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Photolysis of Mono- and Dichloramines in UV/Hydrogen Peroxide: Effects on 1,4-Dioxane Removal and Relevance in Water Reuse

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Abstract

Growing demands and increasing scarcity of fresh water resources necessitate potable water reuse, which has been implemented with the aid of UV-based advanced oxidation processes (UV/AOPs) that remove potentially hazardous trace organic contaminants from reclaimed water. During the potable reuse treatment process, chloramines are added to prevent membrane fouling that are carried over to the UV/AOP, where hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) is commonly added. However, the impact of chloramines on the photolysis of H2O2 and the overall performance of the UV/AOP remains unknown. This study investigated the impacts of the photochemistry of monochloramine (NH2Cl) and dichloramine (NHCl2) associated with the photolysis of H2O2 on the degradation of 1,4-dioxane (1,4-D), a trace organic contaminant ubiquitous in recycled water. Results indicated that NH2Cl and NHCl2 alone functioned as oxidants upon UV photolysis, which produced HO• and Cl2•- as the two primary oxidative radicals. The speciation of chloramines did not have a significant impact on the degradation kinetics. The inclusion of monochloramine in UV/H2O2 greatly decreased 1,4-D removal efficiency. HO• was the major radical in the mixed H2O2/chloramine system. Results from this study suggest that recognizing the existence of chloramines in UV/H2O2 systems is important for predicting UV/AOP performance in the treatment train of potable reuse.

Graphical Abstract



Introduction

Potable reuse has become increasingly important to alleviate water shortage in drought stricken regions. (1,2) Water reuse treatment trains rely on a sequence of processes which remove microbiological, inorganic and trace organic contaminants from wastewater effluent that may have adverse health effects. (3–5) Specifically, microfiltration (MF) or ultrafiltration (UF) are used to remove bacteria and colloidal particles from the wastewater effluent, reverse osmosis (RO) for salt rejection, and they are commonly followed by a UV-based advanced oxidation process (UV/AOP) for disinfection and removal of trace contaminants. (2) To prevent MF and RO membrane biofouling, chloramines are typically introduced in the feedwater, through the addition of chlorine which reacts with ammonia present in the wastewater effluent: NH₃ + HOCI \rightarrow NH₂Cl+ H₂O

 $NH_3 + HOCI \rightarrow NH_2CI + H_2O$

 $NH_2CI + H_2O \rightarrow NHCI_2 + H_2O$

Typically, both monochloramine (NH₂Cl) and dichloramine (NHCl₂) are generated in the feedwater, with their speciation depending on solution pH, and ratio between free chlorine and ammonia. (6–8) NH₂Cl has a greater disinfection efficiency than NHCl₂ and is the preferred antifouling species. (9) More importantly, because both chloramines are small and neutral, they easily diffuse through RO membranes and carry over to the UV/AOP step.

Meanwhile, RO membranes do not efficiently remove small and neutrally charged trace organic contaminants including 1,4-dioxane (1,4-D), which is widely present in municipal wastewater (10) due to its use as an industrial stabilizer of chlorinated solvents and presence in personal care products. (11,12) 1,4-D is classified as a 2B carcinogen, (13) and thus, the State of California requires the demonstration of a minimum of 0.5-log removal of 1,4-D during AOP for potable reuse and established a 1 ng/L notification level. (14,15) Because 1,4-D is not subject to direct photolysis, hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) is typically added during UV treatment, where the

photolysis of H_2O_2 at 254 nm produces highly reactive hydroxyl radicals (HO[·]) that degrade 1,4-D and other trace organic contaminants. (16–18)

Chloramine species have high molar absorptivity coefficients relative to H_2O_2 , i.e., 388 and 142 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ at 254 nm, respectively, compared to 18.8 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for H₂O₂. Chloramines are photolyzed to produce unique radicals including NH₂, NHCl, and Cl with differing quantum yields, 0.54 for NH₂Cl and 0.82 for NHCl₂. (19,20) The amino radical (NH₂) reacts with phenol and compounds with primary amine functional groups, while NHCl is relatively nonreactive. (21,22) Chlorine atom (Cl) reacts with a diffusion limited rate constant with aromatic compounds and also reacts with chloride to form chlorine dimer (Cl₂⁻⁻), which reacts with water to form HO⁻ or decays to form chloride. (23–25) The photolysis of NH₂Cl has also been recently found to degrade 1,4-D via the generation of Cl₂⁻⁻ and HO⁻. (26,27) The photochemistry of trichloramine (NCl₃) has previously been used to remove it from swimming pool water. (28)

Current literature on the photochemistry associated with UV/AOPs implemented for potable reuse considers pure and single oxidant systems (e.g., UV/H_2O_2 or UV/NH_2CI) but does not consider the de facto coexistence and simultaneous photolysis of chloramines and H_2O_2 during UV/AOP. Although chloramines can react with H_2O_2 without UV irradiation over the course of hours, (29) the impact of chloramines on UV/H_2O_2 with respect to the removal of trace organic contaminants remains unknown. It is likely that a unique set of chain reactions controls radical generation and treatment efficiency. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to evaluate the efficacy of UV/chloramine, especially the impact of chloramine speciation (i.e., NH_2CI vs. $NHCI_2$) on 1,4-D removal, and examine the impacts of coexisting chloramines on the photochemistry of H_2O_2 .

Materials and Methods

All chemicals were of ACS or reagent grade. A majority of experiments were prepared in deionized (DI) water (18.2 M Ω •cm, Millipore), and in some experiments real RO permeate from a water reuse treatment facility was used. A 5% NaOCI solution (Arcos Organics) was standardized by KMnO₄ method prior to use. (30) A 50 mM NH₂CI stock solution was prepared daily by titrating 30 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄ with 50 mM NaOCI at a N-to-Cl₂ molar ratio of 1.2. The (NH₄)₂SO₄ solution was buffered at pH 8.8 using 4 mM borate. The final NH₂CI stock solution had a pH of 8.8 and was equilibrated for at least 1 h. prior to use. A 25 mM NHCl₂ stock solution was prepared by lowering the pH of the NH₂CI solution below 5.5 using HClO₄ and equilibrating for 10 min. The concentrations of chloramine stock solutions were confirmed by standard DPD method. (30)

To start an experiment, DI water was purged with N₂ gas for 20 min to lower dissolved O₂ and inorganic carbon levels similar to those observed in RO permeate. This was followed by the addition of 250 μ M 1,4-D and radical probe compounds (20 μ M nitrobenzene and 10 μ M benzoic acid). Chloramines and H₂O₂ were then added in their specified concentrations as required. The concentrations of 1,4-D and oxidants were higher than those in RO permeate to provide useful insight into

reaction kinetics and radical chemistry. (26) In the single chloramine systems (UV/NH₂Cl or UV/NHCl₂), the concentration of NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ was varied between 0.2 and 6 mM with a fixed concentration of 1,4-D (250 μ M), resulting in a molar ratio of chloramine-to-1,4-D between 0.8 and 24. In experiments to study the impact of mixed oxidants, stock solutions of NH₂Cl, NHCl₂, and H₂O₂ were made separately, and working solutions were prepared prior to UV irradiation. Mixtures of chloramines were found to be stable for the duration of the experiments. All experiments were conducted at pH 5.8 which is typical for reverse osmosis permeate and maintained with 40 mM phosphate buffer at 20 °C which was maintained by air circulation in the reaction chamber.

The prepared solution was dispensed into sealed 8 mL quartz reaction tubes placed in a carousel UV reactor (Ace Glass) equipped with a low-pressure Hg lamp (Ultra Sun Technologies). Samples were taken at 5 min intervals under UV irradiation for a total of 25 min (UV dosage ≈ 3500 mJ/cm²). Upon removal from the UV reactor, chloramine and H₂O₂ concentrations were immediately measured by DPD and KI methods, respectively. (31) In preparation for organic analysis, the residual oxidants in the remaining sample were quenched with 5.5 mM thiosulfate. Concentrations of probe compounds and 1,4-D were quantified by HPLC-UV (Text S1 of the Supporting Information, SI). A competition kinetic method (32) was used to calculate steady-state radical concentrations (Text S2). In brief, the experimentally measured pseudo first-order degradation kinetics of probe compounds and the literature reported second-order rate constants of reactions between probe compounds and radicals were used to calculate the steady-state radical concentrations. In all cases, the addition of probe compounds consumed a negligible fraction of radicals and did not interfere with 1,4-D degradation. Probe compounds and 1,4-D were found not to directly photolyze in control experiments.

Nitrogen product analysis from chloramine decay was carried out by a combination of methods. Total nitrogen was measured by a TOC analyzer equipped with a nitrogen detector (OI Analytical Aurora 1030). Ammonia was measured by the standard phenate method. (33) Nitrate was determined using the salicylic acid method, (34) and nitrite was determined using the sulfanilamide method. (30) Organic nitrogen was determined by subtracting nitrate, nitrite, and ammonia from total nitrogen. Gaseous nitrogen formation was calculated by subtracting the initial total nitrogen from total dissolved nitrogen measured after exposure to 3500 mJ/cm².

Results and Discussion Photochemistry of NH₂Cl and NHCl₂

In this study, we first examined the capability of NH_2CI and $NHCI_2$ to remove 1,4-D under UV photolytic conditions analogous to the treatment of RO permeate at a wastewater recycling facility. The rate of 1,4-D removal under NH_2CI photolysis was approximately 60–80% higher than with $NHCI_2$ when the chloramine dosage was less than 2 mM. At concentrations less than 4 mM, NH_2CI was more efficient at removing 1,4-D than $NHCI_2$ and reached the maximal rate at 2 mM compared to 4 mM for $NHCI_2$ (Figure <u>1</u>A). NH_2CI has a greater molar absorptivity coefficient at 254

nm, but a lower quantum yield (0.54 vs 0.82) than NHCl₂. (20) The combined effects led to similar photolysis rates between NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ at 2 mM (Figure S1). However, the effective yield of reactive radicals from the photolysis of NH₂Cl was higher than NHCl₂ at a chloramine dosage less than 2 mM.



Figure 1. Degradation of 1,4-dioxane in UV photolysis of chloramine. (A) The removal rate constant of 1,4-dioxane vs the dosage of chloramine. (B) The correlation between 1,4-dioxane removal rate constant and chloramine photolysis rates. pH = 5.8, [1,4-dioxane] = 250 μ M, [chloramine] = 0.2–6 mM, [NB]₀ = 20 μ M, [BA]₀ = 10 μ M, TOTPO₄ = 40 mM.

Upon UV photolysis, both NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ generate Cl⁻ in addition to the formation of NH₂⁻ and NHCl⁻, respectively (Scheme 1, R1–R2). The majority of Cl⁻ reacts with residual chloride present in the chloramine solution and forms Cl₂⁻⁻ (Scheme 1, R3), with only 0.05% and 1% of Cl⁻ reacting with 1,4-D and BA, respectively. Therefore, essentially all reactive chlorine species is generalized as Cl₂⁻⁻. Chloride is present at an equal molar concentration to chloramine due to the hydrolysis of aqueous Cl₂ to form hypochlorous acid during the preparation of chloramines:

 $Cl_2 + H_2O \rightarrow HOCI + H^+ + Cl^-$



Scheme 1. Photolysis of Monochloramine, Dichloramine, And Hydrogen Peroxide in a Mixed System with Respect to 1,4-Dioxane Removal

Cl[·] and Cl₂⁻⁻ undergo further hydrolysis to form HO[·] (Scheme 1, R4–R7). (35) Both Cl₂⁻⁻ and HO[·] are major contributors to 1,4-D removal (Scheme 1, R8–R9), resulting in an increase in the 1,4-D degradation rate constant with increasing chloramine dosage with chloramine concentrations lower than 1 and 2 mM for NH₂Cl and NHCl₂, respectively (Figure 1A).

As the chloramine dosage increased beyond the optimal level, the scavenging of Cl_2 - and HO by NH_2Cl and $NHCl_2$ (Scheme 1, R10–R13) competed against the rate of radical production, resulting in a decline in 1,4-D removal efficiency (Figure 1A). Furthermore, the UV fluence normalized rate constant of 1,4-D degradation exhibited a bell-shape correlation with the photolysis rate of NH_2Cl and $NHCl_2$, respectively (Figure 1B), revealing a radical promoting regime at lower chloramine photolysis rates, and a radical scavenging regime at higher chloramine photolysis rates. At the maximal 1,4-D removal rate constants, NH_2Cl reacted with 52% of HO and 96% of Cl_2 -, and $NHCl_2$ reacted with 53% of HO and 95% of Cl_2 -. As the chloramines exceed their optimal concentrations, a greater percentage of HO and Cl_2 - reacted with chloramines instead of 1,4-D (Texts S3–S4 and Figures S2–S3 in SI).

Radical distributions obtained with probe compounds confirmed that HO[•] was the major reactive radical contributing to 1,4-D degradation through chloramine photolysis, followed by $Cl_{2^{-}}$ (Figure 2). However, the contribution of $Cl_{2^{-}}$ to 1,4-D degradation was greater with NHCl₂ photolysis than with NH₂Cl photolysis at concentrations greater than 2 mM. NH₂Cl reacts with $Cl_{2^{-}}$ approximately 2.6 times faster than NHCl₂ (Scheme 1, R11, 1.14 × 10⁷ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ vs R12, 4.4 × 10⁶ M⁻¹ s⁻¹), (<u>36</u>) leading to a greater steady-state concentration of $Cl_{2^{-}}$ in the NHCl₂ system.

The net effect is an increased Cl_{2} - contribution to 1,4-D removal in the HCl_2 system as well as a shift in the optimal chloramine concentration.



Figure 2. Contributions of reactive radicals to 1,4-dioxane degradation in UV photolysis of NH₂Cl or NHCl₂. Contributions based on steady-state concentrations of radicals derived from the competition kinetic method. Error bars relate to radical distribution and not to 1,4-dioxane removal rate constant. [1,4-dioxane] = 250 μ M and pH = 5.8.

Impacts of Chloramine Speciation

The impacts of the relative percentage of NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ in the chloramine mixture on the efficiency of 1,4-D degradation under UV photolysis were investigated. The 1,4-D removal rate constant increased by 37% as the NH₂Cl-to-NHCl₂ ratio increased (solid bars in <u>Figure 3</u>). The percentage contribution of radicals to 1,4-D degradation remained unchanged regardless of the chloramine composition, averaging at 70% from HO[•] and 30% from Cl₂⁻⁻. The photolysis of a mixture of NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ behaves as a gradient between the two species, where the photolysis of one species does not aid the photolysis of the other (solid bars in <u>Figure 3</u>). However, the observed rate constants of 1,4-D degradation were lower than the calculated theoretical values without considering radical scavenging effects (striped bars in <u>Figure 3</u>), suggesting that the simultaneous photolysis of NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ resulted in a scavenging effect on reactive radical generation. The

theoretical values were calculated based on photon absorption and radical contributions from both NH_2CI and $NHCI_2$ (calculations in <u>Text S5</u> of <u>SI</u>).



Percentage of NH₂Cl in the Chloramine Mixture

Figure 3. Degradation of 1,4-dioxane in a mixed chloramine system, the contribution of the primary oxidative radicals and the calculated contribution of the individual chloramines. Percentage of NH₂Cl refers to the percentage of total chloramine that exists as NH₂Cl. [Total chloramine] = 2 mM, pH = 5.8, TOTPO₄ = 40 mM, [1,4-dioxane] = 250 μ M, [NB] = 20 μ M, and [BA] = 10 μ M.

In the NH₂Cl/NHCl₂ mixture, the experimentally observed 1,4-D removal rate constants were between 30% and 50% lower than the theoretical rate constants not accounting for radical scavenging effects (Figure 3). The reactive radicals (i.e., HO· and Cl₂-) were scavenged by the respective chloramines and account for the difference (Scheme 1, R10–R13). For example, with 50% NH₂Cl in the mixture, NH₂Cl scavenged 30% HO· and 68% of Cl₂-, and NHCl₂ scavenged 15% of HO· and 26% of Cl₂-. With 90% NH₂Cl in the mixture, NH₂Cl scavenged 48% of HO· and 92% of Cl₂-, while NHCl₂ scavenged a negligible percentage of radicals (Figure S4, detailed calculations in Texts S6–S7 of SI).

Furthermore, the kinetics of 1,4-D removal was positively correlated with the NH₂Cl photolysis rate and negatively correlated with the NHCl₂ photolysis rate (Figure S5A). This is because NHCl₂ is less effective at lower concentrations, as demonstrated previously, and absorbs less light. NH₂Cl has a higher molar absorptivity coefficient at 254 nm than NHCl₂ forming more active radical species as the photolysis rate increases. The total chloramine concentration in the mixture

was held constant at 2 mM. Therefore, the optimum concentration for NH₂Cl existed initially and increases in NHCl₂ were below the optimum concentration for NHCl₂. Increases in NHCl₂ photolysis rate in the mixture led to a decline in overall radical production. Related to this, the rate of chloramine photolysis positively correlated with chloramine concentration (Figure S5B). When the proportion of the mixture that is NH₂Cl or NHCl₂ increased, the UV light absorbed by either component increased (Figure S6), leading to a higher photolysis rate.

Impacts of NH₂CI Photolysis on UV/H₂O₂

The impact of NH₂Cl during the UV photolysis of H₂O₂ and associated 1,4-D removal was subsequently investigated. Results showed that the presence of NH₂Cl dramatically decreased the removal rate constant of 1,4-D (solid bars in Figure 4A). Compared to conditions without NH₂Cl, the addition of 0.2 mM NH₂Cl to 2 mM H₂O₂ resulted in a 24% decrease in the 1,4-D removal rate constant under UV photolysis. As additional NH₂Cl up to 2 mM was added, the overall 1,4-D removal rate constant of H₂O₂ alone. As the NH₂Cl concentration increased, the difference between the experimental and theoretical values, in absence of scavenging, increased up to 70%, with the experimental values much lower than theoretical predictions (solid bars vs striped bars in Figure 4A).



Figure 4. Impact of NH₂Cl that coexists with H₂O₂ on the degradation of 1,4-dioxane and oxidant consumption under UV photolysis. (A) 1,4-D degradation rate constant and (B) oxidant photolysis rates. The concentration of H₂O₂ was fixed at 2 mM in the mixture, [1,4-dioxane] = 25 μ M, [Cl⁻] = 2 mM, and pH = 5.8.

These results suggest that radical scavenging occurred with the inclusion of even a low concentration of NH₂Cl with H₂O₂ during UV photolysis. Two factors contributed to this trend. First, the coexistence of NH₂Cl with H₂O₂ dramatically reduced the HO steady-state concentration. For example, a 75% decrease in the HO contribution was observed when NH₂Cl was increased from 0 to 2 mM (solid bars in Figure 4A). The decrease in HO is due to scavenging by NH₂Cl (R10 in Scheme 1), which generates NHCl that is not reactive with 1,4-D. Specifically, NH₂Cl reacted with 51% of the HO, with 39% left to react with 1,4-D (Text S8). The percentage of HO reacting with 1,4-D decreased as NH₂Cl concentration increased (Figure S7). Conversely, the Cl₂- contribution to degradation increased from 18% at 0.2 mM NH₂Cl to 33% at 2 mM (solid bars in Figure 4A), which resulted from enhanced NH₂Cl photolysis. However, the majority of Cl₂- generated (i.e., 95% at 2 mM NH₂Cl) was scavenged by NH₂Cl (Text S9, Figure S8).

Second, photon screening associated with the presence of NH₂Cl significantly impacted the AOP. With the coexistence of 0.2 mM NH₂Cl and 2 mM H₂O₂, the percentage of UV light absorbed by H₂O₂ decreased by 67% compared to H₂O₂ alone, vastly reducing the photolysis rate of H₂O₂ and the production of HO[•] (Figure S9). As the NH₂Cl concentration increased further, UV-light absorption by NH₂Cl increased, increasing the photolysis rate and production of NH₂[•] and Cl[•] (Figure 4B). As a result, a net loss of oxidative radical production was observed instead of promoting increased 1,4-D degradation.

Impacts of NHCl₂ Photolysis on UV/H₂O₂

The presence of NHCl₂ during H₂O₂ photolysis had an insignificant impact on the 1,4-D degradation rate, in comparison to NH₂Cl. For example, compared to H₂O₂ alone, the presence of 0.2 mM NHCl₂ in conjunction with 2 mM H₂O₂ photolysis reduced the removal rate constant of 1,4-D by a negligible amount (i.e., 16%). Further increase of NHCl₂ concentration up to 2 mM had a minor impact on the removal rate constant of 1,4-D compared to the impact of NH₂Cl (solid bars in <u>Figure 5</u>A). Furthermore, the experimentally measured rate constants were similar to the theoretical calculations when the NHCl₂ concentration was <1 mM, and a significant scavenging effect was most evident when the NHCl₂ concentration reached 2 mM (striped bars in <u>Figure 5</u>A).



Figure 5. Impact of NHCl₂ coexistence with H_2O_2 on the degradation of 1,4-dioxane and oxidant consumption. Error bars relate to radical contribution and not to 1,4-dioxane removal rate constant. (A) 1,4-D degradation rate constant; (B) oxidant photolysis rates. The concentration of H_2O_2 was fixed at 2 mM in the mixture, [1,4-dioxane] = 25 μ M, [Cl⁻] = 2 mM, pH = 5.8.

The difference between the impact of NH₂Cl vs NHCl₂ during H₂O₂ photolysis was attributable to several factors. First, NHCl₂ reacts with HO[•] and Cl₂⁻⁻ at rates of 2.6 × 10⁸ and 4.4 × 10⁶ M⁻¹·s⁻¹, respectively, and produces nonoxidative NCl₂⁻ that did not contribute to 1,4-D removal (<u>Scheme 1</u>, R12–13). (<u>37</u>) Further, the scavenging of HO[•] and Cl₂⁻⁻ by NHCl₂ is 45% and 39% of NH₂Cl, respectively. As a result, NHCl₂ scavenged far fewer active radicals than NH₂Cl at the same concentrations. For example, 5% and less than 1% of HO[•] and Cl₂⁻⁻, respectively, were scavenged by NHCl₂ at 0.2 mM. At 2 mM NHCl₂ this demand increases to 34% and 7% for HO[•] and Cl₂⁻⁻. (Texts S8–S9, Figure S10).

Second, NHCl₂ has a lower molar absorbance coefficient than NH₂Cl (142 vs 388 M⁻ 1 cm⁻¹ at 254 nm). Therefore, the photon scavenging effects of NHCl₂ with respect to H₂O₂ photolysis was much less than NH₂Cl. For example, NHCl₂ absorbs 43% of the UV light at 0.2 mM vs. 67% for NH₂Cl at the same concentration. At equimolar NHCl₂ and H₂O₂, NHCl₂ accounts for 88% of UV light demand vs 95% for NH₂Cl

(Figure S9 vs Figure S11). Thus, the H_2O_2 photolysis rate in the presence of 0.2 mM chloramine decreases by 70% for NHCl₂ and 79% for NH₂Cl.

<u>Figure 5</u>B illustrates the relationship between NHCl₂ concentration and oxidant photolysis rate. With 2 mM NHCl₂ and H₂O₂ the photolysis rate of H₂O₂ drops by slightly less than what is observed with 2 mM NH₂Cl (i.e., 76% vs 86%). The rate of chloramine photolysis increases with increasing chloramine concentration while the rate of H₂O₂ photolysis drops precipitously at the first introduction of NHCl₂. As the concentration of NHCl₂ increases, more UV light and reactive radicals are absorbed, increasing the direct photolysis rate (<u>Figure S11</u>). Further, the greater radical and photon absorption from increased NHCl₂ concentrations decreases the photolysis rate of H₂O₂.

The relationship between oxidant photolysis and 1,4-D removal in both NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ with H₂O₂ is shown in <u>Figure S12</u>. The negative correlation between NH₂Cl and the 1,4-D degradation rate constant is significantly stronger than the correlation between NHCl₂ and the 1,4-D removal rate constant (e.g., R² = 0.94 vs. 0.45). This is primarily due to NH₂Cl having a greater reactive radical scavenging than NHCl₂. Thus, NHCl₂ has a lesser overall impact on the performance of UV/H₂O₂ than NH₂Cl.

Nitrogen Products from Chloramine Photolysis

The photolysis of chloramines produces inorganic nitrogen breakdown products, including nitrate, ammonia, gaseous nitrogen, and organic nitrogen products (Figure 6). Nitrite was not detected. Overall, ammonia accounted for 60-75% of the nitrogen products. The production of ammonia was likely via the breakdown of NH_2 that was transformed into the intermediate N_2H_4 and then NH_3 . (38) The initial formation of nitrite was possible via decomposition of NH₂; however, the subsequent oxidation of nitrite by chloramine generated nitrate. (39) The NHCI⁻ radical decayed to produce nitrogen gas and chloride. The nitrate production was higher in photolyzed NHCl₂ than NH₂Cl. Furthermore, the presence of H₂O₂ affected nitrogen product distribution in the NH₂Cl system more strongly than in the NHCl₂ system (Figure 6). More nitrate was produced in conditions involving both NH₂Cl and H₂O₂ photolysis due to increased production and subsequent oxidation of nitrite by HO. (40) The production of nitrate leads to depressed HO⁻ steady-state due to scavenging reactions between NO_{3²⁻} and HO⁻. Additionally, gaseous nitrogen production decreased in the presence of H₂O₂ in UV/NH₂Cl but not in UV/NHCl₂ due to HO⁻ being scavenged by NH₂Cl, preventing further oxidation of nitrogen products to gaseous nitrogen. Finally, less organic nitrogen was produced in the presence of H_2O_2 also due to the increased reaction between HO^{\cdot} and available organic nitrogen products which directly implies that fewer toxic transformation products are produced.



Figure 6. Nitrogenous products of chloramine photolysis with and without hydrogen peroxide. [Chloramine] = 2 mM, [1,4-D] = 250 μ M, pH = 5.8. In experiments with H₂O₂, its concentration was 2 mM. Product analysis was based on samples exposed to 3500 mJ/cm² of UV irradiation.

Engineering Implications

Both NH₂Cl and NHCl₂ were found to contribute to UV/AOP by producing a unique suite of reactive radicals (HO⁻ and Cl₂-) which degraded 1,4-D. The reactive chlorine and amine species produced by chloramines could also remove other trace organics which react with them. The inclusion of chloramines into UV/H₂O₂ during water reuse treatment trains can compromise the efficiency of 1,4-D removal by H₂O₂ photolysis, mainly due to radical scavenging and light screening effects from chloramines, and NH₂CI exhibited a stronger effect than NHCl₂. A chloramine effect during UV photolysis of H₂O₂ was observed in real RO permeate (Text S10, Figure S14). The results suggest that the removal of chloramines prior to UV/H_2O_2 can increase the treatment efficiency of trace organic contaminants, especially for those compounds with a strong reactivity toward HO. In the likely event that chloramine removal is unfeasible, the chloramine speciation can be shifted toward NHCl₂ via acidification, however the potential formation of NDMA needs to be controlled. (41) Future work is needed to investigate the photolysis of chloramines and hydrogen peroxide in a mixed system with a diverse group of trace organic chemicals and the associated RO permeate chemistry effects on the UV/AOP.

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Notes

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