at: Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider – Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria.

E-mail addresses: s.merouani@yahoo.fr, s.merouani03@gmail.com (S. Merouani).

¹ This article is dedicated to Prof. Mohammed Bouhelassa on the occasion of his retirement.

occurring as a result of climate change and poor water resource management (Hassanpour et al., 2018). Access to clean water is becoming an ever increasing problem in an expanding global economy and population countries. Water pollution becomes a critical issue around the world, and carbon-based chemical substances contribute to major pollution in water.

To reduce the environmental risks linked to organic pollutants, it is important to control their sources. Hazardous and toxic organic compounds found in industrial or domestic wastewater effluents must be removed or destroyed to an acceptable level, before discharge to receiving waters. Free radicals-based treatment methods are among the most effective techniques which have potential for the rapid and non-selective oxidation of a broad range of organic pollutants (Parsons, 2004; Tarr, 2003). UV/H₂O₂, UV/persulfate, UV/periodate, Fenton reaction, iron/persulfate are many reaction sources of hydroxyl (·OH), sulfate (SO₄²⁻) or iodine (IO₃⁻) radicals which are classified as advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) (Asghar et al., 2015; Gogate and Pandit, 2004; Ribeiro et al., 2015; Tsitonaki et al., 2010). Photocatalysis is another efficient example of ·OH-based AOP in which several catalysts have been developed (Hassanpour et al., 2018, 2017; Hoffmann et al., 1995; Masjedi et al., 2013; Zinatloo-ajabshir et al., 2017). These radicals may react with variable organic pollutants with high reaction-rate constants, i.e. 10⁸–10¹¹ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Buxton et al., 1988; Chia et al., 2004; Neta et al., 1988; Wang and Xu, 2012). Organic compounds are destroyed with APOs to carbon dioxide, water and simple mineral acids or inorganic ions.

It has been reported that UV/acetone process can be applied efficiently for the degradation of water organic contaminants. Researches on UV/acetone oxidation process are very scarce in general. For instance, a rapid decolorization of disperse orange 11 (Chu and Tsiu, 2001), disperse yellow 7 (Wei and Tsui, 1999), methylene blue dye (Banat et al., 2005) and bromocresol green (Fassi et al., 2012) in acetone-photo-assisted systems has been reported. The authors have attributed the enhancing effect of acetone to the acetone photosensitization process. Photosensitization is a process in which light energy is taken up by organic compounds and transferred to other compounds that are more reactive (Banat et al., 2005). The process of discoloration using acetone as a photosensitized material occurs as given by the following reaction (Banat et al., 2005):



A photosensitized material in its ground state (¹A) will absorb the UV energy and thereafter transfers it to the dye in its ground state (D). Because of the energy absorption, a new unstable electronically excited configuration state is formed (³A). An electronically unstable dye excited state is formed (³D). The new dye excited state is more reactive than the ground state (¹D), and the possibility of dye photolysis could be achieved in this case. As such, acetone can speed up the energy transfer from UV to the dye molecules which then accelerated their degradation (Banat et al., 2005).

However, under the sensitization scenario, the acetone could not be degraded and its concentration could not be changed; the observation which was not supported by experiments since it was found that acetone degradation took place during photolysis (Anpo and Kubokawa, 1977; Pieck and Steacie, 1955). Recently, an alternative mechanism based on the methyl radical formation through acetone photoactivation at 253.7 nm light has been reported by our research group during the study of the degradation of Chlorazol Black (CB) azo dye in deionized water by applying UV/acetone process (Bendjama et al., 2019). The formation of CH₃[·] is thermodynamically favorable since the energy per Einstein of 253.7 nm light (~113 kcal) is large enough to that necessary to break the C—C bond in acetone molecule (70 kcal). Chemical probes tests using specific CH₃[·] scavengers have evidenced the direct implication of methyl radical in the intensifying effect of acetone toward the photooxidation of CB. The underlying mechanism for acetone

photoactivation is that reported by Pieck and Steacie (1955) for the photolysis of liquid acetone and acetone/water mixture at 254 nm light (Eqs. (2)–(4)). The origin of the mechanism is the gas-phase photolysis of acetone which was investigated for over 50 years by tens of publications (Damon and Daniels, 1933; Feldman et al., 1945; Matsuura et al., 1969; Pieck and Steacie, 1955; Ridge and Steacie, 1954; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie, 1950). The common gaseous products, i.e. methane, ethane and CO, for both liquid phase and gas-phase photolysis of acetone are well identified and quantified (Damon and Daniels, 1933; Feldman et al., 1945; Matsuura et al., 1969; Pieck and Steacie, 1955; Ridge and Steacie, 1954; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie, 1950).



UV/acetone process is thus an emerging process for wastewater treatment, which begins to draw attention but, unfortunately, literature data about this process is very scarce. In the current paper, we continuous the early effort on the degradation of Chlorazol Black dye by UV/acetone process (Bendjama et al., 2019), by investigating for the first time the effect of several mineral and organic additives on the performance of this process. Additionally, degradation runs have been conducted in natural water, instead of pure water, to check the ability of this oxidation process for treating real environmental waters. CB was selected as substrate model principally due to its persistent nature toward traditional chemical and biological treatment (Bendjama et al., 2018). In addition, it is a toxic substance of well-established carcinogenic and mutagenic effects toward humans and animals. CB is usually used in various industries like dyeing of fabric, leather, cotton, cellulose materials and plastic (Bendjama et al., 2018).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Reagents

Acetone (99.5%) and Chlorazol Black azo dye (abbreviation: CB; UPAC name: 4 Amino 3 [[4' [(2,4 diaminophenyl)azo][1,1' biphenyl] 4 yl]azo] 5 hydroxy 6 (phenylazo)2,7 naphthalenedisulfonic acid disodium salt, molecular formula: C₃₄H₂₅N₉Na₂O₇S₂) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and were used as received. All other reagents (NaCl, Na₂SO₄, NaHCO₃, Na₂CO₃, KBr, NaNO₂, NaNO₃, 2 propanol, formic acid, ascorbic acid, sucrose, glucose, humic acid, sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide) were commercial products of the purest grade available.

2.2. Apparatus and operation

The experimental setup used herein has been fully described previously (Bendjama et al., 2018). It consists of glass water-jacketed reactor with the overall volume of 500 mL. A low pressure mercury lamp (15 mW cm⁻², Oriel 6035, emits mainly at 253.7 nm) was used to provide UV illumination. The lamp with a quartz envelop was placed in the center of the reactor. The temperature of the photoreaction system was maintained at 25 ± 1 °C by circulating water through a jacket surrounding the cell.

Trials were carried out in air-equilibrated solutions, which have been prepared using deionized water, mostly at neutral pH. The initial concentration of CB was set at 25.5 μM (20 mg/L). The initial acetone concentration was fixed at 50 mM as this concentration has provided the best degradation performance of CB upon UV irradiation (Bendjama et al., 2019). The reactor filled with an operating volume of 250 mL CB/acetone aqueous solution was magnetically stirred and

sampled periodically for analyzing the concentration of the dye at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 578 \text{ nm}$ using a Jenway 6405 UV-vis spectrophotometer. All experiments were repeated at least two times and the mean values were reported (the inserted error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Acetone induced intensification of CB photodegradation: effect of mineral salts

We have recently investigated the effect of acetone on the photodegradation of CB with relation to various operating conditions, using the same experimental procedure adopted in this work (Bendjama et al., 2019). The results revealed that acetone when

combined with UV strongly accelerated the degradation rate of CB ($25.5 \mu\text{M}$). The effect of acetone at 50 mM was summarized in Fig. 1(a), with and without saturation with oxygen, while Fig. 1(b)–(h) shows the effect of 1 to 50 mM of different salts on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment. As seen from Fig. 1(a), near complete degradation of the dye was achieved after 30 min with acetone addition whereas, 66% of CB remained in the solution under the sole UV action. The accelerating effect of acetone was attributed to the involvement of methyl radical generated from the photoactivation of acetone in the degradation process, as confirmed using dissolved O_2 and NaNO_2 as chemical probes (Bendjama et al., 2019). The effect of these two compounds is resumed in Fig. 1(a) and (b). Either O_2 -saturation or NaNO_2 addition at 1 mM completely nullified the enhancing effect of acetone on the removal of CB. Both O_2 and NaNO_2 are

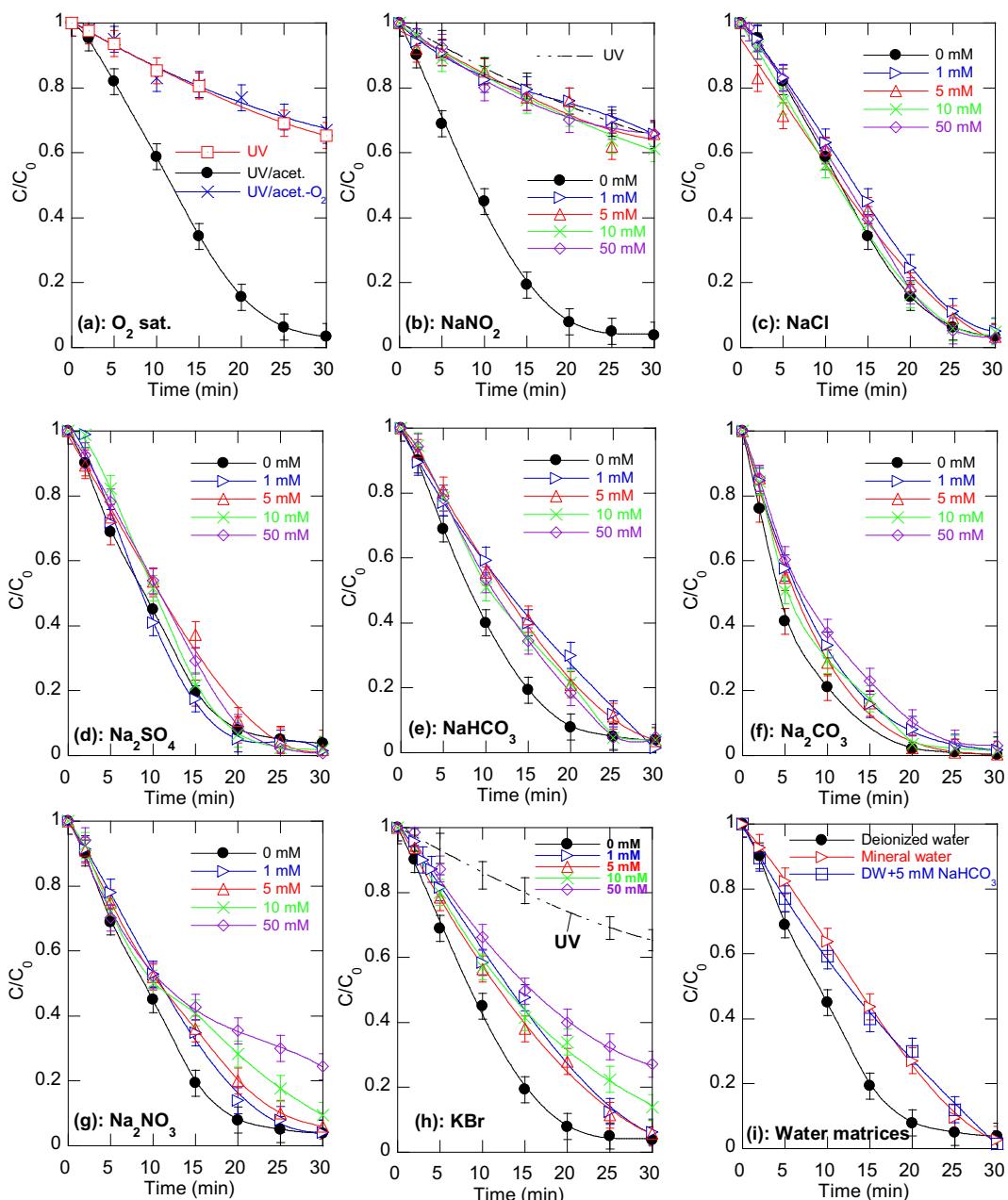


Fig. 1. Effect of oxygen saturation (a), mineral salts (b)–(h) and water matrices (i) on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone process (conditions: UV intensity: 15 mW/cm^2 , $[\text{CB}]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{salts}]_0 = 1\text{--}50 \text{ mM}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, pH ~7 except for (e) pH 8.4 and (f) pH 11.4 (pHs imposed by bicarbonate and carbonate ions in water)). The sole UV curve has been inserted in figures for comparison.

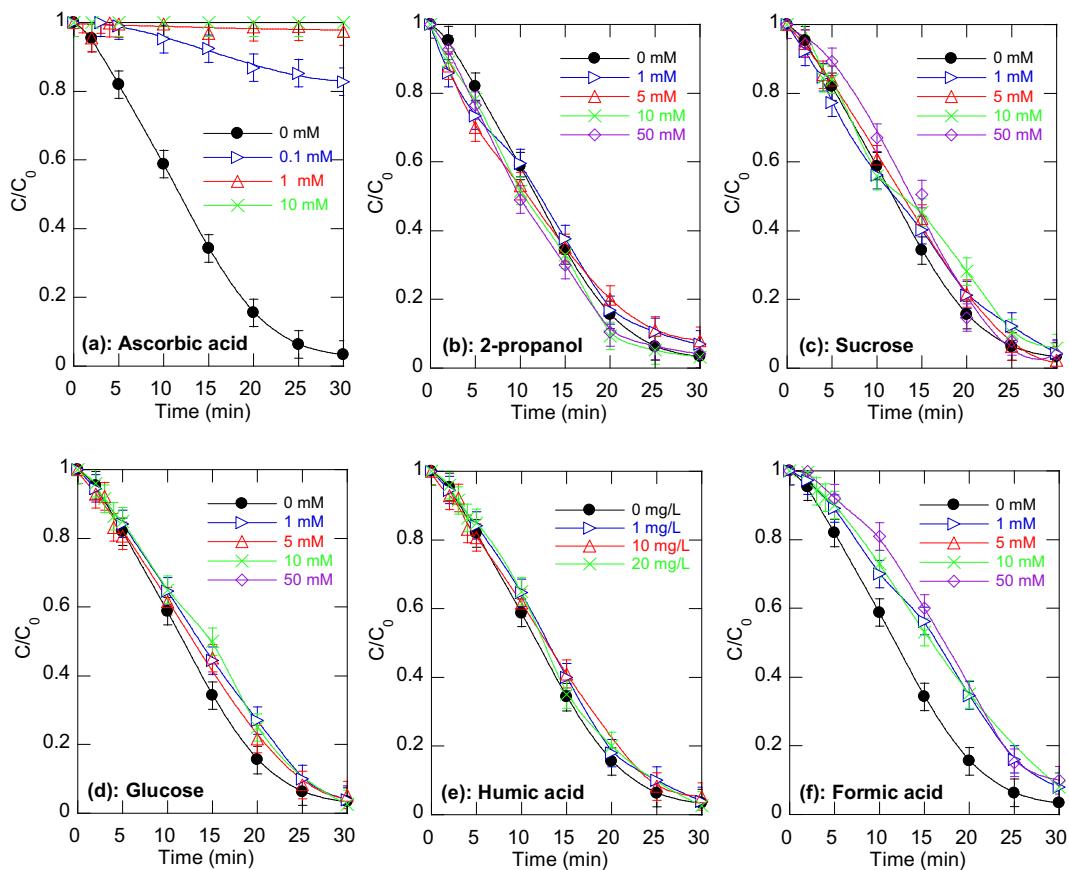


Fig. 2. Effect of organic additives on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone process (conditions: UV intensity: 15 mW/cm², [CB]₀ = 25.5 μM, [Acet.]₀ = 50 mM, [additives]₀ = 1–50 mM, except for humic acid, 25 ± 1 °C, pH ~7).

methyl radical scavengers, as confirmed by Turkevich and coworkers (Mickewich and Turkevich, 1968; Turkevich et al., 1972) who studied the production of methyl radicals by the reaction of titanium (III) chloride with tertiary butyl hydroxide (*t* BuOOH) in aqueous solution. The authors also studied the reaction of the generated radical with several organic and mineral substances (Mickewich and Turkevich, 1968; Turkevich et al., 1972). They reported that when the solution was saturated with oxygen or when NaNO₂ is added to the solution, the chemiluminescence intensity from methyl radical drops to zero, meaning that dissolved oxygen and nitrite are efficient scavengers of CH₃• radical in aqueous phase (Mickewich and Turkevich, 1968; Turkevich et al., 1972). Fig. 1(b) also indicated that further increase of NaNO₂ above 1 mM has not any further impact on the degradation process, signifying that the concentration of the methyl radical implicated in the dye degradation is lesser than 1 mM (Bendjama et al., 2019).

Fig. 1(c) and (d) indicated that neither NaCl nor Na₂SO₄ have an influence on the performance of UV/acetone process toward the removal rate of CB, even if they are present at concentration similar to that of acetone (50 mM). This observation is partially consistent with that of Mickewich and Turkevich (1968) who reported that the reaction between methyl radical and KCl in aqueous media is very slow. Thus, sulfate and chloride ions are inactive toward CH₃• at the studied concentration levels (50 mM). The effect of these species is very similar to their impact on several SO₄•-based AOPs (Ghodbane et al., 2017; Gu et al., 2011; Merouani et al., 2017). Similarly, chloride in the concentration level of seawater (~500 mM) was not found to influence the reaction of CB with iodine radicals (IO₃•) generated upon UV-activation of periodate (Bendjama et al., 2018). On the other hand, bicarbonate and carbonate ions have slightly altered the positive effect of acetone toward the removal of CB (Fig. 1(e) and (f)). A reduction of about 10% and 18% was imposed by carbonate and bicarbonate, respectively.

Additionally, the impact of these substances is independent of their concentrations, reflecting that bicarbonate and carbonate have a slow reactivity with methyl radical; the observation which is very analogue to the reactivity of these compounds with sulfate radical (Merouani et al., 2017). Contrarily to nitrite ions, nitrate ions has not any impact on the removal rate of CB at the initial course of the reaction (<10 min) but, however, it impacts negatively the CB degradation rate at the latter stage of the reaction (Fig. 1(g)). After 20 min, NaNO₃ at 1 mM, 10 mM and 50 mM yielded 10%, 22% and 27% decrease in the CB removal, respectively. It was to be noted that nitrate is well known photosensitizer that accelerates the degradation of organic pollutants through the generation of several other oxidizing agents such as •OH, NO₂•, NO⁺ and O (3P) (Kim et al., 2014; Mark et al., 1996). However, in the presence of acetone, the insignificant effect of nitrate vis-à-vis the initial degradation rate of CB may be attributed to the predominance of UV-light absorption by acetone rather than nitrate. In fact, the absorptivity of nitrate at 254 nm irradiation light is four times slower than that of acetone ($\epsilon_{\text{nitrate}} = 4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Mark et al., 1996), $\epsilon_{\text{acetone}} = 16 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Stefan et al., 1996)). It should be noted here that the effect of acetone/mineral and organic additives on the degradation of the CB in dark conditions was also investigated, but no degradation was detected for all these runs.

The photosensitization of nitrate may take place at the latter stage of the reaction when the concentration of acetone is believed to be decreased, but alteration of CB degradation was observed which is may be due to the possible reaction of methyl radical with the photogenerated products of nitrate as well as the consumption of these latters by the residual acetone since its concentration in the solution remained always higher than that of the target substrate (Wei and Tsui, 1999). Mickewich and Turkevich (1968) have shown that KBr reacts less rapidly with methyl radical than KNO₂; the statement which

is confirmed by our results of Fig. 1(h). A reduction of 20%, 26% and 32% in the removal of CB after 20 min were recorded with, respectively, 1 mM, 10 mM and 50 mM of KBr. Finally, the performance of the photoactivated process was checked in real environmental water. Degradation of CB by UV/acetone process was studied in a natural mineral water of the characteristics: pH 7.2, $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 81 \text{ mg/L}$, $\text{Mg}^{2+} = 24 \text{ mg/L}$, $\text{Na}^+ = 15.8 \text{ mg/L}$, $\text{Cl}^- = 72 \text{ mg/L}$ (2 mM), $\text{SO}_4^{2-} = 53 \text{ mg/L}$ (0.55 mM), $\text{HCO}_3^- = 265 \text{ mg/L}$ (4.34 mM). The obtained results, presented in Fig. 1(i), show that CB degradation is also effective in mineral water. For both matrices, the initial amount of CB was nearly removed after about 30 min, but the degradation rate proceeds much quickly in deionized water. In view of the relative high concentration of bicarbonate in the mineral water (4.34 mM), it is suspected that bicarbonate is the main species responsible for lowering the degradation of CB in mineral water. To confirm this suggestion, degradation run in deionized water has been conducted with 4.34 mM of bicarbonate and the resulted data has been inserted in Fig. 1(i). As seen, the degradation curve in the synthetic solution is almost superposed on that obtained in the natural mineral water, reflecting the effective responsibility of bicarbonate on the low reduction of CB removal in the mineral water. It should be noted that cations, i.e. K^+ and Na^+ , have not any reactivity with methyl radical since replacing NaCl by KCl have provided the same effect (data not shown).

3.2. Effect of organic additives

CB degradation in UV/acetone system were conducted in solutions including several selected organic substrates namely: ascorbic acid, as a scavenger for all types of free radicals, 2 propanol, as an $\cdot\text{OH}$ -specific radical scavenger ($1.9 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al., 1988)), sucrose and glucose, as saturated organic matters found in alimentary effluents (Merouani et al., 2010), humic acid, which is widely exists in natural water resources and formic acid, to assess its effect as an end-product of almost AOPs. Fig. 2 shows the effect of these additives in the concentration interval of 1–50 mM, except for humic acid which was investigated at its usual concentration in the environment (1–20 mg/L).

Fig. 2(a) indicates that the ascorbic acid with only 0.1 mM completely quenched the positive effect of acetone and hardly influenced the overall photolytic degradation process. The same scavenger with concentrations superior of 1 mM can almost stop the photolytic degradation process. This corroborates that the radical-based mechanism is responsible for the destruction of CB by UV-activated acetone. In contrary, with adding of 2 propanol in excess (2 propanol to CB ratio: up to 1960-fold), the removal of the dye was practically unaffected in comparison with that in the absence of scavengers (Fig. 2(b)), suggesting that $\cdot\text{OH}$ could not take any part into the CB decomposition. Taking into account the fact that dissolved oxygen and NaNO_2 , as methyl radical scavengers, have nullified the improving effect of acetone vis-à-vis the photolytic removal of CB (Fig. 1(a) and (b)), it is concluded that $\text{CH}_3\cdot$ is produced in the system according to Eq. (1) and implicated in the oxidation of CB.

It was observed that the degradation of the dye was slightly decreased in the presence of sucrose and glucose (Fig. 2(c) and (d)). The marginally decrease in the degree of CB removal by an increase in the concentration of sucrose and glucose in the mixture is a clear indication of the high performance of UV/acetone emerged process for the removal of CB from alimentary liquids containing sucrose and glucose. Similarly, humic acid over the concentration range 1–20 mg/L has an insignificant impact on the removal rate of the dye (Fig. 2(e)). This observation is very analogue to that reported by Hamdaoui and Merouani (2017) and Li et al. (2013) for the degradation of Acid orange 7 and 1,1,1 trichloroethane by sonolysis and sono-activated persulfate ($\cdot\text{OH}$ and SO_4^{2-} -based AOPs). Therefore, UV/acetone process could be a promising technique for treating real environmental samples contaminated with organic dyes. Formic acid is a typical reaction intermediate in various AOPs (Navarro et al., 2011) and it is therefore important in

look at its effect of the removal of CB through the integrated UV/acetone process. As seen from Fig. 2 (f), formic acid relatively reduced the degradation rate of CB. A maximum discount of about 20% was observed at 20 min as compared with UV/acetone alone.

4. Conclusion

In this work, the degradation of CB by photoactivated acetone was assessed in the presence of several mineral and organic additives. On the basis of the obtained results, it was concluded that acetone photoactivated process will be more suitable technology to abate recalcitrant pollutants as compared to UV-irradiation only. A 5.6-fold increase in the initial degradation rate, as compared with UV, was recorded when UV is assisted with 50 mM of acetone. Salts such as NaCl and Na_2SO_4 did not alter the performance of the UV/acetone process, NaHCO_3 and Na_2CO_3 slightly inhibited it, whereas NaNO_3 and KBr showed a marked inhibition. The process efficiency was slightly reduced in mineral natural water, as compared with deionized water. On the other hand, among several studied organic additives, only ascorbic acid has shown a negative impact on the process efficiency. It is believed that methyl radical is the key oxidizing species playing the significant role in the investigated process. This study thus opens perspectives on new emerging process for wastewater treatment based on the activation of acetone using UV irradiation at 253.7 nm light. Indeed, several similarities between this process and several AOPs have been established regarding the effect of operating parameters and additives. The extent of this process to reduce the organic charge (COT, COD, BOD analysis) will be investigated in the future.

References

- Anpo, M., Kubokawa, Y., 1977. Reactivity of excited triplet alkyl ketones in solution. I. Quenching and hydrogen abstraction of triplet acetone. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1913–1916.
- Asghar, A., Aziz, A., Raman, A.A.A., Mohd, W., Wan, A., Daud, W.M.A.W., Aziz, A., Raman, A.A.A., Mohd, W., Wan, A., 2015. Advanced oxidation processes for in-situ production of hydrogen peroxide/hydroxyl radical for textile wastewater treatment: a review. J. Clean. Prod. 87, 826–838. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.010>.
- Banat, F., Al-Asheh, S., Al-Rawashdeh, M., Nusair, M., 2005. Photodegradation of methylene blue dye by the UV/ H_2O_2 and UV/acetone oxidation processes. Desalination 181, 225–232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2005.04.005>.
- Bendjama, H., Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Bouhelassa, M., 2018. Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: case of chlorazol black. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 126, 557–564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>.
- Bendjama, H., Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Bouhelassa, M., 2019. UV-photolysis of Chlorazol Black in aqueous media: process intensification using acetone and evidence of methyl radical implication in the degradation process. J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem. 368, 268–275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2018.09.047>.
- Buxton, G.V., Greenstock, C.L., Helman, W.P., Ross, A.B., 1988. Critical review of rate constants for reactions of hydrated electrons, hydrogen atoms and hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}/\text{O}^-$) in aqueous solution. J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 17, 515–886 (doi:0047-2689/88/020513-37\$20.00).
- Chia, L.H., Tang, X., Weavers, L.K., 2004. Kinetics and mechanism of photoactivated periodate reaction with 4-chlorophenol in acidic solution. Environ. Sci. Technol. 38, 6875–6880. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es049155n>.
- Chu, W., Tsui, S.M., 2001. Photoreductive model of disperse orange 11 in aqueous acetone and triethylamine. J. Environ. Eng. 127, 741–747. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9372\(2001\)127:8\(741\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9372(2001)127:8(741)).
- Damon, G.H., Daniels, F., 1933. The photolysis of gaseous acetone and the influence of water. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 55, 2363–2375. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01333a022>.
- Fassi, S., Bousnoubra, I., Sehili, T., Djebbar, K., 2012. Degradation of “bromocresol green” by direct UV photolysis, Acetone/UV and advanced oxidation processes (AOP’s) in homogeneous solution ($\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{UV}$, $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}/\text{UV}$). Comparative study. J. Mater. Environ. Sci. 3, 732–743.
- Feldman, M.H., Burton, M., Ricci, J.E., Davis, T.W., 1945. Determination of free radicals in acetone photolysis. J. Chem. Phys. 13, 440–447. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1723972>.
- Ghodbane, H., Hamdaoui, O., Merouani, S., 2017. Degradation of C.I. acid blue 25 in water using UV/ $\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ process: effect of salts and environmental matrix. Desalin. Water Treat. 74. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20612>.
- Gogate, P.R., Pandit, A.B., 2004. A review of imperative technologies for wastewater treatment I: oxidation technologies at ambient conditions. Adv. Environ. Res. 8, 501–551. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1093-0191\(03\)00032-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1093-0191(03)00032-7).
- Gu, X., Lu, S., Li, L., Qiu, Z., Sui, Q., Lin, K., Luo, Q., 2011. Oxidation of 1,1,1-trichloroethane stimulated by thermally activated persulfate. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 50, 11029–11036. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie201059x>.

- Hamdaoui, O., Merouani, S., 2017. Ultrasonic destruction of Acid Orange 7: effect of humic acid, surfactants and complex matrices. *Water Environ. Res.* 89, 250–259. <https://doi.org/10.2175/106143016X14798353399539>.
- Hassanpour, M., Safardoust-Hojaghan, H., Salavati-Niasari, M., 2017. Rapid and eco-friendly synthesis of NiO/ZnO nanocomposite and its application in decolorization of dye. *J. Mater. Sci. Mater. Electron.* 28, 10830–10837. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10854-017-6860-3>.
- Hassanpour, M., Salavati-Niasari, M., Mousavi, S.A., Safardoust-Hojaghan, H., Hamadanian, M., 2018. CeO₂/ZnO ceramic nanocomposites, synthesized via microwave method and used for decolorization of dyes. *J. Nanostruct.* 8, 97–106. <https://doi.org/10.22052/JNS.2018.01.012>.
- Hoffmann, M.R., Martin, S.T., Choi, W.Y., Bahnemann, D.W., 1995. Environmental applications of semiconductor photocatalysis. *Chem. Rev.* 95, 69–96. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr00033a004>.
- Kim, D.H., Lee, J., Ryu, J., Kim, K., Choi, W., 2014. Arsenite oxidation initiated by the UV photolysis of nitrite and nitrate. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 48, 4030–4037. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es500001q>.
- Li, B., Li, L., Lin, K., Zhang, W., Lu, S., Luo, Q., 2013. Removal of 1,1,1-trichloroethane from aqueous solution by a sono-activated persulfate process. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* 20, 855–863. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2012.11.014>.
- Mark, G., Korth, H.G., Schuchmann, H.P., Von Sonntag, C., 1996. The photochemistry of aqueous nitrate ion revisited. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem.* 101, 89–103. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030\(96\)04391-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1010-6030(96)04391-2).
- Masjedi, M., Mir, N., Noori, E., Gholami, T., Salavati-Niasari, M., 2013. Effect of Schiff base ligand on the size and the optical properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles. *Superlattice. Microst.* 62, 30–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spmi.2013.07.003>.
- Matsuura, T., Cassano, A.E., Smith, M., 1969. Acetone photolysis: kinetic studies in a flow reactor. *AIChE J.* 15, 495–501.
- Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Saoudi, F., Chiha, M., 2010. Sonochemical degradation of rhodamine B in aqueous phase: effects of additives. *Chem. Eng. J.* 158, 550–557. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.01.048>.
- Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Bouhelassa, M., 2017. Degradation of Safranin O by Thermally Activated Persulfate in the Presence of Mineral and Organic Additives: Impact of Environmental Matrices. 75, pp. 202–212. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20404>.
- Mickewich, D., Turkevich, J., 1968. Methyl radicals in aqueous solution as studied by electron spin resonance spectroscopy. *J. Phys. Chem.* 72, 1966–1969.
- Navarro, N.M., Chave, T., Pochon, P., Bisel, I., Nikitenko, S.I., 2011. Effect of ultrasonic frequency on the mechanism of formic acid sonolysis. *J. Phys. Chem. B* 115, 2024–2029. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp109444h>.
- Neta, P., Huie, R.E., Ross, A.B., 1988. Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 17, 1027–1284 (doi:0047-2689/88/031027-258/\$21.00).
- Parsons, S., 2004. Advanced Oxidation Processes for Water and Wastewater Treatment. IWA Publishing, London.
- Pieck, R., Steacie, E.W.R., 1955. The photolysis of acetone in the liquid phase: the gaseous products. *Can. J. Chem.* 33, 1304–1315. <https://doi.org/10.1139/v55-159>.
- Ribeiro, A.R., Nunes, O.C., Pereira, M.F.R., Silva, A.M.T., 2015. An overview on the advanced oxidation processes applied for the treatment of water pollutants defined in the recently launched Directive 2013/39/EU. *Environ. Int.* 75, 33–51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2014.10.027>.
- Ridge, M.J., Steacie, E.W.R., 1954. The photolysis of acetone in presence of bromide. *Can. J. Chem.* 33, 383–390. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1750963>.
- Stefan, M.I., Hoy, A.R., Bolton, J.R., 1996. Kinetics and mechanism of the degradation and mineralization of acetone in dilute aqueous solution sensitized by the UV photolysis of hydrogen peroxide. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 30, 2382–2390. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es950866i>.
- Tarr, M.A., 2003. Chemical Degradation Methods for Wastes and Pollutants, Combustion. Mark Dekker, Inc., New York.
- Trotman-Dickenson, A.F., Steacie, E.W.R., 1950. The reactions of methyl radicals. I. The photolysis of acetone. *J. Chem. Phys.* 18, 1097–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1747868>.
- Tsitonaki, A., Petri, B., Crimi, M., Mosbæk, H., Siegrist, R.L., Bjerg, P.L., Mosbk, H., Siegrist, R.L., Bjerg, P.L., 2010. In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate: a review. *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 40, 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643380802039303>.
- Turkevich, J., Mickewich, D.J., Reynolds, G., 1972. Chemiluminescence in reaction of methyl radicals with oxygen in aqueous solution. *Z. Phys. Chem.* 82, 185–194.
- Wang, J.L., Xu, L.J., 2012. Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment: formation of hydroxyl radical and application. *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 42, 251–325. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2010.507698>.
- Wei, C., Tsui, S.M., 1999. Photo-sensitization of diazo disperse dye in aqueous acetone. *Chemosphere* 39, 1667–1677. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535\(99\)00067-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535(99)00067-3).
- Zinatloo-ajabshir, S., Morassaei, M.S., Niasari, M.S., 2017. Facile fabrication of Dy₂Sn₂O₇–SnO₂ nanocomposites as an effective photocatalyst for degradation and removal of organic contaminants. *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* 497, 298–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2017.03.031>.

Annexe C

Acetone photoactivated process: application to the degradation of refractory organic pollutants in very saline waters

Hafida Bendjama¹, Slimane Merouani  ^{1,2}, Oualid Hamdaoui² & Mohammed Bouhelassa¹

¹Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider Constantine 3, Constantine, Algeria; and

²Laboratory of Environmental Engineering, Department of Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Badji Mokhtar –Annaba University, Annaba, 23000, Algeria

Keywords

acetone photoactivation; chlorazol black; degradation; methyl radical; refractory organic pollutants; seawater.

Correspondence

S. Merouani, Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider Constantine 3, Constantine 25000, Algeria.
Email: s.merouani@yahoo.fr, s.merouani03@gmail.com

doi:10.1111/wej.12507

Abstract

Herein, we show the first report on the degradation of hazardous organic pollutants in very saline matrice (seawater) using acetone photoactivated process at 253.7 nm. Chloral black (CB), a very persistent dye of well-established carcinogenic and mutagenic effects, was chosen a substrate model. The photodegradation of CB was monotonically increased in the presence of acetone. About 90% of CB (25.5 μ M) was removed after 30 minutes in the presence of 50 mM of acetone whereas only 30% of removal was achieved under UV alone. The process is very sensitive to operational conditions. Chemical probes' tests using oxygen and KI have evidenced that methyl radical ($\text{CH}_3\bullet$) is the primarily radical involved in the CB degradation upon UV/acetone treatment. The formation of $\text{CH}_3\bullet$ is thermodynamically favourable since the energy per Einstein of 253.7 nm light (~113 kcal) is large enough to break the C–C bond in the acetone molecule (70 kcal).

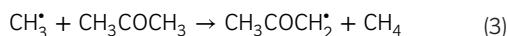
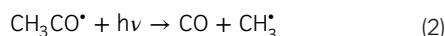
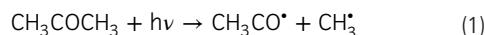
Introduction

The world's oceans contain a wide range of species that are harvested for human consumption. It is estimated that more than 2 billion people worldwide depend on protein from the seas and coastal habitats, yet it is into this very environment that anthropogenic waste often accumulates (Bowen and Depledge, 2006). The coastal areas play an important role in the economic and social development at the local, national and global scales. However, the excessive exploitation of these areas can cause a significant threat to marine environment (Quante *et al.*, 2011). Coastal area usually acts as receptors for several types of discharges and dumping waste containing high levels of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) generated from intensive industrial and agricultural activities (Quante *et al.*, 2011; Merhaby *et al.*, 2015). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and synthetic dyes are among the various EOPs detected in marine environment (Bendjama *et al.*, 2018). Azo dyes, which mostly consist of aromatic moieties linked together by N=N bonding, are among the most notorious and widespread environmental pollutants associated with textile, cosmetic, food and leather industries (Pereira and Alves, 2012; Hamdaoui and Merouani, 2017). Since dyes are designed to resist degradation, these

are chemically stable, non-biodegradable and exist as substances possess toxic and carcinogenic effects on aquatic life, which thus cause the destruction of ecosystems (Konstantinou and Albanis, 2004; Haddad *et al.*, 2019).

Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) are viable ways to remove persistent and hazardous substances from aqueous waste (Stefan, 2017). AOPs based on the generation of highly oxidative hydroxyl ($\bullet\text{OH}$) and sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$) radicals, such as Fenton ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$), photocatalysis, $\text{UV}/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, $\text{UV}/\text{persulfate}$ and $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, have been widely applied in wastewater treatment and pollution control (Ghatak, 2014; Oturan and Aaron, 2014). However, the application of these processes in seawater is limited by the high reactivity of hydroxyl and sulfate radicals towards chloride ions (Neta *et al.*, 1988). More recently, iodine radical, generated upon UV photolysis of periodate, has also been involved efficiently in the degradation of organic pollutants (Bendjama *et al.*, 2018). The advantage of iodine radical is that is selective and unreactive with chloride and sulfate ions (Bendjama *et al.*, 2018). In this approach, acetone photoactivation may be integrated as an emerging method for seawater treatment. Acetone photolysis (190–300 nm) has been studied by many workers in the pure liquid as well in the gas phase for over 50 years (Damon and Daniels, 1933; Feldman *et al.*, 1945; Trotman-Dickenson and Steacie, 1950; Ridge and Steacie, 1954; Pieck and Steacie, 1955;

Matsuura *et al.*, 1969). The analysed gaseous products in all cases are methane, ethane and CO, which are formed mainly through methyl radical-induced chain reactions (Eqs. 1–4) (Davis, 1974)¹:



Therefore, photolysis of acetone in seawater could be a source of methyl radical, which may be implicated in the degradation of persistent organic pollutants. Methyl radical may react with substrates through atom abstraction and addition (Macken and Sidebottom, 1952; Christie, 1959; Laufer and Bass, 1975; Arican and Arthur, 1983). It has shown a strong reactivity to some compounds in aqueous solutions (Mickewich and Turkevich, 1968; Turkevich *et al.*, 1972).

To the best of our knowledge, no research has been made to investigate the applicability of UV/acetone process in seawater contaminated with EOPs, where the high salinity (~35 g/L) may inhibit or suppress the reaction of free radicals with target contaminates. This work aimed at providing an insight into the ability of UV/acetone process for the remediation of EOPs-contaminated seawater, taking Chlorazol black (CB) dye, as substrate model. The degradation of the dye was assessed at various operating parameters including initial acetone and CB concentrations, liquid temperature and solution pH. CB is a persistent and non-biodegradable chemical that usually used in various requests such as dyeing of fabric, leather, cotton, cellulose materials and plastic (Bendjama *et al.*, 2018). The carcinogenic and mutagenic effects of this compound towards humans and animals have been well established (Lewis, 2008). Therefore, the existence of CB in seawater may constitute a threat for the marine aquatic life.

Materials and methods

The azo dye CB (Molecular formula: C₃₄H₂₅N₉Na₂O₇S₂, CAS number: 1937-37-7) and acetone were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Sodium iodide, sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide were at least analytical grade and were used as received.

¹The rate constants of reactions 1–4 in liquid phase are not found in the literature. However, those of the gas phase reaction at high temperature (>400 K) were given by the NIST chemical kinetic database as: k₁ = 1.13 10⁶ exp(-342/RT), k₂ = 2 10¹³ exp(-73.2/RT), k₃ = 4.5 10⁸ exp(-44.07/RT) and k₄ = 1.41 10¹¹ exp(-5.9/RT).

Seawater of the Mediterranean Sea (collected from the north-East of Algeria [Annaba] in the autumn of 2018) has been used as water matrix. Its salinity was of ~35.7 g/L, distributed as Na⁺ ≈ 11 g/L, Mg²⁺ = 1.3 g/L, Ca²⁺ ≈ 0.4 g/L, Cl⁻ ≈ 20 g/L and SO₄²⁻ = 3 g/L. The experimental setup used herein has been fully described early (Bendjama *et al.*, 2018). The photochemical experiments were conducted in 500 mL (irradiated solution: 250 mL), magnetically stirred, cylindrical glass water-jacketed reactor with a quartz tube in the centre, in which a low pressure mercury lamp (253.7 nm, 15 mW/cm², Oriel 6035) was placed. Solutions containing appropriate amounts of CB and acetone were irradiated and samples were taken at different time intervals to determine the concentration of the dye using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Jenway 6405) at λ_{max} = 578 nm. The temperature of the solution was maintained constant via circulating cooling water through the jacket surrounding the cell. The solution pH was adjusted using NaOH or H₂SO₄. All runs were conducted at least twice and all data plots represent the average of the experimental data of the duplicated test results.

Results and discussion

Acetone photoactivation in seawater: methyl radical generation

The generation of methyl radical in deionised water at slightly acidic pH has been recently evoked by our research group (Bendjama *et al.*, 2019). Herein, initial degradation experiments of CB (25.5 μM) in seawater have been conducted with acetone (50 mM) and UV alone as well as UV/acetone co-exposure for the same conditions of pH 8, temperature of 25°C and the obtained results are depicted in Fig. 1. UV/acetone co-exposure resulted in 90% removal after 30 minutes of irradiation, the time at which only 30% of CB was eliminated under UV. Acetone sole has no interaction with CB. These results strongly revealed the involvement of highly reactive species, i.e. probably methyl radical, in the degradation course.

Besides, it is clearly seen that CB decay followed pseudo first-order kinetics,² which can be described as $-d[\text{CB}]/dt = k[\text{CB}]$. Therefore, CB concentration profiles were all fitted with exponential law: $C/C_0 = e^{-kt}$, in which k' represents the pseudo first-order rate constant (in min⁻¹), t is the time (in min), C is the CB concentration (in mM) and C_0 is the

²In reality the reaction kinetics could be described with second order rate as $d[\text{CB}]/dt = k[\text{CB}][\text{CH}_3^\bullet]$, but given that CH₃[•] radicals are in excess compared to CB (as confirmed at the end of this Section), the reaction rate may take the form of a pseudo first-order rate kinetics as: $d[\text{CB}]/dt = k[\text{CB}][\text{CH}_3^\bullet] = k[\text{CB}][\text{CH}_3^\bullet]_0 = k'[\text{CB}]$. The k' is the slope of the $\ln(C_0/C)$ versus time curve.

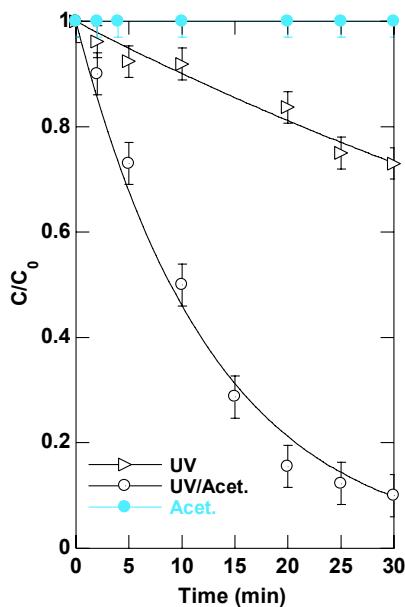


Fig. 1. Removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV, acetone and UV/acetone processes (UV intensity: 15 mW/cm², [CB]₀ = 25.5 µM, [Acet.]₀ = 50 mM, 25 ± 1°C, pH 8).

initial CB concentration. The k' value for CB degradation by the UV/acetone process is 0.077 min⁻¹, so 7.7-fold much higher than that of UV alone (0.01 min⁻¹).

Lately, the effect of acetone on the photodegradation of many dyes in deionised water has been investigated by several authors (Gennari and Jori, 1970; Chu and Tsui, 2001; Banat *et al.*, 2005; Fassi *et al.*, 2012). Their results showed a significant enhancement of the degradation rate as compared with UV. The authors have attributed the positive effect of acetone to the photosensitisation process, described as: acetone when excited by UV radiation could lead to a triplet state, acetone*. A collision between acetone* and the substrate molecule (S) with accomplishing an energy transfer, which results in the decay of the substrate. However, the above mechanism implies that the concentration of the sensitiser (acetone) could not be changed during the photolysis; the observation which is not supported by the experimental results (Pieck and Steacie, 1955; Anpo and Kubokawa, 1977). Thus, it is suspected that UV irradiation at 253.7 nm is able to decompose acetone in aqueous solution similarly to the mechanism of reactions 1–4 and that methyl radical may be the key species implicated in the degradation of CB.

To test the probability of methyl radical involvement, scavenging tests with oxygen saturation and KI addition has been proceeded. The choice of O₂ and KI as scavenger is based on the extensive works of Turkevich and coworkers (Mickewich and Turkevich, 1968; Turkevich *et al.*, 1972)

who studied the generation and reaction of methyl radical in deionised water using the aqueous system Ti(III)/*t*-BuOOH (Eqs. 5 and 6). The generated CH₃• in the reacting system was followed with electron spin resonance spectroscopy. When the solution was saturated with O₂ or when adding KI into the medium, the intensity of CH₃• falls to zero. Therefore, oxygen and KI could be scavengers of methyl radical (Eq. 7 for O₂).

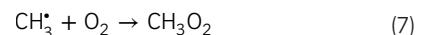
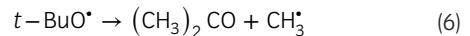


Figure 2(a) and (b) shows the effect of oxygen saturation and KI addition at 1–100 mM on the photodegradation of CB in the presence of 50 mM of acetone. O₂ saturation quenched at 98% the positive effect of acetone towards the degradation rate of the dye. In parallel, 1 mM of KI hardly reduced the positive effect of acetone and when increasing KI dosage to 10 and 100 mM, no further reduction was observed meaning that iodide completely consumes methyl radicals generated upon UV photolysis of acetone. Note that the effect of KI and O₂ saturation on the sole UV photolysis of CB was also investigated and no appreciable effect was observed. Therefore, the main mechanism of CB destruction upon UV/acetone system in marine media is the oxidation by methyl radicals. The concentration of the generated CH₃• may be estimated to be at least equal to the concentration of O₂ dissolved in the solution ([O₂]_{saturation} ~ 0.256 mM), as continuous dissolving O₂ abated the accelerating effect of acetone by about 98% (Fig. 2(a)). Consequently, the concentration ratio of CH₃• to CB is about 10, which means that CH₃• is in excess vis-à-vis CB.

Impact of salinity on the reactivity of methyl radical

Salts existing in seawater (specifically, chloride ions) are effective quenchers of several free radical oxidation processes (Yang *et al.*, 2010; Gu *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011). To evaluate the impact of seawater salinity on the reactivity of methyl radicals, CB degradation runs in seawater under UV and UV/acetone processes have been compared with those conducted in deionised water. The obtained results are shown in Fig. 3. The seawater-salts exerted practically the same retarding extent, i.e. of about 10%, on the CB degradation for both processes. The rate constant upon UV photolysis increased from 0.01 min⁻¹

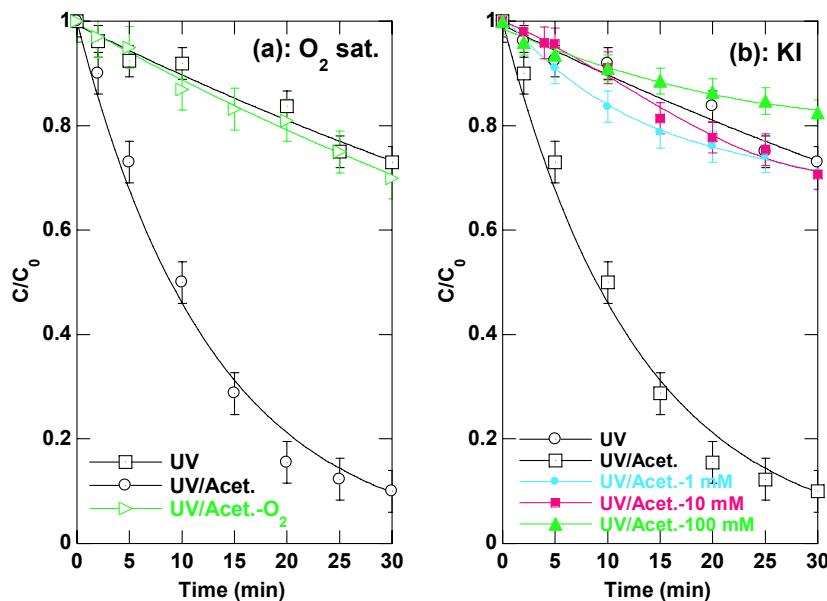


Fig. 2. Effect of O_2 -saturation (a) and KI addition (b) on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment in seawater (UV intensity: 15 mW/cm², $[CB]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{KI}]_0 = 1-100 \text{ mM}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, pH 8).

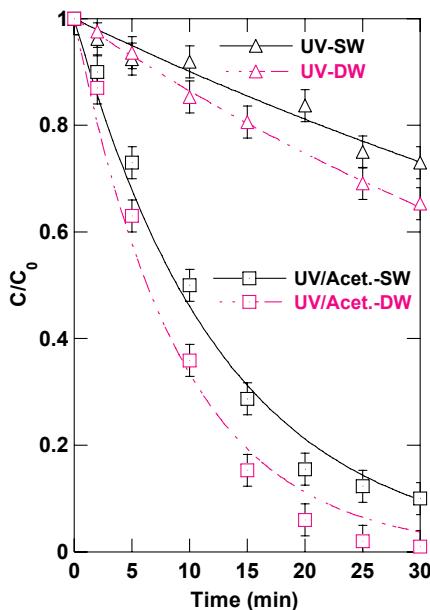


Fig. 3. Removal kinetics of CB upon UV and UV/acetone processes in seawater (SW) and deionized water (DW) (UV intensity: 15 mW/cm², $[CB]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, pH 8).

in seawater to 0.014 min^{-1} in pure water (1.4-fold increase). Upon UV/acetone treatment, k' become 0.109 min^{-1} in deionized water instead of 0.077 min^{-1} in seawater

(1.41-fold increase). These findings reveal that methyl radical is not reactive towards seawater salts and that the decrease in the degradation rate for both systems (UV and UV/acetone) in seawater as compared with pure water was predominantly due to the light attenuation, in which salts would affect the passage of light through the solution and hence the degree of absorption of the light by the substrate or acetone, which subsequently decreases the CB degradation rate.

Effect of operating condition

The performance of the photoactivated acetone process in CB removal from seawater has been evaluated at different operating conditions, i.e. initial acetone and CB loadings, solution temperature and pH. The obtained results are displayed in Fig. 4 and the corresponding calculated rate constants are shown in Table 1.

Initially, by keeping C_0 , temperature and initial pH constants, the initial concentration of acetone was varied in the range of 10–500 mM. It was found that the degradation performance of CB rapidly increased with increasing acetone concentration in the solution up to 50 mM, above which further increase did not promote significantly the degradation of the dye (Fig. 4(a)). Without acetone, 30% removal was achieved after 30 minutes. The CB removal increased to 60 and 90% with acetone addition at 10 and 50 mM, respectively. In parallel, the rate constant increased by factors of 2.9, 7.7 and 8.1 for respectively 10, 50 and

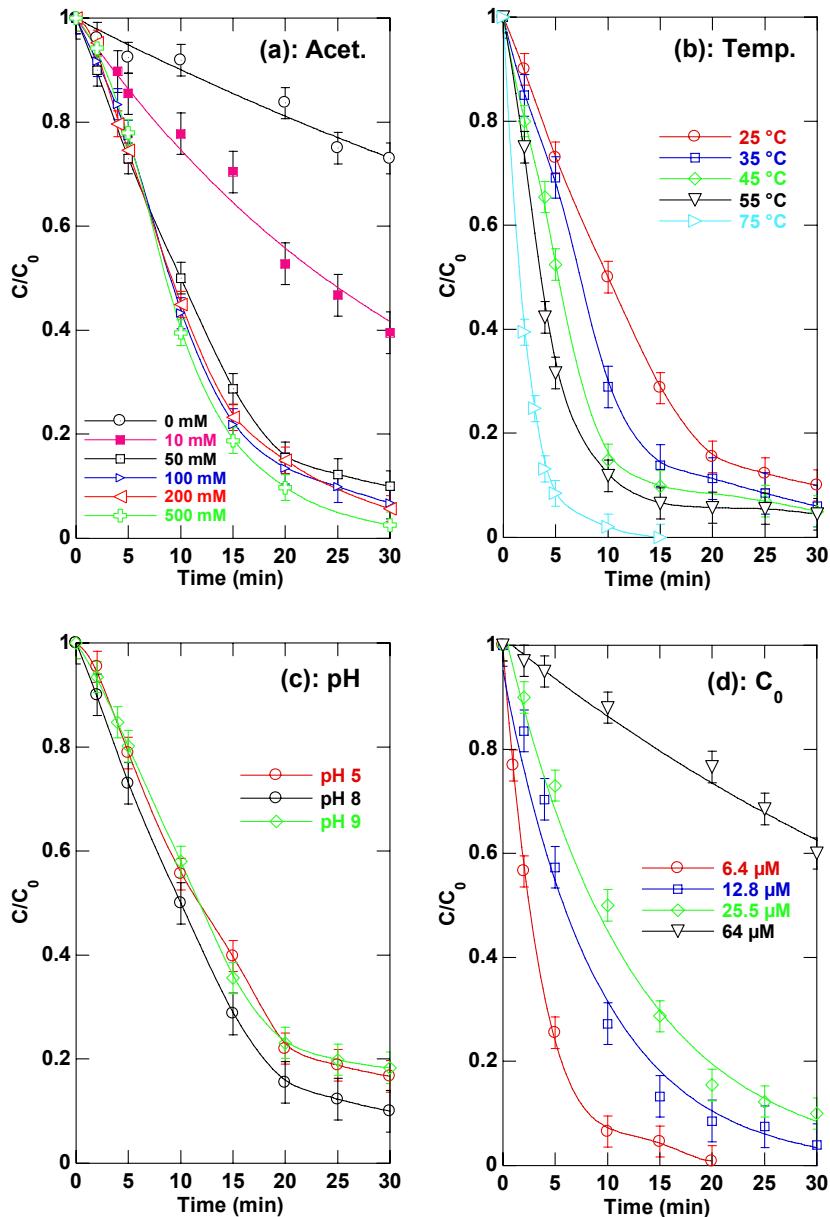


Fig. 4. Effect of operating conditions on the removal kinetics of CB upon UV/acetone treatment in seawater (UV intensity: 15 mW/cm²; (a) $[CB]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, pH 8, (b) $[CB]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, pH 8, (c) $[CB]_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, (d) $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$, $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, pH 8).

100 mM, as compared with the sole UV (Table 1). It seems that the photogeneration of methyl radical was enhanced by increasing acetone concentration in the range 10–50 mM. Higher acetone concentration implies that high photons could be absorbed to generate higher quantity of $\text{CH}_3\bullet$ radical through reactions 1 and 2. The insignificant effect of acetone above 50 mM (Fig. 4(a)) was probably due to (i) the quench of $\text{CH}_3\bullet$ radical by the excess of acetone as in Eq. (3) and (ii) the quickness of radical–radical recombination, Eq. (4), over the radical–CB reaction at

high methyl radical concentration. These trends were widely reported for several UV-based AOPs (Ghodbane et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017).

The performance of the photoactivated acetone process becomes more efficient at higher liquid temperatures, as shown in Fig. 4(b). The CB removal after only 10 min increased from 50% at 25°C to 71, 85, 88 and 98% at 35, 45, 55 and 75°C, respectively. The k' value increased from 0.077 min⁻¹ for 25°C to 0.136 min⁻¹ at 45°C and 0.476 min⁻¹ at 75°C. So, the degradation rate was 2.6 times higher at

Table 1 The pseudo first-order rate constant, k (min^{-1}), under various operating conditions

Run no.		[Acet.] ₀ (mM)	Temp. (°C)	pH	C ₀ (μM)	k (1/min)	R ²
Acetone effect	1	0	25	8	25.5	0.01	0.992
	2	10	25	8	25.5	0.029	0.990
	3	50	25	8	25.5	0.077	0.994
	4	100	25	8	25.5	0.081	0.982
	5	200	25	8	25.5	0.08	0.980
	6	500	25	8	25.5	0.084	0.98
Temp. effect	7	50	25	8	25.5	0.077	0.994
	8	50	35	8	25.5	0.106	0.990
	9	50	45	8	25.5	0.136	0.988
	10	50	55	8	25.5	0.202	0.991
	11	50	75	8	25.5	0.476	0.999
pH effect	12	50	25	5	25.5	0.062	0.991
	13	50	25	8	25.5	0.077	0.994
	14	50	25	9	25.5	0.06	0.990
C ₀ effect	15	50	25	8	6.4	0.272	0.999
	16	50	25	8	12.8	0.114	0.994
	17	50	25	8	25.5	0.077	0.994
	18	50	25	8	64	0.014	0.965

55°C and 6.18 times at 75°C, as compared with that at 25°C. Data of the liquid-acetone photolysis showed that the yields of methane and ethane, from Eqs. (3) and (4), increased substantially with increasing temperature, confirming that higher methyl radical concentration could be generated at higher operating temperature (Pieck and Steacie, 1955). Another important factor that could be considered herein is that the optical and electrical parameters of low-pressure (LP) mercury UV-lamps are closely related to the mercury vapour pressure in the lamp, which in turn is closely related to the temperature (He, 2012). Thus, a temperature change will cause a substantial change in the UV lamp output intensity (He, 2012). In a LP UV lamp (i.e. $\varphi = 8$ mm), the mercury vapour pressure (P_{Hg}) is proportional to the temperature (He, 2012). When the P_{Hg} increases, the intensity of 253.7 nm radiation increased monotonically up reaching an optimum at ~50°C and decreased afterward (He, 2012). Therefore, with higher operating temperature, higher radiation intensity could be delivered to the solution and hence, efficient degradation could be achieved.

The typical pH of water treatment conditions is mostly between 6 and 9 (Deborde and Gunten, 2008). Thus, CB degradation runs at initial solution pH of 5, 8 and 9 were conducted and their obtained results are shown in Fig. 4(c). As can be observed, high conversion degrees of CB were obtained for the three tested initial pHs. However, the degradation was relatively more effective at natural pH of the seawater, i.e. pH 8 (k' was 0.077 min^{-1} for pH 8 against 0.06 min^{-1} for pH 5 and 9). Thus, the solution pH is not an obstacle for the implementation of UV/acetone process for the degradation of persistent organic pollutants

in marine environment, which is a very good task in the field of water treatment.

The influence of initial CB concentration (6.4–64 μM) on the performance of UV/acetone process at pH 8 is shown in Fig. 4(d) for an acetone concentration of 50 mM. Twenty minutes were required for complete removing of CB for 6.4 μM. More time (>30 min) was needed for complete degradation when the initial dye concentration was further increased. The removal efficiency decreased from 100% at 20 min for 6.4 μM CB to 91% for 12.8 μM, 85% for 25.5 μM and only 23% for 64 μM. The apparent rate constants (k') were 0.272, 0.114, 0.077 and 0.014 min^{-1} when C_0 were 6.4, 12.8, 25.5 and 64 μM, respectively.

Thus, the UV/acetone emerging process was more efficient at lower pollutant concentration, which is usually the case of organic marine pollution. The concentration-dependent CB removal was also noted by an earlier study for the photoactivated periodate system (Bendjama et al., 2018). The reduced performance at high CB concentrations was attributed to the competition between various CB molecules and/or the CB intermediates formed during the oxidative reaction process. Both CB and its transformation products can compete for methyl radical generated from UV/acetone. The substrate removal efficiency was, therefore, decreased as a result of increasing competition with the methyl radical when initial CB concentration was higher.

In conclusion, based on the fact that the solution pH has not an important effect, the optimum conditions of CB degradation at each C_0 are $[\text{Acet.}]_0 = 50 \text{ mM}$ and temperature as higher as possible (i.e. 75°C for instance).

Conclusion

The sea has been a historical subject to high anthropogenic pressures of direct and indirect loads of EOPs from intensive industrial and agricultural activities. In this work, UV/acetone process has been successfully applied for the degradation of CB, as a substrate model of EOPs, in marine media. The performance of the process was evaluated under various experimental conditions of temperature, solution pH and acetone and CB concentrations. The degradation rate of the dye by the emerging process was drastically higher as compared to the sole UV radiation. This significant improvement is due to the implication of methyl radical in the degradation process. The process is efficient for all experimental conditions. Comparative degradation experiments using deionised water showed that the degradation of CB was slightly reduced in seawater, mainly due to the light screening effect imposed by the very high quantity of salts existing in seawater. Consequently, acetone photoactivation process may be regarded as a promising innovative process for treating seawater contaminated with hazardous organic pollutants. Nevertheless, the process requires further tests to evaluate the mineralisation of the organic load as well as the analysis and the recuperation of the residual acetone. Additionally, the identification of the degradation by-products should be experienced to complete the degradation mechanism of CB. This task, together with the toxicity analysis, will be conducted in the future.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

To submit a comment on this article please go to <http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/wej>. For further information please see the Author Guidelines at wileyonlinelibrary.com

References

- Anpo, M. and Kubokawa, Y. (1977) Reactivity of excited triplet alkyl ketones in solution. I. Quenchinh and hydrogen abstraction of triplet acetone. *Bulletin of the Chemical Society of Japan*, **50**, 1913–1916.
- Arican, H. and Arthur, N.L. (1983) Reactions of methyl radicals. IV * Hydrogen abstraction from tetramethylsilane by methyl radicals produced by the photolysis of both acetone and azomethane. *Australian Journal of Chemistry*, **36**, 2185–2194.
- Banat, F., Al-Asheh, S., Al-Rawashdeh, M. and Nusair, M. (2005) Photodegradation of methylene blue dye by the UV/H₂O₂and UV/acetone oxidation processes. *Desalination*, **181**, 225–232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2005.04.005>
- Bendjama, H., Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O. and Bouhelassa, M. (2019) Using photoactivated acetone for the degradation of Chlorazol Black in aqueous solutions: impact of mineral and organic additives. *Science of the Total Environment*, **653**, 833–838. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.007>
- Bendjama, H., Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O. and Bouhelassa, M. (2018) Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: case of chlorazol black. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **126**, 557–564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>
- Bowen, R.E. and Depledge, M.H. (2006) Rapid assessment of marine pollution (RAMP). *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **53**, 631–639. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2006.09.002>
- Christie, M.I. (1959) The Photochemical decomposition of methyl iodide in presence of nitric oxide. I. The reaction of methyl radicals with nitric oxide. *Proceedings of the Royal Society A Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, **249**, 248–257. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.1959.0020>
- Chu, W. and Tsiu, S.M. (2001) Photoreductive model of disperse orange 11 in aqueous acetone and triethylamine. *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, **127**, 741–747. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9372\(2001\)127:8\(741\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9372(2001)127:8(741)
- Damon, G.H. and Daniels, F. (1933) The Photolysis of gaseous acetone and the influence of water. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, **55**, 2363–2375. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01333a022>
- Davis, W. (1974) Th gas-phase photochemical decomposition of the aliphatic ketons. *Chemical Reviews*, **109**, 201–250.
- Deborde, M. and Von Gunten, U. (2008) Reactions of chlorine with inorganic and organic compounds during water treatment – Kinetics and mechanisms: a critical review. *Water Research*, **42**, 13–51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2007.07.025>
- Fassi, S., Bousnoubra, I., Sehili, T. and Djebbar, K. (2012) Degradation of “bromocresol green” by direct UV photolysis, Acetone/UV and advanced oxidation processes (AOP’s) in homogeneous solution (H₂O₂/UV, S₂O₈²⁻/UV). Comparative study. *Journal of Materials and Environmental Science*, **3**, 732–743.
- Feldman, M.H., Burton, M., Ricci, J.E. and Davis, T.W. (1945) Determination of free radicals in acetone photolysis. *Journal of Chemical Physics*, **13**, 440–447. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1723972>
- Gennari, G. and Jori, G. (1970) Acetone-sensitized anaerobic photo-oxidation of methionine. *Febs Letters*, **10**, 129–131.
- Ghatak, H.R. (2014) Advanced oxidation processes for the treatment of biorecalcitrant organics in wastewater. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, **44**, 1167–1219. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2013.763581>
- Ghodbane, H., Hamdaoui, O. and Merouani, S. (2017) Degradation of C.I. acid blue 25 in water using UV/

- K2S2O8 process: effect of salts and environmental matrix. *Desalination and Water Treatment*, **74**, 395–401. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20612>
- Gu, X., Lu, S., Li, L., Qiu, Z., Sui, Q., Lin, K., et al. (2011) Oxidation of 1, 1, 1-trichloroethane stimulated by thermally activated persulfate. *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, **50**, 11029–11036. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie201059x>
- Haddad, A., Merouani, S., Hannachi, C., Hamdaoui, O. and Hamrouni, B. (2019) Intensification of light green SF yellowish (LGSFY) photodegradation in water by iodate ions: Iodine radicals implication in the degradation process and impacts of water matrix components. *Science of The Total Environment*, **652**, 1219–1227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.183>
- Hamdaoui, O. and Merouani, S. (2017) Ultrasonic destruction of acid orange 7: effect of humic acid, surfactants and complex matrices. *Water Environment Research*, **89**, 250–259. <https://doi.org/10.2175/106143016X14798353399539>
- He, Z. (2012) UV Lamp temperature characteristics. *IUVA News*, **14**, 14–17.
- Huang, N., Wang, T., Wang, W., Wu, Q., Li, A. and Hu, H. (2017) UV/chlorine as an advanced oxidation process for the degradation of benzalkonium chloride: synergistic effect, transformation products and toxicity evaluation. *Water Research*, **114**, 246–253. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2017.02.015>
- Konstantinou, I.K. and Albanis, T.A. (2004) TiO₂-assisted photocatalytic degradation of azo dyes in aqueous solution: kinetic and mechanistic investigations: a review. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, **49**, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2003.11.010>
- Laufer, A.H. and Bass, A.M. (1975) Rate constants of the combination of methyl radicals with nitric oxide and oxygen. *International Journal of Chemical Kinetics*, **VII**, 639–648.
- Lewis, R.J. (2008) *Hazardous Chemicals Desk Reference*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470335406>
- Macken, K.V. and Sidebottom, H.W. (1952) The reactions of methyl radicals with chloromethanes. *International Journal of Chemical Kinetics*, **XI**, 511–527, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1699147>
- Matsuura, T., Cassano, A.E. and Smith, M. (1969) Acetone photolysis: kinetic studies in a flow reactor. *AIChE Journal*, **15**, 495–501.
- Merhaby, D., Net, S., Halwani, J. and Ouddane, B. (2015) Organic pollution in surficial sediments of Tripoli harbour, Lebanon. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **93**, 284–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2015.01.004>
- Mickewich, D. and Turkevich, J. (1968) Methyl radicals in aqueous solution as studied by electron spin resonance spectroscopy. *Journal of Physical Chemistry*, **72**, 1966–1969.
- Neta, P., Huie, R.E. and Ross, A.B. (1988) Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. *Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference Data*, **17**, 1027–1284.
- Outran, M.A. and Aaron, J.-J. (2014) Advanced oxidation processes in water/wastewater treatment: principles and applications. A review. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, **44**, 2577–2641. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2013.829765>
- Pereira, L. and Alves, M. (2012) Dyes-environmental impact and remediation. In: Malik, A. and Grohmann, E. (Eds.) *Environmental Protection Strategies for Sustainable Development, Strategies for Sustainability*. London: Springer, pp. 111–162. [10.1007/978-94-007-1591-2_5](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1591-2_5)
- Pieck, R. and Steacie, E.W.R. (1955) The photolysis of acetone in the liquid phase: the gaseous products. *Canadian Journal of Chemistry*, **33**, 1304–1315. <https://doi.org/10.1139/v55-159>
- Quante, M., Ebinghaus, R. and Flosser, G. (2011) *Persistent Pollution – Past Present and Future*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.
- Ridge, M.J. and Steacie, E.W.R. (1954) The photolysis of acetone in presence of bromide. *Canadian Journal of Chemistry*, **33**, 383–390. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1750963>
- Stefan, M.I. (2017) *Advanced Oxidation Processes for Water Treatment: Fundamentals and Applications*. London, UK: IWA Publishing.
- Trotman-Dickenson, A.F. and Steacie, E.W.R. (1950) The reactions of methyl radicals. I. The photolysis of acetone. *Journal of Chemical Physics*, **18**, 1097–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1747868>
- Turkevich, J., Mickewich, D.J. and Reynolds, G. (1972) Chemiluminescence in reaction of methyl radicals with oxygen in aqueous solution. *Zeitschrift für Physikalische Chemie Neue Folge*, **82**, 185–194.
- Wang, Z., Yuan, R., Guo, Y., Xu, L. and Liu, J. (2011) Effects of chloride ions on bleaching of azo dyes by Co²⁺/oxone reagent: kinetic analysis. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, **190**, 1083–1087. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazm.2011.04.016>
- Yang, S., Wang, P., Yang, X., Shan, L., Zhang, W., Shao, X., et al. (2010) Degradation efficiencies of azo dye Acid Orange 7 by the interaction of heat, UV and anions with common oxidants: persulfate, peroxymonosulfate and hydrogen peroxide. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, **179**, 552–558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.03.039>

Annexe D



Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: Case of chlorazol black

Hafida Bendjama^a, Slimane Merouani^{a,b,*}, Oualid Hamdaoui^b, Mohamed Bouhelassa^a

^a Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider — Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

^b Laboratory of Environmental Engineering, Department of Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Badji Mokhtar — Annaba University, 23000 Annaba, Algeria

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Seawater
Emerging organic pollutants (EOPs)
 UV/IO_4^- process
Chlorazol black (CB)
Iodine radicals
Surfactants

ABSTRACT

Sea has historically been subject to high anthropogenic pressures of direct and indirect loads of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) from intensive industrial and agricultural activities. Photoactivated periodate (UV/IO_4^-) is an innovative oxidation technique that was never tested in seawater as pollutants matrix. In this work, we attempted to investigate the treatment of seawater contaminated with chlorazol black (CB) dye, as a model of EOPs, using photoactivated periodate process. It was found that periodate (0.5 mM) assisted-UV treatment of CB (20 mg L^{-1}) in seawater resulted in 13.16-fold increase in the initial degradation rate, compared to UV alone, and 82% of CB was removed after 40 min face to 38% under UV alone. The beneficial effect of UV/IO_4^- treatment is strongly dependent on operational parameters. More interestingly, SDS surfactant, as an organic matter, did not affect the degradation process, making UV/IO_4^- a promising technique for treating seawater contaminated with EOPs.

1. Introduction

The sea usually acts as receptor for several kinds of discharges and dumping wastes containing high levels of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) generated from various human industrial activities. Various families of EOPs were found in marine media. Among the principal classes, there are the aromatic compounds, including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and synthetic dyes (Jain et al., 2014; Merhaby et al., 2015). Azo dyes, which are characterized by the presence of one or more azo bonds ($N = N$), are among the most notorious and widespread environmental pollutants associated with textile, cosmetic, food and leather industries (Pereira and Alves, 2012). Due to their physicochemical properties, their persistence, their facile transportability and their high water solubility (Pereira and Alves, 2012), these chemicals have a potential adverse effects on aquatic ecosystems and human health. Color interferes with penetration of sunlight into seawater, retards photosynthesis, inhibits the growth of aquatic biota and interferes with gas solubility in water bodies (Merouani et al., 2010). Moreover, these contaminants are known as mutagenic and carcinogenic (Sabnis, 2010). As a new category of treatment, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have been proposed and employed for the treatment of recalcitrant hazardous materials in wastewater (Tarr, 2003). AOPs are based on the in-situ production and use of highly reactive species, such as $\cdot\text{OH}$ and O_4^- .

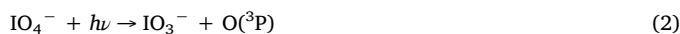
(Petri et al., 2011; Wang and Xu, 2012), which could degrade a variety of organic pollutants with rate constants in the order $10^8 - 10^{11} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al., 1988; Neta et al., 1988).

Substances such as periodate (IO_4^-), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and persulfate ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$) can be reductively converted into highly reactive radical intermediates such as iodyl ($\text{IO}_3\cdot$), periodyl ($\text{IO}_4\cdot$), hydroxyl ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and sulfate ($\text{SO}_4\cdot^-$) radicals through various activation ways for AOPs applications (Tsitonaki et al., 2010; Wang and Xu, 2012; Weavers et al., 1997). The mechanism underlying the activation strategies is associated with inter- and intramolecular electron transfer reactions. For instance, as one-electron reduction of H_2O_2 by Fe^{2+} leads to production of $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Fenton reaction), the high yields of $\text{SO}_4\cdot^-$ from $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ activation via transition metals (e.g., Fe^{2+} and Co^{2+}) have been found effective for the degradation of several recalcitrant organic contaminants (Anipsitakis et al., 2006; Long et al., 2014; Rodríguez, 2003). Alternatively, $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4\cdot^-$ formed via homolytic cleavage of peroxide bonds in H_2O_2 and $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ under radiolysis, photolysis and thermolysis have been shown to efficiently oxidize organic contaminants in soil and groundwater (Parsons, 2004; Petri et al., 2011). Periodate can also be activated into reactive radicals intermediated under UV irradiations ($< 300 \text{ nm}$) and has successfully been applied to degrade organic pollutants (Chia et al., 2004; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui, 2016; Lee and Yoon, 2004; Weavers et al., 1997) and lower chemical oxygen demand in industrial wastewater (Tang and Weavers, 2008).

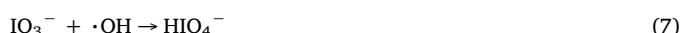
* Corresponding authorat: Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, Salah Boubnider — Constantine 3 University, 25000 Constantine, Algeria.
E-mail addresses: s.merouani@yahoo.fr, s.merouani03@gmail.com (S. Merouani).

The reaction mechanism of UV/IO₄⁻ in pure water and in the absence of organics have been studied in the past via several techniques (e.g. photolysis, flash photolysis, laser flash photolysis and pulse radiolysis) over a wide range of pH (Barat et al., 1971; Bhattacharyya and Bardhan, 1970; Klaning et al., 1981; Patil et al., 1990; Wagner and Strehlow, 1982). The widely used periodate photolysis reactions over the pH range of 2–8 are given below (Chia et al., 2004; Hamdaoui and Merouani, 2017; Lee and Yoon, 2004; Tang and Weavers, 2008, 2007; Weavers et al., 1997):

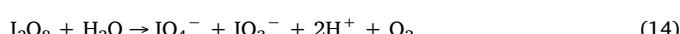
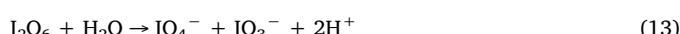
Initiation



Propagation



Termination



The above mechanism reveals that UV-photolysis of periodate may produce a number of reactive radicals and non-radical intermediates including IO₃[·], IO₄[·], ·OH, IO₃⁻, O^{(3)P}, H₂O₂ and O₃. However, measurement analysis (Chia et al., 2004) of the yields of H₂O₂ and O₃ under air-saturation showed a negligible production of H₂O₂ and a very low generation of ozone (8 µg L⁻¹ min), reflecting that H₂O₂, O₃ and ·OH (because H₂O₂ is obtained from Eq. (9)) have not a significant role in the UV/IO₄⁻ oxidation system. Furthermore, H₂O₂, IO₃⁻ as well as IO₄⁻ are known to be ineffective toward the direct oxidation of emerging organic pollutants (Ghodbane and Hamdaoui, 2010; Hamdaoui and Merouani, 2017). On the other hand, a marginal decrease in the degradation rates was observed in the presence of an excess of ·OH and O^{(3)P} scavenger, *tert*-butanol (Chia et al., 2004; Ghodbane and Hamdaoui, 2016), meaning that both ·OH and O^{(3)P} are not involved in the UV/IO₄⁻ oxidative process. Consequently, iodine radical intermediates (IO₃[·] and IO₄[·]) are believed to play the key role in the periodate photo-assisted degradation of organic pollutants.

Although photochemistry of periodate in pure water has been extensively investigated and has been relatively well elucidated, there are, until now, still few reports on the application of photoactivated periodate in the field of water treatment. In particular, no research has been done to investigate the applicability of the process in seawater contaminated with EOPs, where the high salinity (~35 g L⁻¹) may inhibit or suppress the reaction of free radicals with target contaminants. Therefore, the influence of the aqueous matrix should be considered when applying UV/IO₄⁻ process in practice. Hence, in this study, we attempted to investigate the treatment of seawater contaminated with chlorazol black (CB) dye, as substrate model of EOPs, using photoactivated periodate system. CB is a highly water soluble, acidic azo dye, which is widely used for various applications like dyeing of fabric,

leather, cotton, cellulose materials and plastic (Pohanish, 2012). It is an eye irritant chemical and is moderately toxic by inhalation and ingestion (Lewis, 2008). The carcinogenic and mutagenic effects of the dye toward humans and animals have been experimentally confirmed (Lewis, 2008). Additionally, laboratory experiments showed that CB is very persistent to direct oxidation with H₂O₂, persulfate and periodate oxidants*. Therefore, any presence of this dye in seawater would have detrimental effects on aquatic life. The objectives of this research were: (i) to investigate photoactivated periodate as a potential technology for decontaminating seawater, (ii) to elucidate the main oxidants responsible for the degradation of the dye and clarifying their interactions with chloride ions in seawater and (iii) to assess the effects of operational parameters and surfactants on the CB degradation kinetics in the marine environment.

2. Materials and methods

All materials were used as received. The azo dye chlorazol black (abbreviation: CB; UPAC name: 4-amino-3-[[(4'-(2,4-diaminophenyl) azo)[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl]azo]-5-hydroxy-6-(phenylazo)-2,7-naphthalenedisulfonic acid disodium salt) and sodium periodate (NaIO₄) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Table 1 lists relevant data for CB and sodium periodate. All other reagents (2-propanol, phenol, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), sulfuric acid, sodium hydroxide) were commercial products of the purest grade available. All experiments were conducted using seawater (salinity ~35.7 g L⁻¹, distributed as Na⁺ ≈ 11 g L⁻¹, Mg²⁺ = 1.3 g L⁻¹, Ca²⁺ ≈ 0.4 g L⁻¹, Cl⁻ ≈ 20 g L⁻¹, SO₄²⁻ = 3 g L⁻¹).

Fig. 1 shows the scheme of the experimental setup used in this work. Batch kinetic studies were carried out in a cylindrical water-jacketed glass reactor using a constant solution volume of 250 mL. A low-pressure mercury lamp (15 mW cm⁻², Oriel 6035, radiation wavelength < 280 nm with a peak at 253.7 nm), placed in a quartz tube, was totally immersed in the solution and placed vertically at the center of the reactor. The experiments were conducted at temperatures in the range of 25–55 °C, with each temperature set was monitored using a thermocouple immersed in the reacting medium and maintained at desired value by circulating water, from RC6 Lauda thermostat/cryostat, through a jacket surrounding the cell. The solution pH was followed with a pH-meter (Jenway 3505). During irradiation, the solution was agitated magnetically at a constant speed. Aqueous samples were taken at constant interval and the concentration of the dye was determined using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Jasco V-730), equipped with quartz cuvettes of 1 cm light path. The CB concentration was measured at 578 nm, which is the maximum absorption wavelength (λ_{\max}) of the dye in the visible region. The pH of the solution was adjusted using sodium hydroxide or sulfuric acid. The absorbance data of the dye solution, determined spectrophotometrically, indicated that change in the initial pH of the dye solution in the interval pH 2–7 had no effect on λ_{\max} . All experiments were conducted at least in duplicate and the data were averaged. Error bars, which represent maximum deviation of the means, have been included in relevant plots.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Preliminary tests

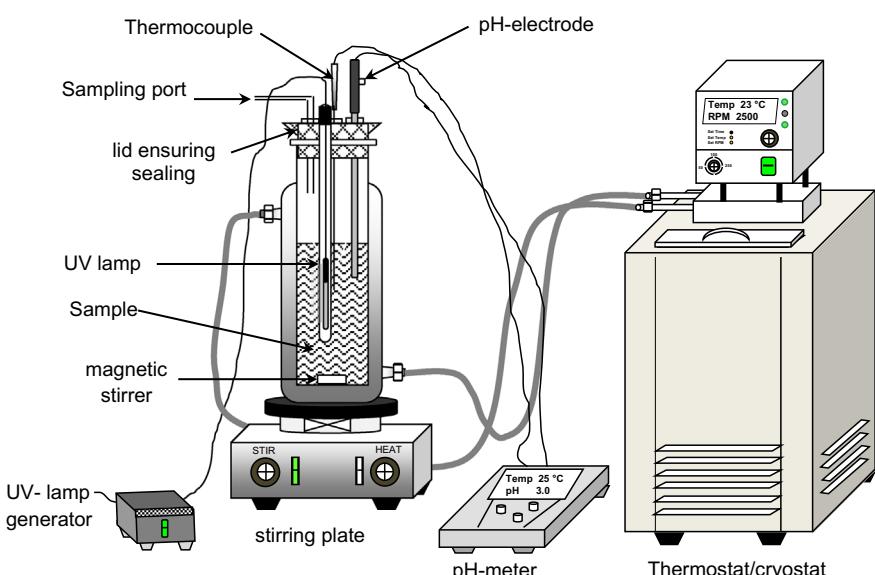
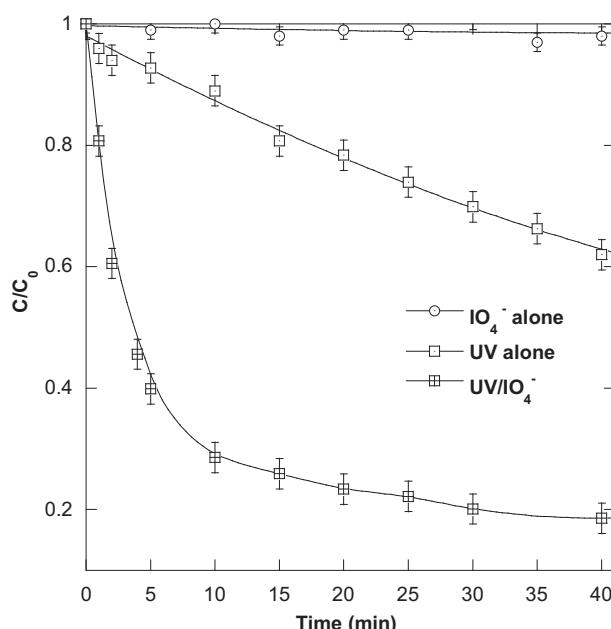
Preliminary experiments were carried out to test the extent of CB (20 mg L⁻¹) degradation in seawater under three different systems: (i) periodate alone (0.5 mM), (ii) photolysis and (iii) photolysis in the presence 0.5 mM of periodate. Fig. 2 shows the obtained concentration-time profiles. As can be observed, insignificant loss of CB (< 3% of the

* Experiments were conducted in our laboratory (for periodate, the results are presented in Fig. 2).

Table 1

Principle physicochemical properties of chlorazol black (CB) and sodium periodate.

Molecule	Chlorazol black (CB)	Sodium periodate
CAS number	1937-37-7	7790-28-5
C.I. number	30235	—
Molecular formula	$C_{34}H_{25}N_9Na_2O_7S_2$	$NaIO_4$
Chemical structure		
Molecular weight (g/mol)	781.73	213.89
Maximum absorption wavelength (λ_{max})	578 nm	222 nm

**Fig. 1.** Experimental setup.**Fig. 2.** Degradation tests of CB by IO_4^- alone, UV and UV/ IO_4^- in seawater (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μ M), initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.5 mM, pH 3, temperature: 25 \pm 1 °C).

starting concentration) was observed in the case of IO_4^- alone. The degradation yield by UV alone was determined as approximately 38% after 40 min. However, in the case of UV/ IO_4^- , a rapid degradation of CB occurred, i.e. 82% of CB was removed after 40 min with a recorded 13.16-fold increase in the initial degradation rate (compared to UV alone). This notable increase was attributed to the involvement of free radical species in the degradation process. As elucidated in the introduction, radical and non-radical reactive species (IO_3^\cdot , IO_4^\cdot , $\cdot OH$ and $O(^3P)$) are susceptible to form during periodate photolysis (O_3 was not considered as it was formed in trace; Chia et al., 2004). These species may hardly attack CB and induced its rapid degradation.

3.2. Identification of the main oxidizing species involved in the UV/ IO_4^- oxidation process

The decomposition of periodate in seawater under UV light was evidenced by monitoring the periodate UV-spectra during photolysis of 0.25 mM of IO_4^- at pH 3 (Fig. 3). It should be noticed that the absorption spectrum during the photodissociation of 0.5 mM IO_4^- (used in CB degradation experiments) could not be followed because the 222 nm-band showed a horizontal break and a dilution was necessary. Thus, a concentration of IO_4^- of 0.25 mM was used. The initial IO_4^- spectrum presents an intense band with $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 222$ nm. A quick decline of the absorption band was recorded upon UV irradiation and 80% of the initial absorbance at 222 nm was disappeared after only 7 min (Fig. 3, the insert). This rapid photo-dissociation of periodate is inconsistent with the degradation route where ~70% of the dye was

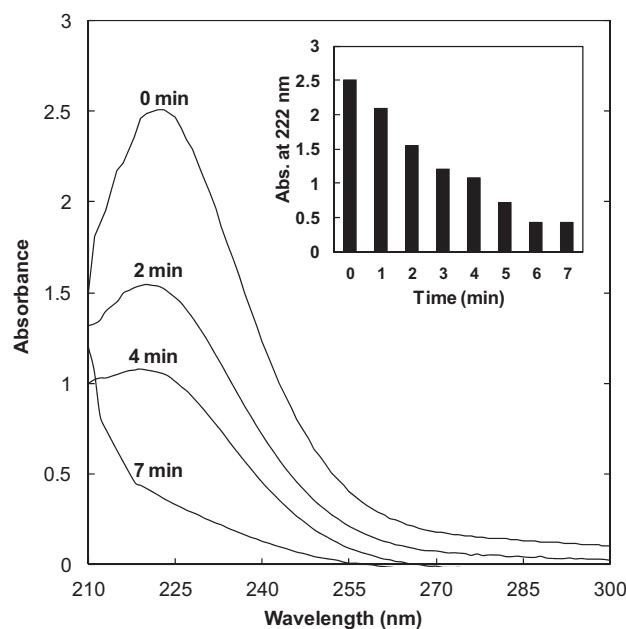


Fig. 3. Changes in UV-spectra of periodate ions during photolysis of IO_4^- in seawater (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.25 mM, pH 3, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

removed after the same treatment period (Fig. 2).

To verify the generation of oxidizing species in the UV/ IO_4^- system and confirming their contribution in the degradation of CB, radical probes compounds method developed for heat activation of persulfate (Merouani et al., 2017) has been adopted in this study. Two radical scavengers, 2-propanol and phenol, of different reactivity toward radical species were employed as compound probes during the oxidation reaction. 2-Propanol reacts with $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{O}^{(\text{3P})}$ at a rate constant of $1.9 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Buxton et al., 1988) and $0.96 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Kato and Cvetanovic, 1968), respectively. Based on these properties, 2-propanol was employed to identify the contribution of both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{O}^{(\text{3P})}$ in CB degradation. 2-Propanol was added at 1, 3 and 5 mM and the results are shown in Fig. 4. As can be seen, the presence of 2-propanol in excess (molar ratio alcohol/CB: 39, 117 and 195) had negligible influence on the CB removal rate, signifying that both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{O}^{(\text{3P})}$ are not implicated in the degradation of the dye. This statement is in agreement with that of Li et al. (2016) who use ethanol as $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{O}^{(\text{3P})}$ probe during the activation of periodate by granular activated carbon for acid orange 7 degradation in deionized water. On the other hand, Yun et al. (2017) evidenced that the main species responsible of the efficient degradation of phenol by RhB-sensitized IO_4^- activation process in distilled water are iodine radicals. Thus, with the exclusion of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{O}^{(\text{3P})}$, phenol could be a good candidate for probing the participation of iodine radicals in the periodate photo-assisted degradation of CB in seawater. Fig. 5 depicts the effect of phenol addition at 0.01, 0.1 and 1 mM (molar ratio phenol/CB: 0.39, 3.9 and 39) on removal kinetics of CB. As shown in this figure, the degradation of the dye was significantly reduced by the addition of phenol at 0.01 and 0.1 mM whereas a 100% of inhibition was obtained with 1 mM of phenol. This is indicating the central role of iodine radicals (IO_3^- and IO_4^-) in the degradation process. Consequently, the chemical probes analysis demonstrated that the degradation of CB in photoactivated periodate medium is mainly iodine radicals pathway.

3.3. Effect of seawater-salts on the efficiency of UV/ IO_4^- process

Seawater is a complex matrix that contains an excessive amount of well-known radical scavengers (Cl^- and SO_4^{2-}). Chloride ions, in particular, played a detrimental effect in several AOPs (Gu et al., 2011;

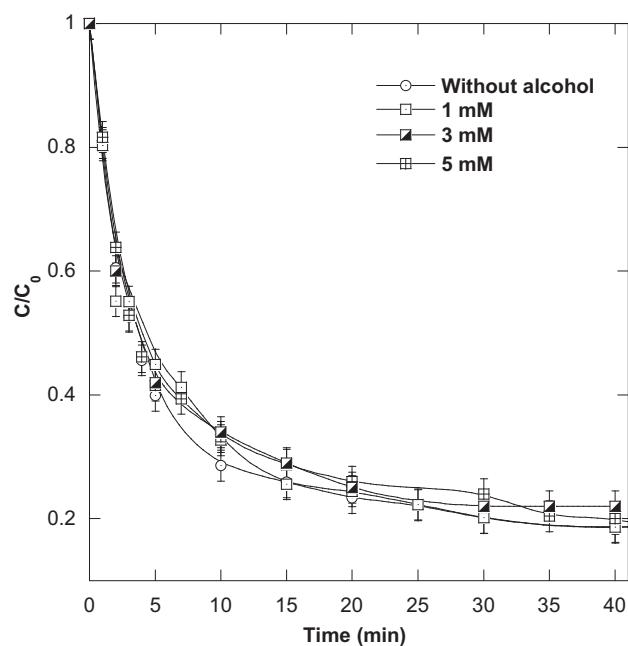


Fig. 4. Effect of 2-propanol addition on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/ IO_4^- treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L^{-1} ($25.5 \mu\text{M}$), initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.5 mM, initial alcohol concentration: 1–5 mM, pH 3, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

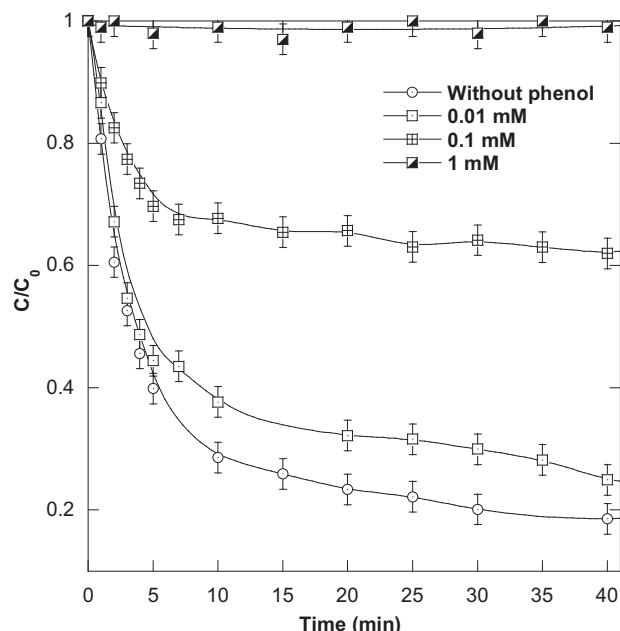


Fig. 5. Effect of phenol addition on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/ IO_4^- treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L^{-1} ($25.5 \mu\text{M}$), initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.5 mM, initial phenol concentration: 0.01–1 mM, pH 3, temperature: $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Wang et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2010). To evaluate if seawater-salts act as iodine radicals quencher, the degradation of CB was investigated under UV and UV/ IO_4^- processes in two matrices: deionized water and seawater, and the results are shown in Fig. 6. For the two processes, CB degradation kinetics is more rapid in deionized water than seawater. Additionally, the seawater-salts exert a similar reduction of about 17% on the degradation extent (after 40 min) for both UV and UV/ IO_4^- processes. The fact that seawater imposes the same degree of reduction for both systems means that there is no reaction between iodine radicals and chloride or sulfate anions and the decrease in the degradation rate

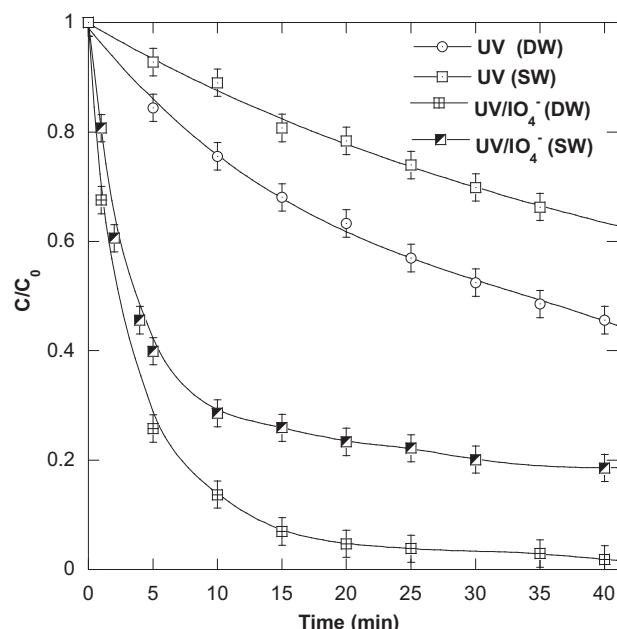


Fig. 6. Degradation kinetics of CB with UV and UV/IO₄⁻ processes in deionized water (DW) and seawater (SW) (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μM), initial IO₄⁻ concentration: 0.5 mM, pH 3, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C).

for both systems (UV and UV/periodate) was mainly attributed to the light attenuation, in which salts acts as light screens, thus reducing the photon receiving efficiency and, subsequently, decreasing the degradation rate of the target pollutant.

3.4. Effect of initial solution pH on the efficiency of UV/IO₄⁻ process

The effect of pH on the degradation of pollutants using UV/IO₄⁻ process is until now still little known. In this study, the influence of pH on the performance of UV/IO₄⁻ treatment toward removing CB (20 mg L⁻¹) from seawater was investigated at various pHs: 2–7, while the dose of periodate was kept unchangeable at 0.5 mM. Fig. 7 suggests that the efficiency of CB degradation was higher under acidic conditions (pH 2–4). The degradation rate gradually decreased from pH 4 to pH 6 and then drastically inhibited at pH 7. After 15 min of reaction, 25% of CB remained in the solution at pH 3–4. However, 35%, 42% and 73%, remained at, respectively, pH 5, 6 and 7. It should be noted that fine precipitate started to form at pH 7 and become massive for pH values superior than 7.

In the literature, the results on the effect of pH are very controversial. For example, Tang and Weavers (2008) reported that acidic condition (pH 3) favors more TOC removal than neutral (pH 7) and basic condition (pH 10). Lee and Yoon (2004) showed that pH in the range of 1.5–10 has no impact on the degradation of reactive black 5 dye. On the other hand, optimal pHs of 7.6 and 6.4 have been determined for the degradation of triethanolamine and acid blue 25, respectively (Ghodbane and Hamdaoui, 2016; Weavers et al., 1997). However, it should be mentioned that all the cited works are carried out in deionized water where the authors try to use the speciation diagram of periodate to explain their results. Speciation diagram of periodate (0.5 mM IO₄⁻) in deionized water (Lee and Yoon, 2004) showed that IO₄⁻ dominated at pH < 8 whereas the dimerized form, H₂I₂O₁₀⁴⁻, is the dominant species at pH higher than 8. However, due to the lack of periodate speciation in seawater, the interpretation of the effect of pH remains unaffordable. Nevertheless, based on direct observation, the huge reduction in the degradation rate at pH 7 (Fig. 7) could be attributed to the precipitation of periodate. In conclusion, photoactivated periodate process should be applied in seawater only up to pH < 7.

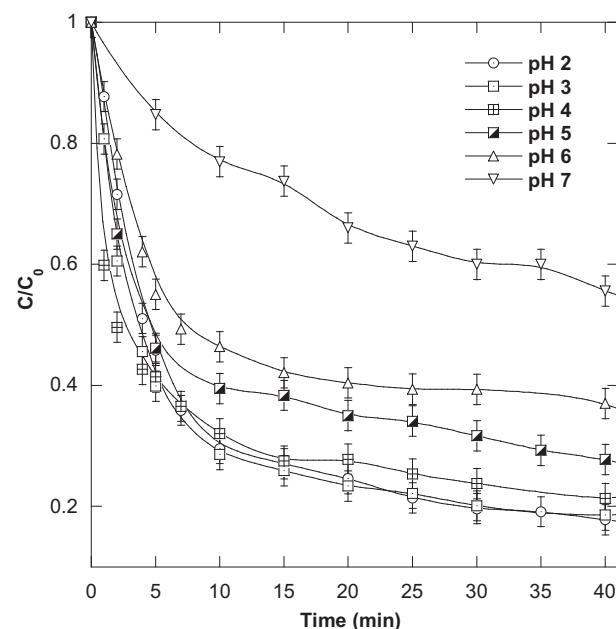


Fig. 7. Effect of initial solution pH on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/IO₄⁻ treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μM), initial IO₄⁻ concentration: 0.5 mM, pH 2–7, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C).

3.5. Effect of initial periodate concentration on the efficiency of UV/IO₄⁻ process

Degradation experiments were conducted with 250 mL of aerated seawater by fixing CB initial concentration at 20 mg L⁻¹ and varying periodate concentration over the range 0.05–5 mM. Control run, without periodate, was also conducted for comparison. The normalized remaining CB concentrations (C/C_0) versus time are presented in Fig. 8. As clearly seen, the degradation rate increased sharply with the increase of periodate concentration from 0.05 to 1 mM, but when IO₄⁻ concentration increased further above 1 mM, the degradation rate was

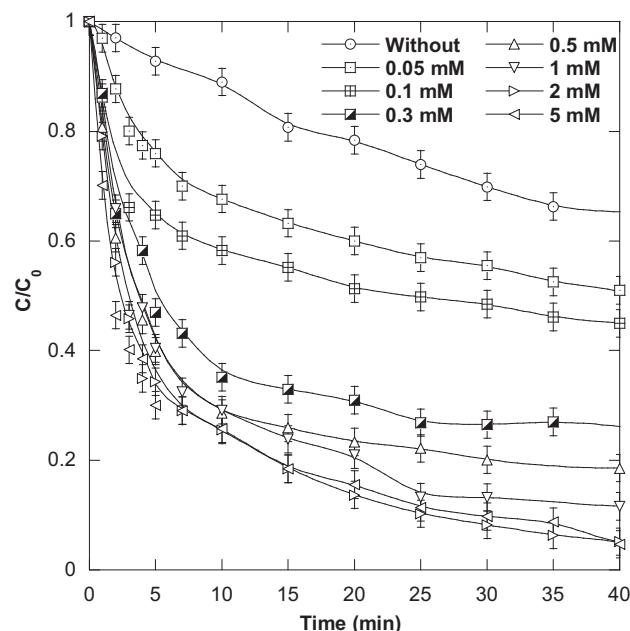


Fig. 8. Effect of initial periodate concentration on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/IO₄⁻ treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μM), initial IO₄⁻ concentration: 0–5 mM, pH 3, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C).

improved insignificantly. After 40 min, the removal level increased from 35% for non- IO_4^- control test to 49, 55, 75, 82 and 88% for, respectively, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 and 1 mM of IO_4^- . The initial CB degradation rate increased by factors of 4, 11.68, 13.16 and 14 when the UV process was assisted with 0.05, 0.3, 0.5 and 1 mM of IO_4^- , respectively.

As iodine radicals are the main oxidants involved in the degradation of the dye, photo-dissociation of periodate could be more significant at higher IO_4^- concentrations and, hence, higher quantity of radicals would be generated provoking faster CB-degradation rate. However, the decline in the positive effect of periodate above 1 mM may be due to the quench of free radicals with the excess of IO_4^- according to reaction (5), which is characterized by a high rate constant, $(2\text{--}7) \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Chia et al., 2004). Furthermore, radical – radical recombination reactions (Eqs. (11) and (12)), become efficient competitors for radical-organic reactions at high radical concentrations. In particular, reaction (11) has a high rate constant of $7.5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Barat et al., 1982) and this would make it as a significant parasite reaction that reduces the degradation of the dye at high periodate loading when higher concentration of radicals is believed to be produced. A similar circumstance have been reported by Hamdaoui and Merouani (2017) for sono-activated periodate in deionized water at high IO_4^- concentrations.

3.6. Effect of initial CB concentration on the efficiency of UV/IO_4^- process

Degradation experiments in UV/IO_4^- system were carried out in seawater at pH 3 for 5, 10, 20 and 50 mg L⁻¹ of CB initial concentrations when the IO_4^- concentration was fixed at 0.5 mM. Fig. 9 shows the normalized concentration profiles for the tested dye concentrations. As can be observed, the removal efficiency at 15 min decreased from 100% for 5 mg L⁻¹ of CB to 86.6% for 10 mg L⁻¹ of CB, 75.1% for 20 mg L⁻¹ of CB and 45% for 50 mg L⁻¹ of CB. However, the removed amount of the dye increased significantly from 8.66 mg L⁻¹ for 15 mg L⁻¹ of CB to 15 and 22.5 mg L⁻¹ for, respectively, 20 and 50 mg L⁻¹ of CB, indicating higher degradation rate at higher initial dye concentration (Fig. 9, the insert). In this occasion, it should be

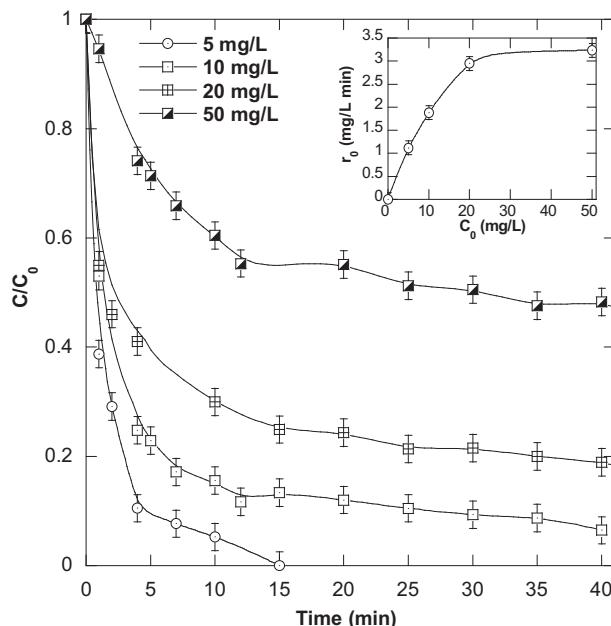


Fig. 9. Effect of initial pollutant concentration on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/IO_4^- treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 5–50 mg L⁻¹, initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.5 mM, pH 3, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C). The insert represents the variation of the initial degradation rate (r_0) vs. initial substrate concentration (C_0).

indicated that the degradation of CB in seawater could not be described with pseudo-first order kinetics law as there is no linear relationship between the initial degradation rate and the initial substrate concentration, as shown in the insert of Fig. 9. All these observations are in line with those reported by Ghodbane and Hamdaoui (2016) for the degradation of acid blue 25 in deionized water. In general, at fixed dosage of periodate ions, the photo-generation rate of iodine radicals is constant. Increasing CB initial concentration in the reacting medium results in limiting the radical-radical recombination event and over-leaping the radicals-dye reaction. Thus, the portion of radicals scavenged by the dye molecules would be increased resulting in higher conversion rates.

3.7. Effect of liquid temperature on the efficiency of UV/IO_4^- process

The liquid temperate had an important effect in increasing/inhibiting the efficiency of several $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ based-AOPs (Jiang et al., 2006; Merouani et al., 2017, 2016; Son and Zoh, 2012). The effect of liquid temperature on the efficiency of UV/IO_4^- was not investigated in the literature, neither in deionized water nor in seawater. Fig. 10 shows the concentration-time profiles of CB under UV/IO_4^- treatment for 25, 35, 45 and 55 °C. As clearly observed, the degradation was not affected by the liquid temperature rise, reflecting the thermal stability of periodate in the interval 25–55 °C.

3.8. Effect of SDS surfactant on the efficiency of UV/IO_4^- process

Surface-active compounds (surfactants) are discharged into domestic and industrial wastewater in considerable quantities, and as a consequence, they have become ubiquitous in the environment. Therefore, it will be interesting to look at the effect of surfactants on the performance of the UV/IO_4^- process for removing organic pollutants from seawater. Fig. 10 illustrates the effect sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) anionic surfactant on removal kinetics of CB. The results of this figure clearly showed that up to 20 mg L⁻¹ of SDS, surfactant had practically no effect on the treatment efficiency with photoactivated periodate in seawater. On the other hand, surfactants have shown a significant inhibitory effect on the degradation, in deionized water, of several contaminants by an $\cdot\text{OH}$ -based AOP (Bekkouche et al., 2017;

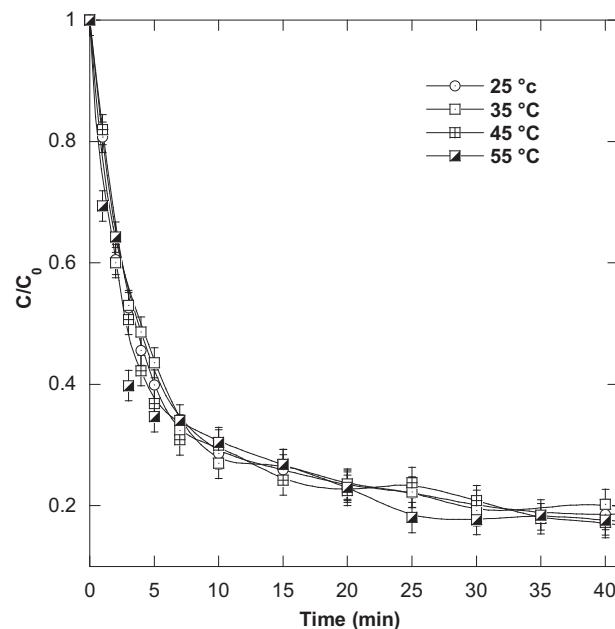


Fig. 10. Effect of solution temperature on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/IO_4^- treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μM), initial IO_4^- concentration: 0.5 mM, pH 3, temperature: 25–55 °C).

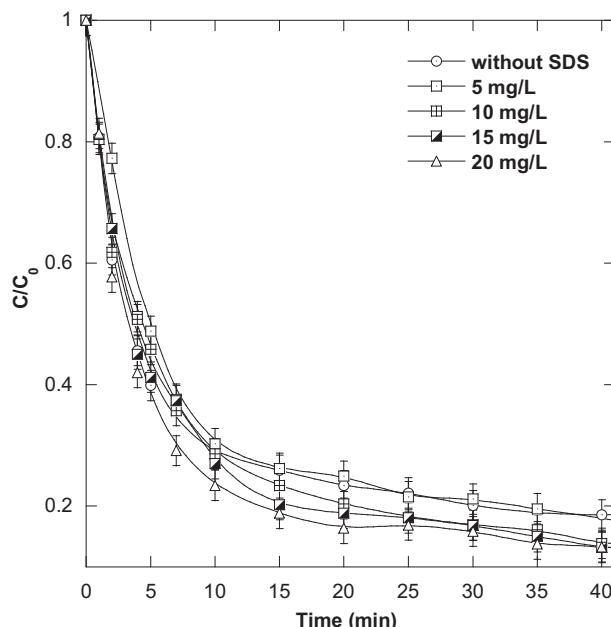


Fig. 11. Effect of SDS surfactant addition on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/IO₄⁻ treatment (conditions — volume: 250 mL, initial CB concentration: 20 mg L⁻¹ (25.5 μM), initial IO₄⁻ concentration: 0.5 mM, initial SDS concentration: 0–20 mg L⁻¹, pH 3, temperature: 25 ± 1 °C).

Almarhabi and Ashokkumar, 2015; Destaillats et al., 2001; Rayaroth et al., 2014). Thus, photoactivated periodate process could be a promising technique for degrading emerging organic pollutants in seawater which usually contains such compounds. Additionally, the non-significant impact of surfactant on the investigated process clearly make evidence that reactive iodine radicals are more selective species than ·OH radical. The obtained effect of surfactant may be attributed to the existence of aromatic rings in CB molecules. Aromatic rings are very reactive toward free radicals (Neta et al., 1988), and as SDS molecules do not have aromatic cycles in their structure, a high selectivity of iodine radicals toward CB molecules could occur (Fig. 11).

4. Conclusion

The results of this work showed that UV/IO₄⁻ oxidation process supplies good performance in the degradation of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) in seawater. The very high quantity of salts existing in seawater did not alter the efficiency of UV/IO₄⁻ system toward the degradation of chlorazol black dye, which was taken as substrate model for EOPs. The degradation rate of the dye by UV/periodate was drastically advanced compared to direct UV alone. This significant improvement was due to the involvement of free iodine radicals in the degradation pathway. The degradation rate increased with the increase in IO₄⁻ but an optimal dose was regarded for the best degradation rate. UV/IO₄⁻ process can only practice up to pH < 7 but acidic conditions engender the best performance. Interestingly, SDS surfactant did not affect the degradation of the dye, making UV/IO₄⁻ treatment a promising technique for treating seawater contaminated with EOPs.

Acknowledgements

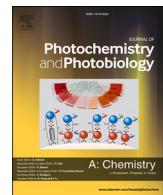
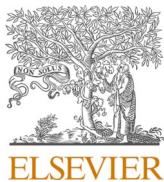
The financial support by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research of Algeria (project No. A16N01UN230120130010) is greatly acknowledged.

References

- Almarhabi, S., Ashokkumar, M., 2015. Sonochemical degradation of p-toluenesulfonic acid in aqueous environment. Energy Environ. Focus 4, 239–244. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1166/eef.2015.1166>.
- Anipsitakis, G.P., Dionysiou, D.D., Gonzalez, M.A., 2006. Cobalt-mediated activation of peroxymonosulfate and sulfate radical attack on phenolic compounds. Implications of chloride ions. Environ. Sci. Technol. 40, 1000–1007.
- Barat, F., Gilles, L., Hickel, B., Lesigne, B., 1971. Transient species in the pulse radiolysis of periodate ion in neutral aqueous solutions. Chem. Commun. 847, 847–848. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/C29710000847>.
- Barat, F., Gilles, L., Hickel, B., Lesigne, B., 1982. Pulsed radiolysis and flash photolysis of iodates in aqueous solution. J. Phys. Chem. 76, 302–307. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/j100647a004>.
- Bekkouche, S., Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Bouhellassa, M., 2017. Efficient photocatalytic degradation of Safranin O by integrating solar-UV/TiO₂/persulfate treatment: implication of sulfate radical in the oxidation process and effect of various water matrix components. J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem. 345, 80–91. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2017.05.028>.
- Bhattacharyya, S.N., Bardhan, d.K., 1970. Radiolysis of aqueous solution of potassium periodate. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 43, 2808–2811. <https://doi.org/10.1246/bcsj.43.2808>.
- Buxton, G.V., Greenstock, C.L., Helman, W.P., Ross, A.B., 1988. Critical review of rate constants for reactions of hydrated electrons, hydrogen atoms and hydroxyl radicals (·OH/·O⁻) in aqueous solution. J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 17, 515–886 (doi: 0047-2689/88/020513-37 \$20.00).
- Chia, L.H., Tang, X., Weavers, L.K., 2004. Kinetics and mechanism of photoactivated periodate reaction with 4-chlorophenol in acidic solution. Environ. Sci. Technol. 38, 6875–6880. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es049155n>.
- Destaillats, H., Alderson, T.W., Hoffmann, M.R., 2001. Applications of ultrasound in NAPL remediation: sonochemical degradation of TCE in aqueous surfactant solutions. Environ. Sci. Technol. 35, 3019–3024. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es0018926>.
- Ghodbane, H., Hamdaoui, O., 2010. Decolorization of anthraquinonic dye, C.I. Acid Blue 25, in aqueous solution by direct UV irradiation, UV/H₂O₂ and UV/Fe(II) processes. Chem. Eng. J. 160, 226–231. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.03.049>.
- Ghodbane, H., Hamdaoui, O., 2016. Degradation of anthraquinonic dye in water by photoactivated periodate. Desalin. Water Treat. 57, 4100–4109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2014.988657>.
- Gu, X., Lu, S., Li, L., Qiu, Z., Sui, Q., Lin, K., Luo, Q., 2011. Oxidation of 1,1,1-trichloroethane stimulated by thermally activated persulfate. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 50, 11029–11036. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ie201059x>.
- Hamdaoui, O., Merouani, S., 2017. Improvement of sonochemical degradation of Brilliant Blue R in water using periodate ions: implication of iodine radicals in the oxidation process. Ultrason. Sonochem. 37, 344–350. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2017.01.025>.
- Jain, R.M., Mody, K.H., Keshri, J., Jha, B., 2014. Biological neutralization and biosorption of dyes of alkaline textile industry wastewater. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 84, 83–89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.05.033>.
- Jiang, Y., Petrier, C., Waite, T.D., 2006. Sonolysis of 4-chlorophenol in aqueous solution: effects of substrate concentration, aqueous temperature and ultrasonic frequency. Ultrason. Sonochem. 13, 415–422. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2005.07.003>.
- Kato, A., Cvitanovic, R.J., 1968. Reactions of oxygen atoms with 2-propanol and methanol. Can. J. Chem. 46, 235–240 (doi: <https://doi.org/10.1139/v68-037>).
- Klaning, U.K., Sehested, K., Wolfe, T., 1981. Laser flash photolysis and pulse radiolysis of iodate and periodate in aqueous solution. J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 77, 1707–1718. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/F19817701707>.
- Lee, C., Yoon, J., 2004. Application of photoactivated periodate to the decolorization of reactive dye: reaction parameters and mechanism. J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem. 165, 35–41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2004.02.018>.
- Lewis, R.J., 2008. Hazardous Chemicals Desk Reference. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New Jersey. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9780470335406>.
- Li, X., Liu, X., Qi, C., Lin, C., 2016. Activation of periodate by granular activated carbon for acid orange 7 decolorization. J. Taiwan Inst. Chem. Eng. 0, 1–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jtice.2016.08.039>.
- Long, A., Lei, Y., Zhang, H., 2014. Degradation of toluene by a selective ferrous ion activated persulfate oxidation process. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 53, 1033–1039.
- Merhaby, D., Net, S., Halwani, J., Ouddane, B., 2015. Organic pollution in surficial sediments of Tripoli Harbour, Lebanon. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 93, 284–293. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2015.01.004>.
- Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Saoudi, F., Chiha, M., 2010. Sonochemical degradation of Rhodamine B in aqueous phase: effects of additives. Chem. Eng. J. 158, 550–557. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.01.048>.
- Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Boutamine, Z., Rezgui, Y., Guemini, M., 2016. Experimental and numerical investigation of the effect of liquid temperature on the sono lytic degradation of some organic dyes in water. Ultrason. Sonochem. 28, 382–392. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2015.08.015>.
- Merouani, S., Hamdaoui, O., Bouhellassa, M., 2017. Degradation of Safranin O by thermally activated persulfate in the presence of mineral and organic additives: impact of environmental matrices. Desalin. Water Treat. 75, 202–212. <http://dx.doi.org/10.504/dwt.2017.20404>.
- Neta, P., Huie, R.E., Ross, A.B., 1988. Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution. J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 17, 1027–1284 (doi: 0047-2689/88/031027-258/\$21.00).
- Parsons, S., 2004. Advanced Oxidation Processes for Water and Wastewater Treatment. IWA Publishing, London.
- Patil, S.F., Patil, R.M., Mudaliar, M., 1990. Effect of iso-propanol on the radiolysis of aqueous solutions of periodate. J. Radioanal. Nucl. Chem. 139, 323–329.
- Pereira, L., Alves, M., 2012. Dyes—environmental impact and remediation. In: Malik, A.,

- G., E. (Eds.), Environmental Protection Strategies for Sustainable Development, Strategies for Sustainability. Springer, London, pp. 111–162. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1591-2_5.
- Petri, B.G., Watts, R.J., Tsitonaki, A., Crimi, M., Thomson, N.R., Teel, A.L., 2011. Fundamentals of ISCO using persulfate. In: Siegrist, R.L., Crimi, M., Simpkian, T.J. (Eds.), In Situ Chemical Oxidation for Groundwater Remediation. Springer, New York, pp. 150.
- Pohanish, R., 2012. Sittig's Handbook of Toxic and Hazardous Chemicals and Carcinogens. Elsevier, UK.
- Rayaroth, M.P., Aravind, U.K., Aravindakumar, C.T., 2014. Sonochemical degradation of Coomassie Brilliant Blue: effect of frequency, power density, pH and various additives. *Chemosphere* 119, 848–855. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.08.037>.
- Rodriguez, M., 2003. Fenton and UV-Vis Based Advanced Oxidation Processes in Wastewater Treatment: Degradation, Mineralization and Biodegradability Enhancement. pp. 296.
- Sabnis, R.W., 2010. Handbook of Biological Dyes and Stains: Synthesis and Industrial Applications. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New Jersey. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.118.3071.3>.
- Son, H., Zoh, K., 2012. Effects of Methanol and Carbon Tetrachloride on Sonolysis of 1,4-Dioxane in Relation to Temperature.
- Tang, X., Weavers, L.K., 2007. Decomposition of hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents using photoactivated periodate. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem.* 187, 311–318. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2006.10.029>.
- Tang, X., Weavers, L.K., 2008. Using photoactivated periodate to decompose TOC from hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem.* 194, 212–219. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2007.08.014>.
- Tarr, M.A., 2003. Chemical Degradation Methods for Wastes and Pollutants: Combustion. Mark Dekker, Inc., New York.
- Tsitonaki, A., Petri, B., Crimi, M., Mosbæk, H., Siegrist, R.L., Bjerg, P.L., 2010. In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate: a review. *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 37–41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10643380802039303>.
- Wagner, I., Strehlow, H., 1982. Flash photolysis in aqueous periodate-solutions. *Ber. Bunsenges. Phys. Chem.* 86, 297–301 (doi: 0005-9021/82/0404-0297 S 02.50/0).
- Wang, J.L., Xu, L.J., 2012. Advanced oxidation processes for wastewater treatment: formation of hydroxyl radical and application. *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 42, 251–325. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2010.507698>.
- Wang, Z., Yuan, R., Guo, Y., Xu, L., Liu, J., 2011. Effects of chloride ions on bleaching of azo dyes by Co^{2+} /oxone reagent: kinetic analysis. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 190, 1083–1087. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.04.016>.
- Weavers, L.K., Hua, I., Hoffmann, M.R., 1997. Degradation of triethanolamine and chemical oxygen demand reduction in wastewater by photoactivated periodate. *Water Environ. Res.* 69, 1112–1119. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2175/106143097X125849>.
- Yang, S., Wang, P., Yang, X., Shan, L., Zhang, W., Shao, X., Niu, R., 2010. Degradation efficiencies of azo dye Acid Orange 7 by the interaction of heat, UV and anions with common oxidants: persulfate, peroxymonosulfate and hydrogen peroxide. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 179, 552–558. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.03.039>.
- Yun, E.T., Yoo, H.Y., Kim, W., Kim, H.E., Kang, G., Lee, H., Lee, S., Park, T., Lee, C., Kim, J.H., Lee, J., 2017. Visible-light-induced activation of periodate that mimics dye-sensitization of TiO_2 : simultaneous decolorization of dyes and production of oxidizing radicals. *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 203, 475–484. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.029>.

Annexe E



Development of a free radical-based kinetics model for the oxidative degradation of chlorazol black in aqueous solution using periodate photoactivated process

Mohamed Larbi Djaballah ^a, Slimane Merouani ^{b,*}, Hafida Bendjama ^b, Oualid Hamdaoui ^c

^a National Polytechnic School of Constantine, P.O. Box 75, 25000 Constantine, 25000, Constantine, Algeria

^b Laboratory of Environmental Process Engineering, Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider Constantine 3, P.O. Box 72, 25000, Constantine, Algeria

^c Chemical Engineering Department, College of Engineering, King Saud University, P.O. Box 800, 11421, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia



ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs)
UV/Periodate
Free radicals
Chlorazol black (CB)
Degradation
Kinetic modelling

ABSTRACT

This paper presents the first modeling study on UV/periodate (IO_4^-) advanced oxidation process. A reaction mechanism consisting in 45 chemical reactions including a number of radicals (IO_3^\cdot , IO_4^\cdot , $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\text{O}^\cdot-$, HO_2 , O_2^\cdot , O_3^\cdot) and non-radical intermediates/products ($\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, O_3 , IO_5 , H_2O_2 , HO_2^- , I_2O_6 and I_2O_8) has been developed to assess the reactive species generation, use and distribution during the oxidation of one model azo dye, chlorazol black (CB), by the periodate photoactivated process. The model fitted excellently the CB degradation data over a wide range of solution pH and initial IO_4^- concentration. Unavailable second-order rate constants of several important reactions were optimized using the genetic algorithm. Those include $\text{O}_3 + \text{IO}_3^\cdot \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^\cdot + \text{O}_2$ ($k = 1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), $2\text{IO}_4^\cdot \rightarrow \text{I}_2\text{O}_8$ ($k = 4.68 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), reaction of CB with $\cdot\text{OH}$ ($k = 1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), IO_3^\cdot ($k = 2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), IO_4^\cdot ($k = 0 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$ ($k = 0 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) and O_3 ($k = 0.574 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$). Besides, the first order kinetic constant of periodate photolysis, $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\cdot + \text{O}^\cdot-$ and $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, were respectively $(0.5-4.16) \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $\sim 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, indicating that the radical pathway for IO_4^- photolysis is predominately the IO_3^\cdot -releasing path. $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\cdot were found to play the key role in the CB degradation. The concentration of radicals increased with pH decrease and initial periodate concentration rise, favoring higher degradation rate at acidic conditions and higher IO_4^- dosages. The selectivity analysis showed that the contribution of these species is $\sim 79\%$ for $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\sim 21\%$ for IO_3^\cdot , under various conditions of pH and $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$. This study would helpfully provide some practical indications for the application of UV/periodate AOP.

1. Introduction

One inconvenient of the rapid industrialization that took place from the late 19th to early 20th centuries is the occurrence of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) in the aquatic environment. This problem has raised a concern about their polluting effect on environment as well as their potential risk on public health. Xenobiotic, phenolic compounds, pesticides, hormones and hormone derivatives, organochlorines and synthetic dyes are examples of persistent micropollutants frequently discharged in industrial and urban effluents [1,2]. Most of these materials are non-biodegradable and may result in damaging effects like aquatic toxicity, genotoxicity, cancerogenicity and endocrine disruption problems [3,4]. Hence, the removal of these priority pollutants from water is an emerging issue in environmental science and engineering.

In the past decade, continuous interest has been focused on using photochemical processes for the treatment and disinfection of water [5]. UV alone, however, may not ensure the degradation of persistent/refractory hazardous contaminants. Coupling UV with oxidizing agents like H_2O_2 and $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ can produce highly reactive radicals (i.e. $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^\cdot-$) which make the degradation of persistent micropollutants more effective [6,7]. Techniques like UV/ H_2O_2 , UV/ O_3 , UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ and UV/TiO₂ are classified as advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) [8]. Free radicals species in AOPs offer high oxidation potentials (2.6 V for $\text{SO}_4^\cdot-$ and 2.8 for $\cdot\text{OH}$) and react with contaminants with high rate constants of 10^6 to $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [9], ensuring high degrees of pollutants mineralization at ambient conditions [10-12].

UV/ IO_4^- is one promising AOP for the degradation of persistent organic pollutants and reduction of chemical oxygen demand in

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: s.merouani@yahoo.fr (S. Merouani).

industrial wastewater [13–15]. The photo-activation of periodate ($\lambda < 400$ nm) in aqueous solutions can produce several reactive radicals and non-radical species including $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , H_2O_2 , $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, O_3 , and IO_3^- , which work together and make the degradation process much faster than that of UV/ H_2O_2 and other similar AOPs [13–15]. Several researchers have compared the efficiency of the UV/periodate process with several similar UV/oxidants processes like UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$, UV/ H_2O_2 and so far. Wu and Wu [16] have compared the efficiency of the 254 nm-photolysis of C.I. reactive red 198 in the presence of several oxidants, i.e. KIO_4 , H_2O_2 , $\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ and NaBrO_3 , at various concentrations. They found that periodate, at 1 mM, enhanced the degradation rate by factor of 2.8 and 5.88 as compared to UV/ $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ (or H_2O_2) and UV/ BrO_3^- . Additionally, much higher concentration of other oxidants is required to obtain the same degradation rate in the presence of low concentration of periodate [16]. A very similar outcomes have been obtained by Yu et al. [17] for the degradation of C.I. reactive black 5 and by Wang and Hong [18] for the removal of chlorobiphenyl from aqueous solutions and by Syoufian and Nakasima [19] for the degradation of methylene blue. Sadik and Nashed [20] found that the degradation rate of acid alizarin violet N by UV/ IO_4^- process is faster than that obtained by the UV/ H_2O_2 process. Ravichandran et al. [21] have noted that high defluoridation of pentafluorobenzoic acid was obtained after 30 min of irradiation upon UV/ IO_4^- (119 mg/L of F^-) as compared with those of UV/ $\text{NH}_4\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ (86 mg/L of F^-) and UV/ H_2O_2 (90.1 mg/L of F^-). The same statement has been provided by Irmak et al. [22] for the degradation of 4-chloro-2-methylphenol by the processes UV/ IO_4^- , UV/ H_2O_2 , UV/ BrO_3^- and UV/ ClO_3^- .

The distribution of reactive species in UV/periodate system and their probable implication in the degradation of organic pollutants were mostly controlled by the operational conditions, i.e. pH, IO_4^- -dosage and irradiation wavelength, and the reactivity of the target pollutant with the different reactive species. This subject has been studied superficially in the literature [13–15], although the advantageous application of the UV/ IO_4^- process has been well established. Many researchers have adopted the radical scavenger technique to confirm the implication of some reactive species in the degradation of many pollutants, but no unanimous opinion has been obtained. By adding tert-butanol (t-BuOH) as a specific scavenger of $\cdot\text{OH}$, a significant decrease in the degradation of reactive black 5, 3,3-dithiopropanol, thiodiglycol, and 1,4-thioxane has been reported, allowing authors to suggest that $\cdot\text{OH}$ play a key role in the UV/ IO_4^- oxidation system [15,23]. Note that the presence of hydroxylated by-products cannot univocally related to the reactivity with $\cdot\text{OH}$ because often also the oxidation through a direct electron transfer between the oxidant species and the substrate can give hydroxylated compounds through a double step mechanism: extraction of an electron with the formation of a radical (often a radical cation) and successive reaction with OH[−]/water to give hydroxylated by-products. Lee and Yoon [23] have reported that $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$ participates insignificantly in the degradation of reactive black 5 due to the fact that the deoxygenating of the solution did not provide the suspected degradation enhancement via the reaction $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\cdot\text{OH}$. Ghodbane and Hamdaoui [24] reported that the degradation of acid blue 25 was not dominated by an $\cdot\text{OH}$ pathway, as the addition of t-BuOH at 100 mM did not decrease the degradation rate of the dye; the statement which was also provided by Chia et al. [13] for the degradation of 4-chlorophenol (4-CP). These last authors indicated that IO_3^\bullet and $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$ were the important reactive species for the degradation of 4-CP in the system, while the null contribution of O_3 is confirmed by N_2 purging as suppressor of the main reaction responsible of O_3 formation ($\text{O}_2 + \text{O}^{(3)\text{P}} \rightarrow \text{O}_3$). Note that the mechanism of IO_3^\bullet attack on substrates is unknown.

In this study, a simulation approach has been adopted for the first time to simulate the reaction trend in UV/ IO_4^- process. A reaction scheme consisting in 45 chemical reaction including a number of reactive radicals (IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, HO_2^\bullet , O_2^\bullet , O_3^\bullet) and non-radical intermediates/products ($\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, O_3 , IO_3^- , H_2O_2 , HO_2^- , I_2O_6 and I_2O_8) has been developed for simulating the reaction system evolution in UV/ IO_4^- system. The

model has been validated over different conditions via degradation experiments conducted on chlorazol black (CB), which is selected as the target contaminant. CB is a very persistent textile dye of well-established carcinogenic and mutagenic effects [25,26]. The outlining aims of the model are: (i) providing the concentration profiles of the different reactive species created in the UV/periodate oxidation system, (ii) determining unavailable rate constants of many important reaction in periodate photoactivated process, (iii) determining the specific reactive species implicated in the degradation of CB and (iv) determining the radicals distribution as function of pH and initial IO_4^- concentration. To the best of our knowledge, no previous research has been made to determine the radical distribution in the UV/ IO_4^- process, neither experimentally nor numerically. Before proceeding to the analysis, a brief review on periodate photoactivated system is given in the following section.

2. UV/ IO_4^- process: an overview

In dilute acidic to neutral aqueous solution, periodate absorbs UV-light with $\lambda_{\text{amx}} = 222$ nm ($\epsilon = 5.4 \times 10^2 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) [13]. The photochemical decomposition of periodate in aqueous solutions has been studied earlier using photolysis, flash photolysis, pulse radiolysis and laser flash photolysis [27–31], and a large number of reactions involving periodate have been proposed. Iodate ions (IO_3^-), oxygen (O_2), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and ozone (O_3) were defined as final products of periodate photolysis. H_2O_2 and O_3 have been observed only in the pH range of 3–7 [27–31]. In alkaline solutions, the yield of photolysis products is considerably smaller [27]. Intermediates with short lifetime such as $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals, $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$ atoms, IO_3^\bullet as well as unspecified I(VIII) species have been reported [27–30]. Barat et al. [30] have assumed the radicals IO_4^\bullet as intermediately. Among the numerous proposed mechanisms for photoactivated periodate, the following summarized mechanism suggested by Wagner and Strehlow [28] has been broadly cited [13–15,23,24,32,33]:

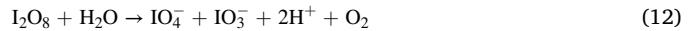
Initiation:



Propagation:



Termination:



Based on the above mechanism, photoactivated periodate can produce a number of highly reactive radicals and non-radicals species including $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, IO_3^- , H_2O_2 and O_3 . This mechanism also indicates possible regeneration of IO_4^- . Tang and weavers [14] have quantified the yields of IO_3^- , O_3 and H_2O_2 during the photo-reduction of periodate (30 mM) in the presence of 1 mM thiodiglycol (TDG) at pH 3. They found that the linear disappearance of IO_4^- was accompanied with

linear increase of IO_3^- up to 40 min; the time when almost periodate is totally consumed. It was found that iodate ions are liberated with the same rate of periodate depletion (0.612 mM/min in the absence of TDG). In this line, Chia et al. [13] showed that O_3 evolution during the degradation of 4-chlorophenol (0.2 mM) in air-saturated UV/ IO_4^- system using 266 nm-irradiation light and 5 mM IO_4^- increased with time up approaching a steady-state at $\text{O}_3 \approx 20 \mu\text{M}$. These nonlinear productions of O_3 and H_2O_2 can be explained by the decomposition of these species by direct UV photolysis and/or radical-chain decomposition. Therefore, UV/ IO_4^- process may enclose principal reactions occurring in UV/ O_3 , UV/ H_2O_2 and $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{O}_3$ advanced oxidation processes. This is perhaps the reason for why UV/ IO_4^- process was found more efficient than other UV-based AOPs for the degradation of several organic contaminants [16, 20, 34, 35].

Several researchers have reported the degradation of many organic pollutants by UV/ IO_4^- process. After exposing periodate aqueous solution (0.25–1 mM) to UV irradiation at 253.7 nm, Hamdaoui and Ghobbane [24] and Bendjama et al. [33] have recorded fast transformation of periodate, *ca.* 80 % of the peak intensity at 222 nm was vanished in less than 10 min [24, 33]. Simultaneously, more than 90 % of acid blue 25 dye was degraded after only 5 min of treatment with 1 mM of periodate. Correspondingly, Bendjama et al. [33] found that ~70 % of chlorazol black was removed at only 10 min in acidic seawater solution exposed to 253.7 nm-UV light in the presence of 0.5 mM of periodate. Similar accelerating effect of the UV/ IO_4^- process has been reported by Lee and Yoon [23] for the degradation of reactive black 5 (RB5) at neutral pH. Under low irradiation intensities ($23 \mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$), wavelength of 266 nm and pH 3, Chia et al. [13] have observed that periodate photoactivated effectively degraded 4-chlorophenol, following a pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics.

Mineralization upon UV/ IO_4^- system was also reported for many cases. At pH 7.6, a COD (chemical oxygen demand) reduction of 90 % has been achieved in 3 h with a xenon lamp and 30 min with a mercury-xenon lamp, during the treatment of triethanolamine (TEA) in deionized water using a $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0/[\text{TEA}]_0$ ratio of 30 [32]. However, the COD reduction of real wastewater contaminated with TEA varied from 58 % to 82 %. A faster rate in TOC (total organic carbon) removal was also found for three hydrolysates chemical warfare agents, i.e. thiodiglycol (TDG), 3,3-dithiolpropanol (DTP) and 1,4-thioxane (TX) [14]. More than 80 % of TDG was removed in 90 min with 60 mM of periodate and slightly less (about 70 %) was recorded for DTP ad TX. Moreover, the TOC elimination varies significantly with pH and the concentration of periodate [14]. COD abatement of 62.1 % and 72.4 % after 12 and 24 min, respectively, have been reported by Ghobbane and Hamdaoui [24] during the treatment of acid blue 25 with periodate (1 mM) photoactivated system. Saien et al. [34] showed that the kinetics of Quinoline degradation and mineralization increased with time to finally achieve 70 % in COD abatement after 70 min of reaction.

3. Materials and methods

Throughout the study, deionized water was used for solutions and samples preparation. Chlorazol black (azo dye – abbreviation: CB, CAS number: 1937–37-7, Molecular formula: $\text{C}_{34}\text{H}_{25}\text{N}_9\text{Na}_2\text{O}_7\text{S}_2$, molecular weight: 781.73 g mol⁻¹), sodium periodate (NaIO_4), tert-butanol, sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide were all provided from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received.

Stock solutions of periodate (20 mM) and CB (500 mM) were prepared and stored in the dark at 4 °C. Experiments were conducted using 25.5 μM of CB (20 mg L⁻¹) in the setup described early [25]. It consists in a cylindrical water-jacketed glass cell of 500 mL. The operating solution volume was 250 mL. A low-pressure mercury lamp (Oriel 6035, 15 mW cm⁻²) emitting maximum irradiation at 253.7 nm was mounted in a quartz tube and submerged vertically in the center of the solution. A RC6 Lauda thermocryostat has been used to maintain the temperature of the treated solution at 25 ± 1 °C through flowing water at 23 °C in the

jacket surrounding the cell. During irradiation, the temperature of the magnetically stirred solution (fixed speed) was displayed by a thermocouple submerged in the solution. A pH-meter Jenway 3505 was used to measure the solution pH.

During degradation runs, samples (3 mL) were taken periodically from the solution to determine the dye concentration using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Jasco V-730), equipped with quartz cuvettes of 1 cm light path. The CB absorbance was measured at 578 nm, which is the maximum absorption wavelength (λ_{max}) of the dye in the visible region. A calibration curve, established based on lambert-beer law, was used for determining the CB concentration during the photolytic runs. The pH of the solution was adjusted using H_2SO_4 or NaOH. Note that λ_{max} (578 nm) and the initial absorbance of CB at λ_{max} were not found to be changed in the pH range of 3–9. Finally, all runs were repeated at least 3 times and average was plotted (error bars ensuring the maximum deviation of the means were inserted in plots).

The decolorization of CB by UV/periodate process seemed to follow a pseudo-first-order kinetics ($-dC/dt = kC$) and the degradation curve was described with the exponential decay equation ($C/C_0 = e^{-kt}$). In this equation, C is the instantaneous concentration of CB, C_0 is the initial concentration and t is the treatment time. The pseudo-first-order decolorization rate (k) of CB is then the slope of $\ln(C_0/C)$ vs. time curves.

4. Kinetics model and computational algorithm

A reaction mechanism consisting in 45 chemical reactions (Table 1) including, in addition to the initial constituents (i.e. IO_4^- , CB, H_2O , O_2 , H^+ and OH^-), a number of reactive radicals (IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\cdot\text{OH}$, O^\bullet^- , HO_2^\bullet , O_2^\bullet , O_3^\bullet) and non-radical intermediates/products ($\text{O}(\text{P})^3$, O_3 , IO_3^- , H_2O_2 , HO_2^- , I_2O_6 and I_2O_8) has been adopted for simulating the radicals generation and CB degradation in water by the periodate photoactivated process. All these reactions and their available rate constants were collected from several publications, i.e. Refs. [9, 27–29, 36–40] and others (see last column of Table 1).

The reaction scheme of Table 1 starts with the direct photolysis of periodate which may be happened via radical (Eq. 1#) and non-radical (Eq. 2#) pathways. Reactions of propagation cause the formation of other radical and non-radical species, and the reaction process has been terminated with radicals recombination and reactions with the target pollutant (CB). The diagram also shows possible regeneration of periodate and iodate (Eqs. 38# and 39#). In addition to the specific reaction of iodide species, the reaction scheme of Table 1 includes the principal reactions occurring in UV/ H_2O_2 , UV/ O_3 and $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{O}_3$ processes (i.e. most of them are available in [39]). The reaction of CB with $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\text{O}(\text{P})^3$ and O_3 have been considered whereas that of CB with IO_4^- , IO_3^- and H_2O_2 were ignored due to the effective resistance of CB to direct oxidation with these traditional oxidants [26, 33, 41]. Additionally, the superoxide radical anion ($\text{O}_2^\bullet^-$) and its conjugate acid, HO_2^\bullet [$\text{pK}_a(\text{O}_2^\bullet^-/\text{HO}_2^\bullet) = 4.8$], are generally regarded as unreactive toward most organics [40, 42, 43]. Therefore, reactions between CB and HO_2^\bullet and $\text{O}_2^\bullet^-$ have also been neglected. Besides, reaction of CB-degradation intermediates with radicals is considered. In fact, concentrations of these intermediates could be very low for up to $t_{1/2}$ for CB, as generally known in advanced oxidation processes. Therefore, CB could be in excess until $t_{1/2}$ and, therefore, ignoring reactions of CB-intermediates with radicals could not influence greatly the model sensitivity and the parameters estimation for up to $t_{1/2}$ of reaction. Above $t_{1/2}$, CB-intermediates can effectively implicate in the radical pathway, but they did not affect the radical distribution, which is calculated at the initial stage of photolysis where only reaction of CB with radicals is dominant. The same strategy has been adopted by Yuan et al. [37, 38] who kinetically modeling the degradation of acid orang 7 by UV/persulfate and UV/ H_2O_2 . Similarly, the model proposed by Bulman et al. [39] for modeling free radicals production in UV/chlorine AOPs ignored reaction of intermediates with radicals.

Rates constants of many reactions of Table 1 are not available in the

Table 1

Model equations for CB degradation in periodate photoactivated system in pH 3–9.

n°	Reaction	Rate constant, k	Ref.
1#	$\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{O}^\bullet$	$(0.51\text{--}4.16)\times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	This study
2#	$\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{O}(\text{P}^3)$	$(1\text{--}2)\times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$	This study
3#	$\text{O}^\bullet + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow \cdot\text{OH} + \text{OH}^-$	$pK_a = 11.9$ $k_3 = 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ $k_{3\cdot} = 1.2 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
4#	$\text{O}(\text{P}^3) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_3$	$4 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[62]
5#	$\text{IO}_4^- + \cdot\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{OH}^-$	$4.5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[30]
6#	$\text{IO}_4^- + \text{IO}_3^\bullet \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^\bullet + \text{IO}_3$	$5.005 \cdot 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[13]
7#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{IO}_3^\bullet \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^\bullet + \text{O}_2$	$1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
8#	$2\text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	$5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[51]
9#	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{OH}^\bullet$	$1.16 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$	[38]
10#	$\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^-$	$1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	[63]
11#	$\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1 \times 10^{11} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[63]
12#	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}^+$	$1.3 \times 10^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	[63]
13#	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	$5 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[63]
14#	$\text{OH}^\bullet + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$2.7 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
15#	$\text{OH}^\bullet + \text{HO}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2^\bullet$	$7.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
16#	$\text{HO}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{O}_2^\bullet + \text{H}^+$	$7 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$	[64]
17#	$\text{O}_2^\bullet + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{HO}_2^\bullet$	$5 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[63]
18#	$\text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{O}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$9.7 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[64]
19#	$\text{OH}^\bullet + \text{HO}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$7.1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[65]
20#	$\text{OH}^\bullet + \text{O}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{OH}^- + \text{O}_2$	$1 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[66]
21#	$\text{IO}_3^- + \text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{OH}^-$	$2.9 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[51,67]
22#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{O}_2$	$1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
23#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{O}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{O}_3^\bullet + \text{O}_2$	$1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[68]
24#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{O}_2^\bullet$	$70 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[9,69]
25#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$48 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[9]
26#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{O}_3^\bullet$	$5.5 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[39]
27#	$\text{OH}^\bullet + \text{O}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$	$2 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[39]
28#	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{O}_2^\bullet + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
29#	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{O}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{O}_2^\bullet + \text{OH}^-$	$4 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
30#	$\text{O}^\bullet + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_3^\bullet$	$3.6 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[36]
31#	$\text{O}^\bullet + \text{O}_2^\bullet \rightarrow 2\text{OH}^- + \text{O}_2$	$6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[39]
32#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{HO}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{OH}^\bullet + \text{O}_2$	$1 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[70]
33#	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{IO}_4^- \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} + 0.5\text{O}_2$	$2.6 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[27]
34#	$2\text{HO}_2^\bullet \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$8.3 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[64]
35#	$2\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$2.3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[39]
36#	$2\text{IO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{I}_2\text{O}_6$	$5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[29,51]
37#	$2\text{IO}_4^- \rightarrow \text{I}_2\text{O}_8$	$4.68 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
38#	$\text{I}_2\text{O}_6 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^- + \text{IO}_3^- + 2\text{H}^+$	$4.5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[15]
39#	$\text{I}_2\text{O}_8 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^- + \text{IO}_3^- + 2\text{H}^+ + \text{O}_2$	$1.5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[15]
40#	$\cdot\text{OH} + \text{CB} \rightarrow \cdot\text{OH}-\text{Prod.}$	$1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
41#	$\text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{CB} \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet-\text{Prod.}$	$2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
42#	$\text{IO}_4^\bullet + \text{CB} \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^\bullet-\text{Prod.}$	$\sim 0. \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
43#	$\text{O}(\text{P}^3) + \text{CB} \rightarrow \text{O}(\text{P}^3)-\text{Prod.}$	$\sim 0. \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
44#	$\text{O}_3 + \text{CB} \rightarrow \text{O}_3-\text{Prod.}$	$0.574 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	This study
In the presence of t-BuOH			
45#	$t\text{-BuOH} + \text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{Prod}$	$6.10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	[13]

literature; they are predicted in this study for the first time. These reactions including the proper rate constants of periodate photolysis (Eqs. 1# and 2#), reaction of IO_3^\bullet radical with ozone (Eq. 7#), the self-recombination of IO_4^\bullet radical (Eq. 37#) and reaction of CB with $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO_3^\bullet , IO_4^\bullet , $\text{O}(\text{P}^3)$ and O_3 (Eqs. 40#–44#). The predicted values of these reactions were discussed in section 5.2. It is important to note that rate constants of free radicals reaction with substrate were mostly determined through data finding [37–39], like our case, or by using steady state approach [9,44], which all required a modeling part. In complex reaction system like that occurring in UV/periodate process, it is impossible to determine simultaneously several unknown rate constants using the steady state approach, and therefore, the optimization

approach of rate constants based on data fitting in the efficient solution.

The kinetics modeling of the reaction scheme of Table 1 has been performed using COPASI simulation kinetics software, version 4.27 (Build 217)-free license [45]. In addition to its open source, COPASI software allows resolving complex reaction schemes, i.e. like that of Table 1 or more, with the possibility of optimizing unknown rate constants by many advanced optimization methods like genetic algorithm, evolutionary programming, evolution strategy (SRES) and others. COPASI has been previously used for resolving similar reaction kinetics problems like acid acetic degradation in aqueous UV/persulfate system [46], persulfate activation into sulfate and hydroxyl radicals by radiolysis [47] and iodate and iodo-trihalomethane formation during chlorination of iodide-containing waters [48].

The input parameters for the software are reactions of Table 1 with their rate constants and concentrations of initial species. The concentration profiles of all species will then be generated throughout the oxidation period. To obtain the unknown rate constants of reactions (1#), (2#), (7#), (37#), and (40#) to (44#) of Table 1, the experimental oxidation profile of CB over time was introduced to the software and then fitted by setting these rate constants as optimizable parameters. The parameter optimization was conducted by selecting the Genetic algorithm method.

The contribution of each reactive species (RS) in the overall degradation rate of CB was calculated based on selectivity as

$$S_{RS/CB} = \frac{(r_{RC-prod})}{(-r_{CB})} \quad (13)$$

where $(-r_{CB})$ is the disappearance rate of CB and $(r_{RC-prod})$ is the formation rate of the organic product comes from the direct reaction of the reactive specie RC with CB, both evaluated at the initial stage of the reaction.

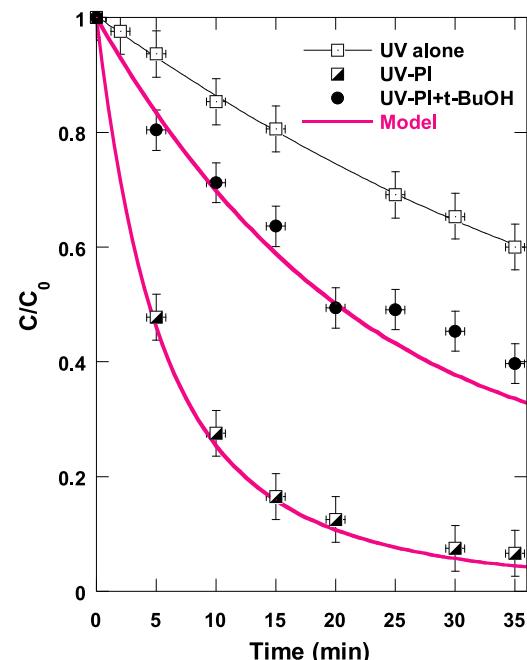


Fig. 1. Experimental and modeling effect of UV/periodate oxidation system on the removal kinetics of CB in the absence and presence of tert-butanol (conditions: $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{t-BuOH}]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$, $\text{pH}_i = 7$, $T = 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

5. Results and discussion

5.1. Model validation

Fig. 1 shows the experimental and simulated effects of UV/periodate (0.5 mM) process toward the degradation of CB (25.5 μM) in the absence and presence of 100 mM of tert-butanol ($t\text{-BuOH}$) as a specific scavenger of hydroxyl radical in the reacting media. The initial solution pH and the liquid temperature were fixed at pH 7 and 25 °C. As seen, the UV/periodate process accelerated the degradation of the dye; 94 % of CB was removed in 30 min of irradiation against only 35 % under the UV irradiation alone. In term of initial degradation rate, the periodate photo-activated process improved the initial rate by about 11 folds (i.e. from 0.255 $\mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for the sole UV to 2.795 $\mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for the UV/IO₄ system). On the other hand, the presence $t\text{-BuOH}$ in excess ($t\text{-BuOH}$ to CB ratio equal to 3920) reduced appreciably the dye removal, giving evidence that $\cdot\text{OH}$ contributes in the degradation process. Note that there was no recorded decrease in the initial CB concentration with 0.5 mM of periodate in the dark condition, which confirm the persistence of this pollutant toward direct oxidation by IO₄.

Besides, it is obviously seen that the proposed model excellently fitted the experimental data, either in the absence or in the presence of $t\text{-BuOH}$. The concentration profiles in both cases decrease exponentially with time, showing that first-order kinetics law is applicable. The pseudo-first order rate constant for CB removal is 0.1 s^{-1} at the simulated conditions, whereas those predicted and measured in the presence of $t\text{-BuOH}$ are 0.032 s^{-1} and 0.028 s^{-1} , respectively (the model deviates by only ~ 14 % for $t\text{-BuOH}$ results). Therefore, it can be concluded that the numerical model is accurate for modeling CB degradation in the photoactivated periodate system.

5.2. Rate constants determination

As reported early, many reaction rate constants have been optimized from the above best finding of the experimental data, using the genetic algorithm. The rate constants of the direct photolysis of periodate were $k_{\#1} = 1.17 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_{\#2} = 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, meaning that the free radical pathway (Eq. 1#: $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{O}^\bullet$) is predominately than the IO₃⁻-liberation route (Eq. 2#: $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$) for the direct photolysis of IO₄⁻, at the conditions of pH 7 and $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$ (i.e. $k_{\#1}/k_{\#2} = 5.85$). Yuan et al. [37,38] have determined the rate constants of direct H₂O₂ and S₂O₈²⁻ photolysis at 254 nm irradiation light. The obtained values were $1.16 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $1.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. Therefore, our fitting values for periodate photolysis (either for reaction (1#) or reaction (2#)) is higher than those determined for H₂O₂ and S₂O₈²⁻ photolysis, which is logical since the molar absorption coefficient of IO₄⁻ at 254 nm is higher than those of H₂O₂ and S₂O₈²⁻ ($\epsilon_{\text{IO}_4^-} = 540 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ [13], $\epsilon_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2} = 19 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\epsilon_{\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}} = 47.5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ [49]). The rate constant of reaction (7#): $\text{O}_3 + \text{IO}_3^\bullet \rightarrow \text{IO}_4^\bullet + \text{O}_2$ was predicted to be $1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is in the same order of magnitude to the reaction of ozone with many free radical species like $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Eq. 22#, $k_{\#22} = 1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [36]) and O₂^{•-} (Eq. 23#, $k_{\#23} = 1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [39]). In fact, it has been reported that IO₃[•] is highly reactive as comparable as hydroxyl radical [13,43]. Concerning the self-recombination of IO₄[•] (Eq. 37#): $2\text{IO}_4^\bullet \rightarrow \text{I}_2\text{O}_6$, its reaction constant is predicted to be $k_{37\#} = 4.68 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Streblow and Wagner [50] who studied the flash photolysis of periodate in aqueous solution have reported that the dimerization of IO₄[•] (Eq. 37#) is too fast, but they did not given its reaction constant. Additionally, the predicted value of $k_{37\#}$ is very comparable to that of IO₃[•]-dimerization: $2\text{IO}_3^\bullet \rightarrow \text{I}_2\text{O}_6$ whose $k_{36\#} = 5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [29,51]. In general, self-recombination of radicals is characterized by high second-order rate constants [9,36,52,53]. Finally, the rate constants of CB with, respectively, $\cdot\text{OH}$, IO₃[•], IO₄[•], O₂^{(3)\text{P}} and O₃ were found to be $k_{40\#} = 1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{41\#} = 2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{42\#} = 0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{43\#} = 0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_{44\#} = 0.574 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. In fact, azo dyes react with high second-order rate constants with $\cdot\text{OH}$, e.g. acid orange 7

($6.0 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [37]), methyl orange ($2 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [54]) and calmagite ($1.1 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [54]). On the other hand, redox potentials of iodine radicals (IO₃[•] and IO₄[•]) are not available in the literature, however, several recent studies confirmed that the reactivity of IO₃[•] with organics is comparable to that of $\cdot\text{OH}$ [13,43], therefore, a rate constant of $2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the reaction of CB with IO₃[•] is acceptable. Besides, the reactivity of IO₄[•] radical toward organic substrates is entirely unknown [43]; but, it has been hypothesised that the reaction of IO₄[•] with organic pollutants is very slow [13,23,32,43]. Thus, the value of $0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for its reaction with CB is in line with previous suggestions [13, 23,32,43,55]. In parallel, O₂^{(3)\text{P}} is not expected to play a noteworthy role due its negligible reactivity with minerals and organics [56], thus, the value of $0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with CB is reasonable to assume. Lastly, O₃ can react with CB, but with relatively low second-order rate constant ($k_{44\#} = 0.574 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). However, it is noted that the importance of each reactive species (RS) not only depends on the rate constant but also to its concentration in the reacting medium (i.e. rate = $k[\text{RS}][\text{CB}]$).

In sections examining the effect of pH and initial IO₄⁻ concentration, only $k_{\#1}$ and $k_{\#2}$ (specific rate constants of IO₄⁻ photolysis) will be optimized at given experimental profiles, whereas all other constants were maintained constants at values indicated in **Table 1**.

5.3. Concentration profiles of reactive species and degradation products

Figs. 2 (a)-(c) depict the simulated concentration profiles of different species during the aqueous oxidation of CB by UV/periodate process, for the same conditions of **Fig. 1**. The depletion of IO₄⁻ is accompanied by the formation of appreciable quantity of iodate (**Fig. 1(a)**), a transient formation of reactive species (**Fig. 2(b)**) and high levels of CB-degradation by-products (**Fig. 2(c)**). Ozone was also formed but at much low level than that of IO₃⁻. The O₃ concentration increased slowly with time achieving 20.7 μM after 600 s (**Fig. 1(a)**), which is in the same order of magnitude with the concentration measured by Chia et al. [13] ($\text{O}_3 \approx 20 \mu\text{M}$) during 4-chlorophenol (0.2 mM) degradation by UV/IO₄ process at 266 nm-irradiation light and 5 mM of IO₄⁻. Besides, H₂O₂ was not detected at significant concentration, i.e. 0.002 μM at 600 s (**Fig. 1(a)**), which is may be due to its rapid dissociation to yield $\cdot\text{OH}$ and other radicals. On the other hand, among the various radicals involved in the reaction scheme of **Table 1**, IO₄[•], $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO₃[•] were the main reactive species created during the photolysis of periodate (**Fig. 2(b)**). O₂^{•-} was also created but at much low extent than the other radicals ($\sim 10^{-13} \text{ M}$). Besides, while $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO₃[•] were formed at comparable concentrations, of the order $\sim 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ at steady point (after 30 s), IO₄[•] was produced at much higher concentration, $\sim 10^{-8} \text{ M}$ at steady. The concentration of IO₄[•] and $\cdot\text{OH}$ decreased rapidly after the steady concentration, but that of IO₃[•] continuous to increase with lower slope than that recorded at the initial period.

From **Fig. 2(c)**, it is seen that there is no degradation products come from direct reactions of IO₄[•] and O₃ with CB (IO₄[•]-prod and O₃-prod, Eqs. 42# and 44#), even though the concentrations of O₃ and IO₄[•] are dominant, which is due to the fact that the rate constants of these two reactions are inappreciable ($0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for IO₄[•] and $0.576 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for O₃). The same statement has been recorded for O₂^{(3)\text{P}}, whose the rate constant with CB is zero. However, the concentration profiles of $\cdot\text{OH}$ -prod and IO₃[•]-prod increased with time up to, respectively, 13 and 6 μM at 600 s (10 min), indicating that the degradation of CB was majorly driven by $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO₃[•]. The specific contribution of these two species in the overall degradation rate of CB can be calculated based on the selectivity equation (Eq. 13). The obtained values were 78 % and 21 % for $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO₃[•], respectively. The predicted IO₃[•] contribution, 21 %, is in line with that provided by the $t\text{-BuOH}$ experiment of **Fig. 1** (i.e. ~ 28 %). Addition of $t\text{-BuOH}$ at 100 mM could quench all $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals in the system; the remaining degradation was therefore mainly due to IO₃[•]. The calculated rate constant in the presence of $t\text{-BuOH}$ is $k_{\text{IO}_3^\bullet} = 0.028 \text{ s}^{-1}$. The ratio $k_{\text{IO}_3^\bullet}/k_{\text{overall}} = 0.028/0.1 = 0.28$, meaning that IO₃[•] contributes by about 28 % in the overall degradation rate of CB, and the residual contribution

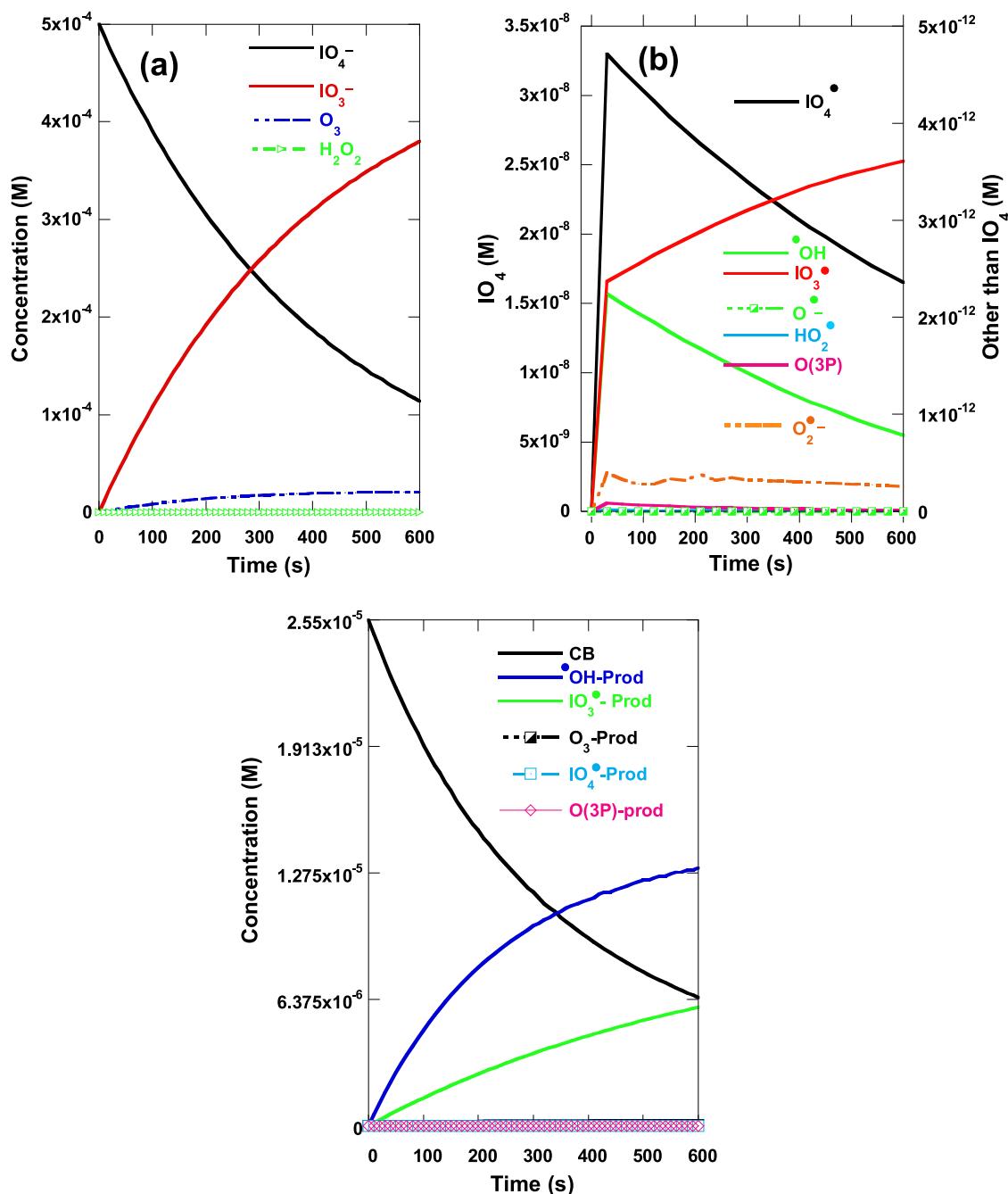


Fig. 2. Concentration profiles of different species during the aqueous oxidation of CB by UV/periodate process (conditions: $\text{C}_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $\text{pH}_i = 7$, $T = 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

(~ 72 %) was attributed to $\cdot\text{OH}$.

Although all earlier experimental studies agreed with the fact that the degradation mechanism of organic pollutants happens through free radical pathway, there is no unanimity about the main species driving the degradation route. The direct contribution of ozonation was excluded by N_2 purging during the photolytic process, i.e. N_2 purges dissolved- O_2 responsible for O_3 formation. The purging of N_2 did not show any effect on the degradation of 4-chlorophenol by the UV/periodate system [13]. In parallel, all experiment reports exclude the direct contribution of IO_4^\bullet due to the unavailability of reactivity data of IO_4^\bullet with organics [13,23,32,43]. Therefore, $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet have mostly reported to be the dominant oxidants implicated in the pollutant degradation by UV/periodate process [13–15,23,24,32–34,57]. Lee and Yoon [23] have reported that if no oxygen is present in the system, $\text{O}(3\text{P})$ can

react with water to produce $\cdot\text{OH}$ ($\text{O}(3\text{P}) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\cdot\text{OH}$), which could promote the degradation process. However, no improvement has been observed for the degradation of reactive black 5 with O_2 saturation, allowing authors to conclude that $\text{O}(3\text{P})$ does not play a significant role in the UV/periodate process. Nevertheless, the same reference has found a significant reduction in the degradation efficiency of reactive black 5 at pH 7 and 10 when t-BuOH is added in the reacting medium. This observation which has also been reported by other researchers for several pollutants [15–17,34,58–60] suggests that $\cdot\text{OH}$ plays an important role in the oxidative effect of UV/periodate system. Tang and Weavers [15] have reported that $\cdot\text{OH}$ was the major radical species involved in the degradation of three hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents. Therefore, our simulation findings agreed well with the experimental observations, with the further advantage of appreciating the

contribution of each radical in the overall degradation rate.

5.4. Effect of initial periodate concentration

In Fig. 3, the experimental and simulated CB-concentration profiles are shown for various initial periodate concentrations (0.1, 0.5, 1 and 5 mM), when the initial solution pH and temperature were 7 and 25 °C, respectively. As seen, both experimental and simulation results agree with the fact that higher IO_4^- concentration ensures higher degradation rate, with best fitting trend for all initial IO_4^- concentration. Such trend was largely reported in the available literature [14,23,24,33]. After 10 min, complete removal of CB was achieved for 5 mM of IO_4^- , against 89 % for 1 mM, 73 % for 0.5 mM and 44 % for 0.1 mM. The calculated pseudo-first order rate constants were 0.004 s^{-1} for 0.1 mM, 0.1 s^{-1} for 0.5 mM, 0.157 s^{-1} for 1 mM and 0.394 s^{-1} for 5 mM.

Fig. 4(a) shows the simulated effect of initial periodate concentration on its depletion during the oxidation of CB, for the same conditions of Fig. 3. As observed, the higher the IO_4^- concentration, the higher was the rate of its disappearance, following almost exponential decrease. The overall rate constant of periodate degradation is shown in Fig. 4(b) together with the fitted specific reaction rates of IO_4^- photolysis ($k_{1\#}$ and $k_{2\#}$). Firstly, the $k_{2\#}$ value was marginally affected by the periodate concentration, but that of $k_{1\#}$ does. This latter increased from $0.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for 0.1 mM of $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$ to $4.16 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for 5 mM of $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$. These results confirm that the initial photolysis of periodate happens via the free radical pathway of Eq. 1#: $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{O}^\bullet$, rather than the non-radical pathway of Eq. 2#: $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$, and this whatever $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$. Nevertheless, Fig. 4(b) also show that the overall first order rate constant of IO_4^- depletion (k_{overall} , calculated from Fig. 4(a)) is higher than the sum of the two specific rate constants ($k_{1\#} + k_{2\#}$), which indicates that periodate also depletes via other reactions than those of Eqs. 1# and 2#. In fact, the radical species created from reaction (1#) can directly react with periodate with higher rate constants (e.g. Eqs. (5#) and (6#) of Table 1). This parallel reaction scenario can be more pronounced at higher IO_4^- concentration as the gap between the curve of k_{overall} and that of $k_{1\#} + k_{2\#}$ is more observable at higher periodate dosages (Fig. 4(b)).

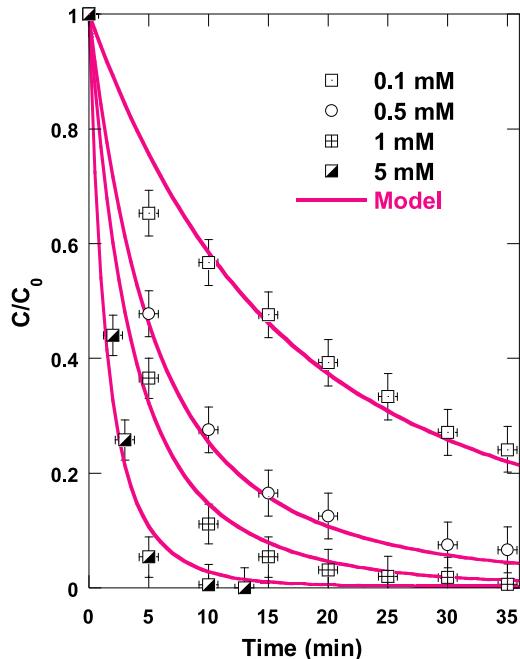


Fig. 3. Experimental and modeling effect of initial periodate concentration on the removal kinetics of CB (conditions: $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.1\text{-}5 \text{ mM}$, $\text{pH}_i 7$, $T = 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

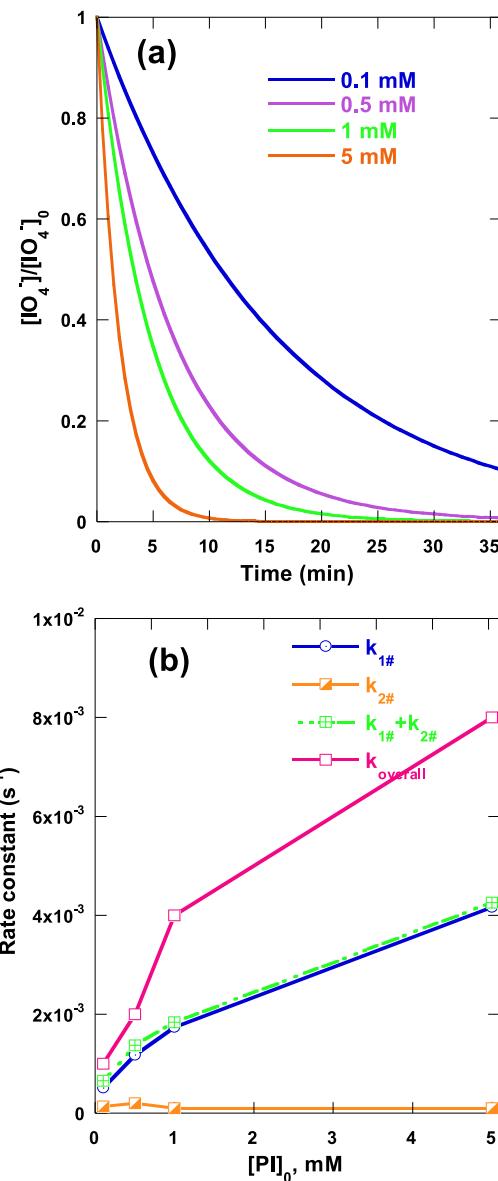


Fig. 4. (a) Predicted kinetics of IO_4^- depletion under various initial IO_4^- dosages, and (b) rate constants of periodate depletion upon the direct photolytic reactions (Eqs. 1# and 2# of Table 1) and that resulted over the overall UV/ IO_4^- system, for different IO_4^- dosages (conditions: $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.1\text{-}5 \text{ mM}$, $\text{pH}_i 7$, $T = 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$). PI in the x-axis of Fig. (b) means IO_4^- .

Figs. Fig. 5(a)-(d) show the simulated time evolution of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet concentrations as well as the products resulted from their direct reactions with CB (i.e. Prod- $\cdot\text{OH}$ and Prod- IO_3^\bullet), for the same condition of Fig. 3. The concentration of both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet increased with $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$ rise. At 30 s, values of 0.72×10^{-12} , 2.24×10^{-12} , 3.43×10^{-12} and $7.72 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ are recorded for $\cdot\text{OH}$ for, respectively, 0.1, 0.5, 1 and 5 mM of IO_4^- . The corresponding values of IO_3^\bullet are 0.91×10^{-12} , 2.37×10^{-12} , 3.65×10^{-12} and $9.55 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ for the same order of $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$. Thus, relatively higher concentration was observed for IO_3^\bullet than $\cdot\text{OH}$. In parallel, the concentration of Prod- $\cdot\text{OH}$ and Prod- IO_3^\bullet continuously increased with time, and the higher the $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0$ dose, the higher was the concentration of Prod- $\cdot\text{OH}$ and Prod- IO_3^\bullet . However, the rate of Prod- $\cdot\text{OH}$ formation is higher than that of Prod- IO_3^\bullet , due to the fact that the rate constant of CB with $\cdot\text{OH}$ ($k_{40\#} = 1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is higher than that of CB reaction with IO_3^\bullet ($k_{41\#} = 2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

Based on data of Fig. 3 and those of Fig. 5(c) and (d), the contribution of both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet in the overall degradation rate of CB was calculated

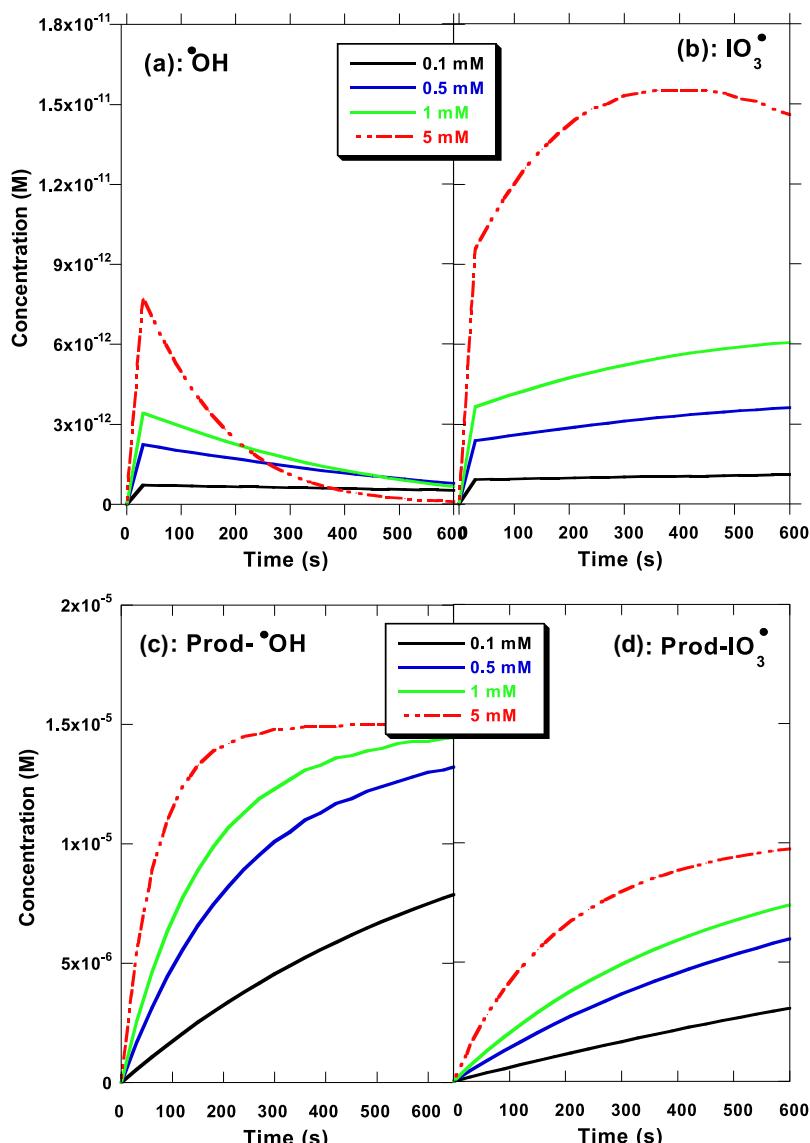


Fig. 5. Predicted concentration profiles of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet and their organic products, obtained from direct reactions of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet with CB, for various dosages of periodate, for the same conditions as in Fig. 3.

using the selectivity equations (Eq. (13)). The obtained results, depicted in Fig. 6, show that $\cdot\text{OH}$ participated majorly with about 75–79 % whereas the contribution of IO_3^\bullet is almost about 21 %. It is also noted that this distribution is practically independent of initial periodate concentration. It should be mentioned here that the concentrations of $\cdot\text{OH}$ -Prod and IO_3^\bullet -Prod at the initial stage of reaction (up to $t_{1/2}$) could not be influenced greatly by the involvement of the CB-degradation intermediates since throughout this period CB is in excess as compared to their reaction intermediates and so, the radicals quench by CB could be dominant. Above $t_{1/2}$, CB-intermediates can effectively be implicated in the radical pathway, but they did not affect the radicals distribution, which is calculated at the initial stage of treatment where only reaction of CB with radicals is suspected.

5.5. Effect of initial solution pH

Fig. 7 depicts the experimental and simulated degradation kinetics of CB for various initial solution pH (3, 5, 7 and 9), when $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$. Note that over the investigated range of pH, periodate exists as IO_4^- form [23]. The optimized values of $k_{1\#}$ and $k_{2\#}$ ensuring the best fit of the experimental degradation curves are given in Fig. 8(b). The

degradation rate of the pollutant decreased with pH increase. However, the pH effect is not important as that of IO_4^- concentration. The dye removal after 10 min decreased from 86.4 % at pH 3, 77% at pH 5, 73 % at pH 7 and 71 % at pH 9. The faster degradation rate at pH 3 has been reported in many studies for different pollutants, i.e. acid blue 25 [24] and Quinoline [34] and three hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents [14]. On the other hand, Tang and Weavers [14], who studied the degradation of thiadiglycol (TDG), 3,3-dithiopropanol (TDP) and 1,4-thioxane (TX) by UV/periodate (30 mM), indicated that faster TOC loss rates at pH 3 than pH 7 was obtained for the three compounds when $C_0 = 1 \text{ mM}$ and $[\text{IO}_4^-]_0 = 30 \text{ mM}$. However, slightly less TOC removals were observed at pH 10 as compared to pH 7. Bendjama et al. [33] have indicated that the degradation rate of chlorazol black in seawater decrease progressively with pH increase in the range 3–7. Therefore, our findings of Fig. 6 are in line with available data in the literature.

Under the best fitting condition of Fig. 7, the simulated concentration profiles of IO_4^- are illustrated in Fig. 8(a) for different pH, while the change in the overall pseudo-first order rate constant (k_{overall}) of IO_4^- depletion vs. pH is shown in Fig. 8(b), together with the specific rate constant of periodate photolysis ($k_{1\#}$ and $k_{2\#}$). The k_{overall} decreases progressively from $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pH 3 to $3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pH 5 and

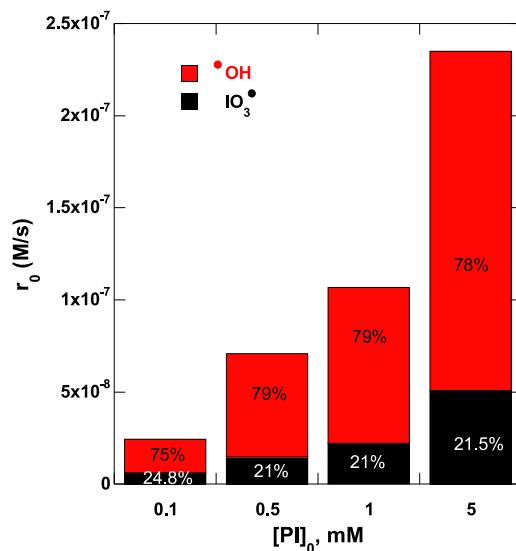


Fig. 6. Effect of initial periodate dosage on the contribution of •OH and IO₃[•] in the overall degradation rate of CB, for the same conditions of Fig. 3.

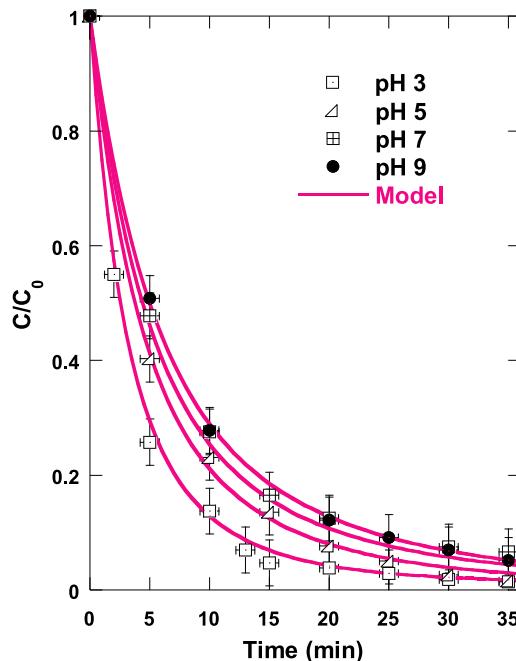


Fig. 7. Experimental and modeling effect of initial solution pH on the removal kinetics of CB (conditions: C₀ = 25.5 μM, [IO₄]₀ = 0.5 mM, pH_i 3-7, 25± °C).

$2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pH 7–9. $k_{2\#}$ was marginally affected by the pH change ($k_{2\#} \sim 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$), whereas $k_{1\#}$ decreased slightly from $1.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 3 to $1.03 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 9. The decrease in $k_{1\#}$ value in the pH range of 5–9 is very marginal. Besides, it is clearly seen that, over the investigated pH range, the k_{overall} is about twice of that of ($k_{1\#} + k_{2\#}$), confirming that reactions other than Eqs. 1# and 2# ($\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{O}^\bullet$ and $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^- + \text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$) participate by about the half in the rapid loss of periodate concentration (i.e. Fig. 7(a)) during the CB oxidation process by the UV/IO₄ system.

Figs. 9 (a)-(d) show the simulated effect of pH on the concentration profiles of the main oxidants and degradation products (•OH, IO₃[•], Prod-•OH and Prod-IO₃) created during the first 10 min (600 s) of reaction, under the condition of Fig. 7. In total accordance with the degradation results of Fig. 7, the concentration of •OH and IO₃[•] decreased

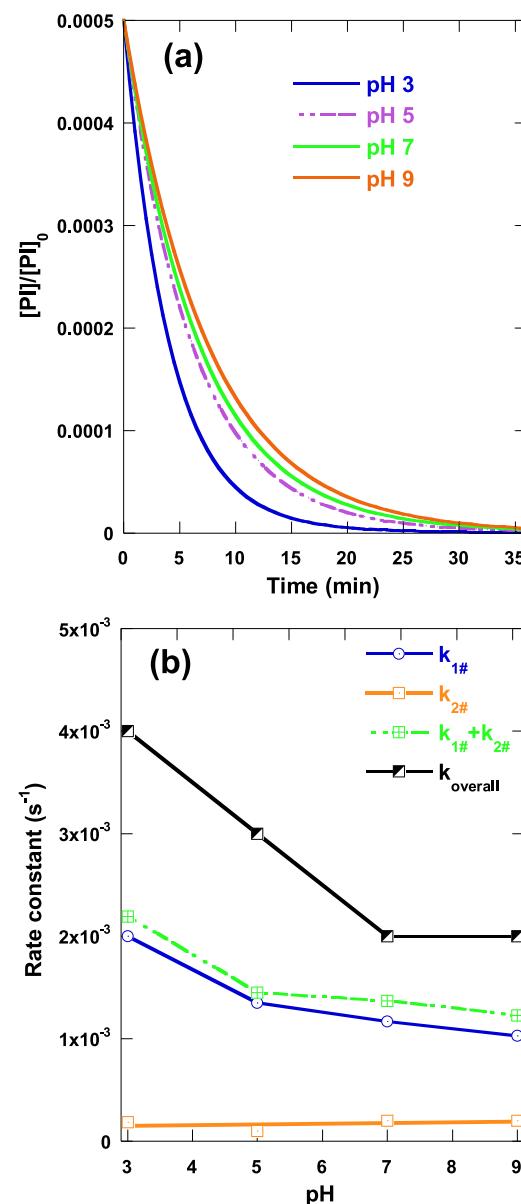


Fig. 8. (a) Predicted kinetics of PI depletion under various initial pH, and (b) rate constants of PI depletion upon the direct photolytic reactions (k_1 and k_2) and that resulted over the overall UV/IO₄ system, for various pH (conditions: C₀ = 25.5 μM, [IO₄]₀ = 0.5 mM, pH_i 3-7, 25± °C). PI in the y-axis of Fig. (a) means IO₄[•].

with pH rise. The •OH-steady concentration at 30 s is $3.72 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$, $2.58 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$, $2.24 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ and $1.99 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ for pH 3, 5, 7 and 9, respectively. Those of IO₃[•] at 30 s are relatively higher: $4.16 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ at pH 3, $2.75 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ for pH 5, $2.24 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ for pH 7 and $2.08 \times 10^{-12} \text{ M}$ for pH 9. Meanwhile, the production rate of Prod-•OH and Prod-IO₃ decreased when the pH increase, as stated in Fig. 9(c) and (d). It is also observed that the production rate of Prod-•OH is relatively higher than that of Prod-IO₃, which is the inverse trend of that observed for IO₃[•] and •OH evolutions (Fig. 9(a) and (b)). In fact, the formation rate of each product (r_i) depends on both the radical concentration [RS] and his reaction rate with the target contaminant (i.e. $r_i = k[\text{CB}][\text{RS}]$). The multiplication of [•OH], even less than that of [IO₃[•]], with [CB] could yield higher production rate because the rate constant of CB with •OH ($k_{40\#} = 1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is much higher than that of CB reaction with IO₃[•] ($k_{41\#} = 2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

Consequently, The increase in the degradation rate of CB with pH

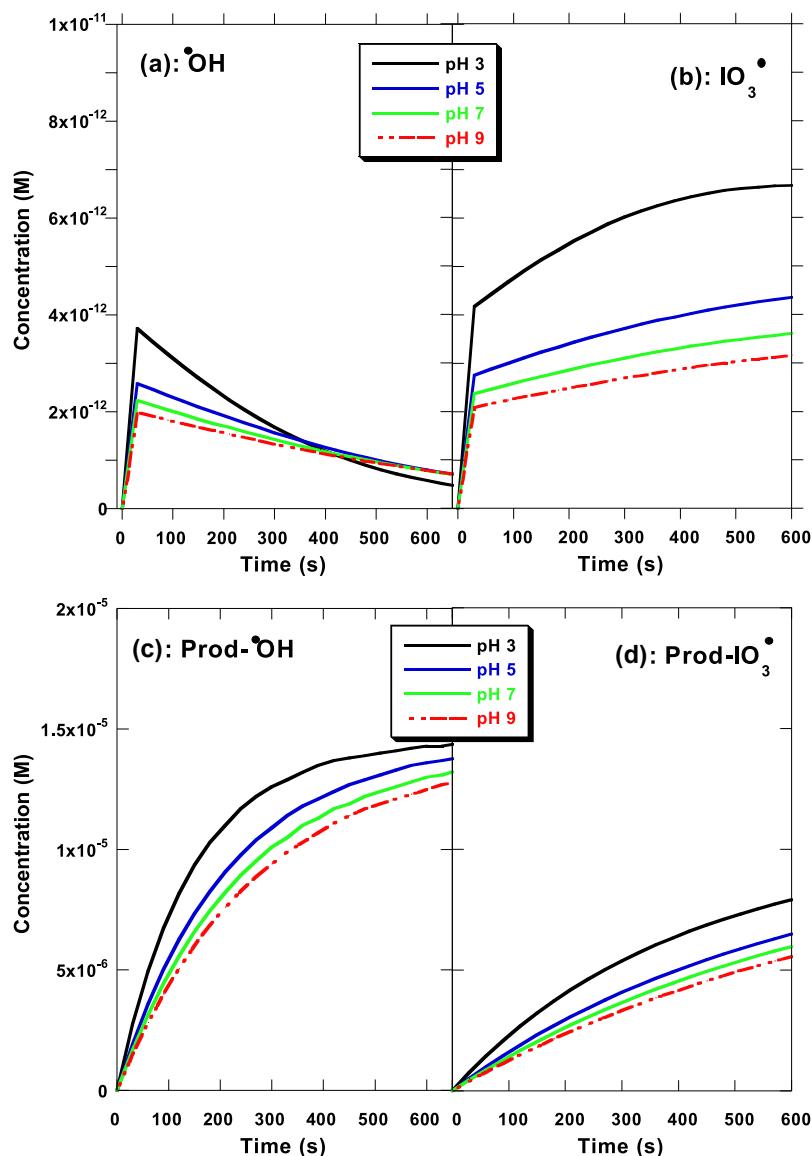


Fig. 9. Concentration profiles of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet and their organic products, obtained from their direct reactions with CB, for various solution pHs.

decrease in the range of 3–9 was due to the higher rate of periodate photolysis at lower pH, which yields higher production rates of free radicals, i.e. $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet . In fact, The first order rate constant of the reaction $\text{IO}_4^- + h\nu \rightarrow \text{IO}_3^\bullet + \text{O}^\bullet-$ decreased from $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 3 to $1.35 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 5, $1.17 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 7 and $1.03 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at pH 9 (Fig. 8(a)). The corresponding reductions in radicals production at higher solution pH was also confirmed, as in Fig. 9(a) and (b).

Fig. 10 depicts the calculated contribution of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet in the overall degradation rate of CB, as calculated by selectivity equations (Eq. 13), over the pH range of 3–9. Even though the overall degradation rate of CB decreased with pH increase, the contributions of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet is near constants, with a weightiness of $\cdot\text{OH}$ against IO_3^\bullet ($\sim 79\%$ for $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\sim 21\%$ for IO_3^\bullet).

6. Conclusion

In this study, a kinetics model has been developed to assess the reactive species generation, use and distribution during the oxidation of an azo dye (CB) by the UV/ IO_4^- emerging AOP. The dye removal was more favorable at higher initial periodate concentration and lower pH, and the model fits excellently the degradation kinetics data under the

different investigated cases. The second-order reaction rate constants of CB with the different reactive species (RS) were predicted based on the best obtained fitting. The most important ones are that of CB with $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet , which are $1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $2.63 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. Also, the specific reaction rate constants of periodate photolysis ($k_{1\#}$ and $k_{2\#}$) were determined for different pH and diverse periodate dosages. Their values varied between $(0.5\text{--}4.16) \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for $k_{1\#}$, whereas the $k_{2\#}$ value ($\sim 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$) was much lower than that of $k_{1\#}$ and is insignificantly affected by the operating condition. It was also found that among the various formed RS, only $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^\bullet played an important role in the CB degradation event. The selectivity studies revealed that the contribution of these species is around $\sim 79\%$ for $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\sim 21\%$ for IO_3^\bullet , under various conditions of pH in the range 3–9 and initial periodate concentration in the interval 0.1–5 mM. In conclusion, this work provides further understanding of the complex reaction mechanisms involved in UV/periodate advanced oxidation process, although further analysis such as the identification of the degradation by-products is still necessary for the process viability. This task, together with the toxicity analysis, will be conducted in the future. Ozone, iodate and periodate can also be found in the residual effluent. However, the concentration of residual ozone is very low (Fig. 2(a)), which make it not danger to the

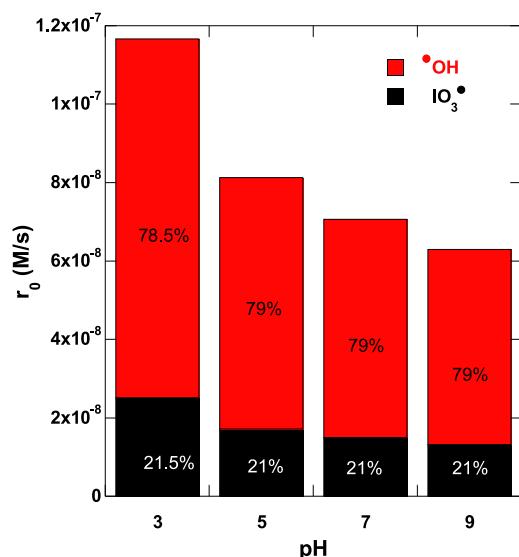


Fig. 10. Effect of initial solution pH on the contribution of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and IO_3^{\bullet} in the overall degradation rate of CB .

environment. Concerning periodate, it depleted after a short reaction time as shown in Fig. 4(a) and as demonstrated experimentally by Ghodbane and Hamdaoui [24] and Bendjama et al. [33]. Therfore, they could not exist at the end of the reaction treatment, specifically when low periodate concentration was initially used. On the other hand, there are no established environmental discharge requirements yet for peroxide and iodate, but their intrinsic toxicity (especially for iodate) may eventually restrict permissible levels for both species. Nevertheless, the concentrations of periodate used herein (< 1 mM) may be acceptable in some special wastewater treatment scenarios, as reported by Bokare and Choi [61].

Finally, reactions of some reactive species, i.e. IO_4^{\bullet} , $\text{O}^{(3)\text{P}}$ and O_3 , with CB are not functional due the strong persistence of CB toward these oxidants. To make our model more robust, further studies using other pollutant substrates which react efficiently with most reactive species are under preparation. In this connection, implicating further experimental data (i.e. concentration profiles of CB-degradation intermediates, periodate, iodate, ozone and hydrogen peroxide during the degradation of CB) to estimate the unknown rate constant can improve the quality of our developed model. Despite that, the present model has provided satisfactory tendency of CB degradation profiles for different experimental conditions. It was also able to interpret the effect of pH and periodate concentration, based on determining their impact on all radical -profiles.

Funding

This study was funded by The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research of Algeria (project No. A16N01UN250320180001) and the General Directorate of Scientific Research and Technological Development (GD-SRTD).

Author contribution

All authors contribute equally in the work.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research of Algeria (project No. A16N01UN250320180001) and the General Directorate of Scientific Research and Technological Development (GD-SRTD).

References

- S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, Sonolytic ozonation for water treatment: efficiency, recent developments, and challenges, *Curr. Opin. Green Sustain. Chem.* 18 (2019) 98–108, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogsc.2019.03.003>.
- F. Zaviska, P. Drogui, G. Mercier, J.-F.F.J.F. Blais, Procédés d'oxydation avancée dans le traitement des eaux et des effluents industriels: application à la dégradation des polluants réfractaires, *Rev. Des Sci. l'eau*. 22 (2009) 535–564, <https://doi.org/10.7202/038330ar>.
- S. Espuglas, D.M. Bila, L.G.T. Krause, M. Dezotti, Ozonation and advanced oxidation technologies to remove endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) and pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) in water effluents, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 149 (2007) 631–642, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2007.07.073>.
- M.A. Tarr, *Chemical Degradation Methods for Wastes and Pollutants*, Mark Dekker, Inc., New York, 2003.
- K. Guo, Z. Wu, J. Fang, UV-based advanced oxidation process for the treatment of pharmaceuticals and personal care products, in: Arturo J. Hernández-Maldonado, Lee Blaney (Eds.), *Contam. Emerg. Concern Water Wastewater*, Elsevier Inc., 2020, pp. 367–408, <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-813561-7.00010-9>.
- G. Boczkaj, A. Fernandes, Wastewater treatment by means of advanced oxidation processes at basic pH conditions: a review, *Chem. Eng. J.* 320 (2017) 608–633, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2017.03.084>.
- M.I. Stefan, *Advanced Oxidation Processes for Water Treatment: Fundamentals and Applications*, IWA Publishing, London, UK, 2017.
- M. Antonopoulou, E. Evangelidou, D. Lambropoulou, I. Konstantinou, A review on advanced oxidation processes for the removal of taste and odor compounds from aqueous media, *Water Res.* 53 (2014) 215–234, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2014.01.028>.
- P. Neta, R.E. Huie, A.B. Ross, Rate constants for reactions of inorganic radicals in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 17 (1988) 1027–1284, [https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/\\$21.00](https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/031027-258/$21.00).
- M. Sillanpää, M.C. Ncibi, A. Matilainen, Advanced oxidation processes for the removal of natural organic matter from drinking water sources: a comprehensive review, *J. Environ. Manage.* 208 (2018) 56–76, <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2013.829765>.
- J. Sharma, I.M. Mishra, V. Kumar, Degradation and mineralization of Bisphenol A (BPA) in aqueous solution using advanced oxidation processes: UV/H₂O₂ and UV/S₂O₈²⁻ oxidation systems, *J. Environ. Manage.* 156 (2015) 266–275.
- Q. Yang, Y. Ma, F. Chen, F. Yao, J. Sun, S. Wang, K. Yi, L. Hou, X. Li, D. Wang, Recent advances in photo-activated sulfate radical-advanced oxidation process (SR-AOP) for refractory organic pollutants removal in water, *Chem. Eng. J.* 378 (2019), 122149.
- L.H. Chia, X. Tang, L.K. Weavers, Kinetics and mechanism of photoactivated periodate reaction with 4-chlorophenol in acidic solution, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 38 (2004) 6875–6880, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es049155n>.
- X. Tang, L.K. Weavers, Using photoactivated periodate to decompose TOC from hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 194 (2008) 212–219, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2007.08.014>.
- X. Tang, L.K. Weavers, Decomposition of hydrolysates of chemical warfare agents using photoactivated periodate, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 187 (2007) 311–318, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2006.10.029>.
- M.-C. Wu, C.-H. Wu, Decolorization of C.I. Reactive red 198 in UV/oxidant and UV/TiO₂/oxidant systems, *React. Kinet. Mech. Catal.* 104 (2011) 281–290, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11144-011-0346-8>.
- C.H. Yu, C.H. Wu, T.H. Ho, P.K. Andy Hong, Decolorization of C.I. reactive black 5 in UV/TiO₂, UV/oxidant and UV/TiO₂/oxidant systems: a comparative study, *Chem. Eng. J.* 158 (2010) 578–583, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.02.001>.
- Y. Wang, C.S. Hong, Effect of hydrogen peroxide, periodate and persulfate on photocatalysis of 2-chlorobiphenyl in aqueous TiO₂ suspensions, *Water Res.* 33 (1999) 2031–2036, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354\(98\)00436-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(98)00436-9).
- A. Syoufian, K. Nakashima, Degradation of methylene blue in aqueous dispersion of hollow titania photocatalyst: study of reaction enhancement by various electron scavengers, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* 317 (2008) 507–512, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2007.09.092>.
- W.A.A. Sadik, A.W. Nashed, UV-induced decolorization of acid alizarine violet N by homogeneous advanced oxidation processes, *Chem. Eng. J.* 137 (2008) 525–528, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2007.05.018>.
- L. Ravichandran, K. Selvam, M. Swaminathan, Effect of oxidants and metal ions on photodefluoridation of pentafluorobenzoic acid with ZnO, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 56 (2007) 192–198, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2007.01.034>.
- S. Irmak, E. Kusvuran, O. Erbatur, Degradation of 4-chloro-2-methylphenol in aqueous solution by UV irradiation in the presence of titanium dioxide, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 54 (2004) 85–91, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2004.06.003>.
- C. Lee, J. Yoon, Application of photoactivated periodate to the decolorization of reactive dye: reaction parameters and mechanism, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 165 (2004) 35–41, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2004.02.018>.

- [24] H. Ghodbane, O. Hamdaoui, Degradation of anthraquinonic dye in water by photoactivated periodate, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 57 (2016) 4100–4109, <https://doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2014.988657>.
- [25] H. Bendjama, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Acetone photoactivated process: application to the degradation of refractory organic pollutants in very saline waters, *Water Environ. J.* (2019) 1–8, <https://doi.org/10.1111/wej.12507>.
- [26] H. Bendjama, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, UV-photolysis of Chlorazol Black in aqueous media: process intensification using acetone and evidence of methyl radical implication in the degradation process, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 368 (2019) 268–275, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2018.09.047>.
- [27] U.K. Klaning, K. Sehested, Photolysis of periodate and periodic acid in aqueous solution, *J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1 Phys. Chem. Condens. Phases.* 74 (1978) 2818–2838.
- [28] I. Wagner, H. Strehlow, Flash photolysis in aqueous periodate-solutions, *Ber. Bunsenges. Phys. Chem.* 86 (1982) 297–301, <https://doi.org/0005-9021/82/0404-0297S02.50/0>.
- [29] U.K. Klaning, K. Sehested, T. Wolfe, Laser flash photolysis and pulse radiolysis of iodate and periodate in aqueous solution, *J. Chem. Soc., Faraday Trans.* 77 (1981) 1707–1718, <https://doi.org/10.1039/F19817701707>.
- [30] F. Barat, L. Gilles, B. Hickel, B. Lesigne, Transient species in the pulse radiolysis of periodate ion in neutral aqueous solutions, *Chem. Commun.* 847 (1971) 847–848, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C29710000847>.
- [31] M.S. Subhani, R. Latif, Photolytic decomposition of the periodate ions in aqueous solution, *Pak. J. Sci. Ind. Res.* 35 (1992) 484–488.
- [32] L.K. Weavers, I. Hua, M.R. Hoffmann, Degradation of triethanolamine and chemical oxygen demand reduction in wastewater by photoactivated periodate, *Water Environ. Res.* 69 (1997) 1112–1119, <https://doi.org/10.2175/106143097X125849>.
- [33] H. Bendjama, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: case of chlorazol black, *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 126 (2018) 557–564, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>.
- [34] J. Saei, H. Shafiei, A. Amisama, Photo-activated periodate in homogeneous degradation and mineralization of Quinoline: optimization, kinetic, and energy consumption, *Environ. Prog. Sustain. Energy* 36 (2017) 1621–1627, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ep>.
- [35] A. Haddad, S. Merouani, C. Hannachi, O. Hamdaoui, B. Hamrouni, Intensification of light green SF yellowish (LGSFY) photodegradation in water by iodate ions: iodine radicals implication in the degradation process and impacts of water matrix components, *Sci. Total Environ.* 652 (2019) 1219–1227, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.183>.
- [36] G.V. Buxton, C.L. Greenstock, W.P. Helman, A.B. Ross, Critical review of rate constants for reactions of hydrated Electrons, hydrogen atoms and hydroxyl radicals (*OH/O[•]) in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 17 (1988) 515–886, [https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/020513-37\\$20.00](https://doi.org/0047-2689/88/020513-37$20.00).
- [37] R. Yuan, Z. Wang, Y. Hu, B. Wang, S. Gao, Probing the radical chemistry in UV/persulfate-based saline wastewater treatment: kinetics modeling and byproducts identification, *Chemosphere* 109 (2014) 106–112, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.03.007>.
- [38] R. Yuan, S.N. Ramjaun, Z. Wang, J. Liu, Concentration profiles of chlorine radicals and their significances in *OH-induced dye degradation: kinetic modeling and reaction pathways, *Chem. Eng. J.* 209 (2012) 38–45, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2012.07.127>.
- [39] D.M. Bulman, S.P. Mezyk, C.K. Remucal, The impact of pH and irradiation wavelength on the production of reactive oxidants during chlorine photolysis, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 53 (2019) 4450–4459, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b07225>.
- [40] B.H.J. Bielski, D.E. Cabelli, R.L. Arudi, Reactivity of HO₂/O₂ radicals in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data* 14 (1985) 1041–1100.
- [41] H. Bendjama, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Using photoactivated acetone for the degradation of Chlorazol Black in aqueous solutions: impact of mineral and organic additives, *Sci. Total Environ.* 653 (2019) 833–838, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.007>.
- [42] R. Edge, T. Truscott, Singlet oxygen and free radical reactions of retinoids and carotenoids—a review, *Antioxidants* 7 (2018) 1–16, <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox7010005>.
- [43] N.E. Chadi, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, H₂O₂/Periodate (IO₄⁻): a novel advanced oxidation technology for the degradation of refractory organic pollutants, *Environ. Sci. Water Res. Technol.* 5 (2019) 1113–1123, <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ew00147f>.
- [44] C. Liang, S. Huang, Kinetic model for sulfate/hydroxyl radical oxidation of methylene blue in a thermally-activated persulfate system at various pH and temperatures, *Sustain. Environ. Res.* 22 (2012) 199–208.
- [45] Copasi software Website, <http://copasi.org/>, (n.d.) last visite (08/11/2020).
- [46] J. Criquet, N.K.V. Leitner, N. Karpel, V. Leitner, Degradation of acetic acid with sulfate radical generated by persulfate ions photolysis, *Chemosphere* 77 (2009) 194–200, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2009.07.040>.
- [47] J. Criquet, N. Karpel, V. Leitner, Electron beam irradiation of aqueous solution of persulfate ions, *Chem. Eng. J.* 169 (2011) 258–262, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2011.02.025>.
- [48] J. Criquet, S. Allard, E. Salhi, C.A. Joll, A. Heitz, U. Von Gunten, Iodate and iodo-trihalomethane formation during chlorination of iodide-containing waters: role of bromide, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 46 (2012) 7350–7357, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es301301g>.
- [49] J. Fang, Y. Fu, C. Shang, The roles of reactive species in micropollutant degradation in the UV/free chlorine system, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 48 (2014) 1859–1868, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es4036094>.
- [50] H. Strehlow, I. Wagner, Flash photolysis in aqueous nitrite solutions, *Zeitschrift Fur Phys. Chemie Neue Folge*, Bd. 132 (1982).
- [51] F. Barat, L. Gilles, B. Hickel, B. Lesigne, E. Section, Pulsed RadioIysis and Flash Photolysis of iodates in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem.* 847 (1982) 302–307, <https://doi.org/10.1021/j100647a004>.
- [52] S. Padmaja, Z.B. Alfassi, P. Neta, R.E. Huie, Rate constants for reactions of SO₄^{•-} radicals in acetonitrile, *Int. J. Chem. Kinet.* 25 (1993) 193–198.
- [53] J. DE Laat, M. Stefan, UV/chlorine process, in: M.I. Stefan (Ed.), *Adv. Oxid. Process. Water Treat.*, IWA Publishing, London, UK, 2017, pp. 383–428.
- [54] S. Padmaja, S.A. Madison, Hydroxyl radical-induced oxidation of azo dyes : a pulse radiolysis study, *J. Phys. Org. Chem.* 226 (1999) 221–226.
- [55] N.E. Chadi, S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, Influence of mineral water constituents, organic matter and water matrices on the performance of the H₂O₂/IO₄⁻advanced oxidation process, *Environ. Sci. Water Res. Technol.* 5 (2019) 1985–1992, <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ew00329k>.
- [56] O. Amichai, A. Treinin, Chemical reactivity of O^{3(P)} atoms in aqueous solution, *Chem. Phys. Lett.* 3 (1969) 611–613.
- [57] M.H. Cao, B.B. Wang, H.S. Yu, L.L. Wang, S.H. Yuan, J. Chen, Photochemical decomposition of perfluorooctanoic acid in aqueous periodate with VUV and UV light irradiation, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 179 (2010) 1143–1146, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.02.030>.
- [58] H. Zhang, C. Fei, D. Zhang, F. Tang, Degradation of 4-nitrophenol in aqueous medium by electro-Fenton method, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 145 (2007) 227–232, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2006.11.016>.
- [59] H. Lee, H.Y. Yoo, J. Choi, I.H. Nam, S. Lee, S. Lee, J.H. Kim, C. Lee, J. Lee, Oxidizing capacity of periodate activated with iron-based bimetallic nanoparticles, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 48 (2014) 8086–8093, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es5002902>.
- [60] B. Gözmen, M. Turabik, A. Hesenov, Photocatalytic degradation of Basic Red 46 and Basic Yellow 28 in single and binary mixture by UV/TiO₂/periodate system, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 164 (2009) 1487–1495, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2008.09.075>.
- [61] A.D. Bokare, W. Choi, Singlet-Oxygen generation in alkaline periodate solution, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49 (2015) 14392–14400, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b04119>.
- [62] K. Sehested, H. Corifitzen, J. Holcman, C.H. Fisher, E.J. Hart, The primary reacton in the decomposition of ozone in acidic aqueous solutions, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 25 (1991) 1589–1596.
- [63] R. Zhang, P. Sun, T.H. Boyer, L. Zhao, C.-H. Huang, Degradation of pharmaceuticals and metabolite in synthetic human urine by UV, UV/H₂O₂ and UV/PDS, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49 (2015) 3056–3066, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es504799n>.
- [64] K. Guo, Z. Wu, C. Shang, B. Yao, S. Hou, X. Yang, W. Song, J. Fang, Radical chemistry and structural relationships of PPCP degradation by UV/Chlorine treatment in simulated drinking water, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 51 (2017) 10431–10439, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b02059>.
- [65] M.A. Oturan, N. Oturan, J.J. Aaron, Traitement des micropolluants organiques dans l'eau par des procédés d'oxydation avancée, *Actual. Chim.* 277–278 (2004) 57–63.
- [66] A.J. Elliott, G.V. Buxton, Temperature dependence of the reactions hydroxyl-superoxide and hydroxyl-hydroperoxy in water up to 200°C, *J. Chem. Soc., Faraday Trans.* 88 (1992) 2465–2470.
- [67] O. Amichai, A. Treinin, On the oxyiodine radicals in aqueous solution, *J. Phys. Chem.* 74 (1970) 830–835, <https://doi.org/10.1021/j100699a026>.
- [68] R.E. Buehler, J. Staehelin, J. Hoigne, Ozone decomposition in water studied by pulse radiolysis. 1. Perhydroxyl (HO₂)/hyperoxide (O₂) and HO₂/O₃ as intermediates, *J. Phys. Chem.* 88 (1984) 2560–2564, <https://doi.org/10.1021/j150656a026>.
- [69] J. Staehelin, J. Hoigne, Decomposition of ozone in water: rate of initiation by hydroxide ions and hydrogen peroxide, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 16 (1982) 676–681, <https://doi.org/10.1021/es00104a009>.
- [70] K. Sehested, J. Holcman, E. Bjergbakke, E.J. Hart, A pulse radiolytic study of the reaction hydroxyl + ozone in aqueous medium, *J. Phys. Chem.* 88 (1984) 4144–4147, <https://doi.org/10.1021/j150662a058>.

Annexe F

Chapter

REMOVAL OF EMERGING ORGANIC POLLUTANTS FROM SEAWATER USING PHOTOACTIVATED PERSULFATE

Slimane Merouani^{1,*}, Oualid Hamdaoui², Hafida Bendjama¹ and Mohammed Bouhelassa³

¹Department of Chemical Engineering,
Faculty of Process Engineering, University Salah Boubnider Constantine 3, Constantine, Algeria

²Chemical Engineering Department, College of Engineering,
King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

³The Taoufik Khaznadar National School of Biotechnology, Constantine, Algeria

* Corresponding Author's Email: s.merouani@yahoo.fr.

ABSTRACT

Sulfate radical-based advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have become emergent technologies for the destruction of emerging organic pollutants (EOPs) in water and soil. UV activation of persulfate generates both sulfate and hydroxyl radicals ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, $\bullet\text{OH}$) which are the most oxidizing species researched for water treatment. These radicals work together to make the destruction of EOPs very easy. The efficiency and, accordingly, the success of AOPs have generally been evaluated on the basis of degradation kinetics. In practice, chloride in saline wastewater is often found to inhibit degradation processes. Therefore, it is highly desirable to develop more effective processes which are not affected by chloride.

We herein show the potential application of UV/persulfate process for the degradation of EOPs in seawater, taking chlorazol black (CB) as a substrate model. CB is very persistent azo dye that is not only refractory to biodegradation but also toxic and mutagenic. This compound constitutes a factor of risk for the marine life. Firstly, the fast conversion of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ into dichlorine radical anion ($\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$) has been proven experimentally through radical probes technique. $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ was found to be the main oxidant implicated in the degradation of CB in seawater. Secondly, the impact of influencing factors such as initial persulfate and pollutant concentrations and solution pH was clarified. Besides, the influence of several surfactants on the process efficiency was elucidated. The process performance was found to be more efficient in acidic and neutral pH under relatively high concentration of persulfate (< 5 mM) and low concentration of CB. More interestingly, there was no significant difference between the degradation rate of CB in seawater and deionized water, meaning that $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, although less reactive than $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$, may have other promising properties that make its performance comparable to those of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$. In fact, $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ is more selective and has much longer lifetime than $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$.

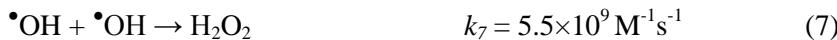
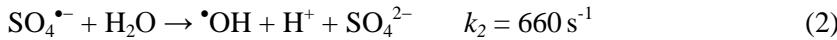
Keywords: seawater, emerging organic pollutants (EOPs), advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), UV/persulfate process, degradation, $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ radical

INTRODUCTION

The sea is usually the receptor of discharges and dumping wastes containing high concentrations of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) produced from the diverse anthropogenic and human industrial activities [1, 2]. Polychlorinated biphenyls, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, endocrine disrupting chemicals and synthetic dyes are among the various kinds of POPs detected in different marine environments [3–5]. Azo dyes are among the most notorious and widespread environmental pollutants associated with textile, food, cosmetic and leather industries [6]. They are characterized by an -N=N- azo bond in their molecular structure. Due to their high water solubility, their facile transportability and their high persistence [6], these compounds are of potential risks on human health and aquatic ecosystems. Dyes interfere with penetration of sunlight into seawater, retards photosynthesis, inhibits the growth of aquatic biota and interferes with gas solubility in water bodies [7]. Moreover, these contaminants are known or suspected as mutagenic and carcinogenic [8].

In situ chemical oxidation (ISCO) technologies utilizing persulfate have been increasingly applied for the remediation of contaminated soil and groundwater [9–11]. There are several techniques for persulfate activation into reactive $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals including heat, Fe^{2+} , UV, basic conditions ($\text{pH} > 11$), metal oxides, zerovalent metals, sonolysis, radiolysis, microwaves and organic compounds (e.g., quinones and phenols), and all these techniques were extensively employed in both laboratory research and field applications [12, 13, 22–29, 14–21]. However, each activation method has its pros and cons. For example, heat is an effective method for persulfate activation, but this technique suffers from potential high costs as the treated soil and groundwater must be heated continuously [30]. Fe^{2+} activation suffers from pH limitation as the process could be operated at low pH to prevent iron precipitation as hydroxides [30]. Basic activation operates with high pH level, which required higher quantity of bases and subsequent neutralization step.

UV light with $\lambda < 400$ nm is one of the most effective activators of persulfate for the remediation of soil and groundwater heavily contaminated by organic pollutants [18]. This technique is relatively low-cost and environmentally friendly, specifically when solar irradiation is employed [31, 32]. UV activation of persulfate has been found to provide an alternative for the destruction of organic contaminants including phenols [33, 34], perfluorocarboxylic acids [35, 36], dyes [37, 38] and endocrine disruptor chemicals [39]. A summary of the persulfate activation chemistry is given below [30, 40, 41]:



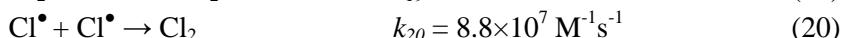
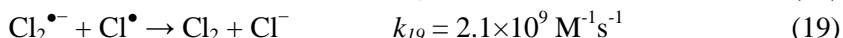
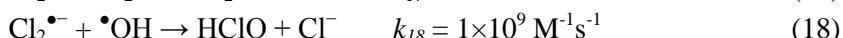
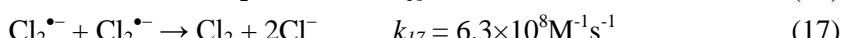
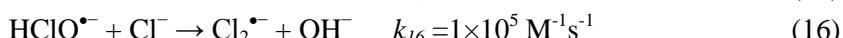
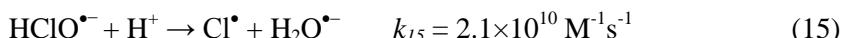
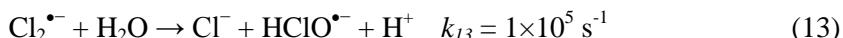
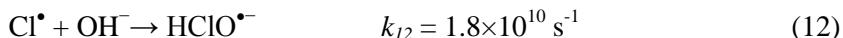
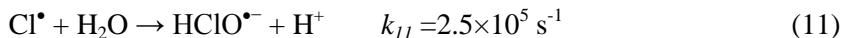
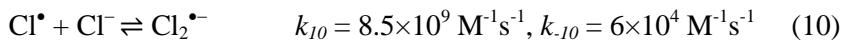
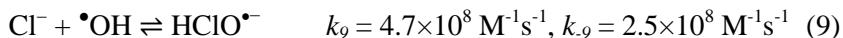
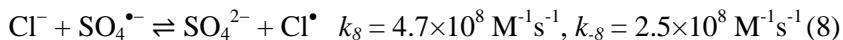
The degradation process proceeds with production of the sulfate and hydroxyl radicals, which is demonstrated experimentally by ESR spin trapping technique [42]. Sulfate ion will be generated as the end-product, which is practically inert and not considered to be a pollutant.

Although persulfate photochemistry in pure water has been widely investigated and has been relatively well elucidated, there are, until now, scarce data on the applicability of this technique in seawater contaminated with POPs, where the high salinity (~35 g/L) may inhibit or suppress the reaction of free radicals with target contaminants [43]. Also, the seawater may completely change the radicals distribution due to its high content of chloride.

The present investigation deals with the application of UV/persulfate process for the degradation of organic pollutants in seawater, taking chlorazol black (CB) dye, as substrate model of POPs. The specific physicochemical properties of chlorazol black are available in refs. [5, 44]. Chlorazol black is a highly water soluble azo dye which is widely used for various applications like dyeing of fabric, leather, cotton, cellulose materials and plastic [45]. It is an eye irritant chemical and is moderately toxic by inhalation and ingestion [46]. The carcinogenic and mutagenic effects of the dye towards humans and animals have been experimentally confirmed [46]. Additionally, laboratory experiments showed that CB is very persistent to direct oxidation with H_2O_2 , persulfate and periodate oxidants [5]. Therefore, any presence of this dye in seawater would have detrimental effects on aquatic life. Before proceeding, a succinct view on previous works conducted on the effect of chloride ions on the performance of the persulfate photoactivated process is given in the following section.

EFFICIENCY OF $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ -BASED AOPs IN SALINE WATERS

In sulfate radical-based AOPs, both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ coexist. These processes have been successfully applied for the degradation of recalcitrant contaminants in industrial wastewaters [30, 47]. However, as known, industrial effluents may contain large amount of mineral salts, specifically chloride ions (Cl^-), which are known as radical scavengers [48]. Chloride ions upon reactions with $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ may induce a radical-based chain reactions (Eqs. 8-20) allowing to form reactive chlorine species RCS, mainly Cl^\bullet , HClO^\bullet and Cl_2^\bullet , which may have a significant influence on the overall treatment efficiency of AOPs [40, 49–53].



Previous investigations have focused on the influence of Cl^- on the performance of UV/persulfate process. In most cases, the applicability of the process was evaluated by assessing the degradation efficiency in saline wastewater. Since the resulted RCS from the reaction of chloride ions with $\cdot\text{OH}$ or $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ are less reactive than the primary radicals, the involvement of Cl^- would mostly inhibit the radical reaction chains, thus significantly reducing the overall efficiency of the selected treatment process [30, 54]. Chen and Chu [55] have studied the degradation of atrazine by the activation of peroxyomonosulfate, and found that Cl^- exhibited inhibitory effects in the process; they deduced that the reason was likely due to the scavenging of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and the formation of weaker radical species such as

Cl^{\bullet} and $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$. Fang et al. [56] have reported insignificant effect of chloride addition for up to 300 mM on the degradation of four monochlorophenols by persulfate photoactivated, but several chlorinated aromatic intermediates were identified confirming the involvement of chlorine reactive radicals in the degradation pathway. Fang et al. [40] showed that the presence of chloride ions at 20 mM greatly inhibited the degradation of polychlorinated biphenyls; transformation by-products were monitored, confirming that Cl^- can react with $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet^-}$ to produce chlorine radicals, which react with biphenyl to generate chlorinated compounds. Additionally, a significant reduction in the degradation of 1,1,1-trichloroethane by heated activated persulfate was reported by chloride addition at 100 mM [54]. Merouani et al. [15] found that the effect of Cl^- on the degradation of safranin O in heated persulfate system was not significant when Cl^- concentration was below 50 mM.

In contrast, Anipsitaki et al. [23] observed faster degradation rate of phenol and 2,4-dichlorophenol due to the low amount of Cl^- in the cobalt/persulfate system. Yang et al. [37] reported that the destruction of an azo dye can be enhanced by Cl^- without catalyst, possibly resulting from the activation of persulfate with unsymmetrical structure.

Besides, a dual role of chloride ions has been recently reported. Wang et al. [57] found that the degradation of azo dyes by sulfate radical was significantly inhibited in the presence of Cl^- (0-10 mM), while the degradation of the dye was significantly enhanced for higher chloride ions concentration (>100 mM). The same trend has been reported by Yuan et al. [58,59] for the degradation of acid orange 7 by UV/persulfate and Co/persulfate processes.

Therefore, the different reported observations on the effect of Cl^- revealed that the importance of converting $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet^-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ into $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$ depend on the concentration and reactivity of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$ toward the target contaminant. If $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$ is not reactive toward the pollutant, the effect of Cl^- addition is detrimental toward the degradation process. If $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$ is reactive with the target substrate, the additions of low Cl^- concentration could reduce the degradation process via reducing the concentration of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet^-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ which are more reactive than $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$. However, using higher concentration of Cl^- could generate higher concentration of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet^-}$ which may compensate of the loss in $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet^-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ level in the solution.

Removal of Emerging Organic Pollutants from Seawater ...
**RADICALS DISTRIBUTION IN SALINE WATERS:
 KINETICS MODELING DATA**

7

To better understand the underlying mechanisms of radical generation and distribution in $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ -based AOPs in the presence of chloride, many authors have developed many kinetic models as a tool for predicting the effect of chloride ion on the types of radical species and their distributions.

The results of Fang et al. [40], reported in Figure 1, showed that chloride ion could influence the selectivity of radical species and their distribution, and increase the concentration of the sum of radical species. In the absence of Cl^- , $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ was the main radical species for $\text{pH} < 10$; above which $\cdot\text{OH}$ was predominated (Figure 1a). In the presence of Cl^- at 100 mM, $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ was the predominate radical species for $\text{pH} < 9$, while both $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{ClOH}^{\bullet-}$ coexist at alkaline conditions, i.e., $\text{pH} > 10$ (Figure 1b). Besides, distribution percentage of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ increased rapidly as Cl^- concentration increased, while that of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ decreased substantially (Figure 1c). When Cl^- concentration reached 100 mM, most of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ was converted to $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. The results suggested the rapid conversion of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ to $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. Even in the presence of 10 mM Cl^- , approximately 40% of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ was converted to $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$.

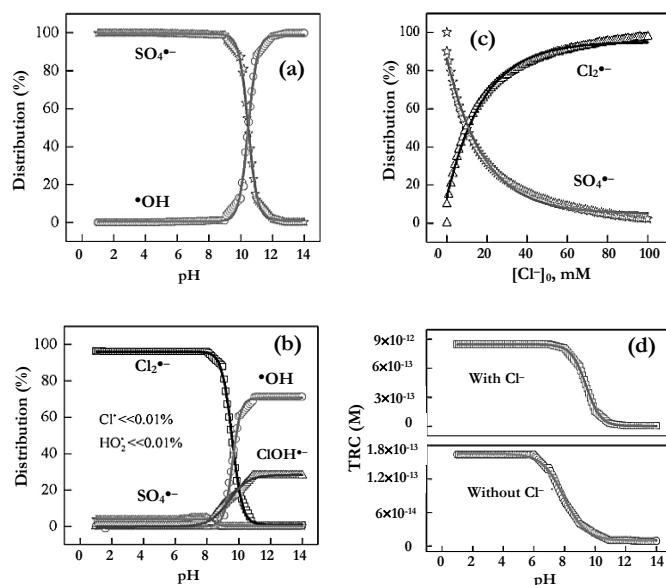


Figure 1. Effects of pH on the distribution of radical species in the absence (a)/presence (b) of Cl^- ($[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0 = 16.8 \text{ M}$; $[\text{Cl}^-]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$; 25°C), effects of Cl^- concentration on the distribution of radical species (c) and calculated total radical concentration (TRC) in the absence/presence of $[\text{Cl}^-]_0 = 100 \text{ mM}$ (d). Reprinted with permission from [40].

The total radical concentrations (TRC) were calculated in the presence and absence of chloride ion. As shown in Figure 1d, the TRC in the presence of 100 mM Cl⁻ was significantly higher than that without Cl⁻ (Figure 1d). As pH < 6, the TRC in the presence of Cl⁻ was fifty times larger than that in the case of absence of Cl⁻, and the TRC values with and without Cl⁻ ion were 8.8×10^{-12} and 1.6×10^{-13} M, respectively. This is ascribed to reactions (8) and (10) which favored the conversion of SO₄^{•-} into Cl₂^{•-} in the presence of Cl⁻, and increased the TRC.

In contrast, most of SO₄^{•-} in the absence of Cl⁻ was scavenged by reactions (4) and (6), resulting in reducing the TRC. When pH increased from 6 to 8, the TRC decreased rapidly in the absence of Cl⁻. As discussed in Figure 1a, the concentration of SO₄^{•-} decreased as pH increased to 8.0 due to reactions (4) and (6), while the TRC slightly changed in the presence of Cl⁻. This suggests that reactions (6) and (8) are not only related to their reaction constants, but also to their concentration, although the reaction rate constant of SO₄^{•-} with SO₄^{•-} (Eq. 6) is slightly higher than that with Cl⁻ (Eq. 8). The concentration of Cl⁻ was 100 mM, which was far greater than SO₄^{•-} concentration. Thus, the slight change in SO₄^{•-} had limited effects on reaction (8), and the TRC slightly changed as pH increased. At pH > 8, the TRC decreased rapidly in the presence of Cl⁻ due to reactions (12) and (17).

Similar radical distribution has been reported by Yuan et al. [58] whose used a kinetics model consisting in 76 reactions for simulating the degradation of acid orange 7 by UV/persulfate system in the presence of chloride ions for up to 500 mM.

The finding in Figure 1b indicated that the TRC was greatly increased in the presence of Cl⁻, which can explain some experimental results reported in previous studies. For example, Wang et al. [57] found that the degradation of azo dyes was greatly enhanced in the presence of high concentration of Cl⁻ (> 50 mM), and attributed this to a dual effect of chlorine and sulfate radicals for azo dyes degradation. Theoretically, if SO₄^{•-} is completely converted to Cl₂^{•-}, the degradation of organic pollutants should be inhibited due to the lower reactivity of Cl₂^{•-}. However, in Wang's study, they observed that the degradation of azo dyes was enhanced in the presence of high Cl⁻ concentration (> 50 mM). This is due to the fact that the total radical concentrations increased in the presence of Cl⁻. Although its reactivity is less than that of sulfate radical, its concentration was greatly increased under these conditions. Thus, the degradation rate of organic pollutants increases in the presence of high concentration of Cl⁻. Similarly, the results presented in Figure 1 could also explain Yuan's experimental results [59].

EXPERIMENTAL

Seawater of the Mediterranean Sea (collected from the north-East of Algeria in the autumn of 2019) has been used as water matrice. Its salinity was of $\sim 35.7 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, distributed as $\text{Na}^+ \approx 11 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $\text{Mg}^{2+} = 1.3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $\text{Ca}^{2+} \approx 0.4 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $\text{Cl}^- \approx 20 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{2-} = 3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$. Chlorazol black degradation experiments were conducted in the setup described early [60]. It consists in a cylindrical water-jacketed glass cell of 500 mL. The operating solution volume was 250 mL. A low-pressure mercury lamp (Oriel 6035, 15 mW cm⁻²) emitting maximum irradiation at 253.7 nm was mounted in a quartz tube and submerged vertically in the center of the solution. A thermocryostat (RC6 Lauda) has been used to maintain the temperature of the treated solution at $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ through flowing water at 23°C in the jacket surrounding the cell.

During irradiation, the temperature of the magnetically stirred solution, was displayed by a thermocouple submerged in the solution. A pH-meter Jenway 3505 was used to measure and adjust the solution pH. The dye concentration was determined spectrophotometrically at $\lambda_{\max} = 578 \text{ nm}$ as described in refs. [5, 60]. Runs were repeated at least 3 times and averages values were plotted (error bars ensuring the maximum deviation of the means were inserted in plots).

EFFICIENCY OF UV/PERSULFATE PROCESS IN SEAWATER: CB DEGRADATION

CB degradation runs in seawater upon UV and UV/persulfate treatments have been conducted at pH 3 and ambient temperature of about 25°C , for various initial persulfate dosages in the range of 0.1 to 5 mM. The degradation results, reported in Figure 2a, obviously demonstrated the super advantage of the combined process against the treatment with the UV sole. Complete removal of CB was achieved after 20 min with UV irradiation in the presence of 5 mM of persulfate; the time at which only 22% of CB was removed with the sole UV irradiation. The degradation rate increased with increasing initial persulfate loading in the solution. At 20 min, the removal efficiency increased from 29% for 0.1 mM of persulfate to 55%, 76%, 90% and 100% for 0.5, 1, 2 and 5 mM of

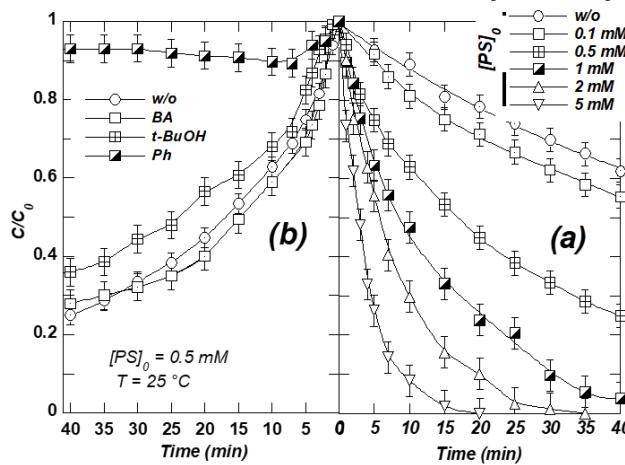


Figure 2. (a) CB degradation kinetics for various PS dosages and (b) radical scavenger tests for 0.5 mM persulfate using Benzoic acid (BA), tert-butanol (t-BuOH) and phenol (Ph) (conditions – $C_0 = 25.5\text{ }\mu\text{M}$, pH 3, $[t\text{-BuOH}]_0 = 100\text{ mM}$, $[\text{BA}]_0 = [\text{Ph}]_0 = 1\text{ mM}$, $\sim 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

persulfate, respectively. Note that there was no CB removal with persulfate in the absence of UV over the same concentration range of persulfate, i.e., $0.1\text{--}5\text{ mM}$. Therefore, the rise in the persulfate dosage could increase the RCS concentration, which makes the degradation faster.

Many studies conducted in deionized water have reported the existence of certain optimum persulfate dosage above which the degradation rate was detrimentally affected by persulfate due to the radicals-quench by the excess of persulfate (Eqs. 4 and 5) or by the radicals quench by themselves (Eqs. 6 and 7) at higher RCS concentration in the solution [15–17]. This scenario was not obtained for the case of seawater, which is may be attributed to the fact that (i) the maximum dosage of persulfate in Figure 2a did not yet achieving a higher level for becoming a radicals-quencher in the solution or (ii) the reaction of persulfate with RCS is not efficient as those of persulfate with $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ which diminishes the impact of higher persulfate dosage on radicals consumption. On the other hand, the radical-radical recombination reactions are too fast for $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ (Eqs. 6 and 7) than those of RCS (Eqs. 17 and 20). Therefore, the detrimental concentration of persulfate in deionized water could be much lesser than that required in seawater.

EVIDENCE OF RCS IMPLICATION

As illustrated early, the reactive species $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and RCS (Cl^\bullet , HOCl^\bullet and $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$) may all be formed in seawater irradiated by UV light in the presence of persulfate. The contribution of these radicals in the overall CB degradation rate was evaluated using some specific radical scavengers, namely, benzoic acid (BA), *tert*-butanol (*t*-BuOH) and phenol (Ph). Table 1 shows the reactivity of these three scavengers with $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, $\cdot\text{OH}$, Cl^\bullet and $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. Ph can scavenge all radicals; it has been used for confirming the radical pathway for CB degradation in seawater. *t*-BuOH can scavenge $\cdot\text{OH}$ and Cl^\bullet but its scavenging effect on $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ is negligible. *t*-BuOH was used for appreciating the global role of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-} + \text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$. BA can efficiently scavenge $\cdot\text{OH}$, $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and Cl^\bullet but its scavenging effect on $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ is negligible. It has been then used to determine the contribution of the sole $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$.

Table 1. Second-order rate constant between scavengers and radicals in the UV/persulfate system [30,61,62]

Radicals	Benzoic acid (BA)	<i>t</i> -butanol (<i>t</i> -BuOH)	Phenol (Ph)
$\cdot\text{OH}$	$1.8 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$6.6 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$	$1.2 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$8.9 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$8.8 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
Cl^\bullet	$1.8 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$3 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$(0.8-2.5) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
$\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$	$(0.2-1.8) \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$0-700 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$(2.5-5) \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Figure 2b shows the influence of the three radical scavengers on the removal kinetics of 25.5 μM of CB in seawater. The initial concentrations of scavengers were 100 mM for *t*-BuOH and 1 mM for BA and Ph. These doses were selected to ensure high excess of these scavengers against the dye pollutant, i.e., $[\text{i-BuOH}]_0/[\text{CB}]_0 \sim 3920$ and $[\text{Ph}]_0/[\text{CB}]_0 \sim 40$. Phenol addition drastically inhibits the CB removal; i.e., more than 90% of CB was remained in the solution for up to 40 min of reaction. Thus, CB degradation happens mainly through radical pathway. Besides, *t*-BuOH addition reduces the dye removal after 40 min by only about 10%, revealing that both $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ can take place in the degradation of CB by the UV/persulfate in seawater. However, the dye removal was totally unaffected by BA addition, meaning that $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ plays the dominant role in the degradation of CB by the UV/persulfate in seawater. This distribution of radicals consists with that furnished by the simulation results of Figure 1b where the concentration of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ is dominated over all other radicals in saline water containing 100 mM of chloride ions, i.e., the typical concentration in seawater is 565 mM.

For deionized water, Liang and Su [63] have researched active radical species formed by thermally activated persulfate in deionized water under various pH conditions using a chemical probe method. Their results revealed that $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ is the predominant radical oxidant at $\text{pH} < 7$. Both $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ are present at neutral pH, and $\bullet\text{HO}$ is the predominant radical at more basic pH ($\text{pH} > 9$). Alternative spectroscopic method (ESR spin trapping) [64] also demonstrated that the predominant radical species at different pH conditions in the persulfate activated system are similar to those reported by the chemical probe method. Therefore, when Cl^- is present at huge quantity as in seawater, i.e., 565 mM, the rate of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ consumption by Cl^- to yield Cl^\bullet (Eq. 8) could be several orders of magnitude higher than that of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ reaction with the dye pollutant, specifically at pH 3. Thus, $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ could have a low chance to react with CB.

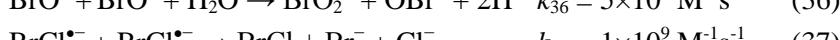
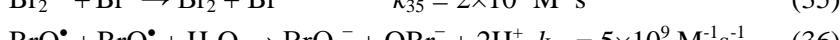
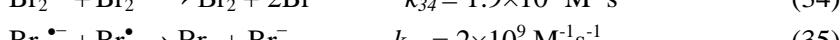
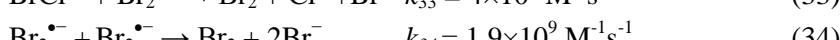
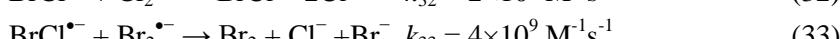
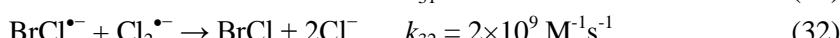
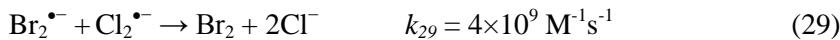
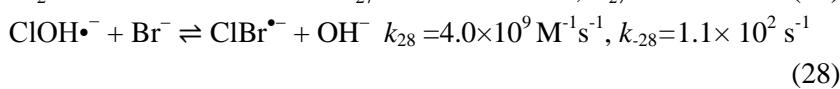
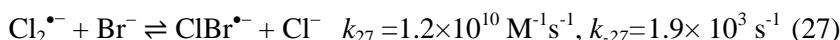
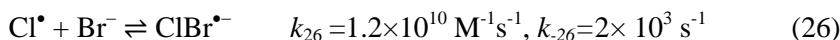
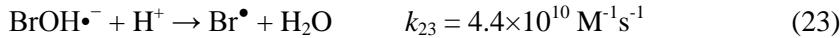
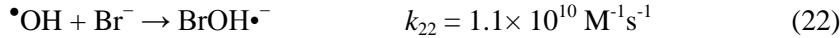
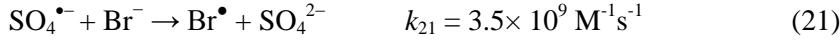
Besides, the resulted Cl^\bullet radical may conduct four main reaction pathways: (i) fast reaction with Cl^- to produce $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ (Eq. 10), (ii) rapidly hydrolyzed to generate the $\text{HClO}^{\bullet-}$ radical anion (Eq. 11), (iii) radical recombination with themself (Eq. 20) or (iv) reaction with CB to induce degradation. The rate constant of pathway (i), i.e., $8.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, is much higher than those of all other pathways [$2.5 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pathway (ii) and $8.8 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pathway (iii)], assuming that its rate constant with CB is of the order of $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [50]. Therefore, Cl^\bullet could principally be consumed via pathway (i) and, hence, its implication in the degradation process is insignificant. In fact, a lifetime of less than 5 μs was estimated for Cl^\bullet , against fractions of milliseconds for $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ [65]. Accordingly, the contribution of $\text{HClO}^{\bullet-}$ can also be neglected, as it is unreactive with synthetic dyes [58].

Consequently, the present radical scavengers studies revealed that CB degradation by UV/persulfate in seawater was mainly driven by $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, generated from reactions associated to the photolysis of persulfate in seawater.

ROLE OF BROMIDE IONS

Seawater contains bromide ions at $\sim 1 \text{ mM}$, which means that bromide reaction chain may also be produced from reactions of bromide-containing seawater with $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}/\bullet\text{OH}$ and their associate reactions (Eqs. 21-37), where many brominated reactive species, i.e., BRS: Br^\bullet , $\text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$ and $\text{HBrO}^{\bullet-}$, and other Cl^-/Br^- mixed radicals have been suspected to be generated [41, 51, 66–68]. However, given that the Cl^- concentration in seawater is 565 folds much higher than that of Br^- (565 mM for Cl^- against 1 mM for Br^-), the Br-radical pathway is not suspected as all of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}/\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals would be scavenged by chloride, favoring the predominance of CRS instead BRS. Besides, reactions between RCS and Br^- ,

i.e., like those of Eqs. 26-28, are also possible but their happening in seawater is also unsuspected due the same previous reason; RCS could preferably react with the Cl^- rather than with Br^- due to the high excess of the former.



OVERALL EFFECT OF SEAWATER SALINITY

To appreciate the overall impact of the seawater salinity on the process performance, CB degradation runs upon UV and UV/persulfate processes was assessed in two matrices: deionized water and seawater, and the results are shown in Figure 3. The photochemical removal of the dye was appreciably reduced in seawater, as compared to the pure water; i.e., a 15% of reduction was remarked. This is in fact due to the salts-induced light attenuation, in which the seawater acts as light screens, thus reducing the photon receiving efficiency and, subsequently, shrinking the degradation rate of the pollutant [69]. However, for UV/persulfate process, the difference in the removal yields is much lower,

i.e., ~7%, than that obtained by the photochemical treatment. This means that the generated RCS, although less reactive than $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$, can compensate of the lower UV treatment in the seawater via the generation of high concentration of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, which has a longer lifetime than $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$. Thanks to these benefic specifications of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, the seawater can be regarded as a strong oxidation environment of organic pollutants when applying UV/persulfate as a decontamination process. Consequently, the higher concentration of salts containing in seawater, i.e., mainly Cl^- , could be helpfully for oxidizing persistent organic pollutants in marine media.

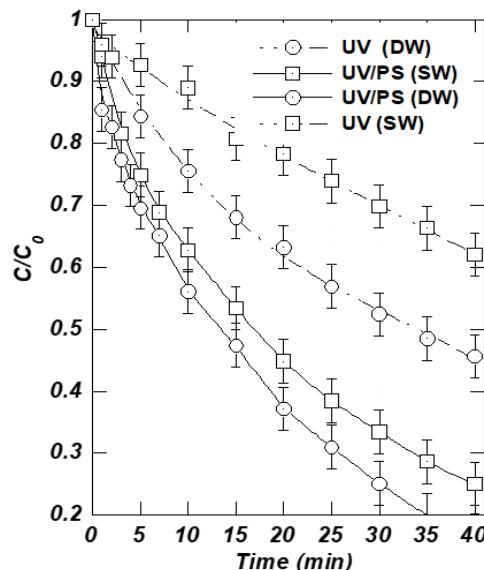


Figure 3. CB degradation kinetics in seawater (SW) and deionized water (DW) upon sole photolysis (UV) and UV/PS system (conditions – $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3, $\sim 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

IMPACT OF SOLUTION pH AND POLLUTANT CONCENTRATION

A series of degradation experiments in seawater has been conducted by varying pH from 3 to 9 and initial CB concentration in the range of 3.37–63.75 μM . The application of UV/persulfate process for decontaminating seawater was not affected by pH elevation in the range of 3 to 7, while a reduction in the degradation rate is looked at pH 9, but only after an advanced reaction period of 10 min (Figure

4a). This latter reduction was due to an observed precipitation phenomenon, which was taken place at basic medium.

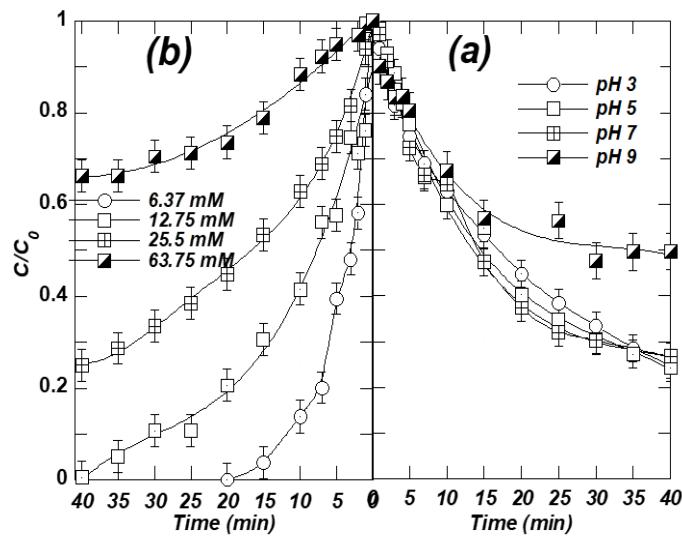


Figure 4. CB degradation kinetics for different pH (a) and various initial CB concentration (b) (conditions – $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$ for (a), pH 3 for (b), $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $\sim 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

In deionized water, the solution pH affects the radicals distribution in the reacting medium [42,63]. ESR spin trapping studies during photolysis of persulfate showed that $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ is the main product species at $\text{pH} < 8.5$. For $\text{pH} > 8.5$, $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ decays rapidly into $\cdot\text{OH}$ via reaction (2) and only $\cdot\text{OH}$ was detected for $\text{pH} > 10.8$ [42]. Alternative chemical probes method in heat activated persulfate system revealed that $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ is the predominant radical oxidant at $\text{pH} < 7$; both $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ are present at neutral pH, and $\cdot\text{OH}$ is the predominant radical at more basic pH ($\text{pH} > 9$) [63]. However, the above distribution was completely modified in seawater as stated in Figure 1, where the $\text{Cl}_2^{\cdot-}$ becoming the dominant radical species in the solution for pH 1–9. Therefore, as $\text{Cl}_2^{\cdot-}$ was the sole radical oxidant implicated in the degradation of CB, the pollutant removal rate could insignificantly be changed with the solution pH in the interval of 3–8. Consequently, the photoactivated persulfate process could be efficiently operable for seawater treatment under acidic to neutral pH-conditions.

On the other hand, the efficiency of CB removal at 20 min decreased from 100% for $6.37 \mu\text{M}$ of initial CB concentration to 80% for $12.75 \mu\text{M}$, 55% for $25.5 \mu\text{M}$ and 27% for $63.75 \mu\text{M}$, as reported in Figure 4b. The process is then more efficient for low pollutant concentration in which a shorter

treatment time is required. Meanwhile, the initial degradation rate increased from $0.77 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for $6.37 \mu\text{M}$ of CB to $1.1 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for $12.75 \mu\text{M}$, $1.27 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for $25.5 \mu\text{M}$ and $1.4 \mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ for $63.75 \mu\text{M}$. These results are in good agreement with those reported in deionized water for several $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ -based AOPs [15–17]. The rise of initial degradation rate with initial CB concentration is not linear, as expected for a first order kinetics law. Therefore, the degradation of organic pollutants in seawater with the UV/persulfate could not be represented with a pseudo-first order kinetics law, as reported for many cases of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ -based AOPs conducted in deionized water [21, 54, 70, 71].

The augmentation of the degradation rate with augmenting the initial pollutant concentration could be associated to the following reasons: at fixed irradiation intensity and initial persulfate dosage, the overall production rate of reactive radicals, i.e., $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, could be constant. Hence, with increasing the initial pollutant concentration, the portion of radicals that could be scavenged by the pollutant molecules increases, thereby accelerating the destruction rate of contaminants [5, 7, 15, 17, 60, 72, 73].

IMPACT OF SURFACTANTS

Surfactants are usually used as additives in dyeing processes and are widely discharged along with the dye effluents [15]. It is of practical point to test their impact on the efficiency of UV/persulfate process in seawater. The effect of four surfactants (SDS ‘sodium dodecyl sulfate’, Tween 20, Tween 80 and Triton X-100) on the degradation of CB by photoactivated persulfate in seawater was investigated at pH 3 by fixing persulfate dosage at 0.5 mM . SDS, Tween 20, and Tween 80 did not affect the CB degradation rate, whereas the process losses more than 50% of its efficiency in the presence of Triton X-100, as highlighted in Figure 5. The dye removal after 40 min of treatment decreased from 73% without surfactant to 55% and 38% in the presence of Triton X-100 at 20 and 80 mg L^{-1} , respectively. It seems that the reactivity of $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$ radical is strongly affected by this type of surfactant. This radical is very selective for olefins and aromatics containing hydroxyl or amino groups [61, 74, 75].

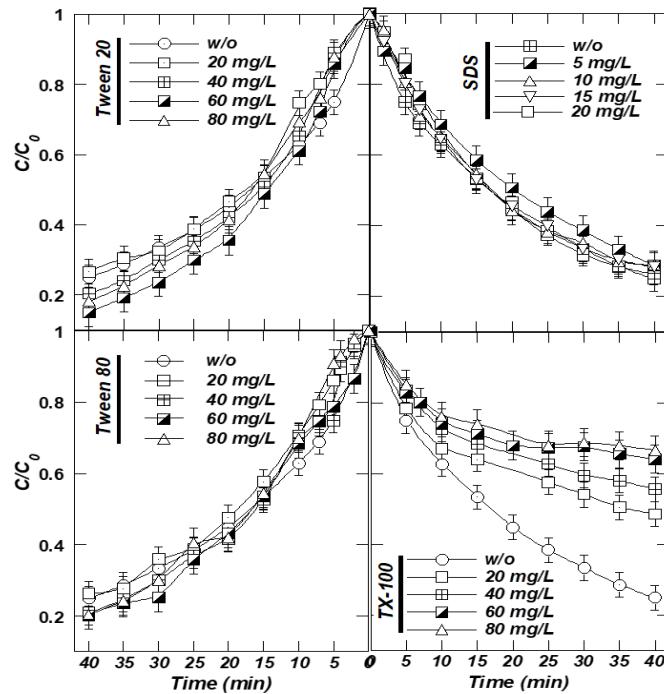


Figure 5. Effect of different surfactants on the removal kinetics of CB in seawater upon UV/persulfate treatment (conditions – $C_0 = 25.5 \mu\text{M}$, pH 3, $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $\sim 25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

Conversely to these results, Tween 20 and Tween 80 at 80 mg L⁻¹ have reduced the dye elimination in deionized water by about 10–15%, while Triton X-100 accelerated the process performance by about 15%, both as compared to runs performed without surfactants. Thus, the water matrix affects sensitively the performance of the UV/persulfate process through changing the radicals distribution in the reacting system. In general, surfactants can scavenge both $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$, thereby decelerating the process efficiency in deionized water [17, 76–79]. However, the $\text{Cl}_2^{\cdot-}$ radical is strongly affected by the nature of the surface-active solute [5, 61, 75, 80].

CONCLUSION

Sea has historically been subject to high anthropogenic weights of direct and indirect discharges of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) from exhaustive industrial and agricultural activities. The findings of this study showed that UV/persulfate oxidation process can supply a good performance toward the degradation of POPs in seawater. The high quantity of chloride ions existing in seawater exerts a conversion of radicals, in which $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ were totally converted into $\text{Cl}_2^{\bullet-}$, which has a longer life time than the primary radicals formed during persulfate photoactivation. The degradation rate of CB by UV/persulfate was drastically improved as compared to the sole UV irradiation, due to the involvement of free radical pathway. The degradation rate increased with the increase in persulfate dosage whereas low dye concentrations favor a quick removal rate. UV/persulfate process can be practicable in seawater for up to pH 7. Interestingly, many surfactants did not affect the degradation of the dye, making persulfate photoactivated treatment a promising method for treating seawater contaminated with emerging organic pollutants.

REFERENCES

- [1] M. Quante, R. Ebinghaus, G. Flosser, Persistent pollution – past, present and future, Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, Ber, 2011.
- [2] Berrojalbiz, N., J. Dachs, S. Del Vento, M. Jos, M.C. Valle, J. Castro-jim, G. Mariani, J. Wollgast, G. Hanke, Persistent organic pollutants in mediterranean seawater and processes affecting their accumulation in Plankton, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 45 (2011) 4315–4322.
- [3] Jain R. M., K. H. Mody, J. Keshri, B. Jha, Biological neutralization and biosorption of dyes of alkaline textile industry wastewater, *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 84 (2014) 83–89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.05.033>.
- [4] Merhaby, D., S. Net, J. Halwani, B. Ouddane, Organic pollution in surficial sediments of Tripoli harbour, Lebanon, *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 93 (2015) 284–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2015.01.004>.
- [5] Bendjama, H., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Efficient degradation method of emerging organic pollutants in marine environment using UV/periodate process: Case of chlorazol black, *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 126 (2018) 557–564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.09.059>.
- [6] Pereira, L., M. Alves, Dyes-Environmental Impact and Remediation, in: E.G. A. Malik (Ed.), *Environmental Protection Strategies for Sustainable Development*, Springer, London, 2012: pp. 111–162. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1591-2_5.
- [7] Merouani, S., O. Hamdaoui, F. Saoudi, M. Chiha, Sonochemical degradation of Rhodamine B in aqueous phase: Effects of additives, *Chem. Eng. J.* 158 (2010) 550–557. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.01.048>.
- [8] Brown, M.A., S.C. De Vito, Predicting azo dye toxicity, *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 23 (1993) 249–324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389309388453>.
- [9] Fang, G., C. Liu, J. Gao, D. D. Dionysiou, D. Zhou, Manipulation of persistent free radicals in biochar to activate persulfate for contaminant degradation, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49 (2015) 5645–5653. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es5061512>.
- [10] Fang, G., J. Gao, D. D. Dionysiou, C. Liu, D. Zhou, Activation of persulfate by quinones: Free radical reactions and implication for the degradation of PCBs, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 47 (2013) 4605–4611. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es400262n>.
- [11] Liu, C., B. Wu, X. Chen, Sulfate radical-based oxidation for sludge treatment: A review, *Chem. Eng. J.* 335 (2018) 865–875. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2017.10.162>.
- [12] Ma, J., Y. Ding, L. Chi, X. Yang, Y. Zhong, Z. Wang, Q. Shi, Degradation of benzotriazole by sulfate radical-based advanced oxidation process, *Environ. Technol.* (2019) 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593330.2019.1625959>.
- [13] Zhao, L., H. Hou, A. Fujii, M. Hosomi, F. Li, Degradation of 1,4-dioxane in water with heat- and Fe²⁺-activated persulfate oxidation, *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 21 (2014) 7457–7465. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-014-2668-3>.
- [14] Waldemer, R. H., P. G. Tratnyek, R. L. Johnson, J. T. Nurmi, Oxidation of chlorinated ethenes

- by heat-activated persulfate: Kinetics and products, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 41 (2007) 1010–1015. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es062237m>.

[15] Merouani, S., O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Degradation of Safranin O by thermally activated persulfate in the presence of mineral and organic additives : impact of environmental matrices, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 75 (2017) 202–212. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20404>.

[16] Ghodbane, H., O. Hamdaoui, S. Merouani, Degradation of C.I. acid blue 25 in water using UV/K₂S₂O₈ process: Effect of salts and environmental matrix, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 74 (2017) 395–401. <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2017.20612>.

[17] Bekkouche, S., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Efficient photocatalytic degradation of Safranin O by integrating solar-UV/TiO₂/persulfate treatment: Implication of sulfate radical in the oxidation process and effect of various water matrix components, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem.* 345 (2017) 80–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2017.05.028>.

[18] Gao, Y. Q., N. Y. Gao, Y. Deng, Y. Q. Yang, Y. Ma, Ultraviolet (UV) light-activated persulfate oxidation of sulfamethazine in water, *Chem. Eng. J.* 195–196 (2012) 248–253. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2012.04.084>.

[19] Qing, Y., X. Zhe, W. Lin, Temperature effect on the kinetics of persulfate oxidation of p-chloroaniline, *Chinese Chem. Lett.* 22 (2011) 358–361. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cclet.2010.10.015>.

[20] Liu, C. S., C. P. Higgins, F. Wang, K. Shih, Effect of temperature on oxidative transformation of perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) by persulfate activation in water, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 91 (2012) 46–51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2011.09.047>.

[21] Chen, J., Y. Qian, H. Liu, T. Huang, Oxidative degradation of diclofenac by thermally activated persulfate: implication for ISCO, *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 23 (2016) 3824–3833. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-015-5630-0>.

[22] Xiong, X., B. Sun, J. Zhang, N. Gao, J. Shen, J. Li, X. Guan, Activating persulfate by Fe⁰ coupling with weak magnetic field: Performance and mechanism, *Water Res.* 62 (2014) 53–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2014.05.042>.

[23] Anipsitakis, G. P., D. D. Dionysiou, M. A. Gonzalez, Cobalt-mediated activation of peroxymonosulfate and sulfate radical attack on phenolic compounds . Implications of chloride ions, *Environmantal Sci. Technol.* 40 (2006) 1000–1007.

[24] Anipsitakis, G. P., D. D. Dionysiou, Transition metal/UV-based advanced oxidation technologies for water decontamination, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 54 (2004) 155–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2004.05.025>.

[25] Zhao, D., X. Liao, X. Yan, S. G. Huling, T. Chai, H. Tao, Effect and mechanism of persulfate activated by different methods for PAHs removal in soil, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 254–255 (2013) 228–235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2013.03.056>.

[26] Furman, O. S., A. L. Teel, R. J. Watts, Mechanism of base activation of persulfate, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 44 (2010) 6423–6428. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es1013714>.

[27] Ferkous, H., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, C. Pétrier, Persulfate-enhanced sonochemical degradation of naphthol blue black in water: Evidence of sulfate radical formation, *Ultrason.*

- Sonochem. 34 (2017) 580–587. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2016.06.027>.
- [28] Wei, Z., F.A. Villamena, L.K. Weavers, Kinetics and mechanism of ultrasonic activation of persulfate: An in situ EPR Spin trapping Study, Environ. Sci. Technol. 51 (2017) 3410–3417. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.6b05392>.
- [29] Criquet, J., N. K. V. Leitner, Reaction pathway of the degradation of the p-hydroxybenzoic acid by sulfate radical generated by ionizing radiations, Radiat. Phys. Chem. 106 (2015) 307–314. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radphyschem.2014.07.016>.
- [30] Tsitonaki, A., B. Petri, M. Crimi, H. Mosbæk, R. L. Siegrist, P. L. Bjerg, In situ chemical oxidation of contaminated soil and groundwater using persulfate : A review, Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol. 40 (2010) 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643380802039303>.
- [31] Piotr, Z., Decolorisation of methylene blue with sodium persulfate activated with visible light in the presence of glucose and sucrose, Water. Air. Soil Pollut. 230 (2019). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-019-4372-x>.
- [32] Zhang, S., S. Song, P. Gu, R. Ma, D. Wei, G. Zhao, T. Wen, R. Jehan, B. Hu, X. Wang, Visible-light-driven activation of persulfate over cyano and hydroxyl group co-modified mesoporous g-C₃N₄ for boosting bisphenol A degradation, J. Mater. Chem. A. 7 (2019) 5552–5560. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ta00339h>.
- [33] Lin, Y. T., C. Liang, J. H. Chen, Feasibility study of ultraviolet activated persulfate oxidation of phenol, Chemosphere. 82 (2011) 1168–1172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2010.12.027>.
- [34] Yeber, M.C., L. Díaz, J. Fernández, Catalytic activity of the SO₄^{•-} radical for photodegradation of the azo dye Cibacron Brilliant Yellow 3 and 3,4-dichlorophenol: Optimization by application of response surface methodology, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem. 215 (2010) 90–95. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2010.07.028>.
- [35] Hori, H., A. Yamamoto, E. Hayakawa, S. Taniyasu, N. Yamashita, S. Kutsuna, H. Hori, A. Yamamoto, E. Hayakawa, S. Taniyasu, N. Yamashita, S. Kutsuna, H. Kiatagawa, R. Arakawa, Efficient decomposition of environmentally persistent perfluorocarboxylic acids by use of persulfate as a photochemical oxidant, Environ. Sci. Technol. 39 (2005) 2383–2388. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es0484754>.
- [36] Hori, H., A. Yamamoto, K. Koike, S. Kutsuna, I. Osaka, R. Arakawa, Persulfate-induced photochemical decomposition of a fluorotelomer unsaturated carboxylic acid in water, Water Res. 41 (2007) 2962–2968. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2007.02.033>.
- [37] Yang, S., P. Wang, X. Yang, L. Shan, W. Zhang, X. Shao, R. Niu, Degradation efficiencies of azo dye Acid Orange 7 by the interaction of heat, UV and anions with common oxidants: Persulfate, peroxyomonosulfate and hydrogen peroxide, J. Hazard. Mater. 179 (2010) 552–558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.03.039>.
- [38] Reza, A., J. Saien, H. Bayat, A. R. Soleymani, J. Saien, H. Bayat, Artificial neural networks developed for prediction of dye decolorization efficiency with UV/K₂S₂O₈ process, Chem. Eng. J. 170 (2011) 29–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2011.03.021>.
- [39] Graham, N. J. D., T.K. Lau, W. Chu, N. J. D. Graham, The Aqueous Degradation of Butylated

- 22 *Slimane Merouani, Oualid Hamdaoui and Hafida Bendjama*
Hydroxyanisole by UV / $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$: Study of reaction mechanisms via dimerization and mineralization, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 41 (2007) 613–619.
- [40] Fang, G. D., D. D. Dionysiou, Y. Wang, S.R. Al-Abed, D.M. Zhou, Sulfate radical-based degradation of polychlorinated biphenyls: Effects of chloride ion and reaction kinetics, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 227–228 (2012) 394–401. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2012.05.074>.
- [41] Lian, L., B. Yao, S. Hou, J. Fang, S. Yan, W. Song, Kinetic study of hydroxyl and sulfate radical-mediated oxidation of pharmaceuticals in wastewater effluents, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 51 (2017) 2954–2962. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.6b05536>.
- [42] Dogliotti, L., E. Hayon, Flash photolysis of persulfate ions in aqueous solutions. Study of the sulfate and ozonide radical anions, *J. Phys. Chem.* 71 (1967) 2511–2516.
- [43] Hamdaoui, O., S. Merouani, Ultrasonic destruction of acid Orange 7: Effect of humic acid, surfactants and complex matrices, *Water Environ. Reasearch.* 89 (2017) 250–259. <https://doi.org/10.2175/106143016X14798353399539>.
- [44] Bendjama, H., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, UV-photolysis of Chlorazol Black in aqueous media: Process intensification using acetone and evidence of methyl radical implication in the degradation process, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A Chem.* 368 (2019) 268–275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2018.09.047>.
- [45] Pohanish, R., Sittig's handbook of toxic and hazardous chemicals and carcinogens, Elsevier, UK, 2012.
- [46] Lewis, R.J., Hazardous chemicals desk reference, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New Jersey, 2008. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470335406>.
- [47] Petri, B. G., R. J. Watts, A. Tsitonaki, M. Crimi, T. R. T., A. L. Teel, Fundamentals of ISCO using persulfate, in: R. L. Siegrist, M. Crimi, T. J. Simpkin (Eds.), *In Situ Chemical Oxidation Groundwater Remediation*, Springer, New York, 2011: p. 150.
- [48] Zhang, L., Y. Yang, Y. Wu, L. Feng, Y. Liu, Modelling study on the effects of chloride on the degradation of bezafibrate and carbamazepine in sulfate radical-based advanced oxidation processes: Conversion of reactive radicals, *Chem. Eng. J.* 358 (2018) 1332–1341. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2018.10.125>.
- [49] Yuan, R., S. N. Ramjaun, Z. Wang, J. Liu, Concentration profiles of chlorine radicals and their significances in •OH-induced dye degradation: Kinetic modeling and reaction pathways, *Chem. Eng. J.* 209 (2012) 38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2012.07.127>.
- [50] De Laat, J., M. Stefan, UV/chlorine process, in: M. I. Stefan (Ed.), *Advanced Oxidation Processes for water Treatment.*, IWA Publishing, London, UK, 2017: pp. 383–428.
- [51] Belghit, A., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, A. Alghyamah, M. Bouhelassa, Influence of processing conditions on the synergism between UV irradiation and chlorine toward the degradation of refractory organic pollutants in UV/chlorine advanced oxidation system, *Sci. Total Environ.* 736 (2020) 139623_1–139623_10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139623>.
- [52] Remucal, C. K., D. Manley, Emerging investigators series: The efficacy of chlorine photolysis as an advanced oxidation process for drinking water treatment, *Environ. Sci. Water Res. Technol.* 2 (2016) 565–579. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c6ew00029k>.

- [53] Bulman, D. M., S. P. Mezyk, C. K. Remucal, The impact of pH and irradiation wavelength on the production of reactive oxidants during chlorine photolysis, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 53 (2019) 4450–4459. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b07225>.
- [54] Gu, X., S. Lu, L. Li, Z. Qiu, Q. Sui, K. Lin, Q. Luo, Oxidation of 1, 1, 1-Trichloroethane Stimulated by Thermally Activated Persulfate, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 50 (2011) 11029–11036. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie201059x>.
- [55] Chan, K. H., W. Chu, Degradation of atrazine by cobalt-mediated activation of peroxymonosulfate: Different cobalt counteranions in homogenous process and cobalt oxide catalysts in photolytic heterogeneous process, *Water Res.* 43 (2009) 2513–2521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2009.02.029>.
- [56] Fang, C., X. Lou, Y. Huang, M. Feng, Z. Wang, J. Liu, Monochlorophenols degradation by UV/persulfate is immune to the presence of chloride: Illusion or reality?, *Chem. Eng. J.* 323 (2017) 124–133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2017.04.094>.
- [57] Wang, Z., R. Yuan, Y. Guo, L. Xu, J. Liu, Effects of chloride ions on bleaching of azo dyes by Co³⁺/oxone reagent: Kinetic analysis, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 190 (2011) 1083–1087. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.04.016>.
- [58] Yuan, R., Z. Wang, Y. Hu, B. Wang, S. Gao, Probing the radical chemistry in UV/persulfate-based saline wastewater treatment: Kinetics modeling and byproducts identification, *Chemosphere*. 109 (2014) 106–112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.03.007>.
- [59] Yuan, R., S. N. Ramjaun, Z. Wang, J. Liu, Effects of chloride ion on degradation of Acid Orange 7 by sulfate radical-based advanced oxidation process: Implications for formation of chlorinated aromatic compounds, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 196 (2011) 173–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.09.007>.
- [60] Bendjama, H., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, Acetone photoactivated process: application to the degradation of refractory organic pollutants in very saline waters, *Water Environ. J.* (2019) 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/wej.12507>.
- [61] Meghlaoui, F. Z., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, A. Alghyamah, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, Fe(III)-catalyzed degradation of persistent textile dyes by chlorine at slightly acidic conditions: the crucial role of Cl₂^{•-} radical in the degradation process and impacts of mineral and organic competitors, *Asia-Pacific J. Chem. Eng.* (2020) 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1002/apj.2553>.
- [62] Ziajka, J., W. Pasiuk-Bronikowska, Rate constants for atmospheric trace organics scavenging SO₄²⁻ in the Fe-catalysed autoxidation of S(IV), *Atmos. Env.* 38 (2005) 1431–1438.
- [63] Liang, C., H. W. Su, Identification of sulfate and hydroxyl radicals in thermally activated persulfate, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 48 (2009) 5558–5562. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie9002848>.
- [64] Norman, R. O. C., P. M. Storey, P. R. West, Electron spin resonance studies. Part XXV reaction of sulfate radical anions with organic compounds, *J. Chem. Soc. Sect. B Phys. Org.* (1970) 1087–1095.
- [65] Alegre, M. L., M. Geronees, J. A. Rosso, S.G. Bertolotti, A.M. Braun, D.O. Marrtire, M.C. Gonzalez, Kinetic study of the reactions of chlorine atoms and Cl₂^{•-} radical anions in aqueous solutions. 1. Reaction with benzene, *J. Phys. Chem. A.* 104 (2000) 3117–3125.

- 24 *Slimane Merouani, Oualid Hamdaoui and Hafida Bendjama*
<https://doi.org/10.1021/jp9929768>.
- [66] Cheng, S., X. Zhang, X. Yang, C. Shang, W. Song, J. Fang, Y. Pan, The multiple role of bromide ion in PPCPs degradation under UV/chlorine treatment, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 52 (2018) 1806–1816.
- [67] Guo, K., Z. Wu, J. Fang, UV-based advanced oxidation process for the treatment of pharmaceuticals and personal care products, in: A. J. Hernández-Maldonado and L. Blaney (Eds.), *Contaminants of Emerging Concern in Water and Wastewater*, Elsevier Inc., 2020: pp. 367–408. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-813561-7.00010-9>.
- [68] Fang, J., C. Shang, Bromate formation from bromide oxidation by the UV/Persulfate process, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 46 (2012) 8976–8983.
- [69] Ghodbane, H., O. Hamdaoui, Degradation of anthraquinonic dye in water by photoactivated periodate, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 57 (2016) 4100–4109. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2014.988657>.
- [70] Huang, K., R. A. Couttenye, G. E. Hoag, Kinetics of heat-assisted persulfate oxidation of methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE), *Chemosphere*. 49 (2002) 413–420.
- [71] Ghauch, A., A. M. Tuqan, N. Kibbi, S. Geryes, Methylene blue discoloration by heated persulfate in aqueous solution, *Chem. Eng. J.* 213 (2012) 259–271. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2012.09.122>.
- [72] Chadi, N. E., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{Periodate}(\text{IO}_4^-)$: A novel advanced oxidation technology for the degradation of refractory organic pollutants, *Environ. Sci. Water Res. Technol.* 5 (2019) 1113–1123. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ew00147f>.
- [73] Chadi, N. E., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, New aspect of the effect of liquid temperature on sonochemical degradation of nonvolatile organic pollutants in aqueous media, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 200 (2018) 68–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2018.01.047>.
- [74] Wu, Z., K. Guo, J. Fang, X. Yang, H. Xiao, S. Hou, X. Kong, C. Shang, X. Yang, F. Meng, L. Chen, Factors affecting the roles of reactive species in the degradation of micropollutants by the UV/chlorine process, *Water Res.* 126 (2017) 351–360. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2017.09.028>.
- [75] Meghlaoui, F. Z., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, Rapid catalytic degradation of refractory textile dyes in Fe (II)/chlorine system at near neutral pH: Radical mechanism involving chlorine radical anion ($\text{Cl}_2\cdot^-$)-mediated transformation pathways and impact of environmental matrices, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 227 (2019) 115685. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2019.115685>.
- [76] Rayaroth, M. P., U. K. Aravind, C. T. Aravindakumar, Sonochemical degradation of coomassie brilliant blue: Effect of frequency, power density, pH and various additives, *Chemosphere*. 119 (2015) 848–855. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.08.037>.
- [77] Almarhabi, S., M. Ashokkumar, Sonochemical degradation of p-toluenesulfonic acid in aqueous environment, *Energy Environ. Focus.* 4 (2015) 239–244. <https://doi.org/10.1166/eef.2015.1166>.

- [78] Destaillats, H., T. W. Alderson, M. R. Hoffmann, Applications of ultrasound in NAPL remediation: Sonochemical degradation of TCE in aqueous surfactant solutions, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 35 (2001) 3019–3024. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es0018926>.
- [79] Chadi, N.E., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, M. Ashokkumar, Influence of mineral water constituents, organic matter and water matrices on the performance of the $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{IO}_4^-$ -advanced oxidation process, *Environ. Sci. Water Res. Technol.* 5 (2019) 1985–1992. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ew00329k>.
- [80] Belghit, A., S. Merouani, O. Hamdaoui, M. Bouhelassa, S. Al-Zahrani, The multiple role of inorganic and organic additives in the degradation of reactive green 12 by UV/chlorine advanced oxidation process, *Environ. Technol.* in press (2020) 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593330.2020.1807609>.