

1 **Greywater treatment by anodic oxidation, photoelectro-Fenton**
2 **and solar photoelectro-Fenton processes: Influence of relevant**
3 **parameters and toxicity evolution**

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1 **Abstract**

2 In this study, the applicability of factorial design to the treatment of greywater (GW)
3 containing dodecyl-benzene sulfonic acid (LAS) by electrochemical advanced oxidation
4 processes (EAOPs) is demonstrated. At bench scale, anodic oxidation with
5 electrogenerated H₂O₂ (AO-H₂O₂) and photoelectro Fenton (PEF) processes were studied
6 following a 2³ factorial design with central point insertion, using a first-order
7 mathematical polynomial. In the former process, the combination of a boron-doped
8 diamond (BDD) anode with a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode, both of 3 cm², yielded
9 a 76% degradation of LAS at 40 mg L⁻¹ along with 52% TOC removal under optimized
10 conditions. The PEF process with 5 mg L⁻¹ Fe²⁺ at current density of 77.5 mA cm⁻²
11 allowed attaining a 63% of LAS degradation and 78% of TOC abatement. The best
12 conditions found for PEF according to the factorial design, in terms of Fe²⁺ concentration
13 and current density, were applied for the treatment of 10 L of raw GW by solar PEF
14 (SPEF) using a compound parabolic collector (CPC) as solar reactor and a filter-press
15 electrochemical cell. A 70% of LAS removal and a 55% of GW mineralization were
16 attained after 240 min of treatment. Artemia salina toxicity tests were performed with
17 effluents resulting from the different methods under optimum conditions, and the SPEF
18 process was proven to be the most effective and promising EAOP for the reduction of
19 GW toxicity.

20 *Keywords:* EAOP; Factorial design; LAS degradation; Toxicity; Wastewater treatment.

21 **1. Introduction**

22 Most of the water collected from the natural environment for use in human activities
23 returns carrying some residue that compromises its quality, which puts the environmental
24 balance and public health at risk. It is estimated that around 80% of municipal wastewater
25 is released into the environment without any prior treatment [1]. Greywater (GW) is a
26 common type of urban wastewater that includes all aqueous waste generated in domestic
27 premises (except for toilet flushing), such as kitchen and bathroom sinks, washing
28 machines, dishwashers and bath water. GW accounts for 16-200 liters per capita per day,
29 representing around 75% of the entire volume of sewage generated in a residence [2,3].
30 The composition and physicochemical characteristics of domestic GW is dependent on
31 multiple factors like the age of the household, eating, hygiene and cultural habits, and
32 purchasing power. In general, domestic GW shows turbidity between 20 and 440 NTU,
33 total coliforms of 6350 to $5.1 \cdot 10^6$ UFC, pH 6-9, total dissolved solids between 520 and
34 2700 mg L^{-1} , chemical oxygen demand of 60-1340 mg L^{-1} , biochemical oxygen demand
35 of 40-4450 mg L^{-1} , chlorides from 150 to 710 mg L^{-1} , oils and greases from 80 to 330
36 mg L^{-1} , sodium from 70 to 670 mg L^{-1} , calcium and magnesium between 15 and 60 mg
37 L^{-1} (each), and less than 1 mg L^{-1} for metals such as copper, lead or nickel [3].

38 Other xenobiotic compounds like endocrine disruptors, solvents, dyes, and
39 surfactants are also found in GW. The anionic surfactants called linear alkylbenzene
40 sulfonates (LAS) stand out as the most ubiquitous among the latter. LAS are very
41 refractory, which makes the treatment of GW by biological methods unfeasible. Their
42 presence induces the appearance of foam in water, seriously destabilizing the treatment
43 units because of the inhibition of the bacterial respiration rates and biodegradation [2,4-
44 6]. LAS are not only toxic, but they are resistant to natural degradation processes such as

45 hydrolysis and photolysis, making it necessary the use of advanced treatment
46 technologies [7-10].

47 Recent studies report the presence of LAS in the aquatic natural environment at
48 concentrations from 1.9 to 2406.8 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, considering both, the dissolved fractions and
49 those adsorbed in sediments [11]. In municipal effluents, LAS have been identified within
50 the concentration range of 2.4-6.7 mg L^{-1} , whereas the anionic surfactants in effluents
51 from the detergent industry the reported values range between 1552 and 1650 mg L^{-1} [12].
52 These concentrations exceed safety values and pose risks to invertebrate species, fish,
53 algae, and other aquatic plants [4,5,13]. Such difficulties were confirmed by Granatto et
54 al. [14], who evaluated the capacity of a granular sludge biological reactor to remove LAS
55 (0.9 to 11.5 mg L^{-1}) from a municipal effluent in the city of São Carlos (Brazil). A highly
56 variable surfactant removal (30%-90%) was evidenced, demonstrating that the efficiency
57 is dependent on the effluent composition, which in turn varies seasonally. Budikania et
58 al. [15] degraded up to 99% of 100 mg L^{-1} of LAS in 0.02 M NaOH solution by the multi-
59 contact glow discharge electrolysis technique; in that study, H_2O_2 and Fe^{2+} ions as a
60 catalyst were also added, significantly enhancing the LAS degradation indexes. Sakai et
61 al. [16] demonstrated the ability of the UV/ H_2O_2 process to degrade 3.5 L of 60 mg L^{-1}
62 LAS solution, using 8 W lamps ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 254 \text{ nm}$) and $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{O}_2$; up to 90% LAS
63 were degraded at 30 min.

64 Among the most efficient methods for removing persistent organic compounds in
65 aqueous systems, the electrochemical advanced oxidation processes (EAOPs) occupy a
66 preeminent position. These are electrolytic systems that generate large amounts of
67 reactive oxygen species (ROS) capable of degrading organic matter. A widespread type
68 of EAOP is anodic oxidation (AO) [17-20]. The continuous oxidation of organics is
69 ensured by the mass transport of pollutants from the bulk of the solution to the electrode

70 surface, which in turn is guaranteed by the constant stirring or flowing of the solution
71 during the treatment. The boron-doped diamond (BDD) stands out among the anode
72 materials for AO, owing to its greater robustness and chemical stability. Other materials
73 such as PbO_2 , IrO_2 and SnO_2 , IrO_2 and their blends are also capable of producing
74 sufficient amounts of $\bullet\text{OH}$ on their surface. Furthermore, some of these electrodes are
75 capable of electrogenerating active chlorine species (Cl_2/HClO) in media containing
76 chloride ions. However, they behave as active electrodes that show O_2 evolution at lower
77 overpotentials as compared to BDD; in some cases, they are mechanically or chemically
78 unstable [21,22]. The efficiency of AO can be greatly improved upon coupling with other
79 chemical and photochemical systems.

80 Another example is the well-established electro-Fenton (EF) process, in which H_2O_2
81 and Fe^{2+} ion are simultaneously used to produce $\bullet\text{OH}$ in the bulk via Fenton's reaction,
82 whose greatest outcome is observed at $\text{pH} \sim 3.0$ [23-28]. EF process is advantageous over
83 chemical Fenton because the addition of H_2O_2 as synthetic reagent is avoided thanks to
84 its in-situ production at highly efficient carbonaceous materials such as graphite,
85 acetylene black, graphene, carbon nanotubes or carbon fibers [23,28]. Ultraviolet
86 radiation can additionally enhance the performance of the EF process, originating the so-
87 called photoelectro-Fenton process (PEF) [28,29-34]. In recent years, it has been
88 demonstrated that the PEF process becomes even more advantageous and convenient
89 when it is directly fed with solar radiation, which characterizes the solar photoelectro-
90 Fenton (SPEF) process, thereby eliminating the energy demand necessary for UV lamps
91 [28,35,36]. The scheme presented in Fig. 1 summarizes the main reactions that
92 characterize the aforementioned EAOPs.

93 **Insert Fig. 1.**

94 A powerful tool applied to the optimization of technologies like the EAOPs for
95 wastewater treatment is the factorial design coupled to response surface methodology
96 (RSM), since it allows to simultaneously evaluate the synergistic effect of several
97 variables by carrying out a reduced number of experimental tests using computational
98 statistical methods. This is a more efficient and precise methodology as compared to
99 univariate processes because, through RSM analysis, it is possible to obtain predictive
100 equations, based on polynomial models, which describe optimized values of variables as
101 a function of the dependent variables adopted as responses [37-39]. In this context, the 2^k
102 factorial design corresponds to the simplest method of the factorial modality. This is put
103 into practice by performing a number of tests equivalent to 2^k , where k denotes the
104 number of independent variables under investigation [38].

105 Regarding the GW treatment, several studies have reported the potential
106 improvement of water quality upon the application of different methods. Xu et al [40]
107 showed the possibility of treating GW, collected together with rainwater, by a
108 hydroponics system for the cultivation of *Lonicera Japonica*, achieving removals of 81%
109 COD and 88% of anionic surfactant after 8 d of treatment. Costa et al. [41] described the
110 ability of *Penicillium chrysogenum* to biodegrade a synthetic effluent that mimicked GW
111 containing LAS, obtaining 99.5% removal of 12 mg L^{-1} of the surfactant after 5 incubation
112 days. Bakheet et al [42] applied a combined biofiltration system with *Carex apressa* plant
113 culture vessels and electrochemical disinfection using a boron-doped diamond (BDD)
114 anode (40 cm^2) in a reflux system with a capacity of $1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ d}^{-1}$. Removals of up to 90.4%
115 TOC, 88.9% *E. coli* and 88.3% total coliforms were found, with an estimated energy
116 consumption of $0.63\text{--}0.83 \text{ kWh m}^{-3}$. Anaerobic filters followed by UV photolysis was
117 employed by Couto's group [43] to reduce 73% BOD_5 , 72% COD, 77% TSS, 88%
118 turbidity and 60% NO_3^- , being estimated a consumption of 64 kWh m^{-3} for total

119 disinfection. Kim and Park [44] used ultrafiltration to remove 65% of 1000 mg L⁻¹ sodium
120 dodecyl-benzene sulfonate using 1 kDa ceramic membrane by applying 1.5 bar at room
121 temperature. Oh et al. [45] demonstrated the possibility of applying ozonation as post-
122 treatment of filtration steps, estimating an energy consumption of 1.80 kWh m⁻³ for total
123 disinfection of the GW. Chemical coagulation–flocculation combined with UV photolysis
124 was applied by Terechova et al. [46] to remove LAS from a synthetic effluent. Under
125 optimum conditions, between 71.3% and 74.6% LAS were removed from laundry
126 wastewater. A recent study by Patel et al. [47] pointed out the feasibility of treatment of
127 GW by electrocoagulation process using Al electrodes, reaching 70% COD removal after
128 60 min. In that work, the authors applied statistical methodologies to optimize the
129 treatment and estimated a consumption equal to 0.153 kWh m⁻³. Mostafazadeh et al. [48]
130 proposed a combined process using membrane filtration, electrochemical technologies,
131 and adsorption for treating laundry wastewater containing nonylphenol ethoxylates
132 (NPEO3-17). A 50% COD and 75% of NPEO3-17 removal was obtained. Ghambari and
133 Martínez-Huitle [49] showed the viability of EF and PEF, in the presence and absence of
134 peroxymonosulfate, for washing machine effluent treatment; 99.5% COD and 97% TOC
135 were eliminated under optimum conditions. Thirugnanasambandham and Sivakumar [50]
136 also presented a study on the treatment of GW using EF-type methods. In their study, a
137 statistical methodologies of factorial design and response surface analysis was used to
138 assess the influence of parameters and, under the best conditions, 99% COD removal was
139 obtained. Table 1 summarizes the main data reported in this series of papers above, as
140 compared to results obtained in the present work that will be discussed below.

141 **Insert Table 1**

142 This paper aims to study the feasibility and efficiency of the AO with in-situ H₂O₂
143 electrogeneration (AO-H₂O₂), PEF and SPEF processes for the treatment of raw GW

144 containing LAS using a factorial design. In AO-H₂O₂, the synergism between the
145 independent variables (LAS concentration, current density (j) and time (t)) for LAS
146 degradation and solution mineralization was studied. In PEF, a similar study was carried
147 out, but including the initial Fe²⁺ concentration as variable of interest. The best values of
148 current intensity and initial Fe²⁺ concentration found from the factorial design for PEF
149 were further applied to the SPEF treatment of GW using a compound parabolic collector
150 (CPC) as solar photoreactor. In all cases, acute toxicity tests with *Artemia salina* were
151 made under optimized treatment conditions. To the authors' knowledge, this is the first
152 GW treatment study focused on AO-H₂O₂ and PEF processes that includes factorial
153 design for monitoring LAS degradation and TOC removal. Furthermore, the best
154 conditions found were further used to assess the toxicity evolution in SPEF process.

155 **2. Materials and methods**

156 *2.1 Actual greywater*

157 During two weeks, two samples of raw clear greywater (10 L each) were obtained
158 from a pilot system for generating domestic effluents installed at the Environmental
159 Engineering Laboratory of the Center for Exact and Earth Sciences (CCET of the Federal
160 University of Mato Grosso do Sul, in Campo Grande campus). The system is equipped
161 with a kitchen sink, a bathroom sink, a bath shower, and a washing machine, used
162 voluntarily by resident academics, with an average GW generation in the order of 0.5 m³
163 d⁻¹. The physicochemical characteristics of the GW produced at pilot unit, which are
164 summarized in Table 2, are similar to those reported in the literature for this type of
165 effluent. Up to 20 L of sample were collected weekly and immediately stored at 4 °C in
166 sterile, tightly capped opaque flasks.

167

Insert Table 2

168 2.2 Reagents

169 Linear dodecylbenzene sulfonic acid (LAS, CAS No. 68584-22-5, 70%, C₁₈H₃₀O₃S),
170 sodium sulfate (CAS No. 7757-82-6, ≥99.0%), heptahydrate ferrous sulfate (CAS No:
171 7439-89-6, 97%) and catalase (CAS No. 9001-05-2, 10,000-50,000 units (mg protein)⁻¹)
172 were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich. Ultrapure water (conductivity < 0.05 μS cm⁻¹ at 25
173 °C) was supplied by a Millipore Milli-Q system. Other reagents and solvents of analytical
174 grades were supplied by Vetec Quimica Fina or Sigma-Aldrich.

175 2.3 Bench-scale degradation system

176 Solutions of 100 mL of GW spiked with LAS and 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ as supporting
177 electrolyte were treated in a benchtop electrochemical reactor with a capacity of 150 mL.
178 This reactor was undivided and jacketed for water recirculation at 25 °C. To operate under
179 AO-H₂O₂ conditions, a BDD thin film (B doping of 700-800 ppm) electrode supported
180 on a *p*-type monocrystalline Si wafer (NeoCoat[®], Switzerland) was used as the anode,
181 whereas a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode (E-TEK, USA) served to electrogenerate
182 H₂O₂ at constant air flowrate of 2 L min⁻¹. Both electrodes had a geometric area of 3 cm²
183 and the gap between them was 1 cm. In order to carry out the PEF treatment, the BDD
184 anode was replaced by a platinum foil of 3 cm² (SEMPSA, Spain, ≥99%), and the solution
185 surface was irradiated with a Philips TL 4 W BLB UVA fluorescent lamp (λ_{max} = 360 nm,
186 P₀ = 2.92 10¹⁹ photons s⁻¹) placed 6 cm above the waterline [28,31]. In all experiments, a
187 constant stirring was kept by a magnetic bar at 700-800 rpm. DC current was supplied
188 from an FA 3003-DC Instrutherm source, whereas the cell voltage was monitored with
189 an ET-1507B (Minipa) digital multimeter. To ensure cleanliness and activation of
190 electrode surfaces, before of each degradation experiment, electrolysis was conducted in
191 0.1 M H₂SO₄ at *j* = 100 mA cm⁻² for 30 min. Fig. 2a schematizes the most notable
192 elements of the bench-scale degradation system used.

Insert Fig. 2

193

194 *2.4 Analytical methodologies*

195 The physicochemical characterization of GW was performed at the UFMS
196 Environmental Quality Laboratory, including as parameters: chemical oxygen demand
197 (COD), biochemical oxygen demand at 5 d (BOD₅), chloride (Cl⁻), ammonia (NH₃, 4500-
198 NH₃ B/C method), nitrate (NO₃⁻, 4110 B/C), phosphate (PO₄³⁻, 4500-P B/E) and total and
199 dissolved solids quantified in accordance with SMWW [51]. The total nitrogen was
200 quantified by catalytic oxidation via chemiluminescence (Shimadzu TOC-CSN coupled
201 to TNM-1 module). In the PEF and SPEF trials, the initial pH was adjusted to 3.0 using
202 solutions of 50% (v/v) H₂SO₄ or NaOH and measuring its value on a Crison 2000 pH
203 meter, which also served for monitoring it during the experiments. The AO-H₂O₂ trials
204 were carried out at the natural pH of the effluent (6.7-7.6). Al, Ba, Ca, Zn, Mn, Ni, Hg,
205 Cr, Cd, and Pb were quantified with a 3111-B direct air-acetylene flame atomic
206 absorption method. The turbidity was measured using an Orion AquaFast turbidimeter
207 (Thermo Scientific), and the conductivity with a Sension5 conductivity meter (Hach).
208 LAS concentration was determined from previously diluted samples by Methylene Blue
209 absorption spectroscopy, according to Jurado et al. [52]. 5 mL of LAS standard solution
210 or previously diluted samples were added to 4 mL of dichloromethane, 100 μL of 50 mM
211 sodium tetraborate buffer solution at pH 10.5, and 100 μL of slightly acidic 1 g L⁻¹
212 Methylene Blue solution. The mixture was stirred for 1 min, followed by phase separation
213 and then, the absorbance of the organic phase was measured using a U-3900
214 spectrophotometer (Hitachi) set at $\lambda = 652$ nm. To eliminate the influence of sample
215 composition-related factors, the calibration curve was prepared using GW of each
216 sampling as the solvent. The range was 0 – 2.5 mg L⁻¹ LAS, yielding LOQ = 0.95 – 0.73

217 mg L⁻¹ and LOD = 0.37 – 0.22 mg L⁻¹. The experimental degradation percentage was
218 calculated according to Eq. (1):

$$219 \quad Y_{\%Deg} = \frac{([LAS]_i - [LAS]_f)}{[LAS]_i} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

220 where [LAS]_i and [LAS]_f correspond to the initial and final concentration of the surfactant
221 during the application of EAOPs.

222 The mineralization was followed by the decay of total organic carbon (TOC) content,
223 determined by the catalytic oxidation method using a VCPN analyzer (Shimadzu) duly
224 calibrated with potassium phthalate and NaHCO₃, presenting LOQ = 0.180 mg L⁻¹ and
225 LOD = 0.053 mg L⁻¹. The data from this analysis allowed calculating the percentage of
226 experimental mineralization taken as a response to the factorial plan according to Eq. (2):

$$227 \quad Y_{\%Min} = \frac{(TOC_i - TOC_f)}{TOC_i} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

228 where TOC_i and TOC_f are the total initial and final dissolved organic carbon of the GW
229 obtained during the application of the EAOPs, respectively.

230 The energy consumption per unit mass of total dissolved organic carbon (EC_{TOC}) was
231 estimated according to Eq. (3) [23]:

$$232 \quad EC_{TOC} = \frac{E_{cell} I t}{V_s (\Delta TOC)_{exp}} \quad (3)$$

233 where E_{cell} corresponds to the electric potential difference arising in the electrochemical
234 cell (V), I is the electric current (A), t is the time (h), V_s is the volume of treated solution
235 (L), and $(\Delta TOC)_{exp}$ is the TOC decay at the end of the experiment (mg L⁻¹).

236 2.5 Factorial design

237 The synergism between variables of interest in the different EAOPs applied for GW
238 treatment at bench scale was studied from a 2³ factorial design, with triplicates at the
239 central point. Statistica 14 software (TIBCO Software Inc.) trial version was employed
240 for the computational statistical analysis. In AO-H₂O₂, current density (X_j), time (X_t) and

241 LAS concentration ($X_{[LAS]}$) were listed as independent variables. The interactions of up
 242 to three independent variables (3-way interactions), resolution R = FULL, consideration
 243 of curvature check, 2^{**}(K-p) standard designs (Box, Hunter & Hunter) mode were the
 244 software conditions chosen because they yielded the minimal residuals of prediction
 245 model. In PEF trials, the LAS concentration was fixed at 40 mg L⁻¹ and current density
 246 (X_j), time (X_t) and initial Fe(II) concentration ($X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$) were listed as independent
 247 variables, and the interactions of up to two independent variables (2-way interactions),
 248 with curvature check, in 2-level screening (Plackett-Buman) design mode were the
 249 selected software conditions. The values considered for the independent variables in all
 250 assays of both EAOPs are presented in Table S1. In AO-H₂O₂ and PEF, the degradation
 251 of LAS ($Y_{\%Deg}$) and the mineralization of the organic load ($Y_{\%Min}$) contained in GW were
 252 considered as dependent variables (i.e., response). The interaction between the
 253 independent variables of factorial design was obtained from a second-order polynomial,
 254 as follows:

$$255 \quad Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i X_i + \sum_{1 \leq i < n}^k \beta_{in} X_i X_n \quad (4)$$

256 where k denotes the number of independent variables (k = 3), Y represents the response
 257 of the dependent variable ($Y_{\%Deg}$, $Y_{\%Min}$), β_0 is a constant, β_i and β_{in} account for the linear
 258 effects related to the linear X_i , the $X_i X_n$ interaction term, respectively [53].

259 *2.6 Pilot unit for SPEF treatment*

260 Using the best conditions of PEF, the SPEF treatment of 10 L of GW containing 40
 261 mg L⁻¹ LAS was performed in a pre-pilot unit equipped with a press-filter electrochemical
 262 cell coupled to a CPC solar photoreactor. The recirculation system included a 20 L
 263 reservoir tank provided with mechanical stirring. This reservoir was connected through a
 264 PVP pipe (3/4") to a centrifugal liquid pump (Dancor, CP-4R, ¼ hp M) that operated at a

265 constant flowrate of 180 L min^{-1} , as determined by means of a flowmeter. This flowrate
266 was selected based on the results of Alcaide et al. [54], who used a similar flow system.
267 The electrochemical press-filter cell was arranged as described in [28], and equipped with
268 a pair of electrodes like those employed in the bench-scale PEF, but their exposed area
269 was 20 cm^2 and the interelectrode gap was 1.2 cm. The CPC module consisted of five
270 borosilicate glass tubes (internal diameter 28 mm, length 851 mm and thickness 4 mm,
271 with total illuminated area of 0.2248 m^2) connected in series by polypropylene joints,
272 placed above anodized aluminum mirrors supported on an aluminum frame, tilted 15° and
273 facing to East. The experiments were carried out at the Chemistry Institute of the Federal
274 University of Mato Grosso do Sul, Campo Grande city, Brazil ($20^\circ 30' 20.6'' \text{S}$
275 $54^\circ 37' 02.1'' \text{W}$), in cloudless days. Solar global radiation was measured in situ using a 1
276 cm^2 solar calibration cell attached to a PCLAB voltmeter (V&A Instruments) matching
277 100 mV to 100 mW m^{-2} , positioned at the same angle of the CPC module. Fig. 2b presents
278 a scheme with the principal elements of the pilot unit for the SPEF treatment.

279 *2.7 Acute toxicity*

280 The acute toxicity tests with *Artemia salina* as indicator organism were carried out in
281 triplicate according to Da Silva et al. [39]. The newly hatched larvae of this
282 microcrustacean obtained in synthetic seawater at 30 g L^{-1} and pH 8–9 were subjected to
283 aeration for 48 h at 25°C , with a 16 h light photoperiod in a static system containing the
284 effluents obtained from the optimized treatments. Catalase was always added for H_2O_2
285 removal. The dead brine shrimp larvae were counted as recommended in the literature
286 (ten individuals per well) [55], and then compared with controls of untreated GW. Finally,
287 the LC_{50} values (lethal concentration that causes a mortality of 50% of the test organism)
288 were used in the Spearman-Kärber probability model using the Minitab version 19
289 software.

290 **3. Results and discussion**

291 *3.1 Factorial design for AO-H₂O₂ process*

292 The observed responses of the factorial design (LAS degradation – $Y_{\%Deg}$, solution
293 mineralization – $Y_{\%Min}$), obtained either experimentally or from the prediction model
294 (considering a 95% confidence limit and alpha value of 0.05 for the results in all
295 experiments), are presented in Table 3, where the results of energy consumption per unit
296 of TOC are also presented for all degradation experiments being in the range of 0.13 -
297 23.92 kWh (kg TOC)⁻¹. These results are illustrated in Fig. 3, in which the fitted
298 correlations between the theoretical model and the experimental results are shown using
299 a linear regression. For both, the LAS degradation response (Fig. 3a) and solution
300 mineralization (Fig. 3b), a low error (MS residual), and a good linear fitting with optimal
301 regression coefficients for $Y_{\%Deg}$ ($R^2 = 99.978\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 99.890\%$) and $Y_{\%Min}$ ($R^2 =$
302 99.975% and $R^2_{adj} = 99.875\%$) can be observed. The R^2_{adj} coefficient value greater than
303 95% suggests that less than 5% of the total variations cannot be explained by the
304 mathematical model obtained [50].

305 **Insert Table 2**

306 **Insert Fig. 3**

307 The application of statistical models such as factorial design to be studied by analysis
308 of variance (ANOVA) is an important tool that allows identifying the influence of each
309 independent variable studied and their interactions. Table 4 presents the ANOVA results
310 of the linear and or quadratic regression model obtained for $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses of
311 factorial design in AO-H₂O₂. The sum of squares (SS) measures the influence of the
312 corresponding variable on the variation of the response values obtained in the factorial
313 design table, the degrees of freedom (df) correspond to the number of columns of
314 responses obtained, and the mean of the squares (MS) is related to the ratio between SS

315 and df. The F-value corresponds to the ratio between MS and MS residual (error)
316 generated from the prediction model (here 0.9331 for $Y_{\%Deg}$, and 0.2973 for $Y_{Min\%}$),
317 whereas p-value is obtained as a statistical function of F-value considering the degrees of
318 freedom of the MS values and the error value (MS residual). High F-values and low p-
319 values (lower than 0.05) evidence that the statistical model is significant with a
320 probability level of 95%. A p-value lower than 0.05 can be interpreted as having less than
321 a 5% probability of the null hypothesis of influence of the variable, or synergism between
322 the variables in the degradation and mineralization responses being true [56].

323 **Insert Table 4**

324 In accordance with the ANOVA results, Table 5 presents the effect of the variables
325 and their correlations in the statistical models that describe the response variables of the
326 treatment of GW. The greater the effect modulus, the more significant the influence of
327 the variable on the response. The t-value corresponds to the normalized estimated effect,
328 which consists of the ratio of the effect and its corresponding standard error (shown as
329 Standardized Effect Estimate (Absolute Value) in the Pareto charts in Fig. 4), and the p-
330 value is a cumulative distribution function of the statistical test distribution over the null
331 hypothesis, note that the p-values for ANOVA results (Table 4) and the p-values obtained
332 for the estimated coefficients are reciprocal.

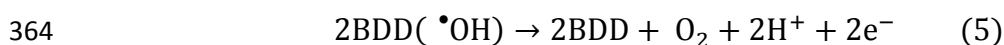
333 **Insert Table 5**

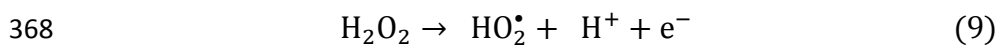
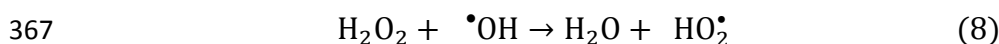
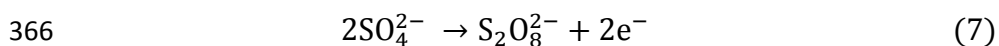
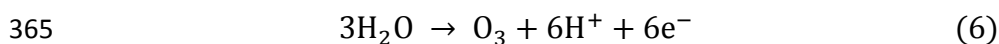
334 The time variable (X_t) had the greatest effect on GW treatment, as can be confirmed
335 in Fig. 4, in which the Pareto charts denote the influence of the independent variables and
336 their interactions on $Y_{\%Deg}$ (Fig. 4a) and on $Y_{\%Min}$ (Fig. 4b) responses. In this case it is
337 considered influential, as reported in other studies that assume the reaction time as an
338 independent variable of a statistical factor model [50,53,56]. Reciprocal to the results
339 shown in Tables 4 and 5, the estimated effects for the isolated variables $X_{[LAS]}(1)$, $X_j(2)$

340 or X_i (3) give the contributions to the linear regression model. The effects described by (1
341 by 2), (1 by 3), (2 by 3) and (1*2*3) correspond to the contributions to the quadratic
342 regression model and interaction of up to 3 variables, respectively. Regarding the LAS
343 degradation (Fig. 4a), a relevant synergistic effect between the variables LAS
344 concentration and current density (i.e., $X_{[LAS]}$ and X_j) can be noticed, as also found
345 between the three variables simultaneously. For GW mineralization (Fig. 4b), synergistic
346 effects were observed between LAS concentration and time (i.e., $X_{[LAS]}$ and X_t).

347 **Insert Fig. 4**

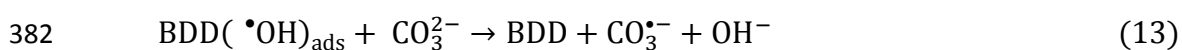
348 All variables evaluated, except current density, had a positive effect on the responses
349 ($Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$). This can be confirmed in Fig. 5a and 5b, respectively, where the graphs
350 of individual and composite desirability of the variable on the responses are highlighted.
351 This was estimated under optimized conditions, which are related to a desirability (D)
352 equal to zero for the smallest response value, and D equal to 1 for the high response value
353 (optimal desirable condition). The negative effect of the current density variable on the
354 $Y_{\%Min}$ response can be justified by the gradually larger extent to which some side faradaic
355 reactions (“side” meaning less productive reactions as compared to reaction (1) that yields
356 the very powerful hydroxyl radical) occur on the surface of the BDD anode. These include
357 the oxygen evolution from reaction (5), ozone electrogeneration from reaction (6) and the
358 formation of the $S_2O_8^{2-}$ ion from reaction (7), thereby inhibiting the formation of $\bullet OH$ by
359 reaction, Fig. 1. Also, the accumulation of an excess of H_2O_2 at the air-diffusion cathode
360 can be detrimental, since it then reacts on the surface of the anode, either directly or
361 through $\bullet OH$, yielding the weaker hydroperoxyl radical ($HO_2\bullet$) via reactions (8) and (9).
362 Overall, the promotion of reactions (5)-(9) reduces the oxidation rate of the organic matter
363 present in the GW [49].





369 **Insert Fig. 5**

370 The use of BDD as anode material in combination with the presence of active
 371 inorganic ions in the effluent led to the occurrence of other parasitic reactions on the
 372 anode surface, especially as the applied current was increased. For example, the direct
 373 oxidation of CO_3^{2-} may result in radicals (via reaction (10)) and percarbonate (via
 374 reactions (11) or (12)). Similarly, the indirect oxidation of CO_3^{2-} or HCO_3^- by hydroxyl
 375 radicals adsorbed on the surface of the BDD anode (i.e., $\text{BDD}(\bullet\text{OH})_{\text{ads}}$) according to
 376 reactions (13) and (14), respectively, is feasible. Moreover, chlorine oxidants are
 377 generated upon chloride oxidation from reactions (15)-(17), whereas $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ and SO_4^\bullet can
 378 be electrogenerated from SO_4^{2-} oxidation via reactions (7), (18) and (19) [57]:



389 Regarding the synergism between independent variables observed in the AO-H₂O₂
 390 GW treatment, both for Y_{%Deg} (i.e., X_[LAS] and X_j) and Y_{%Min} (i.e., X_[LAS] and X_t), the RSM
 391 results are depicted in Fig. 6a and 6b, respectively. For Y_{%Deg} (Fig. 6a), the response
 392 surface was calculated at X_t = 65 min, revealing that the best LAS degradation response
 393 is obtained at the highest values of the correlated variables. In the case of Y_{%Min} (Fig. 6b),
 394 the response surface was calculated at X_j = 55 mA cm⁻², also demonstrating that the best
 395 responses were found as the correlated variables increased their values with a maximal
 396 for 80 mg L⁻¹ LAS.

397 **Insert Fig. 6**

398 The fitting function of regression prediction model obtained by RSM shown in Fig.4a
 399 (Y_{%Deg}) and 4b (Y_{%Min}) is given by Eq. (20) and Eq. (21), respectively. The signs of the
 400 estimated regression coefficients account for the effect of the factors on the process, with
 401 the positive ones being related to a greater degradation/mineralization upon increase of
 402 the given value of the variable within the tested range. Note that the variables X_[LAS] and
 403 X_j present a synergistic effect for Y_{%Deg}, whereas for Y_{%Min} a synergistic effect appears
 404 between X_[LAS] and X_t [39].

$$\begin{aligned}
 405 \quad Y_{\%Deg} = & 9.9644 - 0.19665 X_{[LAS]} - 0.3355 X_j + 0.00761 X_{[LAS]} X_j - \\
 406 \quad & 0.00307 \times 65 X_{[LAS]} - 0.00220 \times 65 X_j + 0.00003 \times 65 X_{[LAS]} X_j + \\
 407 \quad & 50.415 \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad (20)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 408 \quad Y_{\%Min} = & 15.755 + 0.01638 X_{[LAS]} - 0.16754 X_t + 0.00006 \times 55 X_{[LAS]} + \\
 409 \quad & 0.00692 X_{[LAS]} X_t + 0.00457 \times 55 X_t - 0.00007 \times 55 X_{[LAS]} X_t - \\
 410 \quad & 12.937 \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad (21)
 \end{aligned}$$

411 Other interactions of the independent variables in the Y_{%Deg}, and Y_{%Min} responses can
 412 be observed in Fig. S1a and S1b, respectively, where they are presented as desirability
 413 2D-surface graphs. Here it is possible to confirm the positive effect of the variable X_t

414 when correlated with the other variables for the $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses. In contrast,
415 the antagonistic behavior of the variable X_j in the response $Y_{\%Min}$ can be observed, with
416 the highest response values at the lowest values of this variable.

417

418 *3.3 Factorial design for PEF process*

419 The results of $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses obtained from the factorial design
420 developed for the PEF process applied to the GW treatment, now considering the initial
421 concentration of Fe^{2+} catalyst (i.e., $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$), current density (i.e., X_j) and treatment time
422 (X_t) as the independent variables, are summarized in Table 6, where the results of energy
423 consumption per unit of TOC are also presented for all degradation experiments with
424 values in the range of 0.05 – 6.52 kWh (kg TOC)⁻¹. With 95% confidence limit obtained
425 for the 11 experiments. Fig. 7a and 7b depict the very good linear regression coefficients
426 for both $Y_{\%Deg}$ ($R^2 = 99.337\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 97.790\%$) and $Y_{\%Min}$ ($R^2 = 98.708\%$; $R^2_{adj} =$
427 96.771%), respectively, revealing a great robustness of the polynomial model, as well as
428 a low experimental error (MS residual equal 8.5987 for $Y_{\%Deg}$ and 14.930 for $Y_{\%Min}$).

429

Insert Table 6

430

Insert Fig. 7

431 The ANOVA results for PEF treatment are depicted on Table 7, revealing a
432 significant effect of the variable X_t and the interaction between $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and X_j on the $Y_{\%Deg}$
433 response. The same is observed for the $Y_{\%Min}$ response plus the contribution of $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and
434 X_j alone. Table 8 presents the corresponding estimated effects of the independent
435 variables obtained from the regression model. Isolated or in interaction, antagonistic
436 behavior is observed for the variables $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and X_j for the treatment of GW by PEF, as
437 confirmed by the negative signs of the coefficients.

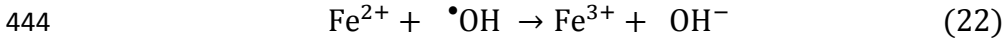
438

Insert Table 7

439

Insert Table 8

440 The increase in X_j value results in parasitic reactions, as described in section 3.1 for
441 AO- H_2O_2 by reaction (8). On the other hand, the high amount of Fe^{2+} in Fenton reaction
442 systems can reduce the amount of $\bullet OH$ available in the bulk solution according to reaction
443 (22):



445 In Fig. 8, the Pareto charts allow quantifying the effect of the variables on the $Y_{\%Deg}$
446 and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses. Similarly, to the AO- H_2O_2 treatment, the X_t showed the greatest
447 effect on both $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ in the PEF treatment of GW. For $Y_{\%Deg}$ (Fig. 8a), the
448 synergistic effect is observed for $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and X_j . In contrast, for $Y_{\%Min}$ (Fig. 8b), all
449 independent variables were significant, with synergism between $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and X_j greater than
450 that observed for $Y_{\%Deg}$. This is confirmed in Fig. 9, where the excellent levels of
451 responses obtained upon variation of intensity of the independent variables are
452 demonstrated. In the case of $Y_{\%Deg}$ (Fig. 9a) and $Y_{\%Min}$ (Fig. 9b), only X_t presented a
453 positive effect on the responses, whereas the most pronounced negative effect of the
454 variables X_j and $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ are found for $Y_{\%Min}$.

455 **Insert Fig. 8**

456 **Insert Fig. 9**

457 The response surfaces for the most significant interactions between the factorial
458 design variables of the PEF process in the treatment of GW, considering $X_t = 65$ min, are
459 shown in Fig. 10. At an electrolysis time of 120 min, using $[Fe^{2+}] = 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and current
460 density $j = 77.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, the best responses for degradation (63%, Table 6) and
461 mineralization (78%, Table 6) were obtained. Ambiguously, the response surface of Fig.
462 10a suggests that a decrease in X_j would lead to higher LAS degradation rate, considering
463 the optimum concentration range is between 14-22 mg L^{-1} for the variable $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$.

464 A distinct response surface is observed for $Y_{\%min}$ in Fig. 10b, since the best indices
 465 of GW mineralization are obtained at the highest values of X_j and lowest values of $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$.
 466 These best results obtained at low current density are consistent with those reported by
 467 other authors in similar treatment systems [29].

468 **Insert Fig. 10**

469 Finally, the polynomial mathematical model for predicting the response surfaces
 470 based on the independent variables of the factorial planning developed for PEF treatment
 471 are given by Eq. (23) and (24) for the responses $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$, respectively.

$$472 \quad Y_{\%Deg} = 3.4389 + 0.94591 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} + 0.15055 X_j - 0.01689 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} X_j$$

$$473 \quad \quad \quad - 0.00223 \times 65 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} + 0.00004 \times 65 X_j + 27.218 \quad (23)$$

$$474 \quad Y_{\%Min} = 9.9744 + 2.2037 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} + 0.55731 X_j - 0.05373 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} X_j$$

$$475 \quad \quad \quad - 0.00680 \times 65 X_{[Fe^{2+}]} - 0.00155 \times 65 X_j + 28.992 \quad (24)$$

476 For both $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$, the variables $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ and X_j present antagonism in the
 477 mathematical models to the responses of the factorial design, as well as a positive effect
 478 of X_j . Other interactions of the independent variables in the $Y_{\%Deg}$, and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses
 479 can be seen in Fig. S2a and S2b, respectively, where they are present as desirability
 480 surface graphs for the factorial design of PEF.

481 *3.4 Solar photoelectro-Fenton treatment of the GW sample*

482 The optimum conditions defined by the observed mineralization response of the
 483 experimental design for the PEF process (78% TOC removal), namely $[Fe^{2+}] = 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$
 484 and $j = 77.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, were applied to the treatment of 10 L of GW by SPEF in the pre-
 485 pilot plant. The experiments were carried out in triplicate, on a sunny day without clouds,
 486 with only natural radiation, during the most intense sunny hours (average solar intensity
 487 $= 37.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) of the Brazilian summer (month of February), with a total duration of 4 h.
 488 The results are shown in Fig. 11, and demonstrate satisfactory LAS degradation profiles,

489 with 70% of removal of surfactant and 55% of GW mineralization after 240 min of
490 treatment. These results are very promising to treat larger volumes of GW and achieve
491 degradation and mineralization rates close to those obtained at bench scale, revealing that
492 factorial design is a useful tool for optimizing H₂O₂-based EAOPs for the treatment of
493 real wastewater. In SPEF, the average energy consumption was estimated as 0.32 (kWh
494 (kg TOC)⁻¹), which can also be interpreted as the energy needed to treat 1 m³ of an effluent
495 containing up to 1000 mg L⁻¹ of TOC. This low value is indicative of the feasibility of
496 applying the process, if compared to results in the literature (see Table 1).

497 **Insert Fig. 11**

498 *3.5 Acute toxicity to Artemia salina*

499 The acute toxicity for brine shrimp was evaluated for the effluents resulting from: (a)
500 AO-H₂O₂, fixing $X_{[LSA]} = 40 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $X_j = 32.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, $X_t = 120 \text{ min}$ (52% TOC
501 removal); (b) PEF, fixing $X_{[LSA]} = 40 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $X_{[Fe^{2+}]} = 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $X_j = 77.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, $X_t =$
502 120 min (78% TOC removal); and (c) SPEF, fixing the same conditions of PEF, after 240
503 min of treatment (55% TOC removal). Concentrations of 12.5%, 25%, 50% and 70%
504 (% v/v) were studied, and results were compared to GW control. The toxicity profiles in
505 terms of mortality are depicted in Fig. 12. In all cases, they disclose the contribution of
506 EAOPs to decrease the toxicity of GW to *A. salina* (i.e., a significant decay of mortality
507 can be seen upon the application of EAOPs). The LC₅₀, toxicity units (TU) values and
508 class, calculated according to Persoone et al. [58], were determined for each effluent and
509 are shown in Table S2. Note that the different TU values for the three analyzed effluents
510 are correlated to the TOC reduction rates observed at the end of the treatments. It can then
511 be inferred that the toxicity of the effluent to *A. Salina* can be associated to the residual
512 by-products when mineralization rates are <78%, and that a reduction in the LC₅₀ toxicity
513 unit of at least 18 times can be expected when mineralization rates > 52% are achieved.

514 These findings reinforce the idea of the feasibility of applying factorial planning to
515 optimize EAOPs applied to the treatment of effluents with a xenobiotic character, such
516 as GW.

517 **Insert Fig. 12**

518 **4. Conclusions**

519 The factorial experimental design proved to be effective for the treatment of data in
520 the application and optimization of the EAOPs for the treatment of raw GW. However,
521 LAS recalcitrance and mineralization resistance characterizes the effluent treated here.
522 AO-H₂O₂ is a promising system for GW treatment, reaching satisfactory degradation and
523 mineralization rates, which is guaranteed only by the catalytic action of the BDD anode
524 and H₂O₂ electrogeneration at the carbonaceous cathode. On the other hand, the PEF and
525 SPEF processes presented, even in upon replacement of the BDD by a Pt anode, greater
526 capacity for LAS degradation and GW mineralization due to the occurrence of Fenton's
527 reaction and successive photoreduction of Fe(III) complexes. SPEF process at pre-pilot
528 scale showed a great performance for GW treatment, achieving results very similar to
529 those obtained in bench scale optimization even for the acute toxicity reduction.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Scheme that describes the main reactions that characterize the EAOPs. AO-H₂O₂: (1), (3), (4) and (7); EF: reactions of AO-H₂O₂ plus (5) and (6); PEF: reactions of EF plus (10) and (11); and parasitic reactions: (2), (8) and (9).

Fig. 2. (a) Scheme of the bench-scale degradation system indicating the position of the main elements: 1 – Jacketed undivided cell of 150 mL capacity; 2 – Boron-doped diamond (BDD) or platinum anodes (both of 3 cm² geometrical active area); 3 – Air-diffusion cathode with activated carbon cloth-PTFE membrane (3 cm² geometrical active area); 4 – Air pump operating at 1 L min⁻¹; 5 – High precision power source operated in continuous current mode; 6 – Blacklight tube lamp (4 W, placed at 6 cm above the solution surface); 7 – Magnetic stirring bar. (b) Scheme of the pilot backflow unit used in SPEF process, indicating the position of the main elements: 1 – 20-L reservoir tank; 2 – Centrifugal pump; 3 – Rotameter type fluxometer (180 L min⁻¹); 4 – Heat-exchanger (x2); 5 – Filter-press electrochemical cell; 6 – Air pump operating at 2 L min⁻¹; 7 – Precision power source with fine adjustment; 8 – Compound Parabolic Collector (CPC) photoreactor illuminated with natural solar light.

Fig. 3. Residual plots for the percentage response of: (a) LAS degradation ($Y_{\%Deg}$, $R^2 = 99.978\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 99.89\%$) and (b) GW mineralization ($R^2 = 99.975\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 99.875\%$) obtained experimentally (blue points) by AO-H₂O₂ process, as compared to the polynomial mathematical model of prediction (red lines).

Fig. 4. Pareto charts showing the effect (and synergism) of the independent variables chosen for the experimental design on the responses of: (a) LAS degradation and (b) GW mineralization, in the AO-H₂O₂ treatment.

Fig. 5. Desirability of independent variables on the responses of: (a) $Y_{\%Deg}$ and (b) $Y_{\%Min}$, corresponding to the factorial design developed for the AO-H₂O₂ treatment of GW with 0.050 M Na₂SO₄.

Fig. 6. Surface response of the most significant interactions between the independent variables for: (a) LAS degradation (at $X_t = 65$ min) and (b) GW mineralization (at $X_j = 55$ mA cm⁻²), corresponding to the AO-H₂O₂ treatment using a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode and a Si|BDD anode in the presence of 0.050 M Na₂SO₄.

Fig. 7. Residual plots for the percentage response of: (a) LAS degradation ($Y_{\%Deg}$, $R^2 = 99.337\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 97.79\%$) and (b) GW mineralization ($Y_{\%Min}$, $R^2 = 98.708\%$ and $R^2_{adj} = 96.771\%$) obtained experimentally (blue points) by PEF process, as compared to the polynomial mathematical model of prediction (red lines).

Fig. 8. Pareto charts showing the effect (and synergism) of the independent variables chosen for the experimental design on the responses of: (a) LAS degradation and (b) GW mineralization, in the PEF treatment.

Fig. 9. Desirability of independent variables on the responses of: (a) $Y_{\%Deg}$ and (b) $Y_{\%Min}$, corresponding to the factorial design developed for the PEF treatment of GW with 0.050 M Na₂SO₄.

Fig. 10. Surface response of the most significant interactions between the independent variables for: (a) LAS degradation (at $X_t = 65$ min) and (b) GW mineralization (at $X_j = 55$ mA cm⁻²), corresponding to the PEF treatment using a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode and a 4 W UVA black light tube lamp in the presence of 0.050 M Na₂SO₄.

Fig. 11. Normalized LAS and TOC decays vs. time for the SPEF treatment of the GW with 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ and 5 mg L⁻¹ Fe²⁺ at pH 3.0. The pre-pilot plant comprised a CPC solar photoreactor coupled to a filter-press cell, equipped with a platinum foil as the anode and a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode, both of 20 cm² area.

Fig. 12. Acute toxicity profiles for raw GW and for effluents generated upon treatment by different optimized EAOPs, employing *A. salina* as the indicator organism.

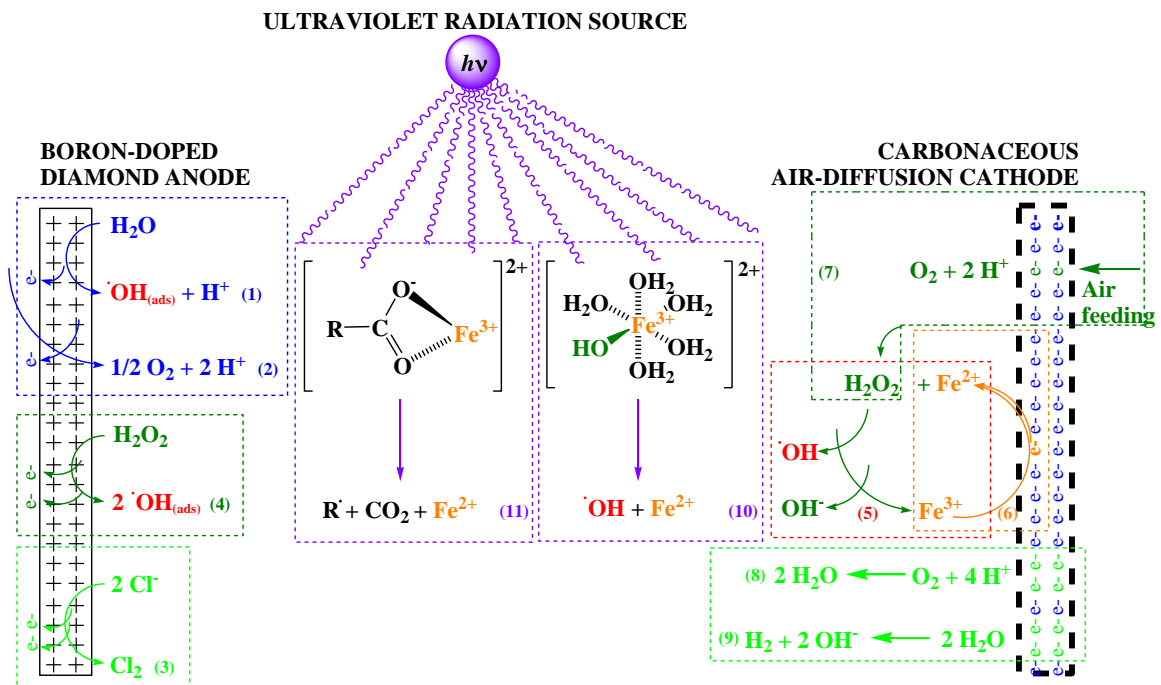


Fig. 1

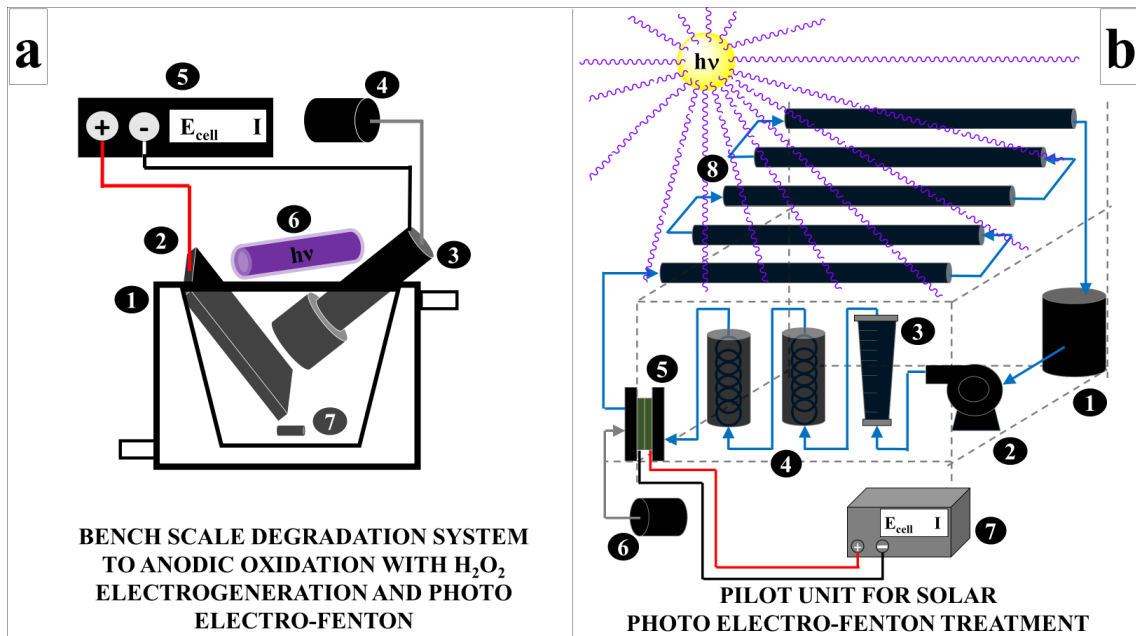
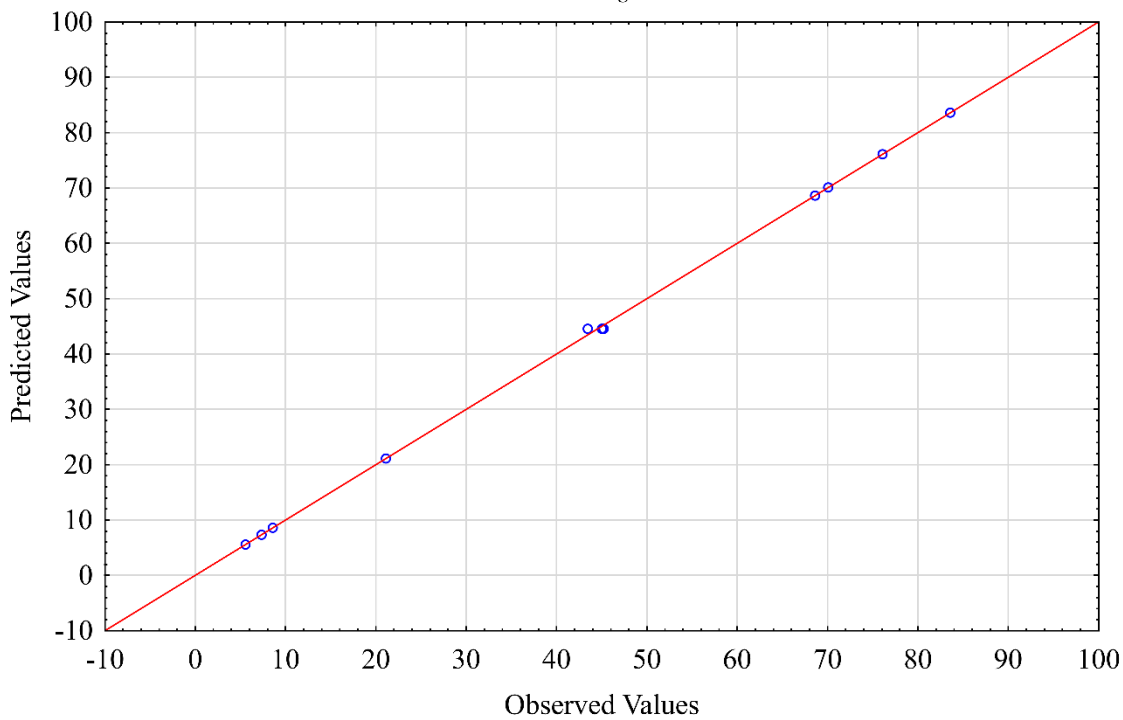


Fig. 2

Observed vs. Predicted Values
2**(3-0) design; MS Residual=0.9331
DV: Y%Deg

a



Observed vs. Predicted Values
2**(3-0) design; MS Residual=0.2973
DV: Y%Min

b

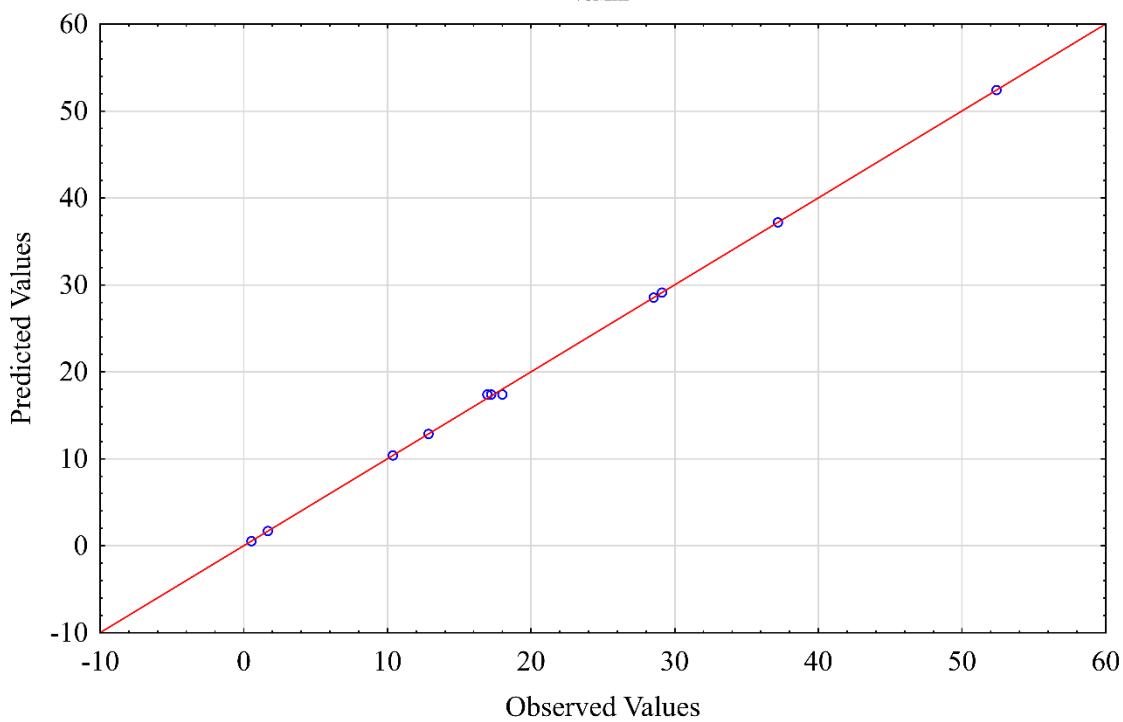
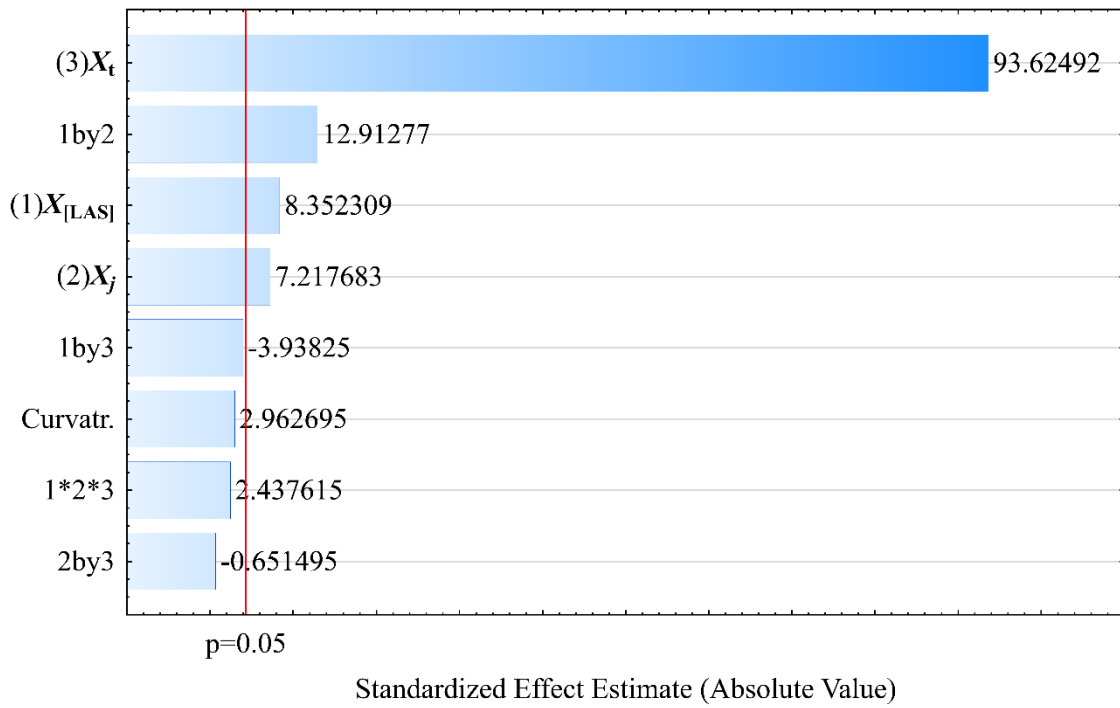


Fig. 3

Pareto Chart of Standardized Effects; Variable: $Y_{\%Deg}$
 $2^{**}(3-0)$ design; MS Residual=0.9331
 DV: $Y_{\%Deg}$

a



Pareto Chart of Standardized Effects; Variable: $Y_{\%Min}$
 $2^{**}(3-0)$ design; MS Residual=0.2973
 DV: $Y_{\%Min}$

b

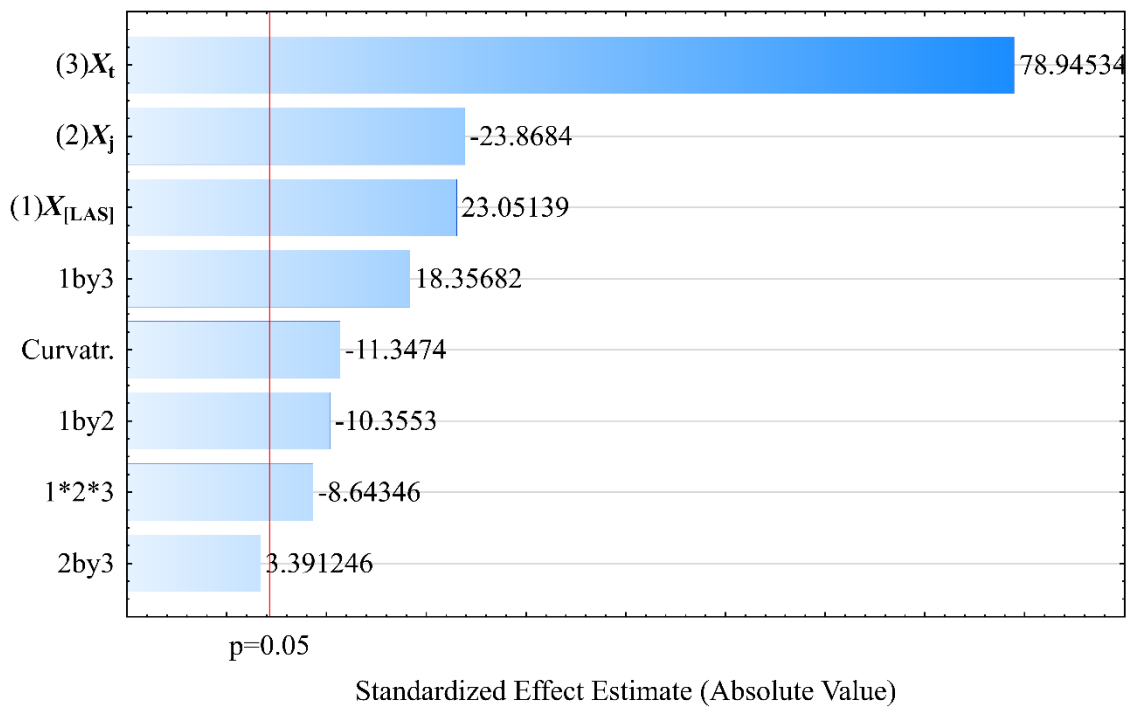


Fig. 4

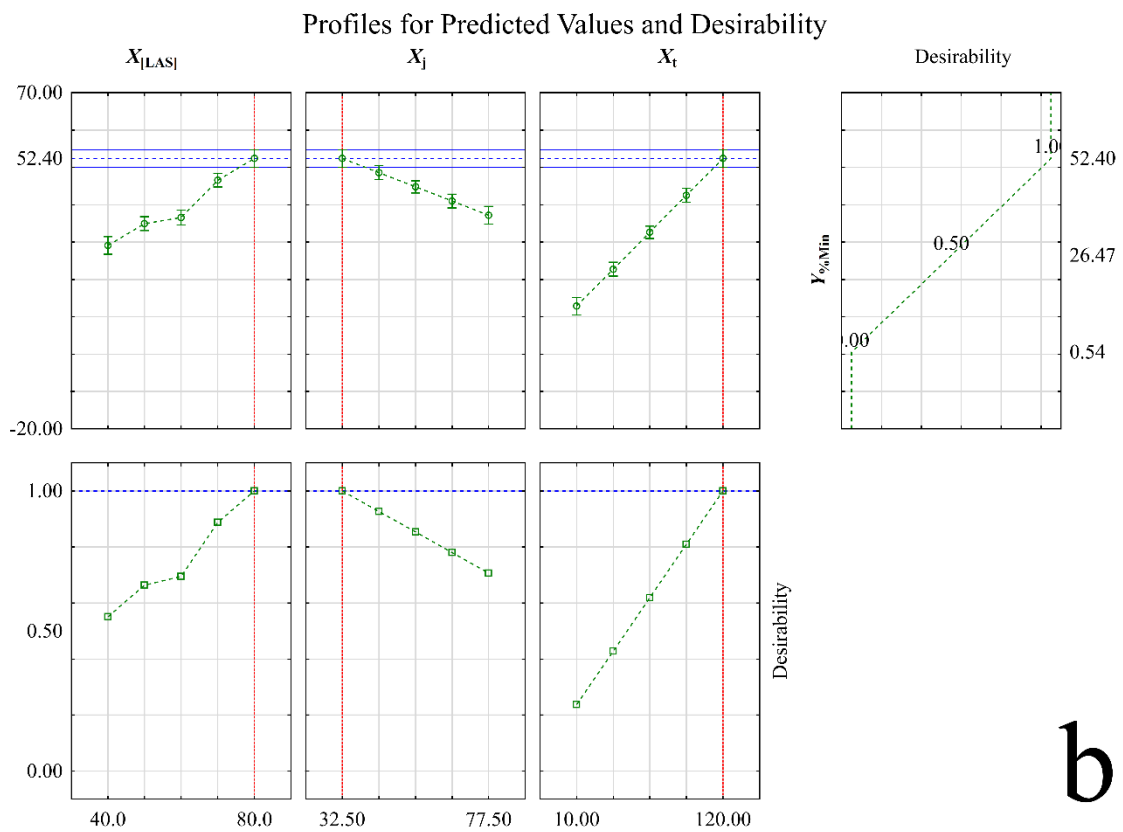
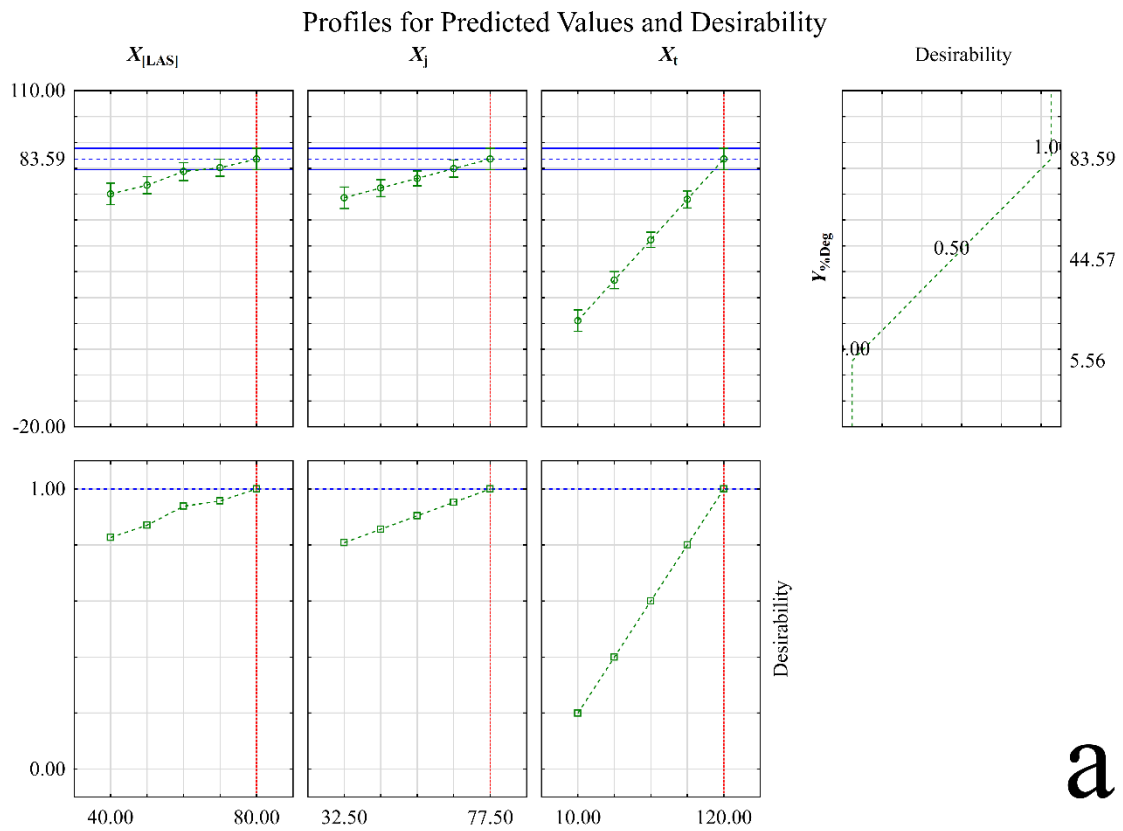
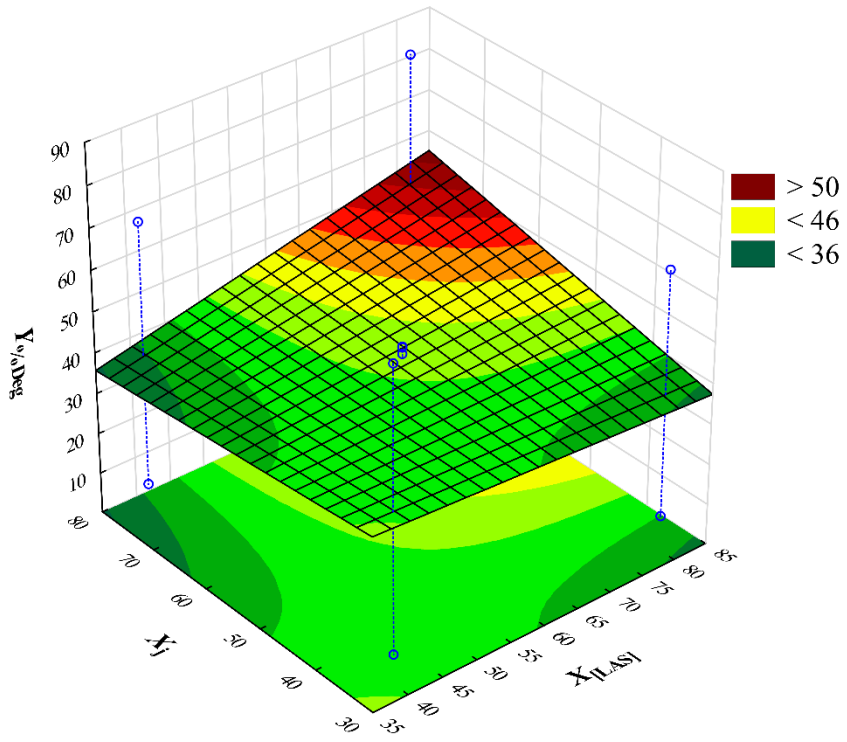
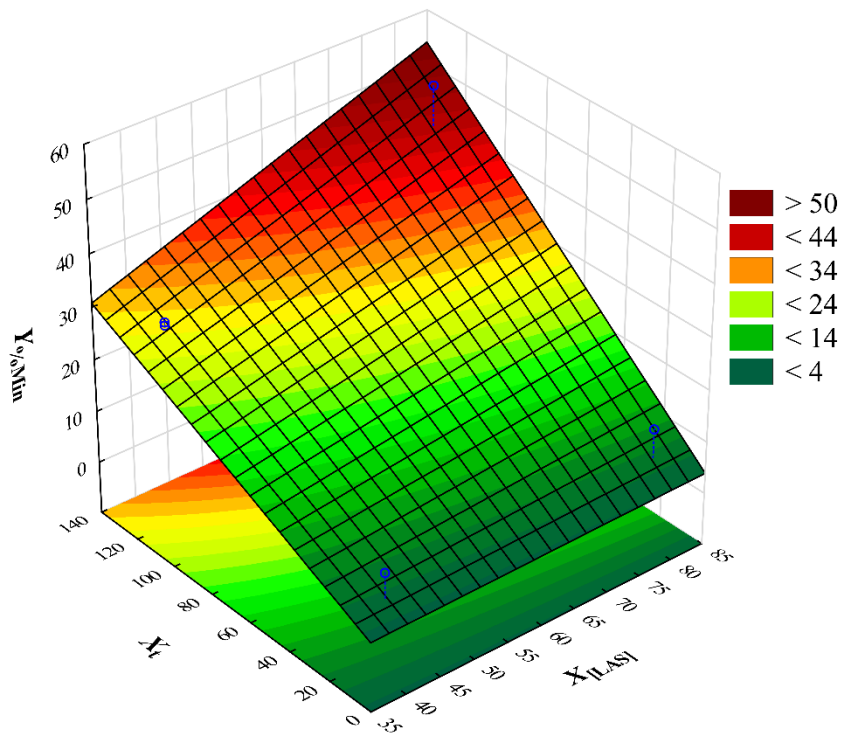


Fig. 5



a

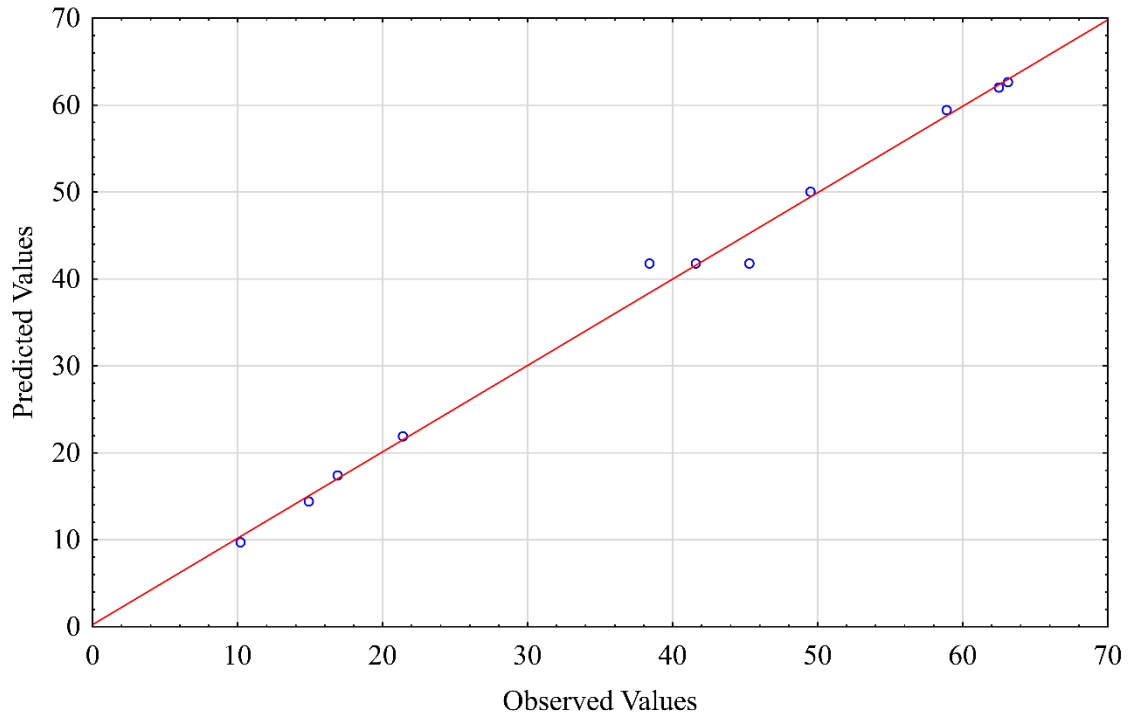


b

Fig. 6

Observed vs. Predicted Values
2**(3-0) design; MS Residual=8.598706
DV: Y%Deg

a



Observed vs. Predicted Values
2**(3-0) design; MS Residual=14.93023
DV: Y%Min

b

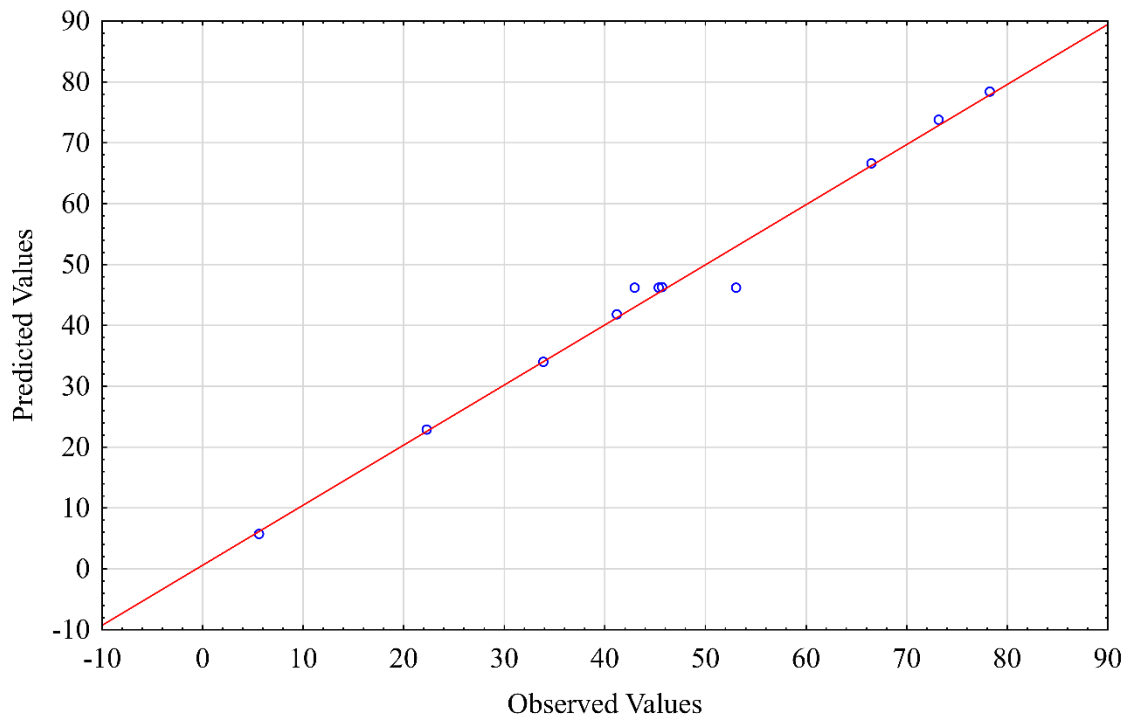


Fig. 7

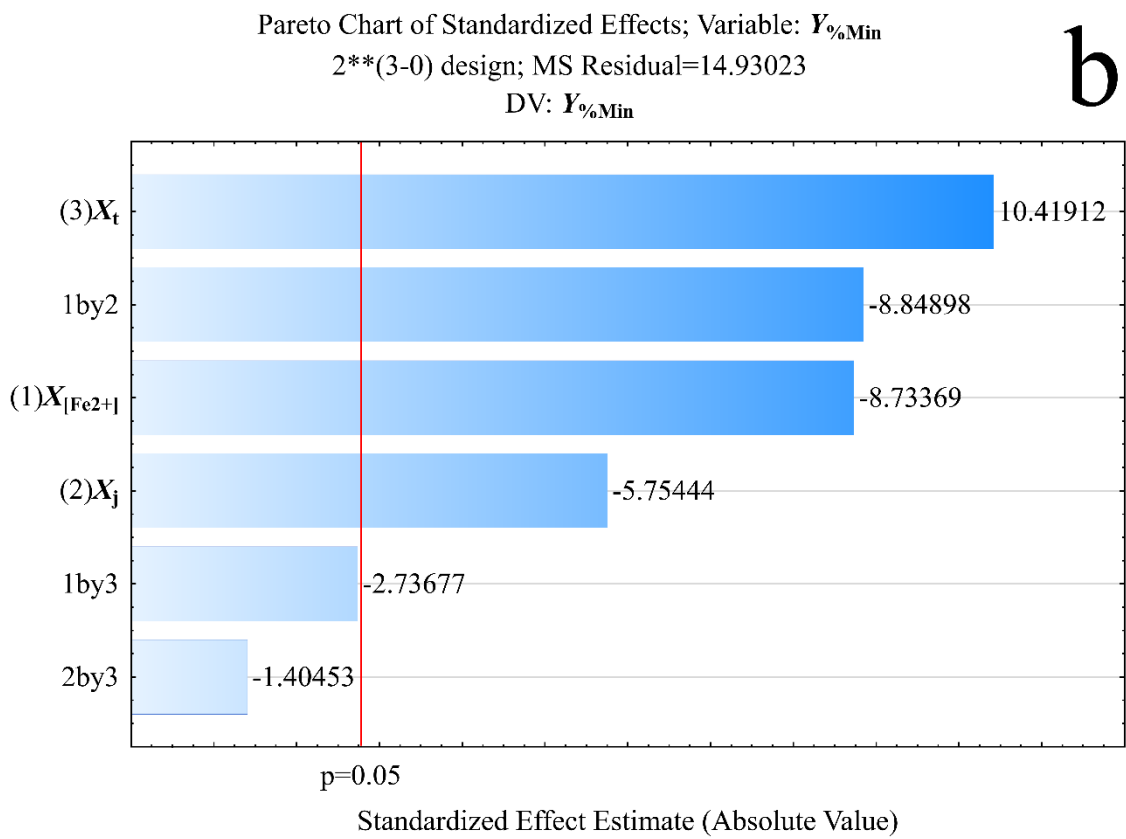
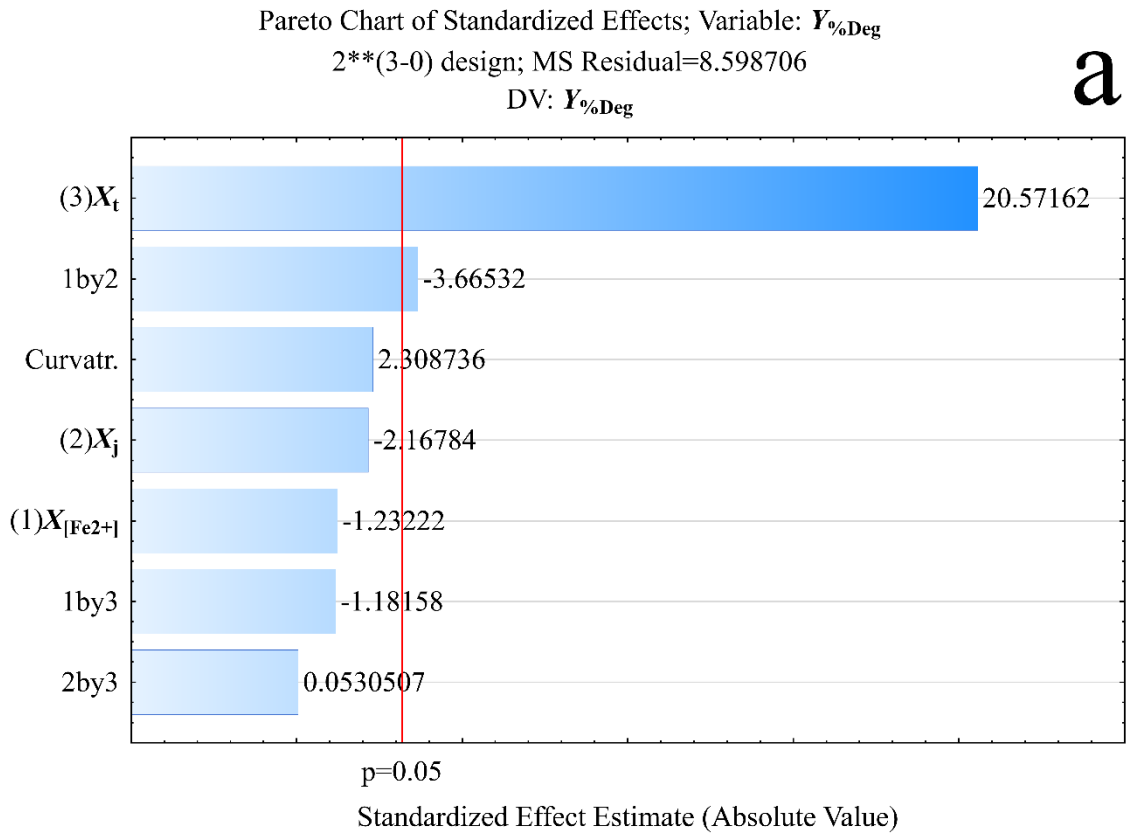


Fig. 8

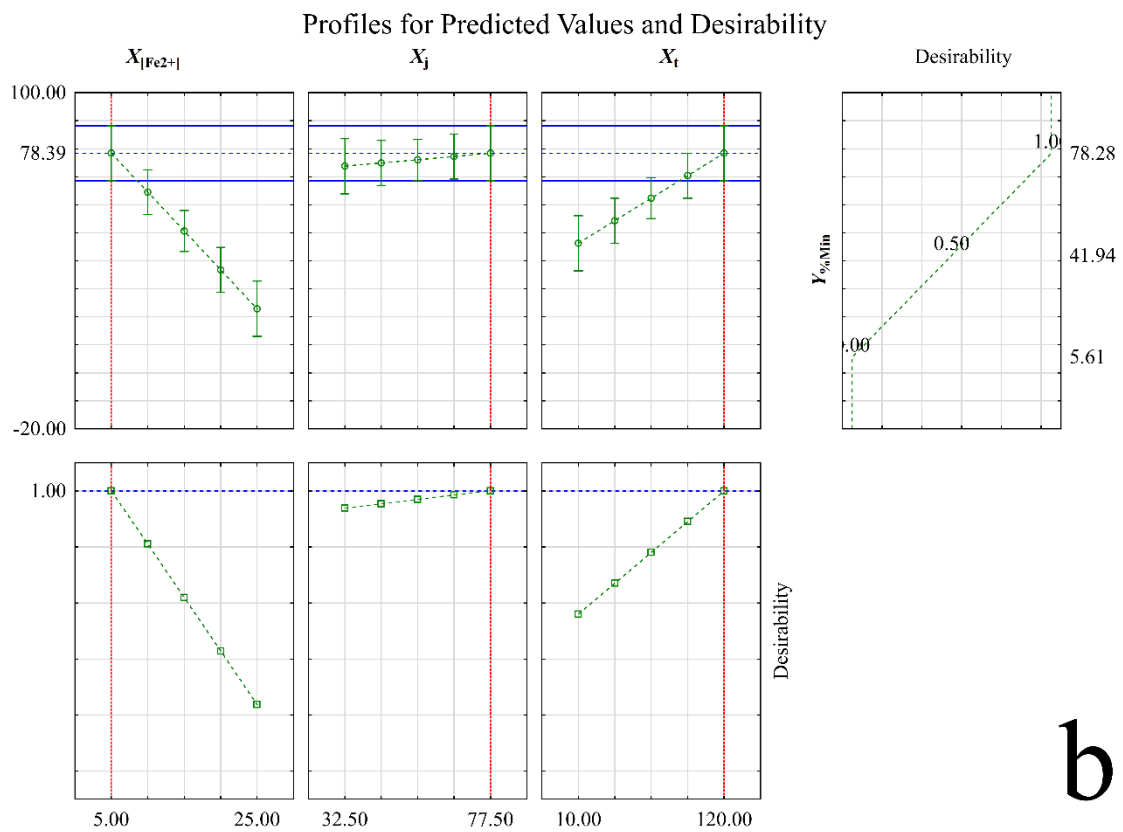
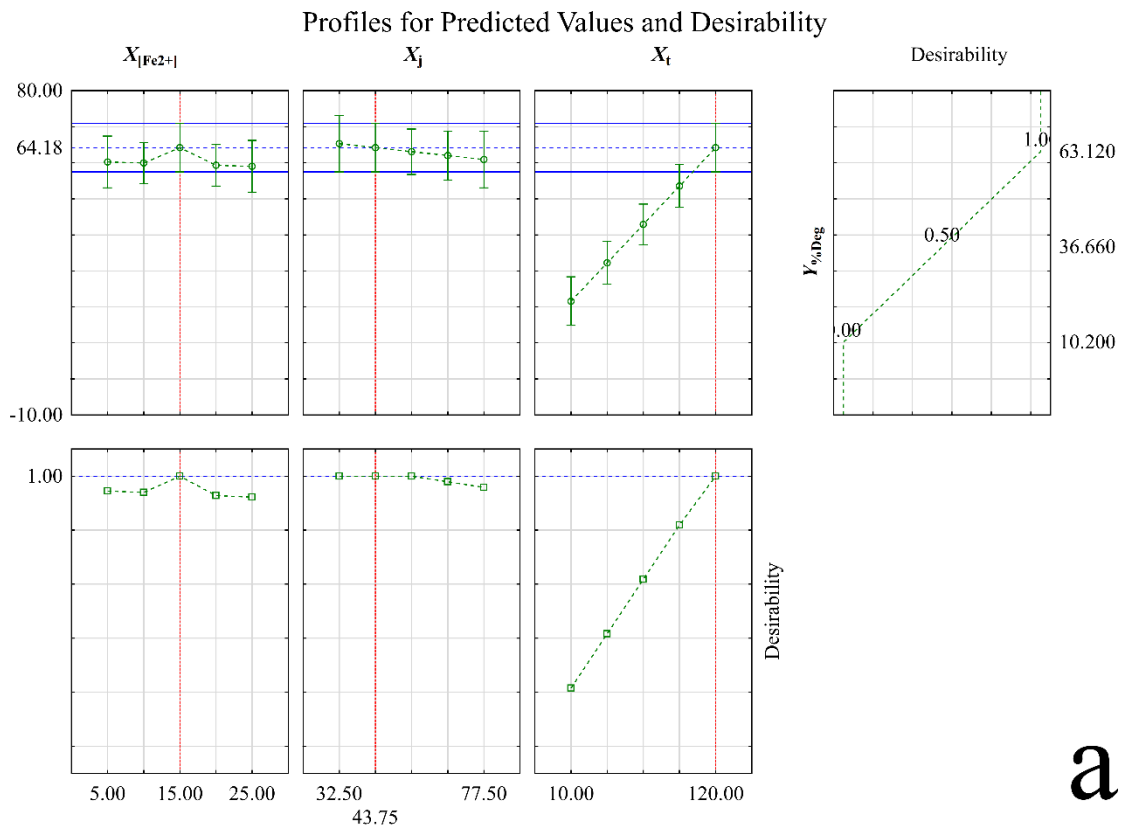
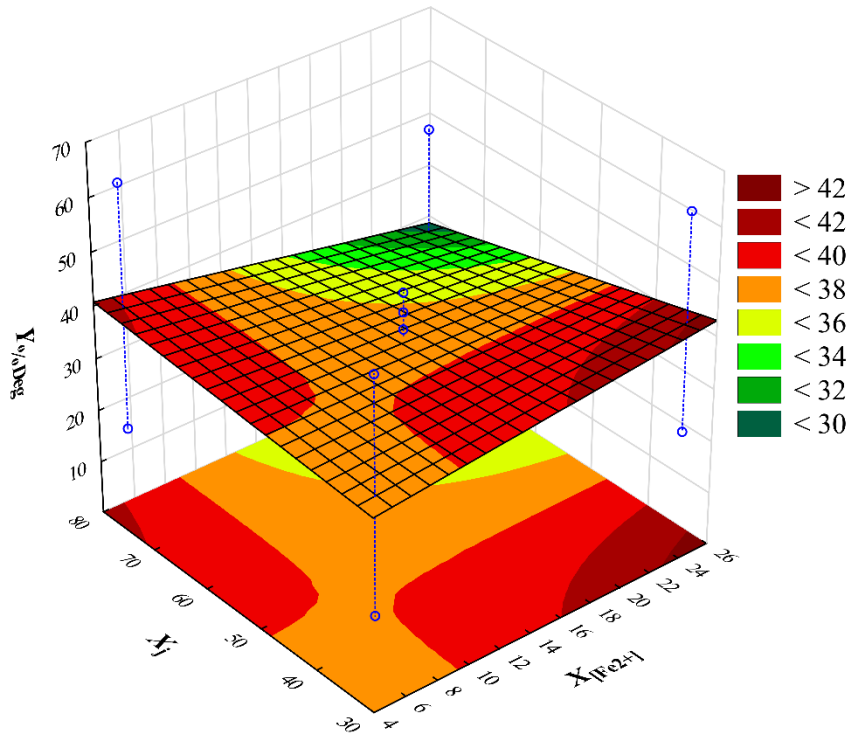
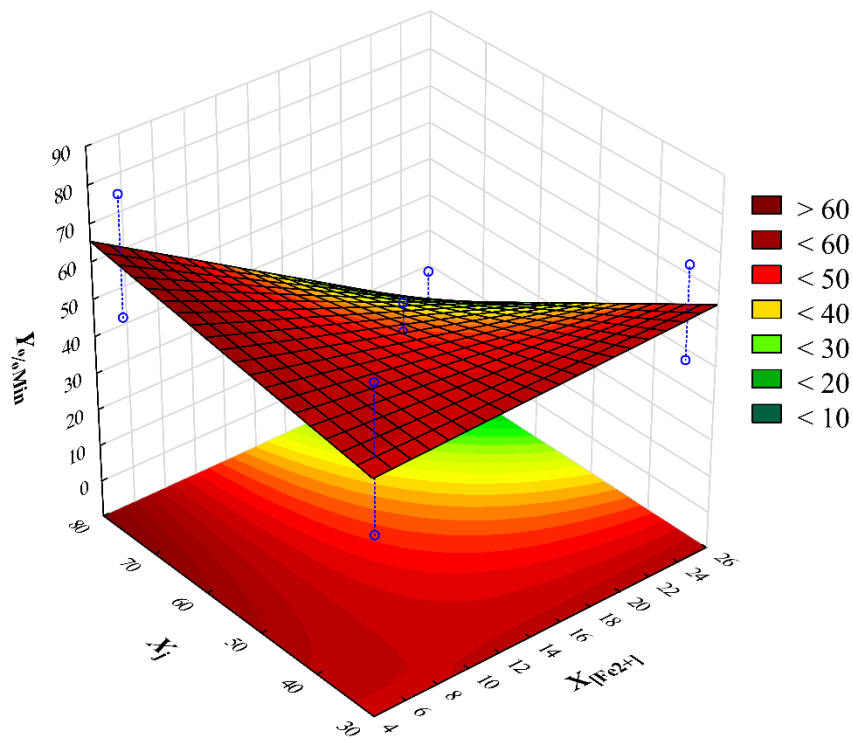


Fig. 9



a



b

Fig. 10

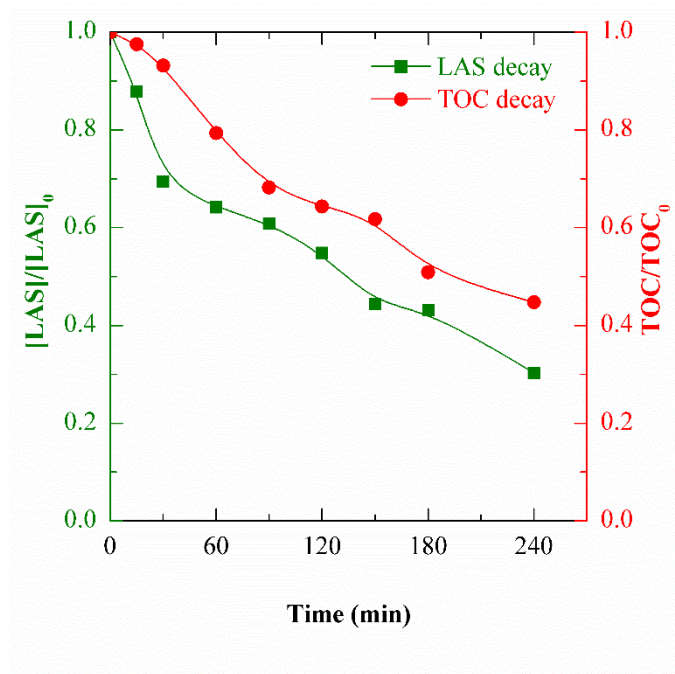


Fig. 11

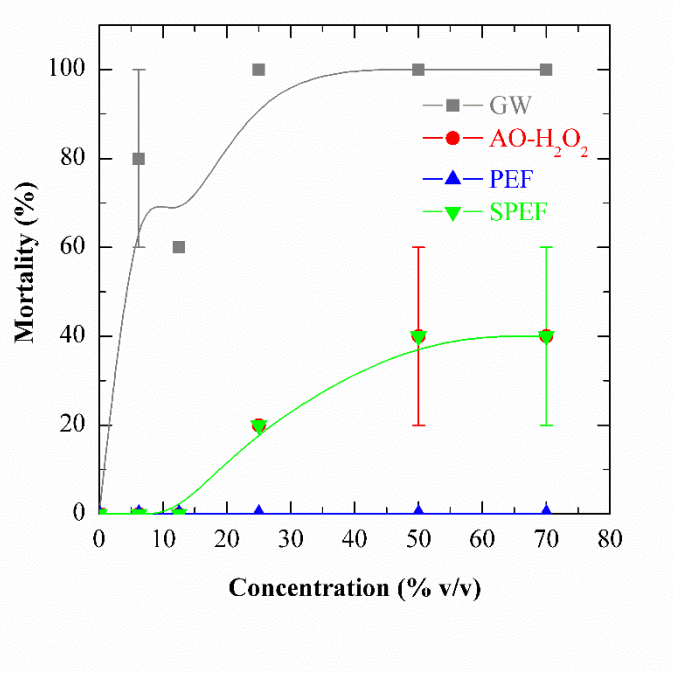


Fig. 12

1 **Table 1.**

2 Literature data collected for different technologies applied to the treatment of GW and GW-like effluents.

Treatment	Effluent type ^a	Main goals ^b	Treated volume or Flowrate	System	Removals	Energy consumption	Reference
Hydroponic green roof	Synthetic GW	Collect, treat and use greywater in green buildings	207 L per batch	Seven carbon steel tanks (400 mm × 400 mm × 300 mm) containing three-year-old plants of <i>Lonicera Japonica</i>	81% COD, 97% BOD ₅ , 88% anionic surfactants, 75% turbidity	-	[40]
Biodegradation	Synthetic WW + LAS	Investigate the efficiency of LAS biodegradation using fungi (<i>Penicillium chrysogenum</i>) in a biological system in batch. The effect of concentrations of LAS and ammonium sulfate in the aerobic cultures was evaluated using a 2 ² full factorial design	0.07 L per batch	The synthetic medium was inoculated with spore solution (100 µL per 0.070 L of medium), followed by incubation for 5 days, at 25 °C and 180 rpm	99.5% LAS biodegradation, with low residual dry mass (0.2995 g)	-	[41]
Biofiltration and electrochemical disinfection	Synthetic GW + Urban WW from a secondary treatment	Assess the performance of a disinfection process with BDD anode when an SPE is used to treat GW pre-treated using a green-wall biofilter	1 m ³ day ⁻¹	The electrochemical system consisted of a sandwich of two compartments containing a 40-cm ² Nb/BDD mesh anode, a cation exchange membrane (CEM) and a 40-cm ² stainless-steel mesh cathode	98.5% COD, 98.6% BOD ₅ , 95.4% turbidity, 90.4% TOC, 98.4% TSS, 88.9% <i>E. coli</i> , 88.3% of total coliforms	0.63–0.83 kWh m ⁻³ for > 99.9% removal of <i>E. coli</i> and total coliforms	[42]
Anaerobic filter + UV disinfection	GW	Discuss aspects related to GW reuse in airports, as well as to present a case study in Brazil. Evaluate the decay of BOD ₅ , COD, turbidity, TSS and NO ₃ ⁻ , as well as the disinfection ability	2.82 m ³ day ⁻¹	The anaerobic filter was made of fiberglass and was 1.80 m high with a diameter of 1.00 m (1.41 m ³). It was coupled to the UV disinfection system; the 36-W UV lamps provided a UV radiation intensity of 114 mW cm ⁻²	73% BOD ₅ , 72% COD, 77% TSS, 88% turbidity, 60% NO ₃ ⁻	64 kWh m ⁻³	[43]
Ultrafiltration	WME + SDBS	Evaluate the influence of various experimental parameters on the removal of SDBS (100-1000 mg L ⁻¹).	1.0 L per batch	The effluent was pumped from a stirred tank to a filter-press type reactor equipped with ceramic ultrafiltration membranes of 1 and 5 kDa (TiO ₂), or 15 to 150 kDa (ZrO ₂)	Up to 65% removal of 1000 mg L ⁻¹ SDBS using 1 kDa ceramic membrane, applying 1.5 bar at room temperature	-	[44]
Filtration + Ozonation	GW	Evaluate the influence of O ₃ dosage and contact time on the removal of BOD ₅ , COD, turbidity, TSS, <i>E. coli</i> , total coliforms and pathogenic bacteria	6 m ³ day ⁻¹	A pilot system containing a 1.3 m ³ storage tank, connected to sand filtration vessels, followed by filtration vessels containing granular activated carbon of similar capacity, and then a corona discharge O ₃ generator. A recirculation system received and kept in contact the effluent obtained from the filters with the generated O ₃	Applying 5-20 g h ⁻¹ O ₃ for 2 h at a flowrate of 20 L min ⁻¹ , a removal of 8.8% turbidity and 2.8% TSS, as well as total disinfection was obtained	10.09 kWh day ⁻¹ (1.80 kWh m ⁻³).	[45]
Chemical coagulation–floculation + UV photolysis	Synthetic anionic surfactant WW + LAS	Optimize the operation conditions using factorial design methodologies and response surface analysis	0.2–0.4 L per batch	Coagulation-floculation was made in a classical jar test apparatus. UV photolysis was carried out using a high pressure Hg lamp (quartz tube, 36 W, λ = 253.7 nm) placed 5 cm above the surface of the solution	71.3% and 74.6% of LAS from the synthetic LAS wastewater and the MWE, respectively	-	[46]

Electrocoagulation	GW	Evaluate the use of various experimental parameters on the removal of COD, TSS, TN, TP, anionic surfactant concentration and turbidity	0.6 L per batch	Undivided electrochemical reactor operated in batch mode, equipped with 4 metal plates (2 anodes and 2 cathodes)	Up to 99% COD removal at 1 mA cm ⁻² and initial pH = 7.6	9.46 kWh m ⁻³	[2]
Electrocoagulation	GW	Reach reuse limits	1.5 L per batch	A perspex glass reactor filled with 1.5 L kept under stirring. Al plates (8.5 cm × 8.5 cm × 2 mm) were used as the anode and cathode. The distance between electrodes was considered as 1 cm	70% COD, 87.5% BOD, 82.7% nitrate, 84.7% phosphate	0.153 kWh m ⁻³	[47]
Membrane filtration + Electrochemical technologies + Adsorption	WME	Evaluate the removal of TSS COD, turbidity and NPEO3-17	1 – 3 L per batch	Tested sequence: (1) Ultrafiltration (UF) of WME; (2) electrocoagulation/electrooxidation (EC/EO) of the concentrate from UF; (3) electrooxidation (EO) of the filtrate from UF; (4) adsorption of UF filtrate; (5) nanofiltration of UF filtrate; and (6) EO of NF concentrate. In EO: BDD, Ti/Pt and Ti/IrO ₂ anodes, as well as graphite, glassy carbon and Ti/Pt cathodes	50% COD, 95% TSS, 97% turbidity, 75% NPEO3-17	-	[48]
EAOPs (EF and PEF with and without peroxymonosulfate)	WME	Evaluate the use of various experimental parameters on the removal of COD, TOC and color	0.2 L per batch	Batch-type undivided electrochemical reactor (6 cm × 10 cm) equipped with a graphite-felt cathode (5 cm × 5 cm × 0.5 cm), with air flowrate of 1 L min ⁻¹ , and Pt sheet anode (2 cm × 3 cm) with interelectrode distance of 2 cm	99.5% COD and 97% TOC after 180 min at 30 mA cm ⁻² , 2 mM PMS, 100 mg L ⁻¹ MNPs, pH = 5.0.	-	[49]
EAOPs (EF)	WW	Investigate the effect of experimental parameters on the removal of COD and TSS using four factors three levels Box–Behnken response surface design	0.7 L per batch	900 mL glass beaker. Iron plates were used as a anode and cathode (each with 20 cm ²)	90% COD and 85% TSS after 14 min at 10 mA cm ⁻² , H ₂ O ₂ /Fe ²⁺ = 0.70 and pH = 4	-	[50]
EAOPs (AO-H ₂ O ₂ , PEF, SPEF)	GW	Discuss the performance of various EAOPs using a factorial design	0.1–10 L per batch	Bench-scale electrochemical reactor with capacity of 150 mL, equipped with a BDD thin film as the anode and a carbon-PTFE air-diffusion cathode (both of 3 cm ²). Air flowrate of 2 L min ⁻¹ . SPEF pre-pilot system: filter-press electrochemical cell (electrodes of 20 cm ²) coupled to a CPC solar photoreactor, comprising a 20-L reservoir tank; liquid flowrate of 180 L min ⁻¹	LAS and TOC removals after 240 min: 84% and 37% in AO-H ₂ O ₂ ; 63% and 78% in PEF, 70% and 55% in SPEF	AO-H ₂ O ₂ : 0.13 – 23.9 kWh (kg TOC) ⁻¹ PEF: 0.05 – 6.52 kWh (kg TOC) ⁻¹ SPEF: 0.32 kWh (kg TOC) ⁻¹	This work

3 ^a GW: greywater; SDBS: sodium dodecyl-benzene sulfonate; WME: washing machine effluent; WW: wastewater. ^b BOD₅: biological oxygen demand after 5 days; COD:
4 chemical oxygen demand; NPEO3-17: nonylphenol ethoxylates; TN: total nitrogen; TP: total phosphorus; TSS: total suspended solids.

5

1 **Table 2.**

2 Raw GW characterization.

Physicochemical parameters	
pH	6.7-7.6
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	162.5-390
Turbidity (NTU)	57.8-78.6
COD (mg L^{-1})	283-352
BOD _(5,20) (mg L^{-1})	270-280.0
TOC (mg L^{-1}) before LAS addiction	50.3
TOC (mg L^{-1}) after LAS addiction	80.8-100.6
TIC (mg L^{-1})	52.0 – 75.0
Cl ⁻ (mg L^{-1})	20-30
NH ₃ -N (mg L^{-1})	0.5-3.1
NO ₃ ⁻ (mg L^{-1})	0.1-2.1
Total nitrogen (mg L^{-1})	0.6-5.2
Total solids (mg L^{-1})	113-451
Dissolved solids (mg L^{-1})	17-68
Fe (mg L^{-1})	<0.05-0.20
PO ₄ ³⁻ (mg L^{-1})	50-68
Al (mg L^{-1})	0.100-3.550
Ba (mg L^{-1})	< 1
Ca (mg L^{-1})	15-17
Zn (mg L^{-1})	0.37-1.60
Mn (mg L^{-1})	0.061
Ni (mg L^{-1})	<0.025
Hg (mg L^{-1})	<0.0003
Cr (mg L^{-1})	<0.05
Cd (mg L^{-1})	<0.006
Pb (mg L^{-1})	<0.063

3

4

5 **Table 3.**

6 Observed and predicted values for the percentages of degradation of LAS ($Y_{\%Deg}$) and mineralization ($Y_{\%Min}$), corresponding to the AO-H₂O₂
 7 treatment of 100 mL of GW in 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ using the projected experimental design, and estimated energy consumption per unit TOC (EC_{TOC}).

Experiment	$X_{[LAS]}$ (mg L ⁻¹)	X_j (mA cm ⁻²)	X_t (min)	$Y_{\%Deg}$		$Y_{\%Min}$		EC_{TOC} (kWh (kg TOC) ⁻¹)
				Observed	Predicted	Observed	Predicted	
1	80	32.5	10	8.58	8.58	12.86	12.86	0.13
2	40	32.5	120	76.09	76.09	29.11	29.11	0.89
3	40	77.5	10	5.56	5.56	0.54	0.54	23.9
4	40	77.5	120	70.09	70.09	28.54	28.54	5.43
5	60	55	65	45.02	44.56	17.23	17.4	2.36
6	80	32.5	120	68.62	68.62	52.40	52.4	0.37
7	40	32.5	10	7.34	7.34	10.39	10.39	0.21
8	80	77.5	10	21.11	21.11	1.69	1.69	5.73
9	80	77.5	120	83.59	83.59	37.18	37.18	3.13
10	60	55	65	45.21	44.56	16.96	17.4	2.40
11	60	55	65	43.45	44.56	18.01	17.4	2.26

9 **Table 4.**

10 ANOVA table results for factorial design 2^k obtained for GW treatment by AO-H₂O₂
 11 process.

<i>Y%Deg</i>					
Factor	SS	df	MS	F-value	p-value
Curvatr.	8.1903	1	8.1903	8.7775	0.09754
(1) $X_{[LAS]}$	65.094	1	65.094	69.761	0.01403
(2) X_j	48.610	1	48.610	52.095	0.01866
(3) X_t	8179.2	1	8179.2	8765.6	0.00011
1 by 2	155.58	1	155.58	166.74	0.00594
1 by 3	14.472	1	14.472	15.510	0.05884
2 by 3	0.39605	1	0.39605	0.42444	0.58159
1*2*3	5.5444	1	5.5444	5.9420	0.13503
Error	1.8662	2	0.93310		
Total SS	8478.9	10			
<i>Y%Min</i>					
Factor	SS	df	MS	F-value	p-value
Curvatr.	38.281	1	38.281	128.76	0.00768
(1) $X_{[LAS]}$	157.97	1	157.97	531.37	0.00188
(2) X_j	169.37	1	169.37	569.70	0.00175
(3) X_t	1852.9	1	1852.9	6232.4	0.00016
1 by 2	31.880	1	31.880	107.23	0.00920
1 by 3	100.18	1	100.18	336.97	0.00295
2 by 3	3.4191	1	3.419	11.500	0.07704
1*2*3	22.211	1	22.211	74.710	0.01312
Error	0.59460	2	0.29730		
Total SS	2376.8	10			

12 SS: Sum-of-Square; df: degree of freedom; MS: Mean Square.

13 **Table 5.**

14 Estimated effect, regression coefficients and corresponding “t” and “p” values of influent factors in $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses for GW treatment
 15 by AO-H₂O₂.

$Y_{\%Deg}$						
Factor	Effect	Standard Error Effect	t-value	p-value	Coefficient	Standard Error Coefficient
Mean/Interac.	42.622	0.34152	124.801	0.00006	42.622	0.34152
Curvatr.	3.8750	1.3079	2.9627	0.09754	1.9375	0.65396
(1) $X_{[LAS]}$	5.7050	0.68304	8.3523	0.01403	2.8525	0.34152
(2) X_j	4.9300	0.68304	7.2177	0.01866	2.4650	0.34152
(3) X_t	63.950	0.68304	93.625	0.00011	31.975	0.34152
1 by 2	8.8200	0.68304	12.913	0.00594	4.4100	0.34152
1 by 3	-2.6900	0.68304	-3.9382	0.05884	-1.3450	0.34152
2 by 3	-0.44500	0.68304	-0.65150	0.58159	-0.22250	0.34152
1*2*3	1.6650	0.68304	2.4376	0.13503	0.83250	0.34152
$Y_{\%Min}$						
Factor	Effect	Standard Error Effect	t-value	p-value	Coefficient	Standard Error Coefficient
Mean/Interac.	21.589	0.19277	111.99	0.00008	21.589	0.19277
Curvatr.	-8.3775	0.73827	-11.347	0.00768	-4.1890	0.36914
(1) $X_{[LAS]}$	8.8875	0.38555	23.051	0.00188	4.4437	0.19278
(2) X_j	-9.2025	0.38555	-23.868	0.00175	-4.6012	0.19278
(3) X_t	30.437	0.38555	78.945	0.00016	15.219	0.19278
1 by 2	-3.9925	0.38555	-10.355	0.00920	-1.9962	0.19278
1 by 3	7.0775	0.38555	18.357	0.00295	3.5387	0.19278
2 by 3	1.3075	0.38555	3.3912	0.07704	0.65375	0.19278
1*2*3	-3.3325	0.38555	-8.6435	0.01312	-1.6662	0.19278

17 **Table 6.**

18 Observed and predicted values for the percentages of degradation of LAS ($Y_{\%Deg}$) and mineralization ($Y_{\%Min}$), corresponding to the PEF treatment
 19 of 100 mL of GW in 0.050 M Na_2SO_4 using the projected experimental design, and estimated energy consumption per unit TOC (EC_{TOC}).

Experiment	$X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$ (mg L ⁻¹)	X_j (mA cm ⁻²)	X_t (min)	$Y_{\%Deg}$		$Y_{\%Min}$		EC_{TOC} (kWh (kg TOC) ⁻¹)
				Observed	Predicted	Observed	Predicted	
1	5	77.5	120	63.12	62.62	78.28	78.04	1.86
2	25	32.5	120	62.50	61.99	66.50	66.26	0.37
3	5	77.5	10	16.90	17.40	45.69	45.93	0.27
4	5	32.5	10	14.91	14.41	33.88	33.64	0.06
5	5	32.5	120	58.90	59.40	73.18	73.42	0.33
6	15	55	65	41.60	41.76	53.05	47.12	0.84
7	25	77.5	10	10.20	9.70	5.61	5.39	2.16
8	15	55	65	38.40	41.76	42.96	47.12	1.04
9	25	32.5	10	21.40	21.90	41.19	41.43	0.05
10	25	77.5	120	49.51	50.01	22.28	22.52	6.52
11	15	55	65	45.29	41.76	45.35	47.12	0.99

21 **Table 7.**

22 ANOVA table for factorial design 2^k obtained for GW treatment by PEF process.

$Y_{\%Deg}$					
Factor	SS	df	MS	F-value	p-value
Curvatr.	45.833	1	45.833	5.3302	0.10415
(1) $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$	13.056	1	13.056	1.5184	0.30563
(2) X_j	40.410	1	40.410	4.6995	0.11870
(3) X_t	3638.9	1	3638.9	423.19	0.00025
1 by 2	115.52	1	115.52	13.434	0.03511
1 by 3	12.005	1	12.005	1.3961	0.32250
2 by 3	0.02420	1	0.02420	0.00281	0.96103
Error	25.796	3	8.5987		
Total SS	3891.5	10			
$Y_{\%Min}$					
Factor	SS	df	MS	F-value	p-value
(1) $X_{[Fe^{2+}]}$	1138.8	1	1138.8	76.277	0.00095
(2) X_j	494.39	1	494.39	33.114	0.00452
(3) X_t	1620.8	1	1620.8	108.56	0.00048
1 by 2	1169.1	1	1169.1	78.304	0.00090
1 by 3	111.82	1	111.82	7.4899	0.05208
2 by 3	29.453	1	29.453	1.9727	0.23285
Error	59.721	4	14.930		
Total SS	4624.1	10			

23 SS: Sum-of-Square; df: degree of freedom; MS: Mean Square

24 **Table 8.**

25 Effect Estimates, regression coefficients and corresponding “t” and “p” values of influent factors in $Y_{\%Deg}$ and $Y_{\%Min}$ responses for GW treatment
 26 by PEF.

$Y_{\%Deg}$						
Factor	Effect	Standard Error Effect	t-value	p-value	Coefficient	Standard Error Coefficient
Mean/Interac.	37.180	1.0367	35.862	0.00005	37.180	1.0367
Curvatr.	9.1667	3.9704	2.3087	0.10415	4.5833	1.9852
(1) $X_{[Fe2+]}$	-2.5550	2.0735	-1.2322	0.30563	-1.2775	1.0367
(2) X_j	-4.4950	2.0735	-2.1678	0.11870	-2.2475	1.0367
(3) X_t	42.655	2.0735	20.572	0.00025	21.327	1.0367
1 by 2	-7.6000	2.0735	-3.6653	0.03511	-3.8000	1.0367
1 by 3	-2.4500	2.0735	-1.1816	0.32250	-1.2250	1.0367
2 by 3	0.11000	2.0735	0.05305	0.96103	0.05500	1.0367
$Y_{\%Min}$						
Factor	Effect	Standard Error Effect	t-value	p-value	Coefficient	Standard Error Coefficient
Mean/Interac.	46.179	1.1650	39.638	0.000002	46.179	1.1650
(1) $X_{[Fe2+]}$	-23.862	2.7322	-8.7337	0.00095	-11.931	1.3661
(2) X_j	-15.722	2.7322	-5.7544	0.00452	-7.8612	1.3661
(3) X_t	28.467	2.7322	10.419	0.00048	14.234	1.3661
1 by 2	-24.177	2.7322	-8.8490	0.00090	-12.089	1.3661
1 by 3	-7.4775	2.7322	-2.7368	0.05208	-3.7387	1.3661
2 by 3	-3.8375	2.7322	-1.4045	0.23285	-1.9187	1.3661