

# Photoinduced Generation of Hydroxyl Radical in Natural Waters

Khan M. G. Mostofa, Cong-qiang Liu, Hiroshi Sakugawa, Davide Vione, Daisuke Minakata, M. Saquib and M. Abdul Mottaleb

## 1 Introduction

Hydroxyl radical ( $\text{HO}^\bullet$ ) is a short-lived free radical, and it is the most potent oxidizing transient among the reactive oxygen species. It is an effective, nonselective and strong oxidant that is ubiquitously formed in natural sunlit surface waters (rivers, lakes and seawater and so on), rain, dew, cloud, fog, snow, aerosol, and in all living organisms. The  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is photolytically formed from a variety of sources in natural waters. The first experimental report of a reaction that is now known to produce  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  dates back to Henry John Horstman Fenton, who described the oxidation

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K. M. G. Mostofa (✉) · C. Q. Liu

State Key Laboratory of Environmental Geochemistry, Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang 550002, China  
e-mail: mostofa@vip.gyig.ac.cn

H. Sakugawa

Department of Environmental Dynamics and Management, Graduate School of Biosphere Science, Hiroshima University, 1-7-1, Kagamiyama, Higashi-Hiroshima 739-8521, Japan

D. Vione

Dipartimento di Chimica Analitica, University of Turin, I-10125 Turin, Italy  
Centro Interdipartimentale NatRisk, I-10095 Grugliasco, (TO), Italy

D. Minakata

School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, 828 West Peachtree Street, Suite 320, Atlanta, GA 30332, USA

M. Saquib

Department of Chemistry, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh 202002, Uttar Pradesh, India

M. A. Mottaleb

Department of Chemistry/Physics Northwest Missouri State University, Center for Innovation and Entrepreneurship (CIE), 800 University Drive, Maryville, MO 64468, USA

of Fe(II) with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in aqueous media (Fenton 1894). The Fenton's reaction has been studied by several researchers afterwards (Haber and Weiss 1934; Barb et al. 1951; Hardwick 1957; Wells and Salam 1967, 1968; Po and Sutin 1968; Skinner et al. 1980; Rush and Bielski 1985; Moffett and Zika 1987a, b; Lloyd et al. 1997; Kremer 1999; Lindsey and Tarr 2000). Haber and Weiss in 1934 firstly postulated that the reactivity of the Fenton's reagent is due to the generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in aqueous solution, and that Fe(II) acts as a catalyst for the decomposition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  into  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ . The Fenton's reaction can be used to promote the oxidation of organic compounds (Walling 1975) and has been widely studied to this purpose in the last 25 years (Sychev and Isak 1995; Chen and Pignatello 1997; Gallard et al. 1998; Barbeni et al. 1987; Lindsey and Tarr 2000; Kang et al. 2002; Pignatello et al. 2006).

Hydroxyl radical is also a photo-product of many photolysis reactions that occur in natural waters (Zafiriou 1974; Zafiriou and True 1979a, b; Mill et al. 1980; Draper and Crosby 1981; Russi et al. 1982; Zafiriou et al. 1984; Cooper et al. 1988; Mopper and Zhou 1990; Gjessing and Källqvist 1991; Dister and Zafiriou 1993; Takeda et al. 2004; Vione et al. 2006, 2009a, b; al Housari et al. 2010). In particular,  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  can be produced photolytically from  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Zafiriou and True 1979a, b; Russi et al. 1982; Takeda et al. 2004; Zafiriou and Bonneau 1987; Zepp et al. 1987; Zellner et al. 1990; Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Mack and Bolton 1999) and upon irradiation of various dissolved organic matter (DOM) components (Mill et al. 1980; Mopper and Zhou 1990; Vaughn and Blough 1998; Holder-Sandvik et al. 2000). Hydroxyl radical can be experimentally determined by use of selective probe molecules such as cumene (isopropylbenzene) and pyridine in dilute solution, benzene, terephthalic acid and *para*-chlorobenzoic acid (*p*CBA) (Mill et al. 1980; Takeda et al. 2004; Fang et al. 1996). The rate of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  production mostly depends on the quantity and quality of DOM, on the concentration of other chemical species such as nitrate and nitrite, and on the pH of natural waters.

The chemical reactivity of the Fenton's reaction ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) is significantly increased by UV/Visible irradiation ( $\lambda < 580$  nm), which has for instance been shown to enhance the mineralization of organic pollutants (Haag and Hoigné 1985; Cooper et al. 1991; Zepp et al. 1992; Ruppert et al. 1993; Faust 1994; Voelker et al. 1997; Arakaki et al. 1998; Bossmann et al. 1998; Rossetti et al. 2002; Zepp 2002; Southworth and Voelker 2003; White et al. 2003). Similarly, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ /UV process can produce  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  that can decompose organic substances in aqueous solution (Draper and Crosby 1981; Zellner et al. 1990; Hunt and Taube 1952; Baxendale and Wilson 1956; Volman and Chen 1959; Ho 1986; Vel Leitner and Dore 1996; Berger et al. 1999; Wang et al. 2001; Goldstein and Rabani 2008) as well as in ice (Chu and Anastasio 2005). An advanced process that exploits the photo-Fenton system is the photo-ferrioxalate/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  reaction, where UV/visible irradiation ( $\lambda < 550$  nm) is combined with the presence of excess oxalate (Huston and Pignatello 1996; Safazadeh-Amiri et al. 1996, 1997; Wu et al. 1999; Arslan et al. 2000; Nogueira and Guimaraes 2000; Emilio et al. 2002; Lee et al. 2003; Hislop and Bolton 1999; Jeong and Yoon 2005). The  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radical can also be generated in aqueous suspensions of

TiO<sub>2</sub>, which plays a key role in the heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of organic contaminants (Sun and Bolton 1996; Ullah et al. 1998; Konstantinou and Albanis 2004). However, an important difference between TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysis and the other processes of HO• generation described before is that the irradiation of TiO<sub>2</sub> mainly causes the production of surface-bound HO• groups, which are somewhat less reactive than homogeneous HO• (Serpone and Pelizzetti 1989). The hydroxyl radical has been detected in rainwater, dew, cloud and fog (Arakaki et al. 1998, 1999a, b; Arakaki and Faust 1998; Nakatani et al. 2001; Kobayashi et al. 2002), snow (Chu and Anastasio 2005; Anastasio et al. 2007; Matykiewiczová et al. 2007), aerosols (Anastasio and Jordan 2004), in aqueous extracts of cigarette tar (Zang et al. 1995), and in living organisms (Buettner et al. 1978; Buettner 1987; Miller et al. 1990; Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Cadet et al. 1999; Bourdat et al. 2000; Paradies et al. 2000; Blokhina et al. 2003; Li et al. 2008). The HO• is rapidly consumed in natural waters by the subsequent reactions with dissolved organic compounds (Schuchmann and von Sonntag 1979; Neta et al. 1988; Westerhoff et al. 1999; Goldstone et al. 2002; Miller and Chin 2002; Miller et al. 2002; Ervens et al. 2003) and several inorganic species (Zafirou et al. 1984, 1987; Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Neta et al. 1988; Song et al. 1996).

The generation of HO• and its interaction with the dynamics of DOM and nutrient as well as with aquatic organisms are very important in natural waters. There are a number of factors that can control the production and consumption of HO• in that ecosystem. However, there is no general overview published on HO• in natural waters. A short review by von Sonntag (2007) covers the formation of free radicals and their reactions in aqueous solution.

This review will provide a general overview on sources, production mechanisms, steady state concentration and biogeochemical functions of HO• in water environment. This paper also discusses the analytical methods that can be adopted to measure the photoinduced generation of HO•, the factors controlling its production and decay, as well as the significance and impact of HO• in the aquatic ecosystems. It is shown how the production of HO• differs among DOM components, as well as between freshwaters and marine environments.

## 2 Hydroxyl Radical (HO•) and Other Free Radical Species

The hydroxyl radical (HO•) is the most powerful oxidizing agent among the photolytically generated ones. It is a short-lived, highly reactive and non-selective transient, able to oxidize dissolved organic substances and other chemical species in natural waters. The oxidation potentials for a series of common oxidants in surface waters is as follows: Fluorine (E = 3.03 V) > HO• (2.80 V) > Atomic oxygen (2.42 V) > Ozone (2.07 V) > Peracetic acid (ROOH) (1.80 V) > H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (1.78 V) > Perhydroxyl radical (1.70 V) > Potassium permanganate (1.68 V) > Chlorine dioxide (1.57 V) > Hypochlorous acid (1.49 V) > Chlorine

**Table 1** Oxidation potentials of major oxidants

Free radicals	Oxidation potentials (E°) (V)
Fluorine	3.03
Hydroxyl radical	2.80
Atomic oxygen	2.42
Ozone	2.07
Hydrogen peroxide	1.78
Perhydroxyl radical	1.7
Permanganate	1.68
Chlorine dioxide	1.57
Hypochlorous acid	1.49
Chlorine	1.36

Data source Sun et al. (1997)

(1.36 V) whilst one (Table 1) (Sun et al. 1997). The oxidizing capacity of the hydroxyl radical can be described in terms of its reduction potential (E), which allows the comparison with other powerful oxidants (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Buettner 1993; Ross et al. 1994). One-electron reduction potentials at pH 7.0 for selected radical couples are 2.31 V for HO•, H<sup>+</sup>/H<sub>2</sub>O; 1.60 V for RO•, H<sup>+</sup>/ROH (aliphatic alkoxy radical); 1.00 V for ROO•, H<sup>+</sup>/ROOH (alkyl peroxy radical); 0.92 V for GS<sup>•</sup>/GS<sup>-</sup> (glutathione); 0.60 V for PUFA•, H<sup>+</sup>/PUFA-H (*bis*-allylic-H); 0.59 V for HU<sup>-</sup>, H<sup>+</sup>/UH<sup>2-</sup> (urate); 0.48 V for TO•, H<sup>+</sup>/TOH (tocopherol); 0.32 V for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, H<sup>+</sup>/H<sub>2</sub>O, HO•; 0.28 V for ascorbate<sup>-</sup>, H<sup>+</sup>/ascorbate monoanion; 0.12 V for Fe(III)EDTA/Fe(II)EDTA; and -3.30 V for O<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>• (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Buettner 1993). The HO• reacts with organic compounds at close to diffusion-limited rate constants, which are the fastest after equilibrium reactions and the rate constants (*k*<sub>obs</sub>) for the reaction of the equilibrium mixture of ascorbic acid species (AscH<sub>2</sub>/AscH<sup>-</sup>/Asc<sup>2-</sup> at pH 7.4) are 1.1 × 10<sup>10</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for HO•; 1.6 × 10<sup>9</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for tert-Butyl alkoxy radical (RO•); 1–2 × 10<sup>6</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for Alkyl peroxy radical, e.g. CH<sub>3</sub>OO• (ROO•); 1.8 × 10<sup>8</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for ClCOO•; 6 × 10<sup>8</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for glutathiol radical (GS•); 1 × 10<sup>6</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for urate radical (HU<sup>-</sup>); 2 × 10<sup>5</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for tocopheroxy radical (TO•); 2 × 10<sup>5</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for dismutation (Asc<sup>-</sup>); 1.4 × 10<sup>9</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for chlorpromazine radical action (CPZ<sup>+</sup>•); ≈10<sup>2</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for Fe<sup>III</sup>-EDTA/Fe<sup>II</sup>-EDTA; and 1 × 10<sup>5</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/HO<sub>2</sub>• (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Buettner 1988; Ross et al. 1994). The HO• radical is formed by a variety of sources such as NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> under UV irradiation, the Fenton and the photo-Fenton reaction, the photo-ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system and so on (Legrini et al. 1993). It is directly responsible for a number of important biogeochemical functions in natural waters.

Among other radical species present in natural waters, organic peroxy radicals (ROO•) are intermediates formed photolytically and thermally from organic peroxides, or directly from the degradation of dissolved organic matter. These radicals are short-lived and highly reactive transients. An important process that involves ROO• is the formation of new organic compounds upon rapid combination of

peroxide radicals with organic substances in aqueous solution (Mill et al. 1980; Mageli and Kolczynski 1966; Faust and Hoigne 1987; Blough 1988; Kieber and Blough 1990; Sakugawa et al. 1990; Faust and Allen 1992; Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009). Furthermore, the thermal decomposition of organic peroxides can initiate the polymerization of vinyl monomers or induce cross-linking of a polymeric substrate upon formation of free radical sites on the polymer (Mageli and Kolczynski 1966). The overall (unspeciated) photostationary-state concentration of peroxy radicals in sunlit cloud and fog waters is around 1–30 nM (Faust and Allen 1992).

The superoxide radical anion ( $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ) is the one-electron reduction product of molecular oxygen. It is an early photoinduced and short-lived intermediate that is formed in chemical reactions occurring in natural waters, where oxygen acts as the ultimate electron acceptor (Jeong and Yoon 2005; Bielski et al. 1985; Petasne and Zika 1987; Zafriou 1990; Micinski et al. 1993; Zafriou et al. 1998; Millington and Maurdev 2004). It has been shown that the photoinduced superoxide production rates are 0.1–6.0 nM min<sup>-1</sup> under full-sun irradiation in spring, and 0.2–8.0 nM min<sup>-1</sup> in fall in a variety of Eastern Caribbean waters (Micinski et al. 1993). A key reaction of  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  is the production of  $H_2O_2$  by dismutation; hydrogen peroxide is then able to generate  $HO^{\bullet}$  by direct photolysis or upon photo-Fenton type reactions in sunlit aqueous solutions (Cooper et al. 1988; Micinski et al. 1993; Fischer et al. 1985). Interestingly, the organic complexes of Cu as well as the copper-catalyzed dismutation (involving  $Cu^+$  and  $Cu^{2+}$ ) can be significant sinks of photoproduced  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  in seawater (Zafriou et al. 1998; Voelker et al. 2000).

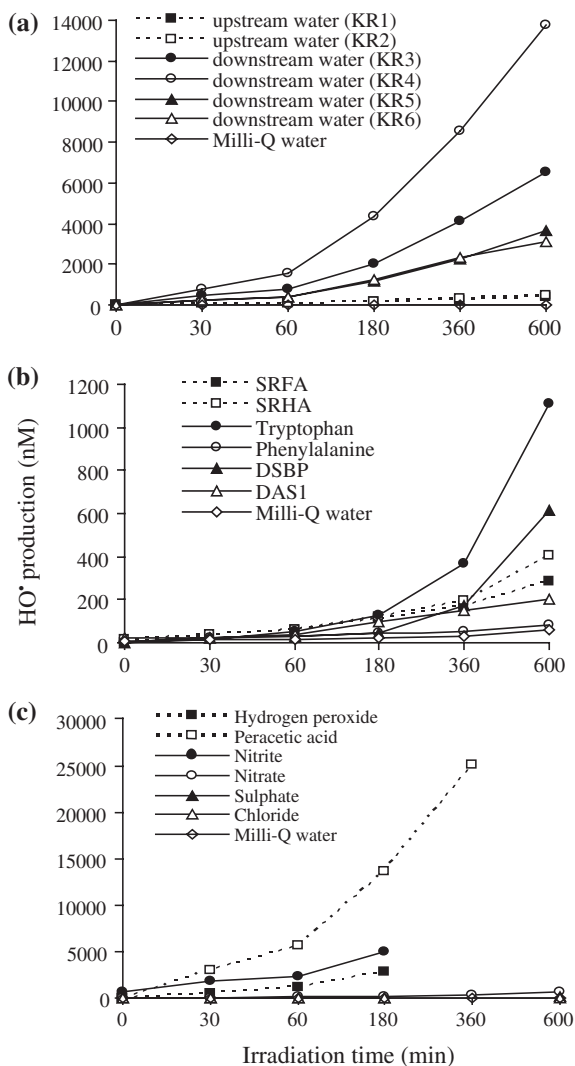
The carbon dioxide radical anion ( $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ ) is a short-lived and highly reactive intermediate that is photolytically formed in the ferrioxalate reaction system. It is a strong oxidizing agent that is able to oxidize metals and other chemical species in aqueous solution. The  $CO_2^{\bullet-}$  is formed photolytically ( $C_2O_4^{\bullet-} \rightarrow CO_2^{\bullet-} + CO_2$ ;  $k = 2 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) upon decomposition of the oxalyl radical anion ( $C_2O_4^{\bullet-}$ ). The latter is produced by the photoinduced decomposition of the highly photosensitive ferrioxalate complex  $[Fe(C_2O_4)_3]^{3-}$  in aqueous solution (Hislop and Bolton 1999; Jeong and Yoon 2004, 2005; Mulazzani et al. 1986). A key role played by  $CO_2^{\bullet-}$  is its ability to oxidize the metal ions, therefore affecting the biogeochemical cycling of metal-containing species. These processes can have an impact on the generation of  $HO^{\bullet}$  and of the superoxide radical anion in natural waters (Hislop and Bolton 1999; Jeong and Yoon 2004, 2005; Wang et al. 2010). Another potentially important process is the transformation of organic substances induced by  $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ , which is formed photolytically from ferrioxalate complexes in the aqueous solution (Huston and Pignatello 1996).

In addition, it has been reported that quinones photolytically produce species capable of hydroxylation (Alegria et al. 1997; Pochon et al. 2002; Gan et al. 2008; Maurino et al. 2008; Maddigapu et al. 2010; Page et al. 2011). Some of these quinone-derived hydroxylating species exhibit reactivity that is around one order of magnitude lower than free  $HO^{\bullet}$  (Pochon et al. 2002; Gan et al. 2008). It is hypothesized that quinone-derived hydroxylating species may contribute at least in part to the photoinduced  $HO^{\bullet}$  production by DOM (Vaughn and Blough 1998; Page et al. 2011).

## 2.1 Sources of HO• in Natural Waters

The HO• radical is formed photolytically from various sources in natural waters. In rivers, contributions to HO• photoproduction are 1–89 % from NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, 2–70 % from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, 1–50 % from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and 2–70 % from the photo-Fenton reaction and/or irradiated CDOM (Takeda et al. 2004; Vione et al. 2006; White et al. 2003; Page et al. 2011; Nakatani et al. 2007; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data). Experimental studies show that DOM isolates from rivers may contribute up to 50 % of the hydroxylation through production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Page et al. 2011). The results demonstrate that NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is a key contributor (48–80 %) for HO• production in sewerage-polluted river waters, but NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can be a major contributor (16–49 %) in clean river waters. In seawater the major sources of HO• are 7–75 % from NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, 1–8 % from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, 0–1 % from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and 24–93 % from unknown sources. These data were obtained from a study carried out in Seto Inland and the Yellow Sea (Takeda et al. 2004). The formation of HO• from different sources in natural waters can be distinguished as: (i) the photolysis of nitrite and nitrate in the aqueous solution (Mopper and Zhou 1990; Takeda et al. 2004; Zepp et al. 1987); (ii) the irradiation of CDOM components via formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the aqueous solution. In this case the production of HO• depends on the nature of the CDOM components (Fig. 1) (White et al. 2003; Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data), but a useful correlation has been found between the formation rate of HO• and the content of dissolved organic carbon in different lake water samples (Vione et al. 2006); (iii) the Fenton reaction (Fenton 1894; Walling 1975; Kang et al. 2002), the photo-Fenton reaction (Zepp et al. 1992; Arakaki et al. 1998; Southworth and Voelker 2003) as well as the photo-ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system in natural waters (Southworth and Voelker 2003; Safazadeh-Amiri et al. 1997; Hislop and Bolton 1999); (iv) the direct photolysis of hydrogen peroxide, i.e. UV/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> processes in aqueous solution (Draper and Crosby 1981; Wang et al. 2001). The UV irradiation of natural waters can produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> that further yields HO• (Gjessing and Källqvist 1991; Cooper et al. 1996); (v) the reaction of hydroperoxide radical (HO<sub>2</sub>•) with NO (HO<sub>2</sub>• + NO → HO• + NO<sub>2</sub>) (Sakugawa et al. 1990); (vi) the photolysis of dimeric [Fe<sub>2</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>8</sub>]<sup>4+</sup> species in aqueous solution (Langford and Carey 1975); (vii) the photolysis of Fe<sup>III</sup>(OH)<sup>2+</sup> in aqueous solution. The generation of HO• upon photolysis of Fe<sup>III</sup>(OH)<sup>2+</sup> is very efficient (quantum yield ~0.2), but the Fe(III) hydroxocomplex is present in significant concentration only at strongly acidic pH values that have little environmental significance (Jeong and Yoon 2005; Pozdnyakov et al. 2000); (viii) the generation of singlet states of oxygen atoms (<sup>1</sup>O<sub>1</sub>) by ozonolysis, followed by reaction with H<sub>2</sub>O to form HO• (Hoigné and Bader 1978, 1979; Staehelin and Hoigné 1985; Takahashi et al. 1995); (ix) the reaction of O<sub>3</sub> with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (peroxone process), which generates HO• (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + 2O<sub>3</sub> → 2HO• + 3O<sub>2</sub>) (Hoigné 1998); (x) the production of HO• by auto-oxidation of cytotoxic agents (Cohen and Heikkila 1974); (xi) chemical effects of ultrasound, which can generate HO• in aqueous solution (Makino et al. 1983); (xii) ultrasound-induced cavitation in aqueous solution, yielding HO• upon water splitting (H<sub>2</sub>O + ultrasound → HO•,

**Fig. 1** Photoinduced generation of HO<sup>•</sup> from river waters (a), various standard organic substances (b) and various (inorganic and organic) chemical species (c) in photoexperiments conducted using a solar simulator. Aqueous solutions (1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) of standard all organic substances are used for production of HO radicals in (b) and all chemical species in (c) are adjusted to 100 μM. All data depicted in these figures are calibrated for natural sunlight on 6 July 2004 at Hiroshima University Campus at noon under clear sky conditions. *Data source* Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data)



H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>) (Henglein 1987); (xiii) autooxidation of aqueous extracts of cigarette tar (ACT), giving HO<sup>•</sup> in air-saturated, buffered aqueous solutions. It is thought that the process is caused by the autooxidation of hydroquinone- and catechol-related species in ACT (Zang et al. 1995); (xiv) photoinduced HO<sup>•</sup> production from aqueous suspensions of algae (Li et al. 2008); and (xv) photoinduced HO<sup>•</sup> production can occur from DOM, the reactive triplet states of which could be involved in oxidation of water and/or OH<sup>-</sup> and in the production of lower energy hydroxylating species that simulate DOM reactivity (Alegria et al. 1997; Pochon et al. 2002; Gan et al. 2008; Maurino et al. 2008; Maddigapu et al. 2010; Page et al. 2011; Maddigapu et al. 2011; Brigante et al. 2010; Sur et al. 2011).



## 2.2 Biogeochemical Functions of $HO^\bullet$ in Natural Waters

The  $HO^\bullet$  is responsible for the occurrence of many important biogeochemical functions in natural waters: (i) photoinduced decomposition of DOM, which causes the production of a number of low molecular weight (LMW) photoproducts. The latter are microbiologically labile and constitute a significant source of carbon and energy to the microbial food chains, as well as an important pathway for DOM turnover in natural waters (Zhou and Mopper 1990; Blough and Zepp 1995; Tranvik 1992; Moran and Zepp 1997; Bertilsson and Tranvik 1998; Mopper and Kieber 2000; Mostofa et al. 2009a, b). However, despite the major role played by  $HO^\bullet$  in the mineralization processes of organic pollutants in the framework of the AOPs, the  $HO^\bullet$  is expected to contribute to a minor extent to the photomineralization of natural DOM in surface waters (Vione et al. 2009); (ii) photoinduced production of low-molecular weight chemical species such as  $H_2O_2$  and  $CO_2$  (both dissolved and gaseous forms). These processes play some role in the occurrence of photosynthesis, which produces algal biomass that is involved into the generation of autochthonous DOM in natural waters (Mostofa et al. 2009a, b; Komissarov 2003; Fu et al. 2010). However, the importance of such reactions is limited by the relatively low generation rate of  $HO^\bullet$  in surface waters (Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998); (iii) photo-bleaching of DOM induced by solar radiation in waters (Moran et al. 2000; del Vecchio and Blough 2002; Mostofa et al. 2005, 2007); (iv) photodegradation of persistent organic pollutants, which are usually recalcitrant to biological, chemical, and direct photodegradation in water (Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Haag and Yao 1992; Grannas et al. 2006; Vione et al. 2009); (v) cycling of transition metal ions that can be oxidized by  $HO^\bullet$  (Jeong and Yoon 2004; Faust and Zepp 1993; Kwan and Voelker 2002); (vi) use of  $HO^\bullet$  in water treatment processes such as the Advanced Oxidation Technology (AOT), to purify sewerage or industrial wastewater effluents, with the purpose of controlling the organic pollution for sustainable development (Safazadeh-Amiri et al. 1996, 1997; Kang et al. 2000); (vii) damage to macromolecules such as DNA, proteins and lipids, membrane leakage, breakdown of the cellular metabolism, and finally of tissues in biological systems. These processes can be induced by the  $HO^\bullet$ , alkoxy ( $RO^\bullet$ ) and peroxy ( $ROO^\bullet$ ) radicals, which may be produced by the autooxidation of biomolecules such as ascorbate, catecholamines or thiols in organisms (Paradies et al. 2000; Blokhina et al. 2003; Berlett and Stadtman 1997; von Sonntag 2006).

## 2.3 Steady-State Concentration and Life-Time of $HO^\bullet$ in Natural Waters

The steady state concentration of  $HO^\bullet$  can be determined on the basis of its major sources, which control the total photoinduced formation rate constants, and on sinks or scavengers of  $HO^\bullet$  that control the total consumption rate constants in natural



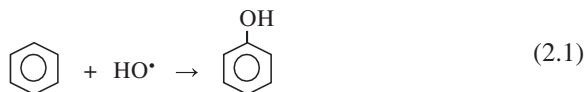
waters (al Housari et al. 2010; Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Arakaki et al. 1999b; Hoigné et al. 1989; Schwarzenbach et al. 1993; Nakatani et al. 2004). DOM and carbonate are the major scavengers or sinks of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in freshwaters (White et al. 2003; Nakatani et al. 2004), but in seawater the bromide ( $\text{Br}^-$ ) ions are actually the main scavengers (Song et al. 1996; Nakatani et al. 2004; Zafriou et al. 1987). The steady-state concentration of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  shows a large variability in natural waters. Examples of concentration values reported in the literature are  $(3.0\text{--}8.5) \times 10^{-16}$  M in rivers (Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Arakaki et al. 1999b; Nakatani et al. 2004),  $(9.41 \pm 0.12) \times 10^{-17}$  M to  $(1.72 \pm 0.01) \times 10^{-16}$  M in estuarine waters (al Housari et al. 2010),  $12 \times 10^{-18}$  M in coastal surface seawater and  $1.1 \times 10^{-18}$  M in the open ocean (Mopper and Zhou 1990). In Antarctic waters the steady-state concentrations have been determined as  $4.3 \times 10^{-19}$  M in coastal waters and  $2.6 \times 10^{-19}$  M in the open ocean (Qian et al. 2001). Elevated  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  concentration values (from  $6.7 \times 10^{-15}$  to  $4.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M) have been described in surface stream waters contaminated with acidic mine drainage (AMD). These waters have pH  $\sim 2.1\text{--}3.4$ , are highly rich of iron ( $6\text{--}1203$  mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) and have a high concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $5.9 \times 10^{-6}\text{--}5.8 \times 10^{-3}$  M) (Allen et al. 1996). The reported data suggest that the steady-state concentration of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  can be very variable in different water systems. A major caveat that should be considered while comparing different studies is that the irradiation conditions are usually unequal, which accounts for at least part of the variability. However, variations in the steady-state  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  concentration have also been observed with waters of different origin under the same irradiation conditions. The major factors that account for the variation of the steady-state concentration of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the aquatic environments are: (i) presence of elevated concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ions; (ii) presence of the elevated amounts of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ -containing complexes; (iii) occurrence of photo Fenton-type reactions that take place between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and reduced transition metal ions; (iv) amount and nature of the dissolved organic matter (DOM).

The reciprocal of the consumption rate constant allows the assessment of the life-time of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , which is  $(2.6\text{--}6.0) \times 10^{-6}$  s in river, dew and cloud water (Arakaki and Faust 1998; Arakaki et al. 1999b; Nakatani et al. 2004) and several times higher ( $3.0\text{--}66.0 \times 10^{-6}$  s) in remote polluted clouds, as estimated from a modeling study (Jakob 1986).

#### ***2.4 An HPLC Method for Measuring $\text{HO}^\bullet$ in Irradiated Natural Waters, Based on Benzene as Probe Molecule***

This section reports a detailed description of a possible method that can be adopted for the determination of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , based on benzene as a probe. The description is very detailed to enable the reader easily reproducing a similar experimental set-up. Note that other probe molecules can also be used for  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  determination, e.g. cumene (isopropylbenzene), pyridine and terephthalic acid (Mill et al. 1980;

Fang et al. 1996). Other substrates, such as benzoic acid and nitrobenzene are less suitable as HO• probe molecules (Vione et al. 2010). The photoinduced generation of HO• can be quantitatively determined by measuring the phenol (Eq. 2.1) that is produced photolytically from benzene + HO•, when natural waters under illumination are added with benzene. For irradiation it is possible to adopt a quartz cell under a Xe lamp or sunlight (Takeda et al. 2004; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data). Note that the light of a xenon lamp should be equipped with special glass filters to filter out the radiation below 300 nm, if one wants to simulate sunlight irradiation.



The phenol concentration can be determined by a HPLC method.

### Experimental Details

The benzene solutions (e.g. a ~1 mM stock solution) should be prepared by benzene addition to water, followed by gentle shaking. The solution should be kept for 24-h under dark conditions to mix up benzene well with the water sample. The light intensity of the artificial Xe lamp or sunlight can be determined by measuring the photo-degradation rate of 8- $\mu\text{M}$  standard aqueous solution of 2-nitrobenzaldehyde (2-NB) after illumination in a quartz cell (e.g. 60 mL). The illumination time of 2-NB should usually be kept short, e.g. up to 5 min for an irradiation intensity comparable to that of sunlight. In the case of the transformation reaction of benzene into phenol the irradiation time should be longer (up to 10–20 h), except for samples with unusually elevated HO• production rate. 2-NB can be measured by HPLC–UV. Elution can be carried out with a C18 reverse-phase column. Upon adoption of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{CH}_3\text{CN} = 40:60$  as isocratic eluent at a flow rate of  $1 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$ , if one employs a (5  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $4.6 \times 250 \text{ mm}$ ) column the retention time of 2-NB could be something around 5 min. The recommended detection wavelength is 260 nm. It is also recommended to remove the air from the eluent before use, by 20–30 min sonication or by magnetic stirring under vacuum.

Phenol can be determined under the same elution conditions, setting the UV detection wavelength at 210 nm or adopting a fluorescence detector. In the latter case, recommended wavelengths are 270 nm for excitation and 297 nm for emission.

**Calculations:** The concentration of phenol that are produced can be estimated by comparison with a standard. The photo-formation rate of HO• ( $r_{\text{HO}}$ ) can be calculated from Eq. 2.2 (Takeda et al. 2004; Nakataniet al. 2004):

$$r_{\text{HO}} = \frac{r_p}{F_{B,\text{HO}} \times Y_P} \quad (2.2)$$

where  $r_P$  is the photo-formation rate of phenol obtained experimentally ( $M s^{-1}$ ),  $F_{B,HO}$  is the fraction of HO radicals that react with benzene [i.e.,  $k_{HO/Ph} \times C_{HO} \times C_{Ph} / (k_{HO/Ph} \times C_{HO} \times C_{Ph} + \sum k_i C_{HO} C_i)$ , where  $i$  is scavenger], and  $Y_P$  is the yield of phenol formed per benzene oxidized by  $HO^\bullet$ . It is  $Y_P = 0.75 \pm 0.07$  in natural waters (Arakaki and Faust 1998). The  $F_{B,OH}$  values are much variable for a variety of natural waters, also depending on the concentration of added benzene and on the amount of the natural  $HO^\bullet$  scavengers. For addition of 1.2 mM benzene it has been found  $F_{B,HO} = 0.94$  for cloud waters (Arakaki and Faust 1998), 0.92 and 0.99 for rivers, and 0.68 for seawaters (Takeda et al. 2004). The high values of  $F_{B,HO}$  in rivers and cloud suggest that most of the HO radicals formed photolytically reacts with benzene. In contrast, the low value in seawater samples suggests the 32–34 % of photolytically formed HO radicals reacts with various scavengers of HO radical other than benzene. There are many scavengers, DOM components,  $HCO_3^-$ ,  $CO_3^{2-}$ ,  $NO_2^-$ , halides ( $X^-$ , but chloride only in acidic medium) etc. that can interact with  $HO^\bullet$  in aqueous solution (Zafriou 1974; Mopper and Zhou 1990; Vione et al. 2006; Zepp et al. 1987; Voelker and Sulzberger 1996; Minakata et al. 2009). In seawater, the bromide ion ( $Br^-$ ) alone scavenges approximately 93 % of photo-generated  $HO^\bullet$  (Mopper and Zhou 1990).

To mathematically derive the terms in Eq. 2.2 for any added benzene concentration, one requires a kinetic model where the scavengers and benzene simultaneously react with photogenerated  $HO^\bullet$  at the rates  $R_{SC}$  and  $R_B$ , respectively (Takeda et al. 2004). Under the steady-state condition, the formation rate of  $HO^\bullet$  is equal to the consumption rate as follows (Takeda et al. 2004):

$$r_{HO} = r_{SC} + r_B \quad (2.3)$$

$$r_{SC} = k_{SC}[SC][HO]_{SS} = k'_{SC}[HO]_{SS} \quad (2.4)$$

$$r_B = k_B[B][HO]_{SS} \quad (2.5)$$

where  $k_{SC}$  is the reaction rate constant of HO radicals with various scavengers in the water sample,  $k'_{SC} = k_{SC}[SC]$  is the apparent scavenging rate constant of the HO radical,  $k_B$  is the reaction rate constant of  $HO^\bullet$  with benzene (i.e.,  $7.8 \times 10^9 M^{-1} s^{-1}$ ),  $[B]$  is the concentration of benzene added to the water sample (e.g. ~1 mM), and  $[HO]_{SS}$  is the steady-state concentration of  $HO^\bullet$ . Under conditions where benzene is in excess (i.e.,  $r_B \gg r_{SC}$ ), most of the photo-generated  $HO^\bullet$  react with benzene, thus  $F_{B,HO} \approx 1$ . In contrast, in the most general case it is:

$$F_{B,HO} = \frac{r_B}{r_B + R_{SC}} = \frac{[B]}{[B] + k'_{SC}/k_B} \quad (2.6)$$

From Eqs. 2.3–2.6, the phenol formation rate ( $r_P$ ) can be expressed as:

$$\frac{1}{r_P} = \frac{1}{r_{HO} + Y_P} + \frac{[k'_{SC}]}{r_{HO} + Y_P \times k_B[B]} \quad (2.7)$$

According to Eq. 2.7, the plot of  $1/r_p$  versus  $1/[B]$  should be straight line (Takeda et al. 2004) and  $k'_{SC}/k_B$  can be calculated from the slope and intercept of the plot. Thus,  $F_{B,HO}$  can be calculated with Eq. 2.6 using the values of  $k'_{SC}/k_B$  and  $[B]$ .

## 2.5 Levels of Photoinduced Generation of $HO^\bullet$ in Natural Waters

The production rates of  $HO^\bullet$  that have been estimated in a variety of waters, in the presence of standard chemical species ( $NO_2^-$ ,  $NO_3^-$  and  $H_2O_2$ ) or of standard organic substances under sunlight are summarized in Table 2 (Mopper and Zhou 1990; Takeda et al. 2004; Zepp et al. 1987; Haag and Hoigné 1985; White et al. 2003; Arakaki and Faust 1998; Nakatani et al. 2007; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data; Nakatani et al. 2004; Qian et al. 2001; Allen et al. 1996; Mabury 1993; Grannas et al. 2006; Anastasio and Newberg 2007). The rates are typically varied in a range from  $10^{-7}$  to  $10^{-10}$   $M s^{-1}$  in aqueous solution (Table 2). Production rates in rivers are  $(0.6-7.5) \times 10^{-11}$   $M s^{-1}$  in upstream waters,  $(0.4-7.4) \times 10^{-8}$   $M s^{-1}$  in upstream waters contaminated with AMD,  $(1.0-2.9) \times 10^{-11}$   $M s^{-1}$  in non-polluted river waters,  $2.4 \times 10^{-11}$   $M s^{-1}$  in Ogeechee River,  $(2.0-6.0) \times 10^{-10}$   $M s^{-1}$  in Wetland on Lake Erie and Artificial Agricultural wetland,  $6.4 \times 10^{-11}$   $M s^{-1}$  in Rice field water,  $(2.0-17.0) \times 10^{-10}$   $M s^{-1}$  in Satilla River and Pine Barrens that have iron-rich waters (Table 2). It is noticeable that the production rates of  $HO^\bullet$  are higher by two to five orders of magnitude in stream waters contaminated with AMD (Allen et al. 1996) than in typical river waters. Such an effect might be caused by the photo-Fenton reaction that is considerably favored in the presence of elevated iron contents (Allen et al. 1996; McKnight et al. 1988). Similarly, high production rates of  $HO^\bullet$  have been observed in Satilla River water (White et al. 2003), where more than 70 % of the total  $HO^\bullet$  production is accounted for by the photo-Fenton reaction. Therefore, the latter process is expected to be the main contributor to  $HO^\bullet$  photo-production in iron-rich waters. In contrast, upstream waters mainly contain DOM components (mostly fulvic and humic acids) that are the major contributors to  $HO^\bullet$  photo-production in these systems. A possible pathway that yields  $HO^\bullet$  from DOM is the photoinduced formation of  $H_2O_2$  (Eqs. 3.13–3.18, see chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”), which could induce the photo-Fenton reaction in the presence of Fe or produce  $HO^\bullet$  by direct photolysis (Nakatani et al. 2007; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data). An alternative explanation for the production of  $HO^\bullet$  from DOM is the oxidation of water by the excited triplet states ( $^3DOM^*$ ) (Brigante et al. 2010).

In lake water the production rates of  $HO^\bullet$  are very variable, ranging from  $1.8 \times 10^{-13}$  to  $4.6 \times 10^{-11}$   $M s^{-1}$  (Table 2). The  $HO^\bullet$  photo-production depends on the irradiation wavelength. For instance, the formation rate of  $HO^\bullet$  observed on extracted lake DOM under sunlight is higher [ $(1.6-1.8) \times 10^{-10}$   $M s^{-1}$  at 308 nm]

**Table 2** Production rates of hydroxyl radical ( $\text{HO}^\bullet$ ) reported from natural waters, standard nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and various standard organic substances

Type of samples/substances	Sample	Source of light/ wavelength (nm)	Production rate of $\text{HO}^\bullet \times 10^{-11}$ ( $\text{M s}^{-1}$ )	References
<i>Rivers</i>				
Stream, contaminated with acid mine drainage	Freshwater-polluted	Sunlight	400–7,400	Allen et al. (1996)
Kurose River (upstream): 1 site	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.8	Takeda et al. (2004)
Kurose River (downstream regions): 7 sites	Freshwater-sewage polluted	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	17–89	Takeda et al. (2004)
Ohta River (upstream regions): 4 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.6–1.1	Takeda et al. (2004)
Ohta River (downstream regions): 4 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.0–2.6	Takeda et al. (2004)
Kurose River (upstream regions): 2 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	7.0–0.5	Nakatani et al. (2004)
Kurose River (downstream): 2 sites	Freshwater-sewage polluted	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	17–33	Nakatani et al. (2007)
River waters: upstream & downstream: 33 sites	Freshwater-sewage polluted	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.78–530	Nakatani et al. (2007)
Kurose River (upstream regions): 2 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.9–2.5	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Kurose River (downstream regions): 4 sites	Freshwater-sewage polluted	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	8.0–570	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Ohta River (upstream regions): 3 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.3–1.8	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Ohta River (downstream regions): 3 sites	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.7–2.9	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Ogeechee River	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	24.0	White et al. (2003)
Satilla River	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	45.0	White et al. (2003)
Satilla River (bleached)	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	20.0	White et al. (2003)
Pine Barrens	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	170.0	White et al. (2003)
Wetland on Lake Erie	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	20–26	White et al. (2003)
Artificial agricultural wetland	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	23.0	White et al. (2003)
Rice Field water	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	64.0	Mabury (1993)

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Type of samples/substances	Sample	Source of light/ wavelength (nm)	Production rate of HO* × 10 <sup>-11</sup> (Ms <sup>-1</sup> )	References
<i>Lakes</i>				
Lake Greifensee, Switzerland	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.0	Haag and Hoigné (1985)
Lake Greifensee, Switzerland	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	2.5	Zepp et al. (1987)
Clear Lake	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	4.6	Mabury (1993)
Lake Tahoe	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	2.2	Mabury (1993)
Nitrate-rich shallow water body	Freshwater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.018	Zepp et al. (1987)
DOM extracted-XAD, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	308 nm	18	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-XAD, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	330 nm	8.1	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-XAD, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	355 nm	5.6	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-C-18, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	308 nm	18	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-C-18, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	330 nm	6.4	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-C-18, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	355 nm	6.1	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-UF, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	308 nm	16	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-UF, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	330 nm	8.1	Grannas et al. (2006)
DOM extracted-UF, Toolik Lake	Freshwater	355 nm	4.7	Grannas et al. (2006)
<i>Seawaters</i>				
Everglades	Seawater	Sunlight	42.0	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
Biscayne Bay	Seawater	Sunlight	2.9	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
Vineyard Sound	Seawater	Sunlight	2.7	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
Mississippi River Plume	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	6.2	White et al. (2003)
Florida Keys	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.43	White et al. (2003)
Seto Inland Sea: 0 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.5	Takeda et al. (2004)
Seto Inland Sea: 5 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.57	Takeda et al. (2004)

(continued)

**Table 2** (continued)

Type of samples/substances	Sample	Source of light/ wavelength (nm)	Production rate of HO <sup>•</sup> × 10 <sup>-11</sup> (Ms <sup>-1</sup> )	References
Seto Inland Sea: 10 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.91	Takeda et al. (2004)
Seto Inland Sea: 15 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.0	Takeda et al. (2004)
Seto Inland Sea: 20 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	2.4	Takeda et al. (2004)
Seto Inland Sea: 30 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	4.9	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 0 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.39	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 20 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.36	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 30 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.49	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 40 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.82	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 50 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.73	Takeda et al. (2004)
Yellow Sea: 60 m depth	Seawater	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.72	Takeda et al. (2004)
Gulf Stream	Seawater	Sunlight	0.31	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
Sargasso Sea	Seawater	Sunlight	0.28	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
Weddel Sea, Antarctic	Seawater	Sunlight	0.10	Qian et al. (2001)
Crystal Sound, Antarctic	Seawater	Sunlight	0.10	Qian et al. (2001)
Paradise Harbor, Antarctic	Seawater	Sunlight	0.01	Qian et al. (2001)
<i>Standard substances</i>				
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Seawater	Sunlight	2.30	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Sunlight	2.80	Arakaki and Faust (1998)
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Sunlight	2.30	Takeda et al. (2004)
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	2.20	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Fresh water	Sunlight	0.03	Zepp et al. (1987)
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Seawater	Sunlight	0.03	Mopper and Zhou (1990)
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Sunlight	0.02	Arakaki and Faust (1998)
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Sunlight	0.02	Takeda et al. (2004)

(continued)



Table 2 (continued)

Type of samples/substances	Sample	Source of light/ wavelength (nm)	Production rate of HO <sup>•</sup> × 10 <sup>-11</sup> (Ms <sup>-1</sup> )	References
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.01	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (SRFA)	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.20	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
SRFA	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	6.00	White et al. (2003)
Tryptophan	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.70	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Suwannee River Humic Acid (SRHA)	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	1.10	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Phenylalanine	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.40	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
DAS1	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.31	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
DSBP	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.30	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.26	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Peracetic acid	Milli-Q water	Xe lamp <sup>b</sup>	0.25	Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>
Sea-salt particulate matter, extracted from coastal waters	Seawater	summer, midday, ~2778–2778 sunlight	~2778–2778	Anastasio and Newberg (2007)

<sup>a</sup>Production rates (Mostofa and Sakugawa) calculated for initial 60 min irradiation and normalized to sunlight intensity (noon time) using 2 nitro benzaldehyde solution (8 mM) at the Campus of Hiroshima University, Japan as well as the rates for standard substances mentioned here is calculated after deduction of rate of MQ water

Rates for standard organic substances adjusted for 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of each substances

<sup>b</sup>Xe light intensity is normalized to sunlight intensity

for shorter wavelength than for longer one [ $(4.7\text{--}6.1) \times 10^{-11} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  at 355 nm] in a variety of lake waters (Table 2) (Grannas et al. 2006). Thus, the production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  greatly depends on the light wavelength.

In seawater, the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  production rate is higher [ $(4.3\text{--}42.0) \times 10^{-12} \text{ M s}^{-1}$ ] in coastal waters than in the open ocean [ $(2.8\text{--}3.1) \times 10^{-12} \text{ M s}^{-1}$ ], and it is very low [ $(1.04\text{--}10.3) \times 10^{-13} \text{ M s}^{-1}$ ] in Antarctic waters (Table 2). The production rates of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  are lower in surface seawater and gradually increase with increasing depth (Takeda et al. 2004; Zafriou and Dister 1991). For example, the production rate of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is  $(5.7\text{--}15.0) \times 10^{-12} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  at 0–20 m depth,  $4.9 \times 10^{-11} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  at 30 m, and  $7.2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  at 60 m in Seto Inland Sea and the Yellow Sea (Takeda et al. 2004), obviously under the same irradiation conditions that is not the case of the real environment. The lower production rates at the surface compared to the deeper layers may be caused by the fact that the natural solar radiation is active in surface waters where it produces  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  and other reactive transients. These species can lead to the photo-degradation of DOM (e.g. photo-bleaching that reduces the ability of DOM to absorb sunlight), a process to which the direct photolysis could also contribute. Therefore, the sources of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in surface waters can be reduced, e.g. by decreasing the concentration of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and the capability of DOM to photo-generate  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ . The intensity of solar radiation that reaches the deeper layers is quite limited. Therefore, the deep water has the double feature of generating the highest potentiality to produce  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , but also of being involved to a very limited extent into  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photo-production in the real natural environment. An important exception could be represented by the sites where the deep oceanic water emerges to the surface.

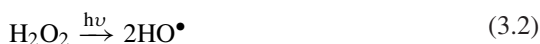
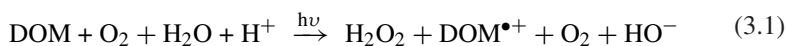
Studies observe that the sea-salt particulate matter (SS PM) extracted from coastal seawaters can demonstrate substantially high  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  production (rate:  $\sim 2778\text{--}27778 \text{ M s}^{-1}$ ), approximately 3–4 orders of magnitude greater than  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoformation rates in surface seawater (Anastasio and Newberg 2007). The results show that photolysis of nitrate is a dominant source of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  (on average  $59 \pm 25\%$ ) in the SS PM whilst other source is presumably considered the organic compounds. The fact behind the other phenomenon is that irradiated organic compounds or DOM can induce photoinduced production of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  that is a  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  source via photolysis or the Fenton reaction, and the photoinduced generation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is enhanced by salinity. Salinity or NaCl solutions are capable of generating high production of aqueous electrons ( $e_{\text{aq}}^-$ ) photolytically in aqueous media (Gopinathan et al. 1972; Assel et al. 1998) that may enhance the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production from DOM components in waters (Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009; Moore et al. 1993) (see also chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”). In fact, photogeneration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  from river DOM was substantially increased with salinity, from 15 to 368  $\text{nM h}^{-1}$  at circumneutral pH that may enhance the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production from DOM components in waters (Osburn et al. 2009). Salinity effect on irradiated CDOM might be another most important source of high photoproduction of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in sea-salt particulate matter in seawaters.

### 3 Mechanisms for Photoinduced Generation of HO• in Natural Waters

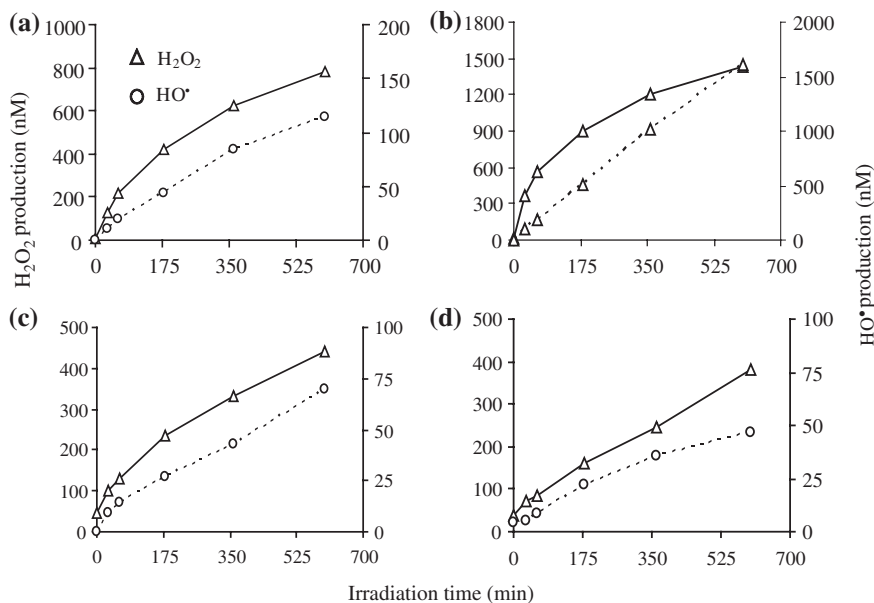
The photoinduced generation of HO• significantly depends on several important factors such as the presence of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and their concentration, the chemical nature of DOM and its quantity, and finally the total content of Fe. The most important mechanisms for HO• formation in natural waters are discussed below.

#### 3.1 *In situ* Generation of HO• from DOM

One of the main HO• sources in natural waters (Table 2) (Vione et al. 2006; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data) is the photoinduced generation of HO• from DOM components (either Fluorescent Dissolved Organic Matter-FDOM or Colored Dissolved Organic Matter-CDOM). This process can be accounted for either by the oxidation of water by the triplet states <sup>3</sup>DOM\*, or by the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> upon DOM irradiation (reaction 3.1) and its detailed mechanisms are discussed in earlier chapter (see chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”). In the latter case, HO• could be produced upon photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 3.2) (Legrini et al. 1993; von Sonntag et al. 1993).



The quantum yield of reaction 3.2 has been determined as 0.5 under UVC irradiation (Legrini et al. 1993; von Sonntag et al. 1993). The quantum yield varies with wavelength, but it also depends on the band that absorbs radiation. In the case of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the same band is responsible for radiation absorption and photolysis in both the UVC and UVB regions. The hypothesis that the formation of HO• by irradiated DOM is accounted for by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photoproduction. It is consistent with the observed, gradual and parallel increase of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration and of phenol formation from benzene, upon irradiation of natural river waters and of relevant standard organic substances (Fig. 2). A similar, parallel trend of both phenol (its formation being used as HO• probe) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> has been observed upon irradiation of upstream DOM mostly containing fulvic acid (Fig. 2a), of standard Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (SRFA) (Fig. 2c) and of diaminostilbene type (DAS1) (Fig. 2d). The same trend has not been observed in sewage polluted river waters (Fig. 2b), which might be the effect of additional production from other HO• sources such as the NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ions, present in high amount (Takeda



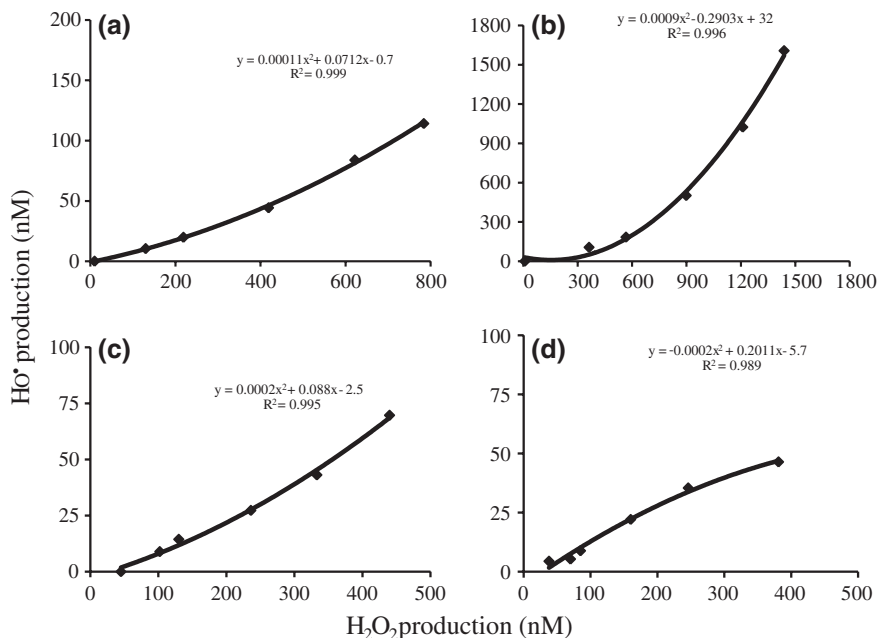
**Fig. 2** In-situ generation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  for river waters and standard organic substances during the 10 h of irradiation period in photoexperiments conducted using a solar simulator. Upstream DOM having mostly fulvic acid (a); polluted river waters, mostly affected by mixture of sewage effluents and upstream DOM (b); standard Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (c); and standard diaminostilbene (DAS1) (d). *Data source* Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data)

et al. 2004; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data; Nakatani et al. 2004). Therefore, the generation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  by DOM could account for most of the production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  by unpolluted water samples, with a relatively elevated content of fulvic acid in DOM (Fig. 3) and a relatively low concentration of other  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  sources, such as nitrate, nitrite and Fe.

### 3.2 Direct Photolysis of Nitrate and Nitrite

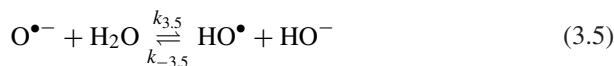
The direct photolysis of nitrite and nitrate induces  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoproduction (Zafriou and True 1979a, b; Takeda et al. 2004; Zepp et al. 1987; Mack and Bolton 1999). There is evidence that irradiation in the 200–400 nm wavelength region can convert  $\text{NO}_2^-$  into  $\text{NO}^\bullet$  and  $\text{O}^{\bullet-}$  (Eqs. 3.3, 3.4) (Zepp et al. 1987; Mack and Bolton 1999):





**Fig. 3** Relationship between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in situ produced from river waters and standard organic substance during the 10 h of irradiation period in photoexperiments conducted using a solar simulator. The relationships of the (a, b, c and d) are the same samples of Fig. 1. *Data source* Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H (unpublished data)

At  $\text{pH} < 12$  in aqueous solution,  $\text{O}^{\bullet-}$  is protonated to form  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ :



where  $k_{3,5} = 1.7 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  formation reaction and  $k_{-3,5} = 1.2 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the reverse reaction. The radical  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  can significantly recombine with  $\text{NO}^\bullet$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$ ; such reactions are very fast (diffusion-controlled) in aqueous media (Mack and Bolton 1999):

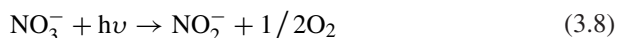


where  $k_{3,6} = 1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

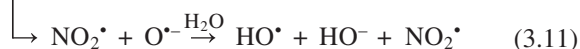
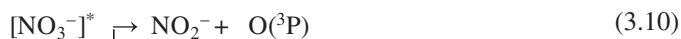


where  $k_{3,7} = 1.0 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . These reactions can limit the steady-state concentration of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  and, therefore, the ability of the hydroxyl radical to take part in photooxidation reactions of organic compounds in natural waters. Note, however, that the main  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  scavengers are DOM in freshwater and bromide in seawater (Takeda et al. 2004).

As far as  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis is concerned (Eq. 3.8), the process can be expressed as follows (Zepp et al. 1987; Mack and Bolton 1999):



This stoichiometry can be followed in the absence of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  scavengers, over the entire pH range and at irradiation wavelength around 200 nm (Shuali et al. 1969; Wagner et al. 1980). However, irradiation above 280 nm results into two primary photoinduced pathways (Zepp et al. 1987; Mack and Bolton 1999):

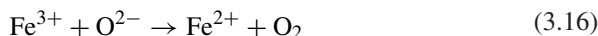


In this mechanism,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  absorbs a UVB photon yielding an excited state,  $[\text{NO}_3^-]^*$  (Eq. 3.9), which undergoes disintegration following two pathways: the first one produces the nitrite ion ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) and atomic oxygen,  $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$  (Eq. 3.10). The second pathway produces nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$ ) and  $\text{O}^{\bullet-}$ . The latter is rapidly protonated to form  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  (Eq. 3.11). The formation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in Eq. 3.10 can be followed by nitrite photolysis to give  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , as shown in (Eqs. 3.3–3.5). It can be noted that  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is a strong oxidant that can react with DOM more quickly than does atomic oxygen,  $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$ . Indeed, the main fate of  $\text{O}({}^3\text{P})$  (Eq. 3.4) would be the reaction with oxygen to form ozone, which is rapidly consumed in natural waters by reaction with  $\text{NO}_2^-$  or decomposition to  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  (Zepp et al. 1987).

### 3 $\text{HO}^\bullet$ Production from the Fenton Reaction

The ferrous ions ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ) catalyzes the formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Fenton 1894). An aqueous solution of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and ferrous or ferric salts is termed as Fenton's reagent. The oxidation efficiency of the Fenton reaction is the highest at pH values ranging from 2 to 5 and at a 1:1 molar ratio of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (Walling 1975). The reactivity of the Fenton's reagent is the effect of the generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the reaction media (Haber and Weiss 1934). The mechanism for the chain Fenton reaction was initially depicted as follows (Eqs. 3.12–3.16) (Barb et al. 1951):





Recently, the reaction rate constants of the Fenton system have been measured at various pH values, an issue that will be discussed later (Kwan and Voelker 2002; Duesterberg et al. 2008). At low  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]/[\text{Fe}^{2+}]$  ratios in both reactions (3.12) and (3.13), only the reactions are important, and the overall process is second-order with respect to the reactants. At high  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]/[\text{Fe}^{2+}]$  ratios, there is also an important contribution from the competitive reactions (3.15, 3.16) (Rush and Bielski 1985). The earlier studies have examined the Fenton reaction at low pH (<1.0) with the reactants at mM levels. The production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  from  $\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is also important in AOTs, as it allows the use of transition metals to catalyze the oxidation of organic compounds.

Recent studies demonstrate that the formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  increases linearly with the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration (Lindsey and Tarr 2000). Experiments carried out using ESR spin trapping together with water labeled with  $^{17}\text{O}$  suggest that  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is derived exclusively from hydrogen peroxide, and that there is no exchange of oxygen atoms between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and the water solvent (Lloyd et al. 1997). It has been demonstrated that fulvic and humic acid reduce the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  formation in the Fenton reaction under most conditions, but fulvic acid increases  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  formation at certain pH values (Lindsey and Tarr 2000; Voelker and Sulzberger 1996). Fulvic acid can inhibit the degradation of dissolved aromatic compounds (e.g. phenol, fluorene and phenanthrene) by the Fenton reagent in aqueous solution (Lindsey and Tarr 2000). Accordingly, natural organic matter could inhibit the remediation of pollutants by the Fenton process in water and soil environments. However, it has also been shown that humic acids are able to enhance the degradation of phenol in the second step of the Fenton process. Indeed, after the reaction between  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is completed, further degradation of the organic substrate can be directed by the reduction of Fe(III) to  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ . The latter process is enhanced by humic substances (Vione et al. 2004).

Indeed, the ferric ion ( $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ) catalyzes the decomposition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  into  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  ( $\text{Fe}^{3+} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{HO}_2^\bullet + \text{H}^+$ ) (Barb et al. 1951; Walling and Weil 1974; Lee et al. 2003; Lee and Sedlak 2009). The rate of the Fenton process is greatly enhanced when the temperature is raised from 10 to 50 °C, because of the high activation energy ( $\approx 126 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) of the reaction (Lee et al. 2003). A high production of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  causes a correspondingly high production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the reaction system (Eq. 3.12).

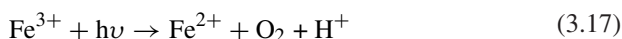
The effective catalytic oxidation of organic compounds by the system  $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is usually limited to the acidic pH region, because of the low solubility of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  and of the low efficiency of the oxidant generation at neutral pH values (Lee and Sedlak 2009). The addition of polyoxometalate ions (POM) greatly



increases the yield of oxidant species in the reaction. Under acidic conditions, POM can mediate the electron transfer from nanoparticle zerovalent iron or Fe(II) to oxygen, thereby increasing the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The latter is subsequently converted to HO• through the Fenton reaction (Lee et al. 2008).

### 3.4 HO• Production from the Photo-Fenton Reaction

The reactivity of the Fenton's reagent, and in particular of Fe<sup>3+</sup> + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is greatly enhanced by UV/Visible irradiation ( $\lambda < 580$  nm), which can for instance increase the extent of mineralization of organic pollutants (Zepp et al. 1992; Voelker et al. 1997; Southworth and Voelker 2003; Nakatani et al. 2007; Vermilyea and Voelker 2009). The photo-Fenton reaction is defined as the reaction of photoproducted Fe<sup>2+</sup> with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to form the highly reactive HO• (Eqs. 3.17, 3.18). The main chemical reactions occurring in the photo-Fenton system are the following:



Irradiation of Fe(III) species causes the production of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and possibly of HO• (e.g. in the photolysis of the complex FeOH<sup>2+</sup>). In the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, further HO• is produced by the Fenton process between H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> itself and the photogenerated Fe<sup>2+</sup>. The latter reaction yields again Fe(III), but continuing irradiation may recycle Fe(III) to Fe(II) in the reaction media. Therefore, it is possible to continuously generate HO• under irradiation without any net consumption of Fe(II), which significantly accelerates the overall reaction rate in the photo-Fenton system. The HO• formation in the photo-Fenton system is limited only by the availability of radiation and by the content of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the reaction medium. The photo-Fenton reaction is observed in open ocean whereas vertical profiles of Fe(II) show maxima consistent with the plume of the iron infusion whilst H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> profiles demonstrate a corresponding minima showing the effect of oxidation of Fe(II) by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Croot et al. 2005). Observations also show that the detectable Fe(II) concentrations can exist for up to 8 days after an iron infusion (Croot et al. 2005).

### 3.5 HO• Production from Photo-Ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> Reaction

The photo-ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reaction is an advanced modification of the photo-Fenton reaction and an effective technique of generating Fe(II) in the reaction media. The addition of oxalate to the photo-Fenton system significantly accelerates the HO• production under UV/visible irradiation ( $\lambda < 550$  nm) (Eqs. 3.19–3.25; Table 3) (Hislop and Bolton 1999; Jeong and Yoon 2005;

**Table 3** The reaction rate constants for the production of HO• in photo-ferrinoxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reaction

Reaction type	Rate constant ( <i>k</i> ) (M <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	Equations	References
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>3-2n</sup> + hv → Fe <sup>2+</sup> + (n-1)C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>•-</sup>	–	3.19	Jeong and Yoon (2005)
C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>•-</sup> → CO <sub>2</sub> + CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup>	2 × 10 <sup>12</sup>	3.20	Mulazzani et al. (1986)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>3-2n</sup> + CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> → CO <sub>2</sub> + Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>2-2n</sup>	≈ 8 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	3.21	Jeong and Yoon (2004)
CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> + O <sub>2</sub> → CO <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup>	2.4 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	3.22	Hislop and Bolton (1999)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>3-2n</sup> + O <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> → O <sub>2</sub> + Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>2-2n</sup>	< 1 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	3.23	Sedlak and Hoigné (1993)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>3-2n</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•</sup> → O <sub>2</sub> + Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>n</sub> <sup>2-2n</sup>	< 1.2 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	3.24	Sedlak and Hoigné (1993)
Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) + H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> → Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sup>+</sup> + HO• + OH <sup>-</sup>	3.1 × 10 <sup>4</sup>	3.25	Sedlak and Hoigné (1993)
Fe <sup>2+</sup> + HO• → Fe <sup>III</sup> (OH) <sup>2+</sup>	4.3 × 10 <sup>8</sup>	3.26	Zuo and Hoigné (1992)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (OH) <sup>2+</sup> + hv → Fe <sup>2+</sup> + HO•	Negligible	3.27	Jeong and Yoon (2005)
Fe <sup>3+</sup> + O <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> → Fe <sup>2+</sup> + O <sub>2</sub>	1.5 × 10 <sup>8</sup>	3.28	Balmer and Sulzberger (1999)
C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> + HO• → CO <sub>2</sub> + CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> + OH <sup>-</sup>	7.7 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	3.29	Buxton et al. (1988)
HC <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> + HO• → CO <sub>2</sub> + CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> + H <sub>2</sub> O	4.7 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	3.30	Buxton et al. (1988)
CPAA <sup>a</sup> + HO• → products	3.0 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	3.31	Pignatello (1992)
<i>Equilibrium reactions</i>			
Fe <sup>3+</sup> + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sup>+</sup>	2.5 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	3.32	Faust and Zepp (1993)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sup>+</sup> + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	6.3 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	3.33	Faust and Zepp (1993)
Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ Fe <sup>III</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> <sup>3-</sup>	3.8 × 10 <sup>4</sup>	3.34	Faust and Zepp (1993)
Fe <sup>2+</sup> + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> )	2.0 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	3.35	Faust and Zepp (1993)
Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) + C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ↔ Fe <sup>II</sup> (C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	1.2 × 10 <sup>2</sup>	3.36	Faust and Zepp (1993)
HC <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> ↔ C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	6.2 × 10 <sup>1</sup>	3.37	Zuo and Hoigné (1992)
HO <sub>2</sub> <sup>•</sup> ↔ O <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	6.2 × 10 <sup>1</sup>	3.38	Bielski et al. (1985)

<sup>a</sup>CPAA means the 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid

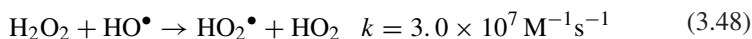
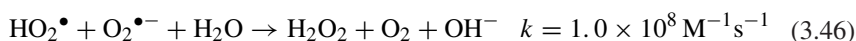
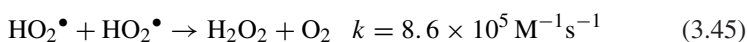
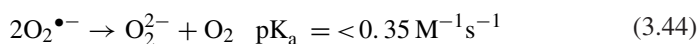
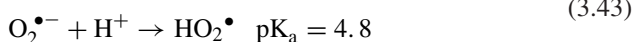
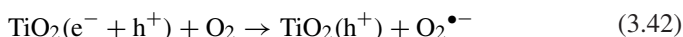
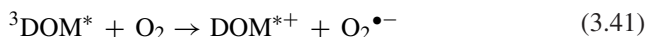
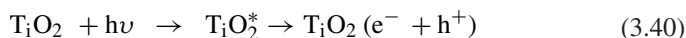
Bielski et al. 1985; Mulazzani et al. 1986; Jeong and Yoon 2004; Buxton et al. 1988; Pignatello 1992; Zuo and Hoigné 1992; Sedlak and Hoigné 1993; Balmer and Sulzberger 1999). In the photo-Fenton reaction, the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radical is formed photolytically from  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})^{2+}$  (Eq. 3.27). The relevant reaction mainly takes place at pH 2.5–5 (Eq. 3.26), but its quantum yield is relatively low:  $\varphi_{\text{Fe(II)}} = 0.14 \pm 0.04$  at 313 nm and  $\varphi_{\text{HO}} = 0.195 \pm 0.03$  at 310 nm (Hislop and Bolton 1999). When Fe(III) is complexed with a carboxylic anion (e.g. oxalate), the quantum yield of Fe(II) production ( $\varphi_{\text{Fe(II)}}$ ) is significantly increased to  $\varphi_{\text{Fe(II)}} = 1.24$ , at 300 nm, pH = ~2 and 6 mM ferrioxalate (Murov et al. 1993). This result is accounted for by the considerable photosensitive nature of the ferrioxalate complex  $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3]^{3-}$ , which combines elevated absorption of visible radiation with a very high quantum yield of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  photoproduction. Interestingly, the photolysis of the ferrioxalate complex generates an additional reactive radical species, the carbon dioxide radical anion ( $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$ ) (Eqs. 3.19–3.21; Table 3).

The radical  $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$  can produce Fe(II) via reaction (Eq. 3.21) and by other reaction pathways (Eqs. 3.23, 3.24). The kinetic and equilibrium constants for the photo-ferrioxalate/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  reaction are shown in Table 3.  $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$  can react with oxygen to form the superoxide anion ( $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ ) (Eq. 3.22), which can further enhance the quantum yield for the generation of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (Eqs. 3.23, 3.24, 3.28) and contributes to the production of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Eq. 3.17). When ferrioxalate is irradiated in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  under ideal conditions, a radical  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is produced by the Fenton reaction per every Fe(II) generated (Eq 3.25, Table 3). In the reaction media (Eq. 3.25), both uncoordinated  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)$  can react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . Therefore one gets an overall, apparent second-order rate constant for the reaction between Fe(II) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . In the presence of excess oxalate, Fe(III) will be coordinated with either two or three oxalate ligands. Fe(III) is recycled to Fe(II) in both the photo-Fenton and the photo-ferrioxalate/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  reaction. In the latter case the formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  depends on the availability of radiation,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and oxalate, the latter two components being consumed by the reaction. The enhancement of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoproduction that is observed upon addition of oxalate depends on the very high photolysis quantum yield of the Fe(III)-oxalate complex(es), which largely compensates for the facts that the photolysis of Fe(III)-oxalate, unlike that of  $\text{FeOH}^{2+}$ , does not yield  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , and that oxalate is a  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  scavenger.

### 3.6 $\text{HO}^\bullet$ Production from Photocatalytic Metal Oxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) Suspensions

Titanium dioxide is the most frequently used metal oxide photocatalyst, which undergoes excitation at near-UV wavelengths. The irradiation by sunlight of aqueous suspensions of  $\text{TiO}_2$  can induce very significant generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in aqueous solution. Below it is reported a general scheme of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photo-production, proposed in early studies to describe the behavior of aqueous suspensions of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the presence of DOM (Konstantinou and Albanis 2004; Murov et al. 1993; Tseng

and Haug 1991; Fox 1993; Chen et al. 2001; Han et al. 2009) (Eqs. 3.13–3.18, see chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”):



Major oxidants arising upon UV irradiation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  are the valence-band holes ( $h^+$ ), which can be trapped by surface  $\text{Ti-OH}^-$  groups to yield  $\text{Ti-HO}^{\bullet}$  radical species (surface-bound  $\text{HO}^{\bullet}$  or  $\text{HO}^{\bullet}_{\text{ads}}$ ). In contrast, the conduction-band electrons ( $e^-$ ) can be trapped to form surface and sub-surface  $\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}$  species: The latter can react with dissolved oxygen to give hydrogen peroxide radical ( $\text{HO}_2^{\bullet}$ ), which disproportionates to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  that is photolyzed to give  $\text{HO}^{\bullet}$  in solution (Murov et al. 1993; Tseng and Haug 1991; Fox 1993).

As already reported, a semiconductor photocatalyst generates electron/hole pairs upon irradiation, with free electrons produced in a nearly empty conduction band and positive holes remaining in the valence band (Bard 1979; Schiavello 1987). The lifetime of an electron/hole pair can vary from a few nano-seconds to a few hours depending on the ambient conditions (Pleskov and Gurevich 1986). Once formed the  $\text{HO}^{\bullet}$  radical (surface-bound or in solution) reacts with organic compounds, which results into the heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of organic contaminants in solution (Sun and Bolton 1996; Ullah et al. 1998; Konstantinou and Albanis 2004; Tseng and Haug 1991; Fox 1993; Han et al. 2009; Prousek 1996; Vione et al. 2001; Muñoz et al. 2006; Saquib et al. 2008).

### 3.7 Photoinduced Generation of HO• from Algae

Recent studies demonstrate that chlorophyll *a* and algae can photolytically produce HO• in natural waters (Li et al. 2008; Dykens et al. 1992; Oda et al. 1992). It is hypothesized that HO• is produced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 3.2), which is initially formed in irradiated aqueous suspensions of algae. The photo formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from algae is a well-known phenomenon in natural waters (Lehninger 1970; Zepp et al. 1987; Collen et al. 1995), which has been explained in detail in the second chapter (see chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”). As found by in vitro studies carried out in aerated water–acetone mixtures, the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> proceeds through the photo-formation of superoxide ion by chlorophyll *a* (You and Fong 1986). It has been shown that the HO• photoproduction increases with increasing algal concentration and irradiation time (Li et al. 2008). It has also been shown that for the marine microalga *Dunaliella salina*, the HO• production is significantly enhanced by the addition of Pb(II), or by Pb(II) and methylmercury. However, the HO• production is decreased by addition of methylmercury only, suggesting a complex effect of metal pollution on the HO• production from algae suspensions (Li et al. 2008).

## 4 Factors Controlling the Production and Decay of HO• in Natural Waters

Major sources of HO• in irradiated natural waters are NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, photo-Fenton reaction (which depends on the concentrations of Fe and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), humic substances (fulvic and humic acids), tryptophan amino acid, autochthonous and even unknown DOM components as well as anthropogenic DOM such as components of household detergents or fluorescent whitening agents (FWAs) such as (DAS1) and distyryl biphenyl (DSBP) (Table 2). The concentration values and, in the case of DOM, also the nature of these species are very variable among rivers, lakes and oceans, which significantly affects the HO• sources in natural waters (Takeda et al. 2004; White et al. 2003; Nakatani et al. 2007; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data; Mostofa et al. 2005; Zika et al. 1993). Interestingly, the concentration values of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in surface seawaters are lowered by solar irradiation that induces transformation reactions. This is a key factor that limits the role of nitrite and nitrate as HO• sources in the surface seawater layer. Unknown or little known photoinduced HO• sources in natural waters are still poorly characterized DOM components such as humic substances (fulvic and humic acid), amino acids, proteins, components of detergents or FWAs, as well as their daughter photoproducts, unidentified organic compounds and photo-Fenton reactions. Therefore, the production of HO• in natural waters depends on several factors, which can be listed as: (1) Wavelength spectrum of solar radiation; (2) Nature and contents of DOM; (3) Consumption of HO• by DOM and other

chemical species; (4) Nitrite and nitrate: Effect of wavelength spectrum, temperature, and pH; (5)  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ : Effect of wavelength spectrum and temperature; (6) Fenton reaction: Effect of pH, temperature and salinity; (7) Photo-Fenton reaction; and (8) Photo-ferrioxalate/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  reaction: Dependence of pH and reactants. These issues will be discussed below.

#### ***4.1 Wavelength Spectrum of Solar Radiation***

The production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  significantly depends on the spectrum of the incident radiation in the ultraviolet (UVC = 200–280 nm; UVB = 280–320 nm; UVA = 320–400 nm) and visible (400–700 nm) regions. Note that UVC radiation is not present in the sunlight spectrum in the troposphere. The maximum  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photo-production has been observed upon UVB irradiation of three DOM fractions isolated from lake water, and it decreased at higher wavelengths (Grannas et al. 2006). A rough estimation shows that the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  production is approximately 191–247 % and 103–178 % higher at 308 nm than at 355 and 330 nm, respectively. The photoproduction of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  by nitrate is only induced by UVB radiation, while the production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  by nitrite and DOM can take place under both UVB and UVA. Note that UVA radiation is able to penetrate more deeply than UVB into the water bodies (Mopper and Zhou 1990; Zafriou and Bonneau 1987; Zellner et al. 1990; Qian et al. 2001).  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  generates  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  (Eq. 3.2) mostly by non-environmental UVC with quantum yield around 0.5, but the radiation absorption by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is extended to the UVB region and the photolysis quantum yield is expected to be similar (Legrini et al. 1993; von Sonntag et al. 1993). During non-ozone hole conditions,  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  formation from nitrate contributed ~33 % to the total  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoinduced generation in open oceanic surface waters, while the role of DOM plus nitrite was ~67 % (Qian et al. 2001). During an ozone hole event (e.g., 151 Dobson units) the corresponding results were ~40 and 60 % for nitrate and DOM plus nitrite, respectively, because of an increase in UVB irradiance that enhanced the photolysis of nitrate. A model estimation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoinduced generation in Antarctic seawater during an ozone hole (151 Dobson units) shows that the production is enhanced by at least 20 %, mostly from nitrate photolysis and to a minor extent from DOM photoinduced reactions (Qian et al. 2001). Similar results have been obtained for Arctic water (Rex et al. 1997; Randall et al. 2005).

#### ***4.2 Nature and Amount of DOM Components***

The radical  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is generated photolytically from various organic substances in natural waters (Table 2) (Mill et al. 1980; Mopper and Zhou 1990; Vaughn and Blough 1998; Holder-Sandvik et al. 2000; Page et al. 2011; Grannas et al. 2006). The most common dissolved organic compounds are humic substances (fulvic and

humic acid), amino acids, fluorescence whitening agents (FWAs) or components of detergents such as diaminostilbene (DAS1) and distyryl biphenyl (DSBP), phenolic compounds, various kinds of autochthonous DOM components and unknown ones (Page et al. 2011; Mostofa et al. 2011). The HO• production greatly depends on the DOM components, an increase of which can enhance the HO• formation rate in the aqueous solution (Fig. 1) (Page et al. 2011; Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H, unpublished data). Study shows that DOM isolates from the Suwannee River photolytically produce free HO•, while Elliot Soil Humic Acid (ESHA), and Pony Lake Fulvic Acid (PLFA) hydroxylate arenes, at least in part, through a lower-energy hydroxylating species (Page et al. 2011). The photoinduced generation of HO• from various standard organic substances (1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> aqueous solutions) has been studied using a solar simulator (Table 2; Fig. 1) (Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H unpublished data). The differences in production rates among different substances are attributed to the variation of the fluorophores or functional groups on the highly unsaturated aliphatic carbon chains present in various DOM components (FDOM or CDOM) (Mostofa et al. 2011; Senesi 1990). The electronic transitions involving illuminated DOM can lead to the release of free electrons, which can induce the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in natural waters. It would then follow HO• production upon H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis, and the photogenerated hydroxyl radicals can contribute to the transformation of DOM or of the pollutants present in natural waters. That would lead to photoinduced self-transformation of DOM via photogenerated HO•. Table 2 reports the main HO• sources that are operational in the natural environment.

In polluted sewage waters, the HO• formation is greatly enhanced after 60 min of irradiation (Fig. 3a). This finding could be compatible with HO• production by photogenerated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which would not be present in the system before irradiation and would undergo accumulation at earlier irradiation times. The HO• generation being proportional to [H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>], the accumulation of hydrogen peroxide would lead to an increase of the formation rate of the HO•.

The photogenerated HO• is rapidly consumed in natural waters upon reaction with dissolved organic compounds (Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Southworth and Voelker 2003; Westerhoff et al. 1999; Goldstone et al. 2002; Miller and Chin 2002; Miller et al. 2002; Moran and Zepp 1997). A rough estimation showed that the consumption of HO• by DOM is 12–56 % in rivers (Nakatani et al. 2004). Considering the DOM as a major sink, the maximum steady-state concentration of HO• is equal to the production rate divided by the decay rate constant, and can be depicted by (Eq. 4.1) (Schwarzenbach et al. 1993):

$$[\text{HO}]_{\text{SS,Fenton}} = \sum_{\lambda} \frac{I(\lambda)\varphi(\lambda)[1 - 10^{-\epsilon(\lambda)Cz}]}{zK_{\text{DOM}}C} \quad (4.1)$$

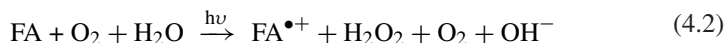
where the  $1 - 10^{-\epsilon(\lambda)Cz}$  is the light attenuation at the depth  $z$  (cm),  $\varphi$  is the apparent quantum yield for the generation of HO• from DOM (mole Einstein<sup>-1</sup>),  $\epsilon$  is the absorption coefficient of DOM [(mg C L<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup>],  $C$  its concentration of DOM (mg C L<sup>-1</sup>), and  $k_{\text{DOM}}$  (M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) is the second-order reaction rate constant between HO• and DOM. The rate constant for the reaction of HO• with



Suwannee River Fulvic Acid is  $(3.8\text{--}4.4) \times 10^4$  (mg C) $^{-1}$  L s $^{-1}$  (Southworth and Voelker 2003; Westerhoff et al. 2007). Rate constants in the same ranges,  $(1\text{--}7) \times 10^4$  (mg C) $^{-1}$  L s $^{-1}$ , have been determined for the reaction between HO $\bullet$  and DOM present in natural water samples or extracted from them (Vione et al. 2006; Westerhoff et al. 1999; Goldstone et al. 2002; Gao and Zepp 1998). The half-life of a model pollutant can be estimated as  $t_{1/2} = \ln 2 (k_{\text{HO}}[\text{HO}\bullet]_{\text{SS}})^{-1}$ , where  $k_{\text{HO}}$  is the second-order reaction rate constant with HO $\bullet$ , and  $[\text{HO}\bullet]_{\text{SS}}$  is given by Eq. (4.1). Depending on the mixed layer depths that influence  $[\text{HO}\bullet]_{\text{SS}}$ , and for  $k_{\text{HO}}$  values of the order of  $10^9\text{--}10^{10}$  M $^{-1}$  s $^{-1}$ ,  $t_{1/2}$  can vary from some days to some months.

#### 4.2.1 Fulvic Acid as a Producer and Scavenger of HO $\bullet$ in Natural Waters

Fulvic acid (FA) can produce HO $\bullet$  photolytically in aqueous solution (Table 2) (Vaughn and Blough 1998; Goldstone et al. 2002). FA can account for approximately 23–70 % of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production in rivers (Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009). A general reaction of FA that leads to the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Eq. 4.2) can be depicted on the basis of Eqs. (3.13–3.18) (see chapter “Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters”):



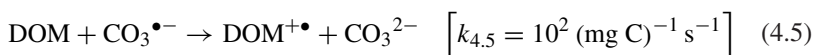
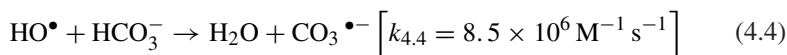
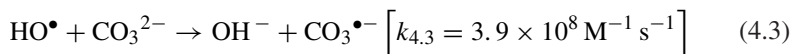
The generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from FA can lead to HO $\bullet$  (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + h $\nu$   $\rightarrow$  2HO $\bullet$ ) that could further react with FA, at the same time being consumed and causing transformation of FA (Voelker and Sulzberger 1996). Recent experimental studies indicate that at least 50 % of the hydroxylation reactions photosensitized by DOM isolates would be a result of a pathway that is independent of hydrogen peroxide (Page et al. 2011). Recently, the photo-degradation of various functional groups in DOM by HO $\bullet$  has been observed, and the rates determined in aqueous solution (Minakata et al. 2009). The results suggest that DOM or FA is important scavengers of photolytically generated HO $\bullet$  in aqueous solution.

### 4.3 Other Chemical Species or Processes as HO $\bullet$ Sinks

There are several processes that can inhibit HO $\bullet$  formation or consume these radicals in the aquatic environments, which can be distinguished as:

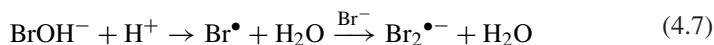
(1) Decrease in light intensity in deeper waters, which reduces the formation rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and of Fe(II). Photo-generated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and Fe(II) at the surface could be moved downward through vertical mixing processes, thereby reducing their concentration in the surface layer (Southworth and Voelker 2003; Pullin et al. 2004). Such an effect can greatly decrease the HO $\bullet$  production in water.

(2) Upon oxidation of carbonate and bicarbonate by  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , the carbonate radical ( $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ ) is produced (Eqs. 4.3, 4.4) in surface waters (Minella et al. 2011) and DOM is the key component to sink  $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$  by the reaction between them (Eq. 4.5) in surface waters (Buxton et al. 1988; Canonica et al. 2005).



These reactions are all dependent on pH since  $\text{pK}_a$  of carbonate and bicarbonate has 10.3 and 6.3 (Tossell 2005). At around neutral pH, bicarbonate is dominant over carbonate so  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radical scavenging is not so significant as to higher pH (i.e., carbonate is more dominant).

(3) In seawater,  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is mainly consumed by  $\text{Br}^-$  ions (Zafriou et al. 1984; Neta et al. 1988; Goldstone et al. 2002; Song et al. 1996; Zafriou et al. 1987; Das et al. 2009). The reaction of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  with  $\text{Br}^-$  generates the oxidized bromine radical species ( $\text{BrOH}^{\bullet-}$ ) (Eq. 4.6), which can be transformed into  $\text{Br}^\bullet$  and  $\text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$  (Eq. 4.7) (Goldstone et al. 2002; Song et al. 1996; Zafriou et al. 1987; von Gunten and Oliveras 1997; Grebel et al. 2009).



Moreover, the bromine radical species could also react with DOM and induce transformation reactions. The half-life of  $\text{BrOH}^{\bullet-}$  is less than a few seconds, for a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration of  $0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in cloud water at pH 8. However, at pH 5 the half-life of  $\text{BrOH}^{\bullet-}$  is several hours for the same  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration (von Gunten and Oliveras 1997). A recent study shows that bromide scavenges the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radicals formed upon photolysis of nitrate, before they leave the solvent cage, thereby inhibiting the geminate recombination between the photogenerated  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  and  $^\bullet\text{NO}_2$ . The result is that the formation rate of  $\text{HO}^\bullet + \text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$  with nitrate + bromide is higher than that of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  with nitrate alone. Such an effect compensates for the lower reactivity of  $\text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$  compared to  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  toward certain organic substrates, e.g. phenol and tryptophan (Das et al. 2009). It has also been shown that the radical  $\text{Br}_2^{\bullet-}$  is an effective brominating agent for phenol (Vione et al. 2008).

(4) In stimulated polymorphonuclear leukocyte systems, a water extract from green tea and green tea polyphenols had the strongest scavenging effect on  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ , much stronger than vitamin C or vitamin E. Moreover, rosemary antioxidants and curcumin have weaker scavenging effects than vitamin C, but a stronger one than vitamin E (Zhao et al. 1989).

#### 4.4 Dependence on $\text{NO}_2^-$ and $\text{NO}_3^-$ Photolysis: Effect of Wavelength Spectrum, Temperature, and pH

The photoinduced generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  largely depends on the presence of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in natural waters (Zafiriou and True 1979a, b; Takeda et al. 2004; Zafiriou and Bonneau 1987; Zepp et al. 1987; Zellner et al. 1990; Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Mack and Bolton 1999). The quantum yield of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  ( $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$ ) for  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis significantly depends on the temperature, wavelength and pH in the aqueous solution (Tables 4 and 5) (Zepp et al. 1987; Zellner et al. 1990; Goldstein and Rabani 2008; Matykiewiczová et al. 2007; Treinin and Hayon 1970; Strehlow and Wagner 1982; Warneck and Wurzinger 1988; Mark et al. 1996; Vione et al. 2001; Chu and Anastasio 2003). The  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  photolysis has been determined for a  $\text{NO}_2^-$  concentration of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  M, for  $4 \leq \text{pH} \leq 11$  and temperatures between 278–353 K at 308 nm (Table 4) (Zellner et al. 1990). The absorption coefficient of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  at 308 nm is  $\epsilon_{308} = 4.1 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Strickler and Kasha 1963). For the same solution,  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  has also been determined in the temperature range of 278–358 K, for pH 8 and under 351 nm irradiation (Table 4). Note that the absorption coefficient of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is  $\epsilon_{351} = 9.4 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Strickler and Kasha 1963). The results have demonstrated that  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  generally increases with temperature and decreases with pH (Fig. 4).

The temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  is mathematically derived, based on the results of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  photolysis at 308 (Eq. 4.8) and 351 nm (Eq. 4.9) at room temperature (Table 4) (Zellner et al. 1990). It can be expressed as:

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) = 0.07 \pm 0.01 \quad \text{for } 7 \leq \text{pH} \leq 9 \quad (4.8)$$

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) = 0.046 \pm 0.009 \quad \text{for } \text{pH} = 8 \quad (4.9)$$

Using the averaged data over the range  $7 \leq \text{pH} \leq 9$ , the temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  at 308 nm (Eq. 4.10) becomes:

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(T) = \Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) \exp \left[ (1560 \pm 360) \left( \frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \quad (4.10)$$

where the apparent activation energy is  $E_A = 13 \pm 3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . This equation is in good agreement with previous data (Zafiriou and Bonneau 1987), where it has been obtained  $E_A = 12 \pm 6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  at 298.5 nm and in the temperature range of 296–322 K.

The temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  for  $\text{NO}_2^-$  photolysis at 351 nm can be expressed as (Eq. 4.11):

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(T) = \Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) \exp \left[ (1800 \pm 400) \left( \frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \quad (4.11)$$

**Table 4** The quantum yield of HO\* ( $\Phi_{\text{HO}^*}$ ) of nitrite photolysis as a function of pH and temperature (T)

T (K)	pH	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<i>For wavelength 308 nm</i>									
278		0.047 ± 0.004	0.037 ± 0.002	0.039 ± 0.005	0.040 ± 0.005	0.040 ± 0.002	0.039 ± 0.001	0.034 ± 0.002	0.030 ± 0.003
298		0.091 ± 0.011	0.080 ± 0.007	0.068 ± 0.004	0.068 ± 0.009	0.071 ± 0.009	0.068 ± 0.008	0.060 ± 0.007	0.046 ± 0.006
318		0.100 ± 0.011	0.085 ± 0.005	0.081 ± 0.006	0.082 ± 0.011	0.079 ± 0.003	0.080 ± 0.003	0.076 ± 0.003	0.069 ± 0.005
353		0.160 ± 0.011	0.159 ± 0.008	0.148 ± 0.006	0.141 ± 0.007	0.143 ± 0.003	0.132 ± 0.005	0.125 ± 0.003	0.115 ± 0.004
<i>For wavelength 351 nm</i>									
278		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.027 ± 0.003	nd	nd	nd
288		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.038 ± 0.004	nd	nd	nd
298		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.046 ± 0.003	nd	nd	nd
308		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.058 ± 0.002	nd	nd	nd
318		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.078 ± 0.003	nd	nd	nd
328		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.091 ± 0.010	nd	nd	nd
338		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.096 ± 0.003	nd	nd	nd
348		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.118 ± 0.008	nd	nd	nd
358		nd	nd	nd	nd	0.153 ± 0.009	nd	nd	nd

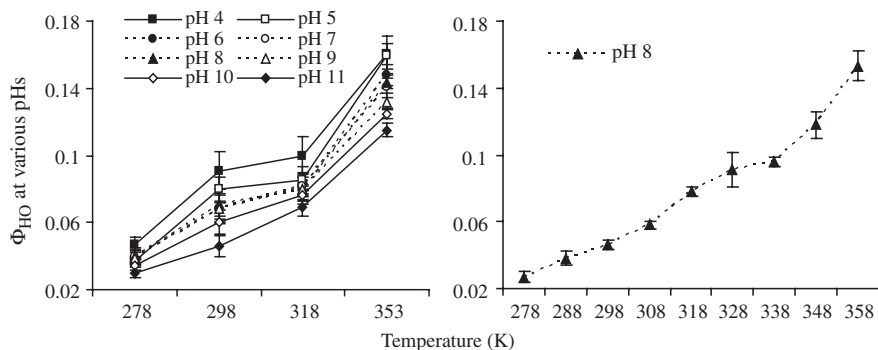
nd means 'not detected'

Data source Zellner et al. (1990)

**Table 5** The quantum yield of HO<sup>•</sup> ( $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$ ) of nitrate photolysis as a function of pH and temperature (T)

T (K)	pH							
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<i>For wavelength 308 nm</i>								
278	0.008 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.001	0.008 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.001	0.008 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.001	0.004 ± 0.001
298	0.016 ± 0.001	0.017 ± 0.001	0.017 ± 0.001	0.016 ± 0.001	0.017 ± 0.001	0.016 ± 0.001	0.014 ± 0.001	0.009 ± 0.001
318	0.028 ± 0.002	0.026 ± 0.003	0.027 ± 0.002	0.028 ± 0.001	0.027 ± 0.001	0.027 ± 0.002	0.024 ± 0.002	0.011 ± 0.001
353	0.038 ± 0.004	0.034 ± 0.003	0.036 ± 0.004	0.035 ± 0.002	0.036 ± 0.002	0.030 ± 0.003	0.017 ± 0.003	0.012 ± 0.001

*Data source (Zellner et al. 1990)*

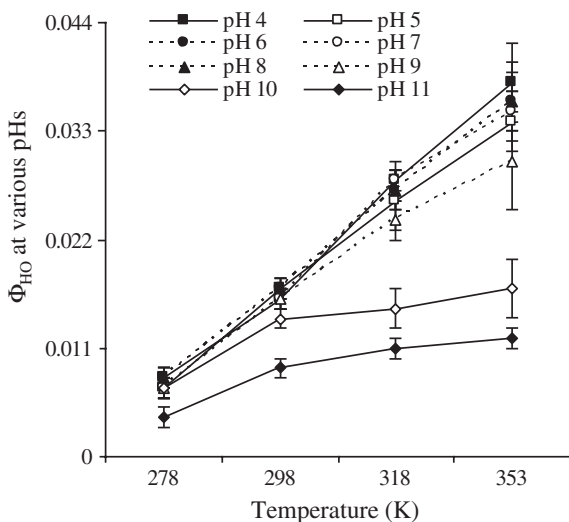


**Fig. 4** Quantum yields of  $HO^\bullet$  of  $NO_2^-$  photolysis with variation in temperature at a specific wavelength at 308 nm for various pH (a) and at 351 nm (b) at pH 8. Data source Zellner et al. (1990)

These results allow the hypothesis that the temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{HO}$  for  $NO_2^-$  photolysis is independent of wavelength, despite a decline of the absolute  $\Phi_{HO}$  value with increasing wavelength (Fig. 4) (Zellner et al. 1990).

On the other hand, the  $\Phi_{HO}$  of  $NO_3^-$  photolysis has been determined for a  $NO_3^-$  concentration of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  M in the range  $4 \leq pH \leq 11$ , at temperature between 278–353 K and 308 nm irradiation (Table 5) (Zellner et al. 1990). The absorption coefficient of  $NO_3^-$  at 308 nm is  $\epsilon_{308} = 6.5 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Meyerstein and Treinin 1961). It has been shown that the quantum yields at each temperature are generally independent of pH in the range  $4 \leq pH \leq 9$ . At higher pH's, the quantum yield is typically decreased (Fig. 5).

**Fig. 5** Quantum yields of  $HO^\bullet$  of  $NO_3^-$  photolysis with variation in temperature at a specific wavelength (308 nm) for various pH. Data source Zellner et al. (1990)



The  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis at room temperature (298 K) is (Eq. 4.12)

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) = 0.017 \pm 0.03 \text{ for } 4 \leq \text{pH} \leq 9 \quad (4.12)$$

The temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  is mathematically derived from the results of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis at 308 nm, in the range of  $4 \leq \text{pH} \leq 9$  (Table 5). It can be written as (Eq. 4.13) (Zellner et al. 1990):

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(T) = \Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) \exp \left[ (1800 \pm 480) \left( \frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \quad (4.13)$$

where the apparent activation energy  $E_A = 15 \pm 4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . The effect of temperature on the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  quantum yield is relatively stronger than the effect of pH:  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  increases by almost a factor of 5 over the temperature range 278–353 K, for  $4 \leq \text{pH} \leq 9$  (Zellner et al. 1990). Because of the low molar absorption coefficient of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  at 351 nm ( $\epsilon_{351} \approx 0.05 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) (Meyerstein and Treinin 1961), nitrate is a less effective  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  source at 351 than at 308 nm. However, the results indicate that the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  quantum yield and the temperature dependence are constant at these wavelength (Zellner et al. 1990). There is an overall consistency between the results of different studies into the temperature and wavelength dependence of the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  quantum yield for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis (e.g., obtained  $\Phi_{\text{HO}} = 0.015 \pm 0.003$  at 313 nm) (Zepp et al. 1987).

#### 4.5 Dependence on $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ Photolysis: Effect of Wavelength Spectrum and Temperature

The photoinduced generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + h\nu \rightarrow 2 \text{HO}^\bullet$ ) depends on the wavelength spectrum of UV-B radiation and on water temperature (Zellner et al. 1990; Hunt and Taube 1952; Baxendale and Wilson 1956; Volman and Chen 1959; Goldstein and Rabani 2008; Chu and Anastasio 2005; Goldstein et al. 2007). The quantum yield of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  ( $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$ ) has been determined for  $3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M H}_2\text{O}_2$  at pH 7, at the wavelengths of 308 and 351 nm (Zellner et al. 1990). The  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  absorption coefficients for these wavelengths are  $\epsilon_{308} = 1.10$  and  $\epsilon_{351} = 0.11 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively (Taylor and Cross 1949). It has also been shown that the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  production gradually increases with an increase in temperature at pH 7 (Fig. 6; Table 6) (Zellner et al. 1990). Zellner and his co-workers derived the equations for the temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  upon  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  photolysis.

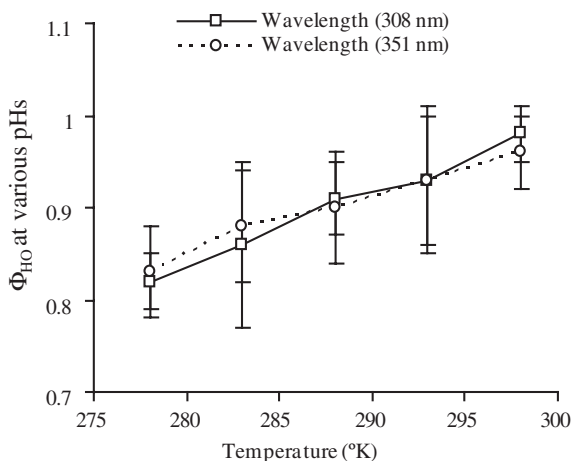
For the photolysis at 308 nm,  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  can be expressed as (Eq. 4.14):

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) = 0.98 \pm 0.03 \quad (4.14)$$

The temperature dependence of  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  can be expressed as (Eq. 4.15):

$$\Phi_{\text{HO}}(T) = \Phi_{\text{HO}}(298 \text{ K}) \exp \left[ (660 \pm 190) \left( \frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \quad (4.15)$$

**Fig. 6** Quantum yields of HO• of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis with variation in temperature at specific wavelengths (308 and 351 nm, respectively) at pH 7. *Data source* Zellner et al. (1990)



**Table 6** Quantum yield of HO• production ( $\Phi_{HO}$ ) from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis at pH 7 as a function of temperature (T)

T (°K)	$\Phi_{HO}$ at pH 7	
	308 nm	351 nm
278	0.82 ± 0.03	0.83 ± 0.05
283	0.86 ± 0.09	0.88 ± 0.06
288	0.91 ± 0.04	0.90 ± 0.06
293	0.93 ± 0.07	0.93 ± 0.08
298	0.98 ± 0.03	0.96 ± 0.04

*Data source* Zellner et al. (1990)

where the activation energy is  $5.5 \pm 1.6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ .

These values are essentially constant for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis at 351 nm (Eqs. 4.16, 4.17):

$$\Phi_{HO}(298 \text{ K}) = 0.96 \pm 0.04 \tag{4.16}$$

$$\Phi_{HO}(T) = \Phi_{HO}(298 \text{ K}) \exp \left[ (580 \pm 160) \left( \frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \tag{4.17}$$

A recent study has shown that the quantum yield  $\Phi_{HO} = 1.11 \pm 0.07$  in the excitation range of 205–280 nm for the photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. This is in agreement with earlier studies (Goldstein et al. 2007). Therefore, the available data suggest that the photolysis of aqueous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at wavelengths  $\geq 300 \text{ nm}$  generates HO• with a quantum yield  $\Phi_{HO} \sim 1$  at room temperature (25 °C).  $\Phi_{OH}$  decreases to approximately 0.82 at 5 °C (278 K). It can be noted that the effective quantum yield of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> dissociation is approximately 0.5, but the photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> yields two



**Table 7** The reaction rate constants for generation of HO• in Fenton reaction at various pH ranges in the absence of light

Reaction type	pH 3	pH 4	pH 5	Equations
	Reaction rate constant ( <i>k</i> ) (M <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )			
Fe <sup>(II)</sup> + H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> → Fe <sup>(III)</sup> + HO• + OH <sup>-</sup>	63	1.2 × 10 <sup>2</sup>	5.7 × 10 <sup>2</sup>	4.18
Fe <sup>(III)</sup> + H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> → Fe <sup>(II)</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> + H <sup>+</sup>	2 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	2.5 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	2.6 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	4.19
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> + HO• → HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> + H <sub>2</sub> O	3.7 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	3.3 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	3.3 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	4.20
Fe <sup>(III)</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> → Fe <sup>(II)</sup> + O <sub>2</sub> + H <sup>+</sup>	7.8 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	6.8 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	3.1 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	4.21
Fe <sup>(II)</sup> + HO• → Fe <sup>(III)</sup> + OH <sup>-</sup>	3.2 × 10 <sup>8</sup>	3.2 × 10 <sup>8</sup>	3.2 × 10 <sup>8</sup>	4.22
Fe <sup>(II)</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> → Fe <sup>(III)</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> •	1.3 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	2.4 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	6.6 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	4.23
HO• + HO• → H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	5.2 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	5.2 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	5.2 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	4.24
HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> + HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> → H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	2.3 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	1.2 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	2.3 × 10 <sup>7</sup>	4.25
HO• + HO <sub>2</sub> •/O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> → H <sub>2</sub> O + O <sub>2</sub>	7.1 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	7.5 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	8.9 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	4.26

Data source (Kwan and Voelker 2002)

HO•. Therefore, the quantum yield of HO• photoinduced generation from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is double compared to that of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis (Hunt and Taube 1952; Baxendale and Wilson 1956; Volman and Chen 1959).

#### 4.6 Fenton Reaction: Effect of pH, Temperature and Salinity

The Fenton reaction depends on the presence of Fe<sup>2+</sup> (or Fe<sup>3+</sup>) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in natural waters. The oxidation of Fe(II) with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in seawater depends on pH (2–8.5), temperature (5–45 °C) and salinity (0–35 g L<sup>-1</sup>) (Wells and Salam 1968; Moffett and Zika 1987a, b; Gallard et al. 1998; Bossmann et al. 1998; Duesterberg et al. 2008; Millero and Sotolongo 1989; de Laat and Gallard 1999; Duesterberg and Waite 2006; Duesterberg et al. 2005; Farias et al. 2007; Jung et al. 2009). The rate constants of the chain Fenton reactions and the relevant dependence on pH are presented in Table 7 (Kwan and Voelker 2002). The reaction rate constant between Fe<sup>2+</sup> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> significantly increases with pH in the range from 3 to 5 (Eq. 4.18; Table 7), and a similar effect is observed with some of the chain reactions (Eqs. 4.19–4.26; Table 7).

A recent study that has been carried out in the pH range 2.5–4.0, both in the presence and absence of a target organic substance (formic acid), also highlights the importance of the Fenton system in the catalytic redox cycling of iron (Duesterberg et al. 2008). Supply of oxygen can enhance the efficiency of the Fenton oxidation, which is understandably attenuated by competition with the organic intermediates in the reaction media (Sychev and Isak 1995; Duesterberg et al. 2005).

It is shown that the addition of phosphotungstate (PW<sub>12</sub>O<sub>40</sub><sup>3-</sup>), a polyoxo-metalate, extends the working pH range of the Fenton system (Fe<sup>3+</sup>/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) up

to pH 8.5. This is because  $PW_{12}O_{40}^{3-}$  forms a soluble complex with iron that converts  $H_2O_2$  into  $HO^\bullet$  (Lee and Sedlak 2009). The Fenton reaction for the catalytic oxidation of organic compounds is usually limited to the acidic pH region, due to the low solubility of Fe(III) and the low efficiency of oxidant production at neutral pH values. The coordination of  $Fe^{2+}$  by  $PW_{12}O_{40}^{3-}$  can alter the mechanism of the reaction of Fe(II) with  $H_2O_2$  at neutral pH, yielding a reactive species capable of oxidizing aromatic compounds (Lee and Sedlak 2009).

An increase in temperature significantly enhances the efficiency of the Fenton reaction towards the degradation of organic pollutants in aqueous solution (Fig. 7) (Farias et al. 2007). From the results of Farias et al. (2007) it is possible to estimate a HCOOH degradation enhancement of 164–191 % at 313 K and 370–561 % at 328 K compared to 298 K, after 20 min of reaction time, with  $H_2O_2$ : formic acid molar ratios between 3 and 8 (Fig. 7). The results also show that the conversion of the organic pollutant is the highest at 328 K, with a low  $H_2O_2$ : formic acid molar ratio. Conversion gradually decreases when the  $H_2O_2$ : formic acid molar ratio is increased from 3 to 8 at the same temperature (328 K) (Fig. 7). However, at 313 K the conversion of the organic pollutant gradually increases when the  $H_2O_2$ : formic acid molar ratio is increased from 3 to 8 (Fig. 7).

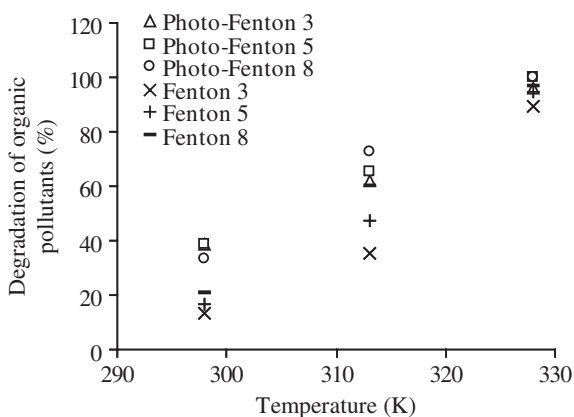
The overall Fenton reaction ( $Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2$ ) is first-order with respect to the concentration of total Fe(II) and  $H_2O_2$ . It can be expressed as follows (Eq. 4.27) (Moffett and Zika 1987a, b; Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$d [Fe (II)] /dt = -k \{ [Fe (II)] [H_2O_2] \} \tag{4.27}$$

where the brackets denote the total molar concentrations. With an excess of  $[H_2O_2]$ , the overall reaction becomes pseudo-first order and can be depicted as follows (Eq. 4.28):

$$d [Fe (II)] /dt = -k'_1 [Fe (II)] \tag{4.28}$$

**Fig. 7** The percentage degradation of organic pollutants by photo-Fenton and Fenton reactions in a stirred tank laboratory photoreactor. 3, 5 and 8 indicates the molar ratio of the reactant  $H_2O_2$  to formic acid in the aqueous solutions. *Data Source* Farias et al. (2007)



where  $k'_1 = k[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$ . The reaction is quite fast at high temperature and pH, and it becomes quite difficult to be examined at 25 °C and pH 8. The reaction at 5 °C and pH 3.5 followed first-order kinetics with respect to Fe(II) for seawater samples, giving  $k' = 0.0385 \pm 0.0009 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $\log k = 1.50 \pm 0.02$  ( $k$  in  $\text{M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989). At higher pH and temperature, the second-order reaction rate constants have been determined at the stoichiometric ratio  $[\text{Fe(II)}]/[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2] = 2$ , following Eq. (4.29) (Benson 1960)

$$1/[\text{Fe(II)}] = 1/[\text{Fe(II)}]_0 + (k/2)t \quad (4.29)$$

where  $[\text{Fe(II)}]_0$  is the initial concentration of Fe(II).

The rate constant  $k$  ( $\text{M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) for Eq. (4.29) is independent of pH below pH 4, and increases significantly at high pH values. It is a linear function of  $[\text{H}^+]$  or  $[\text{HO}^-]$  from pH 6 to 8 in seawater. The effect of pH is not affected by a variation of the temperature

The effects of temperature ( $T$ ) and ionic strength ( $I$ ) on  $k$  at pH 6 can be expressed as (Eq. 4.30) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$\log k = 13.73 - 2,948/T - 1.70I^{1/2} + 1.20I \quad (4.30)$$

The reaction rates can be depicted as (Eq. 4.31) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$d[\text{Fe(II)}]/dt = -k_2[\text{Fe(II)}][\text{H}_2\text{O}_2][\text{HO}^-] \quad (4.31)$$

where the values of  $k_2$  are independent of temperature. This is attributed to the fact that the activation energy is of the same order of magnitude as the heat of ionization of water ( $\Delta H_w^*$ ). The effect of the ionic strength on  $\log k_2$  can be depicted as (Eq. 4.32) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$\log k_2 = 11.72 - 2.14I^{1/2} + 1.38I \quad (4.32)$$

The overall reaction rate  $k$  over the entire range of pH, temperature and ionic strength can be expressed by (Eq. 4.33) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$k = k_0\alpha_{\text{Fe}} + k_1\alpha_{\text{FeOH}} \quad (4.33)$$

where  $\alpha_{\text{Fe}}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{FeOH}}$ ,  $k_0$  and  $k_1$  are the fractions of the two Fe(II) species and the rate constants for the oxidation of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{FeOH}^+$ , respectively. The values of  $k_0$  and  $k_1$  can be expressed by (Eqs. 4.34, 4.35) (Millero and Sotolongo 1989):

$$\log k_0 = 8.37 - 1,866/T \quad (4.34)$$

$$\log k_1 = 17.26 - 2.948/T - 1.70I^{1/2} + 1.20I \quad (4.35)$$

The addition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at constant pH linearly increases the reaction rate, independently of the temperature and salinity. This result can be attributed to  $\text{FeCO}_3^0$  reacting faster than  $\text{FeOH}^+$  with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . At a given pH and ionic strength, the reaction rates in seawater are almost the same as in NaCl. These results can explain

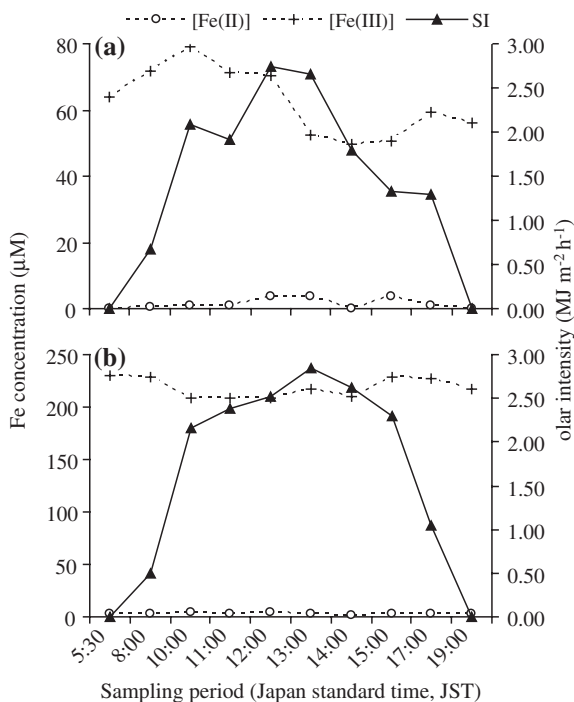
the differences in the reaction rates observed between estuarine waters of various alkalinity and seawater diluted with water (Miller and Sotolongo 1989).

A recent study demonstrates that the rates of the Fenton reaction do not vary in the presence of chloride, nitrate and perchlorate. However, in the presence of sulfate the rate of Fe(II) oxidation is higher and depends on pH and the concentration of sulfate. This result has been obtained under dark conditions at  $\text{pH} < 3$ ,  $25 \pm 0.5$  °C and controlled ionic strength ( $\leq 1$  M) (Le Truong et al. 2004). It has also been shown that  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is more stable in Fenton-like than in Fenton's systems, and that the lifetime of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is highly affected by the solution pH. Indeed, pH-buffered acidic conditions are preferred to ensure sufficient  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  lifetime, which is an important factor in the feasibility of Fenton's and Fenton-like reactions with haematite and magnetite for soil and groundwater remediation (Jung et al. 2009).

#### 4.7 Photo-Fenton Reaction

The formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the photo-Fenton reaction ( $\text{Fe(III)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{h}\nu$ ) significantly depends on light intensity,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and Fe(III) concentration, and pH (Zepp et al. 1992; Voelker et al. 1997; Southworth and Voelker 2003; Vermilyea and Voelker 2009). Studies on the ferrioxalate system (air- and argon-saturated) suggest that the Fe(II) photoproduction rates are not affected by the reducing intermediates ( $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$ ,  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ , scavenger-derived radicals) produced in the aqueous solution (Zepp et al. 1992). The results demonstrate that the photolytically generated Fe(II) can efficiently react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to produce  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in water at pH 3–8 (Zepp et al. 1992). It has been shown that the Fe(II) concentration in upstream waters gradually increased from zero (0530 h JST, Japan standard time) to  $3.8 \mu\text{M}$  (1300 h JST), and decreased to zero again after sunset (1900 h JST) (Fig. 8a) (Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H unpublished data). In the meantime, pH varied from 7.0 to 7.6 (Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009). In downstream waters, the Fe(II) concentration increases from  $2.3$  (0530 JST) to  $4.0 \mu\text{M}$  (1200 JST) and then decreased to  $2.2 \mu\text{M}$  (1900 JST) after sunset (Fig. 8b) (Mostofa KMG and Sakugawa H unpublished data). The pH varied from 7.0 to 7.3 (Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009). The production of Fe(II) was the highest at noon, and it was almost the same in clean upstream river ( $3.8 \mu\text{M}$ , 7.3 % of the total Fe) and polluted river waters ( $4.0 \mu\text{M}$ , 1.9 % of the total Fe). In a similar way, the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production was also maximum at noon and reached 40 and 63 nM, respectively (Fig. 8, "Photoinduced and Microbial Generation of Hydrogen Peroxide and Organic Peroxides in Natural Waters") (Mostofa and Sakugawa 2009). Similarly,  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  has been observed to reach up to 0.9 nM in a Swiss Lake at pH 8.0–8.5; 15 nM in a low-land lake in the United Kingdom at pH 7.0–7.5; and approximately 0–145  $\mu\text{M}$  in a salt marsh at Skidaway Island in the USA (Viollier et al. 2000; Aldrich et al. 2001; Emmenegger et al. 2001). The peak concentration of Fe(II) ranged from 4 to 8 % of the total iron concentration at pH 8 in waters of Narragansett Bay. It was also observed an increase of Fe(II) concentration by lowering the pH over the entire

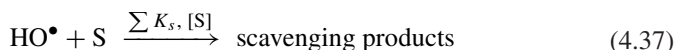
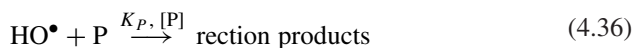
**Fig. 8** Diurnal variations of Fe(II) and Fe(III) in the upstream waters (Site KR2, Shouriki) on 21 August 2003 and in the downstream waters (Site KR6, Hinotsume) on 26 September 2003, in the Kurose River, Japan. Data Source Mostofa and Sakugawa (unpublished data)



course of the experiment (Miller et al. 1995). All the reported results suggest that the photo-Fenton reaction under sunlight proceeds at the highest rate at noon in natural waters, in correspondence with the peak values of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The diurnal changes in the concentrations of Fe(II) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> are strongly correlated to the losses in the DOM fluorescence: the latter was 28 % lower at noon than before sunrise in the river waters (Mostofa et al. 2005). However, the contribution of the photo-Fenton reaction to the production of HO<sup>•</sup> was minor (2–29 %) as compared to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (3–70 %) and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (1–89 %) upon irradiation of river water samples from Japan (pH 6.7–9.0) (Nakatani et al. 2007). Interestingly, it has also been shown that the oxidation of Fe<sup>2+</sup> by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is the key reaction step in the presence of high concentrations of Fe<sup>2+</sup>; in contrast, the back reduction of Fe(III) by superoxide is important at low initial Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentrations and high pH (Pham and Waite 2008). It has also been suggested that precipitation of Fe(III) has a marked effect on the overall Fe(II) oxidation, particularly at high pH. A recent study has shown that the inhibition of the photo-Fenton degradation of organic material (both synthetic phenol wastewater and an aqueous extract of Brazilian gasoline) in the presence of chloride ions can be circumvented, by maintaining the pH of the medium at or slightly above 3 throughout the process. In this way, it is possible to limit inhibition of the oxidation reactions even in the presence of 0.5 M chloride (Machulek et al. 2007).

### 4.7.1 Kinetics of the Photo-Fenton Reaction

The kinetics of the photo-Fenton reaction can be determined as a function of pH, based on the yield of HO• formed per Fe(II) oxidized by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and considering the photoreactions of aqueous organic substrates (Zepp et al. 1992; Hoigné et al. 1988). Under illumination with constant irradiance of a diluted probe compound (P) that reacts with HO• (Eq. 4.36), the hydroxyl radical would rapidly reach a steady-state concentration. In the presence of P and of other HO• scavengers (S), the decay of HO• can be expressed as follows (Eqs. 4.36, 4.37) (Zepp et al. 1992):



where  $k_P$  is the second-order rate constant ( $\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) for the reaction of HO• with the probe P, and  $\sum k_s[\text{S}]$  is the pseudo-first order rate constant ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) for HO• scavenging by all the components present in the reaction medium, except the probe compound.

The scavenging rate of HO• can be expressed as (Eq. 4.38) (Zepp et al. 1992):

$$r_S = \{k_P [\text{P}] + \sum k_s [\text{S}]\} [\text{HO}^\bullet] \quad (4.38)$$

If the concentration of P or the reaction rate for the P is sufficiently low (i.e.,  $\sum k_s[\text{S}] \gg k_P[\text{P}]$ ), it is  $r_S = (\sum k_s[\text{S}])[\text{HO}^\bullet]$ . Under the steady-state condition the rate of generation of HO• is  $r_{\text{OH}} = r_S$ , from which the hydroxyl radical concentration becomes (Eq. 4.39) (Zepp et al. 1992):

$$[\text{HO}^\bullet]_{\text{ss}} = r_{\text{HO}} / \left( \sum k_s [\text{S}] \right) \quad (4.39)$$

The oxidation rate ( $\text{M s}^{-1}$ ) of the probe compound in an irradiated system (conversion per unit time) is described as (Eq. 4.40) (Zepp et al. 1992):

$$-d[\text{P}]/dt = k_P [\text{HO}^\bullet]_{\text{ss}} [\text{P}] = k [\text{P}] \quad (4.40)$$

If the concentrations of the photoactive Fe(III) species, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and the scavengers show a negligible variation as compared to [P], both  $r_{\text{OH}}$  and  $\sum k_s[\text{S}]$  (and  $[\text{HO}^\bullet]_{\text{ss}}$  as a consequence) would be about constant. That would give a pseudo-first order reaction with rate constant  $k$ . If the second-order rate constant,  $k_P$  and the scavenging rate constant,  $\sum k_s[\text{S}]$  are known, then  $r_{\text{OH}}$  can be determined from  $k$  by the following equation (Eq. 4.41) (Zepp et al. 1992):

$$r_{\text{HO}} = k \left( \sum k_s [\text{S}] \right) / (k_P) \quad (4.41)$$

This steady-state approach has been successfully applied to examine the thermal production of HO• in ozone-treated natural waters, as well as the photoinduced generation of HO• upon irradiation of natural waters and of nitrate ions (Zepp et al. 1987, 1992; Haag and Hoigné 1985).

In natural waters for a thin layer at the surface of a water body, the photoinduced production rate of the reactive species (Schwarzenbach et al. 1993) can be expressed as (Eq. 4.42):

$$r_p = 2.3 \sum_{\lambda} I(\lambda) \times \varepsilon(\lambda) \times \Phi(\lambda) \times C \quad (4.42)$$

where  $r_p$  is the production rate ( $\text{M s}^{-1}$ ),  $I$  is the incident light intensity ( $\text{mEinstein cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\Phi$  is either the quantum yield ( $\text{mol Einstein}^{-1}$ ) or the apparent quantum yield,  $\varepsilon$  and  $C$  are the absorption coefficient and the concentration of the relevant light-absorbing reactive species, respectively, and  $\lambda$  is the wavelength. Thus, it is possible to determine the near-surface production rate of HO• from  $\text{NO}_3^-$  photolysis from Eq. (4.39), from which one gets (Eq. 4.43) (Southworth and Voelker 2003):

$$r_{\text{NO}_3} = \left(2 \times 10^{-7}\right) [\text{NO}_3^-] \quad (4.43)$$

To obtain (Eq. 4.43), the light intensity values were integrated over wavelength for a solar declination of  $20^\circ$  (24-h averaged) (Schwarzenbach et al. 1993), adopting a quantum yield of 0.015 for the HO• photoproduction upon nitrate irradiation at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  (Zepp et al. 1987).

The degradation rate of formic acid in the photo-Fenton reaction increases with temperature (Fig. 7) (Farias et al. 2007). From the cited results it can be estimated that the conversion of HCOOH after 20 min of reaction time is increased approximately by 70–120 % at 313 K and 160–202 % at 328 K compared to the initial temperature of 298 K, with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2:\text{HCOOH}$  molar ratios in the range from 3 to 8 (Fig. 7). It is also observed that irradiation in the photo-Fenton system enhances degradation, compared to the corresponding dark Fenton system at equal temperature. However, the effect of irradiation is decreased dramatically as temperature increases, so that at 328 K there is little advantage in irradiating the system.

#### **4.8 Photo-Ferrioxalate/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ Reaction: Dependence on pH and Reactants**

Without addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to the photo-ferrioxalate system, the reaction rate gradually increases with increasing pH as can be measured from the degradation of specific organic compounds (Jeong and Yoon 2005; Balmer and Sulzberger 1999). The pH effect is thought to involve two phenomena (Jeong

and Yoon 2005; Balmer and Sulzberger 1999). First, an increase in pH may enhance the conversion of dominant ferric complexes such as  $[\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)]^+$  and  $[\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3]^{3-}$  (Eq. 3.19). It subsequently enhances the overall reaction rates through the chain reactions of  $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$  that form  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and, through formation of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (Eqs. 3.21, 3.23, 3.24), produce  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  as a consequence (Eqs. 3.22, 3.43, 3.45, 4.23, 4.25). Second, the formation of the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)$  complex increases with pH and subsequently enhances the Fenton reaction, because  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)$  can react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  at a faster rate (Eq. 3.25) than  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (Eq. 4.18). Thus, without addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  the rate-determining step for the production of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  is the formation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The latter is formed upon reaction of  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$  with  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$  or  $\text{HO}_2^\bullet$ , or from  $\text{O}_2^- + \text{H}^+$  and chain propagation within  $\text{HO}_2^\bullet$ .  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$  is formed from  $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$  or from the reaction of  $\text{O}_2$  with photoinduced electron ( $e^-$ ), emitted upon photo-ionization of organic compounds. Therefore, an increase in pH will favor the occurrence of  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$ ,  $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ , which leads to higher amounts of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and of  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)$ . Then, the reaction between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)$  favors the formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ . It is obvious that higher  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  photoproduction causes faster degradation of the dissolved organic substrates.

With addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to the photo-ferrioxalate system, the formation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  depends on the concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Hislop and Bolton 1999; Jeong and Yoon 2005). With  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  above 10 mM the reaction rate may decrease, but the addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  from 0.1 to 1 mM may enhance the degradation of organic substances. Therefore, a high concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is a major factor for decreasing the overall formation rate of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$ . First of all, excess  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  can contribute significantly to the  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  scavenging, consuming hydroxyl radicals and producing  $\text{HO}_2^\bullet/\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ . The latter species are then able to oxidize  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$ , which might be kept low so that the formation rate of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the Fenton process is decreased. Lower  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  formation and higher  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  consumption by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  can inhibit the degradation of dissolved organic compounds; the inhibition would be higher at higher pH, where the oxidation of  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$  by  $\text{HO}_2^\bullet/\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$  is favored.

On the other hand, relatively low levels of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (0.1 to 1 mM) can enhance degradation, because the addition of hydrogen peroxide would by-pass the slow step of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  formation in the photo-ferrioxalate system without  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . Moreover, low  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  levels would not be able to scavenge  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  significantly, nor to cause  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$  oxidation.

## 5 Significance of $\text{HO}^\bullet$ in Natural Waters

The  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radical is the most reactive transient among the reactive oxygen species (ROS) that can be present in natural waters. It is an effective, nonselective and strong oxidant in natural waters for the following reasons:

- (i) Photoinduced transformation of DOM by  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  into bioavailable compounds. An example is the degradation of persistent organic substances, which are

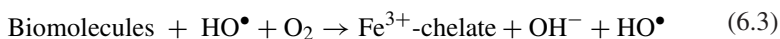
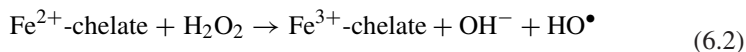
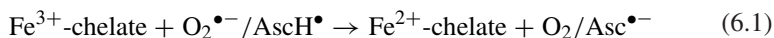


- otherwise recalcitrant to biological and chemical degradation in natural waters (Zepp et al. 1987; Miller and Chin 2002; Haag and Yao 1992; Vione et al. 2009; Grannas et al. 2006; Pullin et al. 2004; Draper and Crosby 1984; Ollis et al. 1991; Sun and Pignatello 1993; Zimbron and Reardon 2005).
- (ii) Degradation of organic pollutants or DOM in natural waters (Brezonik and Fulkerson-Brekken 1998; Southworth and Voelker 2003; White et al. 2003; Westerhoff et al. 1999; Goldstone et al. 2002; Kang et al. 2000; Gao and Zepp 1998; Arslan et al. 1999; Katsumata et al. 2006; Muñoz et al. 2006; Farias et al. 2010). Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (SRFA) can produce  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , which can give  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  by direct photolysis or through the Fenton reactions (Fig. 9) (Southworth and Voelker 2003). The Fenton process can also be exploited from a technological point of view. Recently, a new pilot-plant solar reactor for the photo-Fenton treatment of waters containing toxic organic substances has been developed. In this reactor, the combined photoinduced and thermal effects of sunlight can degrade 98.2 % of the initial pollutant, for a reaction time of 180 min and a relatively low iron concentration (Farias et al. 2010).
  - (iii) A great interest is presently devoted to the utilization of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  in the Advanced Oxidation Technology (AOT) for treatment of sewerage or industrial effluents, as a help to achieve sustainable development (Safazadeh-Amiri et al. 1996, 1997; Arslan et al. 2000; Venkatadri and Peters 1993).
  - (iv) The cycling of metals occurs through various redox chemical reactions in natural waters, to which  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  gives a contribution (Faust 1994; Voelker et al. 1997; Jeong and Yoon 2005; Faust and Zepp 1993; Kwan and Voelker 2002; Emmenegger et al. 2001).
  - (v) Photoinduced generation of  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  upon nitrite and nitrate photolysis in natural waters can cause hydroxylation, nitration and nitrosation reactions of many aromatic compounds or organic contaminants (Matykiewiczová et al. 2007; Torrents et al. 1997; Vione et al. 2003a, b, 2004). Some of the reaction intermediates are mutagenic or carcinogenic and are, therefore, of immense environmental concern in the water bodies.
  - (vi) The  $\text{HO}^\bullet$  radical is for instance involved in the ultrasonically induced oxidation of arsenite, which plays a key role in the conversion of As(III) in aqueous media and may be applicable as a pretreatment step for the removal of arsenic from water (Xu et al. 2005).

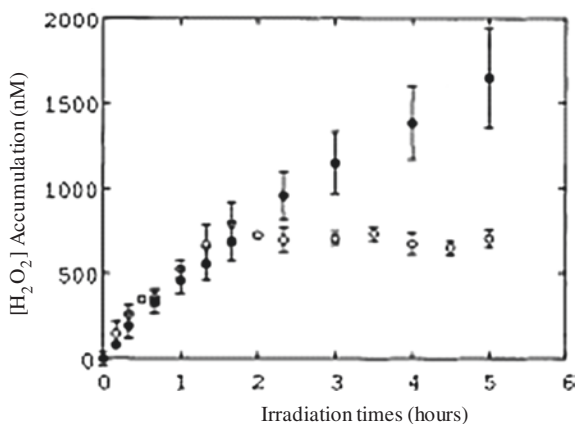
## 6 Impact of Free Radicals on Biota (Proteins and Living Cells) and Plants

Free radicals are an unavoidable by-product in biological systems and can arise from foods containing unnecessary fat, smoking, alcohol,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , ozone, toxins including the carcinogenic ones, ionization, environmental pollutants

etc. The major sources of free radicals such as the superoxide ion ( $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ) and the hydroperoxyl radical ( $HO_2^{\bullet}$ ) are modest leakages from the electron transport chains of mitochondria, chloroplasts and the endoplasmic reticulum (Miller et al. 1990; Paradies et al. 2000; Blokhina et al. 2003). The  $HO^{\bullet}$ , alkoxy radical ( $RO^{\bullet}$ ), peroxy radical ( $ROO^{\bullet}$ ), and  $H_2O_2$  produced from the autooxidation of biomolecules such as ascorbate, catecholamines or thiols, can damage the macromolecules such as DNA, proteins and lipids in biological systems (Miller et al. 1990; Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Cadet et al. 1999; Blokhina et al. 2003; Berlett and Stadtman 1997; Morse et al. 1977; Radtke et al. 1992; Abele-Oeschger et al. 1994). These events have implications for numerous human health problems. Autoxidation reactions would mostly be catalyzed by transition metal ions ( $Fe^{2+}$ ,  $Cu^+$ ), and by semiquinones which can act as electron ( $e^-$ ) donors (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Blokhina et al. 2003). Four-electron reduction of oxygen in the respiratory electron transport chain (ETC.) is generally associated with a partial one- to three-electron reduction, yielding reactive oxygen species such as  $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ,  $HO^{\bullet}$ ,  $H_2O_2$ , singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ) and  $O_3$  (Blokhina et al. 2003). Both  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  and  $HO_2^{\bullet}$  undergo spontaneous dismutation to produce  $H_2O_2$ . In the presence of reduced transition metals such as  $Fe^{2+}$  or its complexes that are quite common in biological systems, the  $HO^{\bullet}$  radical can be produced by the Fenton reaction. A mechanistic scheme for the generation of  $HO^{\bullet}$  in biological systems can be depicted as follows (Eqs. 6.1–6.3) (Buettner et al. 1978; Buettner 1987; Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Blokhina et al. 2003):



**Fig. 9**  $H_2O_2$  concentration during photoirradiation of Suwannee River Fulvic Acid ( $10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) solutions in the absence ( $\bullet$ , average of five experiments) and the presence ( $\circ$ , average of three experiments) of Fe ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) at pH 6.0. *Data source* Southworth and Voelker (2003)



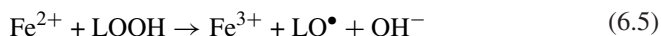
where  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  and ascorbate ( $AscH^-$ ) can reduce the  $Fe^{3+}$ -chelate to form  $Fe^{2+}$ -chelate (Eq. 6.1), which subsequently reacts with  $H_2O_2$  to form  $HO^\bullet$  in the Fenton reaction (Eq. 6.2).  $HO^\bullet$  then induces the oxidation of biomolecules (Eq. 6.3) in biological systems.

The presence of metals that can act as catalysts in biological systems is caused by the fact that many biomolecules bind transition metals, especially protein moieties containing oxygen, nitrogen or sulfur atoms. The transition metals are coordinated with biomolecules through the *d*-orbitals that can also permit the simultaneous binding of a biomolecule and dioxygen, thus providing a bridge between  $O_2$  and the biomolecule (Miller et al. 1990; Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Khan and Martell 1967; Valentine 1973). The major free radicals with the highest reduction potential are  $HO^\bullet$ ,  $RO^\bullet$ ,  $LOO^\bullet$ ,  $GS^\bullet$ , urate, and even the tocopheroxyl radical ( $TO^\bullet$ ). Ascorbate itself acts as an antioxidant by replacing a potentially very damaging radical ( $X^\bullet$ ), through the following reaction (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Buettner 1993, 1988):



where  $Asc^{\bullet-}$  is the ascorbate radical, which has low reduction potential and does not give additional reaction with  $O_2$  to form further oxidizing species. The kinetics of these electron/hydrogen atom transfer reactions are very fast, as is observed for the equilibrium mixture of  $AscH_2/AscH^-/Asc^{2-}$  at pH 7.4 which has been mentioned in earlier section (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Buettner 1988; Ross et al. 1994). Therefore, ascorbate is an excellent antioxidant from both a thermodynamic and kinetic point of view, but  $Asc^{2-}$  or  $Asc^{\bullet-}$  can produce low levels of superoxide. The removal of  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  by superoxide dismutase can prevent further free radical oxidation in biological systems (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996; Williams and Yandell 1982; Scarpa et al. 1983; Winterbourn 1993).

One of the most important impacts of harmful solar UV radiation in biological systems is the skin cancer, which is generally induced by the photoinduced production of free radicals. Formation of  $^1O_2$  within cell membranes is caused by the photodynamic action of the photosensitizers photofrin and merocyanine 540 (Buettner and Jurkiewicz 1996). The  $^1O_2$  reacts with the membrane lipids to form lipid hydroperoxides (LOOH). Skin is a significant iron excretion site (Green et al. 1968), and  $Fe(II)$  can react with LOOH to form highly oxidizing lipid alkoxyl radicals ( $LO^\bullet$ ) by a Fenton-like reaction (Eq. 6.5):



Applications of iron chelators to the skin can give photoprotection in the case of chronic exposure to UV radiation, by reducing the formation of free radicals (Bissett et al. 1991).

Second, another most important impact of  $HO^\bullet$  is the declining of plants by the effect of  $HO^\bullet$ , which is formed in dew waters of plants by several sources such as  $NO_2^-$ ,  $NO_3^-$  and  $H_2O_2 + Fe +$  oxalate system present in the plants

(Arakaki et al. 1998, 1999a, b; Arakaki and Faust 1998; Nakatani et al. 2001; Kobayashi et al. 2002). It is considered that the HO<sup>•</sup> formed in the liquid phase on the needle surfaces of Japanese red pine, which are frequently present in the dew on sunny mornings in the warm-temperate region, are the cause of ecophysiological disorders in plants (Kobayashi et al. 2002). These effects subsequently affect to decrease in the maximum CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, minimal fluorescence and needle lifespan (Kume et al. 2000).

## 7 Summary and Scope of the Future Challenges

The HO<sup>•</sup> radical is the most reactive among the many oxygen transient species produced photolytically in natural waters. However, a few studies on HO<sup>•</sup> production have been conducted on fresh- and seawater as a whole. The HO<sup>•</sup> production in acidic lake waters is not well investigated, although it is known that acidification enhances the formation of HO<sup>•</sup> (Vione et al. 2009). The HO<sup>•</sup> production varies with the contents of DOM, which may be a key factor to understand the photoinduced processes in a variety of natural waters. Moreover, there is no study conducted about production of alkoxide radicals (RO<sup>•</sup>) and their role in the photodegradation kinetics of DOM along with HO<sup>•</sup>. An example of key possible research on free radicals needed for the future challenges are: (i) Effect of pH and temperature on the production of HO<sup>•</sup> for a variation in quality and quantity of DOM in natural waters. (ii) Investigation on the sources of free radicals (HO<sup>•</sup> and RO<sup>•</sup>), particularly from fluorescent dissolved organic matter (FDOM) for a variety of waters. (iii) Photoinduced generation of alkoxide radicals (RO<sup>•</sup>) and their relative reaction kinetics with respect to HO<sup>•</sup> and other solution components. (iv) Impacts of free radicals on specific biota in the aquatic environment.

### Problems

- (1) List the various sources of HO<sup>•</sup> and their role in natural waters.
- (2) List three important free radical species except HO<sup>•</sup> and their importance in natural waters.
- (3) How is the steady state concentration of HO<sup>•</sup> defined, and why does the steady state concentration vary for a variety of natural waters?
- (4) Explain why the potential of HO<sup>•</sup> formation is low in surface waters compared to those of deep lakes and the sea.
- (5) Mention the important processes of HO<sup>•</sup> formation in natural waters and explain the mechanism of in situ generation of HO<sup>•</sup> from DOM via H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.
- (6) Explain why the photo-Fenton reaction is more suitable than the Fenton reaction in the degradation of organic pollutants in aqueous solution.

- (7) Explain how the photo-ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reaction system degrades the organic pollutants in the aqueous solution.
- (8) Explain how photocatalytic TiO<sub>2</sub> suspensions degrade the organic pollutants in aqueous solutions.
- (9) What are the controlling factors for the production and decay of HO<sup>•</sup>? Explain how fulvic acid plays a dual role in production and decay of HO<sup>•</sup>.
- (10) Explain the effect of wavelength spectrum, temperature, and pH on the formation of HO<sup>•</sup> from nitrite and nitrate photolysis in aqueous solution.
- (11) Explain the effect of wavelength spectrum and temperature on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis in aqueous solution.
- (12) Explain how the Fenton reaction is affected by pH, temperature and salinity in natural waters.
- (13) Explain what the photo-Fenton reaction is and what is its kinetics.
- (14) What is the photo-ferrioxalate/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reaction? How is this reaction system affected by variations in pH and reactants in aqueous solution?
- (15) The quantum yield ( $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$ ) for the UV photoproduction of HO<sup>•</sup> by nitrite photolysis at 308 nm is 0.07 at room temperature (298 K). Calculate  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  at the temperatures of 288 and 328 K.
- (16) The  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  for the UV photoproduction of HO<sup>•</sup> by nitrate photolysis at 308 nm is 0.017 at room temperature (298 K). Calculate the  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  at the temperatures of 278 and 318 K.
- (17) If the photolysis of aqueous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 308 nm generates HO<sup>•</sup> with  $\Phi_{\text{HO}} = 1$  at room temperature (298 K), then calculate  $\Phi_{\text{HO}}$  at 288 and 303 K.
- (18) Explain shortly the significance of HO<sup>•</sup> formation in natural waters.
- (19) Explain how HO<sup>•</sup> impacts on biota in natural waters.

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