



O₃/H₂O₂ and UV-C light irradiation treatment of oil sands process water

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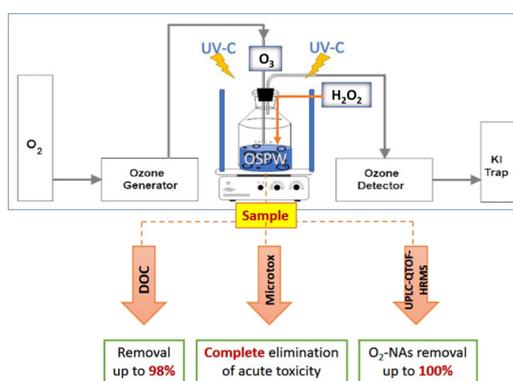
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HIGHLIGHTS

- The effective treatment of OSPW with high mineralization up to 98% was achieved.
- Naphthenic acids present in OSPW were removed significantly.
- Acute toxicity of OSPW was removed significantly.
- O₃/H₂O₂ process was found as the best option from the economic point of view.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

The oil sands industry generates large volumes of oil sands process water (OSPW). There is an urgent need for OSPW treatment to reduce process water inventories and to support current reclamation approaches. This study discusses how efficient ozone (O₃)-based combined advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), including hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and UV-C, are at achieving mineralization while reducing the toxicity arising from such organic components as naphthenic acids (NAs) in OSPW. The results showed that the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) removals of 45%, 84%, 84% and 98%, obtained after 90-min treatments with O₃, O₃/H₂O₂, UVC/O₃ and UVC/O₃/H₂O₂, respectively, at a production rate of 6 g/Lh O₃ were considerably higher than at lower O₃ production rates. The acute toxicity on *Vibrio fischeri* was significantly reduced by all the treatments, which explains the high percentages of NA removal (up to 99% as confirmed by UPLC-QTOF-HRMS.) Mineralization (expressed as DOC removal) was highest with UVC/O₃/H₂O₂ at ca. 2 mg C/L in the treated effluent, which means that it could be used as cooling/boiling process water in bitumen upgrading units. However, considering the energy demand of the treatments tested, the treatment using O₃/H₂O₂ was found to be the most realistic for large-scale applications.

1. Introduction

Bitumen obtained from oil sands is an unconventional fossil fuel that became important in the market because of the increasing global demand for

oil (Allen, 2008). However, processing bitumen generates such waste products as gases and produced water, which cause environmental problems (Boczka et al., 2018). Bitumen extraction from oil sands by caustic hot water generates nine cubic meters of raw tailings per cubic meter of oil

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produced (Brown and Ulrich, 2015). Oil sands process water (OSPW) consists of water, sand, clay, unrecovered bitumen and other organics such as naphthenic acids (NAs). It is stored in tailings ponds because of the zero-discharge approach. Typically, 80% of OSPW is reused in subsequent extraction processes, while the rest must be subject to further treatment (Brown and Ulrich, 2015; Mannina, 2017). As part of the industry's reclamation plan, the OSPW in tailings ponds needs to be treated and eventually discharged into land and/or water (Huang et al., 2018). The main concern in OSPW treatment is to reduce the amount of naphthenic acids (NAs) because they are present in higher concentrations (20–80 mg/L) than other organic compounds and their subchronic toxic effects on aquatic organisms are also greater (Fang et al., 2019).

Naphthenic acids are natural components of bitumen that solubilize during the extraction process. The term NAs mainly refers to alkyl-substituted cycloaliphatic carboxylic acids with lower amounts of acyclic aliphatic, aromatic olefinic, hydroxy, and dibasic acids (Headley and Mcmartin, 2004). NAs are expressed by the general formula $C_nH_{2n+z}O_x$, where n represents the number of carbon atoms, Z is a negative even integer associated with the ring structure and double bonds in the component, and x stands for the number of oxygen atoms (Leshuk et al., 2016; Meshref et al., 2017). Due to the complex nature of the NA mixture, the analytical methods developed to date can only detect the general profile of the mixture in terms of the carbon content and Z number not the individual components (Clemente and Fedorak, 2005).

The toxicity of OSPW in the environment could be economically reduced to some extent if treated biologically. However, biological treatments are very slow and not very efficient due to the bio-recalcitrant characteristics of most NAs (proportional to their structure) (Al Jibouri et al., 2018). Likewise, adsorption on organic-rich soil, biochar and activated carbon has been reported to be highly efficient at removing NAs. However, the regeneration or disposal of the adsorbent after use (Xu et al., 2017) requires an extra cost. Thus, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) are essential if there is to be a balance between cost and efficiency, and further disposal processes after treatment are to be avoided.

Of all the AOPs, ozone (O_3) is particularly interesting because it has a wide range of applications in various kinds of effluents from different sectors and it is not limited to wastewater treatment. Because of its high reactivity it can also be used for disinfecting potable water, cleaning air, and processing and preserving food, as well as for health purposes (Karaca and Velioğlu, 2007; Wei et al., 2017). Indeed, ozonation is currently used on a large-scale as a stage in municipal wastewater treatment because of its power to disinfect, decolor and deodorize, and degrade micropollutants and organic compounds. In terms of investment and operational costs, which has been reported to be 0.02–0.07 Eur/m³ of treated wastewater, it is operationally feasible (Ried et al., 2009). However, the efficiency of the treatment depends on the complexity of the wastewater. Components that easily react with O_3 can be removed by direct reaction in anything from a few seconds to 2 min. Once they have been completely removed or their concentration has been decreased, the O_3 decomposition slows down. When this happens, and depending on the type of organic molecules and pH of the medium, indirect reactions start to play a more important role in removing recalcitrant components and improving treatment efficiencies (Beltran, 2004).

In the case of OSPW, several studies have focused on the potential decrease in NA concentration rather than mineralization to reduce the toxicity of the effluent and/or increase the biodegradability by either O_3 or O_3/H_2O_2 treatment (Afzal et al., 2015; Meshref et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2016). In some studies, O_3 has been applied in batch mode, i.e., it was fed into water to form a stock solution of O_3 to be transferred to the batch reactor all at once (Afzal et al., 2015). Other studies have been performed in semi-batch mode, O_3 being continuously bubbled into a batch reactor with a constant volume of OSPW. A very low dose of O_3 is eventually applied to transform the contaminants into other compounds and reduce the toxicity. In this case, no mineralization was observed after the treatment, but this was not the objective of these studies (Scott et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2016).

Optimized amounts of oxidants are crucial for increasing treatment efficiency, mineralizing by-products and, consequently, reducing toxicity. The optimization of these parameters and the overall process depends on the configuration of individual units (El-Naas et al., 2017). Furthermore, whether the feeding methods operate in batch, semi-batch or continuous modes, and the reactor design are also critical for successful treatment. For those treatments that bubble O_3 into the effluent, it has been reported that the size of the O_3 bubbles has an effect (Chu et al., 2007; Xia and Hu, 2019). The study by Chu et al. confirmed the enhancement in mass transfer, and the corresponding improvement in the amount of total organic carbon (TOC) removed per gram of O_3 consumed by accelerated formation of hydroxyl radicals (OH^\bullet) when a microbubble generator was used instead of a conventional bubble contactor (Chu et al., 2007).

This study explores the treatment of OSPW that aims to mineralize rather than transform contaminants by semi-batch O_3 -based AOPs. O_3 was fed into the reactor by a microporous diffuser and combined with H_2O_2 and/or ultraviolet C irradiation (UV-C) in an attempt to increase the concentration of radicals and boost the effectiveness of the degradation of recalcitrant contaminants. The semi-batch system was chosen over the batch reactor so that the supply of O_3 was continuous and the target of high mineralization could be reached. This would not have been possible with a batch reactor because of the instability and low solubility of O_3 in water. To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first to study the use of combined O_3 -based treatments in the presence of UV-C irradiation to treat OSPW. The optimum amounts of reactant, reaction time and the effect of applying UV-C were systematically studied, and the feasibility of the applied processes, including economic issues, is discussed. High levels of mineralization will make it possible to reuse the treated OSPW and/or discharge it into the environment rather than storing it in tailing ponds which currently cover more than 130 km² of the landscape.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Raw OSPW was collected from an oil sands tailings pond in northern Alberta, Canada, and stored at 4 °C until used. Initial DOC (in the form of dissolved carbon – dissolved inorganic carbon) and the conductivity of raw OSPW were measured periodically to confirm its stability. Only insignificant differences between the measurements were observed. Before the treatments, OSPW was filtered using a 0.45 µm nylon membrane to remove any suspended solids that might increase the consumption of reagents and decrease light transmittance (an important parameter in light-based treatments). The DOC of raw OSPW was 96 ± 5 mg C/L. Table 1 presents the initial characteristics of the OSPW used in this study after filtration. Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2 , 35 wt%) was acquired from Acros Organic. Sodium bisulfite ($NaHSO_3$, 40%, Panreac) was used to quench the residual H_2O_2 in the samples and stop the reaction, while potassium iodide (KI, Sigma-Aldrich) was used as an O_3 trap to remove residual gaseous O_3 after treatment. Sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide solutions (1 M) were used for pH adjustment in samples collected for biological-based analyses when needed.

2.2. Experimental methods

O_3 based experiments were performed in a laboratory scale semi-batch system consisting of an O_3 generator (Anseros COM-AD-02), a quartz

Table 1
Initial physico-chemical characteristics of raw OSPW.

DOC (mg C/L)	COD (mg O_2 /L)	pH	Conduct. (mS/cm)	[NAs] (mg/L)	Toxicity ^a (EC ₅₀)
96 ± 5	270	8.5	4.6	21	19% ± 3% Very toxic

^a Toxicity on *V. fischeri*.

reactor, a residual O_3 measurer (Anseros GM-6000-RTI) and a KI O_3 trap. O_3 was produced from pure oxygen by an O_3 generator and fed into the quartz reactor containing 300 mL of effluent through an inert porous diffuser. The outlet gas stream of the reactor was connected to an O_3 analyzer to measure residual O_3 during the treatment. The production rates of the O_3 for the treatment of 300 mL OSPW were 0.9 g/h, 1.8 g/h and 2.7 g/h, which were equivalent to 3 g/L·h, 6 g/L·h and 9 g/L·h, respectively. In the treatments involving H_2O_2 , the desired amounts of H_2O_2 were added to the effluent at once just before the O_3 feed was started. The doses of H_2O_2 were calculated based on the weight/weight ratio of H_2O_2 to the initial chemical oxygen demand (COD) and ranged between 0.1 and 5. In UV-C combined treatments, the reactor was surrounded by four UV-C low-pressure lamps (Philips, 15 W each) that emitted mostly at 254 nm. Blank experiments were also conducted to establish the effectiveness of the individual processes. All the treatments took 90 min in natural pH conditions. Samples were collected every 30 min for detailed analysis. The dissolved O_3 concentrations of the collected samples were measured by the indigo colorimetric method described in *Standards Methods* (APHA, 1992).

2.3. Analytical methods

Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) was measured by a Shimadzu TOC-L (CSN 638–91,109-48) analyzer. Microtox® acute toxicity of the raw/treated OSPW on *V. fischeri* bacteria was investigated using the standard 81.9% screening test with a Microtox®500 Analyzer. The extent to which the samples inhibited *V. fischeri* was measured after 15 min cultivation on the basis of the change in the intensity of the luminescence. The results were expressed as the EC_{50} concentration, defined as the effective nominal concentration of raw/treated OSPW by volume percent that reduced the intensity of light emission by 50%. Classical NA concentrations of raw/treated OSPW were determined by ultrahigh-performance liquid chromatography coupled with a quadrupole time-of-flight high resolution mass spectrometer (UPLC-QTOF-HRMS, Agilent 1260 Infinity combined with HRMS Sciex 5600+) using a Phenomenex Luna, Omega Polar C18 column. NAs in samples were extracted by SPE cartridges and reconstituted in a 50/50 mixture of ACN/MeOH (acetonitrile/methanol) before the analyses. The detailed analysis protocol is given in the Supplementary Information.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) removal

DOC analysis is a fast and easy technique for evaluating treatment efficiencies, which is particularly important in the treatment of real effluents with complex organic compositions such as OSPW. For this reason, the effect of combining H_2O_2 and UV-C in a single O_3 treatment was assessed initially by DOC removal.

The initial tests on OSPW were conducted with single ozonation in semi-batch mode, and O_3 production rates of 0.9 g/h, 1.8 g/h and 2.7 g/h, which removed 33%, 45% and 53% of DOC, respectively, after 90 min treatment. Scott et al. previously reported a DOC removal of approximately 25% after OSPW had been subject to treatment for 130 min, in which O_3 was fed into the system continuously to reach 35 mg/L of dissolved O_3 in the reactor (Scott et al., 2008). Although our DOC removal results were better, single ozonation seems not to be sufficient to completely mineralize the recalcitrant components in OSPW. Introducing promoters of O_3 decomposition to increase the concentration of $OH\cdot$ radicals, and consequently the number of indirect reactions, can favour the mineralization of recalcitrant components.

Introducing H_2O_2 into the system significantly increased the efficiency of DOC removal (Fig. 1), as expected. The literature shows that, in the presence of H_2O_2 , the conversion rate of O_3 to $HO\cdot$ and the amount of dissolved O_3 increase. Besides, $HO\cdot$ and $HO_2\cdot$ radicals can be generated by either activating H_2O_2 with O_3 or decomposing O_3 with H_2O_2 (Boczkaj et al., 2017). Thus, the addition of H_2O_2 to OSPW just before the ozonation started

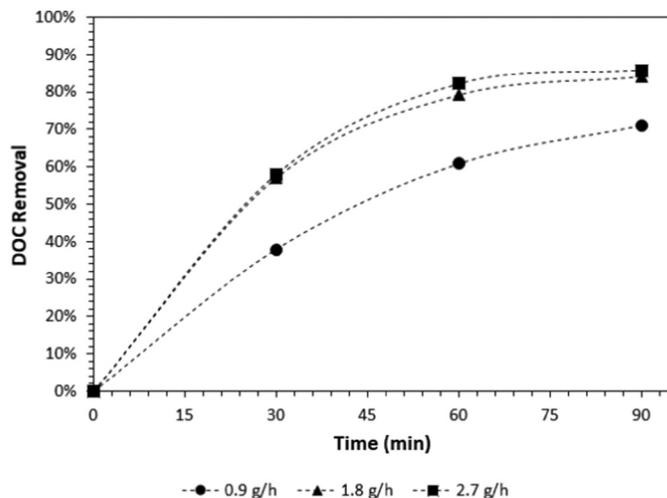


Fig. 1. DOC removal efficiency by O_3/H_2O_2 treatment with varied production rates of O_3 and a constant H_2O_2/COD ratio of 2.

doubled the DOC removal. Specifically, DOC removals were 71% and 84% after 90 min of O_3/H_2O_2 treatment with an O_3 production rate of 0.9 and 1.8 g/h, respectively, and $H_2O_2/COD = 2$. Increasing the O_3 production rate to 2.7 g/h (and maintaining the H_2O_2/COD ratio of 2) led to a DOC removal of 86%. This indicates that, in the presence of H_2O_2 , O_3 production rates higher than 1.8 g/h do not lead to significant changes in DOC removal, as will be further discussed below. As DOC removal is a function of the O_3 dose in single ozonation, the insignificant improvement in DOC removal at a higher O_3 dose in O_3/H_2O_2 points to an optimum O_3/H_2O_2 ratio. So, the higher O_3 consumption probably accounts for the reaction between $HO\cdot$ and O_3 . For this reason, combining ozonation with UV-C was proposed with O_3 production rates of 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h.

Integrating UV-C into the O_3 -based treatments (Fig. 2A) considerably enhanced the efficiency of the treatment, allowing shorter treatment times. This is probably due to the synergetic effect of the O_3 treatment combined with UV-C and/or H_2O_2 , which may form hydroxyl, peroxy and superoxide radicals that, according to the literature, increase the reaction efficiency (Liu et al., 2004; Lucas et al., 2010). Moreover, during UV-C and O_3 treatment H_2O_2 can be produced (in-situ) as well as radicals, as reported in previous studies, which favours DOC removal (Kim et al., 2019; Summerfelt, 2003). After 90 min, DOC removal by single ozonation with 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h increased from 33% and 45% to 67% and 84%, respectively, solely due to its combination with UV-C. When H_2O_2 was added to the UV-C/ O_3 system, DOC removals after 90 min reached 87% and 98% for 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h O_3 production rates, respectively. Remarkably, this triple combination (i.e., UV-C/ O_3/H_2O_2) conducted with 1.8 g/h of O_3 and an H_2O_2/COD ratio of 2, led to DOC removals of 65% and 92% in 30 min and 60 min, respectively.

The DOC removal trends after treatment with UV-C/ O_3/H_2O_2 (Fig. 2B) and either $H_2O_2/COD = 1.05$ or $H_2O_2/COD = 2$ were very similar, reaching 83% and 87%, respectively, after 90 min. Any increase or decrease in the H_2O_2 dose noticeably decreased the removal efficiency, which may be due to either a lower production of radicals (in the case of the lowest dose) or to the scavenging effect of H_2O_2 itself (in the case of the highest dose) (Demir-Duz et al., 2020).

3.2. O_3 consumption analysis

Beltrán reported that when ozone dissolves in water it decomposes to free radicals, and indirect reactions start alongside the direct reactions. This decomposition mechanism is heavily dependent on such features of the effluent as its pH and the compounds present in it (Beltrán, 2004). In a recent study, the treatment of a petroleum refinery wastewater effluent with the same ozonation system showed a reverse balance between O_3

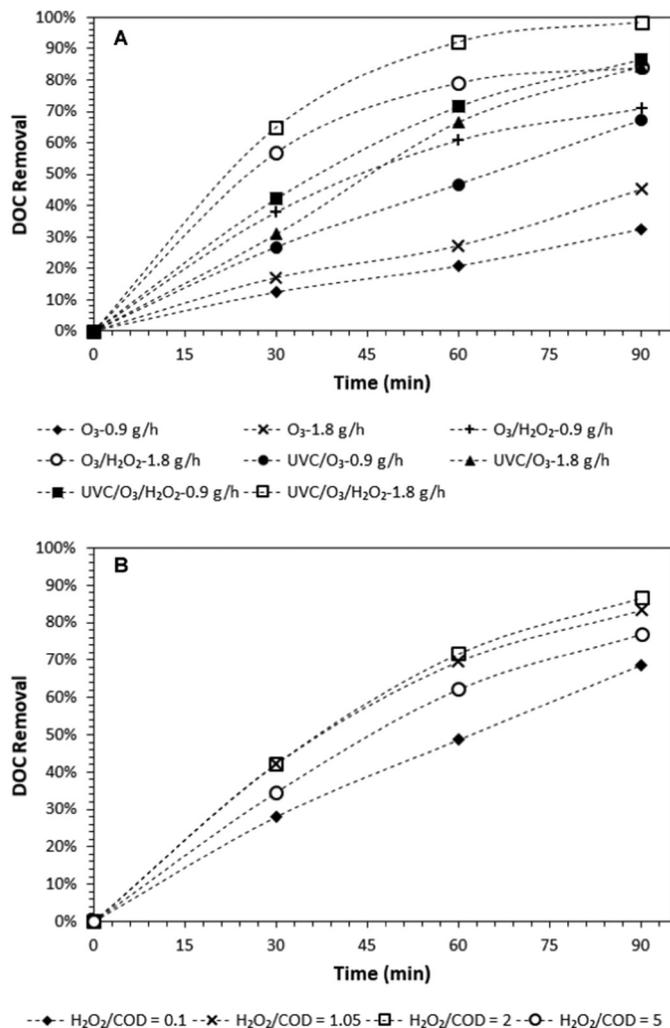


Fig. 2. DOC removal efficiency by UV-C based treatments with varied production rates of O₃ with/without a constant H₂O₂/COD ratio of 2 (A), varied ratios of H₂O₂/COD and a constant production rate of 0.9 g/h (B).

and the H₂O₂ concentrations, suggesting that TOC removals would be highest by ensuring an optimum ratio between O₃ and H₂O₂ (Demir-Duz et al., 2020). Thus, this analysis attempted to clarify the tendency to consume the oxidants used to treat OSPW.

The mass balance of O₃ within the system was determined by Eq. (1). Here, the residual concentrations of dissolved O₃ were not taken into account because they were very low (3–8 mg/L) compared to the inlet and outlet concentrations. However, it is interesting to mention that the concentrations of dissolved O₃ in samples collected after 90 min of treatment were in the following order: UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ < UV-C/O₃ < O₃ < O₃/H₂O₂. Residual O₃ was lower in experiments performed in the presence of UV-C light (approx. 3.8 mg/L for UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ and UV-C/O₃). This is in agreement with the amount of O₃ consumed by those treatments, as shown in Fig. 3B. So, the O₃ consumptions of those systems with UV-C light (and an O₃ feed ratio of 1.8 g/h) increased to ca. 2 g after 90 min compared to 0.5 g in the processes that do not have UV-C irradiation. The higher O₃ consumption shown by these UV-C based processes accounts for the photodecomposition of O₃, which yields H₂O₂ and subsequently hydroxyl radicals, among others (Lucas et al., 2010). Similarly, the O₃ consumption in the O₃/H₂O₂ system (Fig. 3A) was higher than that of single ozonation. This result was expected since H₂O₂ accelerates the O₃ decomposition ratio, which eventually leads to the formation of hydroxyl radicals especially at alkaline pH (Beltran, 2004).

$$O_3 \text{ consumption (reacted + dissolved) (g)} = O_3 \text{ (inlet) (g)} - O_3 \text{ (outlet) (g)} \quad (1)$$

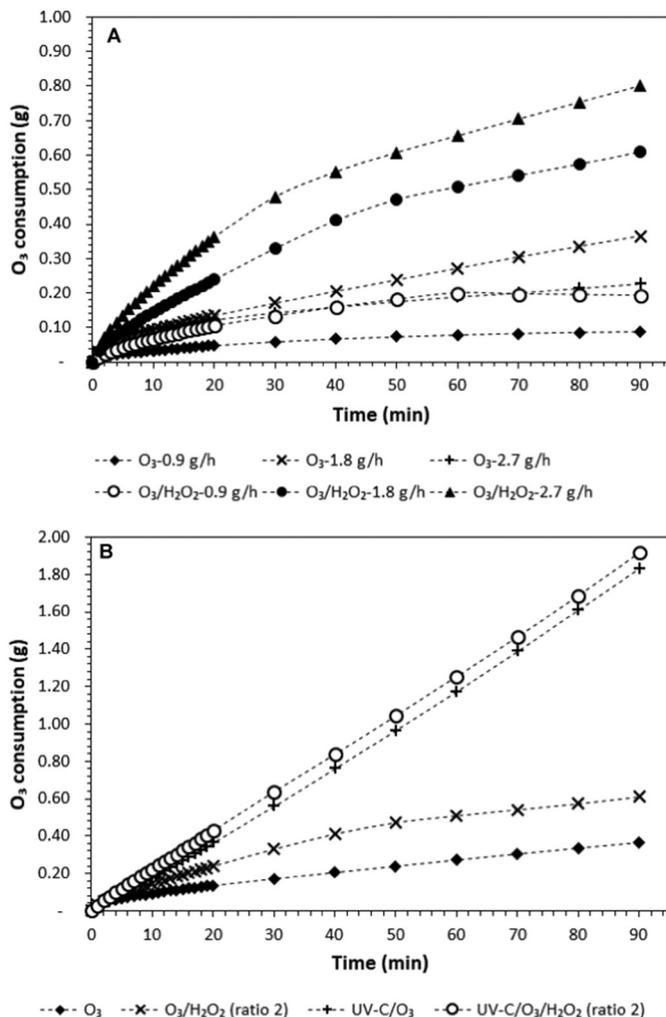


Fig. 3. O₃ consumption during a 90-min treatment by O₃ and O₃/H₂O₂ with H₂O₂/COD = 2 and varied O₃ production rates (A) and different AOPs with an O₃ production rate of 1.8 g/h (B).

The relationship between O₃ consumption and DOC removal (Fig. 4) revealed that those treatments that used H₂O₂, either with or without UV-C, promoted the efficient consumption of O₃ in terms of DOC removal. In the presence of H₂O₂, the DOC removals of the treatments almost doubled, although the amounts of O₃ consumed were almost the same for the treatments conducted without H₂O₂. In other words, when single ozonation is applied, O₃ is mainly consumed due to the transformation of the OSPW components rather than mineralization, probably because of insufficient degradation by the HO• pathway. Also, the molar ratios of O₃(consumed)/DOC(removed) for the treatments conducted with 1.8 g/h O₃ production rates were calculated as 4, 6, 21 and 18 for treatments with O₃, O₃/H₂O₂, UV-C/O₃ and UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂, respectively. It should be pointed out here that although the lowest ratio of O₃(consumed)/DOC(removed) might be economically favorable, the O₃ was used more effectively in the O₃/H₂O₂ treatment (O₃(consumed)/DOC(removed) = 6) since DOC removal was 45% and 84% for the O₃ and O₃/H₂O₂ treatments, respectively. Similarly, according to our previous study of the treatment of another kind of petroleum refinery wastewater by O₃-based processes, the molar ratio of O₃(consumed)/DOC(removed) for the optimized O₃/H₂O₂ treatment was around 6 (Demir-Duz et al., 2020).

3.3. Removal of NAs

Detailed analyses of NAs in raw and treated effluents play an important role in evaluating the success of the treatment. NAs are considered to be the

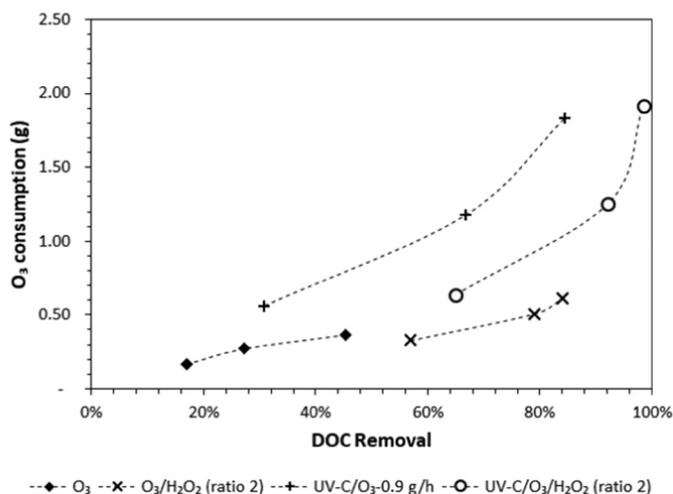


Fig. 4. The relationship between O₃ consumption and DOC removal% for different AOPs with an O₃ production rate of 1.8 g/h. For each line, 1st point = 30 min, 2nd point = 60 min and 3rd point = 90 min sample.

components of OSPW that most contribute to the acute and chronic toxicity of various aquatic organisms (Benally et al., 2018). Therefore, monitoring the evolution of NAs during treatments could clarify the changes in toxicity as well as the treatment efficiency.

The classical formula $C_nH_{2n+z}O_2$ represents the NAs that are initially in high concentrations, while the formula $C_nH_{2n+z}O_x$ with $x > 2$ represents the NAs formed after oxidation (Meshref et al., 2017). Due to the wide range of NAs present in OSPW, they can be detected by a general profiling based on n and z instead of individual identification (Clemente and Fedorak, 2005). The removal efficiency results are presented based on the carbon number of the compounds and the double bond equivalence (DBE) number, which refers to the hydrogen deficiency ($DBE = -z/2$) (Fang et al., 2019). The initial classical NA concentration of raw OSPW used in this study was 21 mg/L according to UPLC-QTOF-HRMS quantification, which is in the same range of concentration reported previously (Xue et al., 2017).

Fig. 5A presents the general NA profile of the raw OSPW. Predominantly, NAs with a carbon number higher than 12 and a DBE number higher than 4 were detected in raw OSPW, while generally low concentrations of NAs were detected in treated samples (data provided in the supplementary document). In contrast, even after single ozonation with the lowest O₃ production rate, 97% of NAs were removed while DOC removal was quite low (Figs. 5B and S1). This behaviour has already been observed by Scott et al. (2008). By taking into consideration the difference due to the increased O₃ production rate, Figs. S1–S3 clearly show that some NA fractions decreased as the O₃ production rate increased. In general terms, the DBE factor of the NAs decreased after all of the treatments. At first glance, C18 NAs were more resistant to removal by single ozonation with 0.9 g/h O₃ (Fig. S1), and they were almost completely removed in the sample treated with 1.8 g/h O₃ (Fig. S2). C14–16 components increased slightly, which was expected due to the formation of lower carbon molecules by breaking bonds. These reformed C14–C16 molecules, as well as other high carbon molecules, were further removed when the O₃ production rate was increased to 2.7 g/h (Fig. S3). Additionally, the removal ratios of C7–13 components increased, and DOC analyses showed that the O₃ production rate was also higher which, in turn, increased mineralization. However, considering the DOC removal of the different treatments, the NAs might have been transformed by single ozonation rather than mineralization (Table 2). This transformation is due to the oxidation of classical NAs after O₃ treatment which produces a shift in the distribution to more oxygen-rich species, as reported previously (Lyons et al., 2018). On the other hand, combining O₃, H₂O₂ and/or UV-C technologies led to 97–99% removal of classical NAs (Figs. S4–S9) and improved mineralization with up to 98% of DOC removal.

Fig. 6A/B reveals that classical NAs with carbon numbers between 11 and 21 and DBE numbers between 2 and 10 were almost completely removed by all treatments supported by the results mentioned above. The main differences in the removal efficiencies for different treatments were more observable at carbon numbers lower than 11. The lowest removal rate for carbon numbers 7–10 was observed for the sample treated with 0.9 g/h O₃. In fact, it was observed that new C7–8 components were produced with a DBE number of 0 rather than being removed, which confirms the lower mineralization for this treatment. With the addition of more oxidants that either increased the amount of applied O₃ or added H₂O and/or UV-C, the removal of C8–10 reached a maximum while the amount of C7 components produced decreased due to mineralization.

3.4. Toxicity evaluation

The toxicity of OSPW has frequently been studied as an indicator of the treatment's effectiveness. Raw OSPW presents acute toxicity due to the presence of NAs and other organic components such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), BTEX (benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene, and xylenes) and phenols (Li et al., 2017). Therefore, due to the complex nature of OSPW, toxicity is assessed for the entire OSPW composition or for its main constituents, such as NA or other organic fractions instead of individual components (García-García et al., 2011a, 2011b; Li et al., 2017). Unless treated effluent is reused in the plant, it needs to be safely discharged and this requires an effective treatment that can reduce its toxicity.

Microtox® is a rapid and relatively economic method commonly used to monitor the acute toxicity of effluents like OSPW (Scott et al., 2008). In the literature, values of $EC_{50} < 25\%$ are defined as very toxic, while $25\% < EC_{50} < 75\%$ are toxic and $EC_{50} > 75\%$ are considered non-toxic (Jiménez et al., 2019). An inhibition test is recommended for effluents with low levels of toxicity, for which EC_{50} values cannot be calculated (SDI, 2006).

Toxicity tests performed with *V. fischeri* on treated OSPW samples (T) revealed that 90 min of single O₃ treatment at the lowest O₃ production rate (i.e., 0.9 g O₃/h) reduced the toxicity of OSPW from an EC_{50} value of 19% in raw OSPW to 42% in the ozonated sample. This would still be considered toxic. Higher O₃ production rates decreased the toxicity to suitable ranges. The maximum inhibition effects found in these samples after 90 min of single ozonation with O₃ production rates of 1.8 g/h and 2.7 g/h were 33% and 37%, respectively. That is, the reduction in luminescence intensity did not reach 50%, which demonstrates the non-toxic features of the treated OSPW. In the case of combined treatments, the acute toxicity also decreased significantly in accordance with the mineralization levels obtained, as shown by the DOC analysis (Table 2). A 90-min treatment with O₃/H₂O₂ (H₂O₂/COD = 2) also resulted in a maximum inhibition effect of 43% and 26% for a 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h O₃ production rate, respectively, which reduced toxicity more than single ozonation. After 90 min of combined treatment of UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ the toxicity showed a maximum inhibition of 33% and 22% for the 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h O₃ production rate (with H₂O₂/COD = 2), respectively, which would mean the lowest toxicity.

The positive influence of O₃-based treatments on the toxicity of OSPW has also been reported in other studies (Al Jibouri et al., 2018; Meshref et al., 2017). However, unlike what has been found in this study, the DOC reduction reported is quite small. Therefore, to determine the most appropriate treatment for OSPW, parameters such as mineralization and economy, not just toxicity, need to be assessed.

3.5. Operational comparison of treatments

The balance between operational costs and treatment efficiencies is important if treatment processes are to be feasible. Although high degrees of mineralization can be provided by different combinations of UV-C, O₃ and H₂O₂, operational costs must also be considered when deciding on how best to treat OSPW. The end use of the effluent should also be borne in mind. Comparing the energy consumption of the various treatments may help to resolve this issue.

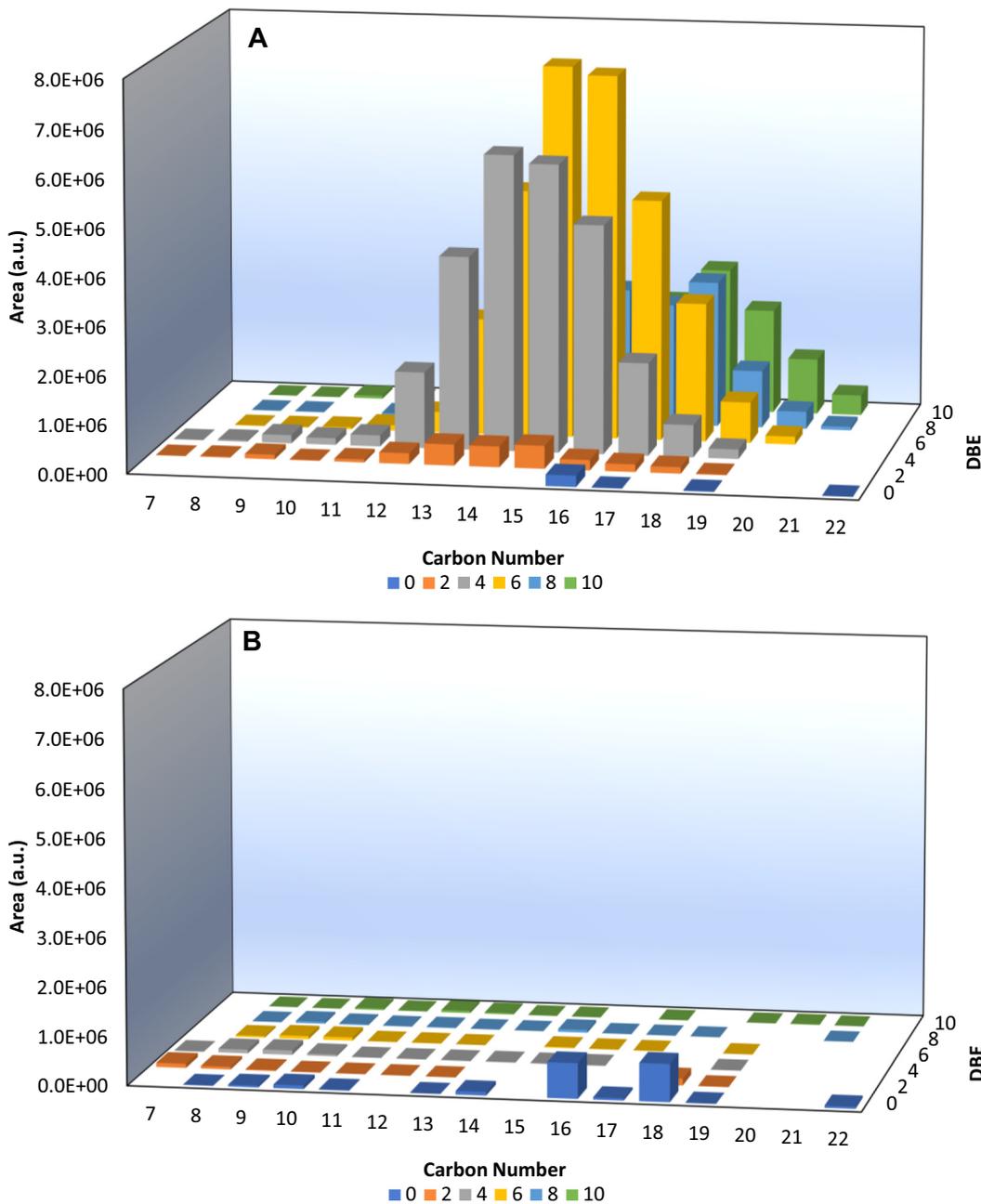


Fig. 5. NA profile of raw OSPW (A) and OSPW after 90 min single ozonation with an O₃ production ratio of 0.9 g/h (B). For the sake of comparison, y-axis scale of both figures is the same.

Table 2
Toxicity tests on *V. fischeri* performed with the samples collected after 90 min of different treatments.

Process	Treatment conditions			Degradation assessment		Toxicity assessment	
	O ₃ (g/h)	H ₂ O ₂ /COD	UV-C	DOC removal (%)	O ₂ -NAs removal (%)	EC ₅₀ (%)	Inhibition effect (%)
Raw OSPW	-	-	-	-	-	19	99
O ₃	0.9	-	-	33	97	42	62
	1.8	-	-	45	98		33
	2.7	-	-	53	99		37
O ₃ /H ₂ O ₂	0.9	2	-	71	98		43
	1.8	2	-	84	97		26
UV-C/O ₃	0.9	-	Applied	67	97		24
	1.8	-	Applied	84	100		41
UV-C/O ₃ /H ₂ O ₂	0.9	2	Applied	87	98		33
	1.8	2	Applied	98	96		22

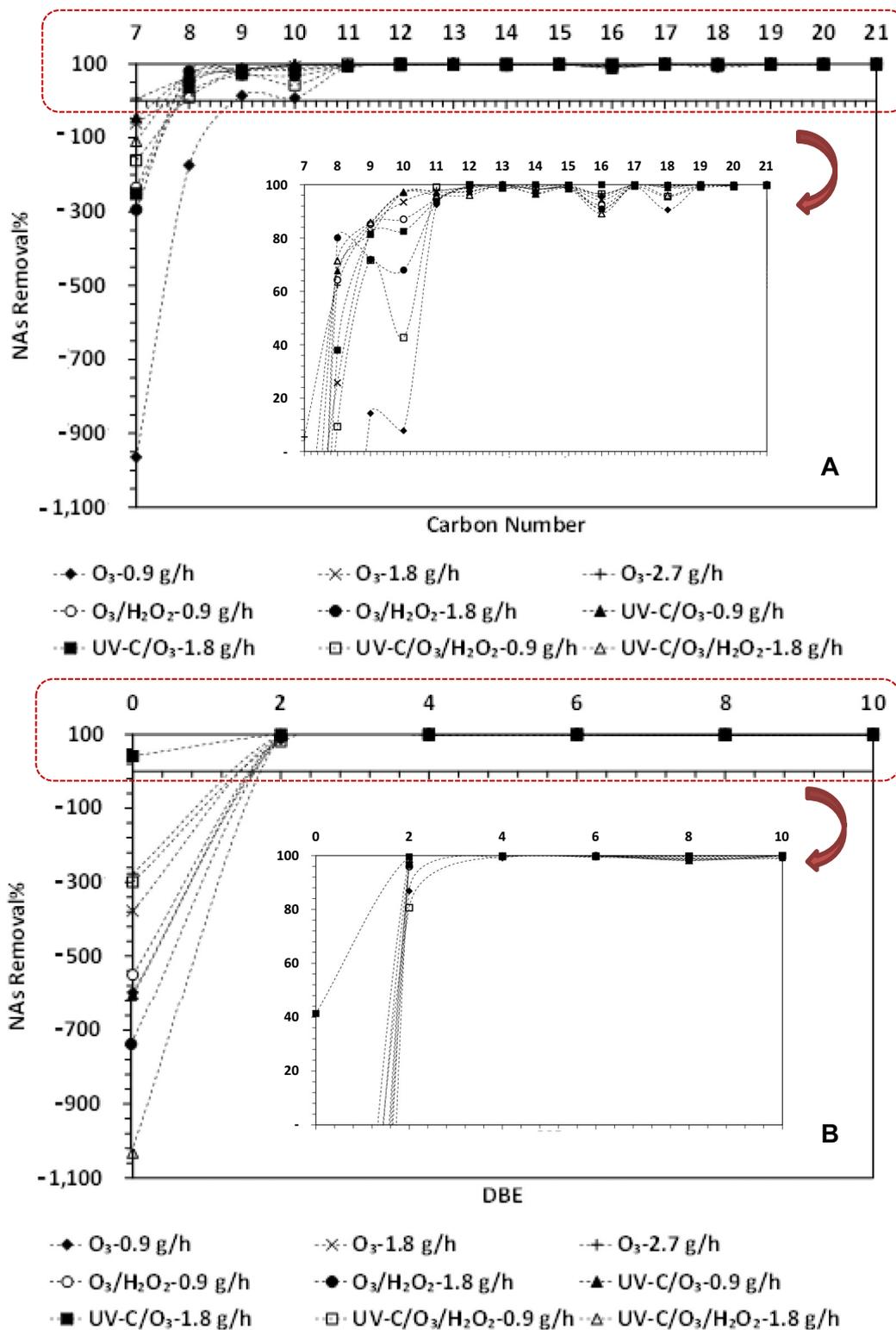


Fig. 6. Classical NA removal after 90 min treatment by different AOPs with respect to carbon number (A) and DBE number (B). The insets in the figure zoom are the positive part of the y axis (0–100% range).

The energy consumption of the treatments can be assessed by Eq. (2), reported by Bolton et al., based on the electrical energy per order (EEO) in a batch system (Bolton et al., 1996).

$$EEO \left(\frac{kWh}{m^3} \right) = \frac{P(kW) * t(h) * 1000}{V(L) * \log \left(\frac{C_i}{C_f} \right)} \quad (2)$$

where P(kW), t(h), C_i and C_f and V(L) represent rated power, reaction time, initial and final concentration, and treated volume of OSPW, respectively.

In previous studies, this equation was slightly modified using initial and final TOC instead of a target compound concentration because of the complex nature of real effluents (Demir-Duz et al., 2020; Jiménez et al., 2019). In this study, the calculations used DOC removal expressed

by Eq. (3), since the objective was to increase DOC removal by mineralization.

$$EEO \left(\frac{kWh}{m^3} \right) = \frac{P(kW) * t(h) * 1000}{V(L) * \log \left(\frac{DOC_i}{DOC_f} \right)} \quad (3)$$

The EEO of the processes applied for 90 min was calculated using the energy consumption of the current laboratory-scale system. The P (kW) of the magnetic stirrer and UV-C lights was 0.002 and 0.06, respectively, while the P of the O₃ generator was calculated from either the amount of O₃ produced or the amount consumed. The rated power of O₃ generation was 10 kW/kg O₃ according to the supplier. As shown in Table S1, when the energy consumption was calculated from the amount of O₃ produced, the EEO for 90 min of single ozonation was higher than that of some of the combined AOPs because the DOC removals were very low. The UV-C/O₃ treatment also resulted in a high energy demand. However, in the presence of UV-C, a higher O₃ production rate resulted in a lower EEO as the removal efficiency was higher. EEO values decreased from 322 kWh/m³ and 383 kWh/m³ for single ozonation to 102 kWh/m³ and 122 kWh/m³ for the O₃/H₂O₂ combination with O₃ production rates of 0.9 g/h and 1.8 g/h, respectively, and a H₂O₂/COD ratio of 2. This indicates that the O₃/H₂O₂ treatment had a marked benefit on both energy cost and mineralization and that by applying 1.8 g/h of O₃ in combination with H₂O₂ (H₂O₂/COD ratio of 2) DOC removal was as high as 84%. Applying an O₃ feed above 1.8 g/h increased the EEO significantly since DOC removal did not improve under this condition. The amount of electrical energy required by the treatments with the UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ system, an O₃ production rate of 1.8 g/h and a H₂O₂/COD ratio of 2 was greater than the amount required by the O₃/H₂O₂ treatment (221 kWh/m³ and 122 kWh/m³, respectively). However, the %DOC removal obtained by combined UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ was remarkably high (98%), which would allow the treated effluent to be reused in the plant. In contrast, decreasing the dose of O₃ to 0.9 g/h considerably increased the EEO, up to 406 kWh/m³ for the same H₂O₂/COD ratio = 2. Thus, it could be concluded that O₃/H₂O₂ provides an effective treatment at less electrical cost, while UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ provides a better quality effluent that can be reused rather than discharged.

It must be noted that EEO values were calculated for the laboratory-scale system used in this study and only show how EEO can be changed by single or combined treatment methods. They do not reflect the realistic energy demand for a full-scale application. For this reason, Table S1 presents the EEO values calculated from the amount of consumed O₃ in view of the fact that the gas feeding technique (by porous diffuser) means that the system has low O₃ transfer capacity. On the other hand, transferred O₃ can increase by more than 90% for up-scaled O₃ reactors. The normalized EEO values (calculated relative to the amount of consumed O₃) decreased 3-to-8 fold in both single ozonation and O₃/H₂O₂ systems depending on the O₃ doses applied, while they decreased much less for the processes that applied UV-C light and had the highest EEO values of all the processes studied. It should also be taken into account that UV-C irradiation was kept constant in this study (60 W, supplied by 4 lamps). This needs to be studied further so that the reactor can be optimized. As such, the irradiance applied, and the length and position of the lamps must be explored since they may be able to reduce the energy demand associated with the applied UV-C irradiation. Sarkar et al. used a 13 W low-pressure Hg lamp to treat a secondary effluent. It was placed in the center of the reactor in a quartz protective sleeve and the EEO of the UV/H₂O₂ treatment was calculated to be 8.53 kWh/m³ for their system while the EEOs of O₃, O₃/H₂O₂ and UV/O₃/H₂O₂ were 202, 212 and 166 kWh/m³, respectively (Sarkar et al., 2014). Pisarenko et al. evaluated an O₃ and O₃/H₂O₂ oxidation process on a pilot scale for trace contaminants in drinking water and for water reuse applications, where the O₃ transfer efficiency was 95%. An EEO value between 0.004 and 2.6 kWh/m³ was reported for various contaminant removals and system configurations (Pisarenko et al., 2012).

Thus, the EEO of large-scale optimized treatment systems, equipped with the best lamp type and O₃ production/injection systems and with a

good reactor design, may be much lower than the values that are presented in our study. Miklos et al. recently reviewed EEO values for numerous AOPs from the literature and compared the median values of several processes. According to their report, O₃, O₃/H₂O₂, O₃/UV, UV/H₂O₂, which had median EEO values < 1 kWh/m³, were found to be more realistic for full-scale applications (Miklos et al., 2018). It is worth mentioning that EEO is also highly dependent on the characteristics of the water: e.g. concentration of contaminants, turbidity, presence of recalcitrant components and radical scavengers (Miklos et al., 2018). Nonetheless, as a first step in the evaluation, both the EEOs and the experimental results obtained throughout the present study point to the O₃/H₂O₂ system as being a feasible candidate for a scale-up study for OSPW treatment. On the other hand, UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ gives better effluent quality at a higher EEO cost.

4. Conclusions

This study explored an efficient and environmentally friendly treatment that can add value to the industry's reclamation plan for OSPW, which is currently stored in tailings ponds until it can be treated properly. To this end, O₃-based AOPs including different combinations of O₃, H₂O₂ and UV-C were investigated as possible treatments for OSPW. The aim was to mineralize the recalcitrant components rather than transform them, to reclaim the treated effluent for reuse for bitumen extraction or upgrading units, or safely discharge it into the environment without lowering the quality of the products or causing corrosion in the process units.

An optimized O₃/H₂O₂ system can be regarded as a feasible method for treating OSPW in terms of the degree of mineralization it can achieve and the elimination of acute toxicity. Here, this system was found to have a final DOC of up to ca. 15 mg C/L and to completely eliminate acute toxicity. This guarantees that effluents can be safely discharged or reused in the extraction process. Reusing higher quality treated effluents in the extraction process can be a solution to the current problems caused by decreasing extraction efficiencies over time and increasing pollution by storing OSPW in tailings ponds.

When UV-C light was irradiated during O₃/H₂O₂ treatment, the final DOC was reduced to 2 mg C/L with the consequent decrease in toxicity. This method allows the treated effluent to be reused as cooling/boiling water in the units used for bitumen upgrading. However, in this case, a post treatment after AOP would be needed to reduce the conductivity and prevent corrosion in the cooling/boiling water units. The operation costs are also expected to increase slightly in the case of a large-scale application. On the basis of our observations at the lab-scale, these costs were calculated to be approximately 30 kWh/m³ and 300 kWh/m³ for O₃/H₂O₂ and UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂, respectively. Therefore, an overall assessment should be made of the costs of water processing or purchasing for these systems.

The real effluent used in this study provides important information about the efficiency of various AOPs if they are extrapolated to a larger scale. The efficiency shown by O₃/H₂O₂ and UV-C/O₃/H₂O₂ treatments may have the following benefits: i) less water will be used because the bitumen and heavy oil extraction plants will require less external water in the search for more resource-efficient and environmentally friendly processes; and ii) land will be able to be recovered and reclaimed, thus decreasing the negative impact on the local fauna and possible seepage to surface water.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Hande Demir Duz: Investigation; Data curation; Resources; Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing. **Sandra Contreras:** Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Resources; Supervision; Writing – review & editing. **Mayra G. Álvarez:** Methodology; Supervision; Writing – review & editing. **Leonidas A. Perez-Estrada:** Methodology; Data curation; Formal analysis; Investigation; Writing – review & editing. **Mohamed Gamal El-Din:** Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Resources; Supervision; Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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