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## The fate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> during managed aquifer recharge: A residual from advanced oxidation processes for drinking water production



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#### HIGHLIGHTS

- Different decomposition factors of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as a residual of AOP in MAR systems were studied.
- Inorganic substances in sand and microbial biomass are main factors to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition.
- Low concentration H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> may decompose in the first several centimeters of MAR systems.

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#### ABSTRACT

The fate of  $H_2O_2$  residual from advanced oxidation process (AOP) preceding managed aquifer recharge (MAR) is of concern because  $H_2O_2$  could lead to undesired effects on organisms in the MAR aquatic and soil ecosystem. The objective of this study was to distinguish between factors affecting  $H_2O_2$  decomposition in MAR systems, simulated in batch reactors with synthetic MAR water and slow sand filter sand. The results showed that pure sand and soil organic matter had no considerable effect on  $H_2O_2$  decomposition, whereas naturally occurring inorganic substances on the surface of sand grains and microbial biomass are the two main factors accelerating  $H_2O_2$  decomposition in MAR systems. Additionally, the results showed that the  $H_2O_2$  decompositions with different initial concentrations fitted first-order kinetics in 2-6 h in a mixture of slow sand filter sand (as a substitute for sand from a MAR system) and synthetic MAR water with high bacterial population. An estimation indicated that low concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (<3 mg/L) could decompose to the provisional standard of 0.25 mg/L in the first centimeters of MAR systems with the influent water containing high microbial biomass 38 ng ATP/mL.

#### 1. Introduction

Managed aquifer recharge (MAR), such as river bank filtration, dune infiltration and artificial recharge, is a natural water treatment process that induces surface water to flow through soil/sediment and into a vertical or horizontal well (Maeng et al., 2011; Tufenkji et al., 2002). This treatment process is robust and cost-effective and is frequently applied in Europe (Van der Hoek et al., 2014). For example, in the Netherlands and Germany, water utilities using MAR as a water treatment process supply drinking water without chlorination as disinfection process (Lekkerkerker, 2012;

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Maeng, 2010). Previous research demonstrated that the combination of advanced oxidation process (AOP) and subsequent MAR is a potential treatment system to remove various organic micro-(OMPs) during drinking water pollutants (Lekkerkerker-Teunissen et al., 2012; Lekkerkerker et al., 2009; Oller et al., 2011). A disadvantage of applying AOP with O<sub>3</sub> is the formation of bromate during oxidation of bromide containing waters. In order to reduce the formation of bromate which has been designated as carcinogenic to humans (Kurokawa et al., 1990), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> should be dosed excessively (Knol, 2012; Von Gunten and Oliveras, 1998; Wert et al., 2007). Consequently, the MAR infiltration water may contain residual concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

A number of studies about H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition in aquatic ecosystems and soil ecosystems have focused on biotic factors, such as bacteria (Richard et al., 2007; Zappi et al., 2000) and other microorganisms (Cooper and Lean, 1989; Richard et al., 2007) and

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abiotic factors, such as iron (Moffett and Zafiriou, 1993; Wilson et al., 2000), manganese (Do et al., 2009; Häkkinen et al., 2004; Russo et al., 2013), transition metals (Lousada and Jonsson, 2010; Moreno et al., 2011), lanthanide oxides (Lousada et al., 2013) and iodide (Wong and Zhang, 2008). H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition in water also has been reported (Cooper and Lean, 1989; Moffett and Zafiriou, 1993; Richard et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2000). The results of Schumb (1949) showed that manganese and iron were extremely reactive with concentrated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solutions. Also, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition studies have been conducted in metal- or DOC-rich waters (Chirita, 2009; Wilson et al., 2000). Previous research found that a large fraction of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> loss in both a fresh water system and soil was attributable to biotic mechanisms. Richard et al. (2007) found that biologically based reactions (i.e., catalase) were the primary mechanism for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition in a shallow fresh water system in New Zealand. It was observed from the literature of Zappi et al. (2000) that the first-order rate constant of biotic reactions was always much higher than that of abiotic reactions for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition in various soils with different calcium, iron, manganese, TOC and phosphorus contents. It is clear that the fate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in aquatic systems has been investigated comprehensively, and a few studies focused on the reactions of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with naturaloccurring constituents in soil (Bissey et al., 2006; Miller and Valentine, 1999). These publications investigated the stability of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as the oxygen source for bioremediation activities in soil, because of several potential interactions of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with various soil constituents and its potentially fast decomposition. Studies of Morgan and Watkinson (1992) and Schumb (1949) reported reaction of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with naturally occurring stabilizers, such as tripolyphosphate, MnO<sub>4</sub> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> within soils. Bissey et al. (2006) investigated the interactions between catalyzed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> propagations and soil organic matter (SOM) within surface soil and reported that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition rate decreased with the increase of SOM at neutral pH. Miller and Valentine (1999) examined mechanisms and kinetics of abiotic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition in the presence of sand collected from an aquifer and a riverbed. However, more understanding is needed to determine the fate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in MAR systems specifically. High concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> can cause damage to cell membranes and have deleterious effects on biological systems (Ananthaswamy and Eisenstark, 1976; Collén and Pedersén, 1996; Wong et al., 2003). Schmidt et al. (2006) concluded that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) to the most sensitive bacteria species Psedomonas aeruginosa was 5.1 mg/L. The study of Urfer (1998) demonstrated that the continuous presence of around 1 mg/L H2O2 did not lead to a major inhibition of the biological removal of acetate and formate in a labscale sand drinking water biofilter. Knol (2012) stated that even very low concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> could lead to undesired destruction of organisms in MAR infiltration ponds and he mentioned a provisional standard of 0.25 mg/L H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for MAR infiltration water. Consequently, an improved understanding of the fate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in MAR systems would be essential to see whether this provisional standard or lower concentrations can be reached.

The objective of this study was to distinguish between different factors affecting  $H_2O_2$  decomposition in MAR systems. The general approach in this study was to divide the aquifer environment into two separate physical compartments (water and sand) that contain naturally existing biological and chemical species that might react with  $H_2O_2$ . Batch reactor experiments were conducted to determine the reactions of  $H_2O_2$  with biotic (microbial community in water) and abiotic constituents (pure sand particles, inorganic ions in infiltration water, SOM in MAR sand and naturally occurring inorganic substances coating on sand).

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Materials

The top 0.5–2.0 cm (schmutzdecke) of a slow sand filter (SSF) has diverse microbial communities and greatly contributes to the removal of organic matter by biodegradation processes, so this layer is considered to represent aerobic microbial activity of sand filtration systems (Chekol, 2009; Dizer et al., 2004). The SSF sand in the facilities of drinking water utility Dunea (The Hague, the Netherlands) originated from the dune infiltration area. Consequently, schmutzdecke sand (top of SSF) with natural microbial communities was used in batch reactors as a substitute for the sand in the dune infiltration ponds. As a reference, pure sand (silicon dioxide without any impurities; 1.07711.1000, VWR company) was used. The water for batch reactors was prepared with demineralized water (demi-water) and additive chemicals (33 mg Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>/L, 7.5 mg NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/L, 22 mg K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>/L, 140 mg CaCl<sub>2</sub>/L, 0.031 mg FeCl<sub>3</sub>/L, 0.032 mg NH<sub>4</sub>Cl/L, 40.75 mg MgSO<sub>4</sub>/L, 17.823 mg NaNO<sub>3</sub>/L, 0.00114 mg MnCl<sub>2</sub>/L, 82 mg CH<sub>3</sub>COONa/L) to simulate the water quality at the MAR site of Dunea. The characteristics are presented in Table 1. Based on preliminary experiments, it was found that CH<sub>3</sub>COONa (Merck, Germany) was rapidly consumed as the source of DOC in the batch reactors, so 24 mg/L DOC was added in order to have residual DOC in the reactors and avoid bacterial starving conditions. Dosing carbon source to levels exceeding natural MAR systems may lead to higher microbial biomass concentration in batch reactors than in natural MAR systems (Pharand et al., 2014) and enhance the endurance ability to decompose H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, a short inventory was performed based on observed adenosine triphosphate (ATP) concentrations in different waters to estimate the effect of carbon dosage on  $H_2O_2$  decomposition (§ 3.4). The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solutions were prepared from a 30% standard solution (Merck, Germany). All the solutions used in this study were prepared using water from a Millipore Milli-Q system. All chemicals were of AR grade.

#### 2.2. Batch experimental setup

Batch experiments were performed with 39 glass batch reactors with a volume of 1 L for around 3 months. Batch reactors were filled with 100 g SSF sand and 500 mL synthetic MAR water to simulate MAR systems (Lekkerkerker, 2012; Maeng, 2010). In addition, reference batch reactors were prepared with 100 g pure sand silicon dioxide and 500 mL synthetic MAR water. All batch reactors were placed in a dark room, either temperature controlled (12  $\pm$  0.5 °C) or ambient temperature (23–27 °C), depending on the experiment. Batch reactors were uncovered so that air could enter batch reactors to maintain oxic conditions. To avoid anaerobic conditions, the batch reactors were slightly shaken daily without disturbing the biofilm that had developed on the sand.

#### 2.3. Experiments

To divide the aquifer environment into two separate physical compartments (water and sand) that contain naturally existing biological and chemical species that might react with  $H_2O_2$ , this study used an experimental set-up as shown in Fig. 1, providing an overview of batch reactors' conditions used in the experiments. All batch reactors were prepared and sampled in triplicate. The performed experiments were divided into:

a) Abiotic: H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition under autoclaved conditions (with/without sand)

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