

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

### **ScienceDirect**

www.elsevier.com/locate/jes



www.jesc.ac.cn

# Effects of reductive inorganics and NOM on the formation of chlorite in the chlorine dioxide disinfection of drinking water

Biao Yang, Hua Fang\*, Bingqi Chen, Shun Yang, Zhichao Ye, Jianghua Yu

Collaborative Innovation Center of Atmospheric Environment and Equipment Technology, School of Environmental Science & Engineering, Nanjing University of Information Science & Technology, Nanjing 210044, China

#### ARTICLE INFO

## Article history: Received 29 August 2020 Revised 26 November 2020 Accepted 28 November 2020 Available online 22 December 2020

Keywords:
Chlorine dioxide
Chlorite
Disinfection by-products
Reductive inorganics
Natural organic matter

#### ABSTRACT

Chlorine dioxide (ClO<sub>2</sub>) disinfection usually does not produce halogenated disinfection byproducts, but the formation of the inorganic by-product chlorite (ClO2-) is a serious consideration. In this study, the ClO<sub>2</sub> formation rule in the ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection of drinking water was investigated in the presence of three representative reductive inorganics and four natural organic matters (NOMs), respectively. Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> mainly reduced ClO<sub>2</sub> to ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> at low concentrations. When ClO<sub>2</sub> was consumed, the ClO<sub>2</sub> would be further reduced by Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup>, leading to the decrease of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. The reaction efficiency of Mn<sup>2+</sup> with ClO<sub>2</sub> was lower than that of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$ . It might be the case that  $MnO_2$  generated by the reaction between  $Mn^{2+}$ and ClO<sub>2</sub> had adsorption and catalytic oxidation on Mn<sup>2+</sup>. However, Mn<sup>2+</sup> would not reduce ClO<sub>2</sub>-. Among the four NOMs, humic acid and fulvic acid reacted with ClO<sub>2</sub> actively, followed by bovine serum albumin, while sodium alginate had almost no reaction with ClO2. The maximum ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of reductive inorganics (70%) was higher than that of NOM (around 60%). The lower the concentration of reductive substances, the more ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> could be produced by per unit concentration of reductive substances. The results of the actual water samples showed that both reductive inorganics and NOM played an important role in the formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in disinfection.

© 2020 The Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences. Published by Elsevier B.V.

#### Introduction

Disinfection is the last and most important step in drinking water treatment, and chlorination is considered to be the most commonly and widely used step in disinfection process throughout the world. However, chlorination disinfection will inevitably produce highly toxic chlorine disinfection byproducts (DBPs) such as trihalomethanes, haloacetic acids and halogen acetonitrile. As a new alternative disinfectant, chloring transfer and the step of t

\* Corresponding author. E-mail: fanghua@nuist.edu.cn (H. Fang). rine dioxide (ClO<sub>2</sub>) has been widely studied and applied in the past 30 years in order to reduce the formation of chlorine DBPs (Reckhow et al., 1990; Ramieri and Swietlik, 2010). During disinfection, ClO<sub>2</sub> reacts with organic matter in water through the oxidation-reduction reaction instead of the substitution reaction as chlorine, which limits the effective formation of organic halogenated DBPs. However, two inorganic DBPs, ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, could be produced to satisfy the conservation of gain and loss electrons (Gordon et al., 1972). It has been reported that ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> can affect the human hematopoietic system at low concentrations, while an increase of methemoglobin can be caused at high concentrations. The toxicity of ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> has

not been fully confirmed and is considered as a potential toxic substance (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1985; French et al., 1995). In contrast, water quality limits regarding ClO<sub>2</sub> have been much more strict and established in various countries. For example, the US EPA has issued the guideline for ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> of 1mg/L, while Italy and Germany have set 0.7 mg/L and 0.2 mg/L, respectively. The World Health Organization (WHO) and China set the guideline as 0.7mg/L for both ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Therefore, a serious challenge to the wide application of ClO<sub>2</sub> has been reported in terms of the disinfection of drinking water (Chang et al., 2000; Bond et al., 2009).

 $ClO_2$  inorganic DBPs are mainly generated by  $ClO_2$  decomposition and reaction with reductive substances in water (Baribeau et al., 2002), and approximately 60%–70% of consumed  $ClO_2$  will be transformed into  $ClO_2^-$  (Sorlini et al., 2014).  $ClO_3^-$  is mainly derived from  $ClO_2$  generators, and  $ClO_2$  produces very little  $ClO_3^-$  directly (Veschetti et al., 2005). Therefore, compared with  $ClO_3^-$ , the formation of  $ClO_2^-$  is the main DBP in the  $ClO_2$  disinfection process.

Humic substances are the main component of natural organic matter (NOM) in aquatic environments, accounting for around 50%-90% of the total organic matter and containing different ClO<sub>2</sub> reaction sites (Pomes et al., 1999; Swietlik et al., 2004). According to the different solubility in acid-based conditions, humic substances can be divided into humic acid (HA), fulvic acid (FA) and humin. The other part of NOM at a low level due to microbial decomposition includes some low molecular organics such as polysaccharides, proteins and amino acids (Bhatnagar et al., 2017), which vary depending on the water quality. In order to explore the influence of different pieces of NOM on the experiment, many researchers tend to use model organic compounds such as HA, FA, tannic acid, bovine serum albumin (BSA), sodium alginate (SA) and glucose to characterize various pieces of NOM in water (Katsoufidou et al., 2010; Choi et al., 2012; Gan et al., 2019). By studying the effect of NOM properties on ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection, Yang et al. (2013) found that ClO<sub>2</sub> mainly destroyed the aromatic and conjugated structures of NOM and transformed the larger aromatic and long fatty chain organic structures into small, hydrophilic organic structures. Gan et al. (2019) proposed that ClO<sub>2</sub>- yields depend on the type of functional groups in the organic material. Amines and di- and tri-hydroxybenzenes can produce more ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> with ClO<sub>2</sub>, while the olefins, thiols and benzoquinones have ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields less than 50%. However, the components of NOM in actual waters are too numerous to be identified individually, and thus are usually divided into species in order to investigate their effect on water quality. To explore the influence of NOM on the generation of ClO<sub>2</sub>-, the main pieces of NOM should be the major factor.

In addition to NOM, there are some reductive inorganics in natural water. For example, due to lack of oxygen, groundwater will contain relatively high concentrations of divalent iron and divalent manganese (Jusoh et al., 2005), while the exploitation of oil and natural gas will also produce a large amount of sulfide-containing wastewater. The WHO stipulates that Fe and Mn content in drinking water should be less than 0.3 mg/L and 0.1 mg/L, respectively, and that the limit of sulfide is 0.05 mg/L (WHO, 2017). The EPA stipulates that Mn content in drinking water should not exceed 0.05mg/L (US EPA, 2004). In groundwater, the concentrations of the two

elements are commonly up to 1.0 mg/L (Dorthel et al., 1998), while the content of S<sup>2-</sup> usually depends on the production environment. During the water treatment process, ClO2 is often used to remove Fe and Mn (Aieta and Berg, 1986). However, as a common reductive agent, Fe<sup>2+</sup> can also reduce ClO<sub>2</sub>. Mn has different valence states and certain catalytic ability, which is more complicated in the reaction with ClO2. Nevertheless, few findings have been reported on the formation of the byproduct ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to date. Csekö et al. (2018) studied the reaction mechanism between ClO2 and sulfide in strong alkaline condition and found that ClO<sub>2</sub> was first generated quickly, but that the middle reaction process was complex, while the final products were associated with reaction conditions. The content of reductive inorganics in actual water environments is lower than that in NOM, but the effect of reductive inorganics on some specific water bodies cannot be ignored, such as groundwater. At present, there are few reports on the influence of reductive inorganics in water on the formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in the process of ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection. Therefore, determining whether the formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is influenced by both NOM and reductive inorganics needs to be further explored through experiments.

Above all, the focuses of this research are listed as follows: (1) study the law of  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  formation generated by the reaction between  ${\rm ClO_2}$  and three main reductive inorganics; (2) study the law of  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  formation generated by the reaction between  ${\rm ClO_2}$  and four main natural organic compounds; (3) compare the  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  generation potential of reductive inorganics with NOM in  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  redox reaction; and (4) explore the factors affecting the  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  production in the  ${\rm ClO_2}$  disinfection process of an actual water samples.

#### 1. Materials and methods

#### 1.1. Chemicals

 $\rm NaClO_3$  (99.33%),  $\rm NaClO_2$  (81.10%),  $\rm SA$ ,  $\rm BSA$ ,  $\rm FeSO_4$ ,  $\rm MnSO_4$  and  $\rm Na_2S$  were purchased from Macklin (China). HA and FA came from Sigma-Aldrich and Aladdin, respectively. XAD-4 resin was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and XAD-8 resin was purchased from Supelco.

The  $ClO_2$  stock solution used in the experiment was prepared according to the standard method (APHA, 1998) by mixing diluted  $H_2SO_4$  with sodium chlorite and then storing it in the refrigerator at  $4^{\circ}C$  away from light (Appendix A Fig. S1). The concentration of  $ClO_2$  stock solution should be determined by iodometry before each experiment.

FeSO<sub>4</sub>, MnSO<sub>4</sub> and Na<sub>2</sub>S stock solution were all prepared by deionized water. HA, FA, SA and BSA were stirred and dissolved in deionized water for 24 hr without light, and then filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$ m filter membrane. After the preparation, all the above reagents were sealed and kept in the refrigerator at 4°C.

#### 1.2. ClO<sub>2</sub> oxidation experiment

Oxidation of ClO<sub>2</sub> with typical reductive substances in water was carried out in a 30 mL brown bottle without light. Inorganic samples were treated with NaOH and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution,

and organic samples were treated with 2 mmol/L phosphate buffer solution to adjust the pH. FeSO<sub>4</sub>, MnSO<sub>4</sub> and Na<sub>2</sub>S represented reductive inorganics, and were conducted at the set mass concentration when experimenting. HA and FA were selected to represent humus organics. SA and BSA represent sugars and proteins, respectively. The standard reserve liquid was prepared and its total organic carbon (TOC) concentration determined. NOM was added according to the required TOC concentration during the experiment.

During the oxidation experiment, the dosage of  $ClO_2$  was fixed at 2 mg/L, and the content of  $ClO_2$  in the reaction system was determined immediately after 1h of reaction, in which the reaction was almost complete (Appendix A Fig. S2). If  $ClO_2^-$  or  $ClO_3^-$  cannot be determined immediately, ethylenediamine (1 mL/L) should be added in the system after blowing off  $N_2$  for 15 min and storing in the refrigerator at 4°C. The latest determination time should not exceed 6h.

#### 1.3. Classification experiment of organic properties

In order to study the influence of organic properties, the HA solution was continuously passed through 100KDa, 10KDa and 1KDa molecular weight membranes by ultrafiltration device before and after  $\rm ClO_2$  treatment. Another HA solution was used for hydrophilic and hydrophobic classification through XAD-8 and XAD-4 resin according to the method of Aiken et al. (1992) before and after treatment. The trapped solution was collected between sections and the TOC measured.

#### 1.4. Actual water sample oxidation experiment

The actual water samples used in the experiment were taken from a water source in the Nanjing section of the Yangtze river (Yangtze river water), an underground water source (groundwater) owned by an enterprise in Pukou district of Nanjing city, and micro-polluted pond water (pond water) in Pukou district of Nanjing city. After the water sample was retrieved, a 0.45  $\mu \rm m$  filter membrane was used to filter the water and then determine their water quality. Filtered water samples of 100 mL

were added with a certain amount of  $ClO_2$  to the concentration required for the experiment, and the remaining content of  $ClO_2$  and the production amount of  $ClO_2$  and  $ClO_3$  were determined immediately after 1 hr of disinfection.

#### 1.5. Analytical methods

The concentration of NOM was determined by a TOC analyzer (Shimadzu, Japan), and  $UV_{254}$  was determined by an ultraviolet spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Japan) at the wavelength of 254nm.

ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were determined by a Dionex IC 2000 system equipped with an AS19 anionic column, and an AG-19 protective column (Dionex, USA). The content of ClO<sub>2</sub> was determined by the DPD method (US EPA). The turbidity of water samples was determined by a turbidity analyzer (Hach, USA).

The concentration of  $Fe^{2+}$  was determined by the phenanthroline spectrophotometric method. The concentration of  $Mn^{2+}$  was determined by an ICP-OES spectrometer (Thermo, America). The concentration of sulfide was determined by the methylene blue method.

#### 2. Results and discussion

#### 2.1. Influence of reductive inorganics

The consumption of  $ClO_2$  and the production of  $ClO_2^-$  in the reaction of  $ClO_2$  with three reductive inorganics are shown in Fig. 1. As seen in Fig. 1a, the consumption of  $ClO_2$  increased with the rising concentration of reductive inorganics. As the concentration of  $S^{2-}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$  raised,  $ClO_2$  consumption increased rapidly until  $ClO_2$  was exhausted, and the reaction of  $S^{2-}$  was more significant. When  $Mn^{2+}$  was at low concentration, it was positively correlated with  $ClO_2$  consumption. However, when  $Mn^{2+}$  was greater than 0.4 mg/L, the increase of  $ClO_2$  consumption slowed.  $ClO_2$  was not exhausted when the initial concentration of  $Mn^{2+}$  was added to 6 mg/L. As shown in Fig. 1b, the change in the production of  $ClO_2^-$  was basically

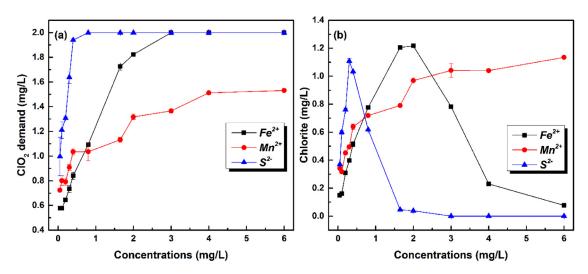


Fig. 1 – (a)  $ClO_2$  consumption and (b)  $ClO_2$  production with the changes of reductive inorganics concentrations.  $ClO_2$  2mg/L, pH 7, 25°C, 1hr.

consistent with the  ${\rm ClO_2}$  consumption in the  ${\rm Mn^{2+}}$  reaction system. On the contrary, the production of  ${\rm ClO_2^-}$  showed a trend of first increasing, and then decreasing in the Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> reaction system.

When  $ClO_2$  was in excess, the products of  $ClO_2$  oxidation of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  were mainly  $ClO_2^-$  (Appendix A Eqs. (S1) and (S2)). Since  $ClO_2$  will be over added in the disinfection process, the presence of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  in water may lead to the formation of  $ClO_2^-$ . However,  $S^{2-}$  could be oxidized to  $SO_4^{2-}$  (Csekö et al., 2018) in the reaction process, while  $Fe^{2+}$  can only be oxidized to  $Fe^{3+}$ . The relative atomic weight of S is lower than that of Fe, and thus, the change of  $S^{2-}$  became more obvious. When the concentrations of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  were excessive,  $ClO_2$  was completely consumed and then the  $ClO_2^-$  concentration began to decrease. This is because the extra  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  will continue to reduce  $ClO_2^-$  (Appendix A Eqs. (S3) and (S4)).

The dosage of  $ClO_2$  was fixed at 2mg/L in this experiment. According to the reaction equation, when the concentration of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  was up to 1.65 mg/L and 0.12 mg/L, respectively, in theory, it could react with  $ClO_2$  completely, and much lower than the concentration obtained in the experiment. However, within 1 hr of reaction time, the content of  $ClO_2^-$  generated by the self-decay of  $ClO_2$  was observed to be very low (Appendix A Fig. S3). It was indicated that the reactions of  $Fe^{2+}$ ,  $S^{2-}$  with  $ClO_2$  and  $ClO_2^-$  are synchronized, thus causing the inflection point to move backward. However, in the presence of  $ClO_2$ , the reaction Appendix A Eqs. (S1) and (S2) dominated the main reaction process.

Fe and Mn are two adjacent transition metal elements in the periodic table with similar atomic weight. However, both  $ClO_2$  consumption and  $ClO_2^-$  production at low concentration of  $Mn^{2+}$  were significantly higher than that of  $Fe^{2+}$ . This is because the product of  $Mn^{2+}$  after being oxidized by  $ClO_2$  is  $MnO_2$  (Appendix A Eqs. (S5)), while the  $Fe^{2+}$  maximum was oxidized to  $Fe^{3+}$ . Therefore,  $ClO_2$  consumption of  $Mn^{2+}$  at the same mass concentration of  $ClO_2$  was more than that of  $Fe^{2+}$ . Note that the growth of  $ClO_2$  consumption and  $ClO_2^-$  production slowed as the  $Mn^{2+}$  concentration continued to increase, and a downward trend in  $ClO_2^-$  did not appear. Numerous researchers have reported that  $MnO_2$  can have adsorption (Ap-

pendix A Eqs. (S6)) and catalytic oxidation (Appendix A Eqs. (S7)) on  $\rm Mn^{2+}$  (Chen et al., 2016). With the increase of  $\rm Mn^{2+}$  concentration, the amount of  $\rm MnO_2$  generated by  $\rm ClO_2$  oxidation increased, leading to enhance the capacity of adsorption and catalytic oxidation. The amount of  $\rm Mn^{2+}$  that can react with  $\rm ClO_2$  was reduced, resulting in a slower growth rate of  $\rm ClO_2$  consumption and  $\rm ClO_2^-$  production. At the same time, no obvious reaction between  $\rm Mn^{2+}$  and  $\rm ClO_2^-$  was reported (Steven, 2001), so excess  $\rm Mn^{2+}$  cannot lead to a decrease in  $\rm ClO_2^-$  production.

In addition, temperature (Appendix A Fig. S5) and pH (Appendix A Fig. S6) had a certain influence on the reaction of three reductive inorganics with ClO<sub>2</sub>. The oxidation capacity of ClO<sub>2</sub> enhanced as the temperature rose, while the amount of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production increased. However, the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production quantity began to decrease when the temperature was greater than 35°C, as ClO<sub>2</sub> self -decay intensifies and ClO<sub>2</sub> consumption rises when the temperature is too high. As the loss of ClO<sub>2</sub> due to self-decay increased, the amount of ClO2 that could react with the reductive substance decreased, leading to side reactions (Appendix A Eqs. (S3), (S4), (S6), (S7)) of ClO2 that became obvious. Meanwhile, the decay of ClO2 did not generate ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, then the amount of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> began to decrease. As the pH increased, Mn<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> promoted the formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, while the amount of  $ClO_2^-$  produced by  $Fe^{2+}$  decreased. This is because Fe<sup>2+</sup> will form Fe (OH)<sub>2</sub> with OH<sup>-</sup> under alkaline conditions, reducing the reactivity of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and ClO<sub>2</sub>. No precipitation was observed in the experiment of  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$ . Therefore, the influence of temperature and pH changes on ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production is also a factor to be considered when ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection is used in water plants.

#### 2.2. Influence of NOM

The consumption of  $ClO_2$  and the formation of  $ClO_2^-$  after the reaction with the four NOMs are shown in Fig. 2.

Among the four NOMs, HA and FA have similar properties. As the initial concentration of the two organics increased,  $ClO_2$  consumption gradually increased. When the TOC was approximately 4 mg/L,  $ClO_2$  was exhausted and the produc-

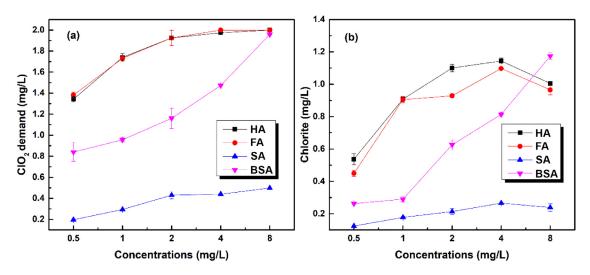


Fig. 2 - (a) ClO<sub>2</sub> consumption and (b) ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production with the changes of NOM concentrations. pH=7, 25°C, 1 hr.

tion of  $\text{ClO}_2^-$  reached the maximum. When the SA dosage was 8 mg/L, the production amount of  $\text{ClO}_2^-$  was only 0.24 mg/L. It can be considered that the presence of SA in the water cannot lead to the excess of  $\text{ClO}_2^-$ . The amount of  $\text{ClO}_2^-$  generated by BSA increased with the increase of TOC concentration, while  $\text{ClO}_2$  consumption and  $\text{ClO}_2^-$  production at low concentration were far lower than that of HA and FA. When the BSA concentration was up to 8 mg/L,  $\text{ClO}_2$  was exhausted completely and the highest  $\text{ClO}_2^-$  production was similar to that of HA and FA.

HA and FA are both humic substances with hydrophobicity (Bhatnagar et al., 2017), and the molecular weight of HA is higher than that of FA (Hiradate et al., 2006; Qin et al., 2015). From the molecular weight and hydrophilic classification experiment on HA water distribution (Appendix A Fig. S4), it was indicated that the proportion of strong hydrophobic substances decreased after the oxidation of ClO<sub>2</sub>, while that of weak hydrophobic substances and hydrophilic substances was opposite. The proportion of organic matter with molecular weight of >100KDa decreased, while the proportion of organic matter with molecular weight of 10-100KDa, 1–10KDa and <1KDa all increased. This indicated that the reaction between ClO2 and humus will convert large molecular weight organic matters into small molecular weight organic matters, and hydrophobic organic matters into hydrophilic organic matters, which is also consistent with the conclusion of Yang et al. (2013). However, the ClO<sub>2</sub>- produced by both of them began to decrease slightly with the increase of organic matter concentration in the case of excessive HA and FA, which may be due to the fact that ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> also has oxidation to a certain extent and will continue to react with the excess organic matter. As a polysaccharide, SA had the lowest reaction activity with ClO2 among the four NOMs, indicating that the presence of polysaccharide in water will not cause the increase of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. BSA is a globulin in bovine serum containing 582 amino acid residues and is generally used as a representative substance of proteins. However, ClO2 only modifies tyrosine and tryptophan residues, and cannot react with most amino acids. Therefore, the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> produced by BSA at the same TOC concentration was lower than HA and FA (Ogata, 2007; Zhang et al., 2008).

The amount of  $ClO_2^-$  generated in the reaction of  $ClO_2$  with HA increased initially, and then decreased with a rise of temperature, while the  $ClO_2^-$  generated by FA only decreased. The increase of temperature promoted the reaction between BSA and  $ClO_2$ . Due to the weak reaction between SA and  $ClO_2$ , the influence of temperature on SA was mainly from the self-decay of  $ClO_2$  at high temperature (Appendix A Fig. S7). Alkaline conditions facilitated the formation of  $ClO_2^-$  in the reactions of FA and SA with  $ClO_2$ , while the maximum  $ClO_2^-$  generation of HA and BSA were at neutral conditions. In general, the formation of  $ClO_2^-$  was inhibited under acidic conditions when  $ClO_2$  reacted with NOM. The effect of pH on NOM was less obvious than that of reductive inorganics (Appendix A Fig. S8).

#### 2.3. Comparison of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> formation potential

The ratio of  $ClO_2^-$  production to  $ClO_2$  consumption is defined as  $ClO_2^-$  yields in order to imply the ability of reductive substances to reduce  $ClO_2$  to  $ClO_2^-$ .

However, this parameter was not suitable when the reductive substances were at low concentrations. The self-decay of ClO<sub>2</sub> cannot be ignored when ClO<sub>2</sub> is excessive, and the selfdecay barely generated ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (Appendix A Fig. S2), leading to the low ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields. By comparing the maximum ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of reductive inorganics and NOM (Fig. 3a, 3b), the reductive inorganics were significantly higher than NOM. The maximum ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yield of reductive inorganics was more than 70%, while that of NOM was approximately 60%. Gan et al. (2019) selected 10 different HAs and measured their ClO<sub>2</sub>- yields, where most of them were around 60%, which is consistent with the conclusions obtained in this experiment. The yields of ClO<sub>2</sub>- were lower than that of NOM when Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> was excessive, because Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> could continue to reduce ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> after ClO<sub>2</sub> was exhausted. Although SA had the highest ClO<sub>2</sub>- yields at low concentrations, its reactivity with ClO2 was weak. Therefore, the significance of this indicator was still limited.

Fig. 3c and 3d represent the ratio of the production amount of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to the mass concentration of the reductive substance with the change of concentration, which can reflect the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> generating potential of the reductive substance per unit concentration. At low concentrations, the unit NOM and the reductive inorganics can produce more ClO<sub>2</sub>-. In the actual water plant disinfection process, ClO<sub>2</sub> would be over added to ensure the persistence of disinfection. Meanwhile, the WHO sets the maximum level of Fe and Mn at 0.3 and 0.1 mg/L, respectively, in drinking water, and the limit of sulfide is 0.05 mg/L (WHO, 2017). The limits of reductive inorganics are all at the low level in order to ensure that the reaction between reductive inorganics and ClO<sub>2</sub> is dominated by ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> generation. According to the limits of  $Fe^{2+}$  (0.3 mg/L),  $Mn^{2+}$  (0.1 mg/L) and  $S^{2-}$  (0.05 mg/L) in this experiment, it can be estimated from Fig. 2b that the production of  $ClO_2^-$  was approximately 0.40 mg/L, 0.32 mg/L and 0.37 mg/L, accounting for 57.1%, 45.7% and 52.9% of the effluent limit of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (0.7 mg/L), respectively. Therefore, the effect of reductive inorganics in water cannot be ignored. If the content of reductive inorganics was high, the level of inorganic DBPs of ClO<sub>2</sub> may exceed the standard limits.

#### 2.4. Effect of ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection on actual water samples

The effect of  ${\rm ClO_2}$  disinfection on actual water samples under the conditions of 1.5 and 2.5 mg/L dosage of  ${\rm ClO_2}$  are shown in Fig. 4.

When the  $ClO_2$  dosage was 1.5 mg/L, the  $ClO_2$  residue of the Yangtze river water, groundwater and pond water was 0.58 mg/L, 0.83 mg/L and under the detection limit, and the  $ClO_2$ -content was 0.49 mg/L, 0.53 mg/L and 0.95 mg/L, respectively.  $ClO_2$ - production of the pond water was higher than the relevant standard, and the reaction was not complete. When the  $ClO_2$  dosage increased to 2.5 mg/L, the  $ClO_2$  residue of the pond water reached 0.67 mg/L, and the  $ClO_2$ - concentration was up to 1.10mg/L, which was much higher than the  $ClO_2$ -production of the Yangtze river water and groundwater. However, the concentration of  $ClO_2$ - in the Yangtze river water and groundwater only increased by 0.02 mg/L and 0.06 mg/L, respectively, indicating that increasing the amount of  $ClO_2$ - when  $ClO_2$  is excessive. Thus, the amount of reducing substance in

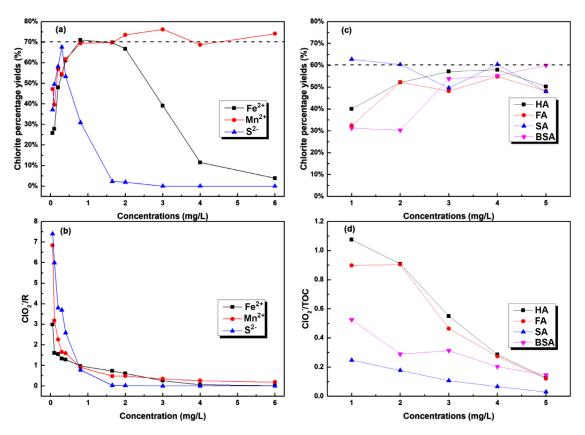


Fig. 3 – Trend of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields with concentration for (a) reductive inorganics and (c) NOM; The amount of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> produced by (b) reductive inorganics and (d) NOM at unit concentration. pH=7, 25°C, 1hr.

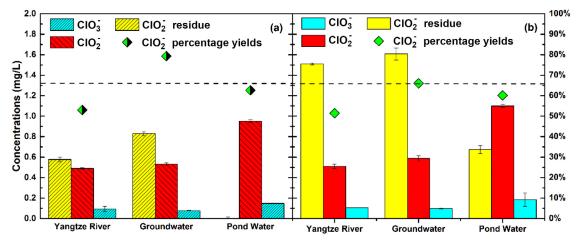


Fig. 4 – Trend of ClO<sub>2</sub> residue, ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, ClO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields during disinfection of Yangtze River water, groundwater and pond water when ClO<sub>2</sub> dosage was (a) 1.5 mg/L and (b) 2.5 mg/L respectively.

the water determined the formation of  $ClO_2^-$ . According to the three-dimensional fluorescence spectrum (Appendix A Fig. S9), the fluorescence peaks of dissolved organic substances in pond water were mainly in the range of Ex=200-250nm and Em=400-450nm, belonging to the category of FAs. Some fluorescence peaks fell between Ex=250-280nm and Em=450-550nm, belonging to HAs (Chen et al., 2003; Leenheer and

Croué, 2003). It was indicated that NOM was mainly composed of HA and FA in the pond water. Water quality analysis (Appendix A **Table S1**) showed that the pond water contained high levels of NOM and  $\mathrm{Mn^{2+}}$ . When the  $\mathrm{ClO_2}$  was used to disinfect water, it led to the formation of  $\mathrm{ClO_2^{-}}$  in large quantities. The organic components of Yangtze river water were similar to the pond water, but the TOC concentration was ob-

served to be only half of the pond water. Moreover, the Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup> concentrations of Yangtze river water were at a low level, so the formation of inorganic DBPs was markedly lower than the pond water. Although the TOC content in groundwater was only 0.30mg/L, its ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production was similar to the Yangtze river water due to the high content of Mn<sup>2+</sup>. Therefore, the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> of groundwater mainly came from the reaction of ClO<sub>2</sub> with the reductive inorganics, among which Mn<sup>2+</sup> played an important role. To compare the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of the three water samples, the groundwater was the highest, followed by the pond water and then the Yangtze river water. The research results confirmed that the reductive inorganics had stronger ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> formation potential than NOM. In addition, the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of groundwater were significantly reduced after increasing the amount of ClO2. This was because the higher the concentration of ClO2, the more ClO2 was consumed through self-decay (Appendix A Fig. S3), which declined the conversion ratio of ClO<sub>2</sub> to ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. However, since the  $\mathrm{Fe^{2+}}$  and  $\mathrm{S^{2-}}$  content in the water samples of the Yangtze river were higher than the groundwater, this can only highlight the role of  $Mn^{2+}$ . In order to confirm the role of  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$ , 0.05mg/L reductive inorganics were added into the Yangtze river water samples, respectively. The result (Appendix A Fig. S10) showed that  $S^{2-}$  generated the most  $ClO_2^-$ , while the least was Fe<sup>2+</sup> at the same increment. In addition, the ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of samples were all improved after adding the reductive inorganics, proving the effect of reductive inorganics on inducing ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> formation. Based on the analysis of three kinds of water samples of DBPs' formation, both NOM and reductive inorganics played an important role in the process of formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. The incidence of NOM and reductive inorganics on ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> formation needs to be further studied.

#### 3. Conclusion

The main conclusions are as follows: (1) Fe<sup>2+</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup> mainly react with ClO2 to generate ClO2- at low concentration, and ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is further reduced with the increase of concentration. The increase of Mn<sup>2+</sup> concentration will promote the formation of ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. Meanwhile, the product MnO<sub>2</sub> has adsorption and catalytic oxidation on Mn<sup>2+</sup>, which reduces the reaction efficiency of Mn<sup>2+</sup> and ClO<sub>2</sub>, and Mn<sup>2+</sup> with ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. (2) Among the four NOMs, HA, FA have the highest reactive activity with ClO<sub>2</sub>, followed by BSA, while SA hardly reacts with ClO<sub>2</sub>. (3) The maximum ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yield of the three reductive inorganics is greater than 70%. The maximum ClO<sub>2</sub>- yield of NOM is about 60%, lower than that of reductive inorganics. Reductive inorganics and NOM have higher ClO<sub>2</sub>- generating potential at low concentration. (4) Groundwater had the highest ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields because the content of its reductive inorganics Mn<sup>2+</sup> was the highest. The final ClO<sub>2</sub>- production of pond water was the highest due to its high Mn<sup>2+</sup> and the highest concentration of NOM. The ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> yields of the Yangtze river water were the lowest, but the final ClO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> production was close to the groundwater due to higher NOM content. The actual water sample disinfection results show that the generation of  ${\rm ClO_2}^-$  in the process of ClO<sub>2</sub> disinfection should be the result of the joint action of reductive inorganics and NOM.

#### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China (No. 2018YFD0900805) and the Practice Innovation Program of Postgraduates in Jiangsu Province (No. SJCX20\_0306).

#### Appendix A Supplementary data

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jes.2020.11.033.

#### REFERENCES

- Abdel-Rahman, M.S., Couri, D., Bull, R.J., 1985. Toxicity of chlorine dioxide in drinking water. J. Environ. Pathol. Toxicol. Oncol. 6 (1), 105–113.
- Aieta, E.M., Berg, J.D., 1986. A view of chlorine dioxide in drinking water treatment. AWWA 78, 62–73.
- Aiken, G.R., McKnight, D.M., Thorn, K.A., Thurman, E.M., 1992. Isolation of hydrophilic organic acids from water using nonionic macroporous resins. Org. Geochem. 18 (4), 567–573.
- APHA, 1998. Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater. Washington, DC.
- Baribeau, H., Prévost, M., Desjardins, R., Pierre, L., Donald, J.G., 2002. Chlorite and chlorate ion variability in distribution systems. J. Am. Water Work. Assoc. 94 (7), 96–105.
- Bhatnagar, A., Sillanpää, M., 2017. Removal of natural organic matter (NOM) and its constituents from water by adsorption-A review. Chemosphere 166, 497–510.
- Bond, T., Henriet, O., Goslan, E.H., Parsons, S.A., Jefferson, B., 2009. Disinfection byproduct formation and fractionation behavior of natural organic matter surrogates. Environ. Sci. Technol. 43 (15), 5982–5989.
- Chang, C.Y., Hsieh, Y.H, Shih, I.C., Hsu, S.S., Wang, K.H., 2000. The formation and control of disinfection by-products using chlorine dioxide. Chemosphere 41 (8), 1181–1186.
- Chen, L., Zhang, J.J., Zheng, X.L., 2016. Coupling technique for deep removal of manganese and iron from potable water. Environ. Eng. Sci. 33 (4), 261–269.
- Chen, W., Westerhoff, P., Leenheer, J.A., Booksh, Karl., 2003. Fluorescence excitation-emission matrixregional integration to quantify spectra for dissolved organic matter. Environ. Sci. Technol. 37 (24), 5701–5710.
- Choi, D.W., Lee, J.H., Chun, H.H., Song, K.B., 2012. Isolation of a calcium-binding peptide from bovine serum protein hydrolysates. Food Sci. Biotechnol. 21 (6), 1663–1667.
- Csekö, G., Pan, C.W., Gao, Q.Y., Horváth, A.K., 2018. Kinetics of the two-stage oxidation of sulfide by chlorine dioxide. Inorg. Chem. 57, 10189–10198.
- Dorthel, J., Jensk, B.S., Thomash, C., 1998. Speciation of Dissolved Iron(II) and Manganese(II) in a groundwater pollution plume. Environ. Sci. Technol. 32, 2657–2664.
- French, C.L., Yaun, S.S., Baldwin, L.A., Leonard, D.A., Zhao, X.Q., Calabrese, E.J., 1995. Potency ranking of methemoglobin-forming agents. J. Appl. Toxicol. 15 (3), 167–174.
- Gan, W.H., Huang, S.R., Ge, Y.X., Bond, T., Westerhoff, P., Zhai, J.X., et al., 2019. Chlorite formation during ClO<sub>2</sub> oxidation of model compounds having various functional groups and humic substances. Water Res. 159, 348–357.

- Gordon, G., Kieffer, R.G., Rosenblatt, D.H., 1972. The chemistry of chlorine dioxide. Prog. Inorgan. Chem. 15, 201–286.
- Hiradate, S., Yonezawa, T., Takesako, H., 2006. Isolation and purification of hydrophilic fulvic acids by precipitation. Geoderma 132 (1-2), 196–205.
- Jusoh, A.B., Cheng, W.H., Low, W.M., Nora'aini, A., Megat Mohd Noor, M.J., 2005. Study on the removal of iron and manganese in groundwater by granular activated carbon. Desalination 182 (1-3), 347–353.
- Katsoufidou, K.S., Sioutopoulos, D.C., Yiantsios, S.G., Karabelas, A.J., 2010. UF membrane fouling by mixtures of humic acids and sodium alginate: Fouling mechanisms and reversibility. Desalination 264 (3), 220–227.
- Leenheer, J.A., Croué, J.P., 2003. Characterizing aquatic dissolved organic matter. Environ. Sci. Technol. 37 (1), 18–26.
- Ogata, N., 2007. Denaturation of protein by chlorine dioxide: oxidative modification of tryptophan and tyrosine residues. Biochemistry 46, 1898–4911.
- Pomes, M.L., Green, W.R., Thurman, E.M., Orem, W.H., 1999. DBP formation potential of aquatic humic substances. J. Am. Water Work. Assoc. 91 (3), 103–115.
- Qin, X.P., Liu, F., Wang, G.C., Huang, G.X., 2015. Adsorption of humic acid from aqueous solution by hematite: effects of pH and ionic strength. Environ. Earth Sci. 73 (8), 4011–4017.
- Ramieri, E., Swietlik, J., 2010. DBPs control in European drinking water treatment plants using chlorine dioxide: two case studies. J. Environ. Eng. Landsc. Manag. 18 (2), 85–91.

- Reckhow, D.A., Singer, P.C., Malcolm, R.L., 1990. Chlorination of humic materials: byproduct formation and chemical interpretations. Environ. Sci. Technol. 24 (11), 1655–1664.
- Sorlini, S., Gialdini, F., Biasibetti, M., Collivignarelli, Carlo., 2014. Influence of drinking water treatments on chlorine dioxide consumption and chlorite/chlorate formation. Water Res. 54, 44–52.
- Steven, C., 2001. Optimization of manganese removal by filtration. In: AWWA Annual Conference, pp. 321–352.
- Swietlik, J., Dabrowska, A., Raczyk-Stanisławiak, U., Nawrocki, J., 2004. Reactivity of natural organic matter fractions with chlorine dioxide and ozone. Water Res. 38 (3), 547–558.
- USEPA, 2004. Drinking Water Health Advisory for Manganese. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Water, Washington, DC EPA-822-R-04-003.
- Veschetti, E., Cittadini, B., Maresca, D., Citti, G., Ottaviani, M., 2005. Inorganic by-products in waters disinfected with chlorine dioxide. Microchem. J. 79 (1-2), 165–170.
- WHO, 2017. Guidelines for drinking-water quality: fourth edition incorporating the first addendum.
- Yang, X., Guo, W.H., Lee, W., 2013. Formation of disinfection byproducts upon chlorine dioxide preoxidation followed by chlorination or chloramination of natural organic matter. Chemosphere 91 (3), 1477–1485.
- Zhang, G.W., Wang, A.P., Jiang, T., Guo, J.B., 2008. Interaction of the irisflorentin with bovine serum albumin: a fluorescence quenching study. J. Mol. Struct. 891 (1-3), 93–97.