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Adsorption capacity of the corrosion products of nanoscale zerovalent iron towards emerging contaminants

Junmin Deng, Sungjun Bae, Sunho Yoon, Mathieu Pasturel, Remi Marsac,
Khalil Hanna

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21 **Abstract**

22 Despite the extensive use of nanoscale zerovalent iron (NZVI) in water and soil
23 remediation, no data exist on the reactivity of secondary iron minerals formed upon the
24 NZVI corrosion. Herein, we investigated the oxidation kinetics of NZVI by monitoring
25 the variations of pH, oxidation–reduction potential (ORP) and dissolved Fe(II)
26 concentration, and then examined the reactivity of resulting oxidized particles for the
27 adsorption of an emerging contaminant (nalidixic acid (NA)). NA adsorption was found
28 greatest onto oxidized particles and negligible on the fresh NZVI. Interestingly, the
29 formed secondary mineral phases exhibited an unusual pH adsorption-curve with an
30 unexpected great adsorption at alkaline pH values. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
31 and high resolution-transmission electron microscopy revealed a gradual increase in
32 Fe(II) content at the surface of magnetite phase over the reaction time. Additional
33 experiments and surface complexation modeling showed that the enhanced adsorption
34 of NA onto the secondary magnetite is due to the formation of surface bound Fe(II).
35 Fe(II) release into solution because, for instance, of the presence of organic buffer
36 molecules, decreased surface Fe(II) and then NA adsorption at alkaline pH values. This
37 work sheds light on an overseen aspect of the reactivity of secondary iron minerals
38 resulting from NZVI passivation, which can bind co-existing emerging contaminants
39 and then affect their fate in the environment.

40 1. Introduction

41 Because nanoscale zerovalent iron (NZVI) is an environmentally-safe material and
42 exhibits great particle reactivity, it has been widely used in treatment processes of
43 various organic and inorganic contaminants¹⁻³. As a result, NZVI has become one of
44 the most extensively studied nanomaterials in wastewater treatment and remediation of
45 soil and groundwater.⁴⁻⁷

46 For the remediation action, the NZVI slurry is directly introduced into soil and
47 groundwater systems, and NZVI particles migrate from the injection points to affected
48 zones.⁸ During this journey, NZVI could encounter many electron acceptors resulting
49 in partial or complete oxidation of NZVI particles (also called surface passivation).
50 These electron acceptors may include oxygen as in oxic environments, nitrate, etc. and
51 targeted compounds, *i.e.* contaminants.⁹⁻¹² This oxidation can lead to either formation
52 of Fe^{II}-bearing phases on the NZVI surface or complete oxidation to ferric
53 (oxyhydr)oxides, depending upon various factors including type and concentration of
54 co-existing species, reaction time and oxic/anoxic environments. For instance,
55 lepidocrocite, magnetite and maghemite appeared to be the main secondary iron
56 minerals formed upon the oxic corrosion of NZVI.¹³

57 Although the ability of NZVI to reductively transform a wide variety of compounds
58 has been extensively investigated, little is known about the fate of injected NZVI
59 particles in natural systems. In addition, NZVI passivation byproducts have been

60 identified under oxic and anoxic conditions,¹⁴ but no data exist on the reactivity of these
61 byproducts in nature. Indeed, the passivation byproducts (i.e., secondary Fe minerals)
62 would continue to migrate in environmental settings and potentially meet other types
63 of contaminants. They could bind co-existing contaminants and then influence their
64 aqueous or colloidal transport in soil and groundwater. Comprehensive examination of
65 the reactivity of these “abandoned” particles and their mobility in natural settings is
66 essential for ecological risk assessments.

67 Here, we examined the interactions between NZVI (fresh or passivated) and
68 nalidixic acid (NA), a quinolone antibiotic widely used in human and veterinary
69 medicine. NA was selected as a target emerging contaminant because it has been
70 frequently detected in the environment (at concentration levels ranging from $\text{ng}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ to
71 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$).^{15,16} To control the NZVI oxidation in aqueous suspension, hydrogen peroxide
72 (H_2O_2) was used under anoxic conditions (N_2 glove box). pH and oxidation–reduction
73 potential (ORP) values and dissolved Fe(II) concentration were measured throughout
74 the reaction, and transformation of NZVI particles were monitored by X-ray diffraction,
75 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and high resolution-transmission electron
76 microscopy (HR-TEM) equipped with the selected area electron diffraction (SAED).
77 Adsorption tests were performed after total depletion of H_2O_2 in order to prevent any
78 contribution from Fenton-like oxidation (mass balance was also checked) in NA
79 removal. NA adsorption onto the resulting oxidized NZVI particles was evaluated as a
80 function of pH and NA concentration. A surface complexation model was used to

81 account for the impact of Fe(II) content on the NA adsorption into secondary Fe
82 minerals.

83 **2. Materials and methods**

84 **2.1. Chemicals and materials**

85 Nalidixic acid (NA, $\geq 99.0\%$), sodium borohydride (NaBH_4 , $\geq 99.0\%$), ferric
86 chloride hexahydrate ($\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\geq 99.0\%$), hydrogen peroxide solution (H_2O_2 , 30%),
87 ferrous chloride tetrahydrate ($\text{FeCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\geq 99.0\%$), 1,10-phenanthroline ($\geq 99.0\%$),
88 acetic acid ($\geq 99.5\%$), hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%), sodium hydroxide (NaOH,
89 $\geq 99.0\%$), glycerol ($\geq 99.5\%$), tetracycline hydrochloride (TET, $\geq 99.0\%$), 4-
90 morpholineethanesulfonic acid (MES, $\geq 99.5\%$), 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazine-1-
91 ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES, $\geq 99.5\%$), tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIZMA
92 base, $\geq 99.9\%$) and Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane hydrochloride (TRIZMA HCl,
93 $\geq 99.5\%$) were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, France. Leonardite Humic Acid
94 standard (LHA) was purchased from the International Humic Substances Society
95 (IHSS). Maghemite ($\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) was purchased from Alfa Aesar, with a high purity
96 ($> 99.0\%$). Magnetite (Fe_3O_4), hematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) and lepidocrocite ($\gamma\text{-FeOOH}$) were
97 synthesized as previously reported.¹⁷ Acetonitrile (99.99%, Sigma) and acetic acid
98 (99.7%, ACROS) were used for mobile phase of high-performance liquid
99 chromatography (HPLC). NA stock solution (5 mM) and ferrous chloride stock solution
100 (100 mM) were prepared with 0.1 M NaOH and 0.1M HCl, respectively. Glassware

101 was soaked in a 5% (v/v) HCl container for at least 48 h and rinsed before use. Unless
102 specifically stated, all solutions were prepared with deoxygenated deionized water
103 (DDIW, 18.2 M Ω ·cm) prepared by purging with nitrogen (N₂, 99.99%) for 4 hours and
104 stored in anaerobic chamber (JACOMEX).

105

106 **2.2. Synthesis and characterization of NZVI**

107 NZVI was synthesized following our previous work.¹⁸ Briefly, 500 mL of sodium
108 borohydride solution (0.9 M) was added dropwise into the 500 mL of ferric chloride
109 hexahydrate solution (0.11 M) a fixed rate of 1 mL/min in anaerobic chamber. After
110 finishing the synthesis, the precipitates in the suspension were separated by magnet,
111 then washed 3 times with DDIW. The obtained NZVI was dried and stored inside the
112 anaerobic chamber.

113 The oxidized particles were then analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8,
114 BRUKER). The oxidized NZVI suspensions were washed with DDIW for three times,
115 and dried in a vacuum freeze drier (-52°C, 24 h). Then, the dried samples were
116 transferred to sample holders and treated with 1:1 (v:v) glycerol solution to avoid the
117 surface oxidation during the analysis of XRD.¹⁹ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
118 (XPS, Sigma Probe system, Thermo) analysis was performed for four different samples
119 (i.e., pristine NZVI, NZVI after reaction with H₂O₂ (3, 15, and 18 h). We used the power
120 source (Al K α X-ray, 1486.7 eV) of 75 W and the C 1s peak at 285 eV as a reference
121 for correction of surface charging effects. The morphological characterization of

122 different oxidized NZVIs were investigated by high resolution-transmission electron
123 microscopy (HR-TEM, JEM-2100, JEOL) equipped with the selected area electron
124 diffraction (SAED). The specific surface area of oxidized NZVIs was analyzed by
125 multi-point N₂ adsorption isotherm (Micromeritics, USA). The average particle size
126 and zeta potential of the oxidized NZVI particles were measured by Zetasizer MAS
127 (Matec Applied Sciences).

128

129 **2.3. Analytical methods**

130 Batch experiments were conducted in 500 mL flasks in anaerobic chamber to avoid
131 the effect of dissolved oxygen during the reaction. 0.1 g NZVI was transferred to the
132 flask containing 500 mL DDIW with stirring at 600 rpm to prepare an initial NZVI
133 dosage of 200 mg/L. A portable pH-ORP meter (HANNA, HI991003) was used to
134 monitor the variations in pH and ORP during the oxidation and adsorption processes.
135 After a steady state was reached for both pH and ORP, exact amounts (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2.5
136 or 5 mL) of H₂O₂ stock solution (1 M) were introduced into the suspensions to prepare
137 different oxidized NZVIs by different H₂O₂ concentration at 0.5, 1, 2, 5 or 10 mM,
138 respectively. After reaching the equilibrium of pH and ORP again, 1 mL of NA stock
139 solution (5 mM) was transferred into the suspension to initiate the adsorption of NA (10
140 µM) by the oxidized NZVI. At the sampling times, 1 mL samples were taken from the
141 suspension and filtered through a 0.2 µm filter (Whatman) for analysis of high-

142 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). After finishing 2-h adsorption, desorption
143 tests were carried out at pH 12 to check the mass balance of NA (Table S1).

144 Aqueous concentration of NA was determined using HPLC (Waters 600 Controller)
145 equipped with a photodiode array detector operating at 258 nm (Waters 996) and a
146 reversed-phase C18 column (250 mm × 4.6 mm i.d., 5 μm). The mobile phase was a
147 mixture of acetonitrile/water (60/40 v/v) containing 0.1% formic acid. The flow rate of
148 the mobile phase was set at 1 mL/min in isocratic mode.²⁰ The dissolved Fe(II)
149 concentration was measured by a 1,10-phenanthroline method at a wavelength of 510
150 nm using an UV–vis spectrophotometer (U-3310, HITACHI).

151 The same procedure was used to investigate the oxidation of NZVI in buffered
152 systems. A constant Good's buffer (MES, HEPES and TRIZMA) concentration of 10
153 mM was used to maintain the pH at 5.6, 7.0 and 9.0, respectively²¹⁻²². These buffers
154 were introduced into the reactor together with NZVI (200 mg/L).

155 All experiments were performed in triplicates, and the data reported here were the
156 average of three replicated experiments and error bars represent the relative standard
157 deviation.

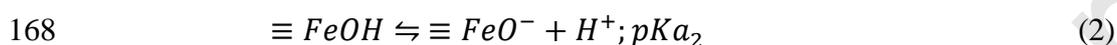
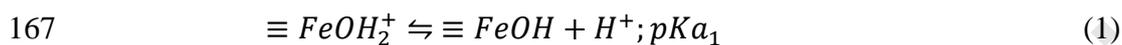
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159 **2.4. Surface Complexation Modeling**

160 The NA removal in the NZVI suspension at different pH values were described
161 using surface complexation modeling. The geochemical speciation code PHREEQC
162 and the “minteq” database were used.²³ The pK_a of NA is 6.19 and the logarithm of the

163 formation constant of NA-Fe⁺(aq) is 3.99.²⁴ The surface complexation models for
164 magnetite are used, as previously reported,²⁵ and the protonation of Fe surface sites is
165 formulated following a 2-pK_a approach (Eqs. (1) and (2)).

166



169

170 Charge-potential relationship was described according to the constant capacitance
171 model (CCM), and the modeling parameters are presented in the supporting information
172 (Table S2). Though the CCM is not available in PHREEQC (version 2), we have
173 adapted parameters of the three plane model (TPM) implemented in PHREEQC in
174 order to use the CCM, as previously reported.²⁶

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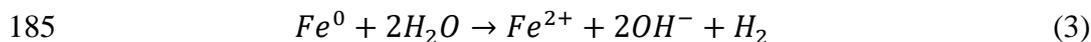
176 3. Results and discussion

177 3.1. NZVI oxidation in aqueous solution and NA removal

178 Variations in pH, ORP and dissolved Fe(II) concentration were monitored during
179 i) the addition of NZVI in reactor, ii) the oxidation of NZVI by H₂O₂, and iii) the
180 removal of NA by the resulting secondary particles (Figure 1). When NZVI was added
181 in water (i.e., the first 2-h period), we observed an obvious increase in pH (from 6.9 to
182 8.9) and a decrease in ORP (from 81 to -748 mV), which can be attributed to generation

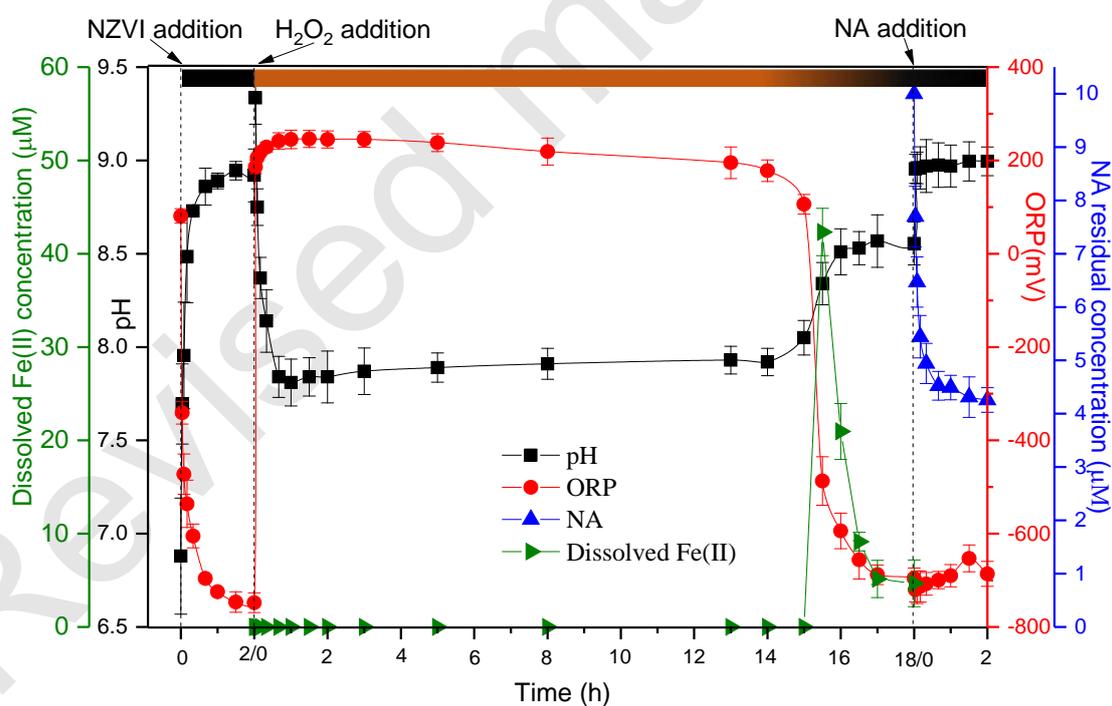
183 of OH^- , Fe^{2+} , and H_2 during the anaerobic corrosion of NZVI (Eq.(3)).²⁷

184



186

187 After adding H_2O_2 into the NZVI suspension, the ORP value increased rapidly up
188 to 241 mV due to the standard potential of $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.37 V)²⁸, while pH dropped to
189 7.8 which is ascribed to the oxidation and hydrolysis of released iron ions. In addition,
190 the release of H^+ from H_2O_2 dissociation (pK_a of 11.6) presumably results in pH
191 decrease.²⁹

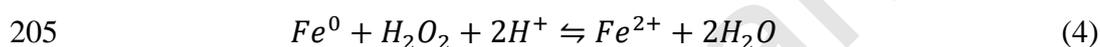


192

193 **Figure 1.** Variations in pH, ORP, color of suspension, dissolved Fe(II) concentration
194 and NA concentration during the NZVI oxidation and NA adsorption. Experimental
195 conditions: $[\text{NZVI}] = 0.2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{\text{initial}} = 5 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{NA}]_{\text{initial}} = 10 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$, $20 \pm 1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

196 After a long steady-state period for both ORP and pH values (around 15 h), ORP
197 decreased sharply until -696 mV and the pH increased to 8.6, which can be attributed
198 to the complete consumption of H₂O₂ (as it is also verified by the molybdate-catalyzed
199 iodometric titration method³⁰). During the reaction between H₂O₂ and NZVI, protons
200 are consumed (Eq. (4)),^{31,32} which can balance the protons generated as a result of
201 hydrolysis of Fe(III). The latter is generated from the rapid oxidation of ferrous species
202 in the presence of H₂O₂, which has been experimentally checked by the no detection of
203 dissolved Fe(II) during that period.

204



206

207 Once H₂O₂ was totally consumed and ORP reached again negative values, release of
208 dissolved Fe(II) into solution was observed. Then, the dissolved Fe(II) concentration
209 decreased over reaction time, likely due to adsorption to oxide particles, particularly at
210 high pH value (~8). It is worth noting that the color of suspension changed from black
211 to yellow after the addition of H₂O₂, and gradually turned to black after the 15-h
212 reaction.

213 Once the ORP and pH values reached steady-state values, a desired concentration
214 of NA was introduced into the reaction system, and residual NA concentration was
215 monitored over time (Figure 1). A slight increase in pH can be mainly attributed to the
216 alkalinity of the NA mother solution, but also to NA binding to oxide surfaces. Indeed,

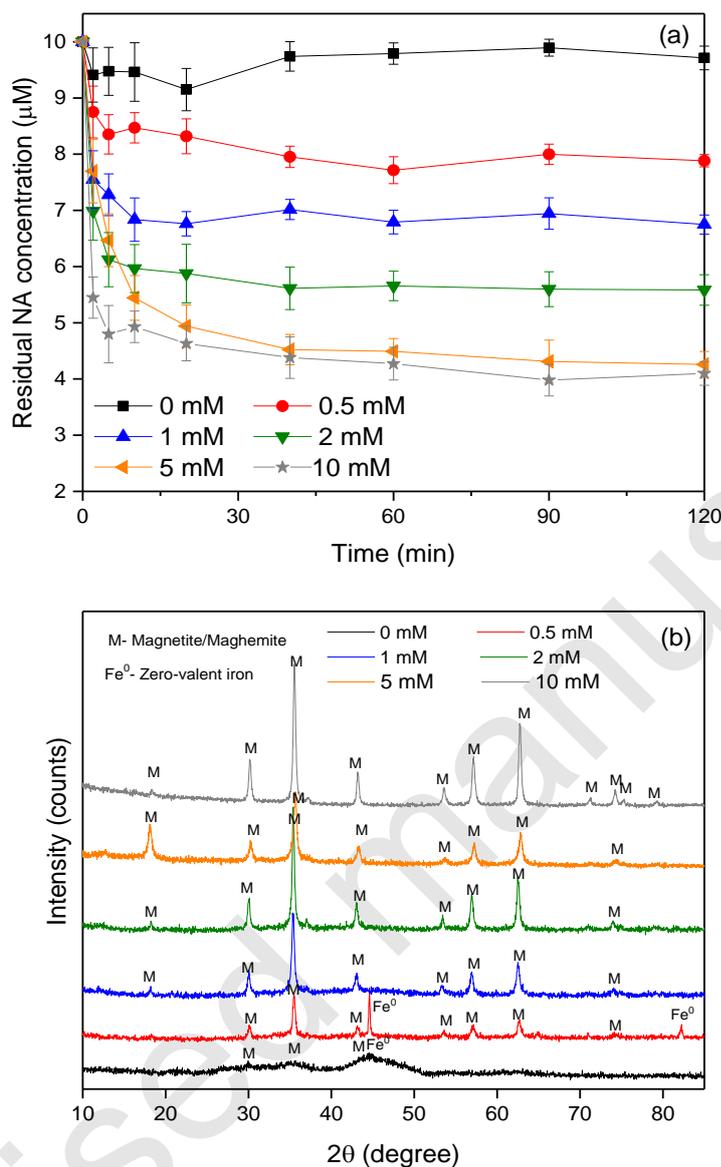
217 almost 60% of NA removal was observed after 2 h of reaction time at the working pH
218 (~9). NA removal by, for instance, Fenton-like oxidation is excluded under our
219 experimental conditions, since full mass balance was achieved at the end of reaction,
220 *i.e.* desorbed amounts equivalent to adsorbed ones (Table S1). This great adsorption
221 (~29 μmol per g of initial NZVI added) at an alkaline pH is quite unusual, and thus not
222 comparable with the typical pH-dependence behavior of adsorption of
223 monocarboxylates or polyfunctional compounds, as for example quinolones.²⁰ Indeed,
224 the sorption behavior of such compounds to metal oxides is generally attributed to a
225 combination of pH-dependent speciation of compound (*e.g.* pK_a of NA = 6.19) and
226 surface charge characteristics of the mineral oxide (PZC of Fe-oxyhydroxides is
227 generally between 8 and 9.5).²⁰ As a result, adsorption is generally high at low pH value
228 and then decreases when pH increases, and becomes negligible at pH higher than 10.³³
229 Here, the NA adsorption is unusually high at pH around 9, and even increased from 29
230 to 40 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ when the initial NA concentration increased from 10 to 20 μM , further
231 confirming the high affinity of the NZVI oxidation products toward NA.

232

233 **3.2. Secondary minerals formation and impacts on NA removal**

234 NZVI can be oxidized and/or transformed into different iron oxides depending on
235 the oxidant dose, which may exhibit contrasting affinities towards NA. For this reason,
236 additional experiments of NZVI oxidation were performed with different H_2O_2
237 concentrations (Figure S1). Generally, higher H_2O_2 concentration led to a rapid increase

238 in ORP value in NZVI suspension, and then decrease to reach the initial value, except
239 for the highest H₂O₂ dose. For the sake of clarity, only the last stage, *i.e.* NA adsorption,
240 was shown and the adsorbed amount of NA was plotted versus time for different H₂O₂
241 concentrations (0 - 10 mM) (Figure 2a). Interestingly, a negligible removal of NA was
242 observed on the fresh NZVI, while the NA removal amount onto the resulting secondary
243 minerals increased with increasing in H₂O₂ dose, yet no significant difference was
244 observed for the two highest doses (5 and 10 mM). It is interesting to note that the NA
245 removal amount by the corrosion particles of NZVI can be enhanced in the presence of
246 humic acid (LHA was used here as model of natural organic matter) (see Figure S3).
247 Indeed, the presence of 5 mg/L of LHA increased the NA adsorbed amount from 22 to
248 30 μmol/g. This enhanced adsorption in the presence of humic acids can be ascribed to
249 better dispersion of secondary mineral particles, thus increasing available surface area
250 as previously reported.³⁴



251

252 **Figure 2.** (a) NA removal by the oxidation NZVI samples (b) XRD patterns of
 253 secondary minerals at different H₂O₂ concentrations (0 - 10mM); unbuffered systems
 254 (pH= 9 ±0.2 for the adsorption stage); [NZVI]=0.2 g·L⁻¹, [NA]_{initial}=10 μM, 20 ±1 °C.

255

256 As the adsorption capacity is closely related to the properties of iron oxides and
 257 hydroxides, the resulting secondary minerals were firstly characterized by XRD (Figure
 258 2b). The XRD pattern of fresh NZVI revealed the presence of a broad peak of α-Fe

259 (44.5° 2 θ) with weak peaks of magnetite and/or maghemite (marked as M) due probably
260 to outer iron oxide shell of NZVI particles.¹⁸ At low H₂O₂ concentration (0.5 mM),
261 peaks of α -Fe were still observed while new peaks corresponding to magnetite and/or
262 maghemite appeared. At H₂O₂ concentration over 1 mM, magnetite/maghemite was
263 detected as the major secondary iron minerals (Figure 2b).

264 To gain more insight about potential changes in surface properties upon NZVI
265 oxidation, zeta potential and average particle size of the secondary mineral particles
266 were measured. These results showed that H₂O₂ induced oxidation may influence the
267 aggregation behavior in NZVI suspension (Figure S2). While Zeta potential negative
268 value is within the reported values for bare NZVI at alkaline pH (9),³⁵ H₂O₂ induced
269 oxidation resulted in a significant reduction of the mean size of agglomerates from
270 around 4000 nm to around 800 nm when the H₂O₂ concentration exceeded 2 mM.
271 However, the zeta potential of NZVI suspension did not change significantly over the
272 entire H₂O₂ concentration range. Generally, increasing in negative surface charge of
273 particles may indicate dispersion or lower aggregation.³⁶ Here, enhancement in the
274 electrostatic repulsion effect and thus the dispersion of the particles is only observed at
275 higher H₂O₂ dose, that could be associated with the formation of magnetite/maghemite
276 particles (Fig. 2b). The high agglomeration observed for the fresh NZVI or slightly
277 oxidized NZVI could be possibly due to electrostatic attractions between various kinds
278 of particles: Fe⁰, iron oxides coating the Fe⁰ core and other secondary minerals.
279 Furthermore, the van der Waals interactions between these particles may take place

280 because of the limited electrostatic repulsion between particles. Accordingly, the BET
281 surface area of the oxidized particles (using 5 mM of H₂O₂) ($28.2 \pm 1.5 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) was found
282 almost twice higher than the surface area of the fresh NZVI ($14.9 \pm 1 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$).

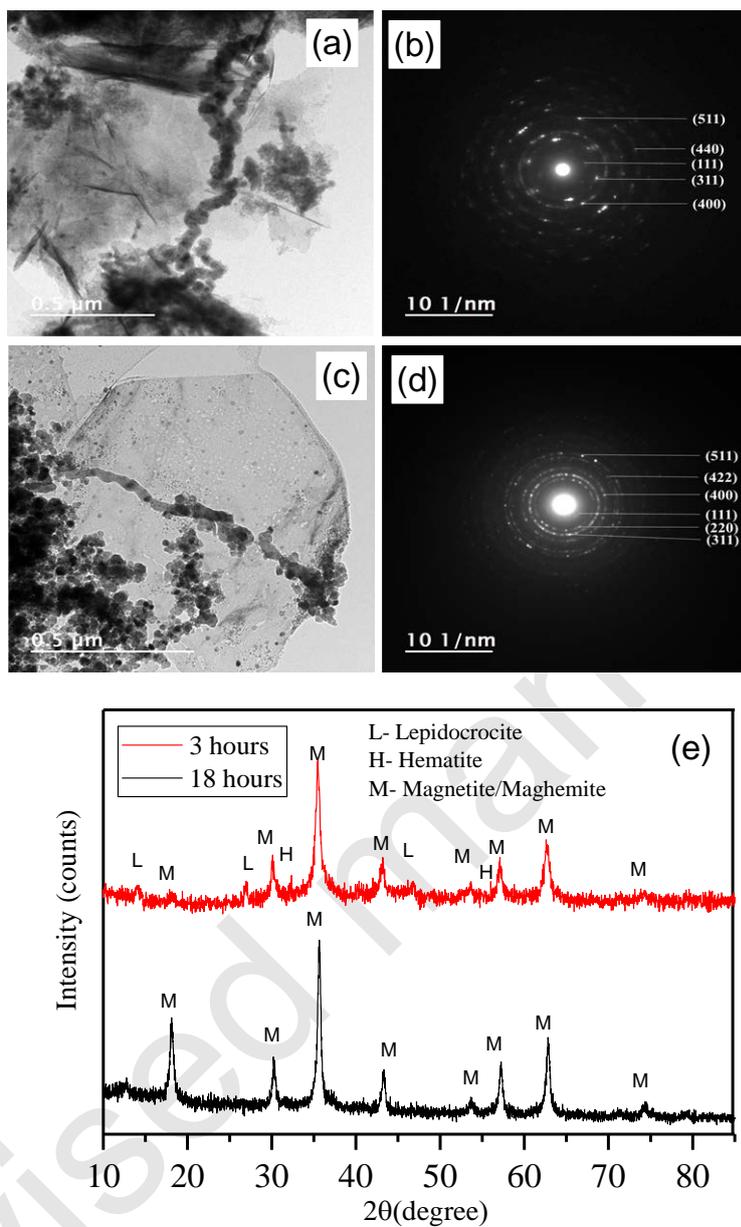
283 Collectively, these results suggest that fresh NZVI (or Fe⁰) has negligible affinity
284 for NA adsorption, and the secondary Fe minerals could be responsible of the NA
285 removal in NZVI suspension.

286

287 **3.3. Structural evolution of NZVI over reaction time**

288 As the highest removal rate of NA was observed with a high dose of H₂O₂ (5 or
289 10 mM), we have investigated the morphological changes of oxidized NZVI particles
290 over reaction time when 5 mM of H₂O₂ was used for oxidation. Two key stages of NZVI
291 oxidation kinetics were investigated (as shown in Figure 1) : (i) 3h, after H₂O₂ addition
292 and when ORP and pH values have reached a plateau (oxidizing conditions), and (ii)
293 18h just before NA addition and when ORP and pH values have reached constant values
294 after complete H₂O₂ depletion.

295

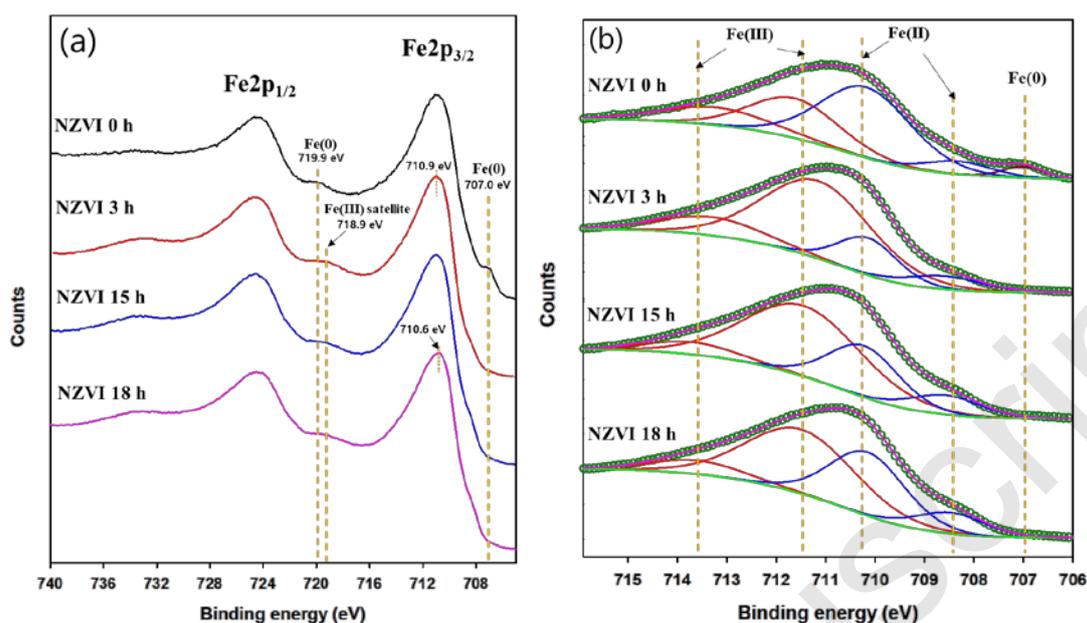


296
 297 **Figure 3.** TEM images and SEAD pattern of the oxidized NZVI with 5 mM H₂O₂ at
 298 two oxidation times (a and b) 3 hours and (c and d) 18 hours, and (e) corresponding
 299 XRD patterns.

300

301 In the 3-h sample, we observed the presence of chain-like aggregates of nanoparticles
 302 and needle-like shaped individual nanoparticles (Figure 3). The SAED pattern of chain-

303 like aggregates (Figure 3b) showed the d-spacing of 4.87, 2.53, 2.09, 1.60 and 1.49 Å,
304 which are assigned to the (111), (311), (400), (511), and (440) of magnetite/maghemite
305 phase, respectively.³⁷ In addition, the XRD of 3-h sample revealed the presence of peaks
306 of magnetite/maghemite, lepidocrocite, and hematite (Figure 3e). This is consistent
307 with previous investigation, which showed that needle-shaped lepidocrocite was
308 formed as a secondary product from NZVI oxidation in oxygenated water.³⁸ TEM
309 image of 18h oxidized NZVI (Figure 3c) shows the presence of nanoparticles
310 aggregates without other distinct shaped particles. Single nanoparticles (20 nm as an
311 average size) were connected to form chain-like magnetic nanoparticles (see Figure S4).
312 The SAED pattern of these aggregates revealed the reflections of (111, 4.87 Å), (220,
313 2.98 Å), (311, 2.53 Å), (400, 2.08 Å), (422, 1.70 Å), and (511, 1.59 Å), corresponding
314 to magnetite or maghemite.³⁹ Though these minerals both have indistinguishable
315 diffraction patterns, the chain-like assembly of these nanoparticles may suggest strong
316 ferromagnetic properties of particles at room temperature. Because the weak dipole-
317 dipole interactions between the maghemite particles are usually not sufficient to result
318 in the chain formation, the chain assemblies observed here tend to support the formation
319 of magnetite as the dominant phase.^{40,41} This falls in line with previous report,⁴² where
320 magnetite has been detected as the major secondary iron mineral under anoxic
321 conditions (*i.e.* equivalent to conditions here within the 15h-18h period of reaction). In
322 addition, the oxidation of NZVI to magnetite (Fe₃O₄) seems to be more
323 thermodynamically favorable at alkaline pH values.^{23,43}



324

325 **Figure 4.** XPS spectra for (a) Fe2p of NZVI before and after reaction with H₂O₂ and
 326 (b) and the deconvolution results of Fe2p_{3/2} (706–716 eV). Conditions: [H₂O₂] = 5 mM,
 327 [NZVI]=0.2 g·L⁻¹

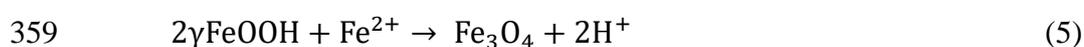
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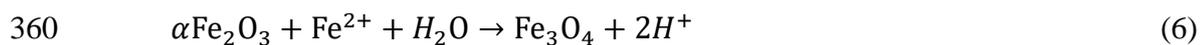
329 XPS analyses were conducted on NZVI samples oxidized with 5 mM of H₂O₂ at
 330 different reaction times (0, 3, 15 and 18h). The XPS spectra for Fe2p_{3/2} (Figure 4(b))
 331 were composed of five different peaks at 707.0, 708.3–708.5 eV, 710.1–710.3,
 332 711.1–711.6, and 713.2–713.7 eV, which are assigned to the binding energies for Fe(0)
 333 (706.5–707.0 eV), Fe(II)-O (708.2–710.9 eV), and Fe(III)-O (711.0–714.0 eV),
 334 respectively.⁴⁴ In the pristine NZVI, two distinct peaks were observed at 719.9 and 707
 335 eV, corresponding to Fe2p_{1/2} and Fe2p_{3/2} of Fe(0), respectively (Figure 4(a)).⁴⁵ After 3-
 336 h reaction, we observed the disappearance of Fe(0) peaks and the formation of new
 337 Fe(III) satellite peak at 718.9 eV, indicating the presence of Fe(III) minerals (*e.g.*
 338 maghemite).⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ The proportion of Fe(II) (55.4% → 24.2%) on the NZVI surface

339 decreased after 3 h-reaction whereas that of Fe(III) increased from 41.2% to 75.8%
340 (Figure 4(b)), underscoring the surface oxidation of NZVI by H₂O₂. However, the Fe(III)
341 satellite peak gradually decreased over reaction time (3 to 18 h), whereas the peak of
342 Fe2p_{3/2} shifted to lower binding energy (710.9 → 710.6 eV) (Figure 4(a)). The
343 disappearance of Fe(III) satellite peak may result from mineral transformation of Fe^{III}-
344 oxides (e.g. maghemite) into magnetite as previously reported.⁴⁸ Indeed, the proportion
345 of Fe(II) increased (34.7% at 15 h to 43.3% at 18 h), and Fe(III) decreased (65.3% at
346 15 h to 56.7% at 18 h) with increasing reaction time (Figure 4b).

347 Based on all experimental findings above, an oxidation pathway of NZVI by H₂O₂
348 can be proposed as two successive steps (Figure S5). In the early stage of NZVI
349 oxidation, highly oxidizing condition caused by the addition of a high dose of H₂O₂ can
350 form mixed valence oxides (*i.e.* magnetite), but also Fe^{III}-oxyhydroxides (lepidocrocite,
351 maghemite and hematite), resulting in change of NZVI suspension color from black to
352 yellowish (Figure 1). After the remained H₂O₂ was completely depleted over 15h of
353 reaction time, reducing conditions (ORP value reached the initial value of fresh NZVI
354 suspension) and then release of ferrous ions into solution concurrently take place
355 (Figure 1). Afterwards, the dissolved ferrous ions tend to re-sorb on the surface of
356 Fe(III)-oxyhydroxides at alkaline pH value, leading to their transformation into
357 magnetite as previously reported for lepidocrocite or hematite (Eqs. (5) and (6)).^{49,50}

358





361 Color change from yellowish to black of suspension further suggested such
362 transformation into magnetite phase. Therefore, Fe(II)-release during the oxidation of
363 NZVI suspension and its re-adsorption to secondary minerals may influence the surface
364 reactivity of the resulting products.

365 Additional experiments of NA removal by fresh NZVI or oxidized products (Figure
366 S6) using Good's buffers showed that NA adsorption decreased with pH increasing.
367 However, the NA adsorption at pH 9 was much lower in buffered systems as compared
368 to the un-buffered NZVI suspension (Figure 1). This discrepancy is probably due to the
369 interactions of Good's buffers with the Fe oxide surfaces, which may cause the rapid
370 Fe(0) corrosion and Fe(II) release.⁵¹ It was reported that such Fe(II) release may lead
371 to lepidocrocite formation through Fe(II)-catalyzed transformation of poorly
372 crystallized Fe-oxides (*e.g.* ferrihydrite) and/or oxidation of Fe(II) at acidic-neutral
373 pH.⁵¹ Accordingly, lepidocrocite was identified here as the major phase in buffered
374 NZVI suspension at pH 5.6 and 7 (Figure S7). However, the oxidation products in
375 TRIZMA buffered system (pH 9) were mostly highly amorphous, which makes difficult
376 an accurate identification of secondary iron minerals (Figure S7). It is worth noting that
377 oxidation in TRIZMA buffered system led to dispersion of NZVI particles in suspension
378 and enhancement in zeta potential (Figure S8) compared to that without TRIZMA
379 (Figure S2), thus confirming interactions of TRIZMA molecules with Fe-oxides.
380 Therefore, interactions of organic buffer's molecules with mineral surfaces may affect

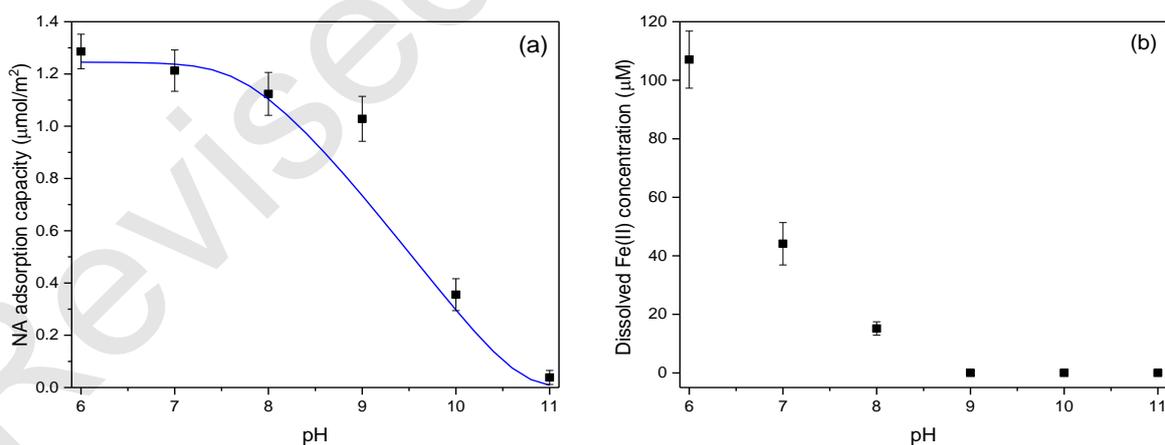
381 the Fe(II) binding. In the absence of Good's buffers, no elution of Fe(II) is expected
382 and thus the surface bound Fe(II) can be preserved. This is consistent with previous
383 works which showed that organic buffers increased the Fe(II) apparent solubility in
384 goethite and magnetite suspensions even in the alkaline pH range.²¹⁻²² Collectively,
385 these results further suggest that the Fe(II) bound to secondary minerals (i.e. magnetite)
386 could control on the surface reactivity and then the binding capacity toward negatively
387 charged contaminants.

388

389 **3.4. NA adsorption mechanisms on secondary minerals**

390 To check the pH dependence of Fe(II) release and NA sorption onto the NZVI
391 oxidation products, residual concentrations of NA and dissolved Fe(II) in oxidized
392 NZVI suspension were monitored over a wide range of pH (6–11) (Figure 5). NA
393 adsorption was found the greatest between pH 6 and 9, and the lowest between pH 10
394 and 11. This pH adsorption edges differs from the previously reported data of NA
395 adsorption to Fe-oxyhydroxides^{20, 26} or the NA adsorption data obtained here with three
396 synthetic Fe-oxyhydroxides (See Figure S9). Indeed, NA adsorption to non-
397 stoichiometric magnetite (Fe_3O_4)²⁶, goethite ($\alpha\text{-FeOOH}$)²⁰ or other ferric
398 oxyhydroxides (maghemite, hematite or lepidocrocite) decreased as increasing pH and
399 became negligible for pH higher than 9. Here, the pH-adsorption curve of NA onto
400 NZVI oxidized products shifts to larger pH values, probably because of the presence of
401 dissolved Fe(II). The concentration of dissolved Fe(II) (no dissolved Fe(III) was found)

402 decreased as pH increasing. Because of H^+ promoted dissolution of magnetite, Fe(II)
403 dissolution takes place at low pH, which can explain the high amount of dissolved Fe(II)
404 at that pH range.²⁷ This observation falls in line with a previous investigation on the
405 reactivity assessment of magnetite in presence of variable dissolved Fe(II) amounts²⁶.
406 Indeed, it was shown that Fe(II) recharge of magnetite enhanced its binding capacity
407 towards organic and inorganic compounds, shifting the maximum sorption to alkaline
408 pH values.²⁶ Furthermore, Fe(II)-amendment of non-stoichiometric magnetite
409 (Fe(II)/Fe(III) = 0.40) led to similar sorption capacity as compared to the stoichiometric
410 magnetite (i.e. Fe(II)/Fe(III) = 0.50).²⁶ In the present work, the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio of
411 NZVI oxidized products determined by acid digestion was found very high (1.03) and
412 much more than the expected ratio for a magnetite phase, probably because of the
413 presence of residual traces of Fe^0 .



414 **Figure 5.** pH-dependency of (a) NA adsorption and (b) dissolved Fe(II) concentration
415 in NZVI suspension after oxidation (5mM H_2O_2). Lines are modeling results.
416 Experimental conditions: $[NZVI]=0.2\text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $[NA]=10\text{ }\mu\text{M}$, $20\pm 1\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The BET surface
417 area used here is that measured for the oxidized particles (using 5 mM of H_2O_2) (28.2
418 $\pm 1.5\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$).

419 In order to confirm the role of surface bound Fe(II) in the enhanced NA binding,
420 we washed the final NZVI products with DDIW for 3 times and then monitored the NA
421 uptake (Figure S10). Sharp decrease of Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio from 1.03 to 0.61 upon
422 washing of NZVI products indicated strong loss of Fe(II) during the washing process.
423 For NA adsorption at pH 9 (Figure S10), almost 2-fold decrease in adsorbed amount
424 was observed after the washing process, confirming the crucial role of the surface
425 bound Fe(II) in the enhanced NA adsorption.

426 As an attempt to explain the enhanced NA adsorption at high pH with respect to
427 the presence of Fe(II), we used a surface complexation model, previously developed
428 for the stoichiometric magnetite.²⁶ We assumed that NA binds to two surface hydroxo
429 groups^{20, 52} by involving its carboxylate and its keto-group as following:



433 As presented in Figure 5, accurate description of experimental results of NA
434 adsorption by the oxidized NZVI particles was obtained at a wide pH range (6–11). We
435 used the measured dissolved Fe(II) concentration at the end of each adsorption
436 experiment as input parameters to account for NA–Fe(II) aqueous complex formation.
437 The good accuracy with the experimental data using the modeling parameters of the
438 stoichiometric magnetite (see Table S2) suggests that magnetite controls NA binding to
439 oxidized NZVI, and further confirms the key role of surface bound Fe(II).

440 It is interesting to note that the great binding capacity of the corrosion particles of
441 NZVI at alkaline pH values also concerns other antibiotics of contrasting structure and
442 properties. Indeed, great adsorption of TET (*i.e.* 70% removal of 10 μ M) onto the
443 oxidized NZVI particles was observed at pH 9.0 \pm 0.2 (Figure S11). Taken together,
444 these results highlight the key role of Fe(II) generated along the NZVI oxidation process
445 in promoting greater binding abilities of the secondary minerals.

446

447 **4. Conclusions**

448 NZVI oxidation or passivation in ambient environments can lead to either
449 formation of Fe^{II}-bearing phases on the NZVI surface or complete oxidation to ferric
450 (oxyhydr)oxides. Under the experimental conditions of this study, NZVI oxidation led
451 to formation of Fe^{II}-bearing secondary minerals, with magnetite as the major phase.
452 The latter exhibited higher adsorption ability for organic contaminants, in contrast to
453 the fresh NZVI. In addition, an unexpected great adsorption at alkaline pH values was
454 observed with the formed secondary Fe minerals. This behavior is due to the gradual
455 increase in Fe(II) content at the surface of magnetite phase over the reaction time. A
456 surface complexation model confirmed that NA adsorption onto the secondary
457 magnetite is due to the formation of surface bound Fe(II). If Fe(II) is released into
458 solution, the surface bound Fe(II) decreased together with the NA adsorbed amount at
459 alkaline pH values. As iron (oxyhydr)oxide-coated NZVI particles or Fe(II)-Fe(III)

460 (oxyhydr)oxides may exhibit different adsorption affinities toward negatively charged
461 molecules (e.g. antibiotics) or positively charged compounds, more attention should be
462 paid to the reactivity assessment of passivated NZVI particles or corrosion products.
463 Therefore, the modeling of contaminant fate and transport should consider the impact
464 of these secondary Fe minerals on the mobility of emerging contaminants in soil and
465 groundwater.

466

467 **Conflicts of interest**

468 There are no conflicts to declare.

469

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474

475 **Supplementary information:** Additional information regarding oxidation and
476 adsorption kinetics, TEM images and XRD data, additional data on zeta potential and
477 average particle size measurements, and surface complexation model parameters.

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Revised manuscript