

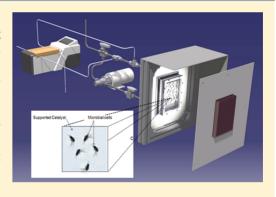
Article

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¹ Continuous-Flow Aqueous System for Heterogeneous Photocatalytic ² Disinfection of Gram-Negative *Escherichia coli*

- 3 Mejdi Kacem, †,‡ Gael Plantard, †,‡ Monica Brienza,† and Vincent Goetz*,†©
- ⁴ PROMES CNRS, UPR 8521, Rambla de la thermodynamique, 66100 Perpignan, France
- 5 [‡]University of Perpignan Via Domitia, 52 Paul Alduy, 66100 Perpignan, France

ABSTRACT: Within the global objective to develop a sustainable oxidative process based on heterogeneous photocatalysis, the possibility of combining solar UV irradiation and a supported semiconductor all while working in an open reactor running in continuous flow is a pertinent option. Here we investigated a heterogeneous photocatalytic disinfection process performed with a 2D-photocatalytic material implemented in an open-flow flat-plate reactor irradiated with a LED panel. Inactivation of Gram-negative *Escherichia coli* was attempted using different UV light flux densities and feed flow rates. Treatment capacities were calculated under steady-state conditions using a simple mass balance between inlet and outlet. For an irradiated surface of 1.5×10^{-2} m², values ranged from 10 to 30×10^5 MPN h⁻¹ L⁻¹as a function of working conditions. With just a few adjustments, the model based on coupling mass transfer with phototocatalysis-driven bacterial



inactivation developed previously in the case of a closed-batch cylindrical reactor was tested and extended with success.

1. INTRODUCTION

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20 Water-related problems are increasingly recognized as one of 21 the most serious and immediate environmental threats to 22 humankind. Numerous approaches exist throughout the world 23 to promote wastewater reuse, especially in agriculture. Urban 24 wastewater is forwarded to treatment plants (WWTP), which 25 are a set of devices (primary treatment devices followed by a 26 secondary biological treatment) designed to progressively treat 27 different pollutants. Recent station yields can reach up to 95% 28 pollution abatement. The rate achieved by this simple 29 organization may be sufficient to meet standards on discharge 30 into nature, but to make water reuse viable, a tertiary 31 disinfection treatment is needed. Microbial abatement targets 32 up to 99.9% (3 log₁₀) and obviously depends on future use of 33 the disinfected water (vegetable/tree cultivation, greenspace 34 irrigation, and aquifer recharge). More dramatically, today, 35 almost 700 million people lack improved drinking water 36 sources. This is because rural areas of developing countries not 37 equipped with sanitation and running water public network are 38 the most affected with proliferation of many waterborne 39 deseases.² In sub-Saharan areas, unsafe drinking water alone 40 accounted for 50% of deaths.³ Providing a simple, robust and 41 efficient disinfection process adapted to a developing country 42 today represents a major health issue.

Most of the time, disinfection is carried out using UVC 44 irradiation and/or strong oxidizers such as ozone and chlorine. 45 UVC and ozonation are efficient against most infectious agents. 46 UVC processes involve installation, electricity, and maintenance 47 costs. If effluent is heavily charged with organic matter, then 48 chlorine can lead to organohalides, especially highly undesirable 49 trihalomethanes (THMs). 4-6 Research is thus turning to

alternative processes, and among those currently in develop- 50 ment, photocatalysis is an interesting option. Photocatalysis is 51 an environmentally friendly water disinfection technology, 52 especially as the process can be solar-driven.⁷⁻¹⁰ The literature 53 has shown that photocatalysis processes can effectively 54 inactivate a wide range of bacteria, 11,12 including Escherichia 55 coli¹³ which is by far the most studied organism in the 56 world. 10,14 Nevertheless, the vast majority of such studies have 57 been conducted using catalysts in slurries, e.g., TiO₂, ^{15,16} which ₅₈ need to be post-treated and are almost always integrated into 59 experimental batch-type systems. These systems do not permit 60 easy translation of results to more practical engineered 61 treatment operations, e.g., real-world WWTPs, which inevitably 62 work in a pseudocontinuous way. 17-20 Hence, catalysts will 63 likely need to be immobilized on fixed support materials, and 64 contaminated water treatment capacity should be explored 65 and/or estimated in a continuous-flow configuration.

Within the objective to promote the direct use of solar 67 energy to activate the photocatalytic oxidative principle, it is 68 obviously necessary to take into account the discontinuous 69 characteristic of the natural sunlight irradiation. This is a major 70 constraint to manage for efficient design and running of the 71 operating process. The large scale-up of a continuous-flow solar 72 photocatalytic disinfection technology therefore needs a 73 simulation tool capable of predicting how the process works 74

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75 when submitted to not just variable light flux density but also 76 variable effluent feed flow rates.

To begin addressing some of these critical issues, the work 78 reported here focused on the photocatalytic disinfection of 79 Gram-negative E. coli in a continuous-flow operating system 80 and using a supported catalyst implemented in a flat reactor. As 81 far as we know, few studies have addressed continuous-flow 82 processes, 21-23 particularly for solar disinfection purposes. The 83 laboratory setup developed here is far from intended to 84 replicate the complexity of actual field-scale engineered 85 processes. However, it does enable early investigations of key 86 parameters that will be critical to the success of larger 87 continuous-flow solar treatment processes. As a first step, 88 experiments were carried out to study the effect of two key 89 parameters that govern the inactivation process: light flux 90 density and feed flow rate. An E. coli inactivation simulation 91 model was previously developed in the case of a treatment 92 performed in batch working mode in a closed fluid loop 93 including a cylindrical reactor. As a second step, the ability of 94 this model to represent the performances of the open reactor 95 working in continuous flow was tested and evaluated.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Catalyst. TiO₂ catalyst, the material most widely 97 employed for photocatalysis, was used in an immobilized form. 98 The photocatalytic medium (Paper Grad 1048) manufactured 99 by Ahlstrom consisted of TiO₂ (Millenium PC-500) as a 100 coating on nonwoven fiber. Its specific surface area, calculated 101 with reference to the mass of the total photocatalytic medium, 102 was 98 m² g⁻¹. In more detail, the photocatalytic material 103 consisted of cellulosic fibers (38 g m⁻²), TiO₂ (16.7 g m⁻²), 104 and SiO₂ (13.3 g m⁻²), where SiO₂ served as an inorganic 105 binder for the titanium deposited on the paper fibers. This 106 photocatalytic material has already been characterized,²⁵ and 107 the major concern when using the 2D material was leaching, 108 which may lead to a reactivity modification due to the change in 109 TiO₂ recovery. Because of this, the media was systematically 110 prewashed (using Milli-Q water). This prewashed media was 111 reasonably photostable and has a TiO2 powder recovery rate of 112 about 20%. It is widely used and cited in the literature, and was 113 tested, for example, for photocatalytic treatment of several organic pollutants²⁶ under artificial UV irradiation as well as natural sunlight.^{27,28}

2.2. Bacterial Strain and Growth. E. coli strain DSM 117 30083 was used for the full bacterial inactivation study. This lab strain is widely studied, has a sequenced genome, and is a 119 nonpathogenic primary model organism for lab research. 10,14 E. 120 coli cells were grown under sterile conditions in 100 mL of Luria-Bertani (Miller's LB Broth) medium at 37 °C.²⁹ Bacterial growth was monitored by optical density (wavelength = 600 nm) in a spectrophotometer (UVmini-1240, Shimadzu). Cultures in stationary phase were appropriately diluted in a buffer solution (buffered sodium chloride peptone water, pH 7.0, Oxoid) in order to obtain targeted initial bacterial concentrations. For all studies, bacterial counts were monitored via MUG/E. coli fluorescent microplates in accordance with the 129 requirements of standard NF EN 9308-3. Bacterial count was 130 then evaluated in MPN L⁻¹ (i.e., Most Probable Number per 131 unit of volume).

2.3. Processing Loop. The lab setup (Figure 1) consisted 133 of an open processing loop regarded as a perfectly mixed 134 reactor. Its total volume of 0.25 L consisted of two parts: a 135 photoreactor and a recirculation system linked to effluent inlet

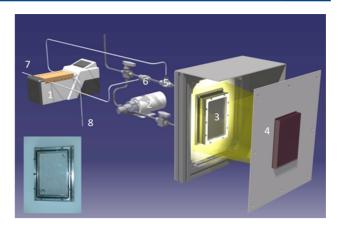


Figure 1. Processing loop: peristaltic pump (1), centrifugal pump (2), photoreactor (3), UV panel (4), withdrawal valve (5), feed valve (6), effluent to be treated (7), and treated effluent (8). Picture of the reactor with the 2D media positioned at the back face.

and outlet. The photoreactor was similar to a flat reactor with a 136 parallel-piped shape, a width of 10 cm, a length of 15 cm, and a 137 thickness of 1 cm. It had a stainless-steel base and was covered 138 in front by a plate of UV-transparent PMMA (UV transmission 139 equal to 90%). The photocatalytic 2D material was placed on 140 the irradiated back face of the reactor. To isolate it from any 141 external light source, the photoreactor was mounted within a 142 closed chamber and exposed to a panel of UVA LED diodes 143 (280 LEDs distributed in 10 rows, $\lambda = 365$ nm). The surface 144 and useful volume irradiated thus obtained were 0.015 m² and 145 0.15 L, corresponding to an irradiated area per unit of volume 146 of 10⁻⁴ m² m⁻³. Light intensity calibration curve was 147 established with a hemispherical UV sensor (UVA 365 Lutron 148 Electronic Enterprise) positioned at the same place as the flat 149 reactor surface. The PMMA reactor surface was irradiated with 150 flux density between 3 and 50 W m⁻², with a small pitch of 151 variation equal approximately to 0.2 W m⁻² thanks to the 152 control of the power supplied to the LED. This range of UV 153 flux density is similar to that emitted by the solar radiation.

Fluid flow in the closed fluid loop was performed with a 155 centrifugal pump (Cole Parmer), which ensured homogeneous 156 mixing of the solution in the entire system that can be thus be 157 considered a perfectly mixed reactor. In order to establish the 158 continuous flow regime, the processing loop was fed in with the 159 influent (bacterial suspension to be treated) at a constant flow 160 rate. Simultaneously, the same quantity of solution was 161 withdrawn at a same flow rate in order to keep a fixed volume 162 of fluid into the system. The supply/withdrawal flow rates were 163 modulated by a multichannel peristaltic pump (Watson Marlow 164 205 CA). Flow range was monitored between 0.01 and 0.3 L 165 h^{-1} .

3. MODELING

A model of bacterial inactivation was built and tested²⁴ with 167 success in the case of a reactor operating in a closed 168 recirculating circuit working in batch mode. It is based on 169 two main assumptions (that have been largely discussed 170 elsewhere): 24 (i) A reversible adhesion of the bacteria occurs 171 at the surface of the catalyst media; (ii) a photocatalytic 172 reaction, consecutive to the production of hydroxyl radicals by 173 the TiO₂ semiconductor under irradiation, likely degrades the 174 bacteria bonded to or in the very near vicinity of the catalyst. 175 Consequently, the couplings between bacteria mass transfer 176 177 from the liquid bulk to the catalyst surface, the "intrinsic" 178 photocatalytic degradation rates, have to be taken into account 179 in the global mass balances applied to the bacteria.

The concentration C (MPN L^{-1}) of bacteria in the liquid 181 bulk is the result of the general mass balance including the fluid 182 inlet and outlet as

$$V_{\rm T} \frac{\mathrm{d}C}{\mathrm{d}t} = \dot{m}(C_{\rm in} - C_{\rm out}) - V_{\rm r}(K_{\rm s}S_{\rm cat}(q_{\rm e} - q) + \alpha I_{\rm r}^{f}C)$$
(1)

184 The mass balance applied to bacteria bonded to the catalyst 185 surface $(q \text{ in MPN m}^{-2})$ leads to

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}q}{\mathrm{d}t} = K_{\mathrm{s}}(q_{\mathrm{e}} - q) - \alpha' I_{\mathrm{r}}^{f'} q \tag{2}$$

 187 where q_e (MPN m $^{-2}$) is bonded bacteria in equilibrium with 188 the liquid determined experimentally 24 and approached with a 189 Freundlich formalism:

$$q_{\rm e} = 31C^{(1/0.78)} \tag{3}$$

191 In the balances, \dot{m} is feed flow rate (L s⁻¹). V_r and V_T are the 192 reactor and total loop volumes (L). The first term of the "disappearance" rate of the bacteria in the liquid phase in eq 1 is 194 described according to the linear driving force (LDF) model is 195 the flux density of bacteria transferred to the catalyst surface. It 196 involves K_s (s⁻¹), the mass transfer coefficient expressed with 197 the bounded phase taken as reference, and the equivalent surface of the catalyst per unit of reactor volume, S_{cat} (m² L⁻¹). The second part describes the photocatalytic disinfection 200 kinetics expressed as a power function of the irradiation intensity I_r (W m⁻³) per unit of reactor volume and involved an energy constant α ((m³ J⁻¹)^{-f}), which is a function of semiconductor activity, and a coefficient f (dimensionless), 204 which modulates the reaction rate with respect to light 205 intensity. Similarly, the mass balances applied to the bacteria 206 in adhesion (eq 2) involved the flux coming from the liquid 207 phase (first term) and photodisinfection kinetics expressed 208 according to a similar formulation with parameters α' 209 $((m^3.J^{-1})^{-f'})$ and f' (dimensionless).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Preliminary Assays. The first step was to validate that 211 the processing loop (photoreactor and circuit) may be regarded 212 as a perfectly mixed open reactor. Loop residence time t_1 was 213 determined under dark conditions throughout the system 214 response to a step-like input signal. This type of signal was 215 obtained by feeding the processing loop with a tracer solution 216 with a constant concentration and flowing at a fixed rate. In this work, E. coli was naturally selected as the tracer. Bacterial concentrations at the exit stream of the process over time were 219 monitored. Prior to the start of the experiment, the processing 220 loop was fully filled with an initial E. coli bacterial suspension 221 charged at a concentration C_0 of 10^5 MPN L⁻¹. For better 222 accuracy, two step-like input signals were successively applied: a 223 first "high" input signal, and a second "low" one. After an initial 224 lag phase (10 h), the loop was first supplied with a bacterial 225 suspension of a concentration $C_{\text{in},1}$ of 1.510^7 MPN L⁻¹ (150 226 times more concentrated than C_0) at a flow rate \dot{m} of 0.06 L h⁻¹ 227 (Figure 2). The exit-stream bacterial concentration C_{out} was 228 monitored over time until reaching steady state, i.e., until 229 reaching a stable concentration identical to that of the inlet 230 stream $(C_{in,1} = C_{out})$. A second concentration gap was applied.

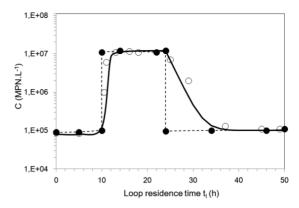


Figure 2. Experimental (O) and simulated (continuous line) bacterial concentrations in the exit stream of the processing loop for an input step-like signal. Experimental measures of bacterial concentrations in the feed stream (\bullet) .

The processing loop at an initial concentration $C_0 = C_{\text{in},1}$ was 231 supplied with a second bacterial suspension flowing at a same 232 flow rate (0.06 L h⁻¹) but of a concentration $C_{\text{in},2}$ of 10⁵ MPN 233 L⁻¹ (150 times more diluted than $C_{\text{in},1}$).

The response of a perfectly mixed open reactor to such a 235 signal may be expressed following the general formulation of eq 236 1, and obviously corresponds to the special case where no 237 photocatalyst is loaded and when irradiation is off, i.e., with no 238 reaction taking place. The integration of eq 1 for each step leads 239 to

$$C_{\text{out}}(t) = C_{\text{in}} - (C_{\text{in}} - C_{\text{o}}) \exp(-t/t_{\text{l}})$$
 (4) ₂₄

where $t_1 = V_{\rm T}/\dot{m}$ (s) is loop residence time and C_0 is initial ²⁴² concentration of the step considered.

Time-course profiles of the calculated and experimentally 244 measured bacterial concentrations in the exit stream of the 245 processing loop were plotted in Figure 2. The best agreement 246 between calculated and experimental concentration profiles was 247 for a residence time of $t_1 = 4$ h, to be compared against 4.16 h in 248 the case of a perfect mixed open reactor. This corresponded to 249 a dead volume of 9 mL (while the loop volume is of 250 mL), 250 which was considered negligible for further study.

For the second preliminary assays, the experiments were 252 performed both in presence and absence of the catalyst. In both 253 cases, concentration profiles were expressed as a function of 254 reactor residence time $(t_r = V_r/\dot{m})$, time of irradiation, and the 255 representative time of bacteria-to-catalyst contact (when 256 present). The starting of the assays was first carried out 257 under dark conditions (Figure 3) for t_r between 0 and 30 h. 258 f3 The photocatalytic media appeared to initially slow the increase 259 of the bacterial concentration in the exit stream. This was 260 probably a consequence of transfer then adhesion of the 261 bacteria from the liquid phase to the catalyst surface. Once the 262 steady state was reached, bacterial concentration in the exit 263 stream was identical to that of the inlet stream, which suggests a 264 balanced state of bacteria between the catalyst surface being 265 fully loaded of cells and the liquid bulk. This made it possible to 266 experimentally illustrate the "adhesion effect" of the material on 267 the bacteria. Under light conditions, bacterial disinfection 268 obtained by photolysis and photocatalysis were clearly 269 distinguished. Both profiles decreased exponentially and then 270 stabilized within 8 and 11 h, respectively, of irradiation. While 271 the share attributable to the direct bactericidal action of light 272

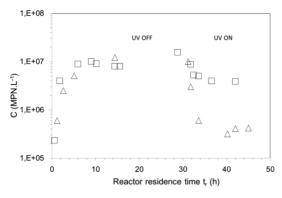


Figure 3. Experimental bacterial concentration profiles at the outlet of the process for a feed flow rate of 0.025 L h⁻¹ and at inlet concentration $C_{in} = 1 \times 10^7$ MNP L⁻¹ without (\square) and with (\triangle) photocatalytic media. Dark conditions between 0–30 h followed by photolysis (\square) or photocatalysis (\triangle) with a light flux density at the reactor surface equal to 35 W m⁻².

273 was not fully negligible, it nevertheless remained far lower than 274 that of photocatalysis, which is consistent with the literature.

4.2. Light Flux Density Effect. Irradiation level is a key 276 parameter in characterizing the photocatalytic disinfection process. The influence of flux density in the heterogeneous 278 photocatalysis disinfection process has been widely reported, 30-32 but most of these studies were conducted in 280 batch systems where residence time in the reactor was 281 ultimately not a limiting factor for effective inactivation of the 282 bacteria. In contrast to the batch system, the disinfection of 283 bacteria in an open system takes place in a single pass. In this case, the control of the irradiation conditions in the reactor 285 becomes critical to effective abatement of the cells. Our aim was 286 therefore to evaluate the irradiation effect on the bacteria in the 287 open reactor and assess the capacities of the photocatalytic treatment for population reduction, particularly in steady state. 288 Under dark conditions, the processing loop without any 289 bacteria (At $t_r = 0$, $C_0 = 0$ MPN L^{-1}) was filled with a bacterial suspension charged at 10^7 MPN L^{-1} . Feed flow rate was fixed at 0.025 L h⁻¹ and held constant throughout the experiment. After at least 25 h, when the outlet concentration profile met the value of the inlet concentration (equilibrium was reached between bacteria in adhesion and in liquid phase), the experiments were next led under controlled light flux density. 297 The photocatalytic tests were investigated under irradiation flux densities at the surface of the reactor of 10, 20, and 35 W m⁻². Time-course of bacterial concentration was monitored periodically in the exit stream of the processing loop. The results 301 obtained are shown in Figure 4.

As expected, during the first phase, under dark conditions when the bacterial concentrations in the loop increase, the curves corresponding to the three assays overlap. The bacteria concentration profiles during this step only depend on the loop residence time and the initial condition, both of which were dentical for the three assays. The good agreement between experimental measures substantiated a decidedly good reproducibility of the assays.

During the irradiation phase, the curves obtained also depicted two regimes, i.e., a first regime where bacterial concentrations decreased, and a second regime representing the steady state. This latter scheme corresponded, as for any perfectly mixed open reactor, to the balance between the inlet and outlet steam of bacteria in the system and the

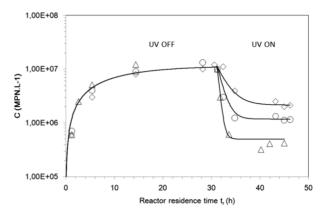


Figure 4. Experimental and simulated time-course of bacterial concentrations in the exit stream of the process for a fixed feed flow rate of 0.025 L h⁻¹ and at inlet concentration $C_{\rm in} = 1 \times 10^7$ MNP L⁻¹. Dark conditions followed by photocatalysis with light flux densities of 10 W m⁻² (\diamondsuit), 20 W m⁻² (\bigcirc), and 35 W m⁻² (\triangle).

"photocatalytic reaction", i.e., the disinfection effect, taking 316 place in the reactor under irradiation. Relatively to the 317 respective light flux densities studied, when the steady states 318 were reached, the corresponding bacterial abatements achieved 319 were 80, 89, and 96%. A decisive advantage of working to a 320 permanent regime is to have direct access to the disinfection- 321 rate values thanks to eq 1, i.e., 13×10^5 , 14.7×10^5 , and 16×322 $10^5 \text{ MPN h}^{-1} \text{ L}^{-1}$ for 10, 20, and 35 W m⁻², respectively. Even 323 if the effect is moderated, as expected, then results showed that 324 the disinfection rates increased with light flux density. This 325 confirms the dependency of bacterial disinfection on amount of 326 irradiation, i.e., a specific link between the amounts of photons 327 received in the reactor and the production of the radical species 328 responsible for the photocatalytic reaction (oxidative ac- 329 tion). 19,33 The experiments also demonstrate that in the case 330 of a 2D media probably because of the mass transfer limitation 331 and/or the light saturation of the photocatalytic sites the 332 photons efficiency dramatically decreases with increasing 333 intensity. The photons flux is directly proportional to the 334 level of intensity and at a wavelenght of 365 nm (UV LED 335 panel) 1 J s⁻¹ corresponds to 3 μ mol s⁻¹ of photons, but the 336 experimental rate of the bacteria inactivation is far from being 337 proportional to the light flux density.

4.3. Feed Flow Rate Effect. Next, experiments were 339 carried out to assess the influence of the flow rate conditions. 340 As previously, the processing loop was charged initially with a 341 bacterial suspension at 10⁷ MPN L⁻¹. The feed flow rates 342 studied were 0.06, 0.04, and 0.025 L h⁻¹. As previously, the 343 experimental tests were initiated in the dark then conducted 344 under a constant UV light flux density at the reactor surface of 345 35 W m⁻². Figure 5 shows the results of the bacterial 346 fs concentrations measured in the exit stream for the variable feed 347 flow rates.

Under dark conditions, the increase in bacterial concen- 349 tration was obviously highly dependent on feed flow rate. 350 Residence time decreased as flow rate increased. Relatively to 351 the respective feed flow rates applied, the residence time values 352 obtained were 4.16, 6.25, and 10 h, which are values of 353 comparable amplitude to those of classic treatment plants 354 (biological treatment).

As previously, under irradiation, the bacterial profiles 356 depicted two regimes: a first transitory regime, and a second 357 steady state. Both regimes were strongly dependent on feed 358

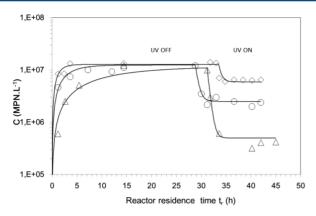


Figure 5. Experimental and simulated time-course of bacterial concentrations in the exit stream of the process for a fixed light flux density of 35 W m⁻² and at inlet concentration $C_{\rm in} = 1 \times 10^7$ MNP L⁻¹. Dark conditions followed by photocatalysis with feed flow rates equal to 0.06 L h⁻¹ (\diamondsuit), 0.04 L h⁻¹ (\bigcirc), 0.025 L h⁻¹ (\triangle).

359 flow conditions. The relative bacterial concentration reductions 360 achieved for flow rates of 0.06, 0.04, and 0.025 L h⁻¹ were 361 assessed at 37, 76, and 96%, respectively, but corresponded to 362 bacterial disinfection rates of around 30×10^5 , 22×10^5 , and 16 363 \times 10⁵ MPN h⁻¹ L⁻¹, respectively. These results clearly showed 364 that high concentrations maintained in the loop in high-flow-365 rate cases were conducive to high rate of treatment.

Residence time and therefore feed flow condition as well as 367 irradiation intensity appeared to be major factors to be taken 368 into account to properly meet the treatment objectives. 369 Therefore, finding the right trade-off between all factors 370 would be the best way to guarantee the optimal treatment 371 yield. This further demonstrates the great need for a 372 mathematical tool that would be able to predict disinfection 373 performance while taking into account the different hydro-374 dynamic characteristics of the reactor, the catalyst surface, and 375 the various key parameters on which the process depends. This 376 is particularly relevant within an objective of a direct use of the 377 solar energy that is naturally discontinuous. In this case, the 378 validation of a simulation tool able to be representative of the 379 treatment capacities under different irradiation levels (and in 380 transient regime) only represents the first step. The second 381 bottleneck to overcome, not taken into consideration in this 382 paper, will be to implement a storage function able to manage 383 the discontinuity of the ressource. Among the different options, 384 hybridation between photocatalysis and sorption is probably 385 one of the most promising. 34,35

5. PHOTOCATALYTIC TREATMENT SIMULATION

386 Apart from the experimental conclusions obtained, the 387 objective of the study was to obtain the values of the unknown 388 parameters involved in the mass balances that best reproduce 389 the experimental photocatalytic results. The model summarized 390 in the previous section was based on the coupling between two 391 distinct phenomena.

The first phenomenon is the transfer of bacteria from the solution to the surface of the catalyst, which involves equilibrium conditions between bacteria in adhesion and bacteria in the bulk phase, and a mass transfer coefficient K_s . In a fully developed laminar regime, the regime corresponding to the flow conditions of the experiments performed in this work and in the batch working mode of the previous set of some experiments, K_s can be considered of the same order of

magnitude, 22 its value was set to 2.16×10^{-6} s⁻¹. Likewise, the 400 equilibrium condition $q_a = 31C^{(1/0.78)}$ has to be independent of 401 the processing loop. Under dark conditions, these "assump- 402 tions" are validated by the comparison of the experimental 403 bacterial concentrations in the liquid phase and the simulated 404 concentrations obtained by the resolution of the set of 405 differential equations for the three different fluid flow 406 conditions (Figures 4 and 5). For each case with C and q set 407 equal to 0 at the initial time, the model was able to translate the 408 working of the process in the presence of the catalyst, whatever 409 the flow conditions. The model successfully managed to 410 reproduce the progressive accumulation of bacteria in the 411 reactor, all while taking into account the bacterial adhesion 412 phenomenon. Obviously, the model described the subsequent 413 state of balance that took place between the flux of bacteria fed 414 into the reactor and the catalyst surface being in equilibrium 415 with the liquid bulk.

Under irradiation, the second phenomenon that enters into 417 play and happens simultaneously to bacteria transfer is the 418 photocatalytic disinfection reactions. It is expressed as a 419 function of bacteria concentration in the liquid phase (C), 420 bacteria in adhesion (q), and power functions of the irradiation 421 intensity I_r (W m⁻³) involving several kinetic coefficients, i.e., α 422 ((m³ J⁻¹)^{-f}), α' ((m³ J⁻¹)^{-f'}), f, and f' (dimensionless). Ideally, 423 these coefficients have to be fully independent of reactor 424 geometry, size, and closed or open working mode. Never-425 theless, under irradiation, the values of α , α' , f, and f' were 426 optimized to provide the best fit to the new set of data 427 obtained. The parameters were identified using an optimization 428 method (optimization via Matlab) based on the minimization 429 of the mean relative error (MRE) following

MRE (%) =
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \frac{(C_{\text{exp}} - C)}{C_{\text{exp}}} \right| \times 100$$
 (5) ₄₃₁

where C and $C_{\rm exp}$ are the bacterial concentration values 432 predicted by the model and the experimental data, respectively, 433 and n is number of data points. Table 1 reports the kinetic 434 ti

Table 1. Optimized Mass Transfer and Kinetic Parameters Involved in the Models

coefficient mass transfer – kinetic	continuous mode (this study)	batch mode ²⁴
$K_{\rm s} \ (10^{-6} \ {\rm s}^{-1})$	2.16	2.16
$\alpha \ (10^{-6} \ \mathrm{m}^{3} \mathrm{J}^{-1})^{-f}$	4.1	10.2
$\alpha' (10^{-6} \text{m}^3 \text{J}^{-1})^{-f'}$	1.6	19.4
f	1.39	1.2
f'	0.093	0.064
MRE (%)	20.2	9.8

parameters identified. Following this optimization process, 435 calculations were performed with the same values of the kinetic 436 parameters, regardless of the operating conditions. Under 437 irradiation, even though deviations were observed, the 438 simulated results obtained under variable light flux densities $I_{\rm r}$ 439 (Figure 4) and feed flow rates (Figure 5) fitted with a 440 reasonable degree of accuracy (MRE = 20.2%) to the 441 experimental bacterial concentration measures in both 442 transitory and steady-state regimes. The kinetic model was 443 successfully able to describe the overall approach based on the 444 description of the disinfection process in the liquid as well as in 445 the solid phase. This confirmed, accordingly, that bacterial 446

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447 reduction in the fluid bulk and especially in the steady state is 448 definitely governable by the two main phenomena previously 449 described: bacterial transfer to the catalyst surface and the 450 photocatalytic reaction rate dependent on the quantity of 451 energy absorbed into the photoreactor.

Ideally, the concentration profiles should be simulated with 453 the same set of parameters whatever the working mode of the 454 reactor, i.e., batch mode or continuous mode (Table 1). This is 455 indeed the case for the mass transfer coefficient (K_s) , but 456 differences emerge for the other kinetic coefficients. Note 457 however that the set of kinetic parameters remains of very 458 similar order of magnitude. It is also interesting to underline 459 that it is mainly the kinetic constant α' , characteristic of the 460 inactivation of bacteria in adhesion to the surface of the catalyst, 461 that differs from one type of experiments to another. The 462 coefficient α' differs by a factor of 10 when switching from 463 batch to permanent operation, whereas the kinetic constant α 464 differs by a factor of around two. Although the operating conditions are radically different in both cases, i.e., transient 466 versus permanent regime, cylindrical versus Cartesian geome-467 try, the initial conditions (in particular, the initial state of the 468 catalyst surface) are probably the most marked differences 469 between the two types of experiments. In batch experiments, 470 the catalyst surface is initially free of bacteria and is rapidly 471 charged at the start of treatment. However, in the steady-state 472 experiments, when irradiation is delivered, the catalyst surface is 473 in equilibrium with the liquid phase and saturated with bacteria. 474 Under irradiation, the density of bacteria at the catalyst surface 475 decreased dramatically at the beginning of the experiment; this 476 is due to the inactivation of bacteria on the surface or in the 477 very near vicinity of the catalyst. Thus, it is probably the 478 assumption of a perfect reversibility of the phenomenon of 479 adhesion (implicit in the adopted formalism) which is partly at 480 fault. Considering that the inactivated bacteria are systemati-481 cally or immediately released to the liquid phase certainly leads 482 us to overestimate the role played by the surface of the catalyst 483 in the overall inactivation process. On this basis, which should 484 probably be supported by additional tests, it is a priori the 485 results from the experiments carried out with the process 486 operating in continuous mode and leading to a steady state that 487 makes it possible to best approach the reality of a disinfection 488 process.

6. CONCLUSION

489 In this work, we developed a flat-plate open reactor irradiated 490 with an LED panel that made it possible to study photocatalytic 491 inactivation of the target bacteria E. coli. Depending on the 492 initial conditions, with a continuous feed flow and a constant 493 irradiation, the system designed allow to study phenomena in 494 transient as well as steady-state or permanent working mode. In 495 the case of permanent regime, a decisive advantage is a direct 496 access to the experimental inactivation-rate values via a simple 497 mass balance between inlet and outlet. The small scale-up pilot facilitated preliminary investigation of the key factors governing the continuous flow water disinfection system, i.e., light flux 500 density and feed flow rate. At around 35 W m⁻², a level of 501 irradiation in the range of solar UV, the experimentally 502 determined treatment capacity of the selected 2D media is in 503 the range of $15-30 \times 10^5 \text{ MPN h}^{-1} \text{ L}^{-1}$.

Beside experimental investigations, the second objective was 505 to build on a study undertaken in a previous work a 506 representative model for open reactors operating in continuous 507 mode for photocatalytic inactivation of E. coli. The model is based on coupling the mass transfer between bacteria in the 508 liquid bulk phase and bacteria in "adhesion" at the surface of 509 the photocatalytic media and the inactivation of E. coli at 510 different rates in both phases. After an optimization procedure, 511 the model was successfully compared to the experimental data. 512 It is able to reproduce the evolution in concentrations of viable 513 bacteria in the range of UV flux densities corresponding to solar 514 irradiation and at variable feed flow rates of comparable 515 amplitude to those applied in real-world wastewater treatment 516 plants. Finally, we anticipate this model to be a starting point 517 for the development of a numerical tool for scaling up efficient 518 photocatalytic open reactors using immobilized photocatalytic 519 media and operating under sunlight. This would then offer the 520 possibility to predict process capacities under a dynamic flow 521 regime, as a function, for example, of irradiation availability 522 (weather, daily cycles, and geographic location) and to meet, 523 for example, given operational constraints or objectives, e.g., 524 percentage of abatement, treatment of a given water volume, 525 and so on.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

AUTHOR INFORMATION	527
Corresponding Author	528
*E-mail: vincent.goetz@promes.cnrs.fr.	529
ORCID ®	530
Vincent Goetz: 0000-0001-5700-6487	531
Notes	532
The authors declare no competing financial interest.	533

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