



Short Communication

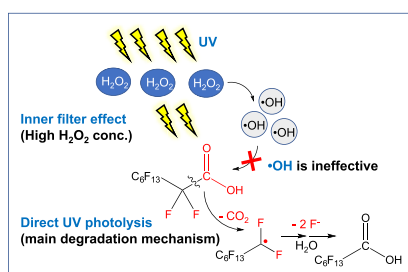
Discerning the inefficacy of hydroxyl radicals during perfluorooctanoic acid degradation

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Resolved ambiguity about the role of hydroxyl radicals in PFOA degradation by AOPs.
- Compared PFOA degradation by UV photolytic versus UV + H₂O₂ treatment systems.
- H₂O₂ may counterproductively consume UV irradiation and hinder PFOA photolysis.
- Hydroxyl radicals do not enhance or provide ancillary benefits to PFOA degradation.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) is a recalcitrant contaminant of emerging concern, and there is growing interest in advanced oxidation processes to degrade it. However, there is ambiguity in the literature about the efficacy of hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) for degrading PFOA. Here, we resolve this controversy by comparing PFOA degradation by UV photolysis (254 nm, 6×10^{-6} E/Ls) versus UV + H₂O₂, which produces $\cdot\text{OH}$. We optimized $\cdot\text{OH}$ production in a UV + H₂O₂ system using nitrobenzene (NB) as a $\cdot\text{OH}$ probe, but even under optimized conditions (i.e., 5 g/L H₂O₂), no significant difference occurred in PFOA removal by UV photolysis ($21.1 \pm 0.4\%$) versus UV + H₂O₂ ($19.7 \pm 0.7\%$) after 1-day treatment. Both treatments also resulted in similar daughter by-product concentrations and defluorination efficiencies ($9.5 \pm 1.7\%$ for UV photolysis and $6.8 \pm 1.0\%$ for UV + H₂O₂), which indicates that $\cdot\text{OH}$ is ineffective towards PFOA degradation and infers that other degradation mechanisms that are independent of $\cdot\text{OH}$ production should be explored.

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1. Introduction

Perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are a class of over 3000

industrial chemicals that are contaminants of emerging concern due to their potential for bioaccumulation and persistence (Gómez et al., 2011; Saleh et al., 2019; Suja et al., 2009). PFOA is a widely researched PFAS that was historically used in leather, paper packaging, aqueous film forming foams (AFFFs) and as an additive to aviation fluid (Lopes da Silva et al., 2017). PFOA can also be formed in the environment through natural degradation of perfluorinated

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precursors such as 8:2 fluorotelomer alcohols (Ellis et al., 2004; Ju et al., 2008; Vestergren et al., 2008). However, PFOA is relatively recalcitrant due to its abundant high-strength C–F bonds (116 kcal/mol) (Lin et al., 2012; Liou et al., 2010).

Several advanced oxidation and advanced reduction processes have been shown to degrade PFOA, including UV-Fenton (Tang et al., 2012), UV-Fe(III) (Liu et al., 2013), sonochemical (Cheng et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2015; Vecitis et al., 2008), catalyzed H₂O₂ propagation (CHP) reactions (Mitchell et al., 2014), electrochemical (Gomez-Ruiz et al., 2017; Le et al., 2019; Schaefer et al., 2017; Urtiaga et al., 2015; Zhuo et al., 2011), UV, peroxone and heat-activated S₂O₈²⁻ (Eberle et al., 2017; Hori et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2019), UV-SO₃²⁻ (Song et al., 2013), and reduction with solvated electrons (Park et al., 2009) and nano-scale zerovalent iron (NZVI) (Arvaniti et al., 2015; Hori et al., 2006). Some studies indicate that •OH may have an ancillary role in PFOA degradation. For example, tert-butyl alcohol (a •OH scavenger) decreased the PFOA defluorination efficiency in a UV-Fenton treatment system (Tang et al., 2012). Similarly, we observed that other •OH scavengers hinder PFOA defluorination in the presence of UV and Fe(III) (Liu et al., 2013). In these systems, •OH was proposed to enhance PFOA degradation by either initiating PFOA decarboxylation (pathway 3, Figure S1) or by accelerating the conversion of intermediate perfluorinated organic radical to perfluorinated alcohol (pathway 4, Figure S1). Several other groups have also shown that •OH may assist PFOA degradation (Chen et al., 2016, 2015; 2011; Gomez-Ruiz et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2016b; Lin et al., 2012; Song et al., 2012). However, other studies indicate that •OH is ineffective in degrading PFOA (Hori et al., 2004; Szajdzinska-Pietek and Gebicki, 2000).

This paper seeks to clarify ambiguity in the literature about the role of •OH in PFOA degradation. UV + H₂O₂ is a well-known advanced oxidation process (AOP) that relies primarily on •OH generation (Khan et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2009). We gain insights into the role of •OH in PFOA degradation by comparing UV photolytic treatment versus UV + H₂O₂, using nitrobenzene (NB) as •OH probe to optimize H₂O₂ concentrations. Furthermore, we report electrical energy per order (EE/O) for our reactions to facilitate energy requirement comparisons with other studies.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Perfluorooctanoic acid (95% purity), perfluoroheptanoic acid (99% purity), perfluorohexanoic acid (≥97% purity), perfluoropentanoic acid (97% purity), perfluorobutanoic acid (98% purity), perfluoropropanoic acid (97% purity), nitrobenzene (≥99% purity) and fluoride standard (TraceCERT®, 1000 mg/L in water) were purchased from Millipore Sigma. Hydrogen peroxide 30% (w/v) was purchased from Fisher Scientific.

2.2. PFOA degradation using UV photolysis versus UV + H₂O₂ AOP

UVC irradiation experiments were carried out in a photoreactor that has been previously described (Lee et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Briefly, six 4W-UVC emission (254 nm) lamps (Sankyo Denki, G4T5) were used as irradiation source for PFOA degradation experiments. For UV photolytic tests, 40 mL of 1 mg/L PFOA were added to a 50 mL quartz beaker and irradiated under continuous stirring. For UV + H₂O₂ AOP tests, varying H₂O₂ concentrations (0.5, 5, 30 and 300 g/L) were amended to the PFOA solution before irradiation. The irradiation time ranged from 1 to 3 days. A wide range of H₂O₂ concentrations were used (0.5–5 g/L) to include concentrations that are typically used by researchers for UV-Fenton

and UV-H₂O₂ processes (Bali et al., 2004; Neamtu et al., 2002; Ruppert et al., 1994; Tang et al., 2012). We also used a 30 g/L H₂O₂ treatment (which may be too high for practical application) to benchmark against a previous study (Hori et al., 2004) and gain insight into potential inhibitory inner filter effects.

2.3. Optimization of H₂O₂ concentration using NB as •OH probe

A 40-mL aliquot of 100 mg/L NB containing varying concentrations of H₂O₂ (0.5 g/L, 1 g/L, 5 g/L, 10 g/L and 300 g/L) was added to a quartz beaker and irradiated for 30 min. Samples were analyzed at 10, 20 and 30 min intervals. •OH steady state concentration was calculated using the integrated form of pseudo first-order kinetics (Varanasi et al., 2018):

$$-\ln([\text{NB}]_t/[\text{NB}]_0) = k_{\text{OH,NB}}[\text{•OH}]_{\text{ss}} \times t \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

Where [NB]_t and [NB]₀ are NB concentrations at time 0 s and t s, respectively; k_{OH,NB} is the reaction rate constant between •OH and NB, which is 3.2 × 10⁹ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Varanasi et al., 2018); and [•OH]_{ss} is the steady state •OH concentration (M), which is thus calculated from Equation (1) as the slope of negative ln(NB_t/NB₀) versus time divided by k_{OH,NB} (Figure S2).

2.4. Light intensity measurements

Light intensity in the photoreactor was measured using ferric oxalate actinometry (Bolton et al., 2011). The photon flux in the reactor was 6 × 10⁻⁶ E/L.s (2.1 mJ/cm². s) corresponding to net irradiation power of 0.114 W. Light penetration experiments were conducted in LED-L16 photoreactor (Luzchem) equipped with six 7.2 W UVC (254 nm) lamps (G8T5,USHIO) which provided vertical illumination from the top. The UVC light intensity was measured using UVX Digital Radiometer (UVP). A 100-mL quartz beaker containing 40 mL solutions of varying H₂O₂ concentrations (0 g/L, 0.5 g/L, 5 g/L, 10 g/L and 300 g/L) was placed on the radiometer detector and irradiated. Light intensity readings were recorded after a 3-min stabilization period.

2.5. EE/O and F⁻ calculations

The EE/O (kWh/m³·order) was calculated as:

$$EE / O = \frac{P \times \left(\frac{t}{60}\right) \times 1000}{V \times \log\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

where P is the actinometrically determined power (kW), V is the irradiated volume (L), C and C₀ are concentrations of PFOA at time t min and 0 min, respectively.

The PFOA defluorination efficiency (%) was calculated as:

$$\text{Defluorination efficiency (\%)} = \frac{[\text{F}^-] \text{ released}}{\text{Total } [\text{F}] \text{ originally in PFOA}} \times 100 \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

2.6. Analytical methods

PFOA and its degradation by-products were analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography (Agilent 1200, Agilent Technologies) using a C18 column (Ascentis Express, 2.7 μm, 15 cm × 2.1 mm) and mass detector (MicroTOF, Bruker). The mobile

phase was 60% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid and 40% water with 0.1% formic acid. The flow rate was 0.35 mL/min and the column was maintained at 80 °C. NB was analyzed using a HPLC (LC20AT, Shimadzu) equipped with a C-18 column (Atlantis, 3 μm, 3.9 mm × 150 mm) and an UV–Vis photodiode array detector (SPD-M20A, Shimadzu). 60% acetonitrile and 40% water were used as the mobile phase with 1 mL/min flow rate. Fluoride (F⁻) was measured using an ion chromatography (IC) system (Dionex Aquion) equipped with an anion-exchange column (Dionex, RFICTM IonPacTM AS23 column, 4 × 250 mm), and a conductivity detector (Dionex, DS6 heated conductivity cell). The mobile phase was an aqueous solution containing sodium carbonate (4.5 mM) and sodium bicarbonate (0.8 mM) at an isocratic flow rate of 1 mL/min.

All experiments were replicated, and single factor ANOVA was used to determine whether differences in results were statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

3. Results and discussion

NB was used as a •OH probe to optimize the H₂O₂ concentration and maximize •OH production in our photoreactor (Li et al., 2017; Varanasi et al., 2018). A concentration of 5 g/L H₂O₂ resulted in the highest •OH production, removing 94 ± 0.2% of 100 mg/L NB within 30 min under UV irradiation (Fig. 1). This corresponded to a steady state •OH concentration of 4.56 × 10⁻¹³ ± 3.84 × 10⁻¹⁵ M (Table S1). H₂O₂ concentrations greater than 5 g/L were counterproductive to •OH generation due to potential scavenging of both •OH and UV light (inner filter effect) by H₂O₂ (Buxton et al., 1988; Nienow et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2009). This was corroborated by light penetration experiments, which revealed that higher H₂O₂ concentrations significantly hindered light penetration across the aqueous solution (Figure S3). Subsequently, 1-day UV irradiation experiments were conducted to compare PFOA removal by UV photolysis and UV + H₂O₂ AOP at optimized H₂O₂ concentrations to evaluate the efficacy of •OH for PFOA degradation.

Under optimized H₂O₂ amendment (5 g/L), •OH did not enhance PFOA removal by UV (Fig. 2). Removal efficiencies were 19.7 ± 0.7% for optimized UV + H₂O₂ AOP versus 21.1 ± 0.4% for treatment by UV photolysis. This indicates that direct photolysis was the main PFOA degradation mechanism. Further evidence of the insignificant role of •OH was provided by by-product analysis, where the three

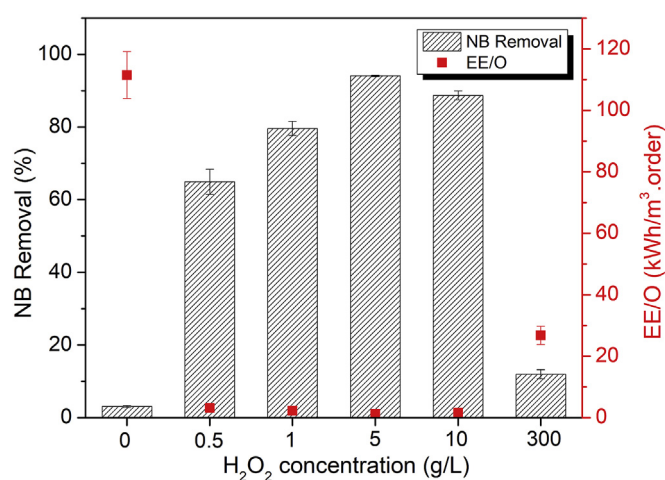


Fig. 1. Optimization of H₂O₂ concentration using NB as •OH probe. The optimum H₂O₂ concentration was about 5 g/L H₂O₂, which removed 94 ± 0.2% NB (100 mg/L) after 30 min UV irradiation (2.1 mJ/cm²·s) with an EE/O of 1.23 ± 0.01 kWh/m³·order. Inner-filter effect, and consumption of •OH by H₂O₂ scavenging and •OH self-recombination made concentrations greater than 5 g/L ineffective.

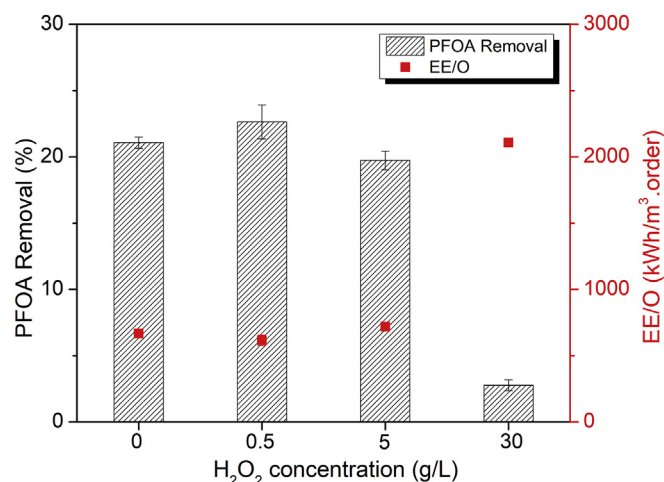


Fig. 2. PFOA (1 mg/L) degradation by UV photolysis and UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 g/L, 5 g/L or 30 g/L) AOP after 1-day UV irradiation. UV photolysis and UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 g/L, 5 g/L and 30 g/L) AOP removed 21.1 ± 0.4%, 22.6 ± 1.3%, 19.7 ± 0.7% and 2.8 ± 0.4% PFOA, respectively. No statistically significant difference ($F < F_{crit}$ and $p > 0.05$, ANOVA) in PFOA removal was observed between UV photolysis and UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 g/L or 5 g/L) treatments.

treatment processes (UV photolysis, and UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 or 5 g/L)) yielded identical concentrations of C4, C5, C6 and C7 daughter by-products (Table 1). In addition, no statistically significant difference ($F < F_{crit}$ and $p > 0.05$) was found between the defluorination efficiencies for the three treatment processes (Table 2). The consistent extent of PFOA degradation observed at different H₂O₂ concentrations (0 g/L, 0.5 g/L and 5 g/L) corroborates that, regardless of matrix differences and effective irradiation dose, direct UV photolysis was the main PFOA degradation mechanism and that •OH played an insignificant role. Complete F⁻ mass balance was achieved in our treatment systems with F⁻ ion, shorter-chain daughter by-products, and PFOA accounting for 97%–108% of the total F⁻ in the system (Text S1 and Table S2).

PFOA degradation at an impractically high H₂O₂ concentration (30 g/L) was also investigated to benchmark against a previous study (Hori et al., 2004) and more easily illustrate potential inhibitory effects associated with the high molar absorptivity of H₂O₂ at 254 nm. UV + H₂O₂ (30 g/L) was counter-productive to PFOA degradation as excess H₂O₂ caused ineffective UV irradiation due to an inner filter effect that hindered UV penetration (Figure S3) and PFOA photolysis (Fig. 2 and Table 1). This illustrates a potential drawback about efforts to intensify AOPs by increasing the H₂O₂ dose.

In this study, PFOA treatment efficiencies were compared for UV

Table 1

Concentrations of PFOA degradation by-products in UV and UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 g/L, 5 g/L and 30 g/L) treatment systems after 1-day UV irradiation.

Sample	PFOA Byproduct Concentration (mg/L)				
	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7
Photolysis 1 day	ND	BQL	BQL	0.023 ± 0.002	0.146 ± 0.012
UV + H ₂ O ₂ (0.5 g/L) 1 day	ND	BQL	BQL	0.022 ± 0.002	0.156 ± 0.006
UV + H ₂ O ₂ (5 g/L) 1 day	ND	BQL	BQL	0.022 ± 0.005	0.169 ± 0.009
UV + H ₂ O ₂ (30 g/L) 1 day	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.012 ± 0.006

BQL = Below quantification limit (0.01 mg/L); ND = Not detected (LOD = 0.003 mg/L).

Table 2

PFOA defluorination efficiencies following treatment by UV photolysis or UV + H₂O₂ (0.5 or 5 g/L) AOP after 1-day UV irradiation.

Samples	Defluorination efficiency (%)
Photolysis 1 day	9.5 ± 1.7*
UV + H ₂ O ₂ (0.5 g/L) 1 day	6.9 ± 0.9*
UV + H ₂ O ₂ (5 g/L) 1 day	6.8 ± 1.0*

* No statistically significant difference ($F < F_{crit}$ and $p > 0.05$, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)).

Limit of detection (LOD) for F⁻ was 0.015 mg/L. Defluorination efficiencies could not be determined for higher concentrations due to interference by residual H₂O₂.

photolysis and UV + H₂O₂ AOP under constant UV exposure times (instead of constant UV dose) in order to lend practical applicability to our results and demonstrate that (under similar contact times) (1) amendment of H₂O₂ does not enhance PFOA degradation due to the inefficacy of hydroxyl radicals, and (2) high H₂O₂ concentrations can be inhibitory to PFOA degradation due to UV light scavenging by H₂O₂. Others studies have also used constant exposure times to compare treatment efficiency and generated radical concentrations in photochemical systems (Hori et al., 2004; Li et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2012; Varanasi et al., 2018).

Possible PFOA degradation pathways in the presence of •OH under UV irradiation are shown in Fig. 3 (Hori et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2012). The UV photolytic degradation of PFOA is most likely initiated by C–C scission through Photo-Kolbe decarboxylation reaction (pathway 2) (Hori et al., 2004, 2002; Huang et al., 2016a). This forms •C₇F₁₅ which may be converted to shorter-chain perfluorinated carboxylic acid daughter by-product, C₆F₁₃COOH (C7) via hydrolysis of an unstable perfluorinated alcohol intermediate (C₇F₁₅OH) (Hori et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2013; Nohara et al., 2001). Hence, PFOA is converted to C7 by loss of a CF₂ unit. Further degradation of C7 may proceed via loss of another CF₂ unit (Wang et al., 2008). This stepwise degradation of PFOA via successive losses of CF₂ units is corroborated by analysis of degradation by-products where concentrations of perfluorinated

daughter by-products also follow a successive order i.e.: [C3] < [C4] < [C5] < [C6] < [C7] (Hori et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2008). The •OH could theoretically assist the PFOA degradation by either initiating decarboxylation (pathway 1) or by accelerating the conversion of intermediate perfluorinated radical to perfluorinated alcohol (pathway 3). However, our study shows that the contribution of •OH through either of these pathways is insignificant because UV irradiation alone was as effective as when the •OH concentration was maximized in the UV + H₂O₂ treatment.

Overall, this study shows that direct photolysis of PFOA by UV irradiation is the primary degradation mechanism during treatment by UV + H₂O₂ AOP, and infers that treatment processes that consume too much of the incident UV irradiation to produce •OH (e.g., H₂O₂ amendment) are counter-productive to PFOA degradation due to hindered photolysis. Therefore, future work on PFOA degradation should explore other mechanisms independent of •OH production. Furthermore, past studies reporting enhanced PFOA degradation by •OH must be re-examined to determine whether •OH may participate indirectly in other pertinent processes, such as enhanced regeneration of Fe(III) in UV-Fenton and UV + Fe(III) systems.

Associated content

Supporting Information includes: (1) F⁻ mass balance calculations and further details on EE/O calculations. (2) Figures of PFOA degradation mechanism in UV-Fenton and UV-Fe(III) treatment systems, -ln(NB_t/NB₀) versus time plots for NB degradation, light penetration experiments, and PFOA degradation by UV + H₂O₂ (300 g/L) over 3-day UV exposure. (3) Tables of •OH concentrations at different H₂O₂ concentrations, and F⁻ mass balance.

CRedit author statement

Hassan Javed: contributed intellectual input to this study, Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing - original draft. Cong Lyu: contributed intellectual input to this study, Methodology, Investigation. Ruonan Sun: contributed intellectual input to this study, Investigation. Danning Zhang: contributed intellectual input to this study, Investigation, Visualization. Pedro J.J. Alvarez: contributed intellectual input to this study, Conceptualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing - review & editing.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.125883>.

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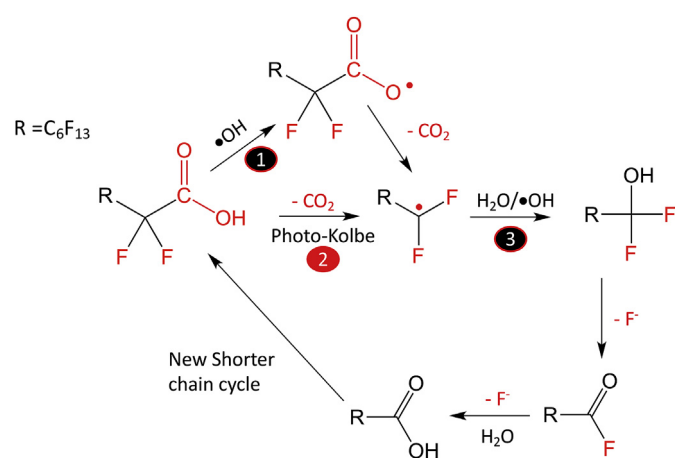


Fig. 3. Proposed PFOA degradation pathway in UV and UV + H₂O₂ treatment systems. The degradation mechanism is adapted from Hori et al., Liu et al. and Tang et al. (Hori et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2012). In UV photolytic process, PFOA degradation is initiated by C–C scission via Photo-Kolbe decarboxylation (pathway 2). In UV + H₂O₂ AOP, •OH has been proposed to enhance PFOA degradation by either initiating decarboxylation (pathway 1) or by accelerating the conversion of perfluorinated organic radical to perfluorinated alcohol (pathway 3) (Liu et al., 2013). Contribution of •OH in enhancing PFOA removal via pathways 1 and 3 was insignificant in this study.

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