

1 **Electro-oxidation of industrial wastewater containing 1,4-dioxane in the presence**
2 **of different salts**

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1 **Abstract**

2 The treatment of 1,4-dioxane solution by electrochemical oxidation on boron-doped
3 diamond was studied using a central composite design and the response surface
4 methodology to investigate the use of SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^- as supporting electrolytes
5 considering the applied electric current, initial COD value, and treatment time. Two
6 industrial effluents containing bicarbonate alkalinity, one just carrying 1,4-dioxane (S1),
7 and another one including 1,4-dioxane and 2-methyl-1,3-dioxolane (S2), were treated
8 under optimized conditions, and subsequently subjected to biodegradability assays with
9 *Pseudomonas putida* culture. Electro-oxidation was compared with ozone oxidation
10 (O_3) and its combination with hydrogen peroxide ($\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$). Regarding the
11 experimental design, the optimal compromise for maximum COD removal at minimum
12 energy consumption was shown at the maximum tested concentrations of SO_4^{2-} and
13 HCO_3^- (41.6 and 32.8 $\text{mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively), and the maximum selected initial COD
14 ($750 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), applying a current density of $11.9 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ for 3.8 hours. Up to a 98% of
15 the COD was removed in the electro-oxidation treatment of S1 effluent using 114 kWh
16 per kg of removed COD; and about a 91% of the COD from S2 wastewater applying 49
17 kWh per kg of removed COD. The optimal biodegradability enhancement was achieved
18 after 1 h of electro-oxidation treatment. In comparison with O_3 and $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$
19 alternatives, electrochemical oxidation achieved the fastest degradation rate per oxidant
20 consumption unit; as well as it also resulted to be the most economical treatment in
21 terms of kWh consumption and price per unit of removed COD.

22

23 *Keywords:* electro-oxidation; 1,4-dioxane; boron doped diamond; biodegradability;
24 *Pseudomonas putida*; central composite design; surface response methodology

25

1 **1. Introduction**

2 1,4-dioxane is widely used as an industrial solvent and it is also a common by-product
3 of several chemical processes. Therefore, its occurrence in industrial effluents is an
4 emerging issue that may contribute to a continuous xenobiotic contamination of
5 groundwater and drinking water if it is not removed previously. In fact, there is a
6 growing concern about the occurrence of 1,4-dioxane in water because of its impact on
7 human health. 1,4-dioxane is known to cause liver damage and kidney failure; and it has
8 been reported to potentially promote cancer based on the evidence of carcinogenicity
9 tests in animals, resulting classified as a Group 2B (probable) human carcinogen
10 (Adams *et al.* 1994; Choi *et al.* 2010; ECB 2002; USEPA 2010; Zenker *et al.* 2003).

11 Owing to its high water solubility and resistance to biodegradation, conventional
12 wastewater treatment processes are generally inefficient for 1,4-dioxane removal
13 (Zenker *et al.* 2003); although some modified biological processes have been reported
14 viable for degrading 1,4-dioxane at a low initial concentration and at very long
15 residence time (Han *et al.* 2012; Shen *et al.* 2008; Zenker *et al.* 2004).

16 Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) are currently recognized as effective for the
17 removal of biorefractory organic substances (Balcioglu *et al.* 2003; Coleman *et al.*
18 2007; Comninellis *et al.* 2008). The degradation of 1,4-dioxane has actually been
19 carried out by several combinations of AOPs, namely: sonochemical decomposition
20 enhanced by ferrous ion (Beckett and Hua 2003), photochemical degradation enhanced
21 by H₂O₂ (Maurino *et al.* 1997; Stefan and Bolton 1998), ozonation combined with H₂O₂
22 (Adams *et al.* 1994; Barndök *et al.* 2013), photocatalysis combined with electro-
23 oxidation (Yanagida *et al.* 2008), and electro-oxidation (Choi *et al.* 2010).

24 The main advantage of electro-oxidation over other AOPs is that this treatment
25 does not require the presence of additional oxidants, like hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂).

1 Particularly, boron doped diamond (BDD) is considered the most efficient electrode
2 material for anodic oxidation due to its significant chemical and electrochemical
3 stability, good conductivity, and very high current efficiency, resulting in increased
4 rates of effluent mineralization; since during the treatment by BDD electrodes, most
5 degradation is expected to occur via reaction with the OH· radicals that are generated on
6 the anode without requiring the use of additional oxidizing agents (Comninellis *et al.*
7 2008; Rodrigo *et al.* 2010; Vasudevan and Oturan 2013).

8 On the other hand, electrolysis requires the presence of electrical conductivity.
9 Therefore, the presence of different salts in the water matrix is an important factor to be
10 considered. Various supporting electrolytes have been evaluated for the degradation of
11 recalcitrant organics in synthetic solution, and sulphate has often been reported to be the
12 most effective regarding degradation improvement (Cañizares *et al.* 2009a;
13 Murugananthan *et al.* 2010; Velegraki *et al.* 2010).

14 However, the presence of diverse salts and bicarbonate alkalinity in industrial
15 wastewater are often inevitable and non-optional. The use of bicarbonate as a
16 supporting electrolyte has generally been overlooked most likely due to its radical
17 scavenging effect, which has been reported to occur in many AOPs (Beckett and Hua
18 2003). For example, Adams *et al.* (1994) reported that both, the presence of bicarbonate
19 and the competition by 2-methyl-1,3-dioxolane (MDO), increase the required dose of
20 O₃/H₂O₂ for the oxidation of 1,4-dioxane in synthetic water. However, this has not been
21 confirmed in industrial effluents yet. Although 1,4-dioxane is usually referred to as a
22 contaminant of industrial wastewater, the studies on its degradation by AOPs (Beckett
23 and Hua 2003; Choi *et al.* 2010; Barndök *et al.* 2013; Maurino *et al.* 1997; Stefan and
24 Bolton 1998; Yanagida *et al.* 2008) have almost all been performed using synthetic
25 solutions; besides the particular exception of Fenton reaction. In this case, a

1 considerably slower rate of organic carbon removal (11% of TOC in 10 h) was observed
2 (Klecka and Gonsior 1986).

3 The electrochemical treatment of industrial wastewater contaminated by 1,4-
4 dioxane and its by-products, (e.g. MDO; ECB 2002) in an effluent where the presence
5 of HCO_3^- could theoretically provide the necessary conductivity for electrolysis has not
6 been reported yet. Therefore, the treatment of 1,4-dioxane by electrochemical oxidation
7 on BDD electrodes was studied by a central composite design and using response
8 surface methodology in order to assess the use of SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^- as supporting
9 electrolytes considering different levels for the applied electric current, initial COD, and
10 treatment time. The treatment of industrial effluents in the presence of bicarbonate
11 alkalinity was studied under optimized conditions, and electrochemically treated
12 industrial samples were subsequently subjected to biodegradability assay by
13 *Pseudomonas putida*. The cost analysis of this treatment, and a comparison with other
14 AOPs (O_3 oxidation and O_3 combined with H_2O_2), were also carried out.

15

16 **2. Materials and methods**

17 2.1. Materials

18 Treatment optimization was carried out using a synthetic solution of 1,4-dioxane. This
19 solution was prepared prior to experiments with ultra-pure deionized water containing
20 the electrolyte salts that were previously added. The final study performing electro-
21 oxidation under optimized conditions and biodegradability assessment were performed
22 using industrial effluent samples out-flowing biological treatment that were supplied by
23 a particular factory. Two industrial samples were treated (Table 1), both in the presence
24 of bicarbonate alkalinity: one just containing 1,4-dioxane (S1); and the other one
25 carrying both 1,4-dioxane and MDO (S2).

1 All used chemicals were of analytical grade. 1,4-dioxane (99.8%) was provided by
2 Sigma-Aldrich® Chemie GmbH (Steinheim, Germany). The supporting electrolytes that
3 were used for electrochemical treatment were sodium sulphate (Na_2SO_4 , 99.0%) and
4 sodium hydrogen carbonate (NaHCO_3 , 99.7%), supplied by PANREAC S.A.
5 (Barcelona, Spain).

6 *Pseudomonas putida* CECT 324 came from the Spanish Type Culture Collection
7 (Colección Española de Cultivos Tipo, Valencia, Spain). Cultures were grown at pH=7
8 in $1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of beef extract, $1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of yeast extract, $5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of peptone, and $5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of
9 NaCl; and kept at $-80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in a cryogenic solution (glycerol 87%). The mineral solution
10 added to the culture medium in the biodegradability assays was made of $0.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of
11 NH_4Cl , $0.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of K_2HPO_4 , $0.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of KH_2PO_4 , $0.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of $\text{MgSO}_4\cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and 10
12 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of trace minerals solution providing a final concentration of $0.6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of
13 $\text{FeSO}_4\cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $0.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of CoCl_2 , $0.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of $\text{MnSO}_4\cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $0.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of
14 $\text{CuSO}_4\cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

15

16 2.2. Analytical methods

17 Chemical oxygen demand (COD) was measured, according to the Standard Methods for
18 the Examination of Water and Wastewater (APHA, 2005), by the colorimetric method
19 at 600 nm using an Aquamate-spectrophotometer (Thermos Scientific AQA 091801,
20 Waltham, USA). Total organic carbon (TOC) was measured using a TOC/TN analyzer
21 multi N/C® 3100 (Analytik Jena AG, Jena, Germany) with catalytic oxidation on cerium
22 oxide at 850°C . The quantitative determination of 1,4-dioxane and MDO was done by
23 gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) on a 7980A instrument (Agilent Technologies Inc.,
24 Palo Alto, CA) equipped with a flame ionization detector. Injector and detector were
25 respectively set up at 310 and 280°C . Samples ($2 \text{ }\mu\text{L}$) were injected using the *pulsed-*

1 *split* mode (*split* ratio 5:1) and analysed in a TRB-FFAP (Teknokroma, Sant Cugat del
2 Vallès, Spain) fused silica column (30 m x 0.25 mm internal diameter x 0.25 µm film
3 thickness) with He (43 psi) as carrier gas and the following temperature programme:
4 80°C to 240°C after a 9 min initial hold and at a 15 °C·min⁻¹ ramp rate. Peaks were
5 identified on the basis of sample coincidence with relative retention times of
6 commercial standards. Quantification was performed according to peak area, corrected
7 with the response factors calculated for each compound using 1-butanol (250 ppm) as
8 internal standard, and the software *GC-ChemStation Rev.B.04.02 (96)* from Agilent.

10 2.3. Electrochemical treatment

11 Electrochemical treatment was performed at ambient temperature (25 °C) in an
12 undivided rectangular electrolytic flow-cell (methacrylate, 10x7x15 cm³) in a batch
13 recirculation mode. Commercial BDD electrodes of 100 cm² (Metakem GmbH,
14 Usingen, Germany) were used as both, anode and cathode, arranged parallel to each
15 other at a distance of 2.4 cm. Experiments were carried out under galvanostatic
16 conditions using AMEL potentiostat/galvanostat 7050 (AMEL Instruments, Milano,
17 Italy) as power supply. The working solution (total volume of 1.5 L) was recirculated at
18 a constant flow rate of 0.5 L·min⁻¹ by a peristaltic pump (Masterflex® Console Drive,
19 Cole-Parmer Instrument Company, Illinois, USA). Electrodes were fed with ordinary
20 grade air (passed through polycarbonate filters) at a 4.5 L·min⁻¹ rate to facilitate mass
21 transfer in the reactor. Na₂SO₄ and NaHCO₃ were added as supporting electrolytes at
22 different concentrations. The pH of the solution was not controlled, and it increased
23 from 8.0-8.5 up to 9.0-9.5 during the process. All the experiments were performed for 5
24 hours.

25

1 2.4. Experimental design

2 Central composite design and response surface methodology were applied to optimize
3 the treatment of 1,4-dioxane in synthetic solution. Four factors were initially chosen to
4 evaluate the influence of operating parameters on the efficiency of electro-oxidation: the
5 concentrations ($\text{mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) of the supporting electrolytes, sulphate (X_1) and bicarbonate
6 (X_2); the initial COD of the solution (X_3 , $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$); and the applied current density (X_4 ,
7 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$).

8 A total of 31 experiments were carried out, including a 2^4 full factorial design,
9 augmented by 8 axial points, 4 replications at the centre point, and 3 extra points chosen
10 for a better definition of the extremes. The levels for the independent variables (Table 2)
11 were chosen considering the local sulphate limit for effluent discharge to the municipal
12 treatment ($[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{lim}}=1000 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, in Madrid), the actual alkalinity and
13 COD of the real industrial effluent ($[\text{HCO}_3^-]=900\text{-}1000 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}=14.8\text{-}16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$;
14 $\text{COD}_{\text{S1}}=450\text{-}500 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\approx 250 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of 1,4-dioxane in S1 effluent), and preliminary
15 experiments changing the applied current, which were performed prior to the current
16 study taking into account the example of Choi *et al.* (2010).

17 The studied responses were: Y_1 = COD removal (%); Y_2 =amount of removed COD
18 (ΔCOD , $\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$); Y_3 =total current efficiency (TCE); and Y_4 , energy
19 consumption (EC, $\text{kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$) Particularly, TCE and EC were calculated by
20 Equation 1 and 2 (Montilla *et al.* 2002; Panizza *et al.* 2001):

$$21 \quad TCE = 4FV \cdot \left(\frac{COD_0 - COD_t}{I t} \right), \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

22 where COD_0 and COD_t ($\text{mol O}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) are the values of initial COD and the COD at
23 treatment time t , respectively. I (A) is the applied current intensity, F (C/mol) is the
24 Faraday constant, and V (m^3) is the volume of the sample solution.

$$EC = \frac{(t \cdot I \cdot U / V) \cdot 10^{-3}}{(COD_0 - COD_t) \cdot 10^{-6}}, \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

where COD_0 and COD_t ($\text{mol O}_2 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$), I (A), and V (L) are the same variables as in Eq. 1; and U (V) is average cell voltage.

All the resulting responses (Y_1 - Y_4) were obtained for 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 h of the electrochemical process (complete number of process responses = $4 \cdot 5 = 20$). Finally, to reduce the number of responses (20) and to obtain 4 comprehensive regression models, reaction time was added to the list of factors as a fifth independent variable X_5 (h). Therefore, the final experimental design resulted five times bigger in terms of the total number of experimental points became $31 \cdot 5 = 155$. This magnification of the design is described schematically in Table 3 along with the complete set of the results for COD removal (Y_1).

Regression analyses were carried out using the following quadratic model:

$$Y = b_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k b_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^k b_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k b_{ij} X_i X_j, \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

where Y is the process response, and $X_1 \dots X_k$ ($k=5$) are the above considered independent variables.

Experimental data were analyzed using both Systat 13 (SYSTAT Software Inc., Chicago, USA) and Minitab 16 (Minitab Inc., State College, USA).

2.5. Biodegradability assays using *Pseudomonas putida*

Electrochemically treated industrial effluents samples were subsequently subjected to biodegradability assays with *Pseudomonas putida* cultures. The bacterial stock described in the methodology was previously melted at room temperature and cleaned twice with saline solution by centrifuging at 10000 rpm for 5 min, removing the baseline medium, and substituting it with a 0.9% NaCl solution in order to remove the

1 baseline COD provided by the organic growth medium and the glycerol solution. The
2 sample pH was adjusted to 7.0 adding 1N HCl . A culture medium sample made up of
3 40 mL of sample and 10 mL of the mineral solution described above, was inoculated
4 with 200 μ L of cleaned bacterial stock and incubated at 30 $^{\circ}$ C for 100 hours inside 250-
5 mL Erlenmeyer flasks placed on a rotary platform. Assays were passed through 0.20-
6 μ m syringe filters (Minisart SRP 15, Sartorius Stedim Biotech, GmbH Germany) and
7 analyzed for COD, TOC, and 1,4-dioxane and MDO contents; taking into account the
8 dilution ratio resulting from the addition of the mineral solution.

9

10 **3. Results and discussion**

11 3.1. Optimization of the electrochemical treatment of 1,4-dioxane in synthetic solution
12 by experimental design.

13 The complete set of experimental results for COD removal, Δ COD, TCE and EC are
14 presented in Table 4. The quadratic models for the responses Y_1 , Y_2 , Y_3 and Y_4 , based
15 on these results, resulted all highly significant according to the high F and low p values
16 resulting from the performed analysis of variance (ANOVA): $F(Y_1)=129.53$ ($p<0.0001$)
17 for COD removal, $F(Y_2)=133.23$ ($p<0.0001$) for Δ COD, $F(Y_3)=134.39$ ($p<0.0001$) for
18 TCE, and $F(Y_4)=213.45$ ($p<0.0001$) for EC. The constants (b values of Eq. 3, where X_1 ,
19 X_2 , X_3 , X_4 and X_5 are the coded independent variables) for the obtained second order
20 regression models for these four process responses are shown in Table 5. When plotting
21 the experimental results against the values calculated by these quadratic models, the
22 model prediction accuracy in terms of R^2 of the linear regression was 95.08% for COD
23 removal, 95.21% for Δ COD, 95.25% for TCE, and 96.96% for EC. These regression
24 coefficients, along with the predicted and adjusted R^2 (R^2_{pred} and R^2_{adj}), are also
25 included in Table 5.

1 Figs. 1 and 2 report 3D response surfaces of each model as a function of two
2 influential process parameters, while keeping constant the other 3 process variables at
3 their designed middle level ($X_i=0$; $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and
4 $[\text{COD}]_0=450 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ for Fig. 1; and $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and
5 $\text{time}=3 \text{ h}$ for Fig. 2). Reaction time was the most important factor increasing COD
6 removal (Fig. 1a), which agrees to the standardized effect estimates of each model
7 component, and model analyses performed by ANOVA. The percentage contribution
8 based on the portion of the sums of squares in ANOVA (Dopar *et al.* 2011; Yetilmezsoy
9 *et al.* 2009) was 55.7 and 37.3 % for time (X_5) in the models of COD removal and
10 ΔCOD , respectively. Up to the 100% COD removal could be achieved in 5 hours of
11 electro-oxidation ($\approx 130 \text{ kWh/kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$); whereas about the 85% of the COD was
12 already removed in 3 h ($\approx 85 \text{ kWh/kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$). Applied current density (j) also had
13 an important positive influence on COD removal. The percentage contribution of j to
14 COD removal and ΔCOD in the models was 23.8 and 26.6 %, respectively. However,
15 the surface curvature reached a plateau around $12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$, showing that a further
16 increase in j does not bring along a significant COD removal increase.

17 The response surface for TCE (Fig. 1.b) shows an opposite tendency, that is,
18 electric current efficiency was highest at the lowest applied current density and at the
19 shortest reaction time. As COD decreases in time, more current excess was gradually
20 provided for its oxidation. This current did not further contribute to the degradation of
21 such a low initial COD because the process was limited by mass transportation instead
22 (Montilla *et al.* 2002; Panizza *et al.* 2001). For instance, TCE dropped from about 0.75
23 at 1 hour of treatment to approximately 0.4 after 5 h when using $j=12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$.

24 Although the percentage of COD removal was greater when performing the process
25 using a lower initial COD, the actual amount of COD removed in terms of kg per

1 sample volume (Fig. 2a), and therefore TCE and EC as well (Fig. 2b), resulted greater
2 when adding a higher initial COD value. The percentage contributions of COD₀ to
3 explain the models for ΔCOD, TCE and EC were 15.1, 35.0, and 18.6%, respectively.
4 As shown in Fig. 2a, ≈0.13 kg·m⁻³ (nearly a 90 %) of the COD was removed in 3 hours
5 of electro-oxidation at 12 mA·cm⁻² when the initial COD was 150 mg·L⁻¹; whereas
6 much greater amount of COD (≈0.55 kg·m⁻³) was removed under the same conditions
7 when COD₀ was 750 mg·L⁻¹. The same pattern was shown for EC (Fig. 2b). Under the
8 same reaction conditions, ≈190 kWh was consumed per 1 kg of COD removed when
9 COD₀ was 150 mg·L⁻¹; whereas much less EC (≈50 kWh·kgCOD_{removed}⁻¹) was
10 consumed when 750 mg·L⁻¹ of COD₀ were used. However, the positive effect of *j* in
11 increasing COD removal and ΔCOD was minimal at low initial COD values, which
12 means that nearly the same result could be achieved using 2 mA·cm⁻². Therefore, EC
13 could substantially be reduced.

14 Regarding the effect of the supporting electrolyte, no radical scavenging effect in
15 terms of a negative influence on COD removal was found for either SO₄²⁻ or HCO₃⁻. On
16 the contrary, the presence of both salts rather enhanced the process. While HCO₃⁻ was
17 slightly more influential than SO₄²⁻ in increasing COD removal (and ΔCOD), their
18 positive effect (significance in terms of p≤0.05) was rather small in the studied
19 concentration range (Fig. 3a). The percentage contribution of SO₄²⁻ and HCO₃⁻ to the
20 COD removal (Y₁) model was 0.7% and 1.6%, respectively. On the other hand, both
21 salts were important factors to be considered for decreasing the consumption of kWh,
22 meaning that their principal effect simply laid on providing the necessary conductivity
23 for electrolysis. Neither the scavenging effect of bicarbonate, nor the additional
24 oxidative effect of sulphate, played an important role in the oxidation process. As
25 presented in Fig. 3b, SO₄²⁻ had a slightly greater effect on EC than HCO₃⁻ (percentage

1 contributions based on the sums of squares were 7.3% and 5.3%, respectively), since the
2 first one provides somewhat higher conductivity to the solution. However, differences
3 were small, addressing that the natural bicarbonate alkalinity of certain wastewater may
4 serve as a good electrolyte for performing electrochemical oxidation; just as good as
5 SO_4^{2-} salts may be. To illustrate the discussion above, Fig. 4 shows the optimization plot
6 for a maximum COD removal, ΔCOD and TCE at a minimum EC. The optimal
7 compromise is reached in the presence of the maximum concentrations of both
8 electrolytes ($41.6 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of SO_4^{2-} and $32.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of HCO_3^-) when the maximum
9 initial COD, of $750 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ was used and a current density of $11.9 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ was applied
10 for 3.8 hours.

11

12 3.2 Treatment of industrial wastewater containing 1,4-dioxane

13 3.2.1. *Electrochemical degradation of industrial effluents.*

14 Considering the results of the just reported experimental design, the electrochemical
15 treatment of industrial effluents was carried out applying a current density of 12
16 $\text{mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$, in the presence of the initial bicarbonate alkalinity of the effluent (16.4
17 $\text{mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), and using $20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of SO_4^{2-} as a supporting electrolyte, which is a
18 concentration that still meets discharge limitation in force. As shown in Fig. 5, up to a
19 98% COD removal was achieved for S1 effluent after 5 h of treatment using 114
20 $\text{kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$; and about a 91% of the COD was removed from S2 effluent using
21 $49 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$ ($\approx 60 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ were used in both cases). The results for the
22 electrochemical oxidation of the S1 effluent (just containing 1,4-dioxane) resulted in a
23 good correlation to the values predicted by the models resulting from the experimental
24 design performed for a synthetic solution of 1,4-dioxane. After a 4 h treatment, which
25 matches the treatment time recommended by the model optimizer, the following results

1 were achieved: COD removal=93% (predicted: 96%), $\Delta\text{COD}=0.48 \text{ kgCOD}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
2 (predicted: $0.50 \text{ kgCOD}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$), TCE=0.48 (predicted: 0.55), and EC=93
3 $\text{kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$ (predicted: $92 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$). In fact, very good regression
4 coefficients were achieved ($R^2_{\text{COD}\%}=99.01\%$; $R^2_{\Delta\text{COD}}=99.21\%$; $R^2_{\text{TCE}}=99.27\%$; and
5 $R^2_{\text{EC}}=98.95\%$) when plotting the experimental results using industrial effluent against
6 the model predictions reported using synthetic dioxane solution.

7 Fig. 6 illustrates the evolution of the biodegradability of S1 and S2 effluents along
8 with the degradation of COD, TOC, and 1,4-dioxane and MDO contents during their
9 electrochemical treatment. A nearly complete mineralization was achieved in the
10 electrochemical treatment of S1, whereas an almost 90% of the TOC was removed from
11 S2. The major part of 1,4-dioxane (about an 85% in both S1 and S2 effluents), as well
12 as almost all MDO from S2 ($\approx 90\%$ removal) was degraded in 2 hours of electro-
13 oxidation treatment (using $\approx 21 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for both effluents). 1,4-dioxane removal was
14 independent of the presence of MDO, following a similar trend in both effluents (Figs
15 6a and 6b). The degradation of dioxane was greater at the beginning of the experiment,
16 and started slacking off in time as its concentration diminished. About a 60, 85 and 90%
17 of the compound was degraded in 1, 2 and 3 hours of treatment, respectively. The
18 removal of MDO from S2 (Fig 6b) otherwise appeared to be independent of its
19 concentration, showing a linear degradation in time: about the 45 and a 90% removals
20 were achieved after 1 and 2 hours of the process, respectively; and no MDO was
21 detected after 3 h of electro-oxidation treatment.

22 The initial biodegradability of S1 effluent (5% of the initial COD) was significantly
23 increased by the electrochemical process. After 1 hour of electro-oxidation treatment,
24 the biodegradable part of the residual COD was 19%. A further treatment time did not
25 lead to a further increase of the biodegradability of the solution, meaning either that the

1 intermediates produced afterwards resulted less biodegradable, or that the remaining
2 part of the organic matter was already too diluted for feeding bacteria. On the other
3 hand, the biodegradability of S2 was initially higher (26% of the COD), which means
4 that MDO is more susceptible to biodegradation. In fact, more than a 50% of the initial
5 MDO content in S2 effluent was removed by the biological treatment with
6 *Pseudomonas Putida*, whilst a negligible amount of 1,4-dioxane was degraded. As a
7 result, the biodegradability of S2 effluent remained similar after a 1 h of electro-
8 oxidation treatment (27% of the COD). However, considering overall results, almost a
9 50% of the COD, along with an 85% of the content of MDO, and 75% of 1,4-dioxane
10 were removed by the combined process treatment of S2 effluent. If the starting solution
11 for biodegradation was the resulting solution of a 2 h of electro-oxidation process, the
12 biodegradability of S2 effluent decreased, meaning that the resulting intermediate
13 products were less biodegradable. Considering these results, if electro-oxidation is to be
14 used as a pre-treatment for such industrial effluents prior to a biological process, the
15 optimal time for the advanced oxidation step with the current reactor design would be
16 approximately of 1 hour applying a current density of $12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ($\approx 10 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$).
17 However, further research should be conducted to monitor the evolution of
18 biodegradability determined by several methods, and using a shorter time interval, in
19 order to determine the precise optimal time for an electrochemical pre-treatment.

20

21 3.2.2. Comparing electro-oxidation with O_3 and O_3/H_2O_2 oxidation processes.

22 Regarding the economic assessment and feasibility of the electrochemical treatment
23 compared with other AOPs, the results of the current study were compared with a
24 previous work devoted to the treatment of the same effluents S1 and S2 by O_3 and O_3
25 combined with H_2O_2 oxidation processes (Hermosilla *et al.* 2011). To compare several

1 AOPs that use different oxidative agents, the so-called Oxygen-equivalent Chemical-
 2 oxidation Capacity (OCC) parameter was used, as proposed by Cañizares *et al.* (2009b)
 3 to quantify the amount of oxidant that were added to wastewater in comparable units
 4 (Equations 4 to 6):

$$5 \quad OCC_{EO} (kgO_2m^{-3}) = Q \left(\frac{kAh}{m^3} \right) \frac{1kmol^{-}}{96487kAs^{-}} \frac{3600s}{1h} \frac{1kmolO_2}{4kmol^{-}} \frac{32kgO_2}{kmolO_2} = 0.298Q \left(\frac{kAh}{m^3} \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

$$6 \quad OCC_{O_3} (kgO_2m^{-3}) = [O_3] \left(\frac{kgO_3}{m^3} \right) \frac{1kmolO_3}{48kgO_3} \frac{6kmol^{-}}{1kmolO_3} \frac{1kmolO_2}{4kmol^{-}} \frac{32kgO_2}{kmolO_2} = 1.000[O_3] \left(\frac{kgO_3}{m^3} \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

$$7 \quad OCC_{H_2O_2} (kgO_2m^{-3}) = [H_2O_2] \left(\frac{kgH_2O_2}{m^3} \right) \frac{1kmolH_2O_2}{34kgH_2O_2} \frac{2kmol^{-}}{1kmolO_2} \frac{1kmolO_2}{4kmol^{-}} \frac{32kgO_2}{kmolO_2} =$$

$$8 \quad = 0.471[H_2O_2] \left(\frac{kgH_2O_2}{m^3} \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

9 Figs. 7a and 7b show the evolution of COD in both effluents (S1 and S2) along the
 10 application of all three different AOPs as a function of treatment time and OCC,
 11 respectively. It can be checked that the electrochemical treatment produced a faster
 12 degradation compared with ozonation; whereas O₃ oxidation combined with H₂O₂
 13 addressed a much faster kinetics along the first process hour (Fig. 7a), but also an
 14 almost ineffective degradation during the following treatment time, which implies that
 15 the faster oxidation was mainly caused by the presence of H₂O₂, which was consumed
 16 in about one hour. Fig. 7b however demonstrates that the elevated amount of H₂O₂
 17 required for the higher organic load present in the S2 effluent significantly increased the
 18 OCC for the O₃/H₂O₂ process, and that the fastest degradation per consumed oxidant
 19 was really produced by the electro-oxidation process.

20 The enhancements of biodegradability by both electro-oxidation and O₃ processes
 21 were also compared performing bioassays with *Pseudomonas putida* (Fig. 8). The
 22 biological treatment was applied to the industrial effluent S1; and two other effluents
 23 with the same COD (50% of the initial COD) remaining after applying either electro-

1 oxidation or O₃ pre-treatments to S1. The initial wastewater containing dioxane had not
2 enough biodegradability to be treated by *Pseudomonas putida*, so COD remained
3 constant after this biodegradation trial. After an electro-oxidation or O₃ pre-treatment, a
4 further 25% of the remaining COD was degraded by *Pseudomonas putida* in 48 h, and
5 about a 45% after 120 h in both cases. This indicates that the degradation of 1,4-dioxane
6 is most likely to follow a similar pathway along both AOPs, achieving a similar
7 biodegradability if the same COD amount was previously removed. However, as COD
8 reduction resulted faster for the electrochemical pre-treatment (Fig. 7), this similar level
9 of biodegradability was also achieved faster than in the ozonation process.

10 In addition, the treatment cost per unit of removed COD was estimated considering
11 the price of industrial electric power in Spain (0.12 EUR/kWh; Eurostat 2012), and the
12 wholesale price of industrial grade H₂O₂ and Na₂SO₄ (0.61 and 0.09 EUR/kg,
13 respectively; ISIC 2012). Electricity consumption was estimated considering the
14 average consumption of a typical industrial O₃ generator (8 kWh per 1 kg of O₃ rich
15 gas; i.e. 8% of O₃ in oxygen), an additional energy consumption for refrigerating the O₃
16 generator (approx. 30%), and the additional consumption of an Adamant
17 PP1000 industrial power supply per applied kWh to the process (an extra 5% from the
18 grid). Results shown in Table 6 indicates that electrochemical oxidation was the most
19 economical alternative in terms of consumed kWh and the price per amount of removed
20 COD; whereas O₃ oxidation may be rendered unfeasible due to its high treatment cost
21 and slow oxidation kinetics. O₃/H₂O₂ treatment may result competitive to electro-
22 oxidation when optimizing treatment time to consume all H₂O₂; but an electro-
23 oxidation/H₂O₂ combination might be considered instead.

24

25 **4. Conclusions**

1 In the electrochemical treatment of synthetic 1,4-dioxane solution, the optimal
2 compromise for achieving a maximum COD removal at a maximum current efficiency
3 and producing the minimum energy consumption was reached using the designed
4 highest concentrations of SO_4^{2-} ($41.6 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), HCO_3^- ($32.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), and initial COD
5 ($750 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$); and applying a current density of $11.9 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ for 3.8 hours. The
6 regression models resulting from the experimental design for the electro-oxidation
7 treatment of a 1,4-dioxane synthetic solution accurately predicted the posterior electro-
8 oxidation treatment of an industrial sample just containing 1,4-dioxane (S1):
9 $R^2_{\text{COD}\%}=99.01\%$; $R^2_{\Delta\text{COD}}=99.21\%$; $R^2_{\text{TCE}}=99.27\%$; and $R^2_{\text{EC}}=98.95\%$.

10 In the treatment of industrial effluents with bicarbonate alkalinity, up to a 98% of
11 the COD was removed in the electro-oxidation of the effluent just containing 1,4-
12 dioxane (S1) consuming $114 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$; and a 91% COD removal was
13 achieved for the effluent containing both dioxane and MDO (S2), but resulting in the
14 consumption of $49 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$. Complementarily, the almost total
15 mineralization of effluent S1, and about a 90% TOC removal in effluent S2, were
16 achieved. In addition, the major part of 1,4-dioxane ($\approx 85\%$) was already degraded in
17 both industrial effluents after 2 hours of electro-oxidation treatment ($\approx 21 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$).

18 The highest biodegradability enhancement was achieved in approximately 1 h of
19 electro-oxidation at $12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ($\approx 10 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) for both effluents. The biodegradability
20 of the wastewater containing dioxane and MDO (S2) was originally higher precisely
21 due to the content of MDO, which was more susceptible to biodegradation.

22 In comparison with O_3 and $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, the fastest degradation per consumed oxidant
23 was achieved by electro-oxidation. This treatment also resulted the cheapest one in
24 terms of consumed kWh and the price per the amount of removed COD. Namely,
25 energy consumption and the average price of the process to reach a 90% COD removal

1 were 90 and 50 kWh·kgCOD_{removed}⁻¹, and 11 and 6 EUR·kgCOD_{removed}⁻¹, for S1 and S2
2 effluents, respectively.

3

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9

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Table 1. Characteristics of the industrial effluents.

	S1	S2
Main contaminants	1,4-dioxane	1,4-dioxane + MDO
[COD], $mgO_2 \cdot L^{-1}$	450-500	1320-1400
[HCO₃⁻], $mg \cdot L^{-1}$	900-1000	900-1000
Conductivity, $\mu S \cdot cm^{-1}$	1900-2100	1900-2100
pH	8.7-9.0	7.8-8.1

Table 2. Levels of the independent variables of the experimental design.

	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
X₁: [SO₄²⁻], <i>mEq·L⁻¹</i>	0	10.4	20.8	31.2	41.6
X₂: [HCO₃⁻], <i>mEq·L⁻¹</i>	0	8.2	16.4	24.6	32.8
X₃: [COD₀], <i>mg·L⁻¹</i>	150	300	450	600	750
X₄: <i>j</i>, <i>mA·cm⁻²</i>	2	6	10	14	18
X₅: time, <i>h</i>	1	2	3	4	5

Table 3. Experimental design and schematic addition of time as the fifth factor: example of response Y_1 (COD removal, %) at five different treatment time intervals.

					Y_1 , COD removal (%)					
	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	1	2	3	4	5 (h)
<i>28 points of CCD:</i>										
1	-1	-1	-1	-1	↓	30.8	59.8	79.0	89.2	95.6
1 ₁	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	←				
1 ₂	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	←				
1 ₃	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	←				
1 ₄	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	←				
1 ₅	-1	-1	-1	-1	2	←				
.....										
2	-1	-1	-1	1		40.6	70.6	86.9	92.8	95.2
3	-1	-1	1	-1		8.8	20.2	34.2	47.1	59.9
4	-1	-1	1	1		34.0	64.0	82.0	92.3	97.0
5	-1	1	-1	-1		28.5	54.3	74.9	86.9	92.9
6	-1	1	-1	1		30.4	55.0	72.1	82.2	90.8
7	-1	1	1	-1		19.5	41.4	63.5	82.1	93.7
8	-1	1	1	1		36.6	70.0	88.4	95.7	99.1
9	1	-1	-1	-1		31.8	60.6	79.8	89.3	94.0
10	1	-1	-1	1		44.4	73.4	86.3	95.2	98.1
11	1	-1	1	-1		17.4	34.2	47.1	55.5	66.4
12	1	-1	1	1		42.6	73.1	91.5	97.0	98.3
13	1	1	-1	-1		25.4	52.8	70.1	83.8	91.6
14	1	1	-1	1		38.5	66.8	86.5	94.2	97.9
15	1	1	1	-1		21.8	44.3	65.5	84.0	94.8
16	1	1	1	1		46.8	80.4	94.7	98.3	100.0
17	-2	0	0	0		34.6	62.2	82.0	94.4	99.4
18	2	0	0	0		34.6	64.5	82.2	94.8	99.4
19	0	-2	0	0		31.8	59.1	72.0	81.5	90.2
20	0	2	0	0		35.1	63.3	81.3	92.9	98.7
21	0	0	-2	0		34.7	53.8	71.5	76.1	81.2
22	0	0	2	0		23.5	48.0	67.2	78.8	87.9
23	0	0	0	-2		10.5	19.5	28.7	38.5	47.9
24	0	0	0	2		48.1	78.1	87.4	95.3	99.3
25	0	0	0	0		37.8	65.9	84.9	91.4	93.7
26	0	0	0	0		31.8	56.3	76.5	90.2	95.3
27	0	0	0	0		32.6	57.3	76.2	87.8	93.9
28	0	0	0	0		37.2	63.8	77.5	88.1	95.2
<i>3 extra points:</i>										
29	2	2	2	2		46.6	77.9	93.4	97.8	100.0
30	-2	2	2	-2		6.4	13.5	18.4	26.9	33.6
31	2	2	2	-2		8.0	14.9	21.4	28.0	33.8
Total number of design points: $N = 31 \cdot 5 = 155$										

Table 4. Complete set of experimental results in terms of COD removal (Y_1), amount of COD removed (Δ COD, Y_2), total current efficiency (TCE, Y_3); and energy consumption (EC, Y_4) for the electrochemical treatment of 1,4-dioxane.

	Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4		Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4		Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4		Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4
1	30.8	0.10	0.68	60.0	40	99.1	0.60	0.42	117.7	79	98.3	0.60	0.53	67.5	118	87.4	0.40	0.36	151.3
2	59.8	0.19	0.67	60.6	41	31.8	0.10	0.72	34.8	80	100.0	0.62	0.43	79.3	119	95.3	0.44	0.30	185.5
3	79.0	0.25	0.53	75.1	42	60.6	0.18	0.72	35.4	81	34.6	0.17	0.80	74.5	120	99.3	0.45	0.24	228.6
4	89.2	0.29	0.51	94.4	43	79.8	0.24	0.62	41.3	82	62.2	0.30	0.72	81.6	121	37.8	0.17	0.83	43.2
5	95.6	0.31	0.49	109.3	44	89.3	0.27	0.52	51.5	83	82.0	0.39	0.61	105.0	122	65.9	0.30	0.71	50.8
6	40.6	0.13	0.46	140.3	45	94.0	0.29	0.44	63.1	84	94.4	0.45	0.51	128.1	123	84.9	0.39	0.61	60.3
7	70.6	0.23	0.39	168.7	46	44.4	0.15	0.53	78.7	85	99.4	0.48	0.46	150.1	124	91.4	0.42	0.49	76.4
8	86.9	0.28	0.32	205.4	47	73.4	0.24	0.43	97.3	86	34.6	0.16	0.81	34.2	125	93.7	0.43	0.40	94.7
9	92.8	0.30	0.26	251.1	48	86.3	0.29	0.33	128.7	87	64.5	0.30	0.74	37.7	126	31.8	0.14	0.74	47.5
10	95.2	0.31	0.22	301.7	49	95.2	0.32	0.31	161.4	88	82.2	0.38	0.64	44.7	127	56.3	0.26	0.64	55.5
11	8.8	0.05	0.72	57.2	50	98.1	0.33	0.22	199.8	89	94.8	0.44	0.53	54.8	128	76.5	0.35	0.57	63.8
12	20.2	0.13	0.73	54.6	51	17.4	0.11	0.70	40.5	90	99.4	0.46	0.45	67.0	129	90.2	0.41	0.50	75.6
13	34.2	0.21	0.71	55.1	52	34.2	0.21	0.71	39.8	91	31.8	0.14	0.63	71.1	130	95.3	0.43	0.42	92.1
14	47.1	0.29	0.70	62.8	53	47.1	0.29	0.69	39.9	92	59.1	0.27	0.59	75.7	131	32.6	0.15	0.76	47.7
15	59.9	0.37	0.67	63.3	54	55.5	0.34	0.69	40.0	93	72.0	0.33	0.48	94.5	132	57.3	0.26	0.65	56.1
16	34.0	0.21	0.76	83.6	55	66.4	0.41	0.63	44.4	94	81.5	0.37	0.41	112.0	133	76.2	0.35	0.57	66.1
17	64.0	0.39	0.70	90.4	56	42.6	0.26	0.92	40.9	95	90.2	0.41	0.37	129.7	134	87.8	0.40	0.49	80.1
18	82.0	0.50	0.59	109.5	57	73.1	0.44	0.80	48.0	96	35.1	0.16	0.82	34.6	135	93.9	0.43	0.41	97.0
19	92.3	0.56	0.47	134.9	58	91.5	0.56	0.65	59.7	97	63.3	0.29	0.73	39.8	136	37.2	0.17	0.89	40.1
20	97.0	0.59	0.41	164.6	59	97.0	0.59	0.52	76.9	98	81.3	0.37	0.62	48.6	137	63.8	0.30	0.75	48.1
21	28.5	0.09	0.75	37.8	60	98.3	0.60	0.42	97.2	99	92.9	0.43	0.52	59.3	138	77.5	0.36	0.60	61.7
22	54.3	0.17	0.71	40.7	61	25.4	0.08	0.68	34.3	100	98.7	0.46	0.44	72.0	139	88.1	0.41	0.50	75.9
23	74.9	0.24	0.64	46.7	62	52.8	0.16	0.69	33.9	101	34.7	0.06	0.33	127.1	140	95.2	0.45	0.43	90.9
24	86.9	0.27	0.55	56.3	63	70.1	0.22	0.63	37.6	102	53.8	0.10	0.26	143.2	141	46.6	0.35	0.97	37.4

25	92.9	0.29	0.47	68.1	64	83.8	0.26	0.53	45.7	103	71.5	0.13	0.24	149.5	142	77.9	0.58	0.79	46.0
26	30.4	0.10	0.27	124.6	65	91.6	0.28	0.46	53.8	104	76.1	0.14	0.20	187.7	143	93.4	0.69	0.63	59.2
27	55.0	0.17	0.25	141.5	66	38.5	0.12	0.41	86.3	105	81.2	0.14	0.17	225.1	144	97.8	0.73	0.49	78.7
28	72.1	0.23	0.19	187.5	67	66.8	0.21	0.33	105.9	106	23.5	0.18	0.93	38.5	145	100.0	0.74	0.40	99.8
29	82.2	0.26	0.19	205.2	68	86.5	0.27	0.29	122.8	107	48.0	0.37	0.93	38.3	146	6.4	0.05	1.13	16.0
30	90.8	0.28	0.19	249.6	69	94.2	0.29	0.20	166.1	108	67.2	0.52	0.85	42.4	147	13.5	0.10	1.17	15.4
31	19.5	0.12	1.00	24.3	70	97.9	0.31	0.20	188.5	109	78.8	0.61	0.74	50.3	148	18.4	0.14	1.04	17.5
32	41.4	0.26	1.05	23.5	71	21.8	0.13	0.94	24.9	110	87.9	0.68	0.65	57.8	149	26.9	0.20	1.11	16.6
33	63.5	0.39	1.05	23.6	72	44.3	0.26	0.99	23.2	111	10.5	0.05	1.12	13.5	150	33.6	0.25	1.09	17.2
34	82.1	0.51	0.98	24.9	73	65.5	0.39	0.99	23.2	112	19.5	0.09	1.09	13.7	151	5.0	0.04	0.89	16.0
35	93.7	0.58	0.90	28.1	74	84.0	0.50	0.94	24.6	113	28.7	0.13	1.00	13.6	152	11.0	0.09	1.04	17.0
36	36.6	0.22	0.85	57.4	75	94.8	0.57	0.84	28.2	114	38.5	0.18	0.96	13.3	153	17.0	0.13	0.96	17.0
37	70.0	0.42	0.78	61.3	76	46.8	0.29	1.04	32.1	115	47.9	0.22	0.97	14.2	154	24.0	0.18	0.99	18.0
38	88.4	0.53	0.65	72.9	77	80.4	0.49	0.88	39.1	116	48.1	0.22	0.61	87.2	155	30.0	0.22	0.97	19.0
39	95.7	0.58	0.52	93.8	78	94.7	0.58	0.68	52.0	117	78.1	0.36	0.49	110.0					

Table 5. Regression coefficients of the quadratic models describing the results (Y_1 = COD removal; Y_2 = amount of removed COD, Δ COD; Y_3 = total current efficiency, TCE; and Y_4 = energy consumption, EC) for the electrochemical treatment of 1,4-dioxane.

	COD removal, %		Δ COD, $\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$		TCE		EC, $\text{kWh}\cdot\text{kgCOD}_{\text{removed}}^{-1}$	
	b(Y_1)	SE(Y_1)	b(Y_2)	SE(Y_2)	b(Y_3)	SE(Y_3)	b(Y_4)	SE(Y_4)
Model	81.29	± 1.25	0.387	± 0.007	0.642	± 0.012	63.43	± 2.03
X_1	2.67	± 1.15	0.010	± 0.007	0.021	± 0.011	-34.00	± 1.87
X_2	2.82	± 1.16	0.018	± 0.007	0.054	± 0.011	-21.27	± 1.89
X_3	-5.91	± 1.16	0.165	± 0.007	0.281	± 0.011	-54.80	± 1.89
X_4	20.40	± 1.15	0.109	± 0.007	-0.261	± 0.011	76.27	± 1.87
X_5	28.33	± 0.76	0.130	± 0.004	-0.145	± 0.007	29.54	± 1.23
X_1^2	0.65	± 2.06	-0.007	± 0.012	-0.035	± 0.019	9.75	± 3.33
X_2^2	-3.56	± 2.06	-0.038	± 0.012	-0.102	± 0.019	5.73	± 3.33
X_3^2	-11.89	± 2.06	-0.067	± 0.012	-0.132	± 0.019	37.99	± 3.33
X_4^2	-18.85	± 2.06	-0.106	± 0.012	0.053	± 0.019	15.08	± 3.33
X_5^2	-12.55	± 1.25	-0.059	± 0.007	0.003	± 0.012	7.20	± 2.02
$X_1\cdot X_2$	-2.93	± 2.39	-0.019	± 0.014	0.008	± 0.023	15.48	± 3.87
$X_1\cdot X_3$	1.49	± 2.39	0.020	± 0.014	0.012	± 0.023	8.93	± 3.87
$X_1\cdot X_4$	0.78	± 2.14	0.009	± 0.012	0.013	± 0.020	-15.20	± 3.47
$X_1\cdot X_5$	-1.08	± 1.39	-0.008	± 0.008	-0.033	± 0.013	-7.46	± 2.26
$X_2\cdot X_3$	14.31	± 2.60	0.064	± 0.015	0.140	± 0.025	-8.93	± 4.21
$X_2\cdot X_4$	-10.98	± 2.39	-0.049	± 0.014	-0.153	± 0.023	14.01	± 3.87
$X_2\cdot X_5$	-0.45	± 1.47	-0.010	± 0.009	-0.008	± 0.014	-1.00	± 2.38
$X_3\cdot X_4$	21.79	± 2.39	0.163	± 0.014	0.136	± 0.023	-57.49	± 3.87
$X_3\cdot X_5$	-2.27	± 1.47	0.067	± 0.009	-0.024	± 0.014	-16.33	± 2.38
$X_4\cdot X_5$	1.85	± 1.39	0.017	± 0.008	-0.079	± 0.013	30.41	± 2.26
R^2	95.08%		95.21%		95.25%		96.96%	
R^2_{pred}	93.00%		93.11%		93.69%		95.48%	
R^2_{adj}	94.35%		94.50%		94.54%		96.50%	

Table 6. Energetic and economic comparison of the treatment of dioxane (S1) and dioxane+MDO (S2) effluents by electro-oxidation (EO), O₃ and O₃/H₂O₂.

Process	Energetic and economical parameters for varying COD removal %								
	<u>kgCOD/OCC^a</u>			<u>kWh/kgCOD</u>			<u>EUR/kgCOD</u>		
<i>Treatment of S1</i>									
	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>
EO^b	0.9	0.7	0.5	55	63	90	7	8	11
O₃/H₂O₂^c	0.4	0.5	0.4	69	76	164	14	13	22
O₃^d	0.3	0.2	0.2	402	474	682	46	55	79
<i>Treatment of S2</i>									
	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>	<u>50%</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>90%</u>
EO^b	1.7	1.4	0.9	30	35	50	4	4	6
O₃/H₂O₂^c	0.3	0.2	0.1	167	322	1037	25	42	123
O₃^d	0.5	0.4	0.3	216	268	399	25	31	46

^aOCC denominates Oxygen-equivalent Chemical-oxidation Capacity, calculated by Equations 4-6 (Cañizares *et al.* 2009b)

^b $j=12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$; $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$; $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$

^c $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]/[\text{COD}]=2.215$ ($[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{\text{S1}}\approx 1.00 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$, $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{\text{S2}}\approx 2.90 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$); average $0.45 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for S1 and $0.66 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for S2

^daverage $0.40 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$

FIGURE CAPTIONS:

Fig. 1. 3D response surfaces for a) % COD removal, and b) total current efficiency (TCE), built up as a function of the applied current density (j) and treatment time. Constant values at $X_i=0$: $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$; $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and $[\text{COD}]_0=450 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$.

Fig. 2. 3D response surfaces for a) the amount of COD removed (ΔCOD), and b) energetic consumption (EC), constructed as a function of the initial COD value and the applied current density. Constant values at $X_i=0$: $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and $\text{time}=3 \text{ h}$.

Fig. 3. Surface plots for a) % COD removal, and b) energetic consumption (EC), drawn as a function of the concentrations of supporting electrolytes (SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^-). Constant values at $X_i=0$: $[\text{COD}]_0=450 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $j=10 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$, and $\text{time}=3 \text{ h}$.

Fig. 4. Optimization plot for maximum COD removal (%) and amount of COD removed (ΔCOD) at a maximum total current efficiency (TCE) and a minimum energetic consumption (EC) (“y” stands for the process response at optimal compromise, “d” stands for the desirability of the process response, and “D” for composite desirability).

Fig. 5. COD removal and simultaneous energetic consumption (EC) increase during the electrochemical treatment of industrial effluents S1 and S2 at $12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ in the presence of its inherent initial bicarbonate alkalinity ($16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) using $20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of SO_4^{2-} as supporting electrolyte.

Fig. 6. Evolution of effluent biodegradability by *Pseudomonas putida* (100-h bioassays) along with the degradation of COD, TOC, 1,4-dioxane, and MDO during the electrochemical treatment of a) the dioxane containing effluent (S1), and b) the effluent

with dioxane and MDO (S2) at $12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ in the presence of initial bicarbonate alkalinity ($16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) using $20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of SO_4^{2-} as supporting electrolyte.

Fig. 7. The evolution of the COD during the treatment of both industrial effluents (S1 and S2) by three different AOPs [electro-oxidation (EO), O_3 and $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$] as a function of a) treatment time, and b) Oxygen-equivalent Chemical-oxidation Capacity (OCC, calculated by Equations 4-6; Cañizares *et al.* 2009b). Conditions for EO: $j=12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$; $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (initial bicarbonate alkalinity); $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (supporting electrolyte). Conditions for O_3 : average consumption= $0.40 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. Conditions for $\text{O}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$: $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]/[\text{COD}]=2.215$ ($[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{\text{S1}}\approx 1.00 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$; $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{\text{S2}}\approx 2.90 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$); average O_3 consumption was approx. $0.45 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for S1, and $0.66 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for S2.

Fig. 8. Evolution of the COD in the biodegradation tests carried on by *Pseudomonas putida* on the initial industrial effluent containing 1,4-dioxane (S1) and on the same S1 effluent previously treated by electro-oxidation (EO) or O_3 (both performed until a 50% of COD removal was achieved). Conditions for EO: $j=12 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$; $[\text{HCO}_3^-]=16.4 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (initial bicarbonate alkalinity); $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]=20.8 \text{ mEq}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (supporting electrolyte). Conditions for O_3 : average consumption= $0.40 \text{ kgO}_3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$.

FIGURE 1

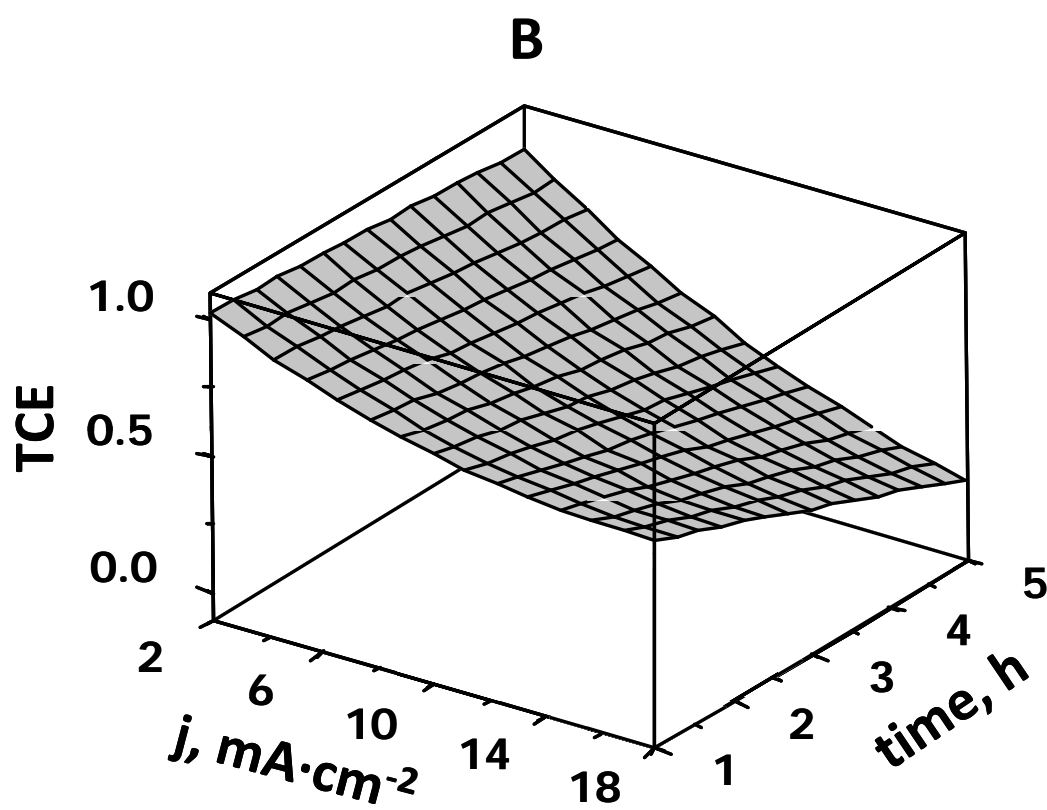
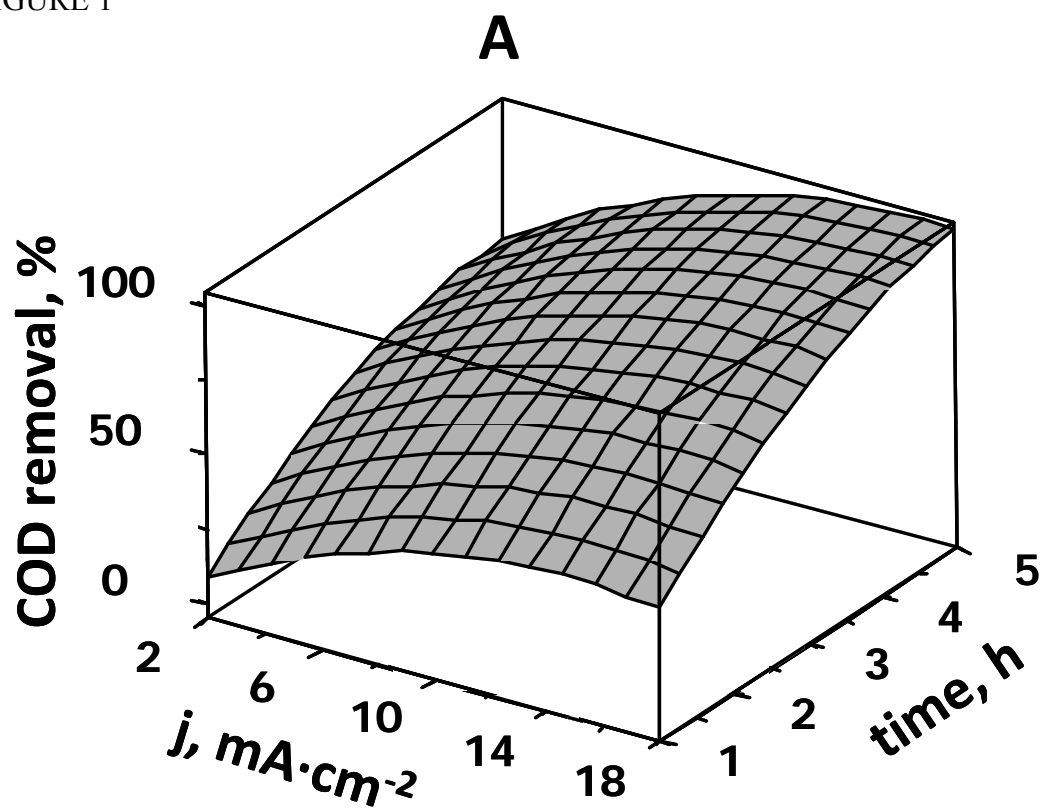


FIGURE 2

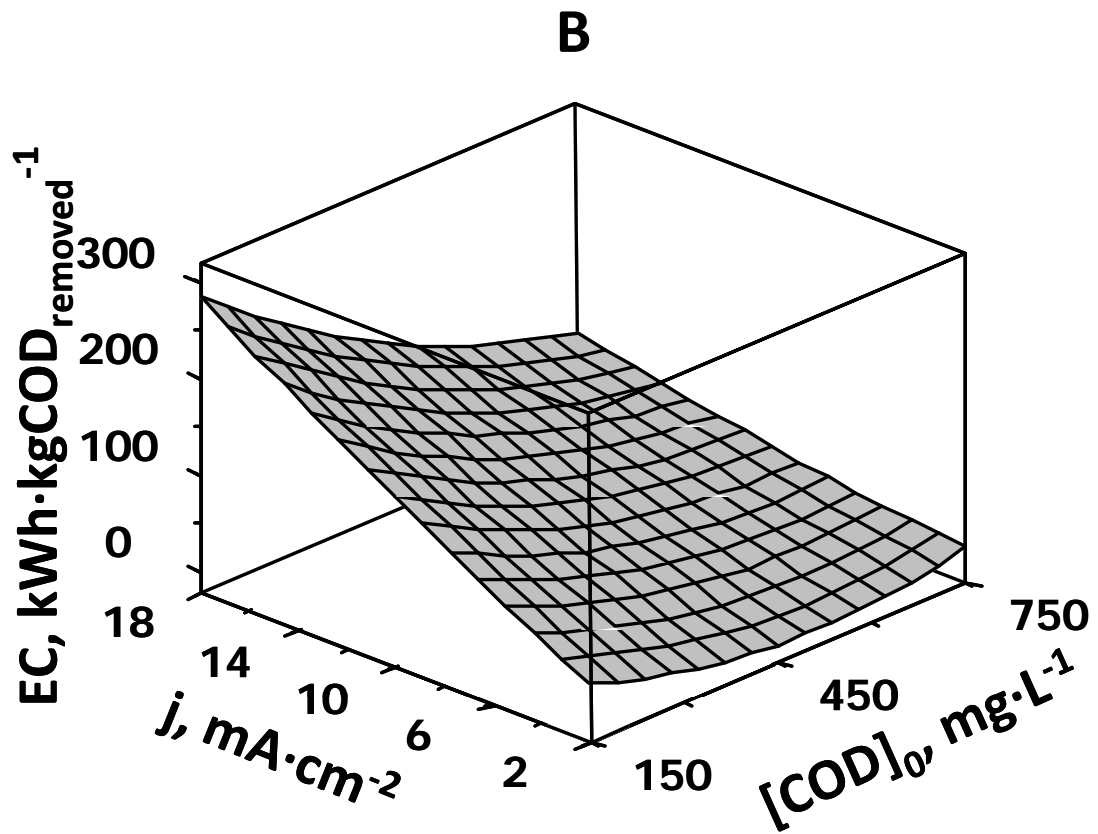
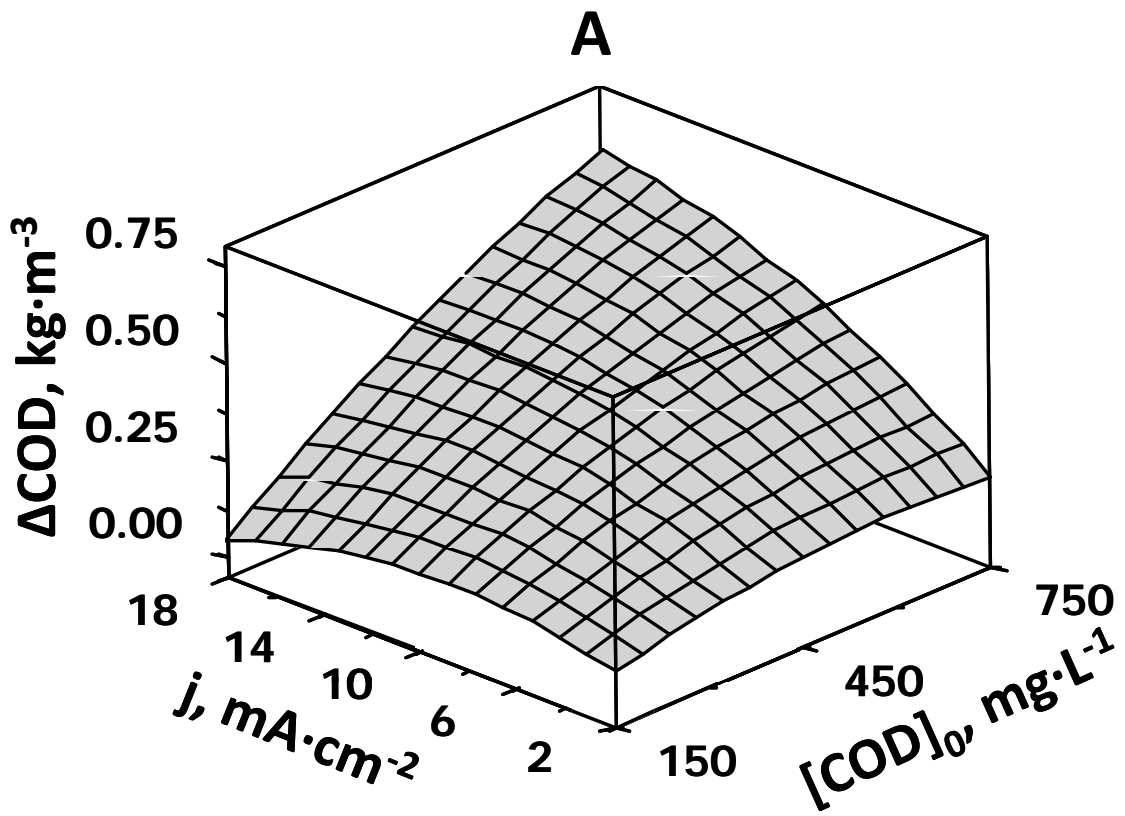


FIGURE 3

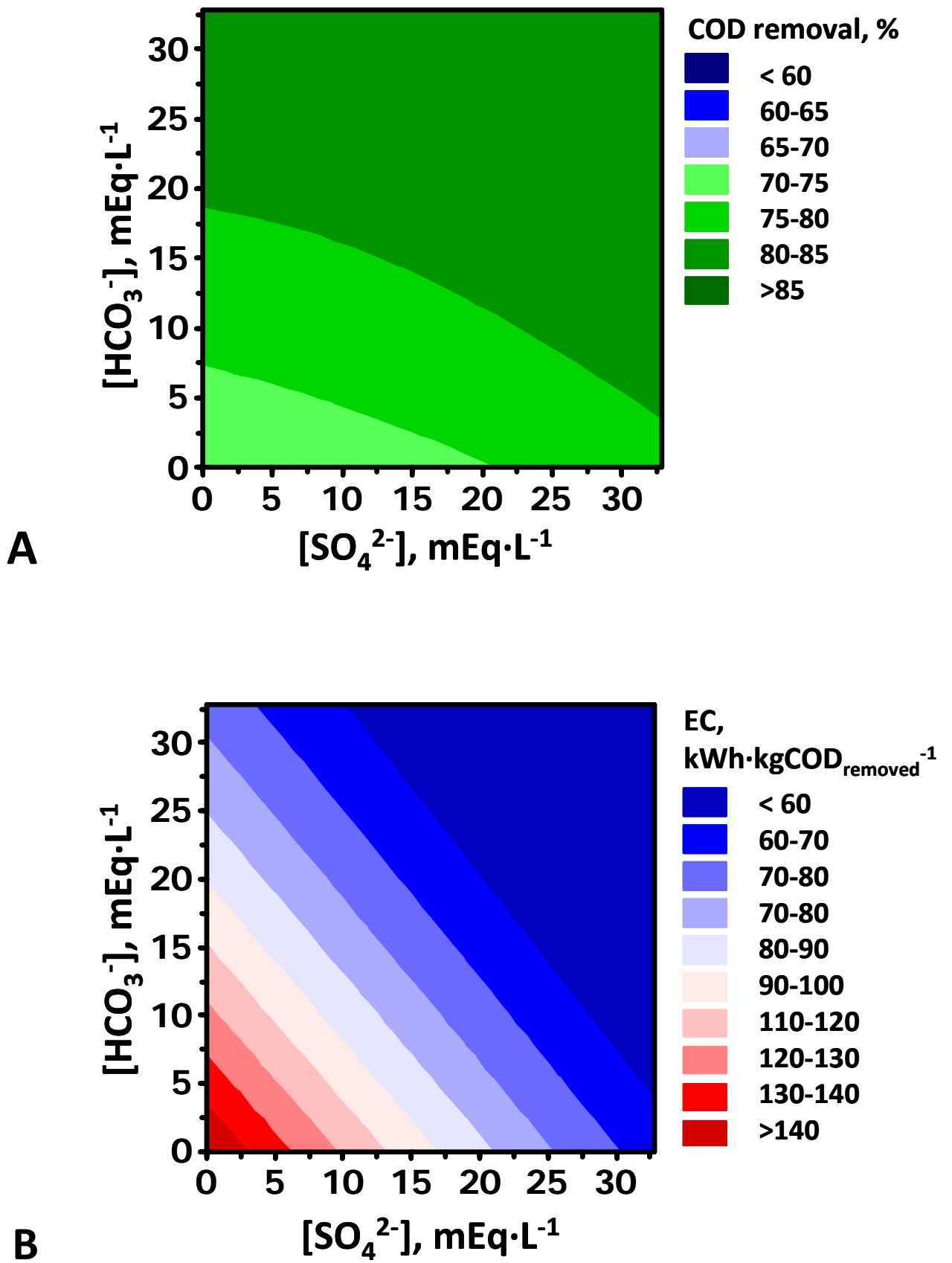


FIGURE 4

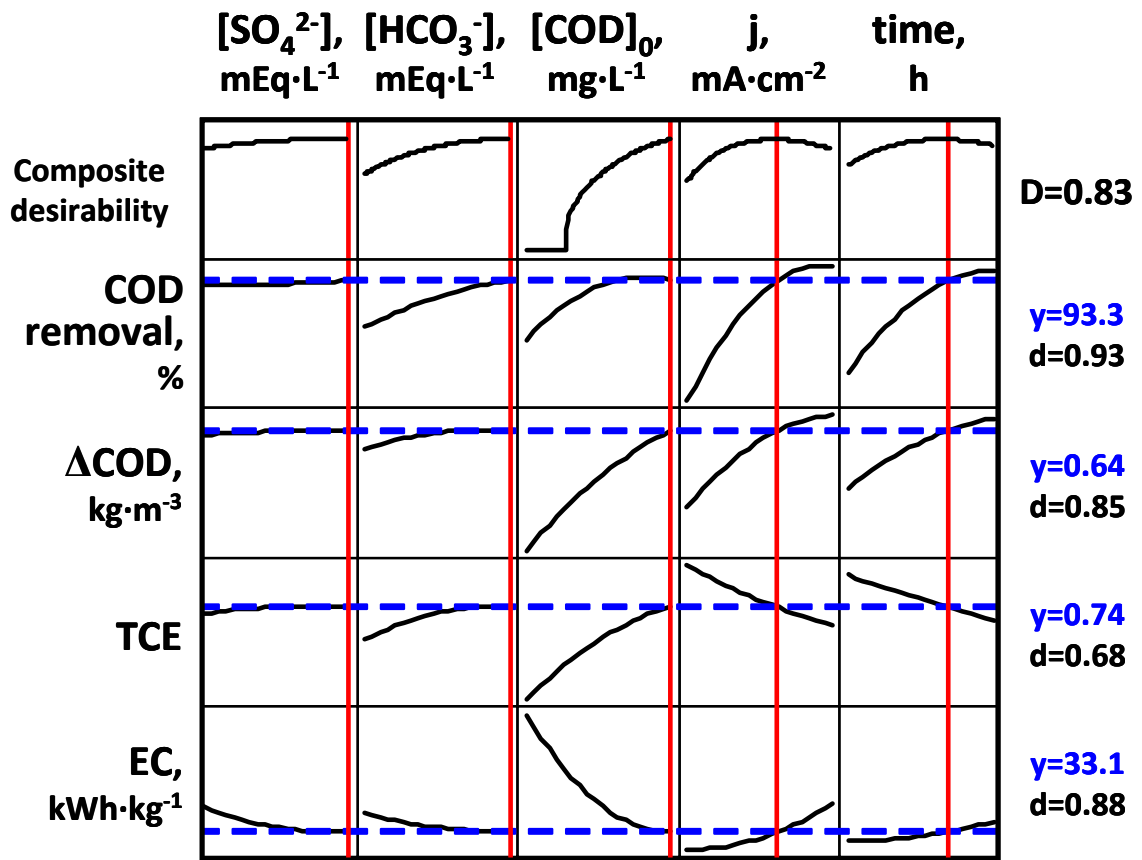


FIGURE 5

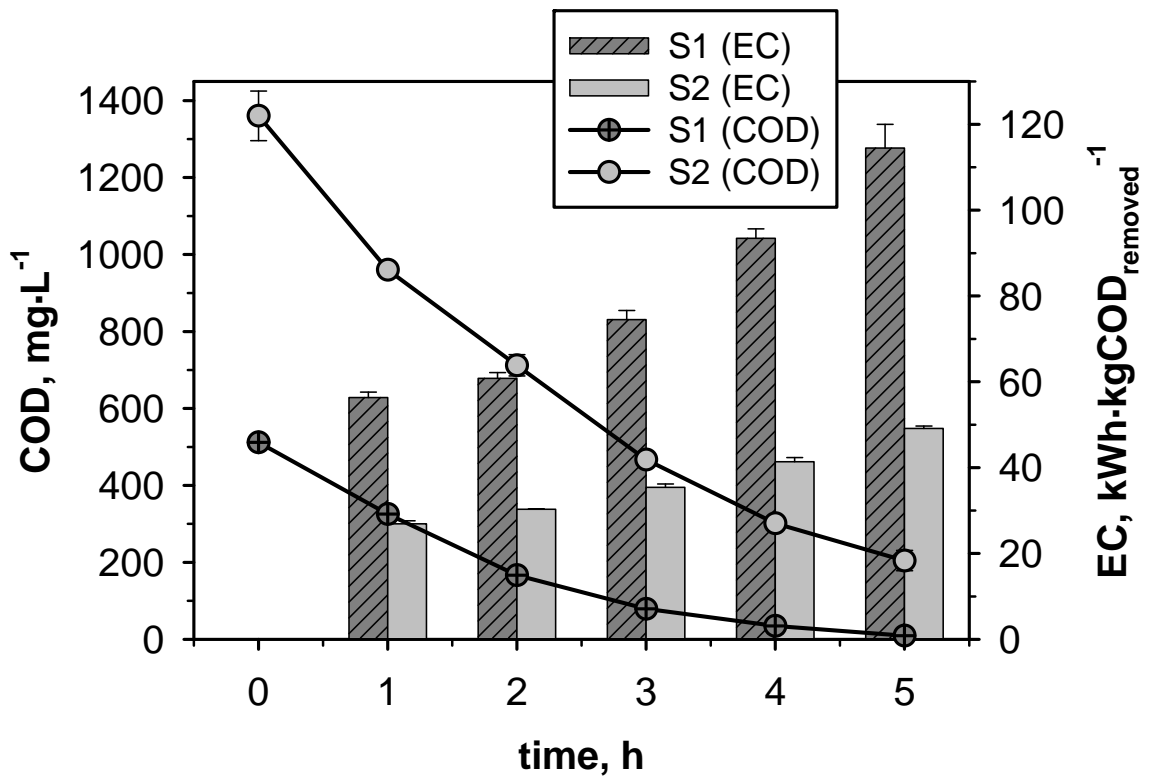


FIGURE 6

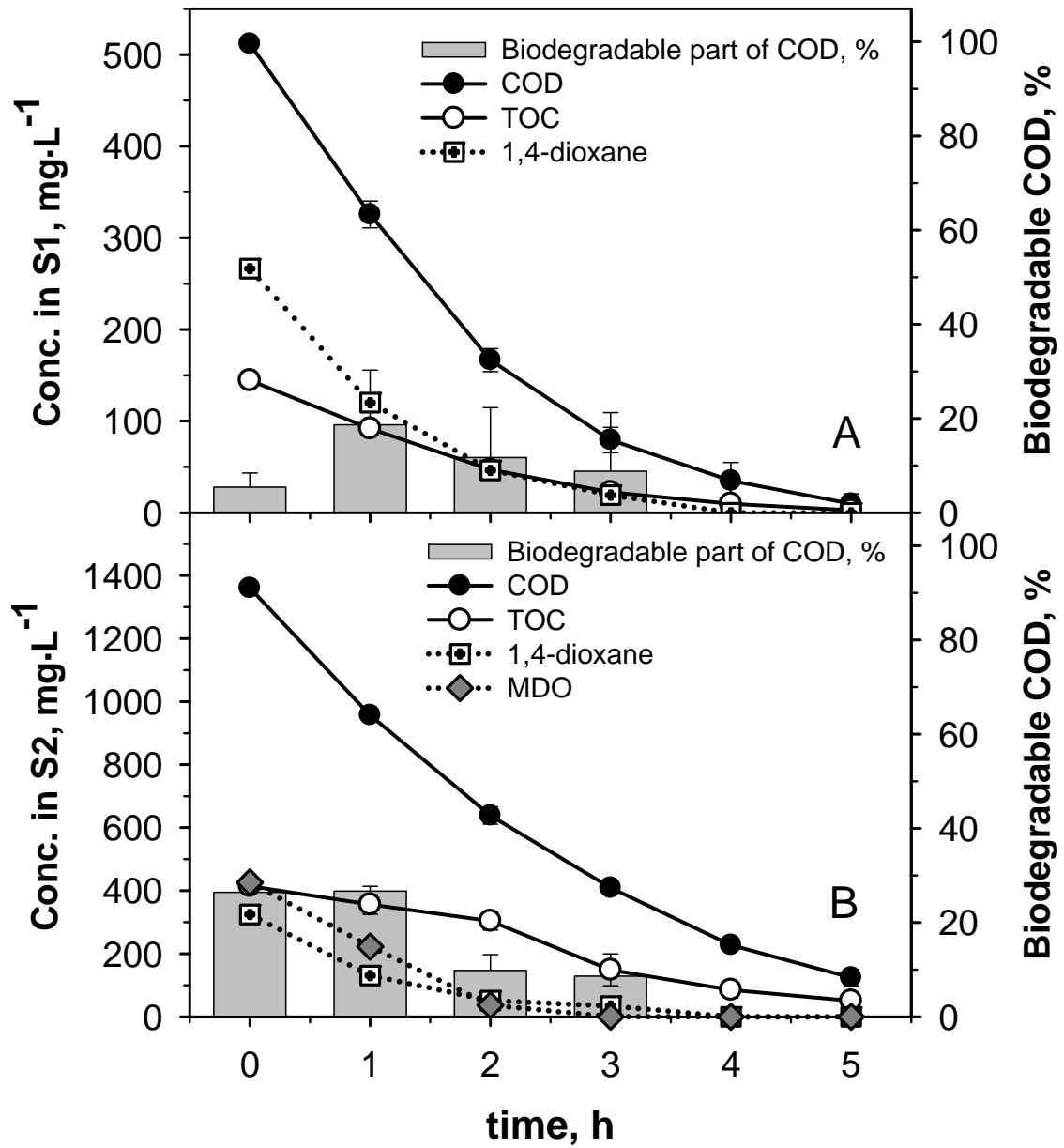


FIGURE 7

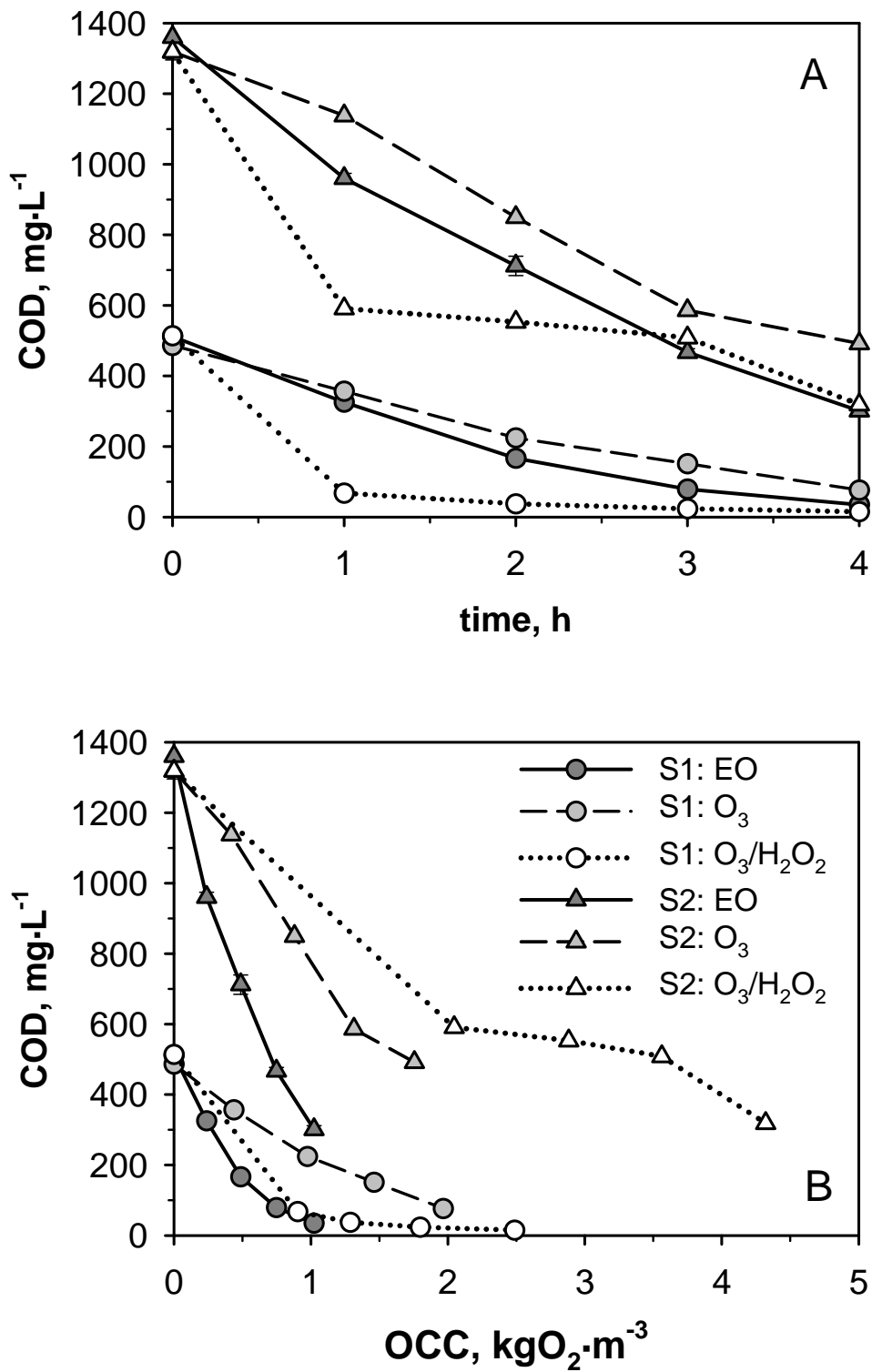


FIGURE 8

