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Electrochemical advanced oxidation processes using novel electrode materials for mineralization and biodegradability enhancement of nanofiltration concentrate of landfill leachates.

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Graphical abstract



Electrochemical Advanced Oxidation Processes Homogeneous/Heterogeneous electro-Fenton Anodic Oxidation

1 Abstract

The objective of this study was to implement electrochemical advanced oxidation processes 2 (EAOPs) for mineralization and biodegradability enhancement of nanofiltration (NF) 3 concentrate from landfill leachate initially pre-treated in a membrane bioreactor (MBR). Raw 4 carbon felt (CF) or Fe^{II}Fe^{III} layered double hydroxides-modified CF were used for comparing 5 6 the efficiency of homogeneous and heterogeneous electro-Fenton (EF), respectively. The 7 highest mineralization rate was obtained by heterogeneous EF: 96% removal of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was achieved after 8 h of electrolysis at circumneutral initial pH (pH₀ 8 9 = 7.9) and at 8.3 mA cm⁻². However, the most efficient treatment strategy appeared to be heterogeneous EF at 4.2 mA cm⁻² combined with anodic oxidation using Ti₄O₇ anode (energy 10 consumption = 0.11 kWh g⁻¹ of DOC removed). Respirometric analyses under similar 11 12 conditions than in the real MBR emphasized the possibility to recirculate the NF retentate towards the MBR after partial mineralization by EAOPs in order to remove the residual 13 biodegradable by-products and improve the global cost effectiveness of the process. Further 14 analyses were also performed in order to better understand the fate of organic and inorganic 15 species during the treatment, including acute toxicity tests (Microtox[®]), characterization of 16 17 dissolved organic matter by three-dimensional fluorescence spectroscopy, evolution of inorganic ions (ClO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) and identification/quantification of degradation by-18 products such as carboxylic acids. The obtained results emphasized the interdependence 19 20 between the MBR process and EAOPs in a combined treatment strategy. Improving the retention in the MBR of colloidal proteins would improve the effectiveness of EAOPs 21 because such compounds were identified as the most refractory. Enhanced nitrification would 22 be also required in the MBR because of the release of NH4⁺ from mineralization of refractory 23 organic nitrogen during EAOPs. 24

25 Keywords

- 26 Electro-Fenton; Anodic oxidation; Modified carbon felt; Sub-stoichiometric titanium oxide;
- 27 Landfill leachate; Biodegradability.

28 1. Introduction

Rainwater percolation through waste layers of landfills generates leachates containing a
complex mixture of dissolved organic matter (DOM), inorganic compounds, heavy metals,
and xenobiotic organic substances (Kjeldsen et al., 2002), which represents a significant
hazard for the environment.

The implementation of a membrane bioreactor (MBR) followed by a nanofiltration (NF) step 33 is one of the most efficient treatment strategy currently used for management of landfill 34 35 leachates (Campagna et al., 2013; Amaral et al., 2016). However, NF is only a separation process. Biorefractory organic pollutants are accumulated and concentrated. Thus, the 36 37 concentrate becomes an important residual issue for this treatment strategy (Van der Bruggen 38 et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2009, 2013). Landfill discharge of the concentrate is commonly performed. However, some national regulations do not allow such practice and it clearly does 39 not fix the long-term issue. In recent years, several processes have been investigated and 40 applied at industrial scale for the treatment of NF concentrate. For example, adsorption 41 processes are effective to remove organic matters in NF concentrate, but they are strongly 42 43 limited by the high organic charge of such effluents compared to the adsorption capacity of adsorbent materials. Besides, membrane distillation and evaporation processes are 44 substantially limited by the high cost of equipment and energy consumption (Cui et al., 2018). 45

During the last two decades, electrochemical advanced oxidation processes (EAOPs) have received great attention for efficient degradation of a large range of hazardous and biorefractory organic compounds. They are based on *in situ* electrogeneration of hydroxyl radicals ($^{\circ}$ OH), a non-selective and powerful oxidizing agent ($E^{\circ}(^{\circ}$ OH/H₂O) = 2.80 V *vs* SHE) (Brillas et al., 2009; Comninellis et al., 2008; Martínez-Huitle et al., 2015; Panizza and Cerisola, 2009). EAOPs provide also several technical advantages such as high versatility,

easy operation, possibility for automation and low consumption of chemical reagents 52 (Radjenovic and Sedlak, 2015; Sirés et al., 2014). However, complete mineralization of 53 organic compounds requires high energy consumption. Therefore, the combination of EAOPs 54 with biological processes is currently more and more investigated as a feasible option for 55 improving the global cost-effectiveness of the process (Oller et al., 2011; Ganzenko et al., 56 2014, 2018; Trellu et al., 2016a; Olvera-Vargas et al., 2015). In order to achieve reliable 57 58 conclusions, the accurate assessment of biodegradability enhancement by EAOPs requires the use of proper measurement tools such as respirometric methods (Reuschenbach et al., 2003). 59

60 Anodic oxidation (AO) and electro-Fenton (EF) are the most popularized EAOPs (Brillas et 61 al., 2009; Panizza and Cerisola, 2009; Martínez-Huitle et al., 2015; Oturan et al., 2015). AO is based on the generation of hydroxyl radicals (OH) via water oxidation at the surface of 62 anodes (M) with high overvoltage for oxygen evolution reaction (Eq. 1) (Panizza and 63 Cerisola, 2009; Trellu et al., 2017; Özcan et al., 2008), while [•]OH are generated 64 homogeneously in the bulk during the EF process through the Fenton's reaction (Eq. 2) 65 (Brillas et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2007). H₂O₂ and iron (II) are continuously 66 electrogenerated at the cathode by reduction of dissolved oxygen (Eq. 3) and iron (III) 67 reduction (Eq. 4), respectively. External oxygen supply is required and an iron source must be 68 either initially added at catalytic amount to the treated solution (homogeneous EF) or 69 embedded onto suitable electrode materials (heterogeneous EF). 70

71
$$M + H_2O \longrightarrow M(^{\bullet}OH) + H^+ + e^-$$
 (Eq. 1)

72
$$Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2 + H^+ \longrightarrow Fe^{3+} + {}^{\bullet}OH + H_2O$$
 (Eq. 2)

- 73 $O_{2(g)} + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2O_2$ (Eq. 3)
- 74 $Fe^{3+} + e^{-} \longrightarrow Fe^{2+}$ (Eq. 4)

Homogeneous EF requires external iron source and acidic pH (i.e. pH 2.5 - 3.5) that prevents 75 76 iron precipitation (Brillas et al., 2009). Besides, heterogeneous EF using for example pyrite (Ammar et al., 2015) or iron loaded sepiolite (Iglesias et al., 2013) as iron source has been 77 developed in order to operate the process over a wide pH range (Ganiyu et al., 2018; Poza-78 Nogueiras et al., 2018). Innovative electrodes have been also synthesized and studied as both 79 heterogeneous catalyst source and cathode materials (Zhang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013; 80 García-Rodríguez et al., 2016; Ganiyu et al., 2017a). Particularly, the modification of raw 81 carbon felt (CF) with CoFe or Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-layered double hydroxide (LDH) also led to an 82 increase of the electroactive surface area, which in turn improved the generation of H₂O₂ and 83 84 the global efficiency of the heterogeneous EF process (Ganiyu et al., 2017a, 2018). However, to the best of our knowledge, none study focused on the application of such promising 85 electrodes for the treatment of real wastewaters. 86

As regards to anode materials, sub-stoichiometric titanium oxides (especially Ti₄O₇) recently 87 received great attention for application in wastewater treatment by AO (Guo et al., 2016; 88 89 Ganiyu et al., 2016; Trellu et al., 2018b). Ti₄O₇ anode is able to generate large amounts of physisorbed hydroxyl radicals (Ti₄O₇('OH)) for the degradation and mineralization of organic 90 91 contaminants. Besides, this material has the potential to become a low-cost anode compared 92 to the well known boron-doped diamond anode (Ganiyu et al., 2017b; Trellu et al., 2018b). However, to the best of our knowledge, such anode material has also still not been applied for 93 the treatment of real effluents. 94

The objective of this study was to investigate the application of these novel electrode materials for the treatment of a NF concentrate of landfill leachate initially pre-treated in a MBR, which represents an important challenge for environmental engineering. Various configurations (*i.e.* homogeneous EF, heterogeneous EF, heterogeneous EF/AO) and operating conditions were studied. The efficiency for mineralization of organic compounds

was compared. A particular attention was also given to the understanding of mineralization 100 mechanisms by using various analytical tools: (i) DOM was characterized by three-101 dimensional excitation and emission matrix fluorescence (3DEEM), (ii) degradation by-102 products such as short-chain carboxylic acids were identified and quantified by ion-exclusion 103 HPLC, and (iii) inorganic ions released during the mineralization process were identified and 104 quantified by ion chromatography. Moreover, acute toxicity of the effluent was assessed by 105 Microtox[®] analysis and the possibility to use such EAOPs as a pre-treatment before 106 107 recirculation towards the MBR was assessed by using respirometric method under similar conditions than in the real industrial MBR. Finally, recommendations were given by taking 108 into consideration the interdependence of MBR process and EAOP in a combined treatment 109 110 strategy.

111

112 **2. Materials and methods**

2.1 Chemicals

For the preparation of Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF, iron III nitrate nonahydrate Fe(NO₃)₃.9H₂O (CAS 7782-61-8, 98% purity), iron II sulfate heptahydrate FeSO₄.7H₂O (CAS 7782-63-0, >99% purity), urea CO(NH₂)₂ (CAS 57-13-6) and ammonium fluoride NH₄F (CAS 12125-01-8, 99% purity) were supplied by Sigma Aldrich. Ultra-pure water (Millipore Mill-Q system, resistivity >18 MΩ.cm at 25 °C) was used for the preparation of all solutions.

119

120 **2.2 Landfill leachate (NF concentrate)**

121 The NF concentrate was collected from a landfill leachate wastewater treatment plant122 (WWTP) in the south of France. The raw landfill leachate was initially treated in a MBR, then

followed by a NF step. The concentrate from the NF step was collected and stored in arefrigerator at 4 °C.

125

126 **2.3 Electrochemical setup and electrode materials**

Experiments were conducted in an undivided cylindrical glass containing 220 mL of NF 127 concentrate at room temperature (25 °C). The electrochemical cell was similar to the one used 128 in several previous studies (Ganiyu et al., 2016; Trellu et al., 2016b). Either raw CF (for 129 homogeneous EF) or Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF (for heterogeneous EF) was employed as 130 cathode (20 x 6 cm; 120 cm²), positioned on the inner wall of the cylindrical cell. CF (99.0%, 131 6.35 mm thick) was provided by Alfa Aesar. Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF was prepared by *in*-132 situ solvothermal process as reported elsewhere (Ganiyu et al., 2018). LDH coating was 0.62 133 \pm 0.04 mg cm⁻², which was also in agreement with what has been reported previously (Ganiyu 134 et al., 2018). For homogeneous EF experiments, 0.2 mM of Fe²⁺ was added to the solution 135 and initial pH was adjusted at 3 (values usually reported as optimal). For heterogeneous EF 136 experiments, none Fe²⁺ was externally added and pH was not initially adjusted. 137

The anode was either a 24 cm² (3 x 8 cm) platinum mesh (for homogeneous and heterogeneous EF) or a 32 cm² (4 x 8 cm) Ti₄O₇ thin film plasma deposited on Ti substrate (for heterogeneous EF/AO) from Saint-Gobain Research Provence, France. Ti₄O₇ powder used for plasma deposition was prepared by carbothermal reduction of TiO₂ as already reported by our group (Ganiyu et al., 2016, 2017b). These rectuganlar-shaped anodes were placed at the center of the cylindrical electrochemical cell, with an average interelectrode distance of 3 cm.

Electrodes were connected to a DC power supply (CNB Electronique) with applied current set at 1000 mA (j = 8.3 mA cm⁻², calcultated from the cathode surface, which is the working

electrode during the EF process) or 500 mA ($j = 4.2 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$). A magnetic stirrer was used to improve mass transport of chemical species toward/from the electrodes. The solution was saturated with O₂ by bubbling compressed air through a glass frit 10 min before starting the experiments and all along the electrolysis. The conductivity of the NF concentrate was high enough to ensure the electrolysis without any additional supporting electrolyte. For comparison, a reference experiment was also carried out using raw carbon felt cathode, Pt anode, without adding any source of iron and without initial pH adjustment.

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2.4 Dissolved organic carbon and chemical oxygen demand analysis

156 Mineralization rate of NF concentrate was determined by total organic carbon (TOC) analyses 157 using the Shimadzu TOC-L analyzer based on the 680 °C combustion catalytic oxidation 158 method. All samples were filtrated through 0.45 μ m regenerated cellulose (RC) membrane 159 filters. Therefore, results are reported as dissolved organic carbon (DOC).

160 Chemical oxygen demand (COD) was analyzed by the method AFNOR NFT 90-101 using161 Hach COD kits.

162

163 **2.5 Respirometric method for the determination of biodegradability**

Biodegradability was assessed with a BM-T Advance Respirometer (SURCIS S.L, Spain), which consists in a 1 L capacity vessel, provided with an oxygen probe (Hamilton) and temperature control system. The activated sludge used in the bioassays was collected from the aerated tank of the landfill leachate WWTP using MBR and was thus acclimatized to the effluent. The samples were evaluated without pH adjustment because of the high buffer capacity of the landfill leachate samples. Continuous aeration and agitation were applied to ensure air saturation conditions. Temperature was maintained at 20 °C during the tests and the standardization with sodium acetate method was applied (conversion rate adjustment according to instructions given by the respirometer's manufacturer). In order to inhibit the nitrification process and measure the sample effect only on the heterotrophic bacteria, 1.5 mg gVSS⁻¹ of N-allylthiourea was added before the beginning of each trial.

For biodegradability assays, 700 mL of endogenous activated sludge and 300 mL of target sample were introduced in the respirometer. The biodegradability of samples pre-treated by EAOPs was assessed through R tests (Fig. SI 1). The ratio between biodegradable COD (bCOD) and DOC (bCOD/DOC) was used for determination of the biodegradable character of each sample. A biodegradability enhancement index (BE) was calculated by using Eq. 5.

180 BE =
$$\frac{\left(\frac{bCOD_t}{DOC_t}\right)}{\left(\frac{bCOD_0}{DOC_0}\right)}$$
 (Eq. 5)

Where bCOD_t and DOC_t are bCOD (in gO₂ L⁻¹) and DOC (in gC L⁻¹) after t hours of
treatment by EAOPs.

183

2.6 Characterization of dissolved organic matter by three-dimensional excitation and emission matrix fluorescence (3DEEM)

Natural organic matter was characterized by 3DEEM fluorescence using a Perkin-Elmer LS-55 spectrometer (USA). The dilution factor was 200 for all samples. The procedure reported by Jacquin et al. (2017) was used for fluorescence spectra acquisition and data extraction. Chen et al. (2003) divided fluorescence spectra into five different areas corresponding to different groups of fluorophores, *i.e.* regions I and II for aromatic proteins, region III for fulvic acid-like (FA-like) fluorophores, region IV for soluble microbial by-product-like (SMP-like) fluorophores and region V for humic acid-like (HA-like) fluorophores (Chen et al., 2003). Similarly to the study of Jacquin et al. (2017), 3DEEM results were analyzed by
taking into consideration only 3 different zones, *i.e.* zone I' for region I + II (aromatic
proteins), zone II' for region IV (SMP-like) and zone III' for region III + V (HA + FA-like).
Calculation of the volume of fluorescence in these different zones was achieved following the
method from Jacquin et al. (2017).

198

The procedures for ICP-MS analysis, toxicity test (Microtox[®]), identification/quantification of
inorganic ions and identification/quantification of short-chain carboxylic acids are provided in
Supplementary Information (SI)

202

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Characterization of the NF concentrate effluent

The characteristics of the NF concentrate are presented in SI (Table SI 1). The effluent was a 205 dark brown liquid having a slightly alkaline pH and high organic charge. The conductivity 206 (3.1 mS cm^{-1}) was between 3 and 10 times lower than values reported in the literature $(10 - 10^{-1})$ 207 33 mS.cm⁻¹) (Li et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2017). This might be ascribed to the 208 high diversity of landfill leachate and to a lower retention of ionic species by the NF step. In 209 fact, the concentration factor of divalent (Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) and monovalent (Na⁺ and K⁺) 210 inorganic cations was only 3.1 ± 0.3 and 1.7 ± 0.2 , respectively. Monovalent ions are less 211 retained by the NF membrane because of lower charge interactions (Van der Bruggen et al., 212 2004). The COD content (2.1 gO₂ L⁻¹) of the NF concentrate was also in the low range of 213 values usually reported in the literature $(1.7 - 5.5 \text{ gO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1})$ (Li et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2018; Xu 214

et al., 2017) because of (i) operation of the NF process with a lower concentration factorand/or (ii) lower initial organic loading rate of the effluent pre-treated by the MBR.

The ratio between bCOD and total COD or total DOC was low (bCOD/COD = 0.12 or)217 218 bCOD/DOC = 0.26), thus indicating the low biodegradability of the concentrate owing to the presence of high-molecular weight and non-biodegradable compounds. A high concentration 219 of nitrate ($[NO_3^-] = 90 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1}$) was observed due to the complete nitrification of NH₄⁺ in the 220 MBR and a partial denitrification in the anoxic tank. As regards to metals, Sr ion was the 221 most concentrated (6.0 mg L^{-1}) and high concentrations of As (0.38 mg L^{-1}) and Cr (0.67 mg 222 L⁻¹) ions were also reported. These metals are released by different wastes discarded in 223 landfills such as glass products (Ponthieu et al., 2007), fluorescent lights and ceramics 224 (Mahindrakar and Rathod, 2018). Besides, the high concentration of Sb (1.2 mg L⁻¹) indicates 225 an important contamination from plastic decomposition (Westerhoff et al., 2008). 226

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228

3.2 Mineralization efficiency by EAOPs

Various experiments were performed in order to evaluate the efficiency of different EAOPs
(*i.e.* homogeneous EF, heterogeneous EF, heterogeneous EF/AO).

First, volatilization and adsorption phenomena were evidenced by bubbling oxygen into the electrochemical reactor without any current applied. Under these conditions, DOC content decreased and reached a plateau after 1 h with around 16±2% removal due to volatilization of volatile organic compounds and adsorption of hydrophobic compounds on CF. Besides, it was also observed that initial pH adjustment at 3 decreased the DOC value by 15±5% because of the precipitation of humic acids.

237 Second, experiments were carried out under constant current density applied to the electrodes.238 As shown in Fig. 1A, 96% of DOC removal was obtained after 8 h of electrolysis by

heterogeneous EF with an applied current density of 8.3 mA cm⁻². The excellent 239 mineralization efficiency achieved without any initial pH adjustment was ascribed to 240 heterogeneous EF reaction occurring on the surface of the Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH catalyst, which 241 catalyzed the decomposition of H_2O_2 to generate large amounts of hydroxyl radicals $^{\circ}OH$ 242 (Ganiyu et al., 2018). By comparison, only 59% removal of DOC was obtained in the 243 reference experiment with analogous operating conditions but using raw CF as cathode 244 instead of Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF, thus highlighting the benefits obtained from the use of 245 246 the modified cathode. Heterogeneous EF was also even more efficient than conventional homogeneous EF (90% removal of DOC after 8 h) with external addition of iron catalyst (0.2 247 mmol L⁻¹) and initial adjustment of pH at 3. Therefore, Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF appeared 248 as an ideal cathode material that enhances the mineralization efficiency of the EF process and 249 avoids both initial pH adjustment and external addition of iron. The stability and reusability of 250 the prepared Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF cathode was assessed by reusing the same electrode 251 for 4 successive electrolysis cycles (Fig. 2). The slight but continuous decrease of the 252 efficiency could be ascribed to (i) the initial loss of loosely bounded Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH at the 253 254 external surface of the CF substrate due to vigorous stirring and/or (ii) iron leaching at acidic pH for which Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH coating is less stable. Indeed, a progressive reduction of pH to 255 values in the range 3 - 4 was noticed during electrolysis, which was explained by the 256 257 generation of short-chain carboxylic acids. This leaching phenomenon was confirmed by comparison of SEM images of raw CF, Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF before use and Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-258 LDH modified CF after 4 cycles of electrolysis (Fig. SI 2). While an extensive growth on the 259 CF of dense platelets of Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH with uneven and porous structure was initially 260 obtained, a partial degradation of the global Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH structure was observed after 4 261 cycles. Thus, in order to avoid the depletion of the catalyst, a continuous pH control 262

regulation would be recommended rather than a unique pH re-adjustment at the end of thetreatment.

Third, experiments were also performed at lower current density (4.2 mA cm⁻², Fig. 1B). Lower DOC removal rates were obtained, e.g. 72% *vs* 96% removal of DOC after 8 h of treatment by heterogeneous EF at 4.2 mA cm⁻² and 8.3 mA cm⁻², respectively. Indeed, high current density enhances the generation of hydrogen peroxide and regeneration rate of Fe(II). Thus, further [•]OH are produced for oxidation and mineralization of organic compounds.

Fourth, the influence of the anode material was also investigated (Fig. 1B). After 8h of 270 treatment by heterogeneous EF/AO using Ti₄O₇ anode at 4.2 mA cm⁻², 77% removal of DOC 271 was achieved, compared to 72% by heterogeneous EF using Pt anode. The higher efficiency 272 of Ti₄O₇ anode was ascribed to the generation at the anode surface of physisorbed Ti₄O₇(•OH) 273 274 with great oxidation ability, because of the higher overvoltage for oxygen evolution reaction (>0.7 V), compared to Pt anode (<0.4 V) (Trellu et al., 2018a; Ganiyu et al., 2018). Therefore, 275 by taking also into consideration the lower cost of Ti₄O₇, this anode material appeared as a 276 277 suitable electrode to combine AO and EF processes.

278



Figure 1 – DOC removal efficiency *vs* time during the mineralization of NF concentrate.
 Comparison of different configurations and operating conditions.

(A) $\mathbf{i} = 8.3 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$: ($^{\circ}$) Homogeneous EF with CF cathode, Pt anode, [Fe²⁺] = 0.2 mmol L⁻ 282 ¹, pH₀ = 3 ; (Δ) Heterogeneous EF with Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF cathode, Pt anode, [Fe²⁺] = 283 0 mmol L⁻¹, pH₀ = 7.9; (\Box) Reference experiment with CF cathode, Pt anode, [Fe²⁺] = 0 mmol 284 L^{-1} , pH₀ = 7.9. Three homogeneous EF experiments were performed in order to assess the 285 reproducibility of the experimental procedure. Standard deviations are reported in Figure 1A. 286 (B) $\mathbf{j} = 4.2 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$: ($^{\circ}$) Homogeneous EF with CF cathode, Pt anode, [Fe²⁺] = 0.2 mmol L⁻ 287 ¹, pH₀ = 3 ; (Δ) Heterogeneous EF with Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF cathode, Pt anode, [Fe²⁺]= 288 0 mmol L⁻¹, pH₀ = 7.9 ; (\Box) Heterogeneous EF/AO with Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF cathode, 289 Ti_4O_7 anode, $[Fe^{2+}] = 0 \text{ mmol } L^{-1}$, $pH_0 = 7.9$. 290

291

292 One of the main challenges for EAOPs is to reduce the energy consumption (EC). The EC 293 was expressed as kWh per g of DOC removed and calculated from Eq. 6 (Brillas et al., 2009).

294

296
$$EC_{DOC}$$
 (kWh g^{-1} of DOC) = $\frac{E_{cell}It}{V\Delta(DOC)_{exp}}$ (Eq. 6)

where E_{cell} is the average cell voltage (V), I the applied current (A), t the duration of electrolysis (h), V the volume of solution treated (L) and $\Delta(DOC)_{exp}$ the experimental decays of DOC (mgC L⁻¹).

For example, 96% removal of DOC by heterogeneous EF at 8.3 mA cm⁻² required 0.35 kWh 300 g⁻¹ of DOC removed. By comparison, 77% DOC removal by heterogeneous EF/AO using 301 Ti₄O₇ anode at 4.2 mA cm⁻² required only 0.13 kWh g⁻¹ of DOC. This value decreased to 0.11 302 kWh g⁻¹ of DOC for 45% removal of DOC by the same process (4 h of treatment instead of 8 303 304 h). In fact, high current density strongly increased energy consumption because of 305 concomitant rise in total cell voltage (from 7.2 to 10.4 V). Parasitic reaction such as hydrogen evolution, 4 e⁻ reduction of O₂ to H₂O and 2 e⁻ oxidation of water to O₂ are also promoted at 306 307 higher current density. Moreover, at high removal rate of DOC and low residual DOC, the current efficiency is strongly decreased by mass transport limitations. Therefore, in order to 308 achieve high DOC removal rate with low energy consumption, it was proposed to combine 309 EAOPs with a biological post-treatment, since EAOPs are able to transform biorefractory 310 311 organic compounds into by-products that are more biodegradable than initial compounds 312 (Ganzenko et al., 2014; Olvera-Vargas et al., 2015; Trellu et al., 2016a). In practice, that would mean implementing the EAOP as a preliminary treatment before recirculation of the 313 NF concentrate towards the MBR. Thus, the next objective of this study was to monitor the 314 315 evolution of the biodegradability of the effluent, as well as to better understand the evolution of organic and inorganic compounds during EAOPs. 316

317



Figure 2 – DOC removal after 8h of electrolysis *vs* number of cycles for the heterogeneous EF treatment using $Fe^{II}Fe^{III}$ -LDH/CF cathode and Pt anode at 8.3 mA cm⁻².

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320

321 **3.3 Biodegradability enhancement**

Respirometric measurements performed have the advantage of being a direct and rapid biological assessment of aerobic degradation under similar conditions than in the real industrial MBR (Reuschenbach et al., 2003). The calculated biodegradability enhancement (BE) values are presented in Fig. 3 after 4 and 8h of treatment for different EAOP configurations and current densities applied.

In all cases, heterogeneous EF shows an increase in the biodegradability of the NF concentrate, which validate the potenital positive role of EAOPs as a pre-treatment before recirculating the NF concentrate to the MBR. In general the more the mineralization rate is achieved the more the biodegradability enhancement is observed. After 8 h of treatment by heterogeneous EF at 4.2 mA cm⁻², the BE index reached 11 with Ti₄O₇ anode, compared to 5.9 with Pt anode, which validate the positive effect of combining EF with AO. We could

- state that a satisfactory biodegradability enhancement (between 4.1 and 9.1) was reached after
- 334 4 h with optimal energy consumption efficiency.



Figure 3 – Biodegradability enhancement at two different treatment times for different
EAOPs and current densities.

339 3.4 Acute toxicity of the effluent

Toxicity evolution of the NF concentrate during its electrolysis by both heterogeneous and homogeneous EF was evaluated by Microtox[®] standard method (Fig. 4). Initially (i.e. before any treatment of the NF concentrate), around $50\pm5\%$ of *V. fischeri* luminescence inhibition was observed because of the presence of large amount of toxic trace metals and organic pollutants. *V. fischeri* luminescence inhibition can be sensitive to various phenomena that can not be controlled and studied separately during the treatment of such complex effluent, e.g. the removal of toxic organic pollutants, the formation of toxic degradation by-products, the

formation of non-toxic degradation by-products (which could promote stimulation of bacterial 347 luminescence), the release of inorganic compounds and the evolution of metal speciation. 348 Therefore, it is difficult to draw reliable conclusions from these analyses. However, results 349 show that EAOPs are not able to remove completely the acute toxicity from such complex 350 effluent containing both organic and inorganic toxic compounds. Luminescence inhibition 351 might even increases significantly, particularly after achieving high mineralization rates (for 352 example during heterogeneous EF at 8.3 mA cm⁻² and heterogeneous EF at 4.2 mA cm⁻²). 353 From the comparison of heterogeneous EF experiments performed with either Pt or Ti₄O₇ 354 anode, it seems that anodic oxidation participate to avoid the accumulation of toxic by-355 products in the bulk. 356



Figure 4 – Evolution of *Vibrio fisheri* luminescence inhibition (Microtox[®] test) *vs* electrolysis time according to EAOP configuration and current density (in brackets, mA cm⁻²)

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359 **3.5** Characterization of the organic matter by 3DEEM

3DEEM has been reported to be a useful tool for characterization of colloidal and dissolved 360 organic matter. Particularly, Jacquin et al. (2017) recently emphasized a correlation between 361 362 the volume of fluorescence of zone III' (HA+FA-like fluorophores) and the concentration in a full-scale MBR of humic substances (MW \approx 1000 Da) and building blocks (degradation by-363 products from humic substances, with MW \approx 300-500 Da) measured by size exclusion liquid 364 365 chromatography coupled with organic carbon and organic nitrogen detector. Similarly, a correlation was also obtained between the volume of fluorescence of zone II' (SMP-like 366 fluorophores) and the concentration of proteins from biopolymers (MW $\approx 20,000$ - 7.5 x 10^{11} 367 368 Da). Besides, no correlation was obtained for the volume of fluorescence of zone I' because fluorophores of this zone would be mostly associated with colloidal proteins that could not be 369 analyzed by size exclusion liquid chromatography (Jacquin et al., 2017). In this study, we 370 proposed to use these results with the view to obtain indications on the evolution of the nature 371 of the organic matter during EAOPs. 372

373 The initial effluent was mainly constituted of HA+FA-like fluorophores from zone III' as shown in Fig. 5A and 5B. This result is consistent with the pre-treatment of the effluent in the 374 MBR because microfiltration membranes have lower retention capacity for these low MW 375 376 compounds. A strong decrease of fluorophores of zone III' was then observed during both heterogeneous EF (Fig. 5C) and EF/AO (Fig. 5D) due to (i) precipitation of humic acids at 377 378 acidic pH and (ii) fast degradation and mineralization of these low MW compounds with an aromatic structure that reacts quickly with 'OH (Trellu et al., 2016b). By comparison, 379 fluorescence from colloidal proteins of zone I' decreased much more slowly. This 380 381 phenomenon might be ascribed to the lower availability of colloids for reaction with 'OH in the aqueous phase. In the context of the global combined process, this result means that 382 improving the retention of colloidal proteins in the MBR would then have a positive effect on 383

the efficiency of the EAOP. Finally, it was also observed that the use of Ti_4O_7 anode for the heterogeneous AO/EF process promoted significantly the decrease of the fluorescence of proteins from biopolymers (zone II', Fig. 5D). This might be ascribed to the higher electrocatalytic activity of Ti_4O_7 for anodic oxidation of organic compounds, compared to Pt anode (Ganiyu et al., 2016).



Figure 5 – Fluorescence evolution of the NF concentrate effluent treated by EAOPs, as a
 function of time treatment. Zone I': colloidal proteins ; zone II': Soluble Microbial by Product (SMP)-like fluorophores ; zone III': Humic and Fulvic acids (HA + FA)-like
 fluorophores.

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396 3.6 Identification and quantification of short-chain carboxylic acids

Short-chain carboxylic acids are common degradation by-products generated during the 397 degradation of organic compounds by EAOPs (Oturan et al., 2008). In this study, they were 398 399 identified by ion-exclusion HPLC and chromatograms revealed five well defined peaks corresponding to acetic, formic, succinic, malonic and oxamic acids. Results were firstly 400 analyzed by following the evolution of the concentration of the sum of carboxylic acids 401 analyzed. The evolution of the concentration according to treatment time was determined for 402 homogeneous EF at 8.3 mA cm⁻². An initial increase of the concentration was observed until t 403 = 6 h ([Σ carboxylic acids] = 55 mgC L⁻¹) because of the degradation of aromatic pollutants. 404 Then, the concentration decreased ([Σ carboxylic acids] = 34 mgC L⁻¹ at t = 8 h). In fact, the 405 lower concentration of organic compounds after 6 hours of treatment resulted in lower 406 formation rate of carboxylic acids compared to the degradation rate. Interestingly, Fig. 6A 407 shows a linear correlation ($R^2 = 0.92$) between DOC removal (%) and proportion of 408 carboxylic acids among the residual DOC. This correlation took into consideration all 409 410 analyzes performed for the different configurations tested. The higher the DOC removal 411 achieved, the higher was the proportion of carboxylic acids among the residual DOC. This result is consistent with the lower reaction rate constant of short-chain carboxylic acids with 412 •OH ($10^7 - 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) compared to aromatic compounds ($10^9 - 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) from which they 413 are formed (Oturan et al., 2008). The evolution of the proportion of each single carboxylic 414 acid was also studied (Fig. 6B). It was noticed that the proportion of acetic acid among total 415 carboxylic acid concentration was continuously increased over time during homogeneous EF 416 at 8.3 mA cm⁻². This phenomenon is also consistent with the lower reaction rate constant of 417 acetic acid with •OH (1.6 x 10⁷ M⁻¹ s⁻¹) compared to other carboxylic acids (Oturan et al., 418 419 2008). Similar trend was observed after 8 h of electrolysis using heterogeneous EF at 8.3 mA cm⁻² or 4.2 mA cm⁻² and homogeneous EF at 4.2 mA cm⁻², i.e. the higher the DOC removal 420

rate (Fig. 1), the higher the proportion of acetic acid. Heterogeneous EF/AO using Ti₄O₇ was 421 the only experiment exhibiting a different trend, thus indicating that Ti₄O₇ might modify 422 mineralization mechanisms, compared to Pt anode. Higher proportion of N-containing oxamic 423 424 acid and lower proportion of acetic acid were observed with Ti₄O₇ anode, which might be attributed to the better electro-catalytic ability of Ti₄O₇ anode for the degradation of organic 425 nitrogen and acetic acid, compared to Pt anode. As regards to oxamic acid, these results were 426 consistent with 3DEEM. In fact, Ti₄O₇ anode further degraded proteins from biopolymers 427 (zone II'), which usually contain high concentration of N (ratio C/N around 3) (Jacquin et al., 428 2017). Overall, the increase of the proportion of carboxylic acids over time confirms the 429 430 suitability of the combination of EAOPs with a biological treatment (Fig. 3), because of the well-known high biodegradability of such compounds. 431





Figure 6 – Generation of short-chain carboxylic acids during EAOPs: (A) correlation
between DOC removal (%) and proportion of carboxylic acids among the residual DOC;
(B) evolution of the proportion of each single carboxylic acid among the total carboxylic acid
concentration as a function of configurations and operating conditions (current density in
bracket, mA cm⁻²).

438 **3.7 Evolution of inorganic species**

Mineralization of Cl⁻ and N-containing organic compounds was accompanied by the 439 formation of inorganic ions. The main inorganic species of interest (NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, ClO₃⁻ and 440 441 ClO₄⁻) were analyzed by ion chromatography. Results are presented in Fig. 7. In all experiments, a stronger increase of the concentration of NH₄⁺ was observed compared to NO₃⁻ 442 (Fig. 7A and 7B). These results can be explained by (i) the direct release of NH4⁺ from 443 444 mineralization of organic nitrogen and (ii) the release of NO₃⁻ followed by reduction of NO₃⁻ into NH₄⁺ at the cathode. Actually, the latter reaction is often observed during EF and AO, 445 while oxidation of NH₄⁺ at the anode is hindered by the positive charge of this ion (Martin de 446 447 Vidales et al., 2016; Mousset et al., 2018). The amount of NH_4^+ in the solution increased with treatment time and current density because of the higher mineralization rate of organic 448 nitrogen (Fig. 7B). Higher concentration of NH4⁺ was also obtained using Ti₄O₇ anode 449 (heterogeneous EF/AO), compared to Pt anode (heterogeneous EF). This phenomenon is 450 consistent with the results obtained from 3DEEM and with the higher concentration of 451 oxamic acid previously reported, and supports the higher electro-catalytic activity of Ti₄O₇ for 452 the degradation of organic nitrogen. In the context of a treatment strategy including a 453 recirculation of the effluent back to the MBR, the release of NH₄⁺ during EAOPs would 454 455 require further biological nitrification in the MBR.

Oxidation of Cl⁻ resulted in a strong increase of ClO₃⁻ concentration (Fig. 7C). The reaction mechanisms usually go through Cl⁻ oxidation into Cl₂, followed by hydrolysis of Cl₂ into hypochlorous acid HOCl. Further oxidation of HOCl lead to the formation of ClO₂⁻ (which was not detected because of the fast oxidation kinetic) and subsequently ClO₃⁻. No formation of ClO₄⁻ was detected in any experiment because higher current density (> 30 mA cm⁻²) is required to form this compound (Mousset et al., 2018). Besides, it was also observed that the formation of ClO₃⁻ mainly occurred between 4 and 8 h of treatment, most probably because of the preferential reaction of HOCl with organic species and NH_4^+ (break-point chlorination) between 4 and 8 h of treatment (Martin de Vidales et al., 2016; Mousset et al., 2018). These results confirm the suitability to stop the treatment after 4 h of treatment in order to avoid the accumulation of ClO_3^- and NH_4^+ . While ClO_3^- can be toxic for the biomass in the MBR, the formation of NH_3 at basic pH is also highly toxic for the autotrophic biomass (Jacquin et al., 2018).



Figure 7 – Concentration evolution of main inorganic species of interest during EAOPs as a
function of configurations and operating conditions (current density in bracket, mA cm⁻²): (A)
ClO₃⁻, (B) NO₃⁻ and (C) NH₄⁺. ClO₄⁻ was not detected.

474 **4. Conclusion**

NF concentrate of landfill leachate pre-treated in a MBR contains high concentration of 475 biorefractory organic pollutants that makes very difficult to treat or detoxify by conventional 476 techniques. The investigation of different configurations of EAOPs applied to this complex 477 effluent showed that heterogeneous EF/AO using Ti₄O₇ anode and Fe^{II}Fe^{III}-LDH modified CF 478 cathode is the most efficient process for mineralization of organic pollutants. Without initial 479 pH adjustment and external addition of Fe^{2+} in the bulk, 45% removal of DOC was achieved 480 at 4.2 mA cm⁻² with limited energy consumption (0.11 kWh g⁻¹ of DOC removed, i.e. 49.5 481 kWh m⁻³). Up to 96% removal of DOC was also obtained by using higher current density (8.3 482 mA cm⁻²) during the heterogeneous EF process. The use of Ti_4O_7 anode appeared to be a key 483 parameter for improving the degradation and mineralization of organic nitrogen. From 484 485 3DEEM analysis, colloidal proteins were observed to be the most refractory organic compounds. Therefore, improving the retention of such compounds in the MBR could 486 improve the efficiency of the EAOP. 487

The acute toxicity of the effluent was not removed but strong biodegradability enhancement 488 was observed after 4 h of treatment by heterogeneous EF/AO, thus making possible the 489 490 recirculation of the residual DOC towards the MBR in order to achieve total COD removal without longer electrochemical treatment time. This result was consistent with the 491 identification and quantification of more biodegradable and less toxic by-products such as 492 carboxylic acids. In fact, a linear correlation was observed between DOC removal rate and 493 proportion of carboxylic acids in the residual DOC. As regards to the fate of inorganic 494 495 species, the formation of ClO_3^- could be limited by stopping electro-oxidation at 4 h, but enhanced nitrification would be required in the MBR because of the release of NH4⁺ from 496 497 mineralization of organic nitrogen. Overall, these results emphasized the interdependence

498	between the MBR process and the EAOP in a combined treatment strategy and demonstrated
499	that the use of EAOPs using suitable electrode materials can be useful for the management of
500	such complex effluent.

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