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

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16 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 18 single electro-oxidation (EO) and electrodenitrification and paired EO/electrodenitrification 19 processes has been undertaken with simulated and actual groundwater matrices containing 100 mg 20 dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ and/or 5 mg dm⁻³ terbuthylazine pesticide. Galvanostatic electrolyses were made with 500 21 cm³ of solutions at pH 4.0-10.5 and 250-100 mA in tank reactors with a RuO₂ or boron-doped 22 diamond (BDD) anode and one or two Fe cathodes, all of them in the form of meshes. Most of NO₃⁻ 23 removals agreed with a pseudo-first-order kinetics. In Cl⁻-free media, NH₄⁺ predominated as 24 electroreduction product. In chloride media, a greater amount of N-volatiles was determined 25 26 alongside a slower electrodenitrification, especially with RuO₂ due to the partial re-oxidation of electroreduction products like NH4⁺ by active chlorine. The pesticide decays were also fitted to a 27 pseudo-first order kinetics, and its presence led to a smaller release of N-volatiles. Overall, BDD 28 always favored the pesticide degradation thanks to the action of BDD(•OH), whereas RuO₂ was 29 preferred for electrodenitrification under some conditions. The EO/electrodenitrification of 30 groundwater was successful once the matrix was softened to minimize its hardness. The NO₃⁻ 31 concentration was reduced below the limit established by the WHO. Overall, the BDD/Fe cell was 32 more suitable than the RuO₂/Fe cell because it accelerated the pesticide removal with a simultaneous 33 high degree NO₃⁻ electroreduction. However, it produced toxic chlorate and perchlorate. A final post-34 treatment with an anion exchange resin ensures a significant removal of both ions, thus increasing the 35 viability of the electrochemical approach to treat this type of water. Chromatographic analyses 36 revealed the formation of ten heteroaromatic products like desethyl-terbuthylazine and cyanuric acid, 37 alongside oxalic and oxamic as final short-chain carboxylic acids. 38

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

41 **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 43 to hazardous health problems and diseases exerted on animals and humans, especially in arid and 44 isolated regions where groundwater is a direct source for irrigation and drinking water supply [1]. 45 The application of highly effective water treatment technologies is therefore a must in such cases, 46 aiming to prevent serious health risks. The atmospheric N_xO_y gases, as well as surplus synthetic 47 nitrogen fertilizers and manure spread on land are the main sources of NO₃⁻ that is further 48 accumulated in groundwater, attaining contents up to 900 mg L⁻¹ due to its weak adsorption and high 49 solubility [1,2]. High contents of this anion may cause methaemoglobinaemia and cardiovascular 50 illnesses [3,4], and for this reason, the World Health Organization (WHO) limits to 50 mg L^{-1} its 51 concentration in groundwater intended for human consumption. Classical separation methods such 52 53 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 54 55 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 56 electrodenitrification, consists in the use of an electrocatalytic cathode to increase the activity and/or 57 selectivity of the NO₃⁻ reduction process. Worth noting, electrodenitrification has been rarely coupled 58 59 with electrochemical oxidation (EO) [2,4,5-24].

Several factors such as cell configuration, applied current (*I*), solution composition and pH affect the effectiveness of NO_3^- electroreduction. It has been found that this process becomes faster using electrodes with large overpotential for the H₂ 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 NH_3 according to reaction (2), via NH_2OH formation, or converted into N_2 gas by reaction (3) 71 through N_xO_y species [2,15,25]:

72
$$NO_3^- + H_2O + 2e^- \rightarrow NO_2^- + 2OH^-$$
 (1)

73
$$NO_2^- + 6H_2O + 6e^- \rightarrow NH_3 + 8OH^-$$
 (2)

74
$$2NO_2^- + 4H_2O + 6e^- \rightarrow N_2(g) + 8OH^-$$
 (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 hydroxyl radical (M(•OH)) via reaction (4). This is a strong oxidant that can be directly employed to degrade organic pollutants [26-28]:

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

In EO, the non-active BDD anode is more powerful than the active dimensionally stable anodes 81 (DSA[®]) in chloride-free aqueous matrices because it gives large amounts of physisorbed M(•OH). In 82 contrast, in Cl⁻ media the oxidation power of DSA[®] is considerably improved due to its higher 83 selectivity to produce active chlorine (Cl₂/HClO/ClO⁻) via reactions (5)-(7) [28,29]. HClO with E° = 84 1.36 V prevails at pH 3.0-8.0, whereas at pH > 8.0 the milder ClO⁻ with $E^{\circ} = 0.89$ V predominates. 85 Once generated, active chlorine can oxidize NH₃ to N₂ from reaction (8) [16,30-33] or to NO₃⁻ ion 86 from reaction (9) [30,31]. Oxidation of NO_2^- to NO_3^- ion via reaction (10) is feasible [34], thereby 87 reducing the global effectiveness of NO_3^- electroreduction. Active chlorine can be anodically 88

89 oxidized to yield toxic and undesired ClO₃⁻ and ClO₄⁻ ions [14-16], and the process can be further complicated by the formation of chloramines, initiated by reaction (11) [16,35,36]. Chloramines are 90 91 preferentially formed in acidic medium and can easily evolve to N₂ or N₂O. Reactions (6)-(11) are homogeneous, thus taking place in the solution bulk. Note that reactions (2), (8), (9) and (11) can 92 involve either NH₃ in alkaline medium or its less reactive protonated form NH₄⁺ ($pK_a = 9.25$) in acidic 93 and circumneutral media. In the three latter reactions, NH₃/NH₄⁺ reacts with active chlorine in the 94 form of ClO⁻/HClO, having the higher or lower redox potential of these oxidants a certain influence 95 on the conversion percentage. 96

97
$$2\operatorname{Cl}^{-} \rightarrow \operatorname{Cl}_2(\operatorname{aq}) + 2\operatorname{e}^{-}$$
 (5)

98
$$\operatorname{Cl}_2(\operatorname{aq}) + \operatorname{H}_2O \to \operatorname{HClO} + \operatorname{H}^+ + \operatorname{Cl}^-$$
 (6)

99 HClO
$$\leftrightarrows$$
 ClO⁻ + H⁺ $pK_a = 7.53$ (7)

$$100 \quad 2NH_3 + 2ClO^- \rightarrow N_2(g) + 2Cl^- + 2H_2O + 2H^+ + 2e^-$$
(8)

101
$$NH_3 + 4ClO^- \rightarrow NO_3^- + H_2O + H^+ + 4Cl^-$$
 (9)

$$102 \quad NO_2^- + ClO^- \to NO_3^- + Cl^-$$
(10)

$$103 \qquad \text{NH}_3 + \text{ClO}^- \rightarrow \text{NH}_2\text{Cl} + \text{OH}^- \tag{11}$$

Some authors evaluated the influence of the anode material on the NO₃⁻ electroreduction, 104 showing that in the presence of Cl⁻, BDD becomes more efficient than IrO₂-based DSA[®] [14,16]. 105 This unexpected behavior has been ascribed to the lower adsorption of the products, arising from 106 cathodic NO₃⁻ reduction, on BDD surface, which drastically diminishes their eventual re-oxidation. 107 Much less is known about the electrodenitrification process in groundwater, although a smaller 108 109 efficiency could be expected due to different detrimental factors such as the presence of natural organic matter (NOM), the low NO₃⁻ concentration and the high hardness that can cause the cathode 110 111 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 simultaneously remove the pesticide and NO_3^- 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-119 [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 120 most used herbicides in Portugal, Italy and Spain [43]. It is a pollutant of emerging concern because 121 its low solubility in water (about 9 mg dm⁻³ at 20 °C) and high affinity to soil confer large persistence 122 in surface water, groundwater and marine water, where it has reached 0.2 μ g L⁻¹, > 5 μ g L⁻¹ and 84 123 ng L⁻¹ in EU countries, respectively. Note that 0.1 μ g L⁻¹ is the recommended maximum content in 124 125 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 126 macroinvertebrates, mammals and aquatic organisms [43]. It is decomposed to desethylterbuthylazine 127 (DE-TBZE), which is also largely persistent in water and even more toxic than the parent herbicide 128 [44]. Several works have reported a large removal of TBZE from water by simple separation methods 129 involving adsorption on membranes [45], selective polymeric materials [46], activated carbon and 130 carbon nanotubes [47] and metal-organic frameworks [48]. Transformation techniques including 131 O₃/activated carbon, solar/O₃ and solar/TiO₂/O₃ [47], UV/H₂O₂ [47,49], UV/TiO₂/chitosan [50] and 132 133 UV/B-doped TiO₂/O₃ [51] have been tested as well. Tasca et al. [52] used a zero-gap cell equipped with a BDD mesh anode, a RuO₂ mesh cathode and a solid polymer electrolyte, to degrade 300 cm³ 134 of 4 mg dm⁻³ TBZE in deionized water by EO. About 89% and 97% of pesticide removal was attained 135

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 138 TBZE electrochemical oxidation and NO_3^- electroreduction in actual groundwater matrix. Key 139 140 experimental parameters like I and pH were systematically assessed. The experiments were carried out with an undivided tank reactor equipped with a BDD or RuO₂ (i.e., DSA[®]-Cl₂) anode and an Fe 141 cathode. Prior to electrolysis with groundwater matrix, the sample was softened to minimize the 142 content of alkaline earth metal ions, a crucial step to avoid the loss of cathode electroactivity upon 143 precipitation of hydroxides and carbonates. Comparative assays were performed with simulated 144 solutions mimicking the anionic composition of the softened groundwater to clarify the evolution of 145 NO₃⁻ and generated ions and the role of NOM. TBZE was always spiked into the aqueous matrices 146 at a concentration as high as 5.0 mg dm⁻³ in order to minimize the quantification error of all 147 concentrations, thus providing reliable degradation kinetics data. The total nitrogen (TN) 148 concentration decay in solution was monitored as well. A post-treatment with an ion exchange resin 149 was implemented as a final conditioning step to reduce the impact of the oxychlorine anions 150 151 produced.

152 **2. Materials and methods**

153 2.1. *Chemicals*

Analytical standards (PESTANAL[®]) terbuthylazine and desethylterbuthylazine were purchased 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 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 highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade provided by Aldrich, Fluka, Lancaster and Panreac. Ultrapure water (Millipore Milli-Q, $> 18.2 \text{ M}\Omega$ cm) was used to prepare the analytical solutions and simulated water matrices.

162 2.2. Aqueous matrices

Actual groundwater was collected from a water well located in an agricultural land in the 163 surroundings of Barcelona (Spain). The sample was softened following three consecutive steps: (i) 164 alkalinization up to pH 11.5 by adding 1 M NaOH solution, (ii) sedimentation for 24 h and filtration 165 with regenerated cellulose filter membrane (0.45 µm) to remove the precipitated carbonates and 166 167 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 °C before usage for electrolytic 168 treatments. Table 1 collects the physicochemical parameters of: (i) the raw groundwater; (ii) the 169 softened groundwater once conditioned at pH 4.0 and with TBZE spiked at a concentration of 5.0 mg 170 dm⁻³; (iii) that softened groundwater, after an electrochemical treatment for 360 min; and (iv) the 171 solution resulting from such electrolysis, after treatment with a Purolite[®] A532E resin, a polystyrenic 172 strong base anion gel in the chloride form that is recommended by the provider for perchlorate 173 removal. As can be seen, the softening process led to a drastic reduction of the concentration of all 174 alkaline earth metal ions, whereas the Na^+ and SO_4^{2-} concentrations substantially grew up. This 175 sample showed low conductivity and total organic carbon (TOC), whereas its TN content mainly 176 corresponded to NO₃⁻. The final post-treatment with the resin allowed the reduction of the ClO₃⁻, 177 NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ concentrations alongside the complete removal of ClO₄⁻, with a concomitant increase 178 in the Cl⁻ content. 179

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 around 1.7-1.8 mS cm⁻¹ and their composition was: (i) 10 mM K₂SO₄ (980 mg dm⁻³ SO₄^{2–}); (ii) 1.6 mM KNO₃ (100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻) + 7.6 mM K₂SO₄ (745 mg dm⁻³ SO₄^{2–}); and (iii) 10 mM KCl (355 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 presence of 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE, without pH regulation.

187 2.3. Electrolytic system

The electrolytic assays were performed in an undivided glass tank reactor, which had a jacket to 188 continuously recirculate thermostated water at 25 °C. Each experiment was made with 500 cm³ of 189 solution, which was kept under stirring with a magnetic follower at 900 rpm. The anode was either a 190 Nb mesh coated with a 5 µm BDD thin film (3,500 ppm B), purchased from Condias, or a RuO₂ mesh 191 192 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 $3.5 \text{ cm} \times 7.5 \text{ cm}$. The 193 electrodes were placed in the center of the tank reactor, separated at a distance of 3 mm. In some 194 195 cases, two Fe cathodes were used, with the anode sandwiched between them keeping a separation of 196 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 197 Demestres 601BR digital multimeter was used to monitor the potential difference between the 198 199 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 200 201 temperature.

202 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 cm³ 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.
The nitrogen mass balance at the end of each assay was made considering the NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺
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 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.

The TBZE concentration was monitored by reversed-phase HPLC using a Waters 600 liquid 216 chromatograph (LC) coupled to a 996 photodiode array detector. Aliquots of 20 µL were injected into 217 the LC and the separation of organics was achieved by means of a Spherisorb® S5 ODS2 5 µm (150 218 mm × 4.6 mm (i.d.)) column at 35 °C, upon elution with a 60:40 (v/v) acetonitrile/water mixture at 219 1.0 cm³ min⁻¹. Using Empower[®] software for control, the peak for TBZE ($\lambda = 222.9$ nm) appeared at 220 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 221 DE-TBZE ($\lambda = 214.7 \text{ nm}$) appeared at $t_r = 4.1 \text{ min}$, with L.O.Q = 0.59 mg dm⁻³ and L.O.D = 0.19 mg 222 dm⁻³. 223

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

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

Solutions of 5.0 mg dm⁻³ TBZE spiked into a simulated water matrix at pH 4.0 and 25 °C were electrolyzed for 60 min using a BDD/Fe cell at I = 500 mA. The organics were extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (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-MS). The analysis was performed by equipping the gas chromatograph with either a polar Agilent HP-INNOWax GC or a non-polar Teknokroma Sapiens X5-MS column, following the same procedures detailed in earlier work [55]. The mass spectra of heteroaromatic products formed from 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*

A first series of experiments was performed to clarify the effect of pH on the NO₃⁻ 240 electroreduction, in the absence of pesticide. This was made by electrolyzing 500 cm³ of solutions 241 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 242 tank reactors at I = 500 mA. Table 2 shows that the acidic and neutral solutions were strongly 243 alkalinized, attaining final pH values of 10.3-10.8 and 10.1-11.2 in the cells with BDD and RuO₂, 244 respectively, as expected from the OH⁻ generation upon consecutive reduction of NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻, NH₃ 245 and N_2 via reactions (1)-(3) [14]. The high OH⁻ content at initial pH 10.5 can explain the small pH 246 variation (± 0.5 units) found in that medium regardless of the anode used (see Table 2). 247

Fig. 1a presents the variation of NO₃⁻ concentration with electrolysis time. Using BDD anode, 248 similar decays can be observed at all pH values, with a reduction of 75%-78% at the end of the 249 treatment. This good result can be related to the poor adsorption of the products originated from NO₃⁻ 250 electroreduction (e.g., NH4+ ion) on the BDD surface regardless of the pH. As a result, their 251 subsequent re-oxidation to the parent anion occurred only to a small extent, which was positive in 252 terms of global nitrate removal [15,16]. In contrast, a fluctuating behavior occurred in the cell with 253 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 254 7.0. This means that at the latter pH, the products of NO_3^- electroreduction are more largely adsorbed 255 onto the RuO₂ surface, favoring their faster re-oxidation. According to these findings, the use of BDD 256 is more favorable for electrodenitrification at neutral pH, whereas RuO₂ becomes slightly superior in 257 acidic and alkaline media. Fig. 1b depicts that the above concentration decays obeyed a pseudo-first-258

order kinetics, and the apparent rate constants ($k(NO_3^{-})$) are collected in Table 2. As expected from 259 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 260 the trials with BDD, which rose up to 6.3×10^{-3} min⁻¹ for the faster abatement at pH 4.0 using RuO₂. 261 The accumulated NH₄⁺ content increased gradually as the NO₃⁻ concentration disappeared, as 262 can be seen in Fig. 1c. About 20 mg dm⁻³ as maximal and 12 mg dm⁻³ as minimal of NH_4^+ were finally 263 obtained. A certain TN abatement was found in all the assays, varying between 9.0% and 18%, which 264 can be related to the loss of volatile N-compounds (see Fig. 1d). The speciation of N-containing 265 compounds at the end of all electrolyses shown in Fig. 1e reveals the preeminence of NH4⁺ ion over 266 all the other species, suggesting the leading role of consecutive reactions (1) and (2) in the 267 268 electrodenitrification process with Fe cathode. The production of volatile N-compounds, like N_xO_y and N_2 via reaction (3) is then a less favorable reduction route. Note that at the final alkaline pH 269 values achieved, the acid/base equilibrium of NH_4^+ ion (pK_a =4.75) results in the accumulation of its 270 conjugated form, which can contribute to the N-volatiles. 271

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

The above study was extended to a 10 mM Cl^- + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻ solution to 276 explore the effect of Cl⁻ oxidation on the NO₃⁻ electroreduction. These trials were carried out starting 277 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 278I was studied at pH 4.0. After 360 min, Table 2 shows that final pH values with BDD were similar to 279 those mentioned for chloride-free solutions, whereas they tended to be slightly lower (8.4-10.0) using 280 RuO₂. This behavior suggests that the greater production of active chlorine with the latter anode 281 resulted in a relevant contribution of reactions (9)-(10), eventually leading to a smaller global 282 electrodenitrification with lower OH⁻ net production from reactions (1)-(3). This hypothesis is 283

284 confirmed from the profiles of Fig. 2a, where the NO_3^- concentration decays more slowly using RuO₂. The NO₃-content was progressively reduced by 79%, 76% and 65% at pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5 using 285 BDD, becoming slower until reaching 62%, 60% and 47% removal with RuO₂. Good linear 286 correlations related to a pseudo-first order process were found for all these trends (see Fig. 2b), giving 287 rise to lower $k(NO_3^{-})$ values as compared to those determined in the absence of chloride (see Table 288 2). The loss of efficiency of NO_3^- electroreduction in the chloride medium can be accounted for by 289 the anodic generation of active chlorine (HClO and/or ClO⁻) via reactions (5)-(7), which then reacts 290 with NH_4^+ (largely formed from NO_3^- reduction, as shown in Fig. 1c) to originate N_2 gas via reaction 291 (8), regenerate NO_3^- ion via reactions (9) and (10) or produce chloramines via reaction (11). The 292 oxidation of electroreduction products by active chlorine contributed to slow down the global 293 294 electrodenitrification. Moreover, the progressive deceleration of NO₃⁻ electroreduction with decrease of $k(NO_3^{-})$ was much more remarkable when changing the starting pH from neutral to alkaline (see 295 Fig. 2a and Table 2). This phenomenon can be ascribed to the conversion of HClO to ClO⁻, which 296 behaves as a more reactive species, either promoting the oxidation of N-species to NO₃⁻ or competing 297 with NO₃⁻ electroreduction. On the other hand, Fig. 2a also shows a more effective 298 299 electrodenitrification when I was increased from 250 to 1000 mA at pH 4.0 using BDD, with the highest NO₃⁻ removal of 82% attained upon application of the greatest *I*. The corresponding $k(NO_3^-)$ 300 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 301 *I* from 250 to 1000 mA, pointing to a larger influence of NH₄⁺ re-oxidation at higher *I*. 302

The effect of reactions (8)-(11) on electrodenitrification was confirmed by analyzing the evolution of generated NH_4^+ and TN. No NH_4^+ was detected using the RuO₂ anode. Fig. 2c shows that the amount of this ion accumulated in the medium using the BDD anode depended on the applied *I*. While NH_4^+ was not found at 250 mA, it was accumulated between 2.2 and 2.9 mg dm⁻³ at 500 mA and much more largely (up to 10.0 mg dm⁻³) at 1000 mA, in agreement with the faster NO_3^-

electroreduction. Much larger TN removals were attained in the chloride medium (see Fig. 2d) as 308 compared to those in the chloride-free one (see Fig. 1d), which is explained by the loss of much 309 greater amounts of volatile N-compounds, mainly N₂. For example, up to 65.5% of volatiles was 310 released as maximal at initial pH 7.0 with a BDD anode at 500 mA, much superior to 12.5% found 311 in the absence of chloride. Active chlorine reacts with the generated NH_4^+ via reaction (8), reaching 312 the breakpoint chlorination at a pH at which the HClO and NH₄⁺ species have the maximum 313 reactivity, enhancing the production of volatile N-compounds especially at an initial pH of 7.0. At 314 initial pH 10.5, the acid/base equilibrium of NH_4^+ ion (p $K_a = 9.25$) is shifted toward NH_3 , the most 315 316 reactive form with active chlorine, but ClO⁻ has a lower oxidation power than its acidic counterpart, yielding a lower amount of volatile N-compounds. From these results, the speciation of the final N-317 compounds is depicted in Fig. 2e. As can be seen, the residual NO_3^- and, more significantly, the 318 volatile N-compounds in most cases were the predominant species. This means that the reduction of 319 NO_3^- to NH_4^+ via reaction (2), followed by the conversion of NH_4^+ to N_2 via reaction (8), are the 320 321 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 322 trends can be observed: (i) a slow abatement of the ion using RuO₂, achieving close to 47% removal 323 regardless of the pH; and (ii) a faster removal with BDD that was highly dependent on the applied I, 324 yielding increasing final removals of 75%, 93% and 96% at 250, 500 and 1000 mA, respectively, at 325 pH 4.0. This agrees with the tendencies of the $k(Cl^{-})$ values listed in Table 2 for such assays, obtained 326 from the excellent linear profiles shown in Fig. 3b assuming a pseudo-first-order reaction. The slow 327 Cl⁻ removal found using RuO₂ is indicative of its main electrodic oxidation via reaction (5). In 328 contrast, its quicker destruction using BDD can be ascribed to the action not only of reaction (5), but 329 also to its reaction with BDD(•OH) originated from reaction (4), which is a more powerful oxidant 330 than RuO₂($^{\circ}$ OH). It is noticeable that for BDD, the rise of $k(Cl^{-})$ value showed good proportionality 331 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 332

suggests an almost linear enhancement of the rate of reactions (4) and (5) to destroy the ion. It is well known that further conversion of Cl^- into active chlorine is complicated with BDD due to the subsequent generation of ClO_3^- and ClO_4^- ions as follows [26]:

$$336 \quad \text{ClO}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \to \text{ClO}_2^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^-$$
(12)

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

$$338 \quad \text{ClO}_3^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \to \text{ClO}_4^- + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^-$$
(14)

The time course of both ions for the same trials is presented in Fig. 3c and 3d. As can be seen, 339 when a RuO₂ anode was used, low ClO_3^- contents up to 120 mg dm⁻³ were always determined at all 340 pH values, whereas no ClO₄⁻ was found. This behavior indicates that this anode allowed reactions 341 (12) and (13) to some extent, but reaction (14) was completely inhibited. In contrast, much higher 342 ClO₃⁻ concentrations were found with BDD, thanks to the parallel reaction with BDD(•OH). In fact, 343 Fig. 3c shows a similar ClO₃⁻ evolution at all pH values and a decay of its accumulated content with 344 raising I due to its fast reaction with BDD($^{\circ}OH$) to obtain much greater amounts of ClO₄⁻ as the 345 electrolysis was prolonging (see Fig. 3d). For example, at the highest I of 1000 mA, a ClO₄⁻ 346 concentration as high as 925 mg dm⁻³ was determined, being much higher than 35 mg dm⁻³ obtained 347 for ClO₃⁻ ion. These two ions were the main oxidation products of Cl⁻ with BDD, since no active 348 chlorine was detected at the end of most treatments. 349

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 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 $k(TBZE) = 9.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$, much greater than that found for Cl⁻ oxidation (see Fig. 3a and Table 2). This is indicative of a quick reaction of the target 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 365 reversed-phase HPLC chromatograms revealed the production of DE-TBZE as main heteroaromatic 366 byproduct. It was rapidly accumulated up to 0.59 mg dm⁻³ at 10 min, further being completely 367 removed in 150 min (see Fig. 4b). Fig. 4c shows that the NH₄⁺ concentration grew continuously up 368 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 369 45.3% of the 1.525 mg N dm⁻³ contained in the herbicide, respectively. This suggests the presence of 370 other more recalcitrant N-products in the final solution, considering the low ability of BDD to produce 371 N₂ (see Fig. 1e). Oxalic, oxamic and cyanuric acids were identified by ion-exclusion HPLC. The two 372 former carboxylic acids are final byproducts that are directly transformed into CO₂, whereas cyanuric 373 acid is the most stable byproduct in the degradation of s-triazines [56]. As can be seen in Fig. 4d, only 374 oxalic acid was completely removed in 120 min, whereas the other acids were very persistent, thereby 375 376 impeding the overall mineralization of TBZE.

377 3.3. Electrochemical oxidation/electrodenitrification process in simulated groundwater

The paired EO/electrodenitrification using the BDD/Fe and RuO₂/Fe tank reactors was studied 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}

value was slightly superior with the BDD anode, and EC values were similar to those found without 381 the herbicide (see Table 2). Fig. 5a highlights a much faster TBZE removal using BDD. The herbicide 382 was completely abated in 120 min, a time higher than 80 min needed in sulfate medium (see Fig. 4a), 383 suggesting that the anodic oxidation of NH₄⁺ diminishes the amount of BDD(•OH) available for 384 TBZE destruction. In contrast, the herbicide concentration was reduced by 89% using RuO₂, in 385 agreement with the much smaller oxidation power of RuO₂(•OH). This behavior can be confirmed 386 from the corresponding k(TBZE) values, which were 9.0-fold higher using BDD (see Table 2). The 387 intermediate DE-TBZE was not detected with this anode, in contrast to that found in sulfate medium 388 (see Fig. 4b), probably because it was accumulated to a smaller amount during the whole electrolysis. 389 This phenomenon did not occur with RuO₂ due to its lower oxidation ability, and DE-TBZE was 390 largely accumulated without apparent destruction, attaining a steady value 1.49 mg dm⁻³ as can be 391 seen in Fig. 5b. The aforementioned behavior can be confirmed from the NO₃⁻ abatements shown in 392 Fig. 5c. Using the RuO₂ anode, the content decayed with a $k(NO_3^-)$ value of 6.5×10^{-3} min⁻¹. This is 393 similar to that determined in the absence of the herbicide (see Table 2), denoting that EO and 394 electroreduction behave as independent processes using RuO₂. In contrast, the interaction of both 395 processes using BDD caused 0.5-fold drop of $k(NO_3^-)$ in the presence of the herbicide, pointing to 396 the NO₃⁻ generation during the pesticide degradation. This was confirmed by the fact that in the final 397 solution treated with BDD, small contents of NO₂⁻ ion were detected alongside a much smaller NH₄⁺ 398 accumulation (see Fig. 5d). As in the case of the chloride-free medium without the herbicide, in the 399 presence of this latter pollutant a very low TN removal could be observed (Fig. 5e). Hence, NO₃⁻ 400 evolved mainly to NH_4^+ via reaction (2) and, to a much smaller extent, to N_2 gas via reaction (3). The 401 speciation of the final N-compounds depicted in Fig. 5f confirms this behavior, showing that the 402 generated NH₄⁺ ion and the residual NO₃⁻ ion were the main N-species regardless of the anode. Note 403 that the N initially contained in the herbicide was not measured with the TN analyzer, but this N (10% 404 of the total TN) appeared gradually as the herbicide byproducts were formed, which justifies the 405

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 415 disappearance as the pH was risen from 4.0 to 10.5 at each given I, with a concomitant longer time 416 needed for total removal. This tendency can also be deduced from the corresponding k(TBZE) values 417 collected in Table 2. For example, at 500 mA, the herbicide disappeared after 50, 60 and 100 min at 418 pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5, related to decreasing k(TBZE) values of 9.9×10^{-2} , 5.7×10^{-2} and 5.2×10^{-2} 419 min⁻¹. Note that at the best pH of 4.0, a slightly quicker herbicide destruction was attained in the 420 presence of chloride, as compared to sulfate medium ($k(\text{TBZE}) = 9.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$) and chloride-free 421 matrix (k(TBZE) = 5.7×10^{-2} min⁻¹). This can be explained by its simultaneous reaction with 422 BDD(•OH) formed via reaction (4) and active chlorine (HClO) generated via reactions (5) and (6), 423 which accelerated its destruction. The change of this active chlorine form to the weaker oxidant ClO-424 can justify the loss of oxidation power when starting at pH 7.0 and 10.5. Fig. 6a also shows that, at 425 each pH, TBZE decayed more rapidly at higher *I*, as result of the greater production of BDD(•OH) 426 and active chlorine. 427

The rate of NO_3^- 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 lower $k(NO_3^-)$ 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 confirmed by the very low NH₄⁺ concentration measured at pH 4.0, which was higher at pH 7.0 and 432 10.5. Large decays of TN were obtained in the chloride medium with herbicide, as shown in Fig. 6c, 433 in agreement with the discussion in the absence of organics (subsection 3.1). The process was slightly 434 slower at pH 10.5, although large amounts of volatile products (N₂) were always formed. The analysis 435 of the distribution of final N-species shown in Fig. 6d makes in evidence that up to 57% of volatile 436 products were produced, corroborating that reaction (8) becomes the most important step for NO₃⁻ 437 removal in the presence of Cl⁻. However, a smaller proportion of volatile compounds was detected 438 as compared to the chloride matrix without herbicide (see Fig. 2d), owing to the partial loss of active 439 chlorine resulting from its participation in the degradation of the organic molecules. 440

Fig. 6e reveals that generated active chlorine was rapidly accumulated up to around 90 mg dm⁻³ 441 442 as maximal, being subsequently destroyed in all cases after 360 min of electrolysis. Only at pH 10.5 some small amounts persisted working at 250 and 500 mA. Although active chlorine attacks the 443 organics and NH₃, with BDD it is mainly destroyed through direct and/or BDD(•OH)-mediated 444 oxidation to ClO₃⁻ and ClO₄⁻ ions. Fig. 6f shows the rapid formation of ClO₃⁻ ion, which was more 445 rapidly destroyed at increasing I to yield a large amount of the stable ClO_4^- ion (see Fig. 6g). Fig. 6f 446 and 6g highlight that the evolution of both ions only depended on I, being quite similar to that 447 448 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 in 10 mM Cl⁻ + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻ using the RuO₂/Fe tank reactor are presented in Fig.7a-7f. Similar trends to those described for the BDD/Fe cell can be observed, but with notable differences that can be ascribed to the smaller ability of RuO₂(•OH) to oxidize organics and active chlorine, thus becoming much more effective to remove NO₃⁻. Fig.7e reveals the accumulation of 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 ClO_3^- ion, which is generated to larger extent at higher *I*, as can be seen in Fig. 7f.

Regarding the TBZE abatement using the RuO₂ anode, two tendencies can be observed in Fig. 457 7a, as compared to the BDD/Fe cell: (i) a lower degradation rate at 250 and 500 mA, with the 458 herbicide being mainly oxidized by RuO₂(•OH), and (ii) a similar degradation at 1000 mA, when 459 larger amounts of active chlorine act as pre-eminent oxidant. The change of k(TBZE) between these 460 two regions can be seen in Table 2. It can also be deduced that the best abatements were achieved at 461 pH 4.0, regardless of the applied I. The greater production of active chlorine with RuO₂ favors the 462 overall oxidation of NH₃ (not detected) to regenerate more NO₃⁻ ion at long electrolysis time. This 463 can be inferred by comparing the NO₃⁻ profiles of Fig. 7b using RuO₂ with those of Fig. 6b using 464 BDD. However, the $k(NO_3^{-})$ values of Table 2 are greater for the RuO₂ anode. This is not surprising 465 because they were only determined during the first 60 min of electrolysis, because at higher time the 466 NO₃⁻ concentration in the medium was practically stabilized due to its fast regeneration from reaction 467 (9). This phenomenon was not found with the BDD anode, where the NO₃⁻ concentration decayed 468 gradually and excellent linear $\ln([NO_3^-]_0/[NO_3^-])$ vs. t plots were obtained up to 300 min of 469 electrolysis. In the same context, Fig. 7c shows a slower TN abatement using RuO₂ than that obtained 470 with BDD (see Fig. 6c). Despite this, high percentages of generated volatile N-compounds were 471 472 always determined, as highlights Fig. 7d, corroborating again the fast reaction (8) to produce N₂ gas. The main species in final solutions was the residual NO₃⁻ ion under all operation conditions. No 473 474 combined chlorine forming chloramines was detected in both cells at the end of any experiment. This suggests that, if produced, they reacted rapidly either with the NO_2^- ion generated from reaction (1) 475 according to reaction (15), or with the active chlorine present in solution to be oxidized to nitrate. 476

477 $NH_2Cl + NO_2^- + H_2O \rightarrow NO_3^- + NH_4^+ + Cl^-$ (15)

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

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

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

content removal when using the cell with one Fe cathode at I = 500 mA to treat the actual groundwater (see Fig. 8c), but it was irrelevant for TN decay as compared to the trial with two Fe cathodes (see Fig. 8e). Fig. 8d reveals the expected greater accumulation of NH₄⁺ ion in the three treatments as a greater NO₃⁻ concentration was abated.

A different behavior was observed for the time course of Cl⁻, ClO₃⁻ and ClO₄⁻ ions, mainly 508 depending on the applied *I* and with little influence of the number of Fe cathodes, as can be seen in 509 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 511 Table 2). The lower *I* of 500 mA with two Fe cathodes yielded an 88% reduction of Cl⁻ content in 512 360 min, with $k(Cl^{-}) = 5.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$, slightly lower than $7.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ found with one Fe cathode 513 (see Table 2). All the active chlorine produced from Cl⁻ oxidation was then transformed into ClO₃⁻, 514 which was converted into ClO_4^- , to larger extent at higher *I*. For the actual groundwater at I = 1000515 mA, 59 mg dm⁻³ of ClO₃⁻ and 767 mg dm⁻³ of ClO₄⁻ were finally obtained. The latter content was 516 smaller than 975 mg dm⁻³ determined in the simulated groundwater, which can be due to the loss of 517 active chlorine by reaction with the organic matter. The ClO₃⁻ and ClO₄⁻ concentrations after 518 electrolysis of the actual groundwater need to be removed before disposal or reuse. Aiming at 519 evaluating the viability of the technology for future scale-up, a post-treatment was applied by 520 employing a commercial ion-exchange resin. Table 1 shows that this resin allowed the overall 521 removal of ClO₄⁻ and NO₂⁻ anions, most of the residual ClO₃⁻ ion and partial removal of NO₃⁻ and 522 SO_4^{2-} ions. 523

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

Table 3 summarizes the chemical name, molecular structure, type of column, retention time and fragments for the stable heteroaromatic byproducts of TBZE (1) identified after 60 min of electrolysis 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 528 each medium due to the different oxidation environments, any organochlorine derivative was found 529 despite the formation and attack of active chlorine in the chloride matrix, as pointed out above. This 530 surprising finding can be explained by the rapid destruction of such chloro-compounds by the strong 531 oxidant BDD(•OH). As can be seen in Table 3, ten heteroaromatics were identified related to: (i) the 532 release of either the Cl atom with hydrogenation (compound 2) or hydroxylation (compound 3), the 533 lateral ethyl group (compound 4), the lateral *tert*-butyl group (compound 6) or both lateral groups 534 (compound 10); (ii) the carbonylation of the ethyl group (compounds 5, 8 and 9); (iii) the oxidation 535 of the *tert*-butyl group (compound 7); and (iv) the overall hydroxylation (compound 11) of these 536 products. Note that compounds 4-6 have been previously reported by other authors for 1 degradation 537 [52,57]. Compounds 4 (DE-TBZE) and 11 (cyanuric acid) have been also detected and quantified in 538 this work by reversed-phase and ion-exclusion HPLC, respectively. 539

Based on the identified heteroaromatics, an initial route for 1 destruction by EO with a BDD 540 anode is proposed in Fig. 9. In this pathway, BDD(•OH) is assumed as the main oxidant. The initial 541 attack of this radical over 1 leads to 5 compounds: (i) 2 with hydrogenation and Cl loss, (ii) 3 with 542 hydroxylation and Cl release, (iii) 4 with release of the ethyl group, (iv) 5 with carbonylation of the 543 ethyl group and (v) 6 with loss of the *tert*-butyl group. The subsequent release of the ethenyl group 544 545 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. 546 547 Compounds 4-6, 8 and 9 can then evolve to 10 and all products to 11 as final heteroaromatic.

548 **4. Conclusions**

This study has presented a comprehensive set of EO, electroreduction and EO/electroreduction trials in simulated and actual groundwater matrices with only NO_3^- , only TBZE or $NO_3^- + TBZE$, in the 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 552 that an effective treatment of groundwater polluted with nitrate and TBZE pesticide requires a 553 sequence of three steps: (i) Softening to minimize the Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} content that block the 554 electocatalytic nitrate electroreduction; (ii) EO/electrodenitrification with a BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe cell, 555 preferably with two Fe cathode because the greater exposed surface favored the occurrence of 556 electrocatalysis; and (iii) post-treatment with an anion-exchange resin to minimize the chlorate and 557 perchlorate concentrations and achieve an additional nitrate removal. The NOM contained in the 558 groundwater had no negative influence on TBZE removal, but it decelerated the nitrate removal. All 559 removals became faster as the applied current was increased from 250 to 1000 mA. Once 560 demonstrated that the paired electrolysis of nitrate + pesticide solutions can be highly effective with 561 BDD/Fe and RuO₂/Fe cells at small scale, further work is being carried out in our laboratory to scale-562 up the treatment using a flow reactor. 563

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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 NO_3^- + 7.6 mM SO_4^{2-} in ultrapure water at initial pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.5, using undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at 500 mA and 25 °C. (b) Pseudo-first-order kinetic analysis of trends of plot (a), (c) accumulated NH_4^+ contents, (d) normalized total nitrogen decays, and (e) percent distributions of the nitrogen species at the end of the trials.

Fig. 2. (a) NO₃⁻ content decay during the electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 10 mM Cl⁻ + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻ in ultrapure water at different pH values, using undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at several *I* values and 25 °C. (b) Pseudo-firstorder kinetic analysis of trends of plot (a), (c) N accumulated NH₄⁺ contents, (d) normalized total nitrogen decays, and (e) percent distributions of the nitrogen species at the end of the trial at *I* = 500 mA.

Fig. 3. Change of the concentrations of (a) Cl^- ion (355 mg dm⁻³ of initial Cl^-), (c) ClO_3^- ion, and (d) ClO_4^- ion with electrolysis time for the assays of Fig. 2. (b) Pseudo first-order kinetic analysis for the data of plot (a).

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 dm⁻³ herbicide in pure water, using an undivided stirred BDD/Fe tank reactor at 500 mA and 25 °C. The content of compounds accumulated during this trial is shown in: (b) desethyl-terbuthylazine (DE-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 4.0, using undivided stirred BDD/Fe or RuO₂/Fe tank reactors at 500 mA and 25 °C. (b) Accumulated DE-TBZE concentrations, (c) NO_3^- concentration removal, (d) NH_4^+ accumulated concentrations, (e) normalized total nitrogen decays, and (f) percent distributions of the nitrogen compounds at the end of the trials.

Fig. 6. Influence of pH and current on the time course of (a) TBZE content during the paired EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of a solution containing 5 mg dm⁻³ herbicide in pure water with 10 mM Cl⁻ + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻, using an undivided stirred BDD/Fe tank reactor at 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) ClO₄⁻ concentrations.

Fig. 7. Effect of pH and current under the conditions described in Fig. 6, but using an undivided
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 total nitrogen, (f) Cl⁻, (g) ClO₃⁻ and (h) ClO₄⁻ during the paired EO/electrodenitrification of 500 cm³ of the simulated groundwater (10 mM Cl⁻ + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO_3^- + 0.8 mM SO₄^{2–}) or softened actual groundwater containing 5 mg dm⁻³ herbicide, using 1 BDD anode and 2 Fe cathodes. For comparison, the results for the treatment of actual groundwater without TBZE using 1 Fe cathode are also shown. **Fig. 9.** Initial reaction pathway for terbuthylazine degradation in groundwater by EO with a BDD/Fe cell.

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Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3



Fig. 4



Fig. 5

Fig. 7

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 °C, 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
рН	7.19	4.00	10.20	8.31
Conductivity (mS cm ⁻¹)	1.72	1.93	1.90	2.02
TC (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
NO_{3}^{-} (mg dm ⁻³)	101.32	99.76	33.43	5.26
NO_2^{-} (mg dm ⁻³)	_ b	_ b	2.72	_ b
Cl^{-} (mg dm ⁻³)	363.26	344.26	42.2	712.31
ClO_{3}^{-} (mg dm ⁻³)	_ b	_ b	58.74	3.24
ClO_4^- (mg dm ⁻³)	_ b	_ b	766.61	_ 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	_ 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 NO_3^- , 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 °C. The assays were made using undivided cells with a BDD or RuO₂ anode and an Fe cathode.

Anode	pH ₀	Ι	E_{cell}	<i>k</i> (NO ₃ ⁻)	<i>k</i> (Cl ⁻)	<i>k</i> (TBZE)	EC /	
	(pH_f)	/ mA	/ 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 gro	undwater (10 n	nM Cl- +	- 100 mg	$dm^{-3}NO_3^{-} + 0.8 n$	$nM SO_4^{2-})$			
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)	_a	4.5 (0.997)	17.4	
	4.0 (9.9)	500	9.1	3.6 (0.988)	_ ^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	

	7.0 (10.5)	500	10.4	3.3 (0.982)	_a	5.6 (0.991)	62.4	
	7.0 (10.0)	1000	16.3	2.8 (0.980)	_a	7.2 (0.985)	185.6	
	10.5 (9.8)	250	6.7	2.1 (0.983)	_a	3.6 (0.995)	20.1	
	10.5 (10.4)	500	9.2	4.4 (0.981)	_a	5.2 (0.993)	55.2	
	10.5 (10.0)	1000	14.2	3.6 (0.982)	_a	8.0 (0.995)	170.4	
BDD ^b	4.0 (10.6)	1000	8.8	6.6 (0.993)	14.0 (0.990)	16.5 (0.982)	105.6	
RuO ₂	4.0 (9.6)	250	4.4	3.3 (0.986)	_a	3.4 (0.988)	13.2	
	4.0 (9.7)	500	8.0	5.9 (0.989)	_a	4.7 (0.980)	48.0	
	4.0 (10.1)	1000	14.2	5.0 (0.991)	_a	11.1 (0.993)	170.4	
	7.0 (9.8)	250	5.3	3.0 (0.981)	_a	2.4 (0.996)	15.4	
	7.0 (9.8)	500	8.3	4.8 (0.995)	_a	4.1 (0.993)	49.8	
	7.0 (9.3)	1000	14.1	4.4 (0.997)	_a	9.1 (0.991)	169.2	
	10.5 (10.3)	250	4.9	3.3 (0.998)	_a	1.8 (0.991)	14.7	
	10.5 (10.3)	500	8.9	4.4 (0.995)	_a	3.0 (0.992)	53.4	
	10.5 (9.5)	1000	13.4	3.9 (0.998)	_a	9.8 (0.998)	160.8	
Softened actual groundwater								
BDD ^c	4.0 (9.7)	500	7.1	_ e	5.7 (0.996)	_ ^a	42.6	
BDD ^{b,d}	4.0 (10.2)	1000	8.9	_ e	13.4 (0.997)	15.6 (0.997)	106.8	

^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 °C using a BDD/Fe cell at 500 mA.

No.	Chemical name	Molecular structure	Column ^a	$t_{\rm r}$	Fragments ^b
1	Terbuthylazine (TBZE)	Cl N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	P ^{c, d} NP ^{c, d}	40.71 30.73	229 214 (- CH ₃) 173 (- C(CH ₃) ₃ + H) 158 (173 - CH ₃)
2	<i>N-tert</i> -butyl- <i>N</i> '- [1,3,5]triazine-2,4- diamine ^{a,b}	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	P ^c NP ^{c, d}	33.93 26.92	195 180 (- CH ₃) 139 (- (C(CH ₃) ₃ + H)) / - CH ₃ - CH ₂ -NH-C-)
3	4- <i>tert</i> buthylamino- 6-vinylamino- [1,3,5]triazine-2-ol	OH N N N N N N N N H	P ^d NP ^d	40.47 29.84	209 194 (- CH ₃) 152 (- C(CH ₃) / 194 - C(CH ₃) ₂) 125 (152 - CH=CH ₂)
4	(Desethyl- terbuthylazine), <i>N-tert</i> -butyl-6- chloro- [1,3,5]triazine-2,4- diamine (DE-TBZE)	H ₂ N N N H	Р°	43.98	201 186 (- $(NH_2 + H)$) 145 (- $(C(CH_3)_3 + H)$) 173 (- $C(NH_2)$ -) 138 (173 -Cl)
5	<i>N</i> -(4- <i>tert</i> - butylamino-6- chloro- [1,3,5]triazine-2- yl)-acetamide	O N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	P ^{c,} NP ^d	45.31 33.23	243 228 (- CH ₃) 200 (- (CO- CH ₃)) 186 (- C(CH ₃) ₃)
6	6-chloro- <i>N</i> -ethyl- [1,3,5]triazine-2,4- diamine	N N N N N N NH2	P ^{c,d} NP ^{c,d}	47.42 28.36	173 158 (- (NH ₂ + H) / - CH ₃) 145 (- (CH ₂ - CH ₃ + H)) 110 (145 -Cl)

^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 SO₄²⁻. ^d Medium: 10 mM Cl⁻ + 100 mg dm⁻³ NO₃⁻ + 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻