1	Title: Assessment of solar photo-Fenton, photocatalysis, and H ₂ O ₂ for removal of
2	phytopathogen fungi spores in synthetic and real effluents of urban wastewater.
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1 Abstract

2 Scarcity of fresh water is a major environmental problem, and properly treated 3 wastewater could be an alternative renewable water resource, especially for agriculture as 4 the final point-of-use. But before wastewater can be reused, it must be treated to meet 5 chemical and biological quality standards, which depend on the final use and legislation. 6 Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs) have been demonstrated to be very efficient in 7 decreasing the pathogen load in contaminated water. This study presents the experimental evaluation of several solar-driven AOPs, i.e., photo-Fenton (Fe^{2+} , Fe^{3+}) at low reagent 8 9 concentration, heterogeneous photocatalysis (TiO_2), and solar photoassisted H_2O_2 10 treatment for removal of the spores of *Fusarium* sp, a worldwide phytopathogen. The 11 experimental work was done in a pilot solar photoreactor with compound parabolic 12 collectors (CPC). Disinfection of Fusarium solani spores by all treatments was excellent 13 in distilled water and in simulated municipal wastewater effluent (SMWWE). 14 Degradation of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was also evaluated. The inactivation 15 rates varied depending on the water matrix, and disinfection was fastest in distilled water followed by SMWWE. The best F. solani inactivation rate was with photo-Fenton 16 treatment (10/20 mg/L of Fe²⁺/H₂O₂) at pH 3, followed by H₂O₂/Solar (10 mg/L) and 17 18 finally TiO₂/Solar was the slowest. These results underline the importance of solar AOPs 19 and the CPC reactor technology as a good option for waterborne pathogen removal. 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 Keywords: Fusarium sp, Compound Parabolic Collector, Photo-Fenton, Solar radiation, 31 Titanium dioxide, Wastewater reuse.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Reuse of wastewater is currently one of the strongest alternative solutions for 3 water scarcity [1], and the need to make use of this resource is constantly increasing due 4 to urban, industrial and agricultural water pollution [1]. Reuse for agriculture is of special 5 interest, because according to the FAO, it is the largest fresh water consumer [2]. Scarcity 6 of fresh water sources, biological contamination of water, and soil salinization affect food 7 production worldwide. To save water, especially where there is a salinity problem and/or 8 water sources are scarce, hydroponic agriculture could be a solution, as plants are grown 9 in a recirculating nutrient solution instead of soil, thereby reducing the water requirement 10 and making use of land lost to salinization. In addition, it can also make use of water 11 from properly treated wastewater effluents [3]. However, before waste water can be used, 12 any pathogens must be removed, because this is one of the most common ways that 13 diseases are spread in hydroponic crops. The largest group of pathogens is the fungi, 14 which also produce the most diseases in plants. The pathogen load in water reclaimed for 15 irrigation must therefore be reduced to decrease the incidence of crop diseases and health 16 risk to agricultural products [4].

17 Traditional techniques used to eliminate pathogens from water do not always 18 ensure complete disinfection. Chemical pesticides, fungicides, etc., increase pollution of 19 soil and fresh water and are often ineffective. The use of chlorine has been restricted 20 because of its generation of hazardous trihalomethane by-products in the presence of 21 organic matter, and other traditional chemical fungicides, such as etridiazol, are known to 22 become phytotoxic [5]. On the other hand, interest of researchers in new water treatment 23 techniques like the Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs) has increased in the last few 24 decades. These processes have been widely studied since the 60s [6]. AOPs generate 25 oxidizing species (especially OH') which attack organic chemical compounds, often 26 completely mineralizing them into CO₂ and H₂O [7]. Research on the degradation of 27 hazardous chemical compounds in water by AOPs, and in particular, photo-Fenton and 28 titanium dioxide (TiO₂) using natural solar radiation, should be highlighted [6]. The 29 effectiveness of this technology is especially enhanced by the solar reactors used. AOPs 30 in Compound Parabolic Collector (CPC) reactors have been demonstrated to be highly 31 efficient for removing chemical compounds and pathogens from water [6,8]. The effectiveness of solar photo-Fenton and TiO₂ has been shown for several kinds of microorganisms, spores of fungi like *Fusarium* spp (a large genus of filamentous soil fungi found in water systems worldwide, including reservoirs, rivers, coastal seawater, wastewater effluents, and even hospital water distribution systems [9,10,11]), and bacteria like *E. coli* [12,13].

6 Titanium dioxide is one of the most widely studied photocatalysts. It is a
7 semiconductor particle, which when photoexcited by photons at λ < 385 nm in water in
8 the presence of oxygen, generates superoxide ions (O2[•]) and hydroxyl radicals (OH[•])
9 [14].

More recently, research on photo-Fenton for water disinfection has increased due to its high potential for producing OH[•] radicals at acid pH (optimum for Fenton reaction 2.8). This system consists of generating OH[•] through the catalytic cycle of iron ions (Fe²⁺) combined with H₂O₂ irradiated by UV-Vis up to a wavelengths of 600 nm [15]:

14

15
$$Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2 \to Fe^{3+} + OH^- + OH^{\bullet}(K=70M^{-1}s^{-1})$$
 (Eq. 1)

16
$$Fe(OH)^{2+} + hv \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + OH^{\bullet}$$
 (Eq. 2)

17

An alternative to the above mentioned solar AOPs is solar photo-assisted H_2O_2 (H_2O_2 /Solar). This process has recently shown good inactivation efficiencies using less than toxic H_2O_2 concentrations to remove microorganisms like bacteria and fungi in water [11,12,16,17].

This article reports on the efficiency of solar-driven photo-Fenton with Fe^{2+} and Fe³⁺, TiO₂ and H₂O₂/sunlight in a 60-L CPC reactor for inactivating spores of *Fusarium solani* in distilled water (DW) and simulated municipal wastewater effluent (SMWWE).

25

26 2. Materials and methods

27 2.1 Compound Parabolic Collector (CPC) solar reactor

The CPC solar photo-reactor (Figure 1a) used for all experiments is described elsewhere [10,11]. It consists of two CPC mirror modules, with 20 borosilicate-glass tubes. The total irradiated collector surface is 4.5 m^2 and the illuminated water volume is 45 L over a total volume of 60 L. The flow rate is set at 30 L/min for turbulent flow (Reynolds = 16,600). pH, dissolved oxygen, and temperature were continuously
 monitored and recorded by software.

3

4

2.2 Enumeration and quantification of *Fusarium solani* spores

5 F. solani was isolated from samples taken in the Andarax River in Almería, Spain, as described elsewhere [9,10,11]. Spores were counted using the pour plate 6 7 technique by spreading 50, 250, 500 µL in acidified malt agar (Panreac, Spain). Spore 8 concentration is expressed as colony forming units per milliliter (CFU/mL). The 9 quantification method detection limit (DL) is $2(\pm 2)$ CFU/mL. Three replicates were done 10 of all samples and treatments. For real wastewater experiments, all naturally occurring 11 fungi (so-named 'other fungi' in Figure 7b) present in the effluent were detected and 12 enumerated using same growing media and culture protocol as that used for *Fusarium*. 13 These water samples were plated without any dilution and the DL was the same.

14

15 **2.3 Solar treatments**

16 All experiments were conducted in triplicate at the PSA under natural solar 17 radiation on completely sunny days and lasted 5 h. The results of the three replicates were 18 highly reproducible. The average of the results is reported along with an error equal to the 19 standard deviation. Reactor tank was filled with 60L of either distilled water, or synthetic 20 WW effluent, or real WW effluent, for each type of experiment. In all cases, Fusarium 21 suspension and reagents were added to the CPC reactor water and recirculated in the dark 22 for 15 min (homogenization time). After that, the reactor was uncovered and 10-mL 23 samples were taken during the experiment for spore and reagent quantification. The first 24 sample was used to determine the starting spore concentration and as a control, and 25 therefore, it was kept in the dark at 25°C and re-plated again at the end of the experiment. 26 Fungal regrowth (48 h) was also evaluated at the end of the experiment, and no regrowth 27 was found in water samples when the DL was reached.

For the case of synthetic effluents disinfection, the following solar runs were done: (i) H₂O₂/sunlight (10 mg/L); (ii) TiO₂/sunlight (100 mg/L); (iii) photo-Fenton at pH 8, with Fe²⁺/H₂O₂: 5/10 mg/L; (iv) photo-Fenton at pH 3 with Fe²⁺/H₂O₂: 5/10 mg/L and 10/20 mg/L, same photo-Fenton tests with additional H₂O₂ dosing to avoid limitation of

- photo-Fenton reactions by lack of H₂O₂, therefore the minimum H₂O₂ concentration was
 above 2 mg/L during the treatment in all cases; (v) photo-Fenton at pH3 with Fe³⁺/H₂O₂:
 5/10 mg/L and 10/20 mg/L, and same photo-Fenton tests with similar H₂O₂ adding.
- For the case of real effluents disinfection, the following solar runs were done: (i) H₂O₂/sunlight (10 mg/L) with adding of 60 mg/L (6 times 10 mg/L to maintain the level of H₂O₂ in the water); (ii) TiO₂/sunlight (100 mg/L); (iii) photo-Fenton at pH 3, with Fe²⁺/H₂O₂: 5/10 mg/L with additional H₂O₂ dosing of 50 mg/L.
- 8

9 2.4 Types of water

Distilled water was used as a model water to study inactivation behavior in absence of organic and inorganic salts. The simulated municipal wastewater effluent (SMWWE), which avoided fluctuation in Dissolved Organic Matter (DOC) generated by the microbiological load and the chemical compound variability of real MWWE, was the complex water. SMWWE with 25 mg/L of DOC was used as the wastewater effluent model. The same kind of simulated wastewater effluent has been used elsewhere [11,17].

Real effluents from a municipal wastewater treatment plant in Almería were
freshly collected for the experiments (RMWWE). This effluent proceeds from a
secondary treatment, i.e. activated sludge treatment followed by sedimentation in settling
ponds. RWWE had an average DOC of 16.5 mg/L, dissolved inorganic carbon of 72
mg/L, turbidity of 8.5 NTU, pH 7.6, and conductivity 1790 µS/cm.

21

22 2.5 Reagents

H₂O₂ (30 wt%, Riedel-de-Haën, Germany) was used as received and diluted directly in the reactor water. The H_2O_2 concentration was measured during the solar experiment by a colorimetric method with Titanium (IV) oxysulphate (Riedel-de-Haën, Germany) [11,16].

Ferrous sulphate heptahydrate (FeSO₄·7H₂O, Panreac, Spain) and ferric nitrate (Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O, Panreac, Spain) were used as the sources of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺, respectively. Iron concentration was determined with 1.10 phenanthroline according to ISO 6332. The mg/L iron to H₂O₂ concentration ratio was 1:2. 1 TiO₂ Aeroxide P25 particles (Evonick, Degussa Corp., Germany) were used as 2 received from the manufacturer. The powder was diluted in a small volume of water and 3 then added to the reactor to form a homogeneous suspension.

4

5 **2.6 Solar radiation**

6 A global UVA pyranometer (295–385 nm, Model CUV4, Kipp & Zonen, 7 Netherlands) tilted 37 degrees was used to measure UV irradiance (in W/m²) during the 8 experiments. As the experiments were conducted on different days, to compare results, 9 the inactivation kinetics was evaluated as a function of cumulative energy per unit of 10 volume (Q_{UV} , kJ/L) received in the photo-reactor [8]. Q_{UV} is commonly used to compare 11 results under different conditions as calculated by Equation 3:

12

$$Q_{uv,n} = Q_{uv,n-1} + \Delta t_n U V_{G,n} A_r / V_t; \Delta t_n = t_n - t_{n-1}$$
(Eq. 3)

14

15 where $Q_{uv,n}$ and $Q_{uv,n-1}$ is the cumulative UV energy per liter (kJ/L) at times *n* and *n-1*; 16 $UV_{G,n}$ is the average incident radiation on the irradiated area (W/m²), Δt_n is the 17 experimental time of sample (s), A_r is the illuminated area of collector (m²), and V_t is 18 the total volume of water treated (L).

All experiments started at the same local time and lasted 5 hours in consecutive days, so that water temperature and solar UVA irradiance was similar between different solar tests. The average solar UVA irradiance during all the experiments was $35.3(\pm 1.2)$ W/m^2 , with maximum and minimum values of $28.2(\pm 1.2)$ W/m^2 and $49.1(\pm 2.0)$ W/m^2 , respectively (Figure 1b). The typical solar spectrum recorded in the location of the experiments during one of these days is also presented (inset of Figure 1b).

25

26 2.7 Kinetics reaction

The inactivation kinetics of the different treatments was calculated using the Q_{UV} parameter instead of the duration of the experiment. For this purpose Chick's law was adjusted to the photo-chemical results using the solar UVA energy received in the photoreactor (Q_{UV}) which also takes time into account (see Eq. 3)[8]:

$$Log\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) = -k \cdot Q_{UV}$$
(Eq. 4)

where N/N_0 is the reduction in spore concentration, k' is the disinfection kinetic rate, and Q_{UV} is the solar UVA energy received in the photo-reactor.

4

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5 **3. Results and Discussion**

6 **3.1 Spore inactivation by H₂O₂/Solar**

Figure 2 shows the inactivation kinetics of *F. solani* spores in DW and SMWWE with 10 mg/L of H₂O₂ added. The detection limit was reached in DW with a cumulative solar UV irradiance of 13.3 kJ/L. In SMWWE, a similar result required 18.9 kJ/L of Q_{UV} . PH did not show change significantly and remained at 6.7 and 8 in DW and SMWWE, respectively. DOC in SMWWE is shown in Figure 2, where no significant reduction (2 %) is observed.

13 Previous findings have shown *Fusarium* spp spore susceptibility to the synergistic 14 killing effect of H₂O₂/Solar. Sichel et al. demonstrated that addition of H₂O₂ at low 15 concentrations (5-500 mg/L) could enhance the inactivation effect of solar-only 16 disinfection, while similar concentrations in the dark did not have any negative effect on 17 spore viability [16]. F. equiseti chlamydospores were also found to be susceptible to 18 inactivation with 10 mg/L H_2O_2 and solar radiation, achieving higher inactivation kinetics 19 in DW than in SMWWE [11]. Results of our study were similar for F. solani 20 microconidia, where inactivation efficiency was higher in DW than SMMWE. This could 21 be because, the diffusion of H₂O₂ inside cells in absence of any chemical compound may 22 be faster than in presence of organic matter, which under certain conditions, is known to 23 react with H₂O₂ to form disinfection by-products (DBPs) [18]. Therefore, the H₂O₂ 24 reaction with organic matter in SMWWE could cause lower fungi inactivation kinetics 25 than in DW.

The inactivation mechanism of this treatment has also been described in the literature for bacteria like *E. coli* [12], *Salmonella* and coliforms [19], and for fungi spores [11]. This mechanism is based on the H₂O₂ diffusion inside cells, reacting with the 1 free iron (labile iron pool) present inside them, and generating OH[•] by reactions similar to

photo-Fenton (Eq. 1-2), which damage internal structures and finally lead to cell death.

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- 3

4 **3.2 Spore inactivation by TiO₂/Solar**

5 Solar photocatalytic experiments were conducted using 100 mg/L of TiO₂ 6 Aeroxide P25 slurry catalyst. The best conditions for TiO₂ suspensions in the 60-L CPC 7 photo-reactor for similar fungi strains have previously been reported to be 100 mg/L [10]. 8 To achieve complete spore inactivation, 31.8 kJ/L of Q_{UV} were required (Figure 3), and 9 DOC was reduced 56% at the end of the experimental time with 55.42 kJ/L of Q_{UV} . The 10 highest temperature was 44.1°C and pH was almost constant at 7.8.

11 The microorganism inactivation efficiency by TiO₂ with solar energy has been 12 widely studied during the last decades for bacteria to cancer cells [6,19], including 13 *Fusarium* sp spores in a 200-mL solar bottle reactor [9], a 14-L CPC photoreactor [8] and 14 60-L CPC photoreactor [10].

15 Inactivation strongly depends on the OH[•] radicals generated during photocatalysis. 16 First the cell wall is attacked and then cell integrity is disrupted, leading to cell death 17 [20]. Irradiated TiO₂ surfaces react with intermediate hydroperoxide, initiating cascades 18 of autoxidation reactions [21]. The formation of peroxidation products such as aldehydes, 19 ketones, and carboxylic acids at the same time as cell wall membrane constituents 20 disappear has been reported in the literature [21]. Fungi inactivation kinetics could be 21 enhanced by the formation of aggregates of catalyst and microorganisms, allowing attack 22 by OH[•] generated directly on the microorganism cell wall. This effect has been well 23 documented in *Fusarium* sp spores by direct observation of the aggregates formed during 24 the experiments [10]. On the other hand, chemicals like carbonates and bicarbonates in 25 water limit the photocatalytic reaction, as they act as OH' scavengers [22]. SMWWE 26 contains approximately 17 mg/L of Inorganic Carbon (IC) at pH8, which could diminish 27 the efficiency of the photocatalytic treatment. However, these results showed good spore 28 inactivation and DOC degradation even in their presence.

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3.3 Spore inactivation by photo-Fenton (Fe²⁺ or Fe³⁺) in distilled water.

Figure 4a shows spore inactivation by photo-Fenton with different Fe^{2+}/H_2O_2 1 2 concentrations, (5/10 and 10/20 mg/L, respectively). H₂O₂ dosing during the solar 3 treatment was also evaluated. pH was not adjusted to optimum (pH 2.8) to avoid any chemical modification in the water matrix. Table 1 shows H₂O₂ consumption, pH, Fe²⁺, 4 Fe^{3+} and total iron (Fe^T) measured during the experiments. Dissolved iron measured 5 6 during the experiment was almost the total starting amount, and high iron loss due to 7 precipitation at neutral pH was not observed. The detection limit (DL) was reached in all 8 cases. No significant differences were observed among the different test conditions. The 9 energy required to reach the DL varied from 26 to 29.5 kJ/L of Q_{UV}, with best results with 5 and 10 mg/L of Fe²⁺/H₂O₂ (Figure 4a). Therefore, in DW, neither the addition of H₂O₂ 10 11 nor increasing iron concentration from 5 to 10 mg/L led to better microconidia 12 inactivation kinetics.

Similar conditions were evaluated using Fe^{3+} with inactivation results as shown in Figure 4b. In all cases, the DL was met, and a slight enhancement of disinfection efficiency was observed for 5/10 mg/L of Fe^{3+}/H_2O_2 . On the other hand, no significant improvement was achieved with higher iron concentrations (10/20 mg/L of Fe^{3+}/H_2O_2).

Microorganism inactivation by solar photo-Fenton is the result of accumulated damage done by the following simultaneous or sequential processes: (i) Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) generated by the direct action of sunlight, which mainly attack the DNA molecules, generating cross links; (ii) the OH[•] generated by photo-Fenton reactions (Eq. 1-2), affecting mainly the integrity of the external cell wall of the spores.

Nevertheless, when inactivation results with 5 and 10 mg/L of Fe^{2+ or 3+} are 22 compared, photo-Fenton inactivation with Fe^{2+} (26.5 kJ/L, in 3 hours) required less solar 23 UV-energy than Fe³⁺ (37.9 kJ/L, in 4 hours) (Fig. 4a and 4b). This difference can be 24 25 attributed to the different biological behavior of the iron depending on its speciation in the water. In the literature, Fe^{2+} could reportedly cross biological membranes freely, 26 while Fe^{3+} could form exciplexes with organic compounds in the cell wall [12,23]. 27 Therefore, Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} inactivation mechanisms may behave different. Fe^{2+} diffusion 28 29 inside cells may increase the inactivation efficiency by generating OH[•] which reacts with metabolic H_2O_2 according to Eqs. 1-2, while Fe^{3+} may form complexes in the cell wall 30 31 where it causes damage. It should be remarked that the starting total dissolved iron (Fe^{T})

concentration of 5 mg/L remained nearly constant during the experiment for Fe^{2+} , while it 1 decreased from 4.73 to 1.89 mg/L for Fe^{3+} . This difference could also account for lower 2 OH[•] generation by Fe^{3+} than Fe^{2+} . 3

4

Inactivation of F. solani spores was not enhanced by increasing Fe^{2+} or Fe^{3+} 5 concentration from 5 to 10 mg/L, which is in agreement with previous findings [17]. This 6 is explained by precipitation of the iron in water. In both cases, high losses of the initial 7 iron added were observed. This is probably the reason why increasing iron over 5 mg/L 8 does not lead to significant improvement of spore inactivation efficacy. These results 9 show that regardless of how much iron is added at the beginning, it is the amount actually 10 dissolved that is important to photo-Fenton efficiency.

11 On the other hand, the tests with dosed H_2O_2 showed the same efficiency as those 12 without it. H_2O_2 dosing depended on consumption during solar treatment according to 13 Eq. 1. In this case, only was required the addition of a 10 mg/L dose of H_2O_2 during the 14 experiment which did not result in any enhancement in process efficiency (Fig. 4a).

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3.4 Spore inactivation by photo-Fenton (Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+}) in SMWWE.

17 Spore inactivation was evaluated in SMWWE to study the effect of this water on photo-Fenton efficiency. 5 and 10 mg/L of Fe²⁺ or Fe³⁺ combined with 10 and 20 mg/L of 18 19 H_2O_2 , respectively, and the effect of dosing H_2O_2 during the experiment were studied. 20 The DOC concentration was also measured during all tests. Data on pH, H₂O₂ and iron 21 concentration are shown in Table 2.

22 Figure 5a shows that all the photo-Fenton reagent combinations at pH 3 and concentrations tested with Fe^{2+} reached the DL, except for natural pH (pH ~ 8). In that 23 24 case both spores and DOC concentrations remained almost constant during 5 hours of solar exposure, and dissolved Fe^T concentration measured was 0 (Table 2), i.e., all the 25 26 iron added was precipitated and there was no iron available to produce oxidative damage 27 to spores.

28 Moreover, chemical species like carbonates/bicarbonates present in SMWWE 29 decrease process efficiency, as they scavenge radicals like OH[•], and compete with other 30 organic contaminants for OH. This also occurs with phosphate, sulphate, fluoride, 31 bromide and chloride, etc. [6]. Therefore, for the photo-Fenton assays, the pH of the

water was adjusted to ~3 (optimum for photo-Fenton [15]) for several reasons: i) spore 1 2 inactivation at pH8 was very poor; ii) the iron concentration was entirely precipitated; iii) 3 the viability of Fusarium sp spores was not affected at acid pH [17]; and iv) the 4 acidification of the solution also allows carbonates/bicarbonates to be eliminated as CO₂.

5

The detection limit was met with 5/10 and 10/20 mg/L of Fe2+/H2O2, with no 6 significant differences observed between those conditions, which required 20 and 7 18.9 kJ/L of Q_{UV} , respectively (Fig. 5a). Therefore, increased iron concentration did not 8 enhance spore inactivation efficiency. However, DOC was lowered more with 10 mg/L 9 of Fe^{2+} (75%) than with 5 mg/L (65%) (Fig. 5b).

10 The enhancement of inactivation kinetics by dosing H_2O_2 , observed in all 11 SMWWE tests (Fig. 5b), was not observed in DW. In these experiments, H₂O₂ demand 12 was high, and therefore, the 10 mg/L doses had to be added every 30 minutes. Both spore inactivation and DOC reduction were enhanced for 5 and 10 mg/L of Fe²⁺ with 13 14 continuous addition of H_2O_2 . The best inactivation rate was achieved with 10 mg/L of Fe²⁺, which required 8.4 kJ/L of Q_{UV} . At the end of the experiment, 83% DOC reduction 15 16 was obtained with a Q_{UV} of 44.8 kJ/L.

The pattern of spore inactivation kinetics with Fe^{3+} (Fig. 6a) was similar to Fe^{2+} , 17 18 i.e., dosing of H₂O₂ during the experiment led to better spore inactivation results, and 19 increasing iron concentration from 5 to 10 mg/L did not significantly enhance them. DOC 20 degradation (Fig. 6b) was slightly better for 10 mg/L of iron, although no significant 21 difference was observed between the two cases.

Of the two iron salts, Fe^{2+} inactivation kinetics were better, requiring 8.4 kJ/L and 22 23 12.1 kJ/L of Q_{UV} for 10 and 5 mg/L of iron, respectively, and dosed H₂O₂, while the same concentrations of Fe³⁺ needed 12.3 kJ/L and 13.9 kJ/L of Q_{UV} for the same inactivation. 24 25 On the contrary, DOC reduction was very similar in all cases. This means that 26 degradation of chemical compounds is not affected by the starting amount of iron salt 27 added to the photo-Fenton cycle.

28 Spore inactivation mechanisms are similar to those described in the previous 29 section. The direct action of sunlight, OH' generated by Eqs. 1-2 and OH' generated by internal photo-Fenton reactions are mainly responsible for inactivation with Fe^{2+} . In 30 SMWWE, the Fe³⁺ reaction with inorganic compounds like sulphates and chlorides may 31

reduce process efficiency. These inorganic compounds have been shown to reduce the H₂O₂ decomposition rate for Fe³⁺/H₂O₂ in the dark. This effect is due to the formation of Fe³⁺ complexes with the generation of less reactive (SO₄^{•-}) or much less reactive (Cl₂^{•-}) species [24]. Thus the presence of inorganic anions may affect iron reactivity, and can also scavenge OH[•] radicals, producing less reactive inorganic radicals [24].

6 Water temperature can be also an important factor affecting inactivation 7 efficiency in SMWWE. Mild temperatures (from 25 to 45°C) may affect process 8 efficiency in different ways. Raising the temperature in this range increases the 9 disinfection rate, favoring spore germination, affecting distribution of iron and the H₂O₂ 10 consumption rate in the photo-Fenton reaction. Very few studies have reported on the 11 effect of high temperatures (over 50°C) in the photo-Fenton reaction. Gernjak et al. 12 (2006) found that under certain conditions (maximal iron concentration 2.6 mM and 13 maximal temperature 70°C) the reaction rate increased about 5 times in terms of H_2O_2 14 consumption by increasing temperature from 20°C to 50°C, which did not affect the iron 15 concentration [25]. In view of the above considerations, the effect of increasing the 16 temperature required more H_2O_2 to be added during the dosing experiments, i.e., the 17 increased temperature determined that 10 mg/L doses of H₂O₂ had to be added every 30 18 minutes to maintain H_2O_2 concentration. The effect of the water matrix composition on 19 H₂O₂ demands was discarded because H₂O₂ demands in experiments performed with DW 20 at higher temperatures (data not shown) were also higher.

Total consumption of H₂O₂ for 5 and 10 mg/L of Fe²⁺ was 50 and 100 mg/L, 21 22 respectively, while 10 and 20 mg/L of H_2O_2 were consumed when no H_2O_2 was added. In the experiments done with Fe^{3+} , 70 and 140 mg/L of H₂O₂ were consumed during the 23 24 dosage experiments. Spore inactivation and DOC degradation were slightly enhanced 25 when H_2O_2 was added. DOC degradation became stationary where the optimized 26 photoreaction conditions did not lead directly to organic matter degradation 27 enhancement. This is because the organic matter present in the SMWWE consists mainly 28 of aliphatic compounds like carboxylic acids which are very difficult to degrade past a 29 certain percentage.

30 Table 3 shows the inactivation kinetics for SMWWE treatments. The highest 31 inactivation rate was found for photo-Fenton with Fe^{2+} (10 mg/L + dosed H₂O₂). Nevertheless, there are no significant differences in inactivation rates among the
 treatments.

3 Moreover, for solar treatment applications in the field, it should be taken into 4 account that the solar treatments studied require post-treatment (pH neutralization and 5 catalyst removal) before the treated wastewater can be reused. TiO₂ catalyst should be removed from the treated water prior to reuse, for which sedimentation/flocculation and 6 7 filtration are necessary. For H₂O₂/solar, post-treatment is unnecessary if the reagent 8 concentration is below 50 mg/L (10 mg/L), as it is non-toxic for plants [16]. Moreover, 9 Bichai et al. demonstrated the ability of H₂O₂ (10 mg/L)/solar to disinfect real and 10 simulated MWWE contaminated by E. coli, and the treated WW was reused for lettuce 11 irrigating [26]. Small amounts of iron (~10 mg/L) should be used for photo-Fenton 12 treatments to meet water pollution control regulations (e.g., Spanish Royal Decree 849/1986, on Regulation of Water Pollution Control), and these amounts could also be 13 14 used as fertilizer. On the other hand, H₂O₂ concentrations added for photo-Fenton could 15 be neglected as it is consumed by the reactions. The major post-treatment of photo-16 Fenton is neutralization of the pH, as low pH could damage plants.

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18 **3.5 Spore inactivation by three solar AOPs in real MWWE**

19 For experimental validation of the capabilities of these solar AOPs for WW 20 disinfection, the following evaluation has been done in real MWWE. Figure 7 shows the 21 inactivation efficiency of solar/H₂O₂, TiO₂ at 100 mg/L, and photo-Fenton with ferrous sulphate at Fe^{2+}/H_2O_2 : 5/10 mg/L at pH3. These experiments were done at natural pH (8) 22 23 except photo-Fenton, which was done at pH 3 to avoid iron precipitation. This 24 acidification induced carbonates/bicarbonates content removal from this WW (dissolved 25 inorganic carbon = 72 mg/L), which avoids any scavenging effect of these species for 26 hydroxyl radicals. Fusarium inactivation in RWWE (Fig. 7a) was very similar for the 27 three AOPs, reaching the DL at 27 kJ/L of Q_{UV} . Solar H₂O₂ and photo-Fenton in SMME 28 required shorter treatment times and lower Q_{UV} values to achieve similar results, while no 29 differences were observed when TiO₂ photocatalysis was employed.

30 Similarly to the results obtained with SMWWE, DOC was no reduced using 31 solar/H₂O₂. Regarding solar photocatalysis (TiO₂), DOC reduction in real effluents was around 2% (data not shown), while in synthetic effluents this reduction was 55% (Figure 3). This may be attributed to the high complexity (chemical and biological) of real WW effluents compared with synthetic ones. Photo-Fenton led to a 34% reduction in the organic matter (data not shown). This DOC decrease in not very high because the effluent proceeds from an activated sludge treatment and the chemical composition is based in highly degraded/oxidized compounds.

7

8 The role of organic matter in water disinfection by AOPs remains still uncertain. 9 There are controversial studies regarding this matter. According recent contributions, the 10 presence of natural organic matter [12, 27] in real WW favor the disinfection 11 performance of photo-Fenton, which was explained by the authors as an accelerating 12 effect of natural photosensitizers. On the other hand, other articles show a clear 13 detrimental effect of organic matter content on the disinfection efficiency [17, 28], 14 attributed to a competence phenomenon between organic compounds and 15 microorganisms. This study adds more experimental evidences of the capability of solar 16 AOPs for real wastewater disinfection, highlighting also the unfavorable effect of organic 17 content.

18

19 **4.** Conclusions

- Our results demonstrate that the application of solar AOPs for water disinfection and
 further reuse in agriculture may be an efficient practice.
- Different disinfection efficiency results observed for ferrous sulphate and ferric
 nitrate clearly show that iron speciation in water is a key factor in photo-Fenton;
 moreover Fe²⁺ was found to be the best option for *Fusarium* removal although, DOC
 reduction was unaffected by this.
- Some differences in disinfection efficiency were observed between iron (5 and 10 mg/L) and H₂O₂ (10 and 20 mg/L) concentrations. The best disinfection result was observed at 10/20 mg/L of Fe²⁺/H₂O₂ with periodic adding H₂O₂.
- Experimental testing of these solar AOPs in synthetic and real urban WW effluents
 led to similar inactivation times to attain the detection limit. In all cases (synthetic

1	and real), the treatments lasted less than three hours to reduce the Fusarium load to						
2	the detection limit.						
3	• The 60-L CPC solar reactor used in this study showed that this technology is a						
4	promising option for wastewater disinfection in the presence of resistant water						
5	microorganisms.						
6							
7	5. Acl	knowledgements					
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10							
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9		

1 TABLE CAPTIONS

Table 1. Concentration of Fe²⁺, Fe³⁺ and total iron (Fe^T), initial and final, and pH for
different photo-Fenton reactions in distilled water (Figure 3).

Table 2. Concentration of Fe²⁺, Fe³⁺ and total iron (Fe^T), initial and final, and pH for
different photo-Fenton reactions in distilled water (Figures 4 and 5).

Table 3. *F. solani* inactivation kinetics constants.

1 FIGURE CAPTIONS

2	
3	Figure 1. Photograph of the CPC photo-reactor used in this work (a). Solar UVA and
4	spectral irradiance distribution at PSA (Spain) during one of the days of experiment (b).
5	
6	Figure 2. F. solani inactivation in CPC reactor under sunlight and 10 mg/L H ₂ O ₂ in DW
7	and SMWWE.
8	
9	Figure 3. F. solani inactivation in CPC reactor with solar photocatalysis (100 mg/L of
10	TiO ₂) in SMWWE.
11	
12	Figure 4. F. solani inactivation kinetics in CPC reactor using photo-Fenton at different
13	ratios of Fe^{2+}/H_2O_2 (a) and Fe^{3+}/H_2O_2 (b) in distilled water.
14	
15	Figure 5. F. solani inactivation in CPC reactor using photo-Fenton with ferrous sulphate
16	in SMWWE at several concentrations (a), DOC reduction during same experiments (b).
17	
18	Figure 6. F. solani inactivation in CPC reactor using photo-Fenton with ferric nitrate in
19	SMWWE at pH3 and several reagent concentrations (a), DOC removal during same
20	experiments (b).
21	
22	Figure 7. Inactivation profile of <i>F. solani</i> (a) and other naturally present fungi (b) in CPC
23	reactor using solar photo-Fenton (ferrous sulphate, pH3), TiO_2 , and H_2O_2 in real effluents
24	of MWWE.
25	

Table 1

	Fe/H ₂ O ₂	$Fe^{2+}i/Fe^{2+}f$	$Fe^{3+}i/Fe^{3+}f$	Fe ^T _i /Fe ^T _f	pН	
Fe²⁺-Photo-Fenton (<i>Fig. 3a</i>)						
(-∎-)	5/10	0.8/1.2	2.1/1.1	2.9/2.4	4.8	
(-●-)	5/10(+10)*	0.8/1.0	2.8/1.6	3.7/2.6	5.4	
(-▲-)	10/20	0.0/1.2	8.4/0.4	8.4/1.6	6.4	
(-∎-)	5/10	0.2/1.1	4.5/0.7	4.7/1.9	5.2	
(-▲-)	10/20	0.4/1.8	6.9/0.8	7.2/2.7	5.0	

*Experiment with H₂O₂ dosage

Table 2

	Fe/H ₂ O ₂	addition of H2O2 during experim.	$Fe^{2+}i/Fe^{2+}f$	Fe ³⁺ _i /Fe ³⁺ _f	Fe ^T _i /Fe ^T _f	pН		
Fe²⁺-Photo-Fenton (<i>Fig. 4</i>)				on (<i>Fig. 4</i>)				
(-∎-)	5/10	-	-	-	-	8.0		
(-●-)	5/10	-	0.7/0.7	2.9/2.1	3.6/2.8	3.0		
(-▲-)	5/50*	4 x 10 mg/L	1.0/0.5	2.9/0.6	3.9/1.2	3.3		
(-♦-)	10/20	-	1.7/2.2	6.6/4.3	8.4/6.6	3.0		
(-▼-)	10/20*	4 x 20 mg/L	1.6/1.9	6.2/3.7	7.8/5.7	3.0		
Fe ³⁺ -Photo-Fenton (<i>Fig.</i> 5)								
(-∎-)	5/10	-	0.5/1.5	4.6/3.5	5.1/4.9	3.1		
(-●-)	5/10*	6 x 10 mg/L	0.4/1.1	3.6/2.3	4.0/3.4	3.1		
(-▲-)	10/20	-	0.6/2.5	7.7/4.9	8.4/7.5	3.0		
(-▼-)	10/20*	6 x 20 mg/L	0.2/1.1	6.1/6.3	8.2/7.4	3.0		
*E	*Experiments with H ₂ O ₂ dosage							

Table 3

Solar treatment	Fe	H ₂ O ₂	k	\mathbb{R}^2	Kinetic model
	(mg/L)	(mg/L)	(L/kJ)		
H ₂ O ₂ (<i>Fig.</i> 1)	-	10	0.10 ± 0.02	0.95	Log-linear
TiO ₂ (<i>Fig.</i> 2)	-	-	0.07 ± 0.01	0.95	Log-linear
Fe ²⁺ -Photo-Fenton	(Fig. 4a)				
	5 (pH8)	10	0.01 ± 0.00	0.99	Log-linear
	5	10	0.10±0.03	0.95	Log-linear
	5	10+40*	0.17 ± 0.02	0.98	Log-linear
	10	20	0.10 ± 0.01	0.98	Log-linear
	10	20+80*	0.30±0.10	0.93	Log-linear
Fe ³⁺ -Photo-Fenton	(Fig. 5a)				
	5	10	0.10 ± 0.01	0.98	Log-linear
	5	10+60*	0.14 ± 0.01	0.99	Log-linear
	10	20	0.12±0.01	0.99	Log-linear
	10	20+120*	0.14 ± 0.03	0.95	Log-linear

2 *Experiments with H₂O₂ dosage

Figure 1









1 Figure 3







1 Figure 5





- 1 Figure 6





1 **Figure 7**



a)

b)

