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Detrimental vs. beneficial influence of ions during solar (SODIS) and photo-Fenton disinfection of E. coli in water: (Bi)carbonate, chloride, nitrate and nitrite effects

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1	Detrimental vs. beneficial influence of ions during solar (SODIS) and photo-Fenton
2	disinfection of <i>E. coli</i> in water: (bi)carbonate, chloride, nitrate and nitrite effects.
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17 Abstract

18 In this work, we studied the effect of inorganic ions occurring in natural waters on E. coli inactivation by solar 19 and photo-Fenton processes, two crucial methods for drinking water treatment in sunny or developing countries. HCO₃, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃, NO₂ and NH₄⁺ were assessed at relevant concentrations for their inhibiting 20 or facilitating role. The inactivation enhancement during solar disinfection (SODIS) was mainly attributed to 21 22 the generation of HO[•] radicals produced during by excitation of NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, while the HO[•] of photo-Fenton 23 may be transformed into other radical species in presence of ions. Natural organic matter (NOM) was found to enhance both processes but also to hinder most of the enhancing ions, except for NO₂⁻; modeling with the 24 APEX software unveiled the inter-relations in the presence of NOM, and the possible inactivation activity by 25 26 NO₂[•]. The photo-Fenton inactivation was more significantly enhanced by ions than SODIS (besides the case of 27 NO_3^- , NO_2^-), but both processes were found robust enough.

28

29 Keywords: solar disinfection; photo-Fenton process; bacteria; inorganic ions; inactivation modeling.

30

31 Abbreviations

- 32 APEX Aqueous Photochemistry of Environmentally occurring Xenobiotics, CFU Colony Forming Unit, LB –
- 33 Luria-Bertani, LMCT Ligand-to-Metal Charge Transfer, MQ Milli-Q water, NOM Natural Organic Matter,
- 34 PCA Plate Count Agar, RHS Reactive Halogen Species, ROS Reactive Oxygen Species, SRNOM -
- 35 Suwanee River Natural Organic Matter, UV Ultraviolet

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Waterborne pathogens causing diseases constitute one of the acute health risks associated with urban 39 wastewater discharge and reuse. They have been identified as a major infection risk in streams, rivers and 40 estuaries. The use of solar radiation to disinfect water, more known as the solar disinfection process (SODIS), 41 has been successfully evaluated as a way to eliminate pathogens from waters destined for consumption 42 [1,2]. Unfortunately, SODIS is prone to temperature dependence and has shown possible bacterial regrowth 43 issues [3-5]. The attempts to enhance the SODIS efficiency focused on low-cost technological or 44 physicochemical modifications [4,6-9], aimed at decreasing the exposure time needed to achieve 45 "permanent" microorganism elimination. This is the rationale for trying to achieve acceleration of the SODIS kinetic performance with the addition of H_2O_2 to raw water, or with the photo-Fenton process [6,10–13]. 46 H_2O_2 directly attacks the cellular membrane, increasing its permeability and affecting cell survival. It can 47 48 also diffuse into the cell and initiate an intra-cellular process of cell death [14,15]. The photo-Fenton process involves the reaction of H_2O_2 with photogenerated Fe^{2+} ions, leading to the formation of Reactive Oxygen 49 50 Species (ROS), such as HO[•] radicals. The latter are powerful oxidizing species that can achieve inactivation of 51 bacteria and viruses [12,16,17]. Moreover, the photo-Fenton reagents can also trigger intracellular events due to the transport of iron and H_2O_2 inside cells [18]. 52

53 Natural water sources have an important content of Natural Organic Matter (NOM) and inorganic ions, such as HCO₃⁻, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺. These can be naturally present, or be introduced in natural cycles 54 by agricultural, domestic and industrial activities, and have been shown to play a role in photochemical and 55 56 disinfection processes [19–21] (the mean chemical composition of different water sources can be found in 57 Table 1). In general, NOM and some inorganic ions naturally present in water sources can be involved in the 58 absorption of incident sunlight [19,22,23], hence interfering with photo-initiated bacterial inactivation. On 59 the other hand, the Fenton process proceeds mainly via the generation of HO[•], which can be scavenged by both NOM and some ionic species [20,24]. Furthermore, PO_4^{3-} induces the formation of insoluble FePO₄[24– 60 61 26] and, by so doing, it can out-weight the effect of all the other ionic species on the photo-Fenton process 62 [24,27,28]. The scavenging of HO[•] by Cl⁻ and Br⁻follows the same general mechanism (Eqs. 1-5) [29,30], 63 but the process in the presence of chloride proceeds up to Eq. (5) only at acidic pH. At neutral to basic 64 conditions, it does not go beyond Eq. (1) and HClO^{•-} yields back HO[•] + Cl⁻ [31]. Moreover, SO_4^{2-} and 65 F⁻retard the Fenton process by affecting the Fe³⁺-ion coordination [32].

$$\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{X}^{-} \to \mathrm{XOH}^{\bullet-} \tag{1}$$

$$XOH^{\bullet-} + H^+ \to X^{\bullet} + H_2O$$
⁽²⁾

$$XOH^{\bullet-} + X^{-} \rightleftharpoons X_{2}^{\bullet-} + OH^{-}$$
(3)

$$X^{\bullet} + X^{-} \rightleftharpoons X_{2}^{\bullet -} \tag{4}$$

$$2X_2^{\bullet-} \to X_2 + 2X^- \tag{5}$$

In the above reactions, X is a halogen and the relevant species are halide ions and Reactive Halogen Species 66 67 (RHS). The generation of RHS could still lead to microorganism disinfection [33], as they retain oxidizing 68 power [29,34]. Although less reactive and more selective than HO[•], their reaction mechanism involves pathways such as one-electron oxidation or addition to unsaturated C-C bonds [29,35]. The HO[•] radicals are 69 scavenged with second-order reaction rate constants in the order of $10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for H_2PO_4^- and $10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ 70 for HCO_3^- . However, the rate constants can be as high as $10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for CO_3^{2-} and Fe^{2+} [36], $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for 71 Cl^{-} [37] (but the actual outcome for chloride is pH-dependent as mentioned above), and even $10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ 72 for NO_2^- and Br^- [38]. 73

Dissolved ions have also the potential to enhance either SODIS or photo-Fenton. Examples include the generation of HO[•] by the illumination of NO_3^-/NO_2^- [39,40], or the complexation reactions of Fe²⁺ or Fe³⁺ with inorganic ligands. The latter can affect the distribution and reactivity of the iron species [22,32,41,42]. Hence, depending on their concentration, speciation or distribution, inorganic ions can have contrasting effects on both SODIS and the photo-Fenton processes.

Moreover, the organic matter in solution (NOM) has a double activity as an antagonist or a facilitator of the photo-chemical processes [43–45]. Its presence under sunlight enables a large variety of photochemical reactions that proceed by energy transfer and result in singlet oxygen and radical species generation. Such reactions also yield additional ROS such as superoxide and H_2O_2 [45–47]. NOM has the potential to increase the efficiency of both SODIS and photo-Fenton processes, by providing effective ligands that trigger Ligandto-Metal Charge Transfer (LMCT) processes and produce ligand radicals, ROS and further Fe²⁺ [41,45,48– 50]. However, as almost every organic compound, NOM has oxidizable moieties that have the potential to significantly scavenge the photo-produced reactive species [51,52]. NOM is also able to absorb sunlight, but the path lengths of radiation in water during SODIS are never too high and the absorption effect is less important compared to other contexts, such as the water column of natural aquatic environments.

89 The above phenomena can explain the intrinsic inconsistencies of the literature about the roles of ions and 90 organic matter in water disinfection, as well as the lack of a systematic investigation. For these reasons, the main goal of this work is to unveil the effect of a series of inorganic ions, namely HCO₃⁻, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, Cl⁻, 91 SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ , in the absence and in the presence of NOM, on *E. coli* inactivation by the SODIS and photo-92 93 Fenton processes. To attain this goal, for each ion under scrutiny, the related chemical events that could 94 result in bacterial inactivation were reviewed, thereby contextualizing our disinfection experiments with the 95 current understanding of natural-water photochemistry. The bacterial cultivability as well as the effect of 96 ions concentration during solar exposure and photo-Fenton processes was evaluated, i.e., in presence or 97 absence of the ions. A systematic kinetic assessment will describe the critical parameters in defining 98 bacterial inactivation, namely lag phase and inactivation rate, while the potential role of secondary radicals 99 will be elucidated. In some cases, the changes in lag phase and inactivation kinetics could be modeled, to 100 estimate the effectiveness of photoinduced disinfection as a function of the ions' concentration in sunlit 101 natural waters.

102

103 **2. Materials and methods**

104 2.1. Chemicals and reagents

105 The effect of Na⁺ as counter ion is negligible because it is harmless for *E. coli* and cannot absorb sunlight. 106 Therefore, sodium-based salts were used as sources of the ions under scrutiny. The used salts were NaHCO₃, 107 NaNO₃, NaNO₂, NaCl, Na₂SO₄ and (NH₄)₂SO₄ (the latter as source of ammonium, *vide infra* for the rationale of 108 the choice), all supplied by Sigma-Aldrich. Aqueous solutions of salts, in appropriate concentrations, were 109 prepared in Milli-Q water (MQ). FeSO₄·7H₂O and H₂O₂ 30% w/v (Sigma-Aldrich) was used to prepare the 100 stock solutions of the photo-Fenton reagents (1000 ppm each).

111

112 **2.2.** Photochemical experiments

Solar irradiation with intensity of 620 W m⁻² was simulated by an Atlas SUNTEST Solar simulator. Irradiation experiments at 350 rpm of agitation by magnetic bars placed on stirrer plates and at room temperature were performed, testing the effects on bacteria of HCO_3^- at concentrations from 5 to 100 mg L⁻¹, NO_3^- from 1 to 50 mg L⁻¹, NO_2^- from 0.01 to 5 mg L⁻¹, Cl^- from 1 to 500 mg L⁻¹, SO_4^{2-} from 10 to 500 mg L⁻¹ and NH_4^+ from 0.1 to 10 mg L⁻¹. The salts and their concentrations have been selected in accordance to the actual ions' presence in natural waters, according to Table 1.

Table 1: Mean ionic composition of water sources frequently used for Solar disinfection (SODIS) [53–57]. ND = not
 determined.

lons	River Water (mg L ⁻¹)	Lake Water (mg L ⁻¹)	Harvested rainwater (mg L ⁻¹)	Groundwater (mg L ⁻¹)
HCO_3^-	20 - 100	10 - 110	ND	20 - 800
NO_3^-	0.05 – 4	0.1 - 4	1.56 – 7.04	0.05 - 60
NO_2^-	< 0.4	< 0.4	0.01-0.27	< 1

Cl ⁻	4 - 12	2 – 15	1.48 – 79	2 – 700
SO ₄ ²⁻	0-230	2 – 250	1.6 - 15.62	0 - 630
NH ₄ ⁺	< 0.2	0.003 – 0.8	0.06 - 1.4	0.001 - 3

122

123

124 In order to define the bacterial survival in the presence of the maximum concentrations of these ions, 125 control experiments after 240 minutes in dark conditions were performed. In photo-Fenton experiments, the 126 concentration of Fe^{2+} and H_2O_2 solutions were 1 mg L⁻¹ and 10 mg L⁻¹ respectively.

A depiction of the experimental set-up is given in the supplementary material (Scheme S1). The test took place in Pyrex glass reactors with Milli-Q water at near neutral starting pH. The reactors contained 100 mL of *E. coli* dispersion with concentration of 10⁶ colony forming units per mL (CFU mL⁻¹). Before every experiment, reactors were sterilized by autoclaving and after each experiment, reactors were washed with acid to ensure iron removal, with ethanol to remove any other contaminant and finally with deionized water in abundant amounts.

133

134 2.3. Bacterial strain and growth media

The bacterial strain used in this study was *E. coli* K12, a non-pathogenic wild-type strain, which can be handled with little genetic manipulation; *E. coli* strain storage is ensured in cryo-vials containing 20% of glycerol at -20 °C. Bacterial pre-cultures were obtained by spreading 20 µL of the strain into Plate Count Agar (PCA; Merck) followed by 24 h of incubation at 37 °C (Heraeus Instruments). A grown colony was then sampled and spread again on a new PCA plate for concentration purposes. After an additional 24 h of incubation at 37 °C, the master plate was ready and stored at 4 °C; due to the uncertainty of the dispersion method, the process was done in duplicate.

142 In order to prepare the bacterial stock solution, a colony of bacteria was extracted from the master plate 143 and inoculated into 5 mL of Luria-Bertani (LB) Broth. Specifically, LB consisted of 10 g L^{-1} tryptone, 10 g L^{-1}

NaCl and 5 g L⁻¹ yeast extract in Milli-Q water. The saline solution was a sterile NaCl/KCl solution (8 g L⁻¹ NaCl 144 and 0.8 g L^{-1} KCl at pH 7 – 7.5). After a strong mixing by a vortex machine for 1 or 2 minutes, it was incubated 145 inside a 37°C temperature-controlled room for 8 h and constantly agitated by circular movement at 750 rpm. 146 147 After 8 h, 2.5 mL of sample were diluted in 250 mL of LB Broth and incubated for 15 h in the same room to 148 ensure that the stationary physiological phase was reached. A 25 mL aliquot of this bacterial sample was 149 separated during the stationary growth phase by centrifugation and was washed 3 times with saline 150 solution. Washing took place in a 4°C centrifuge (Hermle Z 323 K, Renggli Laboratory Systems), at 5000 rpm 151 for 15 minutes the first time and 5 minutes the remaining two, with 10 mL of saline solution. After the final 152 wash, 25 mL of clean saline solution was added to the bacterial pellet. This procedure resulted in a bacterial dispersion of approximately 10^8 CFU mL⁻¹. 153

154

155 **2.4. Sampling and bacterial enumeration**

156 Samples of 1 mL were taken from the body of the reactor under stirring and placed in sterile plastic 157 Eppendorf vials, to ensure their sterile preservation. In order to obtain information about the disinfection 158 kinetics, sampling was performed at time intervals of 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 180 and 240 minutes for SODIS, and 159 at time intervals of 0, 20, 40, 60, 90 and 120 minutes for photo-Fenton. For reproducibility, each experiment 160 was carried out at least in duplicate (biological/chemical replicates) in double series (statistical replicates) 161 and using 2 or 3 serial dilutions (technical replicates), to achieve measurable bacterial count on the plates; 162 the optimal colony counts in this method are among 15–150. Total inactivation was considered achieved when no bacteria colony was observed any longer in the plates after treatment. The spread plate technique 163 164 was performed on PCA, contained in plastic sterile Petri dishes, by injecting drop-by-drop 100 µL of samples. The detection limit was 1 CFU mL⁻¹ for undiluted samples and 10 CFU mL⁻¹ for diluted ones [58]. The 165 166 incubation period was 18-24 hours at 37°C.

167

168 2.5. Data treatment and APEX modeling

169 In order to model the bacterial response under the solar light and photo-Fenton stress, a 60-min and a 30-170 min lag period was considered for SODIS and photo-Fenton processes, respectively. After this period, log-171 linear kinetics were fitted by the GInaFiT freeware add-on for Microsoft Excel [59]. For the kinetic modeling, 172 a log-linear equation with delay was used; its calculation was possible for all cases and it provided the exact 173 time of delay and the subsequent log-linear kinetics of inactivation. The "Shoulder log-linear model" was 174 formulated as shown in Equation (1) [59].

$$\log_{10}(N) = \log_{10}(N_0) - k * \frac{t - t_s}{\ln(10)} - \log_{10}[1 + (\exp(k * t_s) - 1) * \exp(-k * t)]$$
(6)

175 where:

176 **N** is the bacterial population at any given time (CFU mL^{-1}).

- 177 N_0 is the initial bacterial population (CFU mL⁻¹).
- 178 **t** is the investigated time (s).
- t_s is the length of the shoulder period or threshold time to observe inactivation (s).
- 180 **k** is the rate constant of the inactivation (s⁻¹).

181

In some cases, it was possible to apply photochemical modeling to get better insight into the functioning of some SODIS systems leading to bacterial inactivation. Eq. (6) or its non-logarithmic equivalent was the basis for modeling. At the moment, photochemical modeling can only take into account exogenous inactivation of *E. coli* by reactive transient species (HO[•], ${}^{1}O_{2}$, ${}^{3}NOM^{*}$), thereby excluding the endogenous process driven by light only [47,60]. In particular, the value of (exogenous) t_{s} was determined according to the following phenomenological equation, where t_{s} is expressed in min and [HO[•]] in mol L⁻¹ [47]:

$$t_{s} = 158e^{-(3 \times 10^{13} [HO^{*}])}$$
(7)

188 The value of the steady-state [HO[•]] was assessed by means of the APEX software (Aquatic Photochemistry of 189 Environmentally-occurring Xenobiotics) [61] which was also used to determine k as the rate constant of exogenous inactivation by HO[•], ${}^{1}O_{2}$, and ${}^{3}NOM^{*}$ together. To predict the exogenous threshold time via 190 191 [HO[•]] and the exogenous photo-inactivation rate constants after the lag phase, APEX needs photo-reactivity 192 parameters (the second-order inactivation rate constants of *E. coli* by H0[•], ${}^{1}O_{2}$, and ${}^{3}NOM^{*}$ [60]), sunlight 193 irradiance, and data of water chemistry and depth [61]. APEX calculates the absorption of radiation by the 194 photosensitizers (NOM, nitrate and nitrite) on the basis of competition for sunlight irradiance, in a Lambert-Beer approach [62]. In the model, NOM is a photochemical source of HO[•], ${}^{1}O_{2}$, and ${}^{3}NOM^{*}$ as well as a 195 196 HO[•] sink, while nitrate and nitrite are both HO[•] sources. The model results apply to well-mixed waters and 197 provide average values over the whole water column, with contributions from the well-illuminated surface 198 layer and from darker water in the lower depths [63].

199 It should be underlined that APEX modeling of bacterial inactivation still has several gaps, which presently 200 limit the comparison with experimental results. The main limitations are the following: (i) it is presently not 201 possible to model photo-Fenton, thus APEX is currently limited to pure SODIS; (ii) the model takes into 202 account exogenous inactivation only, thereby neglecting the very important endogenous process. By so 203 doing, model results are bound to underestimate actual photoinactivation; (iii) the model uses summertime 204 sunlight as the radiation source in place of the experimental lamp, which is very useful to simulate field 205 SODIS but further limits comparison with laboratory results; (iv) it is presently not possible to assess the 206 scavenging of HO° by the bacteria. This issue prevents a proper treatment of the systems that contain only bacteria + NO₃ or bacteria + NO₂, in the absence of additional HO[•] scavengers such as NOM. Despite these 207 208 limitations, in some cases the model can provide a semi-quantitative insight into the photoinduced 209 processes, which may give interesting indications as far as the inactivation pathways are concerned.

210

211 **2.6.** Chemical and analytical methods

212 According to the standard methods for water analysis [64], NO_3^- determination (Standard Method 4500 - NO_3^- B) was carried out using a Shimadzu UV-1800 spectrophotometer with a minimum detectable NO_3^- 213 concentration of 0.5 mg L⁻¹ while HCO₃⁻, expressed as alkalinity (Standard Method 2320 B), was measured by 214 potentiometric titration with H_2SO_4 . NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} were analyzed with a HACH DR 3900 215 spectrophotometer: NH₄⁺ was measured using LCK 305 Ammonium-Nitrogen cuvettes (minimum detectable 216 $\rm NH_4^+$ concentration of 1 mg L⁻¹) while $\rm SO_4^{2-}$ was measured using HACH LCK 153 Sulfate cuvettes (minimum 217 detectable SO_4^{2-} concentration of 40 mg L⁻¹). NO_2^- and Cl^- were analyzed by Quantofix semi quantitative 218 219 strips (Macherey-Nagel, Germany); NO₂⁻ was determined with Quantofix nitrite 3000 (minimum detectable NO_2^- concentration of 0.1 mg L⁻¹) while Cl⁻ was determined with Quantofix chloride 91321 (detectable Cl⁻ 220 concentrations of 0-3000 mg L⁻¹). The pH evolution during treatments was recorded using a pH-meter 221 222 manufactured by Mettler Toledo.

223 3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Ions influence on SODIS and photo-Fenton processes

225 **3.1.1.** *HCO*⁻₃ *effects*

Figure 1 summarizes the bicarbonate-related disinfection tests and the effect of the bicarbonate ion in both SODIS and the photo-Fenton process. Figure 1(a) shows the pseudo-first order kinetic constant values calculated for both processes, at all the tested HCO_3^- concentrations, while Figure 1(b) shows the most significant disinfection graphs.



Figure 1: Kinetic constant values at different HCO_3^- concentrations, in both SODIS and photo-Fenton processes (a). Disinfection experiments with HCO_3^- (b). Changes of pH and HCO_3^- concentration in both processes (c). The detailed disinfection results for SODIS and photo-Fenton in presence of HCO_3^- are presented in Figure S1.

234

The results show that the effect of HCO_3^- on SODIS and the photo-Fenton process is not totally straightforward. First, there is very limited effect on the first-order disinfection rate constants, except for HCO_3^- at 10 mg L⁻¹ in the case of photo-Fenton. There is some more effect on the lag times, although the variation is not linear with HCO_3^- concentration. In terms of overall disinfection, the inactivation of bacteria was faster with 10 mg L⁻¹ HCO_3^- compared to no bicarbonate, and slower with 100 mg L⁻¹ HCO_3^- (Fig. 1(b)).

Figure 1(c) shows pH and HCO_3^- concentration changes during both SODIS and photo-Fenton. With 100 mg $L^{-1} HCO_3^-$, the initially basic pH increased in both cases with a simultaneous decrease of HCO_3^- concentration (~10 mg L^{-1}). In contrast, at 10 mg $L^{-1} HCO_3^-$, the pH was near neutral and showed no shift during the reaction (data not shown).

Carbonate and bicarbonate ions are the main inorganic carbon forms in water; most of the HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} ions originate from the dissolution of carbonate minerals, the decomposition of organic matter, the respiration of aquatic animals and the exchanges in the carbon cycle [65]. Due to its high solubility, HCO_3^- is widely distributed in natural waters (see Table 1) and in biological systems, where it constitutes the main biological buffer.

Both HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} react with the hydroxyl radicals, HO^{\bullet} , to yield the carbonate radical $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ [66]. The latter has oxidizing power as well, although it is more selective compared to HO^{\bullet} . This phenomenon may explain the fact that the addition of bicarbonate affected the HO^{\bullet} -producing photo-Fenton process, to a larger extent compared to SODIS (see Figure 1b). When reacting as an oxidant, $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ yields back HCO_3^-/CO_3^{2-} . Therefore, the observed changes in HCO_3^- concentration (if any) are closely linked to the interconversion process $HCO_3^- \leftrightarrows CO_3^{2-} + H^+$ that depends on pH.

$$\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{CO}_{3}^{\bullet-} + \mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}$$

$$\tag{8}$$

 $HO^{\bullet} + CO_3^{2-} \to CO_3^{\bullet-} + OH^-$ (9)

The disinfection lag time of *E. coli* has been shown to mainly depend on irradiation and the attack by HO[•] [60,67]. Moreover, bacteria could be susceptible to the combined effects of irradiation, basic pH and the presence of oxidizing species. Therefore, pH changes in case of the addition of bicarbonate at high concentration, combined with the consumption of photogenerated HO[•], could have contrasting effects on the disinfection process and produce non-linear phenomena. In addition, at elevated pH one has enhanced Fe³⁺ precipitation that has the potential to hamper the photo-Fenton process.

261 While $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ is a less selective oxidant than HO[•], it has much longer lifetime in aqueous solution and can, 262 therefore, diffuse over a much larger range. The germicidal action of HO[•] is limited by its inability to react 263 with cell components other than the membrane, while the longer $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ lifetime could enable additional 264 disinfection pathways. Indeed, $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ has proven germicidal activity [68–70].

265

266 **3.1.2.** Cl⁻ effects

267 Figure 2 summarizes the disinfection experiments that took place in the presence of variable Cl⁻ 268 concentrations. Figure 2(a) shows the pseudo-first order kinetic constant values calculated for both SODIS and photo-Fenton at all the tested Cl⁻ concentrations, while Figure 2(b) shows the most significant 269 disinfection graphs. Interestingly, the addition of chloride enhanced disinfection in both cases (SODIS and 270 photo-Fenton), although most likely for different reasons. The pH of both reaction systems was near-neutral, 271 272 and it showed no substantial shift during either SODIS or photo-Fenton treatments, compared to the 273 experiments in the absence of Cl^- . A decrease in Cl^- concentration during both processes was observed, as 274 shown in Figure 2(c).

As far as the disinfection enhancement observed during SODIS is concerned, there are a couple of instances in the literature that report a similar phenomenon. The effect is most likely correlated with the membrane-Cl⁻interactions, which are hypothesized to increase membrane permeability [37,71]. In contrast, in order to explain the increase in efficiency during the photo-Fenton process, one should consider that the interaction

between Cl⁻ and Fe³⁺ yields the Fe(Cl)²⁺ and FeCl₂⁺ complexes. In the presence of Cl⁻, Fe(OH)₂⁺ is replaced by Fe(Cl)²⁺ that has higher absorption coefficient and higher quantum yield of UV photolysis. Photolysis of Fe(Cl)²⁺ promotes the formation of Cl[•] via Equations 10-11 [72]. The higher photoactivity of Fe(Cl)²⁺ compared to Fe(OH)²⁺ can explain the enhancement of photo-Fenton by chloride (Eqs 10-11).



Figure 2: Kinetic constant values at different Cl⁻ concentrations, for both SODIS and photo-Fenton processes (a).
 Disinfection experiments with Cl⁻ (b). Changes of Cl⁻ concentration during both processes (c). The detailed
 disinfection results for SODIS and photo-Fenton in the presence of Cl⁻ are presented in Figure S2.

287

$$Fe(Cl)^{2+} + hv \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + Cl^{\bullet}$$
(10)

$$\operatorname{FeCl}_{2}^{+} + \operatorname{hv} \to \operatorname{FeCl}^{+} + \operatorname{Cl}^{\bullet}$$
(11)

It is noteworthy that the reaction between Cl^- and HO^{\bullet} , although fast, results in the scavenging of the radical species at acidic pH only, in which case $HOCl^{\bullet-}$ is formed that promotes Cl^{\bullet} production. However, under neutral to basic conditions $HOCl^{\bullet-}$ is effectively decomposed back into Cl^- + HO^{\bullet} , with no net HO^{\bullet} scavenging (Eqs. 12-15) [31].

$$\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{Cl}^{-} \to \mathrm{HOCl}^{\bullet-} \tag{12}$$

$$\mathrm{HOCl}^{\bullet-} \to \mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{Cl}^{-} \tag{13}$$

$$\mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{Cl}^{-} + \mathrm{O}_{2} \to \mathrm{HOCl} + \mathrm{O}_{2}^{\bullet-} \tag{14}$$

$$HOCl^{\bullet-} + H^+ \rightarrow Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O$$
(15)

Other possible Cl[•] and HOCl^{•-} reactions are presented below: they involve oxidation of Fe²⁺ or reaction with Cl⁻ to form the dichloride radical anions (Cl₂^{•-}) [22,29,73] (Eqs. 16-23). Under near-neutral conditions these reactions would involve Cl[•] produced by FeCl²⁺ photolysis, because at these pH values the reaction between HO[•] and Cl⁻ is not a net Cl[•] source.

$$Cl^{\bullet} + Fe^{2+} \rightarrow Cl^{-} + Fe^{3+}$$
(16)

$$Cl^{\bullet} + Cl^{-} \rightarrow Cl_{2}^{\bullet-}$$
 (17)

$$Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O_2 \to HO_2^{\bullet} + H^+ + Cl^-$$
 (18)

$$\text{HOCl}^{\bullet-} \to \text{HO}^{\bullet} + \text{Cl}^{-}$$
 (19)

$$HOCI^{\bullet-} + CI^- \to CI_2^{\bullet-} + OH^-$$
(20)

$$Cl_2^{\bullet-} + H_2O_2 \to HO_2^{\bullet} + 2Cl^-$$
 (21)

$$Cl_2^{\bullet-} + HO_2^{\bullet} \to O_2 + H^+ + 2Cl^-$$
 (22)

$$Cl_2^{\bullet-} + Fe^{2+} \to Cl^- + FeCl^{2+}$$
 (23)

Lastly, termination reactions can lead to the formation of free chlorine that actively participates in the disinfection process (Eqs. 24-26). Moreover, it can explain the decrease of Cl⁻ observed during the photo-Fenton process. Other termination reactions include the Cl[•] recombination or the HOCl reaction with H_2O_2 [29] (Eqs. 27-28).

$$\operatorname{Cl}_{2}^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{Cl}_{2}^{\bullet-} \rightarrow \operatorname{Cl}_{2} + 2\operatorname{Cl}^{-}$$
 (24)

$$\operatorname{Cl}_{2}^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{HO}^{\bullet} \to \operatorname{HOCl} + \operatorname{Cl}^{-}$$
 (25)

$$\operatorname{Cl}_{2}^{\bullet-} + \operatorname{Cl}^{\bullet} \to \operatorname{Cl}_{2} + \operatorname{Cl}^{-}$$
 (26)

$$Cl^{\bullet} + Cl^{\bullet} \rightarrow Cl_2$$
 (27)

$$HOCl + H_2O_2 \to HCl + H_2O + O_2$$
 (28)

300

301 **3.1.3.** SO₄²⁻ effects

Figure 3 summarizes the experimental findings of the bacterial inactivation tests carried out upon addition of sulfate. Figure 3(a) shows the pseudo-first order kinetic constant values calculated for both SODIS and photo-Fenton processes at all tested SO_4^{2-} concentrations, while Figure 3(b) reports the most significant disinfection graphs. The obtained results suggest that there are no significant changes in the SODIS reaction kinetics, regardless the SO_4^{2-} concentration added in the 0-500 mg L⁻¹ range. In the case of photo-Fenton, a small increase in the inactivation rate was observed. In addition, both pH and SO_4^{2-} concentration showed no substantial changes during either SODIS or photo-Fenton (data not shown).



309



While in SODIS the effect of sulfates is almost negligible, in the photo-Fenton process the complexation between Fe(III) and SO_4^{2-} yields the species $FeSO_4^+$ that can produce the sulfate radical, $SO_4^{\bullet-}$, upon photolysis [21] (Eq. 29).

$$FeSO_4^+ + hv \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + SO_4^{\bullet-}$$
⁽²⁹⁾

Note that SO_4^{2-} is unable to carry out HO[•] scavenging, which can only take place in the presence of HSO₄ (pKa ~ 2, which means that the scavenging process can become significant at pH < 3). The radical $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ is more selective than HO[•], but it can efficiently result in bacterial, viral and chemical contaminant degradation [7,13,42,74,75]. While acting as an oxidant, $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ yields back SO_4^{2-} . This phenomenon explains why the sulfate concentration did not vary during the photo-Fenton process.

322

323 **3.1.4.** NO_3^- and NO_2^- effects

Figure 4 gives an overview of the experiments carried out with NO₃ and NO₂. Panels 4(a) and (b) show the 324 325 pseudo-first order kinetic constant values calculated for both SODIS and photo-Fenton processes, at all 326 tested NO_3^- and NO_2^- concentrations. The most significant disinfection graphs for both processes are 327 reported in Figure 4(c). In all the cases the disinfection kinetics was enhanced at all tested concentrations of 328 NO_3^- and NO_2^- , and the effect was higher for NO_2^- compared to NO_3^- . In fact, there is almost a 10-fold 329 difference in the concentrations of NO_3^- that induce a similar enhancement as NO_2^- in bacterial inactivation. 330 This finding is in good agreement with the reported literature data, showing almost 10-fold higher HO* 331 production by NO_2^- compared to NO_3^- at equal concentration values [76].

It is interesting to observe that the photochemical production of HO[•] by nitrate and nitrite has the potential to both shorten the lag time and accelerate the disinfection kinetics in the post-lag, exponential phase (Figure 4(c)). This finding is in agreement with literature reports, according to which HO[•] is one of the transient species involved in post-lag bacterial inactivation and, at the same time, a major actor in inducing cell-membrane damage that exposes the cell to the action of oxidants. Therefore, elevated HO[•] causes the lag time to become shorter [47,60]. However, it should be considered that nitrite is a HO[•] sink as well as a
source [77], and this fact may have interesting implications for the inactivation process (*vide infra*) (Eqs. 3031).

$$NO_3^- + H_2O + hv \rightarrow NO_2^{\bullet} + OH^- + HO^{\bullet}$$
 (30)

$$NO_2^- + H_2O + hv \rightarrow NO^{\bullet} + OH^- + HO^{\bullet}$$
 (31)



342Figure 4: Kinetic constant values obtained with different NO_3^- (a) and NO_2^- (b) concentrations for SODIS and photo-343Fenton processes. Disinfection experiments with NO_3^- and NO_2^- (c). Changes of concentrations during the different344processes (d). The detailed disinfection results for SODIS and photo-Fenton in the presence of NO_3^- and NO_2^- are345presented in Figures S4 and S5.

Generally, NO_3^- and NO_2^- are naturally occurring ions that are part of the nitrogen cycle. These ions can reach both surface water and groundwater because of agricultural activity: in fact, fertilizers contain inorganic nitrogen and wastes contain organic nitrogen, which is first decomposed to give ammonia and then oxidized to give NO_2^- and, finally NO_3^- . It is not surprising that NO_3^- and NO_2^- play a significant role in photochemical processes, although their significance in the photo-Fenton process has been questioned [73]. Our findings suggest that NO_3^- and NO_2^- at environmental concentrations have a real potential to enhance bacterial disinfection, even under photo-Fenton conditions.

354

355 **3.1.5.** NH⁺₄ effects

356 Ammonia is a common, naturally occurring substance. The main local problem of NH₃ released into the air is 357 the unpleasant odor, which is detectable even at low concentrations. The harm caused by NH₄⁺ in water 358 bodies is more serious, because it is very toxic to aquatic organisms. Figure 5 summarizes the experiments carried out upon addition of ammonium sulfate, to simulate an excess of NH₄⁺ in water. The sulfate counter-359 360 ion was chosen because of its limited effects on bacterial disinfection (see section 3.3). Figure 5(a) reports the pseudo-first order kinetic constant values calculated for both SODIS and the photo-Fenton processes at 361 362 all tested NH₄⁺ concentrations, while Figure 5(b) shows the most significant disinfection graphs. The addition 363 of NH₄⁺ had practically no effect in the case of SODIS, while a significant enhancement could be seen with photo-Fenton. The pH of both systems, which is affected by the initial NH₄⁺ concentration used, did not 364 365 show any particular change during either process (Figure 5c). Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 5(c), no variation of NH_4^+ concentration was observed during SODIS treatment. 366

However, the photo-Fenton process revealed a decrease in NH_4^+ concentration (Figure 5c). The most likely explanation for this finding is that ammonia photo-oxidation by H0[•] generates NO_2^- and NO_3^- ions [78,79]. In a summarized way, the reaction pathway reads as follows (Eqs. 32-34):

$$NH_4^+ + OH^- \rightleftharpoons NH_3 + H^+$$
(32)

$$NH_3 + 6H0^{\bullet} \rightarrow NO_2^- + 4H_20 + H^+$$
 (33)

$$NH_3 + 8H0^{\bullet} \rightleftharpoons NO_3^- + 5H_2O + H^+$$
 (34)

We note here that although the oxidation of ammonia may be mediated by O_2 , the relevant reaction rates would be very slow [32]. The formation of photochemically active nitrate and nitrite upon ammonia oxidation might explain the observed disinfection enhancement, which is likely due to the production of HO[•] upon photolysis of NO_2^- and NO_3^- . The contribution of the SO_4^{2-} counter-ion to bacterial disinfection at the used concentration values of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ is negligible (see Figure 3).



375

Figure 5: Kinetic constants values at different NH_4^+ concentrations for SODIS and photo-Fenton processes (a). Disinfection experiments with NH_4^+ (b). Changes of NH_4^+ concentration during the different processes (c). The detailed disinfection results for SODIS and photo-Fenton in the presence of NH_4^+ are presented in Figure S6.

380 **3.2.** Effect of ions on SODIS and photo-Fenton in the presence of Natural Organic Matter (NOM)

The presence of Natural Organic Matter (NOM) in water is ubiquitous, and it is the product of both autochthonous and allochthonous processes [80,81]. NOM can act as a filter for sunlight and, because it absorbs throughout the UV-vis spectrum, it can inhibit the inactivation of *E. coli*. However, UV light absorption by NOM produces the corresponding triplet states (³NOM*), the deactivation of which occurs in several ways that include the reaction with oxygen to form singlet oxygen (see Equations 35 and 36). The photoinduced formation of transient species as a function of NOM type, oxygen and NOM concentration was recently systematically investigated, and the main pathways are as follows [45,47] (Eqs. 35-36):

$$NOM + hv \rightarrow {}^{1}NOM \rightarrow {}^{3}NOM^{*}$$
(35)

$$^{3}NOM^{*} + O_{2} \rightarrow NOM + ^{1}O_{2}$$
 (36)

Singlet oxygen can react with water contaminants or bacteria forming peroxidation products, thereby contributing to photochemical decontamination. In addition, if both iron and NOM occur in water at the same time, complex species like [Fe-NOM] are generated. Compared to NOM, these complexes show higher light absorption and quantum yields, enabling ligand-to-metal charge transfer as shown in Equation 37. These reactions contribute to bacteria inactivation [82].

$$[Fe^{3+}NOM]^{3+} + hv \xrightarrow{LMCT} Fe^{2+} + NOM_{OX}^{+}$$
(37)

393 Figures 6 and 7 present an overview of the experimental results obtained when concentrations of ions showing a significant (either positive or negative) effect on disinfection ("optimal" concentrations, as 394 395 determined in the previous section) were added in the presence or absence of organic matter, for both 396 SODIS (Fig. 6) and photo-Fenton processes (Figure 7). In both series of experiments, the Suwanee River NOM (SRNOM, 2 mg C L⁻¹) that was used as model is expected to actively participate in *E. coli* inactivation. During 397 398 SODIS a fraction of light can be filtered by SRNOM, inducing its excitation and transient species generation. If 399 the SRNOM amount is sufficiently low and water is not deep (i.e., the optical path is short, as in the present 400 case), the overall system is optically thin and there is limited competition for irradiance between SRNOM

and bacteria. Indeed, the fact that bacterial inactivation showed an increase in kinetics in the presence of
the organic material suggests that the photosensitization effect of SRNOM was more important than its
light-screening role.

404 Interestingly, whichever the added ions, no process was significantly faster than plain solar/NOM. Most of the ions did not induce further effects, including NO_3^- , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ . A small but measurable 405 406 inactivation increase was only observed for NO_2^- (see section 4.1 for a discussion of this effect), and a notable decrease was attained upon addition of HCO₃. The inhibition effect carried out by HCO₃ could be 407 due to a possible scavenging of the transient species (e.g., ${}^{3}NOM^{*}$) by HCO₃, with possible production of 408 $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ that may be less reactive compared to ³NOM^{*}. Actually, $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ is effectively scavenged by ground-state 409 410 NOM, differently from ³NOM* that mainly reacts with dissolved oxygen [50]; moreover, the interaction 411 between ${}^{3}NOM{}^{*}$ and HCO_{3}^{-} may partially proceed via physical quenching, without generation of $CO_{3}^{\bullet-}$.

412 The photo-Fenton process was affected by the presence of organic matter in a similar way as SODIS. Firstly, 413 Fe-NOM complexes could be formed in NOM-added photo-Fenton systems; their photolysis enhances the Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ recycling and, consequently, the disinfection kinetics as well. NOM is able to scavenge all radicals 414 415 studied before, namely $CO_3^{\bullet-}$, $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and HO^{\bullet} , with high second-order reaction rate constants (in the order of $10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for HO[•], $10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for SO^{•-}₄, and $10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for CO^{•-}₃ [69,83–86]). Since there is no correlation 416 417 between the above scavenging rate constants and the observed effect on bacteria, we can assume that the enhanced formation of reactive species triggered by irradiated NOM and [Fe-NOM] complexes would out-418 419 compete the consumption of photogenerated radical transients.





Figure 6: Combined effect of all ions with NOM in SODIS treatment.



Figure 7: Combined effect of all ions with NOM in photo-Fenton process.

On the contrary, NOM and NO_2^- together increased the photo-Fenton efficiency. However, if we compare the kinetic constants in the presence of only NOM ($k_1 = 0.1 \text{ min}^{-1}$) and only NO_2^- ($k_2 = 0.13 \text{ min}^{-1}$), with that observed in the simultaneous presence of NOM and NO_2^- ($k_{1,2} = 0.15 \text{ min}^{-1}$), the effect in the mixture is apparently not additive. This result is likely accounted for by the fact that NOM may scavenge part of the HO[•] radicals photogenerated by NO_2^- .

As a provisional conclusion based on the above findings, we can report that, with minor exceptions, SODIS and photo-Fenton can proceed faster in the presence of organic matter and relatively high amounts of ions. In an effort to generalize our findings about SODIS and photo-Fenton disinfection, the influence of ions and organic matter will be now qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed, regarding the aspects of durability of SODIS and photo-Fenton in the presence/absence of ions, the kinetic modeling of bacterial inactivation (with the aid of APEX software) and the intracellular vs. extracellular pathways to inactivation.

437

3.3. Vulnerability of SODIS vs. photo-Fenton to the occurrence of ions in water: comparison of time for 4 logU reduction (T_{99,99%})

440 In the previous sections, the effects of each ion during SODIS and photo-Fenton were considered. Over the range of concentrations that are expected to be found in natural waters subjected to SODIS, most of the ions 441 442 showed a variation in their profile of enhancement or antagonism towards the treatment process. If one 443 considers the two disinfection options, namely SODIS and photo-Fenton, for waters with an unknown ionic 444 composition, a valid question would be: which process is safer to be applied as a function of its vulnerability 445 to ions that may be present in water? In order to answer this question, a common response variable was 446 chosen for both processes and all ions, i.e., the time necessary to achieve 4logU reduction (T_{99.99%}) of the bacteria. The results are summarized in Figure 8. 447

Figure 8 presents the change of $T_{99.99\%}$ over the original value achieved by SODIS or photo-Fenton without ions (*i.e.*, 204 and 88 min, respectively: the original 4-logU times can be found in the supplementary

450 material, Table S1). This normalized change was calculated separately for each process and for each anion451 (Eq. 38):

$$100 x \left(1 - \frac{T_{99,99\%} - T_{99,99\%}'}{T_{99,99\%}}\right)$$
(38)

452 Where, for each process, $T_{99.99\%}$ was the time necessary for 4 logU reduction and $T'_{99.99\%}$ the corresponding 453 time resulting from the addition of ions.

454 It can be easily deduced that as an overall trend, all ions improved both processes (i.e., decreased their 455 normalized $T_{99.99\%}$), except for HCO₃⁻ during photo-Fenton. As far as the two processes are compared, some ions seem to affect SODIS to a higher extent, namely Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} (at very low concentrations), NO_3^- and NO_2^- . 456 In contrast, NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} (at normal/high concentrations) and HCO_3^- rather affect photo-Fenton. A 457 458 qualitative comparison is given in Table S2. Four of the tested ions acted beneficially for SODIS and photo-Fenton, and two hindered the process; only SO_4^{2-} and Cl^- presented a shift in their influence. Therefore, we 459 can suggest that both SODIS and the photo-Fenton process can work potentially well in natural water, since 460 461 most of the ions have positive, or at least not negative, effect within their typical concentration ranges. 462 Moreover, the ions show predictable behavior as a function of their concentration in water. Among the 463 types of water that can be used for drinking purposes, groundwater usually has the highest number and 464 concentration of ionic species, as well as higher pH (alkaline).

However, as Figure 8 suggests, when Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ are already encountered at high concentrations, 465 466 they can have negative (antagonistic) effects during SODIS or photo-Fenton if their concentration is further 467 increased (note that in most cases, even at high ionic concentrations, the treatment was still faster compared to the case of ultra-pure water; however, ultra-pure water does not occur in the natural 468 environment). For instance, in the case of SODIS, SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^{-} started inhibiting disinfection at 469 respective concentrations above 20 and 100 mg L^{-1} . For natural waters, 20 mg L^{-1} SO₄²⁻ is a relatively low 470 value while 100 mg L^{-1} HCO₃⁻¹ is near the upper limit. Hence, SODIS may be accelerated by increasing HCO₃⁻¹ 471 levels, when these are in the moderate concentration range, and it may be slowed down by increasing SO_4^{2-} 472

473 at its common concentration values (there may be exceptions for groundwater if it contains little SO_4^{2-} , 474 because in that case increasing SO_4^{2-} could rather enhance disinfection).

Similarly, in the photo-Fenton process, one has inhibition in the presence of 10 mg L^{-1} HCO₃⁻¹ or higher, and 475 above 100 mg L⁻¹ Cl⁻. However, 10 mg L⁻¹ HCO₃⁻ is usually near the lower limit, while 100 mg L⁻¹ Cl⁻ is 476 usually higher than the actual values (except for some groundwaters). Therefore, HCO₃ can be considered 477 478 as an antagonistic ion and Cl⁻ as a synergistic one during the photo-Fenton process. This means that, in the 479 typical concentration ranges of the two ions, photo-Fenton is accelerated by increasing Cl⁻ and slowed down by increasing HCO₃⁻. Finally, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ could be viewed as enhancing factors due to their 480 481 (low or high) production of HO[•] (direct in the case of NO_3^- and NO_2^- , indirect -oxidation mediated- in the case of NH₄⁺). Besides, the simultaneous presence of ions could impact the expected individual effect, and 482 483 present antagonism; this explains why many studies in literature encounter a reduction in kinetics when experimenting with natural water sources. 484



486 Figure 8 – Normalized changes (%) in the necessary time to remove 4 logU of bacteria in waters containing ions

487 From the previous parts it can be concluded that in the presence of ions in water, bacterial inactivation is 488 highly dependent on their concentration and, most importantly, the process would be mainly governed by events that take place in the solution bulk (as opposed to events affecting the bacterial cells or membranes). 489 490 As such, an attempt to model the bacterial inactivation by solar-mediated processes could be performed with the APEX software. The SODIS systems containing NOM, NOM + NO_2^- and NOM + NO_3^- are amenable 491 492 to photochemical modeling, as far as endogenous inactivation alone is concerned. The model predicts 493 considerably slower kinetics compared to laboratory experiments (compare the model trends of Figure 9a 494 with the experimental trends for comparable systems, reported in Figure 6), for several reasons that are 495 listed in section 2.5. However, the relative kinetics (i.e., what is faster and what is slower) should be 496 preserved despite these differences [60]. In this context, it is interesting to observe that the model results in Figure 9a predict the NOM + NO_3^- system to produce faster inactivation compared to NOM + NO_2^- , in clear 497 disagreement with the experimental data. The reason is that the steady-state [HO[•]] would be higher in the 498 presence of 30 mg L^{-1} nitrate compared to 5 mg L^{-1} nitrite, as shown in Figure 9b. Indeed, although NO_2^- is 499 more photoactive than NO_3^- and undergoes photolysis to a higher extent (the HO^{\bullet} formation rate is 500 predicted to be higher with 5 mg L^{-1} NO₂⁻ than with 30 mg L^{-1} NO₃⁻), NO₂⁻ itself also acts as HO[•] scavenger. 501 Indeed, in the presence of 5 mg $L^{-1}~NO_2^-$ and 2 mg C L^{-1} NOM, NO_2^- scavenges around 90% of the HO* it 502 mostly contributes to photo-generate (in such conditions, NO₂⁻ photolysis would produce 99.5% of HO[•], the 503 504 remainder being generated by NOM). The HO^{\bullet} scavenging by NO_2^- accounts for the plateau in the relevant [HO[•]] curve of Figure 9b, while no plateau is observed in the case of nitrate. 505

However, the reaction between HO[•] and NO₂⁻ yields a further transient species (NO₂[•]) that might also be involved in the bacterial inactivation process [77]:

$$\mathrm{NO}_{2}^{-} + \mathrm{HO}^{\bullet} \to \mathrm{NO}_{2}^{\bullet} + \mathrm{OH}^{-}$$
(39)

$$2NO_2^{\bullet} \leftrightarrows N_2O_4 \tag{40}$$

$$N_2O_4 + H_2O \rightarrow NO_3^- + NO_2^- + 2H^+$$
 (41)



509



Figure 9. Modeled trends of exogenous bacterial photoinactivation in the systems containing NOM, NOM + NO_2^- ($NO_2^- = 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) and NOM + NO_3^- ($NO_3^- = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) (a). Modeled steady-state concentrations of HO^* and $^*NO_2^-$, as a function of the concentration values of NO_2^- or NO_3^- (b). In both cases the concentration value of NOM (2 mg C L⁻¹) was the same as per the corresponding SODIS experiments described in Figure 6. Model sunlight had a UV irradiance (290-400 nm) of 22 W m⁻², water depth was 7.5 cm.

517 Considering the kinetic system made up of reactions (39-41), and applying the steady-state approximation to 518 HO[•], NO[•]₂ and N₂O₄, one gets the following expression for the steady-state [NO[•]₂] (where k_{40} is the rate 519 constant of 2 NO[•]₂ \rightarrow N₂O₄, and k_{-40} is the rate constant of N₂O₄ \rightarrow 2NO[•]₂) [77]:

$$[NO_{2}^{\bullet}] = \sqrt{k_{39} \frac{k_{-40} + k_{41}}{2k_{40}k_{41}} [HO^{\bullet}][NO_{2}^{-}]} = \sqrt{88[HO^{\bullet}][NO_{2}^{-}]}$$
(42)

Equation (42) was used to model $[NO_2^*]$ in Figure 9b, showing a continuous increase with increasing $[NO_2^-]$. NO₂[•] is much less reactive than HO[•], but it is predicted to be five orders of magnitude more concentrated. Therefore, there is potential for NO₂[•] to contribute to *E. coli* inactivation, which could explain why the nitritecontaining system was more effective than the nitrate one, despite the lower predicted [HO[•]].

524

3.4. Extracellular vs. intracellular mechanisms of bacterial inactivation during SODIS and photo Fenton processes

527 In many of the processes considered so far, bacteria are the terminal acceptor (target) of a transient species 528 that leads to their inactivation. The addition of ions in the bulk suggests that the participation of the 529 transient species to photo-chemical events happens in the bulk as well. With a few possible exceptions, the short lifetimes of the transients suggest that the occurring damage is located at the cell wall, whose eventual 530 531 rupture leads to bacterial death. However, there is growing evidence that bacterial inactivation by the 532 photo-Fenton or the persulfate process can also affect the intracellular domain of microorganisms [15,74]. Here we present an overview of the pathways that are induced when certain ions are present in the 533 534 extracellular environment of bacteria, and how their presence might affect bacterial inactivation 535 mechanisms.

Among the mentioned ions, NO_3^-/NO_2^- , SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^- can interfere with the "normal" disinfection events that take place in pure water. Firstly, in the anaerobic metabolism, NO_3^-/NO_2^- mediate cellular respiration and become electron acceptors. Even in aerobic conditions, during assimilatory metabolism, NO_3^- and NO_2^- 539 can be imported into the cell by the Nrt family of transporters (NRT-nitrate transporters). Nitrate is then reduced to NO_2^- by Nar (Nar-nitrate reductases), and it follows final conversion to NH_3 [87] (see the Kyoto 540 Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes -KEGG pathway extract in the supplementary material, Fig. S7). Also, 541 sulfur is essential to *E. coli* for cysteine synthesis, thus there is an active system of SO_4^{2-} transport into the 542 543 cell (3.4 mgS/mL cells) by sulfate transporters (Cys-sulfate permease family) [88,89] (see KEGG pathway in 544 the supplementary material, Fig. S8). HCO_3^- can also be transferred by the bicarbonate transporters family or the Sbt (Sbt-sodium-dependent bicarbonate transporter) homologues [90] (see a summary of the 545 546 transporters in supplementary Figure S8).

If we account for the photo-Fenton process taking place inside the cell, (and involving "natural" intracellular, non-bulk added, Fe and H_2O_2), which also leads to the generation of HO[•], then the aforementioned ions at high concentration may cause a new intracellular oxidative balance: NO_3^-/NO_2^- upon irradiation may yield further intracellular HO[•], while HCO_3^- might scavenge the generated HO[•] to produce $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ and SO_4^{2-} might complex Fe³⁺. As such, a summary of the intracellular and extracellular mechanisms that lead to bacterial inactivation is provided in Fig. 10.



Figure 10 – Overall mechanistic proposition for the influence of ions on bacterial inactivation.

555

554

The depicted actions are separated horizontally as SODIS (10a,b) and photo-Fenton (10c,d) while their effect, positive or negative is denoted vertically (positive: 10a,c and negative: 10b,d). The overview of the involved actions is as follows, stating from SODIS (numbers below correspond to those in Fig. 10):

Action 1: Light-mediated excitation of NO_3^-/NO_2^- leads to the generation of HO[•] (Fig. S10). Moreover, the 559 560 occurrence of NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ in the bulk suggests their possible transport into the intracellular domain, where 561 they could generate further HO[•]. Action 2: Cl⁻affects the bacterial membrane by reducing its viability. 562 Action 3: On the other hand, the presence of high amounts of HCO_3^- inhibits SODIS and, in addition to the bulk effects of HCO₃, this ion may affect intracellular inactivation as well. For instance, high intracellular 563 564 HCO₃ may act as an important HO[•] scavenger and inhibit the internal (SODIS-triggered) photo-Fenton reactions (the latter would involve the Fe species and H_2O_2 that naturally occur in the intra-cellular 565 566 compartments, even without external addition of Fenton reagents [15]).

For the photo-Fenton process, the following actions can be highlighted. Action 4: The presence of Fe²⁺ and 567 568 H₂O₂ in the solution ensures the transport of both species into the cell and, consequently, the enhancement of intracellular photo-Fenton. Action 5: The above process (4) leads to the generation of HO* that attacks 569 the cell, while light regenerates Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} . Action 6: The HO[•] generated as per the above discussion can 570 react with HCO_3^- to produce $CO_3^{\bullet-}$. Action 7: Furthermore, in the presence of NO_3^-/NO_2^- , additional HO[•] 571 572 production ensues that enhances bacterial inactivation. On the other hand, the normal HO[•] production 573 (Action 8) is disrupted by high amounts of HCO_3^- that acts as scavenger, thereby exerting a negative effect 574 on both the HO[•] occurrence (Action 9 and Action 10) and the subsequent bacterial inactivation.

575 **4. Conclusions**

In this work, the effect of inorganic ions and natural organic matter occurring in aqueous matrices on the efficacy of *E. coli* removal by the SODIS and photo-Fenton processes was systematically studied. The investigated concentration values varied extensively to cover commonly encountered concentrations in surface waters, rainwater and groundwater, which constitute the most commonly used matrices in solarmediated disinfection.

581 From the obtained results, we can confer that not all ions have the same impact, and their effect is subject to the concentration values and the process applied (SODIS or photo-Fenton). More specifically, HCO₃⁻ was 582 583 found to produce a small enhancement in inactivation kinetics in some conditions but, at environmentally relevant concentrations, it will always be an antagonistic factor. On the contrary, NO_3^-/NO_2^- and NH_4^+ , can 584 585 be expected to aid either SODIS or photo-Fenton disinfection. Disinfection by both processes will be faster in the presence of Cl^{-} and SO_{4}^{2-} than in their absence but, starting from the typical concentration values found 586 in surface waters, a further increase of Cl⁻ will enhance SODIS while disrupting the photo-Fenton process, 587 and the opposite will occur with SO_4^{2-} . Nevertheless, despite the various levels tested in this study, natural 588 waters that contain a mixture of these ions and NOM present in various cases a negative impact. 589 590 Furthermore, although NOM was beneficial for both SODIS and photo-Fenton, its presence can be an 591 inhibiting factor for the secondary oxidants and radicals generated by the ionic species during the photo-592 assisted processes (except for NO₂). However, a wider investigation will be necessary to locate the possible 593 tipping point(s) in the interaction between NOM and the ions.

Finally, from the aforementioned results we can conclude that SODIS and photo-Fenton are quite robust processes: they are certainly suitable for the disinfection of natural waters, although their effectiveness could be hampered when treating some types of groundwater. Indeed, in most cases the added ions at typical concentration values in surface waters produced a decrease in the time required to inactivate 99.99% of *E. coli* (exception: HCO_3^-). In addition, even in highly antagonistic conditions, photo-Fenton was always

faster than the SODIS process. This fact makes photo-Fenton an attractive solution that must be further evaluated in sunny or developing countries, to see whether it really is an effective measure at household or community level to achieve natural water disinfection.

602

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612

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