1	A comparison of the electrolysis of soil washing wastes with
2	active and non-active electrodes.
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14	Abstract
15	A comparison between the performance of electrolysis of three different soil-washing
16	wastes with platinum and boron doped diamond (BDD) anodes is carried out in this work.
17	Results demonstrate that the treatment is more efficient with BDD for perchloroethylene
18	and clopyralid but not for the case of lindane, because in this case there is a competitive
19	oxidation between lindane and Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate used to extract this pollutant
20	from soil. First order kinetics are observed in each compound with higher removal at the
21	early stages and generally better results are obtained when using BDD as anode. The
22	evolution of pH and a voltammetry study indicate a higher direct oxidation rate in the
23	case of platinum and more importance of hydroxyl radical mediated processes with
24	diamond anodes. Similar speciation is obtained during the electro-oxidation using BDD
25	and platinum electrodes although the concentration of intermediates vary significantly.

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28	Keywords
29	Perchloroethylene; clopyralid; lindane; soil washing; anodic oxidation
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31	Highlights
32	• Important differences between electrolysis of SWF with diamond and platinum
33	anodes
34	• More important direct electrolysis processes with platinum electrodes
35	• More important hydroxyl radical mediated processes with diamond electrodes
36	• Intermediates found were nearly the same, although the concentration differs
37	importantly
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39	

40 **1. Introduction**

Occurrence of chlorinated hydrocarbons in environment is an issue of the major significance. They can be associated to industrial or agricultural activities and because of its anthropogenic nature and properties (such as high volatility and strong recalcitrance to degradation), the potentiality of damages that they can cause in the environment when they are discharged accidentally is extremely high (Huang et al., 2014; Rodrigo et al., 2014).

One of the most effective treatments for acute spills of pollutants is soil washing. It allows 47 the fast removal of the pollutants from soil preventing their diffusion. As it is widely 48 49 reported, soil washing is not a complete treatment, but it only transfers pollution from soil 50 to a liquid (soil washing fluid) that must be further treated. As pollutants separated from soil are typically refractory to biological treatments, Electrochemical advanced oxidation 51 52 processes (EAOPs) are the technologies used to remove these species from the liquid 53 waste. Among them, anodic oxidation uses to exhibit a good performance, in particular, when considering that soil washing effluents contains naturally salts (also extracted from 54 soil) and, hence, that they can be treated as produced, without the addition of reagents. 55 56 Thus, there are many works in the literature describing successful applications of this 57 technology (Mousset et al., 2014a; Mousset et al., 2014b, c; Huguenot et al., 2015; Trellu 58 et al., 2016a; Trellu et al., 2016b).

59 When speaking about anodic oxidation, there are two different processes which are 60 related to the anode material employed. Some types of anodes, such as platinum, lead to 61 a soft oxidation with the production of a very large number of intermediates (including 62 sometimes polymers) and not very high mineralization efficient. (Pulgarin et al., 1994; 63 Subba Rao and Venkatarangaiah, 2014) In a pioneering work of Comninellis (Foti et al., 64 1999), these electrodes were named as active electrodes and their performance was

explained in terms of the use of the hydroxyl radicals (formed during oxidation of water) 65 for the oxidation of the surface of the anode which, in turn, was the main responsible for 66 the oxidation of the pollutant. Thus, the oxidation of the pollutant was a simple chemical 67 reaction between a component of the electrode surface in a higher oxidation state and the 68 pollutant. On the contrary, the anodic oxidation carried out by other anodes such as those 69 based on conductive diamond coatings (so-called non-active electrodes) was much more 70 efficient. It was explained in terms of the lack of possibilities of interactions between the 71 72 surface of these electrodes and the hydroxyl radicals formed during the oxidation of the water molecule. Thus, once produced and during their very low lifetime, hydroxyl 73 74 radicals cannot combine with the species contained in the surface but only with those 75 contained in wastewater, promoting complete oxidation of the organics to CO₂ (Panizza and Cerisola, 2009). Among them, it is not only important to consider the pollutants but 76 77 also ions such as sulfate, phosphate or carbonate that can be transformed into longerlifetime oxidants, which expands the oxidation region from the very nearness of the 78 electrode surface to the bulk (Cañizares et al., 2009). In addition, hydroxyl radical can be 79 recombined to form hydrogen peroxide and oxygen and it can also oxidize oxygen and 80 form ozone, resulting in the production of a very efficient oxidation cocktail, as it is 81 82 pointed out by many researchers (Canizares et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2019).

In the literature, there are works focused on the comparison of the performance of active and non-active electrodes from the late nineties of the last century, which have been extensively discussed in recent reviews (Sirés et al., 2014; Martinez-Huitle et al., 2015; Martínez-Huitle and Panizza, 2018). However, most of them are related to synthetic wastewater with only one electrolyte (mainly sulfate or chloride) and they have a mechanistic interest. To the knowledge of the authors, no previous comparison has been made with the fluid obtained after washing soil directly with a suitable soil washing fluid.

In this work, the performance of the anodic oxidation of soil washing effluents polluted 90 91 with perchloroethylene, clopyralid and lindane with platinum and boron doped diamond 92 electrodes is compared. The treatment of these wastes by anodic oxidation was exhaustively studied with boron doped diamond, finding that it was an efficient treatment 93 in which the interactions of the pollutant with the waste matrix are a point of the major 94 significance (Cotillas et al., 2017; Muñoz-Morales et al., 2017; Muñoz-Morales et al., 95 2019). Opposite we did not evaluate platinum before, as the treatment expectations were 96 much poorer according to previous works of other authors. So, the aim of this work is not 97 to describe these treatments but to shed light on the mechanisms involved in the processes 98 99 and clarify which of the two types of electrolysis exhibits better performance for this 100 innovative advanced oxidation process.

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- 102 2. Materials and methods
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104 2.1 Chemical Products

105 Perchloroethylene (PCE, $C_2Cl_4 > 99\%$), was chosen as a volatile and non-polar pollutant, lindane (C₆H₆Cl₆, 97%) as a model of non-volatile and non-polar species and clopyralid 106 107 (99 %) as a model of non-volatile and polar compound. These three chlorinated 108 hydrocarbons were obtained from Sigma Aldrich and they were used as received. Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS, 99% by Sigma Aldrich) has been used as solubilizing agent. 109 110 Hexane (C₆H₁₄, 97%) was used to solubilize PCE and Lindane during the pollution process. The hydrophobic lubricant oil Serie FORTE was obtained from Josval 111 112 (Zaragoza, Spain) and it was used to mix with perchloroethylene and pollute the soil. Hexane and ethyl acetate (HPLC grade) were obtained from VWR INTERNATIONAL 113 EUROLAB S.L (Barcelona- Spain) and they were used as extraction solvent of 114

perchloroethylene and lindane respectively for using Gas Chromatography with an
electron capture detector (GC-ECD). Methanol and formic acid were obtained from VWR
INTERNATIONAL EUROLAB S.L. Double deionized water (Millipore Milli-Q System,
resistivity: 18.2 MΩ cm at 25 °C) was also used.

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120 2.2 Analytical Techniques

121 To determine the concentration of non-polar pesticides (perchloroethylene and lindane) and their intermediates in liquid phase an extraction process was used before the analysis. 122 This process was carried out in separator flasks of 10 cm³ using hexane and ethyl acetate 123 124 respectively. The ratio chlorinated organic vs solvent was 3:1 for PCE and 1:1 for lindane. 125 After that, all samples extracted from electrolyzed solution were filtered with 0.25 µm 126 nylon filters before analysis by GC ECD (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using analytical 127 column using a TG-5MS capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm 0.25 mm), 63 Ni microelectron capture detector, a split/splitless injector and ChromCard Software. Under these 128 conditions the limit of detection was 0.25 mg dm⁻³ for PCE and 0.1 mg dm⁻³ for lindane. 129 130 The flow rate of gas He was 1.0 cm³ min⁻¹. The temperature of the oven was programmed as follows: 50 °C for 1 minute, ramp at 10 °C min⁻¹ to reach 260 °C followed by 2 minutes 131 132 hold. The temperature of the injector was 260 °C. The concentration of the clopyralid and intermediates were quantified by HPLC (Agilent 1200 series) using a ZORBAX Eclipse 133 Plus5 C18 analytical column with a limit of detection of 0.5 mg dm⁻³. The mobile phase 134 135 consisted of 30% methanol / 70% water with 0.1% of formic acid (flow rate: 0.8 mL min⁻ ¹). The detection wavelength of Diode Array Detector (DAD) was 280 nm, the 136 137 temperature was maintained 25 °C and the injection volume was 20 µL. The concentration of carboxylic acids was quantified by HPLC (Agilent 1100 series) filtering with 0.22 µm 138 Nylon Supelco filters before analysis using a Hi-Flex H, 300x7.7mm analytical column. 139

The mobile phase consisted of H_2SO_4 solution (5mM) (flow rate: 0.5 mL min⁻¹). The 140 141 detection wavelength of DAD was 210 nm, the temperature was maintained 35 °C and the injection volume was 100 µL. The total organic carbon (TOC) concentration was 142 monitored using a Multi N/C 3100 Analytic Jena analyzer. Measurements of pH and 143 conductivity were measured using a CRISON pH25+ and CRISON CM35+. The 144 145 colorimetric method used to determine the concentration of the SDS surfactant has been 146 described elsewhere (Jurado et al., 2006). Finally, the anions present in the wastewater were characterized using an Ion Chromatograph with a Shimadzu LC-20A system. 147

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149 **2.3. Voltammetry experiments**

Voltammetric measurements were carried out in an Autolab potentiostat/galvanostat 150 controlled with the Nova 2.0. Software. All the electrochemical experiments were 151 152 conducted at room temperature in a three-electrode single-compartment glass cell, using a 3 cm² working electrode of p-Si/BDD (doped with 500 ppm B; 250 of sp³/sp² ratio) 153 obtained from Adamant Technologies (Switzerland) or platinum (99,9% purity). An 154 155 Ag/AgCl (3.0 M KCl) were used as reference electrode. Voltammetry experiments were performed in unstirred solutions (150 cm³). BDD and platinum were anodically polarized 156 157 during 5 min with a 1 M H₂SO₄ solution at 0.1 A prior to each experiment.

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159 2.4. Preparation of polluted soil and soil-washing fluid

160 The soil used in this study was obtained from a quarry located in Toledo (Spain). This 161 soil is characterized by its inertness, low hydraulic conductivity $(10^{-8} \text{ cm s}^{-1})$ and lack of 162 organic content. Procedure for soil contamination and soil washing is extensively describe 163 in previous works of our group (Cotillas et al., 2017; Muñoz-Morales et al., 2017)

165 **2.5. Experimental set-up**

Surfactant-Aided Soil Washing (SASW) effluents were treated by anodic using a bench-166 167 scale stirred electrochemical setup. P-Si Boron doped diamond (500 ppm of boron concentration and 250 of sp³/sp² ratio) or platinum electrodes (99.9% purity Metrohm) 168 were used as anodes and graphite as cathode. The surface of the electrodes were 3 cm^2 . 169 170 The electrical current was applied using a Delta Electronika ES030 (0-30 V, 0-10 A) and the electrolysis were carried out galvanostatically at 300 A m^{-2} . Prior to use in 171 galvanostatic electrolysis assays, the electrode was polarized for 10 min in a 0.035 M 172 Na₂SO₄ solution at 150 A m⁻² to remove any impurities from its surface. Temperature 173 174 was kept constant (25 °C) using a thermo-regulated water bath.

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176 **3. Results and Discussion**

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The first stage in the treatment of the soils studied in this work consists of the extraction of pollutants using a soil washing fluid (SWF). This operation has been extensively described in previous papers of our group. Thus, as already explained in those previous works (Saez et al., 2010; dos Santos et al., 2016; Muñoz-Morales et al., 2017; Vieira dos Santos et al., 2017), this is a critical stage in the overall remediation process and reaching high efficiencies depends on:

184 1) the application of intense mixing conditions during the soil washing process and,

185 2) the use of a suitable concentration of surfactant reagent which helps to drag thepollutant from soil, in the case of pollutants with low solubility in water.

Fig. 1 shows the extraction efficiency of three chlorinated hydrocarbons tested and confirms this information by showing that clopyralid can be completely exhausted from soil without the need of surfactant by using ratios SWF soil⁻¹ of only 2.5 L kg⁻¹, while the

190 concentration of surfactant (SDS) added influences on different ways with the other two191 pollutants studied, which have a much lower solubility in water.



Fig. 1. (a) Extraction efficiency of chlorinated hydrocarbons in the liquid wastes and (b)
volume of soil washing fluid recovered after the soil washing process using different
ratios surfactant soil with similar mixing conditions. Perchloroethylene (black bars);
lindane (white bars) and clopyralid (grey bars).

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198 In the case of PCE, the higher the dose applied, the higher is the extraction efficiency attained, reaching the almost complete exhaustion with a dose of 0.1 g SDS g^{-1} soil. 199 200 Opposite, in the case of lindane, a more complex relationship is observed, although the 201 efficiency is lower, mainly because of the higher solubility of PCE in water. The 202 surfactant promotes the extraction of lindane, but it remains mainly in the interphase with 203 the micelles formed by soil and surfactant. Thus, the clarified phase does not show a direct 204 relationship with the dose of SDS and, in fact, higher dose seems lower lindane contained 205 in the upper phase, because it is concentrated in the interphase, which was kept with the 206 soil. This behavior is caused by the complex interaction of the surfactant with the pollutant and soil. However, considering the further electrolysis process, upper phase is 207 208 the most useful to study the differences of depletion of lindane with BDD and Pt anodes and it was the phase used for later stages of this work. At this point, it is worth to consider 209

the SWF retained in the soil after the treatment depends on the amount of surfactant dosed and, in this case, there is a direct relationship between the water that can be retained, and the amount of surfactant added. For an efficient treatment, the lower the amount of SWF retained the better is the performance of the overall process.

214 After the extraction, the soil washing fluid becomes a highly polluted waste (soil washing wastes, SWW) with a high concentration of ions extracted from soil and a conductivity 215 216 that is always over 1 mS cm⁻¹, high enough to undergo electrolysis at a suitable cell 217 voltage without the necessity of adding salts. By applying electrolysis with diamond and platinum electrodes, the expected first-order decays already discussed in the literature 218 219 were obtained. However, here we are focusing on the comparison of the performance among different pollutants and electrodes. Thus, Fig. 2a, compares the removal of 220 pollutants (mg) and the electrical efficiencies (mmol Ah⁻¹) reached for an arbitrarily 221 222 selected applied electric charge passed of 1.05 Ah and Fig. 2b for a larger applied charge of 3.30 Ah. It was chosen these 2 values to compare the efficiencies of the process with 223 the applied electric charge. 224

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Fig. 2. Total removal of pollutants from the SWW after applying an arbitrarily electric charge of (a) 1.05 Ah and (b) 3.30 Ah. Platinum anodes (black bars), BDD anodes (white bars). J= 300 A m^{-2} ; V= 150 cm^{3} .

As seen, in all cases the efficiency in the removal of the pollutant decreases during 231 232 operation. That is, it is more efficient the degradation in the first moments of the 233 electrolysis, and this behavior can be explained in terms of the well-known first order kinetic undergone by the pollutants during electrolysis (Aquino et al., 2014; Sopaj et al., 234 235 2015), which reflects on a linear dependence on the concentration. In addition, there are important differences between the removals of the different pollutants. Clopyralid is 236 237 slightly more oxidizable by BDD than by Pt, although both electrolysis lead to similar 238 values. On the contrary, large discrepancies occur when emulsified wastes are treated. PCE is very efficiency degraded with diamond electrodes and this is not the case for 239 240 platinum. Contradictory, lindane exhibits exactly the opposite behavior, although in this 241 case the degradation of SDS can help to explain this unexpected behavior. Thus, oxidation of SDS (data not shown) is more important with BDD (13.15 mmol Ah⁻¹) than with 242 243 platinum (1.16 mmol Ah⁻¹) and this difference helps to explain the lower removal 244 obtained in the case of the electrolysis of lindane. SDS is a very complex linear molecule whose concentration in the SWF is 3-logs over the concentration of lindane. It is known 245 to be easily oxidized by BDD anodes, leading to the formation of sulfates and persulfates 246 which mainly increase the conductivity of the SWF. In the case of the oxidation of PCE, 247 248 its influence is much lower, and this can be explained considering that SDS is also 249 combined with the oil extracted during the soil washing and this helps to explain a more 250 important decrease in the removal of PCE, which behaves as a very easily oxidizable 251 molecule.

Results obtained in the treatment of soil washing wastes obtained with a SWF soil⁻¹ ratio of 2.5 L kg⁻¹ are reproduced when higher amounts of soil washing fluid are added during the extraction and this can be seen in Fig. 3, in which the kinetic constants obtained after the fitting of experimental results to first order kinetics are obtained. Fig. SM-1 shows the

decay trend from which kinetic constants have been estimated. Except for the case of 256 257 lindane (which is explained because of the concurrent oxidation of SDS), electrolysis with 258 platinum is always much less efficient than with BDD anodes and kinetic constants reflects the differences in the oxidation capacity of the different pollutants. Again, results 259 260 obtained with PCE washing fluids demonstrate to be the most easily oxidizable wastes by diamond and it exhibits a very poor efficiency for Pt. The fitting of electrolytic results to 261 first order kinetic indicates that it is important to obtain wastes as much concentrated as 262 possible. For this reason, concentration techniques such as those recently proposed in 263 works of our group for these pollutants can be of extreme significance for the 264 265 development of successful treatments (Muñoz et al., 2017; Raschitor et al., 2017; Llanos 266 et al., 2018).



Fig. 3. Kinetic constants obtained by fitting the experimental decay of organochloride compounds to first order kinetics during 8 hours of treatment of SWW using (a) platinum and (b) BDD anodes. Perchloroethylene (white bars); lindane (grey bars) and clopyralid (black bars).

A very important point when comparing the anodic oxidation of pollutants with differentelectrodes is the production of oxidants. In this work, they are measured in a globalized

way by considering the concentration of oxidants capable to oxidize I^{-} to I_{2} . This means 275 276 that we are considering all stable oxidants in this measurement but not others, like the 277 hydroxyl radical, whose action is almost instantaneous. As seen in Fig. SM-2, there are not very important differences in the concentration of stable oxidants formed in the 278 279 electrolyte during the electrolysis and, in fact, they seem to be higher in the case of using platinum than when using BDD, which initially is an unexpected outcome because the 280 281 formation of persulfates is only efficient with the BDD anode and because the oxidation with diamond was found to be more efficient (even in the case of lindane in which higher 282 concentration of SDS is oxidized). However, this result can be easily explained in terms 283 284 of the chemistry of chlorine in the system. Platinum anodes can transform the chloride 285 contained in the SWF (and that obtained by the dehalogenation of the chlorinated hydrocarbons) into chlorine and hypochlorite, while in the electrolysis with the diamond 286 287 anode the oxidation does not stop at this point and hypochlorite is transformed into chlorates and perchlorates. Because of the very low kinetic rate of the oxidation carried 288 289 out by these two oxoanions, they should result in a negative impact in terms of the 290 oxidation of I⁻ to I₂ as it can be observed in the Fig. SM-2. Thus, after passing 1.05 Ah, 291 the concentrations of perchlorate obtained in the diamond electrolysis were 96.6, 28.5 and 9.0 mg dm⁻³ Cl-ClO₄⁻, respectively for clopyralid, lindane and perchloroethylene. These 292 values are important, taking into account that the initial concentration of chloride was 293 close to 160 mg L⁻¹ and the variability among the different tests demonstrates the 294 295 complexity of the processes happening in the cell with many competing reactions. With 296 platinum anode, perchlorate was only detected in the electrolysis of the SWF obtained 297 with clopyralid and the concentration was less than four times lower than in the case of using diamond. However, this difference does not reflect on a major point with respect to 298 the oxidative capacity of both electrodes as observed in the figures. 299

The other important parameter compared in Fig. SM-3 is the pH. Initial pH was 6.5 in the SWF with lindane and PCE and 7.1 in the case of the SWF with clopyralid. In comparing the values reached after passing an arbitrary current charge, it can be noticed a very important difference: in the case of diamond anodes it decreases very significantly, while in the case of the platinum electrolysis it does not undergo such a severe change, in fact, it increases during the electrolysis.

307 Initially this may inform about different mechanisms in the oxidation of the pollutants. The change in the pH is observed from the first moments, indicating that it should not be 308 309 related to the oxidation of organics to carboxylic acid but to other simpler processes. In 310 order to know more about this change, a voltammetric study was carried out where the response of both electrodes were compared for the three polluted SWF (obtained by 311 312 washing soil with and without the pollutant). Results shown in Fig. 4, are surprising. The 313 higher intensities obtained for the platinum electrolysis indicate that there is a higher direct oxidation rate on the surface of these electrodes as compared with changes observed 314 315 on the diamond electrode. Initially, it can be thought of the simple effect of the lower 316 resistance of the platinum electrode as compared to the BDD. However, it is not only the 317 lower electric conductivity of the platinum but also the oxidation process occurring on 318 the surface as the shape of the voltammograms is not linear but exponential. In addition, 319 in comparing the responses for the platinum, it can be observed that there are no 320 differences between the electrolysis of the SWF with PCE or lindane. This may suggest that, in this case, the oxidation of SDS on the surface of the electrode is more important 321 322 than the oxidation of the pollutant (which in fact is negligible in terms of direct oxidation according to the voltammetry because both curves are fully overlapped). Initially, this can 323 be predictable because the pollutant is expected to be present as micelles. On the other 324

hand, this response can also be due to the oxidation of chloride and/or any other inorganic 325 326 compound. In the case of clopyralid (Fig. 4c), in which there is no SDS in the SWF, the 327 presence of the organic pollutant leads to a very significant increase in the intensities recorded confirming that there is a direct oxidation pathway for these species. In addition, 328 329 the base curve (obtain with SWF without clopyralid) also match with the base curve of the lindane and PCE experiments, indicating (because with clopyralid there is no SDS) 330 that it should due to the oxidation of chloride or any other organic compound but not of 331 the surfactant. 332



Fig. 4. Voltammetries of the SWF with lindane (a), perchloroethylene (b) and clopyralid
(c) using boron doped diamond (black line) or platinum (discontinuous line) as working
electrodes. Grey line: soil washing waste without pollutant.

The lower voltammetric response of the electrolysis with BDD indicates a lower direct electrochemical reactivity, which is not seen in the bulk results and should be more related to the production of hydroxyl radicals. In fact, the intensities recorded at very high overpotentials are considerably much slower. This may indicate a higher extension in the oxidation of water, which is also consistent with the higher decrease in the pH value (Eq. 1) explaining the changes observed in the pH when using both electrodes.

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 $BDD + H_2 O \rightarrow BDD(\cdot OH) + H^+ + e^{-1}$ (1)

 $BDD(\cdot OH) + R \rightarrow BDD + CO_2 + H_2O$

(2)

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In addition, there is an important difference between the presence of lindane and PCE in the SWF, with an important increase in the intensities obtained, which clearly indicates that these species are also undergoing a direct oxidation on the surface of the electrode. This is not as clear as in the case of the clopyralid in which the difference is extremely low and which indicates that these species should be primarily removed by mediated oxidation processes.

by GC-MS, it was confirmed almost the same intermediates in the electrolysis (Table SM-1), which fits well to the oxidation mechanisms proposed in the literature (Nitoi et al., 2013; Dominguez et al., 2018) and shown in Fig. 5. Additionally, it can be observed similar speciation obtained with both electrodes. However, during the electrolysis with BDD anodes the maximum concentration of intermediates is higher than during the electrolysis with platinum.



 $CO_2 + H_2O + Cl^- + ClO_3^- + ClO_4^-$

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Fig. 5. Mechanisms of the electrochemical oxidation of lindane contained in the SWWusing platinum and BDD anodes.

365 In the case of perchloroethylene, again nearly the same intermediates are found in the electrolysis with diamond and platinum. They are summarized in Table SM-2 and they 366 follow the oxidation mechanisms suggested in bibliography (Miao et al., 2015; Karimaei 367 368 et al., 2017), which is shown in Fig. 6. In this case, there are acids that are detected using 369 BDD and other using platinum, however dechlorinated compounds are mainly detected in platinum anodes. These results are in concomitance with the experiments that showed 370 higher efficiency in the removal of PCE with BDD anodes because the higher 371 mineralization degree and less intermediates obtained. 372



 $CO_2 + H_2O + Cl^- + ClO_3^- + ClO_4^-$



In the case of the clopyralid no GC-MS but HPLC was used to characterize intermediates 376 because of the high solubility in water of this pollutant that makes difficult the extraction 377 of clopyralid with organics solvents to analyze by gas chromatography(Ahmad et al., 378 379 2003). Results of Table SM-3 again pointed out that the oxidation route fits well with those proposed in the literature(Carvalho de Almeida et al., 2019) (Fig. 7). Again, 380 381 intermediates detected during the electrolysis of SWF of clopyralid are nearly the same 382 with platinum and BDD anodes that it fits well with results of depletion efficiency and 383 kinetic studies with just slightly better results using diamond than platinum electrodes. 384

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Fig. 7. Mechanisms of the electrolysis of clopyralid (Carvalho de Almeida et al., 2019) 389 contained in the SWW using platinum and BDD anodes. 390

Hence, despite the very important differences observed in the rates of removal of the three 391 392 chlorinated organics and in the voltammetries, the oxidation mechanisms should be nearly 393 the same, at least in terms of the intermediates formed although the concentration of 394 intermediates differs significantly indicating the different oxidizability in both cases. All these results confirm that electrolysis can be a good technology to remove chlorinated 395 hydrocarbons and that although platinum has a greater electrochemical reactivity, the 396 choice of diamond as anode material has important advantages because of the much

398 higher efficiency.

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401 Conclusions

402 From this work, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Polar organochlorinated compounds are easily extracted in the SWF with low
 ratio SWF soil⁻¹ and without surfactant, however doses of surfactants as 0.1 g SDS
 g⁻¹ soil are needed to obtain over 60% of extraction efficiency of non-polar
 compounds.

- First order kinetics are observed in each compound with higher removal at the
 early stages and generally better results are obtained using BDD as anode than
 platinum.
- Higher oxidants are produced with platinum because BDD anodes promotes very
 oxidized species with less oxidant capacity, however it does not reflect on a major
 point with respect to the overall oxidative capacity.
- The evolution of pH and a voltammetry study indicate that higher oxidation rate
 in the surface is observed with platinum anodes and a direct oxidation pathway is
 promoted for other additional compounds (as surfactant or chlorine ions).
- Similar intermediates species are obtained during the electrooxidation using BDD
 and platinum electrodes from the main mechanisms as dechlorination and ring opening which are detected with GC-MS and HPLC.

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