Paired electrochemical removal of nitrate and terbuthylazine pesticide from groundwater using mesh electrodes

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Abstract

17 Groundwater is one of the main freshwater resources on Earth, but its contamination with NO₃[−] and pesticides jeopardizes its viability as a source of drinking water. In this work, a detailed study of single electro-oxidation (EO) and electrodenitrification and paired EO/electrodenitrification processes has been undertaken with simulated and actual groundwater matrices containing 100 mg 21 dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ and/or 5 mg dm⁻³ terbuthylazine pesticide. Galvanostatic electrolyses were made with 500 cm³ of solutions at pH 4.0-10.5 and 250-100 mA in tank reactors with a RuO₂ or boron-doped diamond (BDD) anode and one or two Fe cathodes, all of them in the form of meshes. Most of NO_3 ⁻ 24 removals agreed with a pseudo-first-order kinetics. In Cl⁻-free media, NH₄⁺ predominated as electroreduction product. In chloride media, a greater amount of N-volatiles was determined 26 alongside a slower electrodenitrification, especially with $RuO₂$ due to the partial re-oxidation of 27 electroreduction products like NH₄⁺ by active chlorine. The pesticide decays were also fitted to a pseudo-first order kinetics, and its presence led to a smaller release of N-volatiles. Overall, BDD 29 always favored the pesticide degradation thanks to the action of $BDD(^{\bullet}OH)$, whereas $RuO₂$ was preferred for electrodenitrification under some conditions. The EO/electrodenitrification of 31 groundwater was successful once the matrix was softened to minimize its hardness. The $NO₃$ concentration was reduced below the limit established by the WHO. Overall, the BDD/Fe cell was more suitable than the RuO2/Fe cell because it accelerated the pesticide removal with a simultaneous 34 high degree NO₃⁻ electroreduction. However, it produced toxic chlorate and perchlorate. A final post- treatment with an anion exchange resin ensures a significant removal of both ions, thus increasing the viability of the electrochemical approach to treat this type of water. Chromatographic analyses revealed the formation of ten heteroaromatic products like desethyl-terbuthylazine and cyanuric acid, alongside oxalic and oxamic as final short-chain carboxylic acids.

 Keywords: Boron-doped diamond anode; Electrochemical oxidation; Electrodenitrification; Groundwater; Iron cathode

1. Introduction

42 NO₃[−] ion and pesticides are the main pollutants of groundwater resources in regions with high density of livestock and agricultural land. The occurrence of these toxic agents is consistently linked to hazardous health problems and diseases exerted on animals and humans, especially in arid and isolated regions where groundwater is a direct source for irrigation and drinking water supply [1]. The application of highly effective water treatment technologies is therefore a must in such cases, 47 aiming to prevent serious health risks. The atmospheric N_xO_y gases, as well as surplus synthetic 48 nitrogen fertilizers and manure spread on land are the main sources of $NO₃⁻$ that is further 49 accumulated in groundwater, attaining contents up to 900 mg L^{-1} due to its weak adsorption and high solubility [1,2]. High contents of this anion may cause methaemoglobinaemia and cardiovascular illnesses [3,4], and for this reason, the World Health Organization (WHO) limits to 50 mg L^{-1} its concentration in groundwater intended for human consumption. Classical separation methods such as ion exchange and reverse osmosis are able to remove NO_3^- from water [4], but lately more attention has been drawn to the electrochemical technologies. Among them, electrocoagulation and electrodialysis have been proven effective as separation methods [5], although there is greater interest in transformation treatments involving electroreduction. The latter, which is also called electrodenitrification, consists in the use of an electrocatalytic cathode to increase the activity and/or 58 selectivity of the NO₃[−] reduction process. Worth noting, electrodenitrification has been rarely coupled with electrochemical oxidation (EO) [2,4,5-24].

 Several factors such as cell configuration, applied current (*I*), solution composition and pH affect 61 the effectiveness of $NO₃⁻$ electroreduction. It has been found that this process becomes faster using 62 electrodes with large overpotential for the H_2 evolution reaction (HER), owing to the comparatively slower rate of H⁺ and/or H₂O electroreduction. This has been confirmed from the behavior of metallic and semiconductor cathode surfaces made of Pd-Rd [6,7], Sn [8,9], Cu [10,11], Cu-Zn [5,12], stainless steel (SS) [13,14], boron-doped diamond (BDD), SS, graphite, silicon carbide and Pb

66 [15,16], Sn, Bi, Pb, Al, Zn and In [17], Sn modified Pd [18], Fe, Cu, Ni and carbon foams [19], Cu, 67 Pd, Pt and Rh nanoparticles deposited on reduced graphene [20], Cu-Ni [21], Fe [14,22], TiO₂ 68 nanotubes [23], and Bi-Pd nanoparticles [24]. The electroreduction process is complex and involves 69 the initial transformation of NO_3^- into NO_2^- ion by overall reaction (1), which is subsequently reduced 70 to NH₃ according to reaction (2), via NH₂OH formation, or converted into N₂ gas by reaction (3) 71 through N_xO_y species [2,15,25]:

$$
72 \quad NO_3^- + H_2O + 2e^- \rightarrow NO_2^- + 2OH^- \tag{1}
$$

$$
73 \quad NO_2^- + 6H_2O + 6e^- \rightarrow NH_3 + 8OH^- \tag{2}
$$

$$
74 \quad 2NO_2^- + 4H_2O + 6e^- \rightarrow N_2(g) + 8OH^- \tag{3}
$$

 EO/electrodenitrification pairing using an undivided reactor appears to be an appealing alternative to increase the viability of the electrochemical technologies, since the typical parasitic oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode (M) is replaced by water conversion to adsorbed 78 hydroxyl radical (M(*OH)) via reaction (4). This is a strong oxidant that can be directly employed to degrade organic pollutants [26-28]:

$$
80 \quad M + H_2O \rightarrow M(^{\bullet}OH) + H^+ + e^-
$$
\n
$$
(4)
$$

81 In EO, the non-active BDD anode is more powerful than the active dimensionally stable anodes 82 (DSA®) in chloride-free aqueous matrices because it gives large amounts of physisorbed M(*OH). In 83 contrast, in Cl[−] media the oxidation power of DSA[®] is considerably improved due to its higher selectivity to produce active chlorine (Cl₂/HClO/ClO[−]) via reactions (5)-(7) [28,29]. HClO with E° = 85 1.36 V prevails at pH 3.0-8.0, whereas at pH > 8.0 the milder ClO[−] with *E*º = 0.89 V predominates. 86 Once generated, active chlorine can oxidize NH₃ to N₂ from reaction (8) [16,30-33] or to NO₃⁻ ion 87 from reaction (9) [30,31]. Oxidation of $NO₂⁻$ to $NO₃⁻$ ion via reaction (10) is feasible [34], thereby 88 reducing the global effectiveness of NO₃[−] electroreduction. Active chlorine can be anodically

oxidized to yield toxic and undesired $ClO₃⁻$ and $ClO₄⁻$ ions [14-16], and the process can be further 90 complicated by the formation of chloramines, initiated by reaction (11) [16,35,36]. Chloramines are 91 preferentially formed in acidic medium and can easily evolve to N_2 or N_2O . Reactions (6)-(11) are 92 homogeneous, thus taking place in the solution bulk. Note that reactions (2), (8), (9) and (11) can 93 involve either NH₃ in alkaline medium or its less reactive protonated form NH₄⁺ ($pK_a = 9.25$) in acidic 94 and circumneutral media. In the three latter reactions, $NH₃/NH₄$ ⁺ reacts with active chlorine in the 95 form of ClO[−]/HClO, having the higher or lower redox potential of these oxidants a certain influence 96 on the conversion percentage.

$$
97 \quad 2Cl^- \rightarrow Cl_2(aq) + 2e^- \tag{5}
$$

$$
98 \quad Cl_2(aq) + H_2O \rightarrow HClO + H^+ + Cl^-
$$
\n
$$
(6)
$$

$$
99 \quad \text{HClO} \cong \text{ClO}^- + \text{H}^+ \qquad pK_a = 7.53 \tag{7}
$$

$$
100 \quad 2NH_3 + 2ClO^- \to N_2(g) + 2Cl^- + 2H_2O + 2H^+ + 2e^- \tag{8}
$$

$$
101 \quad NH_3 + 4ClO^- \to NO_3^- + H_2O + H^+ + 4Cl^- \tag{9}
$$

$$
102 \quad NO_2^- + ClO^- \rightarrow NO_3^- + Cl^- \tag{10}
$$

$$
103 \quad NH_3 + ClO^- \rightarrow NH_2Cl + OH^- \tag{11}
$$

104 Some authors evaluated the influence of the anode material on the $NO₃⁻$ electroreduction, showing that in the presence of Cl[−], BDD becomes more efficient than IrO₂-based DSA[®] [14,16]. 106 This unexpected behavior has been ascribed to the lower adsorption of the products, arising from 107 cathodic NO₃[−] reduction, on BDD surface, which drastically diminishes their eventual re-oxidation. 108 Much less is known about the electrodenitrification process in groundwater, although a smaller 109 efficiency could be expected due to different detrimental factors such as the presence of natural 110 organic matter (NOM), the low $NO₃⁻$ concentration and the high hardness that can cause the cathode 111 deactivation, thus blocking the electrocatalytic reduction process [25].

 In recent years, our group has shown the excellent oxidation power of EO and other electrochemical advanced oxidation processes to destroy pesticides in synthetic solutions [37-42] and even in groundwater [14,29]. A preliminary study about the treatment of the insecticide imidacloprid in groundwater evidenced a better performance of EO/electrodenitrification using Fe as cathode to 116 simultaneously remove the pesticide and NO₃[−] ion [14]. However, more research efforts are required to demonstrate the potential viability of paired electrolysis for groundwater remediation in view of the scarce information available so far.

 Terbuthylazine (TBZE, CAS number 5915-41-3, C9H16ClN5, *N-tert*-butyl-6-chloro-*N'*-ethyl- 120 [1,3,5]triazine-2,4-diamine, $M = 229.71$ g mol⁻¹) belongs to the s-triazine family, and it is one of the most used herbicides in Portugal, Italy and Spain [43]. It is a pollutant of emerging concern because its low solubility in water (about 9 mg dm⁻³ at 20 °C) and high affinity to soil confer large persistence 123 in surface water, groundwater and marine water, where it has reached 0.2 μ g L⁻¹, > 5 μ g L⁻¹ and 84 124 ng L^{-1} in EU countries, respectively. Note that 0.1 μ g L^{-1} is the recommended maximum content in drinking water, according to EU Directives [43,44]. TBZE is very toxic to living beings at low doses due to its ability to bioaccumulate, posing high long-term risks to non-target plants and soil macroinvertebrates, mammals and aquatic organisms [43]. It is decomposed to desethylterbuthylazine (DE-TBZE), which is also largely persistent in water and even more toxic than the parent herbicide [44]. Several works have reported a large removal of TBZE from water by simple separation methods involving adsorption on membranes [45], selective polymeric materials [46], activated carbon and carbon nanotubes [47] and metal-organic frameworks [48]. Transformation techniques including 132 O₃/activated carbon, solar/O₃ and solar/TiO₂/O₃ [47], UV/H₂O₂ [47,49], UV/TiO₂/chitosan [50] and UV/B-doped TiO2/O3 [51] have been tested as well. Tasca et al. [52] used a zero-gap cell equipped 134 with a BDD mesh anode, a $RuO₂$ mesh cathode and a solid polymer electrolyte, to degrade 300 cm³ 135 of 4 mg dm⁻³ TBZE in deionized water by EO. About 89% and 97% of pesticide removal was attained 136 after 60 min at 100 and 500 mA, respectively, with energy consumptions < 11 kWh m⁻³. Note that the target herbicide possesses 5 N atoms that can be released to contribute to $NO₃⁻$ accumulation.

 To gain a better insight on the EO/electrodenitrification process, here we report the simultaneous 139 TBZE electrochemical oxidation and NO₃[−] electroreduction in actual groundwater matrix. Key experimental parameters like *I* and pH were systematically assessed. The experiments were carried 141 out with an undivided tank reactor equipped with a BDD or $RuO₂$ (i.e., $DSA[®]-Cl₂$) anode and an Fe cathode. Prior to electrolysis with groundwater matrix, the sample was softened to minimize the content of alkaline earth metal ions, a crucial step to avoid the loss of cathode electroactivity upon precipitation of hydroxides and carbonates. Comparative assays were performed with simulated solutions mimicking the anionic composition of the softened groundwater to clarify the evolution of 146 NO₃[−] and generated ions and the role of NOM. TBZE was always spiked into the aqueous matrices 147 at a concentration as high as 5.0 mg dm^{-3} in order to minimize the quantification error of all concentrations, thus providing reliable degradation kinetics data. The total nitrogen (TN) concentration decay in solution was monitored as well. A post-treatment with an ion exchange resin was implemented as a final conditioning step to reduce the impact of the oxychlorine anions produced.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals

154 Analytical standards (PESTANAL[®]) terbuthylazine and desethylterbuthylazine were purchased 155 from Sigma. The solution pH was regulated with analytical grade H_2SO_4 (95-98%) and NaOH (98- 100%) purchased from Panreac. Simulated water matrices were prepared with analytical grade 157 electrolytes, including KCl ($> 99\%$) provided by Sigma-Aldrich, and KNO₃ (98%) and K₂SO₄ (99.9%) supplied by Panreac. Other chemicals and solvents used were either of analytical or high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade provided by Aldrich, Fluka, Lancaster and 160 Panreac. Ultrapure water (Millipore Milli-Q, > 18.2 M Ω cm) was used to prepare the analytical solutions and simulated water matrices.

2.2. Aqueous matrices

 Actual groundwater was collected from a water well located in an agricultural land in the surroundings of Barcelona (Spain). The sample was softened following three consecutive steps: (i) alkalinization up to pH 11.5 by adding 1 M NaOH solution, (ii) sedimentation for 24 h and filtration with regenerated cellulose filter membrane (0.45 µm) to remove the precipitated carbonates and 167 hydroxides and, finally, (iii) acidification with 1 M H₂SO₄ solution to reach the desired pH. The resulting softened groundwater was preserved in a refrigerator at 4 ºC before usage for electrolytic treatments. Table 1 collects the physicochemical parameters of: (i) the raw groundwater; (ii) the softened groundwater once conditioned at pH 4.0 and with TBZE spiked at a concentration of 5.0 mg dm⁻³; (iii) that softened groundwater, after an electrochemical treatment for 360 min; and (iv) the solution resulting from such electrolysis, after treatment with a Purolite® A532E resin, a polystyrenic strong base anion gel in the chloride form that is recommended by the provider for perchlorate removal. As can be seen, the softening process led to a drastic reduction of the concentration of all 175 alkaline earth metal ions, whereas the Na⁺ and SO_4^{2-} concentrations substantially grew up. This sample showed low conductivity and total organic carbon (TOC), whereas its TN content mainly 177 corresponded to NO_3^- . The final post-treatment with the resin allowed the reduction of the ClO_3^- , NO₃[−] and SO₄^{2−} concentrations alongside the complete removal of ClO₄[−], with a concomitant increase 179 in the Cl[−] content.

 Three simulated water samples were prepared to separately assess the behavior of the main anions contained in the softened groundwater. The conductivity of such solutions at neutral pH was 182 around 1.7-1.8 mS cm⁻¹ and their composition was: (i) 10 mM K₂SO₄ (980 mg dm⁻³ SO₄²⁻); (ii) 1.6 183 mM KNO₃ (100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻) + 7.6 mM K₂SO₄ (745 mg dm⁻³ SO₄²⁻); and (iii) 10 mM KCl (355 184 mg dm⁻³ Cl[−]) + 1.6 mM KNO₃ (100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−]) + 0.8 mM K₂SO₄ (78 mg dm⁻³ SO₄^{2−}). The pH of

 these solutions was adjusted to 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5 and they were electrolyzed, in the absence or 186 presence of 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE, without pH regulation.

2.3. Electrolytic system

 The electrolytic assays were performed in an undivided glass tank reactor, which had a jacket to 189 continuously recirculate thermostated water at 25 $^{\circ}$ C. Each experiment was made with 500 cm³ of solution, which was kept under stirring with a magnetic follower at 900 rpm. The anode was either a 191 Nb mesh coated with a 5 μ m BDD thin film (3,500 ppm B), purchased from Condias, or a RuO₂ mesh purchased from De Nora, whereas a custom iron mesh (Fe, 99.9%) was used as the cathode. The surface of the anode and cathode immersed into the solution had dimensions of 3.5 cm × 7.5 cm. The electrodes were placed in the center of the tank reactor, separated at a distance of 3 mm. In some cases, two Fe cathodes were used, with the anode sandwiched between them keeping a separation of 3 mm with each cathode. The electrolyses were carried out under galvanostatic conditions with an Amel 2051 potentiostat-galvanostat providing a constant current (*I*) of 250, 500 or 1000 mA. A Demestres 601BR digital multimeter was used to monitor the potential difference between the electrodes. Before each experiment, the Fe cathode was consecutively polished with P240 and P800 sandpapers, submerged in a 20% H2SO4 solution, rinsed with Milli-Q water and dried at room temperature.

2.4. Analytical procedures

 A Metrohm 644 conductometer and a Crison 2200 pH-meter were used to determine the solution conductance and pH, respectively. A periodic withdrawal of 1.5 cm^3 of treated samples from the tank reactor was made for analysis, followed by filtration with Whatman 0.45 μm PTFE membrane filters. TN measurements were made with a Shimadzu VCSN TOC analyzer coupled to a TNM-1 unit. 207 The nitrogen mass balance at the end of each assay was made considering the NO_2^- , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations detected, the solution TN value at each time to account for other soluble N-species and the initial TN of the sample to ascertain the quantity of volatiles released. Free chlorine and total chlorine contents were obtained by the *N*,*N*-diethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine colorimetric method, using 211 an Unicam UV4 UV/Vis spectrophotometer at $\lambda = 515$ nm [53]. The concentration of Cl⁻, ClO₃⁻, ClO₄⁻, NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ ions was obtained following the procedures described elsewhere [54]. The content of iron, calcium, magnesium ions and the other elements in solution was determined by inductively coupled plasma with optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) on a Perkin Elmer Optima 8300 spectrometer.

216 The TBZE concentration was monitored by reversed-phase HPLC using a Waters 600 liquid 217 chromatograph (LC) coupled to a 996 photodiode array detector. Aliquots of 20 μL were injected into 218 the LC and the separation of organics was achieved by means of a Spherisorb \otimes S5 ODS2 5 μ m (150) 219 mm \times 4.6 mm (i.d.)) column at 35 °C, upon elution with a 60:40 (v/v) acetonitrile/water mixture at 220 1.0 cm³ min⁻¹. Using Empower[®] software for control, the peak for TBZE (λ = 222.9 nm) appeared at retention time (t_r) of 7.8 min, with L.O.Q = 0.32 mg dm⁻³ and L.O.D = 0.11 mg dm⁻³. The peak for 222 DE-TBZE (λ = 214.7 nm) appeared at t_r = 4.1 min, with L.O.Q = 0.59 mg dm⁻³ and L.O.D = 0.19 mg 223 dm^{-3} .

224 The same LC was equipped with a Bio-Rad Aminex HPX 87H (300 mm \times 7.8 mm (i.d.)) column 225 at 35 °C, its detector selected at $\lambda = 210$ and a 4 mM H₂SO₄ solution flowing at 0.6 cm³ min⁻¹ as 226 mobile phase, to quantify the produced acids by ion-exclusion HPLC. The acids detected were oxalic 227 $(t_r = 7.3 \text{ min})$, oxamic $(t_r = 10.3 \text{ min})$ and cyanuric $(t_r = 12.6 \text{ min})$.

228 The experiments were always made in duplicate, and average results are reported. Figures show 229 the corresponding error bars within a 95% confidence interval.

230 Solutions of 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE spiked into a simulated water matrix at pH 4.0 and 25 °C were 231 electrolyzed for 60 min using a BDD/Fe cell at $I = 500$ mA. The organics were extracted with CH_2Cl_2 (3×50 cm³). The organic phase was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered and its volume reduced to ca. 2 cm³ under N₂ stream for analysis by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-234 MS). The analysis was performed by equipping the gas chromatograph with either a polar Agilent 235 HP-INNOWax GC or a non-polar Teknokroma Sapiens X5-MS column, following the same 236 procedures detailed in earlier work [55]. The mass spectra of heteroaromatic products formed from 237 the initial TBZE degradation were compared with those found in the NIST05 database.

238 **3. Results and discussion**

239 *3.1. Electrodenitrification of simulated groundwater without herbicide*

240 A first series of experiments was performed to clarify the effect of pH on the $NO₃$ ⁻ electroreduction, in the absence of pesticide. This was made by electrolyzing 500 cm^3 of solutions 242 with 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 7.6 mM SO₄²⁻ at initial pH of 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5 using BDD/Fe and RuO₂/Fe 243 tank reactors at $I = 500$ mA. Table 2 shows that the acidic and neutral solutions were strongly 244 alkalinized, attaining final pH values of 10.3-10.8 and 10.1-11.2 in the cells with BDD and RuO₂, 245 respectively, as expected from the OH⁻ generation upon consecutive reduction of NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻, NH₃ 246 and N₂ via reactions (1)-(3) [14]. The high OH⁻ content at initial pH 10.5 can explain the small pH 247 variation $(\pm 0.5 \text{ units})$ found in that medium regardless of the anode used (see Table 2).

248 Fig. 1a presents the variation of $NO₃⁻$ concentration with electrolysis time. Using BDD anode, 249 similar decays can be observed at all pH values, with a reduction of 75%-78% at the end of the 250 treatment. This good result can be related to the poor adsorption of the products originated from NO_3^- 251 electroreduction (e.g., NH_4^+ ion) on the BDD surface regardless of the pH. As a result, their 252 subsequent re-oxidation to the parent anion occurred only to a small extent, which was positive in 253 terms of global nitrate removal [15,16]. In contrast, a fluctuating behavior occurred in the cell with 254 RuO₂ anode, with up to 87% of NO₃⁻ removal at pH 4.0, 81% at pH 10.5 but only up to 56% at pH 255 7.0. This means that at the latter pH, the products of $NO₃⁻$ electroreduction are more largely adsorbed 256 onto the RuO2 surface, favoring their faster re-oxidation. According to these findings, the use of BDD 257 is more favorable for electrodenitrification at neutral pH, whereas $RuO₂$ becomes slightly superior in 258 acidic and alkaline media. Fig. 1b depicts that the above concentration decays obeyed a pseudo-first-

order kinetics, and the apparent rate constants $(k(NO₃⁻))$ are collected in Table 2. As expected from 260 the trends of Fig. 1, similar $k(NO_3^-)$ values between 4.6×10^{-3} and 5.2×10^{-3} min⁻¹ were obtained in 261 the trials with BDD, which rose up to 6.3×10^{-3} min⁻¹ for the faster abatement at pH 4.0 using RuO₂. 262 The accumulated NH_4^+ content increased gradually as the NO_3^- concentration disappeared, as 263 can be seen in Fig. 1c. About 20 mg dm⁻³ as maximal and 12 mg dm⁻³ as minimal of NH₄⁺ were finally 264 obtained. A certain TN abatement was found in all the assays, varying between 9.0% and 18%, which 265 can be related to the loss of volatile N-compounds (see Fig. 1d). The speciation of N-containing 266 compounds at the end of all electrolyses shown in Fig. 1e reveals the preeminence of $NH₄$ ⁺ ion over 267 all the other species, suggesting the leading role of consecutive reactions (1) and (2) in the 268 electrodenitrification process with Fe cathode. The production of volatile N-compounds, like N_xO_y 269 and N_2 via reaction (3) is then a less favorable reduction route. Note that at the final alkaline pH 270 values achieved, the acid/base equilibrium of NH_4^+ ion ($pK_a = 4.75$) results in the accumulation of its 271 conjugated form, which can contribute to the N-volatiles.

272 Data of Table 2 also show higher average cell potentials (*E*cell) using BDD, owing to the higher 273 potential required for water discharge as compared to that needed with $RuO₂$ [26]. The energy 274 consumption (EC) of the process, calculated as $EC = E_{cell} I t / V$, was then greater for BDD (45.0-50.4 275 kWh m⁻³ vs 39.0-41.2 kWh m⁻³).

276 The above study was extended to a 10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻ solution to 277 explore the effect of Cl[−] oxidation on the NO₃[–] electroreduction. These trials were carried out starting at pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5 using both cells at *I* = 500 mA. In addition, with the BDD anode, the effect of *I* was studied at pH 4.0. After 360 min, Table 2 shows that final pH values with BDD were similar to those mentioned for chloride-free solutions, whereas they tended to be slightly lower (8.4-10.0) using RuO2. This behavior suggests that the greater production of active chlorine with the latter anode resulted in a relevant contribution of reactions (9)-(10), eventually leading to a smaller global 283 electrodenitrification with lower OH[−] net production from reactions (1)-(3). This hypothesis is

confirmed from the profiles of Fig. 2a, where the NO_3^- concentration decays more slowly using RuO_2 . 285 The NO₃⁻content was progressively reduced by 79%, 76% and 65% at pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5 using 286 BDD, becoming slower until reaching 62%, 60% and 47% removal with RuO2. Good linear 287 correlations related to a pseudo-first order process were found for all these trends (see Fig. 2b), giving 288 is rise to lower $k(NO_3^-)$ values as compared to those determined in the absence of chloride (see Table 289 2). The loss of efficiency of NO_3^- electroreduction in the chloride medium can be accounted for by the anodic generation of active chlorine (HClO and/or ClO[−]) via reactions (5)-(7), which then reacts 291 with NH₄⁺ (largely formed from NO₃⁻ reduction, as shown in Fig. 1c) to originate N₂ gas via reaction 292 (8), regenerate NO_3^- ion via reactions (9) and (10) or produce chloramines via reaction (11). The 293 oxidation of electroreduction products by active chlorine contributed to slow down the global 294 electrodenitrification. Moreover, the progressive deceleration of $NO₃⁻$ electroreduction with decrease 295 of $k(NO_3^-)$ was much more remarkable when changing the starting pH from neutral to alkaline (see Fig. 2a and Table 2). This phenomenon can be ascribed to the conversion of HClO to ClO[−] 296 , which 297 behaves as a more reactive species, either promoting the oxidation of N-species to $NO₃⁻$ or competing 298 with $NO₃⁻$ electroreduction. On the other hand, Fig. 2a also shows a more effective 299 electrodenitrification when *I* was increased from 250 to 1000 mA at pH 4.0 using BDD, with the 1300 highest NO₃[−] removal of 82% attained upon application of the greatest *I*. The corresponding $k(NO_3^-)$ values of Table 2 were upgraded from 3.3×10^{-3} to 6.1×10^{-3} min⁻¹ (1.85-fold) upon a 4-fold rise of 302 *I* from 250 to 1000 mA, pointing to a larger influence of NH₄⁺ re-oxidation at higher *I*.

303 The effect of reactions (8)-(11) on electrodenitrification was confirmed by analyzing the 304 evolution of generated NH₄⁺ and TN. No NH₄⁺ was detected using the RuO₂ anode. Fig. 2c shows 305 that the amount of this ion accumulated in the medium using the BDD anode depended on the applied 306 *I*. While NH₄⁺ was not found at 250 mA, it was accumulated between 2.2 and 2.9 mg dm⁻³ at 500 mA 307 and much more largely (up to 10.0 mg dm⁻³) at 1000 mA, in agreement with the faster $NO₃$ ⁻

308 electroreduction. Much larger TN removals were attained in the chloride medium (see Fig. 2d) as 309 compared to those in the chloride-free one (see Fig. 1d), which is explained by the loss of much 310 greater amounts of volatile N-compounds, mainly N_2 . For example, up to 65.5% of volatiles was 311 released as maximal at initial pH 7.0 with a BDD anode at 500 mA, much superior to 12.5% found 312 in the absence of chloride. Active chlorine reacts with the generated NH_4^+ via reaction (8), reaching 313 the breakpoint chlorination at a pH at which the HClO and NH_4^+ species have the maximum 314 reactivity, enhancing the production of volatile N-compounds especially at an initial pH of 7.0. At 315 initial pH 10.5, the acid/base equilibrium of NH₄⁺ ion (p $K_a = 9.25$) is shifted toward NH₃, the most 16 reactive form with active chlorine, but ClO[−] has a lower oxidation power than its acidic counterpart, 317 yielding a lower amount of volatile N-compounds. From these results, the speciation of the final N-318 compounds is depicted in Fig. 2e. As can be seen, the residual $NO₃⁻$ and, more significantly, the 319 volatile N-compounds in most cases were the predominant species. This means that the reduction of 320 NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺ via reaction (2), followed by the conversion of NH₄⁺ to N₂ via reaction (8), are the 321 preferential electrodenitrification steps occurring in the chloride matrix.

Fig. 3a shows the decay of Cl[−] concentration for the runs performed in the chloride media. Two 323 trends can be observed: (i) a slow abatement of the ion using RuO2, achieving close to 47% removal 324 regardless of the pH; and (ii) a faster removal with BDD that was highly dependent on the applied *I*, 325 yielding increasing final removals of 75%, 93% and 96% at 250, 500 and 1000 mA, respectively, at 926 pH 4.0. This agrees with the tendencies of the *k*(Cl[−]) values listed in Table 2 for such assays, obtained 327 from the excellent linear profiles shown in Fig. 3b assuming a pseudo-first-order reaction. The slow 328 Cl[−] removal found using RuO₂ is indicative of its main electrodic oxidation via reaction (5). In 329 contrast, its quicker destruction using BDD can be ascribed to the action not only of reaction (5), but also to its reaction with BDD(*OH) originated from reaction (4), which is a more powerful oxidant 331 than RuO₂(*OH). It is noticeable that for BDD, the rise of *k*(Cl[−]) value showed good proportionality with *I*, changing from 3.4×10^{-3} min⁻¹ at 250 mA to 1.24×10^{-2} min⁻¹ at 1000 mA (see Table 2). This

333 suggests an almost linear enhancement of the rate of reactions (4) and (5) to destroy the ion. It is well 334 known that further conversion of Cl[−] into active chlorine is complicated with BDD due to the subsequent generation of $ClO₃⁻$ and $ClO₄⁻$ ions as follows [26]:

$$
336 \quad \text{ClO}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{ClO}_2^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \tag{12}
$$

$$
337 \quad \text{ClO}_2^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{ClO}_3^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \tag{13}
$$

$$
338 \quad \text{ClO}_3^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{ClO}_4^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \tag{14}
$$

339 The time course of both ions for the same trials is presented in Fig. 3c and 3d. As can be seen, 340 when a RuO₂ anode was used, low ClO₃⁻ contents up to 120 mg dm⁻³ were always determined at all pH values, whereas no ClO₄⁻ was found. This behavior indicates that this anode allowed reactions 342 (12) and (13) to some extent, but reaction (14) was completely inhibited. In contrast, much higher $ClO₃$ concentrations were found with BDD, thanks to the parallel reaction with BDD($^{\bullet}OH$). In fact, 344 Fig. 3c shows a similar ClO₃⁻ evolution at all pH values and a decay of its accumulated content with raising *I* due to its fast reaction with BDD($^{\bullet}$ OH) to obtain much greater amounts of ClO₄⁻ as the 346 electrolysis was prolonging (see Fig. 3d). For example, at the highest *I* of 1000 mA, a ClO₄[−] concentration as high as 925 mg dm⁻³ was determined, being much higher than 35 mg dm⁻³ obtained 348 for ClO₃⁻ ion. These two ions were the main oxidation products of Cl⁻ with BDD, since no active 349 chlorine was detected at the end of most treatments.

 The similar conductivity of media prepared with and without chloride allowed obtaining an analogous *E*cell at a given *I*, giving rise to EC values similar to those mentioned above (see Table 2). As expected, *E*cell and EC increased dramatically with increasing *I*, attaining excessively high values 353 of 13.5 V and 162.0 kWh m⁻³ at 1000 mA, although the higher electrodenitrification power could justify the operation at such high input current.

355 *3.2. Electrochemical oxidation of terbuthylazine in sulfate medium*

The oxidation ability of the BDD/Fe cell to remove TBZE from 500 cm³ of a 10 mM Na₂SO₄ solution with 5.0 mg dm⁻³ herbicide at pH 4.0 by EO was assessed at 500 mA for 360 min. The solution pH slightly increased, whereas the *E*cell of 8.3 V was analogous to the above matrices with similar conductivity, resulting in an EC close to 50 kWh $m⁻³$ (see Table 2).

 Fig. 4a highlights the fast herbicide abatement with electrolysis time, completely disappearing from the medium in 80 min. Its concentration followed a pseudo-first-order decay, as depicted in the inset of Fig. 4a, with an apparent rate constant $k(TBZE) = 9.0 \times 10^{-2}$ min⁻¹, much greater than that found for Cl[−] oxidation (see Fig. 3a and Table 2). This is indicative of a quick reaction of the target 364 herbicide with a constant concentration of BDD(*OH) formed from reaction (4).

 The intermediates and final products formed during the EO process were analyzed as well. The reversed-phase HPLC chromatograms revealed the production of DE-TBZE as main heteroaromatic 367 byproduct. It was rapidly accumulated up to 0.59 mg dm⁻³ at 10 min, further being completely removed in 150 min (see Fig. 4b). Fig. 4c shows that the NH 4^+ concentration grew continuously up 369 to 0.73 mg N dm⁻³, while NO₃⁻ was accumulated up to 0.69 mg N dm⁻³, accounting for a 47.8% and 370 45.3% of the 1.525 mg N dm⁻³ contained in the herbicide, respectively. This suggests the presence of other more recalcitrant N-products in the final solution, considering the low ability of BDD to produce N₂ (see Fig. 1e). Oxalic, oxamic and cyanuric acids were identified by ion-exclusion HPLC. The two former carboxylic acids are final byproducts that are directly transformed into $CO₂$, whereas cyanuric acid is the most stable byproduct in the degradation of s-triazines [56]. As can be seen in Fig. 4d, only oxalic acid was completely removed in 120 min, whereas the other acids were very persistent, thereby impeding the overall mineralization of TBZE.

3.3. Electrochemical oxidation/electrodenitrification process in simulated groundwater

378 The paired EO/electrodenitrification using the BDD/Fe and $RuO₂/Fe$ tank reactors was studied 379 with a 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 7.6 mM SO₄²⁻ solution at pH 4.0 and 500 mA. As in the cases discussed above, the solution pH raised up to ca. 10 after 360 min of electrolysis, the *E*cell 381 value was slightly superior with the BDD anode, and EC values were similar to those found without 382 the herbicide (see Table 2). Fig. 5a highlights a much faster TBZE removal using BDD. The herbicide 383 was completely abated in 120 min, a time higher than 80 min needed in sulfate medium (see Fig. 4a), 384 suggesting that the anodic oxidation of NH_4^+ diminishes the amount of BDD($^{\bullet}OH$) available for 385 TBZE destruction. In contrast, the herbicide concentration was reduced by 89% using RuO2, in 386 agreement with the much smaller oxidation power of $RuO₂([*]OH)$. This behavior can be confirmed 387 from the corresponding *k*(TBZE) values, which were 9.0-fold higher using BDD (see Table 2). The 388 intermediate DE-TBZE was not detected with this anode, in contrast to that found in sulfate medium 389 (see Fig. 4b), probably because it was accumulated to a smaller amount during the whole electrolysis. 390 This phenomenon did not occur with $RuO₂$ due to its lower oxidation ability, and DE-TBZE was 191 largely accumulated without apparent destruction, attaining a steady value 1.49 mg dm⁻³ as can be seen in Fig. 5b. The aforementioned behavior can be confirmed from the NO₃⁻ abatements shown in Fig. 5c. Using the RuO₂ anode, the content decayed with a $k(NO_3^-)$ value of 6.5×10^{-3} min⁻¹. This is 394 similar to that determined in the absence of the herbicide (see Table 2), denoting that EO and 395 electroreduction behave as independent processes using RuO2. In contrast, the interaction of both 396 processes using BDD caused 0.5-fold drop of $k(NO₃⁻)$ in the presence of the herbicide, pointing to 397 the $NO₃⁻$ generation during the pesticide degradation. This was confirmed by the fact that in the final solution treated with BDD, small contents of NO_2^- ion were detected alongside a much smaller NH_4^+ 399 accumulation (see Fig. 5d). As in the case of the chloride-free medium without the herbicide, in the 400 presence of this latter pollutant a very low TN removal could be observed (Fig. 5e). Hence, $NO₃$ ⁻ 401 vevolved mainly to NH₄⁺ via reaction (2) and, to a much smaller extent, to N₂ gas via reaction (3). The 402 speciation of the final N-compounds depicted in Fig. 5f confirms this behavior, showing that the 403 generated NH₄⁺ ion and the residual NO₃⁻ ion were the main N-species regardless of the anode. Note 404 that the N initially contained in the herbicide was not measured with the TN analyzer, but this N (10% 405 of the total TN) appeared gradually as the herbicide byproducts were formed, which justifies the

 normalized TN values greater than 1.0 in Fig. 5e. This was more significant using BDD due to its greater power to destroy TBZE.

The study was completed with the case of a simulated matrix with chloride (10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻). TBZE was spiked at a concentration of 5.0 mg dm⁻³, and the effect of initial pH from 4.0 to 10.5 and applied *I* from 250 to 1000 mA was evaluated with both cells. Comparison of the data of Table 2 for these assays allows concluding that analogous final pH, *E*cell and EC values were obtained in the absence and presence of TBZE. As expected, the latter two parameters underwent a progressive rise at higher *I*, with the consequent acceleration of all electrodic reactions.

 For the cell with the BDD anode, Fig. 6a shows a gradual deceleration of the herbicide disappearance as the pH was risen from 4.0 to 10.5 at each given *I*, with a concomitant longer time needed for total removal. This tendency can also be deduced from the corresponding *k*(TBZE) values collected in Table 2. For example, at 500 mA, the herbicide disappeared after 50, 60 and 100 min at 419 pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5, related to decreasing $k(TBZE)$ values of 9.9 \times 10⁻², 5.7 \times 10⁻² and 5.2 \times 10⁻² 420 min⁻¹. Note that at the best pH of 4.0, a slightly quicker herbicide destruction was attained in the presence of chloride, as compared to sulfate medium $(k(TBZE) = 9.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1})$ and chloride-free 422 matrix $(k(TBZE) = 5.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1})$. This can be explained by its simultaneous reaction with 423 BDD(^{*}OH) formed via reaction (4) and active chlorine (HClO) generated via reactions (5) and (6), which accelerated its destruction. The change of this active chlorine form to the weaker oxidant ClO[−] can justify the loss of oxidation power when starting at pH 7.0 and 10.5. Fig. 6a also shows that, at 426 each pH, TBZE decayed more rapidly at higher *I*, as result of the greater production of BDD(*OH) and active chlorine.

428 The rate of $NO₃⁻$ concentration decay in the chloride medium was slightly lower with the herbicide (see Fig. 6b) than in its absence (see Fig. 2a). This trend can also be established from the 430 lower *k*(NO₃⁻) values determined in the former case, listed in Table 2. In the presence of TBZE, part

431 of the active chlorine oxidizes the organics, yielding additional amounts of $NO₃⁻$ ion. This was 432 confirmed by the very low NH_4 ⁺ concentration measured at pH 4.0, which was higher at pH 7.0 and 433 10.5. Large decays of TN were obtained in the chloride medium with herbicide, as shown in Fig. 6c, 434 in agreement with the discussion in the absence of organics (subsection 3.1). The process was slightly 435 slower at pH 10.5, although large amounts of volatile products (N_2) were always formed. The analysis 436 of the distribution of final N-species shown in Fig. 6d makes in evidence that up to 57% of volatile 437 products were produced, corroborating that reaction (8) becomes the most important step for NO_3 ⁻ removal in the presence of Cl[−] 438 . However, a smaller proportion of volatile compounds was detected 439 as compared to the chloride matrix without herbicide (see Fig. 2d), owing to the partial loss of active 440 chlorine resulting from its participation in the degradation of the organic molecules.

Fig. 6e reveals that generated active chlorine was rapidly accumulated up to around 90 mg dm⁻³ 442 as maximal, being subsequently destroyed in all cases after 360 min of electrolysis. Only at pH 10.5 443 some small amounts persisted working at 250 and 500 mA. Although active chlorine attacks the 444 organics and NH₃, with BDD it is mainly destroyed through direct and/or BDD(*OH)-mediated 445 oxidation to ClO_3^- and ClO_4^- ions. Fig. 6f shows the rapid formation of ClO_3^- ion, which was more the 446 rapidly destroyed at increasing *I* to yield a large amount of the stable ClO₄⁻ ion (see Fig. 6g). Fig. 6f 447 and 6g highlight that the evolution of both ions only depended on *I*, being quite similar to that 448 determined without organics (see Fig. 3c and 3d).

The results obtained for the EO/electrodenitrification of a solution containing 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE 450 in 10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−] + 0.8 mM SO₄^{2−} using the RuO₂/Fe tank reactor are presented in 451 Fig.7a-7f. Similar trends to those described for the BDD/Fe cell can be observed, but with notable 452 differences that can be ascribed to the smaller ability of $RuO₂([*]OH)$ to oxidize organics and active 453 chlorine, thus becoming much more effective to remove $NO₃⁻$. Fig.7e reveals the accumulation of 454 much greater contents of active chlorine as compared to the BDD/Fe cell, up to 322 mg dm⁻³ as

455 maximal, which decreased more largely as *I* grew up. The decay of active chlorine is due to its 456 oxidation to ClO₃[−] ion, which is generated to larger extent at higher *I*, as can be seen in Fig. 7f.

457 Regarding the TBZE abatement using the $RuO₂$ anode, two tendencies can be observed in Fig. 458 7a, as compared to the BDD/Fe cell: (i) a lower degradation rate at 250 and 500 mA, with the 459 herbicide being mainly oxidized by $RuO₂([*]OH)$, and (ii) a similar degradation at 1000 mA, when 460 larger amounts of active chlorine act as pre-eminent oxidant. The change of *k*(TBZE) between these 461 two regions can be seen in Table 2. It can also be deduced that the best abatements were achieved at 462 pH 4.0, regardless of the applied *I*. The greater production of active chlorine with $RuO₂$ favors the 463 overall oxidation of NH₃ (not detected) to regenerate more $NO₃⁻$ ion at long electrolysis time. This 464 can be inferred by comparing the $NO₃⁻$ profiles of Fig. 7b using RuO₂ with those of Fig. 6b using 465 BDD. However, the $k(NO_3^-)$ values of Table 2 are greater for the RuO₂ anode. This is not surprising 466 because they were only determined during the first 60 min of electrolysis, because at higher time the 467 NO₃[−] concentration in the medium was practically stabilized due to its fast regeneration from reaction 468 (9). This phenomenon was not found with the BDD anode, where the $NO₃⁻$ concentration decayed 469 gradually and excellent linear $ln([NO₃^-]₀/[NO₃^-])$ vs. *t* plots were obtained up to 300 min of 470 electrolysis. In the same context, Fig. 7c shows a slower TN abatement using $RuO₂$ than that obtained 471 with BDD (see Fig. 6c). Despite this, high percentages of generated volatile N-compounds were 472 always determined, as highlights Fig. 7d, corroborating again the fast reaction (8) to produce N₂ gas. 473 The main species in final solutions was the residual $NO₃⁻$ ion under all operation conditions. No 474 combined chlorine forming chloramines was detected in both cells at the end of any experiment. This 475 suggests that, if produced, they reacted rapidly either with the $NO₂⁻$ ion generated from reaction (1) 476 according to reaction (15), or with the active chlorine present in solution to be oxidized to nitrate.

477 NH₂Cl + NO₂[−] + H₂O → NO₃[−] + NH₄⁺ + Cl[−] (15)

478 *3.4. Electrochemical oxidation/electrodenitrification process in softened actual groundwater*

479 Since the cell equipped with BDD yields faster EO and electrodenitrification than that with RuO₂ 480 in chloride matrices, BDD/Fe cells were chosen to study the paired treatment of 5.0 mg dm^{-3} TBZE 481 spiked into actual softened groundwater (100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻) conditioned at pH 4.0. One cell had one 482 Fe cathode and was operated at *I* = 500 mA, whereas another cell had two Fe cathodes sandwiching 483 the BDD anode to work at $I = 1000$ mA. Moreover, to clarify the influence of NOM on the 484 performance of the system, an assay with the latter cell was carried out with the simulated chloride 485 matrix. A significant effect of using two Fe cathodes instead of one at 1000 mA was the notable decay 486 of E_{cell} (8.8 V vs 14.7 V), giving rise to a great reduction of EC (105.6 kWh m⁻³ vs. 176.4 kWh m⁻³) 487 (see Table 2). Therefore, the number and position of the electrodes plays a crucial role in the 488 optimization of the energy parameters. In contrast, final pH values close to 10.5 were always obtained 489 at the end of the treatment for both systems.

490 A similar TBZE content decay can be observed in Fig. 8a for the simulated and actual softened 491 groundwater using two Fe anodes, achieving the total removal in 40 min, which suggests that the 492 influence of NOM oxidation was irrelevant. In fact, Table 2 shows that the *k*(TBZE) value for both 493 treatments (about 0.16 min^{-1}) was even greater than 0.10 and 0.12 min^{-1} determined for the cell with 494 one Fe cathode at 500 mA (i.e., the same current density than using two Fe cathodes at 1000 mA) and 495 1000 mA, thus being the TBZE degradation faster and more efficient. In contrast, Fig. 8b depicts a 496 slower destruction of the intermediate DE-TBZE in the actual groundwater after reaching a maximal $\frac{497}{ }$ of 0.26 mg dm⁻³, which can be ascribed to the loss of oxidizing agents that are partly consumed by 498 NOM. The effect of the organic matter was also evaluated for the evolution of $NO₃^-$, NH₄⁺ and TN. 499 Fig, 8c and 8e show a very fast $NO₃⁻$ and TN decay in the simulated groundwater with two Fe 500 cathodes, much more rapid than using one Fe cathode at the same *I* (see Fig. 6b and 6c). These figures 501 also show a strong inhibition of both parameters in the actual groundwater, which can be explained 502 by the fouling effect of NOM and residual Mg on the cathode surface and a small formation of $NO₃$ 503 ion from the degradation of NOM. This influence of the organic matter was also evident for the $NO₃$

504 content removal when using the cell with one Fe cathode at *I* = 500 mA to treat the actual groundwater 505 (see Fig. 8c), but it was irrelevant for TN decay as compared to the trial with two Fe cathodes (see 506 Fig. 8e). Fig. 8d reveals the expected greater accumulation of NH_4^+ ion in the three treatments as a 507 greater NO_3^- concentration was abated.

508 A different behavior was observed for the time course of Cl[−], ClO₃⁻ and ClO₄⁻ ions, mainly 509 depending on the applied *I* and with little influence of the number of Fe cathodes, as can be seen in Fig. 8f-8h. Total Cl[−] removal was reached in 240 min using two Fe cathodes, with similar *k*(Cl[−] 510) values of 1.32 -1.40 \times 10⁻² min⁻¹, very close to 1.24×10^{-2} min⁻¹ determined with one Fe cathode (see Table 2). The lower *I* of 500 mA with two Fe cathodes yielded an 88% reduction of Cl[−] content in 513 360 min, with $k(Cl^-) = 5.7 \times 10^{-3}$ min⁻¹, slightly lower than 7.5×10^{-3} min⁻¹ found with one Fe cathode 514 (see Table 2). All the active chlorine produced from Cl[−] oxidation was then transformed into ClO₃⁻, 515 which was converted into ClO_4^- , to larger extent at higher *I*. For the actual groundwater at $I = 1000$ 516 mA, 59 mg dm⁻³ of ClO₃⁻ and 767 mg dm⁻³ of ClO₄⁻ were finally obtained. The latter content was 517 smaller than 975 mg dm⁻³ determined in the simulated groundwater, which can be due to the loss of 518 active chlorine by reaction with the organic matter. The $ClO₃⁻$ and $ClO₄⁻$ concentrations after 519 electrolysis of the actual groundwater need to be removed before disposal or reuse. Aiming at 520 evaluating the viability of the technology for future scale-up, a post-treatment was applied by 521 employing a commercial ion-exchange resin. Table 1 shows that this resin allowed the overall 522 removal of ClO₄⁻ and NO₂⁻ anions, most of the residual ClO₃⁻ ion and partial removal of NO₃⁻ and 523 SO_4^{2-} ions.

524 *3.5. Identification of heteroaromatic byproducts and proposal of initial reaction sequence*

525 Table 3 summarizes the chemical name, molecular structure, type of column, retention time and 526 fragments for the stable heteroaromatic byproducts of TBZE (**1**) identified after 60 min of electrolysis 527 of simulated matrices with and without chloride containing 5.0 mg dm^{-3} herbicide. For this, the BDD/Fe tank reactor was operated at *I* = 500 mA. Although different byproducts were identified in each medium due to the different oxidation environments, any organochlorine derivative was found despite the formation and attack of active chlorine in the chloride matrix, as pointed out above. This surprising finding can be explained by the rapid destruction of such chloro-compounds by the strong 532 oxidant BDD(*OH). As can be seen in Table 3, ten heteroaromatics were identified related to: (i) the release of either the Cl atom with hydrogenation (compound **2**) or hydroxylation (compound **3**), the lateral ethyl group (compound **4**), the lateral *tert*-butyl group (compound **6**) or both lateral groups (compound **10**); (ii) the carbonylation of the ethyl group (compounds **5**, **8** and **9**); (iii) the oxidation of the *tert*-butyl group (compound **7**); and (iv) the overall hydroxylation (compound **11**) of these products. Note that compounds **4**-**6** have been previously reported by other authors for **1** degradation [52,57]. Compounds **4** (DE-TBZE) and **11** (cyanuric acid) have been also detected and quantified in this work by reversed-phase and ion-exclusion HPLC, respectively.

 Based on the identified heteroaromatics, an initial route for **1** destruction by EO with a BDD 541 anode is proposed in Fig. 9. In this pathway, BDD('OH) is assumed as the main oxidant. The initial attack of this radical over **1** leads to 5 compounds: (i) **2** with hydrogenation and Cl loss, (ii) **3** with hydroxylation and Cl release, (iii) **4** with release of the ethyl group, (iv) **5** with carbonylation of the ethyl group and (v) **6** with loss of the *tert-*butyl group. The subsequent release of the ethenyl group with oxidation of the *tert*-butyl group of **3** yields **7**, whereas the hydroxylation of **5** gives **8** and the carbonylation of **6** produces **9**. Transformation of **5** and **8** into **4**, as well as that of **5** into **9**, is feasible. Compounds **4**-**6**, **8** and **9** can then evolve to **10** and all products to **11** as final heteroaromatic.

4. Conclusions

 This study has presented a comprehensive set of EO, electroreduction and EO/electroreduction trials 550 in simulated and actual groundwater matrices with only NO_3^- , only TBZE or NO_3^- + TBZE, in the 551 absence and presence of Cl[−]. The BDD/Fe and RuO2/Fe cells showed a very high effectiveness to

 simultaneously remove nitrate and pesticide from the solutions. From our results, it can be concluded that an effective treatment of groundwater polluted with nitrate and TBZE pesticide requires a sequence of three steps: (i) Softening to minimize the Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} content that block the 555 electocatalytic nitrate electroreduction; (ii) EO/electrodenitrification with a BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe cell, preferably with two Fe cathode because the greater exposed surface favored the occurrence of electrocatalysis; and (iii) post-treatment with an anion-exchange resin to minimize the chlorate and perchlorate concentrations and achieve an additional nitrate removal. The NOM contained in the groundwater had no negative influence on TBZE removal, but it decelerated the nitrate removal. All removals became faster as the applied current was increased from 250 to 1000 mA. Once demonstrated that the paired electrolysis of nitrate + pesticide solutions can be highly effective with 562 BDD/Fe and RuO₂/Fe cells at small scale, further work is being carried out in our laboratory to scale-up the treatment using a flow reactor.

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717 **Figure captions**

Fig. 1. (a) NO_3^- concentration removal during the electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 7.6 mM SO₄²⁻ in ultrapure water at initial pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5, using 720 undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at 500 mA and 25 °C. (b) Pseudo-first-order 721 kinetic analysis of trends of plot (a), (c) accumulated NH_4^+ contents, (d) normalized total nitrogen 722 decays, and (e) percent distributions of the nitrogen species at the end of the trials.

Fig. 2. (a) NO_3^- content decay during the electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 724 10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−] + 0.8 mM SO₄^{2−} in ultrapure water at different pH values, using 725 undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at several *I* values and 25 °C. (b) Pseudo-first-726 order kinetic analysis of trends of plot (a), (c) N accumulated NH_4^+ contents, (d) normalized total 727 nitrogen decays, and (e) percent distributions of the nitrogen species at the end of the trial at $I = 500$ 728 mA.

Fig. 3. Change of the concentrations of **(a)** Cl[−] ion (355 mg dm⁻³ of initial Cl[−]), (c) ClO₃[−] ion, and **(d)** 730 ClO₄[−] ion with electrolysis time for the assays of Fig. 2. (b) Pseudo first-order kinetic analysis for the 731 data of plot (a).

732 **Fig. 4.** (a) Time course of terbuthylazine (TBZE) concentration and its pseudo-first-order decay (inset) during the electrochemical oxidation (EO) of 500 cm³ of a 10 mM Na₂SO₄ solution with 5 mg 734 dm⁻³ herbicide in pure water, using an undivided stirred BDD/Fe tank reactor at 500 mA and 25 °C. 735 The content of compounds accumulated during this trial is shown in: (b) desethyl-terbuthylazine (DE-736 TBZE), (c) inorganic N-compounds (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and (d) final acids.

Fig. 5. (a) TBZE content abatement during the paired EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 5 mg dm⁻³ herbicide in pure water with 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 7.6 mM SO₄²⁻ at pH 739 4.0, using undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at 500 mA and 25 °C. (b) Accumulated

740 DE-TBZE concentrations, (c) NO_3^- concentration removal, (d) NH_4^+ accumulated concentrations, (e) 741 normalized total nitrogen decays, and (f) percent distributions of the nitrogen compounds at the end 742 of the trials.

743 **Fig. 6.** Influence of pH and current on the time course of (a) TBZE content during the paired 744 EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 5 mg dm⁻³ herbicide in pure water with $10 \text{ mM Cl}^- + 100 \text{ mg dm}^3 \text{ NO}_3^- + 0.8 \text{ mM SO}_4^2$, using an undivided stirred BDD/Fe tank reactor at 746 25 °C . (b) NO₃⁻ concentrations, (c) normalized total nitrogen decays, (d) percent distribution of the nitrogen species at the end of the trials, (e) active chlorine concentrations, (f) $ClO₃$ contents and (g) 748 ClO₄⁻ concentrations.

749 **Fig. 7.** Effect of pH and current under the conditions described in Fig. 6, but using an undivided 750 stirred RuO2/Fe tank reactor.

Fig. 8. Change of the concentrations of: (a) TBZE, (b) DE -TBZE, (c) NO_3^- , (d) NH_4^+ , (e) normalized 752 total nitrogen, (f) Cl⁻, (g) ClO₃[−] and (h) ClO₄[−] during the paired EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ 753 of the simulated groundwater (10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−] + 0.8 mM SO₄^{2−}) or softened actual 754 groundwater containing 5 mg dm⁻³ herbicide, using 1 BDD anode and 2 Fe cathodes. For comparison, 755 the results for the treatment of actual groundwater without TBZE using 1 Fe cathode are also shown. 756 **Fig. 9.** Initial reaction pathway for terbuthylazine degradation in groundwater by EO with a BDD/Fe 757 cell.

32

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

38

Fig. 7

Fig. 9

Table 1

Physicochemical characteristics of the raw groundwater, the softened groundwater after conditioning at pH 4.00 and addition of 5 mg dm-3 TBZE, the electrolyzed softened groundwater after 360 min of an EO/electrodenitrification treatment in an undivided stirred BDD/Fe tank reactor at *I* = 500 mA and 25 ºC, and the same final solution once post-treated with Purolite® A532E ion-exchange resin.

Parameter (units)	Raw	Softened	Electrolyzed	Post-treated	
	groundwater	groundwater	groundwater	groundwater	
pH	7.19	4.00	10.20	8.31	
Conductivity ($mS \text{ cm}^{-1}$)	1.72	1.93	1.90	2.02	
$TC \text{ (mg dm}^{-3})$	50.02	$-$ a	a	a	
TOC (mg dm ⁻³)	1.30	3.74	2.43	2.22	
TN (mg dm ⁻³)	23.89	23.77	16.76	10.58	
$NO3- (mg dm-3)$	101.32	99.76	33.43	5.26	
$NO2- (mg dm-3)$	$- b$	$\overline{}$ b	2.72	$\overline{}$ b	
Cl^{-} (mg dm ⁻³)	363.26	344.26	42.2	712.31	
$ClO3- (mg dm-3)$	$\overline{}^{}$	$_$ $\rm b$	58.74	3.24	
$ClO4- (mg dm-3)$	$\overline{}^{}$	$- b$	766.61	$\overline{}^{}$ b	
SO_4^{2-} (mg dm ⁻³)	77.52	357.21	358.56	56.91	
Ca^{2+} (mg dm ⁻³)	99.59	0.87	0.84	1.31	
Mg^{2+} (mg dm ⁻³)	26.57	0.55	$\overline{}^{b}$	$- b$	
K^{+} (mg dm ⁻³)	9.9	10.47	10.67	11.49	
Na^{+} (mg dm ⁻³)	179.90	389.74	384.53	386.30	

^a Not measured. ^b Not found

Table 2

Pseudo-first-order rate constant for NO₃⁻, Cl⁻ and terbuthylazine decays, alongside the energy consumption at 360 min of electrolysis, for the treatment of 500 cm³ of simulated groundwater matrices and softened actual groundwater in the absence and presence of herbicide at different pH values and 25 ºC. The assays were made using undivided cells with a BDD or RuO2 anode and an Fe cathode.

Anode	pH_0	\boldsymbol{I}	$E_{\rm cell}$	$k(NO_3^-)$	$k(Cl^-)$	k(TBZE)	$\rm EC$ /				
	(pH_f)	/mA	/ \mbox{V}	$/ 10^{-3}$ min ⁻¹	$/ 10^{-3}$ min ⁻¹	$/ 10^{-2}$ min ⁻¹	kWh m ⁻³				
				(R^2)	(R^2)	(R^2)					
Simulated groundwater (100 mg dm ⁻³ NO ₃ ⁻ + 7.6 mM SO ₄ ²⁻)											
BDD	4.0(10.3)	500	8.4	4.7 (0.990)			50.4				
	7.0(10.7)	500	8.3	5.2 (0.988)			49.8				
	10.5(10.8)	500	7.5	4.6(0.981)			45.0				
RuO ₂	4.0(10.1)	500	6.7	6.3(0.987)			40.2				
	7.0(11.2)	500	6.5	2.5(0.997)			39.0				
	10.5(10.0)	500	6.9	5.0(0.993)			41.4				
Simulated groundwater (10 mM Cl ⁻ + 100 mg dm ⁻³ NO ₃ ⁻ + 0.8 mM SO ₄ ²⁻)											
BDD	4.0(10.3)	250	5.4	3.3(0.991)	3.4(0.988)		16.2				
	4.0(10.2)	500	8.5	4.3(0.980)	7.5(0.994)		51.0				
	7.0(10.3)	500	8.6	3.9(0.993)	5.1(0.981)		51.6				
	10.5(10.4)	500	8.0	3.2(0.980)	7.0(0.986)		48.0				
	4.0(10.7)	1000	13.5	6.1(0.988)	12.4 (0.993)		162.0				
RuO ₂	4.0(8.4)	500	7.5	2.8(0.997)	1.6(0.985)		45.0				
	7.0(9.8)	500	7.5	2.5(0.995)	1.7(0.980)		45.0				
	10.5(10.0)	500	7.3	1.8(0.997)	1.5(0.991)		43.8				
Simulated groundwater (5.0 mg dm ⁻³ TBZE + 10 mM SO_4^{2-})											
BDD	4.0(4.35)	500	8.3			9.0 (0.998)	49.8				
Simulated groundwater (5.0 mg dm ⁻³ TBZE + 100 mg dm ⁻³ NO ₃ ⁻ + 7.6 mM SO ₄ ²⁻)											
BDD	4.0(9.3)	500	8.0	2.2(0.981)		5.7 (0.988)	48.0				
RuO ₂	4.0(10.9)	500	7.5	6.5(0.989)		0.63(0.994)	45.0				
Simulated groundwater (5.0 mg dm ⁻³ TBZE + 10 mM Cl ⁻ + 100 mg dm ⁻³ NO ₃ ⁻ + 0.8 mM SO ₄ ² ⁻)											
BDD	4.0(10.6)	250	5.8	2.1(0.984)	$\mathbf{-}^{\mathbf{a}}$	4.5(0.997)	17.4				
	4.0(9.9)	500	9.1	3.6(0.988)	$-{}^{\mathbf{a}}$	9.9 (0.998)	54.6				
	4.0(10.4)	1000	14.7	4.3(0.993)	$-$ ^a	12.0(0.993)	176.4				
	7.0(10.6)	250	6.1	2.5(0.998)	$-$ ^a	4.3 (0.991)	18.3				

^a Not determined. b 2 Fe cathodes. ^c Without and ^d with 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE. ^e Nonlinear correlation.

Table 3

Products identified by GC-MS after 60 min of EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of solutions with 5.0 mg dm-3 terbuthylazine in a simulated matrix at pH 4.0 and 25 ºC using a BDD/Fe cell at 500 mA.

^a P: polar column, NP: Nonpolar column. ^b The mass (m) of chlorinated fragments considered the isotope ³⁵Cl. ^c Medium: 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−] + 7.6 mM SO₄^{2−}. ^d Medium: 10 mM Cl[−] + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃[−] + 0.8 mM SO₄^{2−}