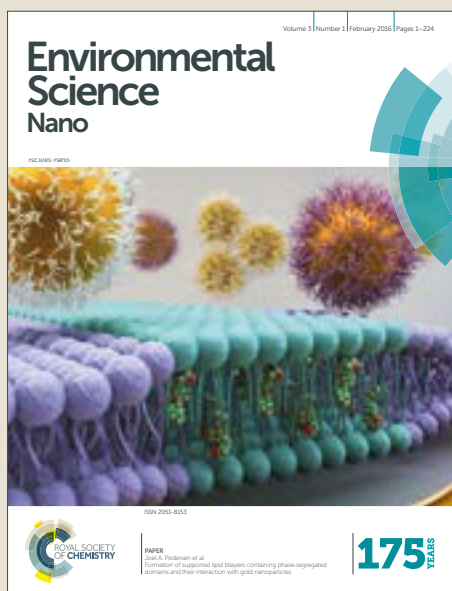


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Electrocatalysis is an efficient approach for the degradation of halogenated organic pollutants. Currently, both electrooxidative and electroreductive dehalogenation processes are widely applied, and the key challenge lies in the development of high-performance electrocatalysts. Given the rapid advances in the design and development of efficient catalysts towards electrochemical dehalogenation, this review aims to summarise recent progress in popular electrocatalysts and theoretical understanding of dehalogenation processes. Additionally, several key prospects in this field are presented. This critical review can facilitate the design and application of next-generation electrocatalysts with ameliorated performances.

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Recent Advances in Electrocatalysts for Halogenated Organic Pollutants Degradation

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Abstract

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Electrocatalysis has recently been extensively employed for the degradation of halogenated organic pollutants (HOPs) that normally act as persistent, toxic, and bioaccumulative substances in the environment and pose threats to aquatic species as well as human beings. This review article broadly gives the up-to-date status on promising electrocatalysts for the degradation of HOPs, with particular emphasis on the strategies for promoting the activities of catalysts. Firstly, the catalysts for oxidative mineralization process including metallic oxides- and carbon-based anodes, as well as the oxidative dehalogenation mechanism of these catalysts, are comprehensively presented. Secondly, the catalysts for reductive degradation process, which contains metal- and metal complexes-based cathodes, with their applications and organic transformation pathways, are fully analyzed. Thirdly, recent advances in the integrated techniques are introduced, and the integration of membrane techniques, biological methods, Fenton processes, photocatalysis with electrocatalysis are discussed. Finally, several key directions for further research are exploited, which includes catalysts design, experimental optimization, scientific understanding exploration, and effective coupling techniques.

1. Introduction

Halogenated organic compounds, namely organics containing one or more elements of fluorine (F), chlorine (Cl), bromine (Br) and iodine (I), have aroused increasing concerns as it poses threat to aquatic species as well as human beings. These organics are widely employed in many industrial and consumer products such as pesticides, flame retardants, fungicides, insecticides, dyes, dielectrics, coolants, plant regulators, plasticizers, and drugs.¹⁻⁴ Due to their high consumptions during past years, these compounds have been detected in air, water, and soil, which result in severe environmental pollution owing to their high toxicity, persistence, bioaccumulation, and wide distribution.^{4, 5}

Under such circumstance, effective methods to degrade these halogenated organic pollutants (HOPs) are extremely demanding. In the last few decades, extensive efforts have been devoted to the degradation of HOPs. Particularly, many processes have been developed to cleave the strong C-X bonds (X= F, Cl, Br and I) in HOPs, such as microbial degradation,^{6, 7} ionizing radiation,^{8, 9} metallic reduction,¹⁰⁻¹² photochemistry and photocatalysis,¹³⁻¹⁵ sonolysis,^{16, 17} and electrocatalysis¹⁸⁻²¹. Although it is highly difficult to compare the efficiency of different degradation methods due to various target pollutants, initial concentrations, source of pollution, experimental setups and different physicochemical parameters of these processes applied,²² electrocatalysis distinguishes itself from these methods for its easy implementation, high energy efficiency, amenability of automation and safety, versatility, high effectiveness, universal degradation capability, as well as environmental compatibility.^{1, 23-26}

As a destructive technology for HOPs degradation,²⁷ especially for those persistent perfluorinated compounds (PFCs), electrocatalysis has attracted much more attention recently.²⁸ Several previous publications have discussed the application of electrocatalysis in the dehalogenation process.^{1, 2, 28-32} For example, Sandra et al.¹ reviewed the electroreduction of organic halides in terms of electrode reaction mechanisms, electrode materials as well as process operation. Martin et al.² considered many vital aspects of the electroreduction process of HOPs, including cell designs, experimental methods, and degradation mechanisms. In an earlier work by the same group, the electrochemical reduction of halogenated organic compounds was also discussed regarding the species of pollutants.³² Apart from electrochemical reduction, Niu and coworkers²⁸ reviewed the electrooxidation of perfluorinated compounds, and the major focus was on the electrode types and operational factors, including potential, current density, pH value, plate distance, and etc. These informative articles have provided an overview of the electrocatalytic degradation processes

of HOPs related to reduction or oxidation, however, the catalysts applied in this field have not been comprehensively reviewed. In fact, it is now widely recognized that electrocatalysts (electrodes) play a key role in the degradation of HOPs,^{33, 34} and explosive development of innovative catalysts are pushing the boundaries of HOPs degradation speedily during past years. Nevertheless, to date, there is no attempt has been made to provide a comprehensive summary of these recent findings to facilitate the development of new effective catalysts.

Therefore, in this review article, we summarize the recent development in electrochemical dehalogenation catalysts, focusing on the key strategies for promoting the activities of catalysts, as well as the connections between the nature of catalysts (such as morphology, chemical component, conformation) and their catalytic performance. In addition, the key mechanisms accounting for electrooxidative dehalogenation (EOD) and electroreductive dehalogenation (ERD) are highlighted, as well as the advanced integrated techniques. Based on the review, the outlooks on key future research directions are also pointed out.

2. Catalysts for electrooxidative dehalogenation

Electrooxidation has been proved as an effective method to mineralize halogenated organic pollutants. To date, numerous catalysts have been applied in the electrooxidative dehalogenation process. This section provides an overview of the main catalysts (anodes) in EOD, including metal oxides (PbO_2 , SnO_2 , and others)-based and carbon (boron-doped diamond and others)-based electrodes. The diverse modification strategies that have been applied to upgrade the performance of these electrodes are also highlighted. Furthermore, the main electrooxidative dehalogenation mechanisms are discussed.

2.1. PbO_2 -based catalysts

PbO_2 -based catalysts have been widely explored as the electrode materials in EOD since they possess many merits, including low cost, high conductivity, chemical resistance, as well as

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3 high oxygen overvoltage.^{23, 33, 35} Table 1 summarizes the recently representative studies of the New Article Online
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5 EOD by various PbO₂-based catalytic materials. These results clearly suggested that the
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7 structure and components of the catalysts have a vital influence on their degradation
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9 performance. The effective measures that can upgrade the catalytic potential of PbO₂-based
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11 catalysts are detailed in this work.
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15 Pristine PbO₂ materials are excellent candidates for EOD due to their high catalytic activity,
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17 good chemical stability, great conductivity, as well as low cost.³⁶ Normally, the traditional
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19 PbO₂ coated catalysts can flake from the substrate (e.g., Ti sheets) for their relatively large
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21 interface resistance.²⁸ To address this problem, interlayers have been introduced to increase
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23 the chemical stability and thus the degradation performance of PbO₂ electrode.³⁶⁻³⁸ For
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25 example, Niu et al.³⁸ used SnO₂-Sb as an interlayer to construct a Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ anode
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27 with the electrodeposition method for the decay of perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA). The
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29 degradation of PFOA followed pseudo-first-order kinetics and the degradation efficiency on
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31 Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ anode achieved 91.1%, with the defluorination rate of PFOA being 77.4%.
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33 Recently, the same group found that TiO₂ nanotubes arrays (TNAs*) performed better than
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35 SnO₂-Sb when worked as a transition layer for the defluorination of fluoxetine (FLX).³⁹ They
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37 noticed that the particles on the Ti/TNAs*/PbO₂ anode are smaller and distributed much more
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39 compactly than that of the Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ and Ti/ PbO₂ anodes (Fig. 1 a-c). Impressively,
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41 the optimized electronic transport through the “T-shaped” electrode (Fig.1 d) and the
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43 improved hydroxyl radical yield derived from selective PbO₂ crystal face growth could
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45 facilitate the degradation process (Fig. 1 e-f). Other than metallic oxides, a graphene
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47 nanosheet was also employed as an interlayer to construct a novel PbO₂ electrode (GNS-
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49 PbO₂) for degradation of 2-chlorophenol (2-CP).³⁶ The GNS-PbO₂ displayed better
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51 electrochemical activities, a higher dehalogenation rate constant and better service lifetime
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53 than those of the conventional PbO₂ electrode.
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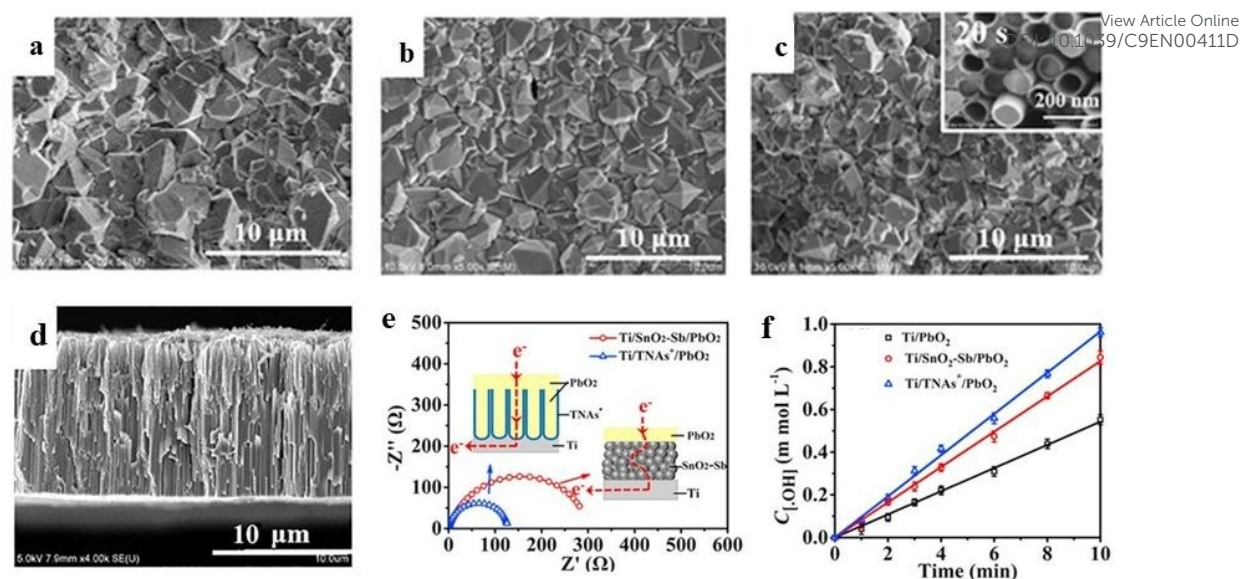
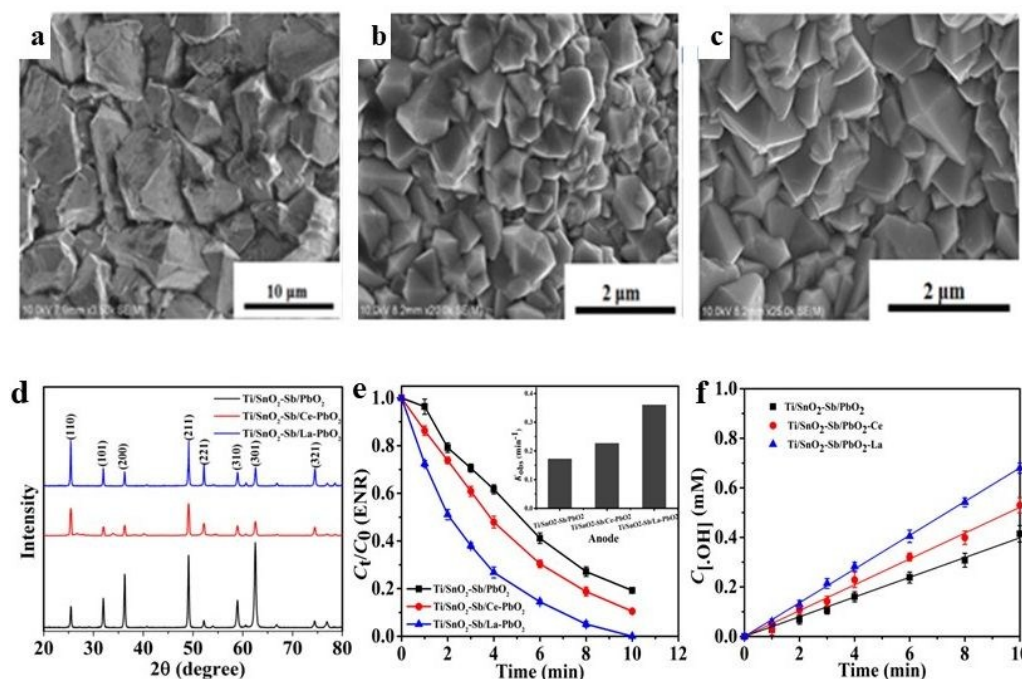


Fig.1 SEM images of Ti/PbO₂ (a); Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ (b); Ti/TNAs*/PbO₂ (c); lateral view of TNAs* (d); Nyquist plot of impedance spectra of Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ and Ti/TNAs*/PbO₂ anodes in 0.5 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄, inset illustrations are the electronic transfer pathways through Ti/TNAs*/PbO₂ and Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ anodes (e); concentrations of •OH production on three anodes at the applied current density of 10 mA cm⁻² (f). Reproduced with permission from ref. 39, Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

However, several defects of pure PbO₂ catalyst have limited its widespread applications, including leaching of toxic Pb ions and relatively large interface resistances.^{28, 40} Furthermore, the electrocatalytic activity of bare PbO₂ electrodes still requires further improvements.^{38, 41, 42} Therefore, it is crucial to enhance the stability and electrocatalytic activity of PbO₂ electrodes, with doping, compositing, and surface modification being reported as efficient ways to achieve the goal.^{40, 43-45} To date, many foreign compositions have been doped on PbO₂ surfaces, such as Bi, Fe, Al, F, Co, Ce, Yb, Gd, Er, La, Au, Zr, Ni, and Sn.^{28, 33, 40, 44, 46-49} Among them, Ce is the most used dopant because Ce element can offer PbO₂ a new nucleation center that enhances the electron transfer capacity, minimizes the internal stress of PbO₂ crystals, hampers the further growth of PbO₂ and decreases its average size.^{23, 28} Hence, the Ce-doped PbO₂ catalysts display upgraded electrocatalytic performance towards HOPs.

For example, a well-designed $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs/Ce-PbO}_2$ electrode was prepared for the elimination of Rhodamine B (RhB).²³ Compared to $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs/PbO}_2$ electrode, the incorporation of Ce favored the generation of a denser and smoother film, with decreased crystal size, as well as a higher exposure of preferred crystalline orientation. The small crystals provided more active sites for electrochemical oxidation, and the dense film hindered the penetration of electrolytes. The abundant active sites and great durability results from the Ce-doping improve the overall electrochemical performance. Recently, metals other than Ce have gained more attention as efficient dopants in the fabrication of PbO_2 -based electrodes due to their better dehalogenation capabilities. As a good example, in the mineralization of enrofloxacin (ENR), Wang and coworkers⁴³ found that $\text{Ti/SnO}_2\text{-Sb/La-PbO}_2$ electrode was much more compact than $\text{Ti/SnO}_2\text{-Sb/Ce-PbO}_2$ and $\text{Ti/SnO}_2\text{-Sb/PbO}_2$ electrodes (Fig.2 a-c), and La doping significantly reduced the crystallite size of $\beta\text{-PbO}_2$ (Fig. 2 d). Accordingly, the La-doped materials may provide more active sites for the generation of radicals. As a result, these characteristics of La-doped electrode showed better degradation performance (Fig. 2 e-f).



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3 **Fig.2** SEM images of the top of Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂ (a); Ti/SnO₂-Sb/Ce-PbO₂ (b); Ti/SnO₂-
4 Sb/La-PbO₂ (c), XRD patterns of Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂, Ti/SnO₂-Sb/Ce-PbO₂ and Ti/SnO₂-
5 Sb/La-PbO₂ electrodes (d), electrochemical degradation of 10.0 mg L⁻¹ ENR (e) and the
6 concentrations of hydroxyl radicals production by using Ti/SnO₂-Sb/PbO₂, Ti/SnO₂-Sb/Ce-
7 PbO₂ and Ti/SnO₂-Sb/La-PbO₂ electrodes (f). Reproduced with permission from ref. 43,
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18 Composting is another useful strategy to obtain a significant leap in the dehalogenation
19 performance of catalysts since composite-based electrodes possess a superior lifetime, high
20 HOP, great chemical stability, as well as excellent degradation power.⁵⁰ For PbO₂, the
21 commonly employed incorporating metal oxides include CeO₂, ZrO₂, Co₃O₄, RuO₂, and
22 TiO₂.⁵¹ Among these, the PbO₂-CeO₂ composite electrode is a powerful candidate for
23 EOD.^{34, 45, 46} This composite is usually fabricated using a composite electrodeposition method,
24 which can obtain higher cerium contents than the aforementioned Ce-PbO₂ electrode.^{34, 45}
25 Therefore, the electrocatalytic ability and chemical stability of PbO₂-CeO₂ composite
26 electrode are higher than that of Ce-PbO₂ electrode.⁴⁵ A novel three-dimensional PbO₂-CeO₂
27 composite electrode was fabricated with a composite electrodeposition method using oxygen
28 bubbles as a template.³⁴ The 3D/PbO₂-CeO₂ composite electrode possessed a three-
29 dimensional interconnected porous structure, and the CeO₂ nanoparticles were observed
30 on pore walls. Moreover, the composite electrode owned noteworthy capability in hydroxyl
31 radicals generation resulting from the high OEP as well as the high specific surface area, with
32 thiamethoxam being completely mineralized into CO₂ and H₂O after electrolysis for 90 min.
33 Alternatively, PbO₂-ZrO₂ and Ga₂O₃-PbO₂ have also been employed to remove HOPs
34 successfully.^{52, 53}
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57 Hydrophobic properties of anodes also have a significant impact on the OEP and the
58 production of •OH radicals that are the main active components in EOD process. Thus
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regulating the surface property of PbO_2 from hydrophilic to hydrophobic is greatly advisable.^{41, 54} Consequently, the surfactants and polymers are widely applied as additives to upgrade the surface properties of anodes. For instance, a PbO_2 electrode modified with hydrophobic polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) was employed to degrade PFOA, and experimental results illustrated that the designed electrode still kept the β - PbO_2 crystallographic structure.³⁷ The PVDF modified anode exhibited a rough face and the small particles were uniformly distributed. The nanostructures could significantly improve the specific area, and provide abundant reactivity points for the generation of hydroxyl radicals. The presence of PVDF also enhanced the hydrophobicity and the lifetime of the bare PbO_2 electrode. Correspondingly, the $\text{Ti/SnO}_2\text{-Sb}_2\text{O}_5/\text{PbO}_2\text{-PVDF}$ anode showed a higher degradation efficiency of PFOA than the $\text{Ti/SnO}_2\text{-Sb}_2\text{O}_5/\text{PbO}_2$.

The particle size of catalysts also affects the electrocatalytic performance significantly, and a smaller size is more favorable due to the more active sites for catalytic reactions. Duan and co-researchers⁵⁵ fabricated a lauryl benzene sulfonic acid sodium (LAS)-carbon nanotube (CNT)-modified PbO_2 electrode using thermal deposition and electrodeposition methods, and this modified anode exhibited better degradation performance for 4-chlorophenol than the PbO_2 electrode. It was found that the crystal particles on the LAS-CNT- PbO_2 anode were evidently smaller than those on the PbO_2 anode, and its special surface structure consisted of small “stars with four corners” like crystallites. In addition, many bumps appeared on the surface of LAS-CNT- PbO_2 anode, and such feature resulted in a larger effective surface area for the production of active radicals. Totally, these characteristics of surface morphology and coating composition play a vital role in enhancing the capacity of the anode.

Table 1 Summary of representative HOPs electrooxidative dehalogenation using PbO_2 -based anodes in recent years.

Anode	Preparation methods	HOPs	$C_{\text{HOP}} / \text{mg L}^{-1}$	electrolyte	current density / mA cm^{-2}	Other parameters	HOP Removal rate/%	COD Removal rate/%	TOC Removal rate/%	Ref.
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3	Ti/TiO ₂ - NTs/Ag ₂ O/PbO ₂	electrodeposition	perfluorooctane sulfonate	0.0929 mM	1.4 g L ⁻¹ NaClO ₄	30	100 mL ^① ; 30 ± 2 °C; 12 cm ² ②	74.87 (180min)	View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/C9EN00411D	56	
5	Double sided Ti-Pt/β-PbO ₂	electrodeposition	ciprofloxacin	50	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	6.2 cm ² and 8.37 cm ² ; pH 10; 25 °C	100 (2h)	-	~75(5h)	57
7	Ti/TiO ₂ - NTs/PbO ₂	anodic oxidation; electrodeposition	fluoxetine	5	0.02 M Na ₂ SO ₄	10	3 cm ² ; sequential experiment	94.3	83.1	-	59
9	GNS-PbO ₂	electrophoretic deposition; electro- deposition	2-chlorophenol	50	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	50	200 mL; 30 °C	95.42 (120min)	-	55.09 (120min)	36
11	TiO ₂ -PbO ₂ /β-PbO ₂	electrodeposition	2-chlorophenol	50	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	20	35 °C; 8 cm ²	100 (180 min)	-	-	55
13	TiO ₂ -NTs/SnO ₂ - Sb/PbO ₂	anodization; sol-gel technique	flutriafol	-	5 g L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄	15	1 L; 25 °C	80.42 (180min)	-	45.35 (180min)	38
15	3DEM-PbO ₂	sol-gel method; sedimentation and solvent evaporation; electrodeposition	flutriafol	-	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	5	electrochemical filtration reactor; 200 mL; 19.63 cm ²	73.8 (180min)	-	26.4 (180min)	35
17	TiO ₂ -NTs/SnO ₂ - Sb/Fe-doped PbO ₂	anodization process; thermal deposition; electrodeposition	methylene blue	-	-	-	120 mL; 15.75 cm ²	98 (30min)	-	96 (30min)	44
21	La-Y-PbO ₂	electrodeposition	levofloxacin	800	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	250 mL; 24 cm ² ; pH 3	F- 93.5 (150min)	-	-	43
23	Yb-PbO ₂	electrodeposition	acetamiprid	80	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	250	500 mL; 50 cm ²	98.96 (120min)	74.57 (120mi n)	-	55
25	TiO ₂ -Sb/Zr-PbO ₂	sol-gel method; electrodeposition	Perfluorooctanoic acid	100	10 mM NaClO ₄	10	100 mL; 96 cm ² ; 25 °C; sequential reaction system	>70 (90min)	60 (90 min)	-	54
27	TiO ₂ -Sb ₂ O ₃ /Bi- PbO ₂	thermal decomposition; electrodeposition	tebuconazole	12.5	0.01 M NaClO ₄	40	27 °C	-	-	68 (120 min)	51
29	TiO ₂ -Sn-SbO ₃ /Al-PbO ₂	thermal deposition; electrodeposition	chloramphenicol	500	0.2 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	pH 3; 250 mL	87.30 (2.5 h)	-	52.06 (2.5 h)	46
31	TiO ₂ -Sb/La-PbO ₂	sol-gel technique; electrodeposition	enrofloxacin	10	20 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	8	30 mL; 25 cm ²	95.3 (30 min)	-	95.1 (30 min)	47
33	TiO ₂ -PbO ₂ -CeO ₂	composite electrodeposition	thiamethoxam	30	0.15 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	500 mL; 6 cm ² ; pH 6	100 (90min)	89.0 (90min)	-	34
35	TiO ₂ -PbO ₂ -CeO ₂	composite electrodeposition	malachite green	30	0.2 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	100mL; pH 5	95.4 (90min)	69.3 (90min)	-	45
37	Ga ₂ O ₃ -PbO ₂	sol-gel method; composite plating method	bromocresol green sodium	100 ppm	0.1 M PBS	8	100 mL; 8 cm ² ; 40 °C	-	~70 (60min)	-	41
41	Ti/RuO ₂ -SnO ₂ - TiO ₂ /PbO ₂ -CeO ₂	sol-gel method; electrodeposition	4-Chlorophenol	100	10 g L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄	20	pH 6.7	> 90 (80min)	94.71 (140mi n)	-	33
43	TiO ₂ -Sb ₂ O ₃ / PbO ₂ -ZrO ₂	thermal decomposition; pulse electrodeposition	rhodamine B	30	0.2 M Na ₂ SO ₄	200	100 mL; 25 °C	100 (100min)	-	82.9 (100min)	53
45	PTFE-doped β-PbO ₂	electrodeposition	norfloxacin	100	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	10	500 mL; 11.76 cm ² ; 40 °C	100 (12h)	-	70(12h)	6
47	Ti/Sn-SbOx/PbO ₂ - PDMS	thermal deposition; electrodeposition	p-chlorophenol	0.5mM	0.05M Na ₂ SO ₄	20	200 mL	99.0(120mi n)	-	92.9 (120min)	48
49	Ti/SnO ₂ - SbO ₃ /PbO ₂ -PVDF	co-electrodeposition	polyvinylidene fluoride	100	1.4 g L ⁻¹ NaClO ₄	30	200 mL; 17.64 cm ² ; 26 ± 2 °C	92.1	-	-	37
51	TiO ₂ -based SnO ₂ - Sb/FR-PbO ₂	anodization; sol-gel method; electrodeposition	ofloxacin	20	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	differential column batch reactor; 300 mL; 10 cm ² ; pH 6.25	>99 (90min)	--	-	63
53	PTFE-F-CeO ₂ - PbO ₂	electrodeposition	p-chlorophenol	1.0mM	-	100	200 mL; 25 ± 1 °C	48.4 (150min)	20.1 (150mi n)	-	6

① initial volume of reaction solution; ② anode area

2.2. SnO₂-based catalysts

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SnO₂-based electrocatalysts are frequently used to mineralize HOPs, though SnO₂ is an n-type semiconductor with a band gap of 3.6 eV.⁶⁵ To fully expand the range of its applications, doping is the most widely employed strategy to change the intrinsic property of SnO₂ and make it a hotspot in the field of electrode material. Several sophisticated doped SnO₂-based catalysts and their applications are discussed in this work.

Table 2 summarizes the recently representative SnO₂-based catalytic anodes used in the process of HOPs oxidation. It can be found that antimony (Sb) is the most general dopant as Sb-doped anodes possess high OEP, high stability and favorable electrocatalytic characteristics.^{66, 67} For instance, a SnO₂-Sb/Ti electrode fabricated with the sol-gel method was employed for the degradation of ciprofloxacin.⁶⁸ The coating particles of the anode were uniform in size, with diameters ranging from 20-100 nm. The nanostructure of the SnO₂-Sb/Ti anode exhibited a large surface area, and thereby provided plentiful active sites for the electrocatalytic process. In 120 min, the removal ratios of ciprofloxacin, COD, and TOC were around 99.5%, 86.0%, and 70.0%, respectively.

Components (e.g., F, Ni, Bi, Fe, Ru, Co, Ce, Pd, TiN) often work as co-dopants to improve the performance of Sb-SnO₂ electrode.^{65, 69-71} Yang et al.⁶⁵ analyzed the effect of six elements (e.g., Fe(III), Ni(II), Co(II), Ru(III), Ce(III), Pd(II)) on the performance of Sb-SnO₂ electrode toward mineralization of Eosin Y. In this study, both Ni and Fe could upgrade the electrocatalytic activities of Sb (5%)-SnO₂, especially Ni. Further study implied that the improvement by Ni doping might be ascribed to the elevated involvement of organic peroxy radicals. Recently, a well-designed F and Sb co-doped SnO₂ anode displayed excellent capacities in the degradation of perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS).⁶⁹ The co-doped electrode presented better degradation capacities than that of single doped electrodes, and the main

reason was that the formed smooth surface could provide more physically adsorbed $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals and result in relatively high OEP. TiN, as a kind of metal nitride, has been extensively employed as an electrode material due to its unique features, such as relatively low costs, high hardness, good chemical stability, great electric conductivity, and superior catalytic activities.^{72, 73} Duan et al.⁷⁰ prepared a Ti/Sb-SnO₂-TiN anode for degradation of methylene blue. The TiN-doped anode exhibited a smaller crystal grain size, and thereby boosted the active sites and specific surface area for the electrocatalytic reaction. In addition, the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy tests suggested that the introduction of TiN could obviously decrease the charge transfer resistance (150 ohm vs.1334 ohm), and thus improving the conductivity of the anode. Compared with Ti/Sb-SnO₂, Ti/Sb-SnO₂-TiN had a higher adsorption capacity of hydroxyl oxygen species (1.97 times), as well as a higher decolorization efficiency (1.54 times) and a larger kinetic rate constant (3.24 times).

With good stability and a great electrocatalytic activity, SnO₂-based mixed metal oxide materials are also favourable anodes in the electrocatalytic dehalogenation process.⁷⁴ For example, Bai and co-authors⁷⁵ designed a Ti/SnO₂-RuO₂ electrode to decompose bromocresol green (BCG) in wastewater. The “cracked-mud” structure electrode showed a high specific surface area, which could provide abundant active sites and enhance the catalytic performance. Under the optimal experimental conditions, the removal ratio of BCG reached 91% within 150 min. Vargas et al.⁷⁶ fabricated a SnO₂-Sb₂O₅ anode to mineralize dichlorvos (DDVP) that is a widely used organophosphorus insecticide. The reaction kinetics for DDVP electrochemical oxidation was higher than other advanced oxidation methods (e.g., TiO₂/UV and ZnO/UV), and the COD could be completely removed in about 100 min.

Table 2 Summary of representative HOPs electrooxidative dehalogenation using SnO₂-based anodes in recent years.

Anode	Preparation methods	HOPs	C _{HOP} / mg L ⁻¹	electrolyt e	current density / mA cm ⁻²	Other parameters	HOP Removal rate/%	COD Removal rate/%	TOC Removal rate/%	Ref.
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4	Meso SnO ₂	evaporation induced self-assembly	2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid	10 ppm	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	6.34 ± 0.05	100 mL; pH ~7; applied voltage 2.5V	99.15(3h)	View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/C9EN00111D	93.2 ± 1.5 (3h)	77
6	Ti/Hx/Ni-Sb-SnO ₂	spin-coating; pyrolysis process	methylene blue	10	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄	50	100 mL; pH 2; 1 cm ²	~100 (10min)	-	-	78
7	Ti/Sn-Sb/SnO ₂ -F-Sb	electrodeposition; sol-gel	perfluorooctane sulfonate	100	10 mM NaClO ₄	20	50 mL; pH 3; 25 ± 3 °C	>99 (120min)	-	-	69
9	Ti/SnO ₂ -RuO ₂	thermal decomposition	bromocresol green	100	4 g L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄	12	100 mL; 5 cm ² ; pH 7; 30 °C	91 (150min)	-	-	-
10	SnO ₂ -Sb/Ti	sol-gel method	ciprofloxacin	50	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	250 mL; 15 cm ² ; 30 °C	99.5 (120min)	86.0 (120min)	70.0 (120min)	88
12	Ta ₂ O ₅ -SnO ₂	thermal decomposition; drop casting	methylene blue	0.1 mM	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	9	2.2 cm ² ; pH 6.5; 25 ± 2 °C	95(2h)	85(2h)	-	9
14	Ti/SnO ₂ -F	sol-gel method; dip coating;	perfluorooctanoic acid	100	10 mM NaClO ₄	20	50 mL; 30 cm ² ; 25 ± 3 °C	>99 (30min)	-	92.6 (30min)	-
16	SnO ₂ -Sb ₂ O ₅ -Bi ₂ O ₃	sol-gel method	1H,1H,2H,2H-perfluorooctane sulfonic acid	20	1.4 g L ⁻¹ NaClO ₄	6.8	200 mL; 30 cm ² ; 32 °C; 0.4% CH ₃ OH as the co-solvent	23.8 (3.5h)	-	-	8
19	SnO ₂ -Sb ₂ O ₅	-	2,2-dichlorovinyl dimethyl phosphate	15	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	-	50 mL; 1 cm ² ; 25 ± 3 °C	-	~100 (100min)	-	70
20	Ti/Sb-SnO ₂ -NGNS	sol-gel method; dip coating	methylene blue	50	0.25 M Na ₂ SO ₄	20	50 mL; 2 cm ²	97.7 (100min)	-	-	32
22	Sb-SnO ₂ -TiN	pulse electro-codeposition	methylene blue	50	0.25 M Na ₂ SO ₄	20	50 mL; 2 cm ²	100 (120min)	-	-	70
23	SnO ₂ -Sb/CA	sol-gel method; solvent exchange; ambient pressure drying; pyrolysis	perfluorooctanoate	100	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	20	60 mL; 5 cm ²	91(5h)	-	86(5h)	85
26	Ni-Sb-SnO ₂	dipping-coating	Eosin Y	1 mM	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	22.22	20 mL; 4.5 cm ²	~48 (25min)	-	~75(2.5h)	-
28	SnO ₂ -Sb-Bi	sol-gel method	perfluorooctanoate	50	1.4 g L ⁻¹ NaClO ₄	22.07	25 mL; 11.33 cm ²	>99 (2h)	-	-	67
29	SnO ₂ /BDD	anodic treatment; sol-gel technique	clofibric acid	200	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	30	4 cm ² ; 100 mL; 25 ± 2 °C;	95 (240min)	90 (240min)	-	-

2.3. Other metal oxide-based catalysts

Like the oxides of Pb and Sn, other metal oxides (e.g., RuO₂, Bi₂O₃, IrO₂, Ti₄O₇) are also employed as electrodes in recent years owing to their relatively low cost, high chemical stability and superior electrocatalytic activities.^{85, 86} Table 3 collects the recently representative studies involve the electrochemical oxidation of HOPs by metal oxides (except PbO₂ and SnO₂)-based catalytic materials. Among these, RuO₂- and Ti₄O₇- based electrodes are underlined in this work as two typical examples.

RuO₂ has emerged as a promising candidate for mineralization of HOPs owing to its high stability, high OEP, great electrochemical performance and low cost.^{86, 87} In addition, RuO₂ showed high capacity toward the generation of active oxidants such as chlorine, ozone, and free radicals.⁸⁸ Kaur and co-authors⁸⁶ used the Ti/RuO₂ anode to decay ofloxacin antibiotic

(OFLX), and experimental results suggested that H_2O_2 , HO_2^\bullet , HOCl , ClO^- and chemisorbed $\bullet\text{OH}$ are all active components in the degradation process. As a result, removal ratios of OFLX and TOC were about 80% (30 min) and 46.3% (240 min), respectively. To enhance the performance of RuO_2 anode through enlarging the electrochemical surface area, Zhang et al.⁸⁹ fabricated a tubular porous Ti- RuO_2 electrode and designed a corresponding reactor to degrade anticancer drugs wastewater containing 5-Fluoro-2-Methoxypyrimidine (5FMP). The electrode with a porous structure had larger active surface area than the plate electrode with the same geometrical area. Additionally, the micro-sized pores of Ti- RuO_2 electrode achieved a vertical flow between the anode and cathode in the presence of the pump. As a result, the designed reactor could not only improve the mass transfer process but also generate a homogeneous velocity distribution and high turbulent mixing around the electrode. For these merits, the 5FMP was completely removed and the removal efficiency of COD reached 84.1%, within 180 min of electrocatalysis.

Ti_4O_7 that is a Magnéli phase titanium sub-oxide has been suggested as a good candidate for electrodes owing to its great conductivity ($\sim 1000 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$), high OEP (2.6 V/SHE, standard hydrogen electrode), good chemical stability, and easy preparation.⁹⁰⁻⁹² Therefore, Magnéli phase Ti_4O_7 ceramic materials have been widely worked as anodes in the electrochemical purification of wastewater. Lin et al.⁹² found that the macroporous Magnéli phase Ti_4O_7 ceramic materials possessed interconnecting macropores, with size ranging within 1-8 μm (Fig. 3 a-d). Compared to Ce- PbO_2 and BDD anodes, the porous Ti_4O_7 ceramic electrode had a greater surface area and the enhanced interphase mass transfer, thus improving the overall current efficiency. As a result, the porous anode exhibited better performance than Ce- PbO_2 and BDD anodes in the mineralization of poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (Fig. 3 e-f). Additionally, previous work reported that Co_3O_4 ,⁹³ IrO_2 ,⁹⁴ and Bi_2O_3 ,^{85, 95} are also excellent

candidates for the EOD process, owing to their favourable electrochemical activities, good mechanical and chemical resistance.⁹⁵

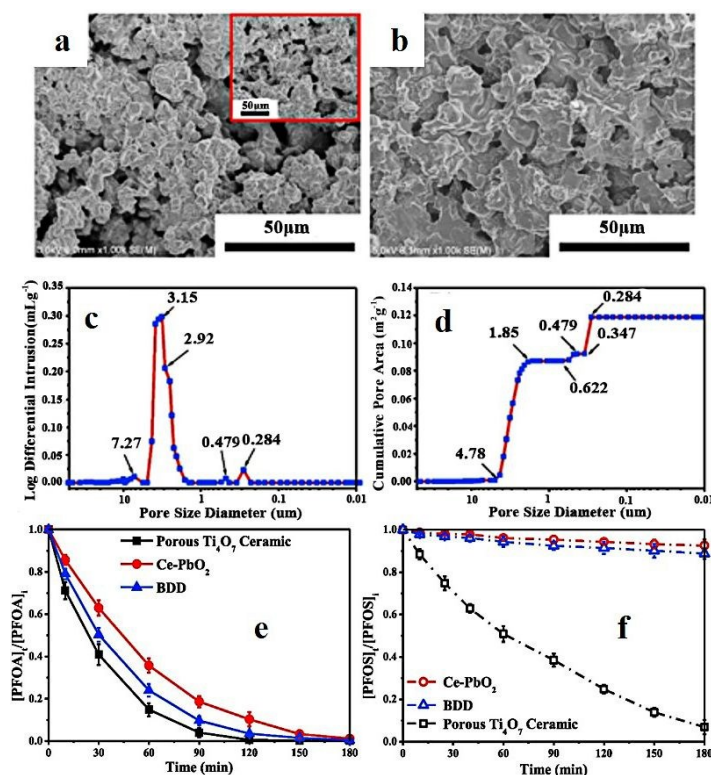


Fig.3 SEM image of the surface (a) and cross-section (b) of the macroporous Magnéli phase Ti_4O_7 ceramic plate materials; (c, d) results of Hg intrusion porosimetry analysis of pore size distribution; concentration change of 0.5 mM PFOA (e) and 0.1 mM PFOS (f) during electrooxidation process by different anodes. Reproduced with permission from ref. 92, Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

Table 3 Summary of representative HOPs electrooxidative dehalogenation using metal oxides (except PbO_2 and SnO_2)-based anodes in recent years.

Anode	Preparation methods	HOPs	$C_{\text{HOP}} / \text{mg L}^{-1}$	electrolyte	current density/ mA cm^{-2}	Other parameters	HOP Removal rate/%	COD Removal rate/%	TOC Removal rate/%	ref.
Ti/RuO ₂	-	ofloxacin	50	2 g L ⁻¹ NaCl	-	1.5 L; pH 6.8 ± 0.1; 1 A	~80 (30 min)	-	46.3 (240min)	96
Ti/RuO ₂ -IrO ₂	-	4-chlorophenol	50 ppm	1 g L ⁻¹ NaCl	25	32 cm ² ; 1 L; pH 7.38;	57.61 (89 min)	-	-	97
macroporous Ti-RuO ₂	sol-gel technique; thermal decomposition	5-Fluoro-2-Methoxypyrimidine	61.2	-	5	94.2 cm ² ; 1 L; pH 5.0; flow rate 0.31 L min ⁻¹ ,	100	84.1	-	89
RuO ₂ -PdO-TiO ₂ /Ti	sol-gel; dip-coating	rhodamine B	1.043 × 10 ⁻⁵ M	1.709 × 10 ⁻³ M NaCl	-	0.5 L; 0.02 A	-	71.70 (30 min)	-	97
RuO ₂ -coated Ti	-	rhodamine 6G	200	0.2 M NaCl	16.52	300 mL; 115 °C; pH 2	>99	>90	-	88
Ti/RuO ₂	thermal	oxytetracycline	2.01 × 10 ⁻³	0.80 M	50	2 cm ² ; pH 5.45	100	-	-	98

	decomposition	hydrochloride	M	phosphate buffer			(120 min)			View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/C9EN00411D
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	Co ₃ O ₄ nanowires/carbon cloth	-	triclosan	40	1M KOH	10	6 cm ²	95 (60 min)	-	-
	Ti/IrO ₂	-	norfloxacin	62.6 μM	5× 10 ⁻² M NaCl	6.53	150 mL; 3.06 cm ² ; pH 9.0	100 (20 min)	-	-
	galvanostatic electrodepositio n	Reactive Orange 4	0.32 mM	10 mM H ₂ O ₂ ; 10 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	40	20±0.5 °C; pH 7	100 (40min)	-	-	
	electrodepositio n; calcination	Methylene blue	0.08 mM	10 mM H ₂ O ₂ ; 10 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	40	20±0.5 °C; pH 7±0.2	100 (125min)	-	-	
	electrodepositio n; calcination	Reactive Orange 4	0.08 mM	10 mM H ₂ O ₂ ; 10 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	40	20±0.5 °C; pH 7±0.2	100(35mi n)	-	-	
	electrodepositio n	Crystal violet	50	10 mM H ₂ O ₂ ; 1 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	10	pH 7±0.1	100 (20min)	-	-	
	high- temperature sintering	perfluorooctanoate	0.5 mM	20 mM NaClO ₄	5	50 cm ² ; 250 mL; 25±1 °C	>99.9 (180min)	-	>95 (180min)	
	high- temperature sintering	perfluorooctanesulfo nate	0.1 mM	20 mM NaClO ₄	5	50 cm ² ; 250 mL; 25±1 °C	93.1 ± 3.4 (180min)	-	90.3 ± 1.8 (180min)	

2.4. Carbon-based catalysts

Anode materials derived from carbon have also been extensively employed in the EOD process since these electrodes own excellent chemical stability together with low resistivity.

The widely reported carbon-based catalysts include BDD,^{21, 100, 101} graphite,^{20, 102} activated carbon fiber,¹⁰³ carbon nanotubes,^{104, 105} and granular activated carbon^{26, 106}. The catalytic performance of representative carbon-based anodes for HOPs degradation is presented in Table 4. Among these carbon-based anodes, BDD is the most widely explored one due to its distinct advantages over other anodes, such as high corrosion resistance, favorable electrochemical stability, high OEP (2.8 V/SHE), a wide electrochemical potential window, and a low background current.¹⁰⁷ Numerous studies suggest that many intrinsic properties of BDD anodes and electrochemical experimental conditions have a great impact on the degradation performance of BDD anodes.

BDD films are usually fabricated with the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method, and a substrate is necessary to support the BDD film and improve its stability.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰ The commonly used substrates include Si, Ta, Ti, Nb, and W, but it is difficult to evaluate the stability of

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3 BDD films as a function of substrate type due to the non-uniform preparation parameters
4 among different studies, as well as evident pros and cons of each substrate.¹⁰⁸ Apart from the
5 substrate, another intrinsic property that can heavily influence the electrocatalytic
6 performance of BDD is the sp^3 (diamond)/ sp^2 (graphite) carbon ratio.¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁵ For example, six
7 p-Si BDD anodes with different sp^3/sp^2 carbon ratios (165-323) showed various degradation
8 capacities towards 2, 4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2, 4-D).¹¹² A more speedy and effective
9 dechlorination of 2, 4-D is due to a higher sp^3 carbon content in the BDD anode. However,
10 the sp^3/sp^2 ratio has no effect on the type of detected intermediates. On the other hand, Araújo
11 and co-authors¹¹⁴ found that more aromatic intermediates are formed at the BDD₆ anode
12 (high sp^3 carbon), while less of them are yielded when BDD₁ anode (high sp^2 carbon) was
13 used, in the mineralization of RhB. Their further exploration indicated that a higher content
14 of sp^3 carbon resulted in greater TOC and COD decomposition by electrochemical
15 mineralization with hydroxyl radicals. In contrast, BDD anode with a lower sp^3/sp^2 ratio
16 favoured the electrochemical conversion (formation of many intermediates) because of the
17 strong adsorption of reactants on graphite carbon sites. In other words, sp^2 carbon species
18 behave as “active anode” parts, which mainly follow the direct oxidation process and leads to
19 a lower RhB combustion ratio. More details about this aspect can be found in previous
20 reviews.^{111, 113}

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46 To further upgrade the electrochemical oxidation performance of the planar/bare BDD
47 anodes, the surface modification is highly recommended.^{116, 117} Nanocrystallizing,¹¹⁸
48 chemical etching,¹¹⁹ electrochemical anodizing,^{120, 121} porous structuring,^{122, 123} and
49 hybridizing^{116, 123} are proved as the efficient strategies to achieve better electrochemical
50 performance of BDD electrodes. The general idea of these methods is to improve the active
51 surface area, enhance the intrinsic electrochemical activity and boost the durability of
52 electrodes.¹²³ Urtiaga et al.¹¹⁸ employed an ultrananocrystalline boron doped conductive
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3 diamond electrode that possessed a thin film coating and nanoscale grain size to degrade
4 PFOA (100 mg•L⁻¹). Several key experimental parameters were investigated systematically,
5 including the supporting electrolyte, the applied current density and the hydrodynamic
6 conditions. The results suggested that PFOA degradation and mineralization ratios were
7 higher than 90% within 6 hours, at an applied current density of 200 A•m⁻². Currently, the
8 applications of modified BDD in the mineralization of HOPs are rarely reported, and more
9 attention should be encouraged to make higher use of these great BDD electrodes.
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20 In the EOD process, the supporting electrolyte has a conspicuous influence on the
21 mineralization performance of BDD anodes. Specifically, the degradation kinetics and
22 efficiency, as well as the degradation pathways are sensitive to electrolytes.¹²⁴⁻¹²⁶ The
23 commonly used electrolytes include NaCl, Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃, and NaHCO₃. Among these,
24 NaCl and NaSO₄ are the most attractive ones since they can produce highly effective
25 hydroxyl radicals, such as Cl•, ClO_x•, SO₄•⁻, and S₂O₈²⁻, which are beneficial to the decay of
26 HOPs.^{127, 128} Carneiro et al.¹²⁵ compared the effect of five different electrolytes (Na₂SO₄,
27 NaCl, Na₂CO₃, NaNO₃, Na₃PO₄) on the removal of enrofloxacin, using a BDD anode.
28 Compared to other electrolytes, NaCl led to an appreciably faster degradation of enrofloxacin,
29 and the most initial intermediates were chlorinated. Nevertheless, Na₂SO₄ manifested a better
30 performance than NaCl in the electrooxidation of losartan with a BDD electrode.¹²⁶ Using
31 Na₂SO₄ as supporting electrolyte, the mineralization ratio (67%) was higher than that of the
32 NaCl system (56%). Interestingly, Mena et al.¹²⁷ designed an experiment to clarify the
33 contribution of hydroxyl radicals and electrogenerated sulfur-based radicals (e.g.,
34 peroxodisulfate) in the degradation of three different ionic liquids (ILs) using a BDD anode.
35 Their results suggested that sulfate could improve the efficiency of the electrooxidation
36 process and prevent the formation of polymers.
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3 In addition, many studies underscore the importance of the water matrix on the EOD process
4 with BDD anodes.¹²⁹⁻¹³¹ Naturally, waters contain various organic and inorganic, non-target
5 components. These constituents may interact with the oxidizing radicals and the target
6 pollutants. As a result, the presence of these chemicals can heavily impact the performance of
7 BDD anodes. The frequently investigated components include chloride, sulfates, carbonates,
8 and humic acid. As aforementioned, chloride can introduce different active chlorine species
9 that complement $\bullet\text{OH}$ in the mineralization of HOPs. However, a high concentration of Cl^-
10 can improve Cl_2 evolution and hence, cause a reduction of the anode performance. What's
11 worse, several organochlorinated components, such as chloramines and trihalomethanes, may
12 be generated in the electrocatalysis process, which is detrimental to the degradation process
13 owing to their high toxicity and strong recalcitrance.^{132, 133} In contrast, radicals derived from
14 sulfates act as good mediators and contribute to the indirect electrocatalysis of pollutants.¹²⁹
15 Conversely, the presence of carbonates/bicarbonates can reduce the mineralization efficiency
16 of BDD anodes, due to the fact that carbonates/bicarbonates are $\bullet\text{OH}$ scavengers, namely,
17 carbonates/bicarbonates can consume $\bullet\text{OH}$ and reduce the availability of $\bullet\text{OH}$ to target
18 HOPs.¹³² Humic acid (HA) is an analogue of natural organics typically detected in waters.
19 HA has been recognized as a detrimental component in the degradation of HOPs for several
20 reasons: (1) competition between HA and target HOPs for radicals, (2) HA is a radical
21 scavenger and (3) binding reactions between HA and pollutants.¹³²

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48 Other than BDD, carbon nanotubes, activated carbon, and graphite have also been employed
49 in the decay of HOPs. Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) attract enormous attention due to their one-
50 dimensional conduction pathways, chemical stability, good electrical conductivity as well as
51 high surface area.^{104, 134} Combined with graphene, the CNTs-graphene composite electrode
52 exhibited excellent performance in the mineralization of perfluorinated compounds (PFCs)
53 owing to the synergy of electrochemical degradation and electrosorption (Fig. 4).¹³⁵ Granular
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activated carbon (AC) often acts as a particulate electrode in the electrolysis system, which can enhance the overall active electrode area, conductivity, and mass transfer and improve the electrochemical degradation kinetics and COD removal ratio.¹³⁶ Pedersen et al.¹³⁷ explored the synergy of AC adsorption and electrochemical degradation in the mineralization of 2-methyl-4-chlorophenoxy acetic acid (MCPA) and 2-methyl-4-chlorophenoxy propionic acid (MCPP). Their results indicated that synergies of 121-126% were found for MCPA and MCPP at w/w AC: the organic ratio of 5:1, with an electric field strength of $375 \text{ V}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$. Recently, graphite has been employed as an anode for the mineralization of atrazine for the first time.²⁰ The oxygen-containing functional groups produced by the positively polarized graphite electrode played a catalytic role. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis verified the presence of oxygen-containing functional groups (C-OH, COOH, and C=O) on the graphite anode surface during the anodic oxidation (water oxidation) process. Surprisingly, no indicator for the production of abundant hydroxyl radicals at graphite electrodes was found, and the atrazine was virtually degraded by the chemisorbed reactive oxygen.

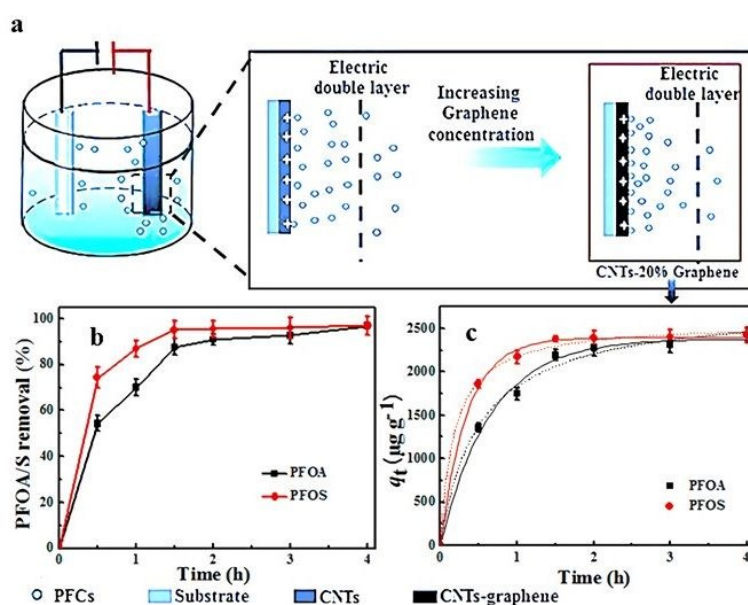


Fig.4 (a) A schematic illustration of the degradation process; the removal ratios (b) and electrodesorption kinetics (c) of PFOA and PFOS on CNTs-

20% graphene composite electrode fitted by pseudo-first-order equation (- -) and pseudo-second-order equation (.....). Reproduced with permission from ref. 135, Copyright 2017, Elsevier.

Table 4 Summary of representative HOPs electrooxidative dehalogenation using carbon-based anodes in recent years.

Anode	HOPs	$C_{\text{HOP}} / \text{mg L}^{-1}$	electrolyte	current density/ mA cm^{-2}	Other parameters	HOP Removal rate/%	COD Removal rate/%	TOC Removal rate/%	Ref.
BDD	norfloxacin	100	$2 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2SO_4	83	250 cm^3	92 (30min)	44 (30min)	-	138
graphite	atrazine	10	0.05 M NaCl	10	300 mL; pH 6.8; $25 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	100 (60min)	-	-	20
BDD (B/C 500 ppm)	5-fluorouracil	50	$6 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2SO_4	16	200 mL; pH 6.0; $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	100 (6h)	89 (6h)	69 (6h)	21
BDD (10000 ppm)	Helectine F ($\text{C}_{23}\text{H}_{12}\text{Cl}_2\text{N}_6\text{Na}_3\text{O}_{10}\text{S}_3$)	50	$6 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2SO_4	8.8	flow reactor; 2.3 cm^2 ; 0.1 L; pH 3.0; 0.6 L h^{-1}	94.9	86.3	-	139
BDD (10000 ppm)	Helectine D ($\text{C}_{29}\text{H}_{16}\text{Cl}_1\text{N}_7\text{Na}_4\text{O}_{13}\text{S}_4$)	50	$6 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2SO_4	8.8	flow reactor; 2.3 cm^2 ; 0.1 L; pH 3.0; 0.6 L h^{-1}	94.8	95.7	-	139
BDD	4-chlorophenol	500	0.1 M Na_2SO_4	400	400 mL; pH 6.5; $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	96 (150min)	-	83 (150min)	101
NTs/AG/ITO	2-chlorophenol	20	-	-	100 mL; pH 2; bias voltage 4 V	98 (180min)	-	-	104
BDD (1000 ppm)	thiamethoxam	2	0.1 M Na_2SO_4	16	12.5 cm^2 ; 150 mL	100 (20min)	-	91 (120min)	132
BDD (B/C 500 ppm)	ciprofloxacin	$69 \text{ } \mu\text{M}$	0.1 M K_2SO_4	7.24	flow reactor; 69 cm^2 ; 1 L; pH 3.0; 360 L h^{-1} ; $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	100 (180min)	-	-	130
MCD BDD	perfluorooctanoic acid	0.24 mM	-	5	70 cm^2 ; $293 \pm 2 \text{ K}$; 1 L	100(4h)	-	89(4h)	140
BDD	lindane	0.42	50 mM Na_2SO_4	400	230 mL; 24 cm^2 ; pH 7.0; $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	100 (4h)	-	90 (4h)	129
BDD (B/C 100 ppm)	enrofloxacin	100	0.1 M NaCl	10	filter-press flow cell; 23.75 cm^2 ; 1 L; pH 3.0; 420 L h^{-1}	100 (1h)	-	-	125
BDD	losartan	0.377mM	50 mM Na_2SO_4	10	100 mL; 24 cm^2 ; pH 7.0; $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	100 (180min)	-	71 (180min)	126
BDD	poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances	1.652	-	50	70 cm^2 ; 2 L; 3 L min^{-1} ; flow-by cell	99.7 (10h)	-	>90 (10h)	141
NT sponges	perfluorooctanoic acid	0.1	10 mM Na_2SO_4	-	200 mL; 1 cm^2 ; $25 \pm 1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; bias voltage 4 V	>90 (180min)	-	-	142
BDD	diquat dibromide	100	-	0.5	300 mL; 100 cm^2 ; pH 6.5; $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; 500 mL min^{-1}	99.17 (5h)	57.64 (5h)	71.31 (5h)	143

Apart from electrochemical activity, the stability of electrocatalysts is another key property in practice. The deactivation of anodes is a common issue in the electrochemical oxidation process, especially the PbO_2 and SnO_2 based catalysts.^{33, 37, 39, 68, 70, 78, 90, 144} There are many factors responsible for the anodic deactivation, such as mechanical damages, detachment,

consumption/dissolution, and passivation, as well as operating conditions (e.g., temperature, applied current), etc.^{70, 145, 146}

To alleviate the deactivation and prolong the lifetime of catalysts, the efficient strategies (e.g., doping, introducing interlayer) which focus on optimizing the catalyst configuration have exhibited great potentials.⁷⁸ Recently, Yu et al.³³ investigated the influence of Ce doping and the RuO₂-SnO₂-TiO₂ interlayer on the stability of the PbO₂ electrode through the accelerated life tests. Three samples, namely PbO₂-0 (unmodified PbO₂/Ti), PbO₂-1(Ti/ RuO₂-SnO₂-TiO₂/PbO₂), and PbO₂-3 (Ti/RuO₂-SnO₂-TiO₂/PbO₂-CeO₂, Ce/Pb = 0.01), exhibited completely different anti-deactivation abilities. The service lifetime of PbO₂-3 was 215 h, which was 0.7 times longer than that of PbO₂-1(125 h) and 9.2 times longer than that of PbO₂-0 (21 h). Consequently, both Ce doping and the existence of the RuO₂-SnO₂-TiO₂ interlayer could notably improve the catalysts' durability. Other than the interlayer, Ce doping could conduce the formation of compact surface layer, which also regulated the durability. The compact surface could effectively hinder the penetration of electrolytes into the Ti substrate and decrease the inner mechanical stress on PbO₂, thus improving the durability. Many similar reports also emphasise the role of doping and interlayer in the construction of robust anodes.^{144, 147-149}

2.5. Electrooxidative dehalogenation mechanisms

The successful cleavage of C-X bonds through electrochemical oxidation by catalysts mainly derives from reactive species and/or electrons. Hence, the EOD process can be roughly divided into two categories, namely, direct anodic oxidation and indirect oxidation. It is worth noting that many degradation processes involve both pathways,^{38, 65, 150} and the direct oxidation reaction is a vital rate-limiting step for the degradation of pollutants that are unreactive with reactive oxygen species (e.g., fluorinated compounds).¹⁰⁸

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2
3 The direct anodic oxidation process occurs directly on the surface of anodes and involves
4 direct electrons transfer between the HOPs and anode surface. Adsorption of organics onto
5 anode surfaces is an important step in this process as it largely determines the degradation
6 rate.¹⁵¹ Another important factor is the applied potential, and the wanted potential should be
7 higher than that of the H₂O oxidation reaction. Otherwise, the applied electrode is susceptible
8 to surface poisoning and lead to a decreased degradation efficiency.¹⁵² Although the direct
9 anodic oxidation generally result in very poor degradation performance,¹⁵³ there are a few
10 studies that report favorable HOPs abatement results.^{154, 155}

11
12 The indirect oxidation process is based on the reactive species (e.g., •OH, H₂O₂, O₃, •Cl, Cl₂,
13 ClO⁻, SO₄^{•-}, S₂O₈²⁻) that produced on the surface of anodes. Among these reactive species,
14 •OH is almost a defining requirement of the indirect oxidation process for its high redox
15 potential (2.80 V/SHE). In most circumstances, indirect electrooxidation degradation of
16 HOPs can be explained with •OH. However, the degradation pathway depends heavily on the
17 adsorption status of •OH on anode surfaces. On one hand, the chemisorbed •OH on active
18 anodes (e.g., Pt, RuO₂, IrO₂) can react drastically with anodes and form higher oxides or
19 superoxides. This strong interaction between anodes and •OH decreases the catalytic
20 efficiency of reactive species and lead to the partial transformation of HOPs, which called
21 electrochemical conversion. On the other hand, the physisorbed •OH on inactive anodes (e.g.,
22 BDD, doped-SnO₂, PbO₂) presents a weak interaction with inactive anodes and can result in
23 complete electrochemical degradation, which named electrochemical combustion. The
24 classification of anodes mainly depends on the •OH production capacity, but not all
25 electrodes can be clearly divided into the mentioned two types and some anodes manifest
26 characteristics of both types.¹⁰⁸ To present the mentioned degradation process more
27 intuitively, schemes based on the model proposed by Comninellis¹⁵⁶ are displayed in Fig.5.

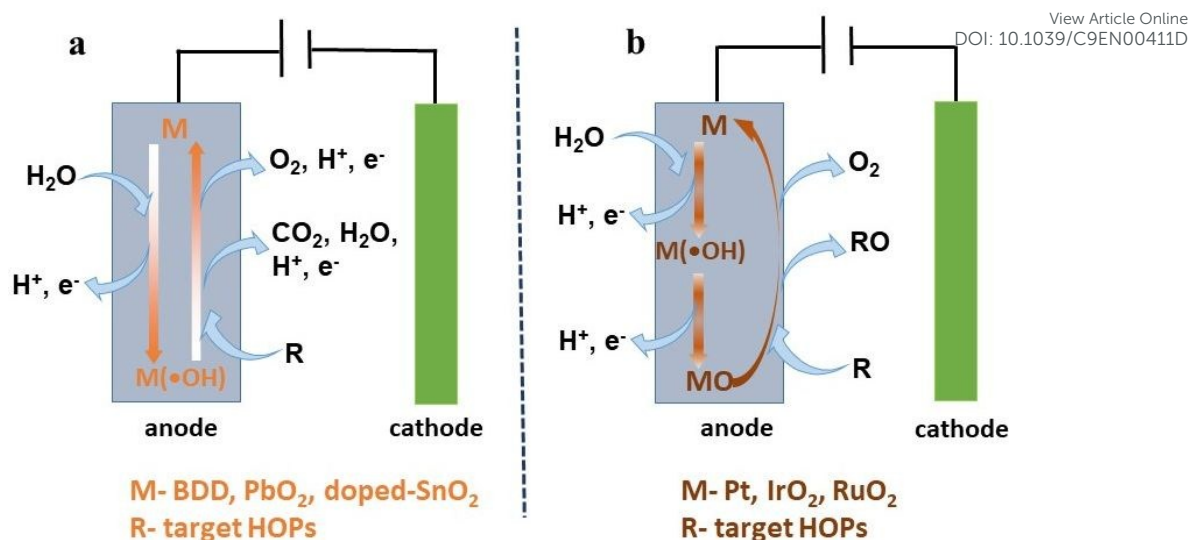


Fig.5 Mechanistic scheme of oxidative degradation of HOPs on inactive anodes (a) and on active anodes (b).

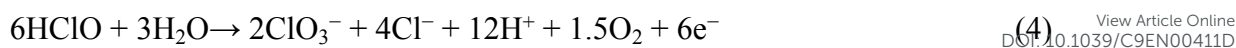
Other radicals such as chlorine- and sulfur-based species also play important roles in the mineralization of HOPs. Active chlorine species generated from solution begins with the direct oxidation of chloride ions on anode surface via Eq. (1), and the generated chlorine diffuses away from the electrode surface and yields Cl⁻ and HClO through disproportionation (Eq. (2)).



The HClO in acid-base is in equilibrium with ClO⁻ with pK_a of 7.55 (Eq. (3)).¹⁵⁷



It should be pointed out that the existence of these oxidative species highly depends on pH value (pH < 3, Cl₂; pH = 3-8, HClO; pH > 8, ClO⁻). As a result, the oxidation of pollutants is more efficient in acidic media as the standard redox potentials of HClO (1.49 V/SHE) and Cl₂ (1.36 V/SHE) are higher than that of ClO⁻ (0.89 V/SHE).¹³³ Furthermore, the conversion of HClO to ClO₃⁻ (Eq. (4)) can interfere the degradation performance as ClO₃⁻ is less active in the oxidation reaction.¹⁵⁸

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Likewise, chloride species can react with radicals and form perchlorates by Eqs. (5)- (8).



Actually, the evolution of ClO_4^- is an undesirable access because of its low oxidation capacity and serious hazardousness for human health.¹³³ Furthermore, those organochlorinated species formed are also detrimental to the mineralization process for their strong persistence and high toxicity.¹⁰⁸

$\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ with a high redox potential (2.01 V/SHE) is another often mentioned radical because Na_2SO_4 is the most widely used electrolyte. The generation of $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ is presented with Eq. (9).¹⁵⁹ This radical has a strong oxidation potential and can react with organic pollutants, which results in a desirable degradation. Interestingly, the potential of persulfate can be greatly enhanced with different activation methods,¹⁶⁰ and the related studies are reviewed by Matzek and Carter.¹⁶¹ The $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ is another sulfur-based radical, which also shows a high redox potential (2.5-3.1V/SHE). The formation and transformation of sulfate radicals are presented as Eqs.(10)- (12).¹⁶⁰ Previous reports indicated that both persulfate radicals and sulfate radicals could facilitate the mineralization of organic pollutants due to their high oxidation ability.^{160, 162, 163}



Other radicals (e.g., H₂O₂ and O₃) are also quite important complements to •OH in the FOD process. More information can be found in the previous reviews.^{133, 164}

It is necessary to place emphasis on the mineralization pathway of perfluorinated compounds (PFCs), due to the high persistence of C-F and the terrible toxicity of PFCs. In addition, it is suggested that the mineralization of PFCs cannot be solely explained by radicals (e.g., •OH), which is quite different from the degradation process of normal HOPs. Niu et al.¹⁶⁵ found that the degradation of PFCAs began with a direct anodic oxidation process (Eq. (13)), and the formed radicals (e.g., C_nF_{2n+1}•) can react with •OH or other radicals. With a series of reactions (intramolecular rearrangement and hydrolysis), PFCAs can be totally mineralized by repeating the CF₂-unzipping cycle, and the related reaction is presented in Eqs. (14)-(17). However, Li and co-authors suggested that the mineralization of PFOA (e.g., C₇F₁₅COOH) was primarily driven by •OH radicals (Eq. (18)) in an MW-Fenton-like process.¹⁶⁶ Indeed, mechanisms related to different PFCs and different degradation systems may vary significantly. More detailed information can be referred to previous review works,^{28, 167} and a classical PFCs degradation process is presented in Fig. 6.²⁸



Therefore, due to the complexity of HOPs structure, radical species, and water matrix, the oxidation degradation pathway should be explored on a case-by-case basis with the assistance of advanced analysis methods.

silver cathode occurs at a much less negative potential.¹⁷¹ Several critical examples involve the ERD process with Ag-based cathodes are summarised in Table 5.

Table 5 Summary of representative HOPs electroreductive dehalogenation using Ag-based cathodes.

electrode	electrolyte	HOPs	Main Products/ Results	Ref.
Ag (0.071 cm ²)	DMF [Ⓛ] + 0.05 M TMAP [Ⓜ]	2-bromo-5-chlorothiophene (1) 3-bromo-2-chlorothiophene (2) 2,5-dibromothiophene (3)	2-Chlorothiophene (1) 2-Chlorothiophene (2) 2-bromothiophene (3)	171
Etched Ag-PVP-Ni	0.05 M NaOH	50 ppm Alachlor TM	Conversion rate 93 ± 3%; deschloroalachlor 69 ± 4%; Cl ⁻ 77 ± 2%	169
Ag-ZSM-5/SS	0.1 M TEAP-MeCN	2.6 mM PhCH ₂ Cl	yield of electrocarboxylation 61% 1-chlorohexane 63%, n-hexane 18% 6-chloro-1-hexene 10% (1); 1-chlorohexane 43%, 6-chloro-1-hexene 23%, 1,12-dichlorododecane 22% (2)	172
Ag (0.071 cm ²)	DMF + 0.050 M TBABF ₄ [Ⓜ]	10 mM 1-bromo-6-chlorohexane (1) 10 mM 1-chloro-6-iodohexane (2)	1-chlorohexane 43%, 6-chloro-1-hexene 23%, 1,12-dichlorododecane 22% (2)	173
roughened Ag	0.5 M NaClO ₄ (anolyte)+0.5 M NaClO ₄ (catolyte)	5 mM 3,4,5,6-Tetrachloropicolinic Acid(TeCP) (pH = 7.0)	3,5,6-T 83.1%, TeCP 8.4%, 3,6-D 4.3%	174
roughened Ag	0.5 M HClO ₄ (anolyte)+0.5 M NaClO ₄ (catholyte)	5 mM TeCP (pH = 4.0)	TeCP 60.0%, 3,5,6-T 35.0%, 3,5-D 4.3%	174
roughened Ag mesh	0.5 M NaOH	3.33 mM 3,5,6-trichloropicolinic acid (3,5,6-T)	3,5,6-T 61%, 3,6-D 38%, 3,5-D 4.3%	175
Ag	DMF + 0.05 M TMAP	5 mM 1,2-dibromohexane (1) 10 mM 1,6-dibromohexane (2)	1-hexene 107% (1); 1-hexene 22%, n-hexane 39%, 1,5-hexadiene 18%, 5-hexen-1-ol 7% (2)	176

Ⓛ dimethylformamide; Ⓜ tetramethylammonium perchlorate; Ⓜ tetra-n-butylammonium tetrafluoroborate

Nanosizing is an effective strategy to enhance the performance of Ag cathodes as well as to reduce the consumption of this precious metal.^{172, 177} Ag nanoparticles present distinctive capabilities that are different from the bulk material because of their decreased dimensions and improved surface to volume ratios.¹⁷⁸ For instance, Sui and co-workers¹⁷² fabricated an Ag-ZSM-5/SS zeolite modified electrode with a facile one-step method, and Ag nanoparticles (average diameter of 9 nm) was formed in-situ with ZSM-5 films grown on the stainless steel. The addition of well-dispersed Ag nanoparticles highly elevated the conductivity of the zeolite film, with a low resistance of 4 mΩ•sq⁻¹. Further study suggested that the electrochemically active surface areas played a key role in determining the catalytic performance. Compared to the Ag bulk electrode, ZSM-5 provided more sites for dispersing and stabilizing Ag nanoparticles and promoted Ag nanoparticles' catalytic activity. As a result, The Ag-ZSM-5/SS displayed marvelous electrocatalytic activities towards electrocarboxylation of PhCH₂Cl, with the electrocarboxylation yield of 61% was obtained at

-1.1 V. However, the application of Ag bulk electrode showed a lower yield of 40% at a more negative potential of -1.5 V. Brzózka et al.¹⁷⁸ systematically designed three Ag electrodes, namely, silver nanohemisphere (Ag-NHS) electrode, nanowire (Ag-NW) array electrode and silver rod (Ag-bulk) electrode, and the detailed synthesis routes of Ag-NHS electrode and Ag-NW electrode are presented in Fig. 7 a. The as-prepared two nanomaterials exhibited quite different morphologies and diameters. Ag-NHSs possessed an average diameter of 126nm and height of 126nm, while the diameter and length of Ag-NWs were 90nm and 3.5 μm (Fig. 7 b-d). The smaller size of Ag-NWs could provide more active sites for the electrochemical reaction. Compared with Ag-bulk electrode, both Ag-NHS and Ag-NW manifested better electrochemical performance and stability in the degradation of CHCl_3 . Furthermore, the Ag-NW showed about 200 mV less over potential than Ag-bulk electrode, and that of Ag-NHS was about 100 mV.

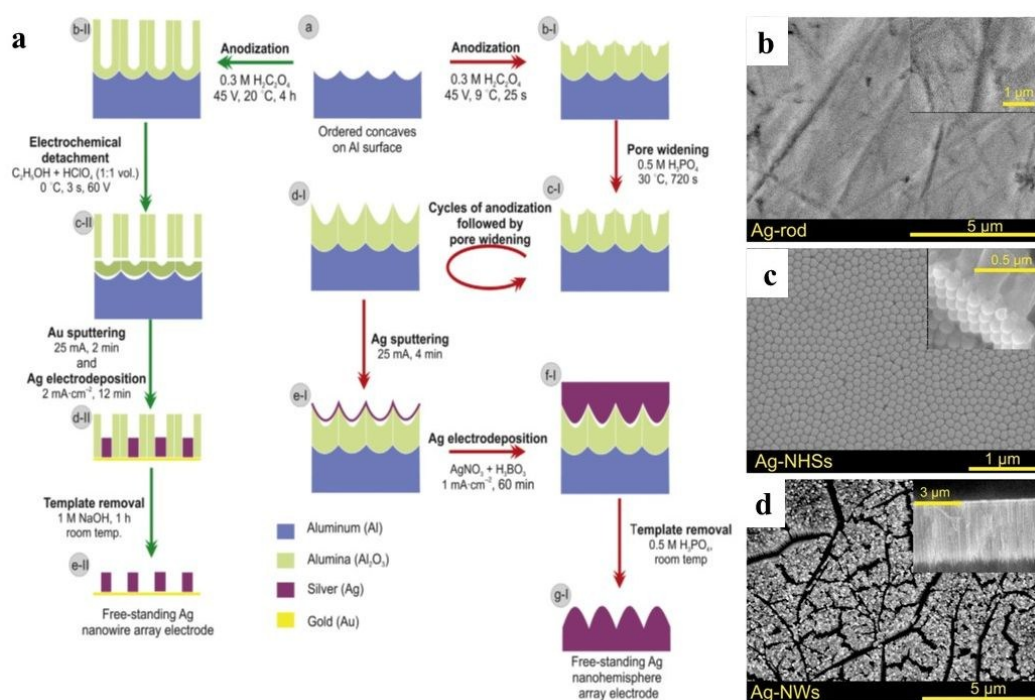


Fig.7 Schematic representation of synthesis of the free-standing Ag nanohemisphere and Ag nanowire array electrodes (a); Top-view SEM images of Ag electrodes: Ag rod (Ag-bulk) after mechanical polishing (b); Ag nanohemisphere array electrode (Ag-NHSs) after

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2
3 silver electrodeposition (c); Ag nanowire array electrode (Ag-NWs) after silver
4 electrodeposition (d). Reproduced with permission from ref. 178, Copyright 2017, Elsevier.
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9 Another encouraging way to boost the electrocatalytic activity of Ag cathodes is based on
10 changing Ag bulk to multi-metallic electrodes.^{179, 180} Vanrenterghem et al.¹⁷⁹ prepared
11 bimetallic Ag-Ni glassy carbon supported cathodes (Ag-Ni/GC) with a two-step procedure,
12 and the designed Ag-Ni/GC electrodes were compared with Ag/Ni foam electrodes for the
13 reduction of benzyl bromide. Their results suggested that pretreatment such as cathodising in
14 alkali and scanning in acid had an obvious effect on the surface composition of Ag-Ni/GC
15 cathodes, with the cathodising and scanning processes leading to a higher atomic ratio of Ag-
16 Ni as 1/13 and 1/4 respectively in comparison with the 1/17 for the non-treated one. Further
17 study indicated that Ag-Ni/GC electrode cathodised in alkali was the best one for the
18 degradation of benzyl bromide, and the yield of the sole product toluene (49 mol%) was
19 higher than that of bulk Ag cathode (37 mol%). Hence, the presence of Ni has a beneficial
20 influence on the electrocatalytic capacity of Ag.
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Table 5 also suggests that the degradation performance of Ag-based cathodes relies heavily
on HOP structures, apart from the intrinsic properties of electrodes. In particular, the
molecular structures of HOPs have a significant impact on the dissociative electron transfer
(DET) process in the dehalogenation reaction. For example, electroreduction of a series of
aliphatic and aromatic bromides on the silver cathode has been studied by cyclic voltammetry
in 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate ([BMIm]BF₄).¹⁷⁰ In the case of aromatic
bromides, the electron transfer process supplies a radical anion intermediate that further
dissociates to R• and Br⁻, and this reaction called a stepwise mechanism. It is worth noting
that the electrocatalytic activity for aromatic bromides relies highly on the molecular
structure of RBr, decreasing with growing ability of the RBr to delocalize the negative charge
in the radical anion intermediate. However, for the reduction of different aliphatic bromides,

Ag always displays a great electrocatalytic activity, which has been confirmed by several studies.¹⁸¹⁻¹⁸³

3.2. Pd-based catalysts

Noble metal catalysts (e.g., Pd, Ru, Rh, Pt) that show great electrocatalytic activities have also been applied to the electrochemical dehalogenation of HOPs. Among these, Pd is the most frequently used cathode as it possesses an extraordinary ability to intercalate hydrogen within its lattice.¹⁸⁴ Moreover, the formed active chemical species Pd-H normally acts as the source of atomic hydrogen (H^{*}).^{1, 185} Quite different from the dissociative electron transfer (DET) process with Ag-based catalysts, electrocatalytic hydrodehalogenation (ECH) process using atomic hydrogen is the main HOPs degradation pathway with Pd-based electrodes. Therefore, enormous efforts have been devoted to the development of high-performance Pd-based cathodes that can produce sufficient H^{*} and have a long lifetime. A summary of representative HOPs electroreductive dehalogenation studies with Pd-based cathodes is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Summary of representative HOPs electroreductive dehalogenation using Pd-based cathodes in recent years.

Cathode	Preparation methods	HOPs	C _{HOP} / mg L ⁻¹	Electrolyte	Other parameters	HOP Removal rate/%	Ref.
TiC-Pd/Ni	electroless deposition	2,4-dichlorobenzoic acid	0.2 mM	10 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	10 mA; 80 mL (catholyte), 40 mL (anolyte); pH 4; 298 ± 0.3 K	99.8 (90min)	18
Pd/PANI/Ni	two-step galvanostatic electropolymerization method	2,4-dichlorophenol	0.5 mM	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	5 mA; 50 mL (catholyte), 50 mL (anolyte); 40 °C	89.1 (120min)	186
Pd/MnO ₂ /Ni	electrodeposition	2,4-dichlorobenzoic acid	0.2 mM	10 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	10 mA; 80 mL (catholyte), 40 mL (anolyte); 30 ± 1 °C; pH 4	100 (120min)	187
Pd/CNTs	impregnation method	4-chlorophenol	-	-	H ₂ 10 mL min ⁻¹ ; 313 K	90 (50min)	188
Pd/PANI-NiHCF-CNT/Ti	electrodeposition	4-chlorophenol	100	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄	1 mA cm ⁻² ; 100 mL (catholyte), 100 mL (anolyte); 16cm ²	98.59 (120min)	189
EDPd/CNx/Ni	electrodeposition	3,6-dichloropicolinic acid	0.226 mM	34.2 mM NaCl	2.5 mA cm ⁻² ; 25 °C; 72 mL (catholyte), 36 mL (anolyte)	97.8(4h)	190
Ni/Pd	electrodeposition	Para-	25	50 mM	10 mA cm ⁻² ; pH	99	191

		chloronitrobenzene		Na ₂ SO ₄	7; 25 °C; 50 mL	(30min)	View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/C9EN00411D
Pd/CNTs- nafion film/Ti	dip-coating method; electroplating	2,3,5- trichlorophenol	100	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	5 mA; pH 2.3; 25 °C; 50 mL (catholyte), 50 mL (anolyte)	100 (100min)	192
PE-Pd/Ni	pulsed electrodeposition	2,4- dichlorophenoxyacet ic acid	0.226 mM	34.2 mM NaCl	1.5 mA cm ⁻² ; 25 °C; 72 mL (catholyte), 36 mL (anolyte)	98 (3h)	193
1Rh-0.5Pd/Ni	electrodeposition	4-fluorophenol	0.1 mM	0.1 M H ₂ SO ₄ (anolyte); 20 mM aqueous phosphate buffer(catholyte)	H ₂ 10 mL min ⁻¹ ; 30 °C; 40 mL (catholyte), 40 mL (anolyte); pH 3	100 (45min)	194
Pd- Fe/graphene Pd ₅₈ Ni ₄₂ (SDB S)/PPy/Ti	photo-induced reduction	4-bromophenol	100	0.03 M Na ₂ SO ₄	150 mL; 16 cm ² ; 25 mA cm ⁻² ; pH 7	100 (60min)	195
	electrodeposition	pentachlorophenol	10	0.05 M Na ₂ SO ₄	5 mA; pH 2	100 (90min)	196
Pd-In/Al ₂ O ₃	coprecipitation	trichloroacetic acid	0.5	2 mM Na ₂ SO ₄	50 mL (catholyte), 50 mL (anolyte); 0.9 mA cm ⁻² ; pH 7	94 (30min)	197

The nature of Pd cathode materials plays a critical role in the dehalogenation process, as well as some key parameters, including fabrication methods, interlayers, and substrates. Among these, the fabrication methods and interlayers are emphasized in this work, as well as the coupling strategy. The fabrication method plays a vital role in determining the catalytic performance of electrodes. He and co-workers¹⁹³ fabricated Pd-based electrodes by pulsed electrodeposition (PE-Pd/foam-Ni) and traditional chemical deposition (CD-Pd/foam-Ni). Compared with the latter one, PE-Pd/foam-Ni possesses upgraded dechlorination efficiency and current efficiency for the degradation of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2, 4-D). The reason was that PE-Pd/foam-Ni possessed a smaller particle size, a higher percentage of exposed (111) facets together with a higher number of edge/ corner sites than that of CD-Pd/foam-Ni. These characteristics favored the production and stabilization of chemisorbed H*. Furthermore, to exploit the most intrinsic properties of Pd catalysts, a robust interlayer with a high specific surface area is often required.^{189, 190} For instance, Li et al.¹⁸⁶ found that the conductive polymer polyaniline (PANI) in the Pd/PANI/Ni electrode existed in the form of needle-shaped, and Pd⁰ clusters dispersed quite well in the network on PANI. The Pd/PANI/Ni electrode owned a higher specific surface area (6.8 m²g⁻¹) than Pd/Ni electrode, which resulted in a better removal efficiency for 2,4-dichlorophenol than the latter one (89.1% vs. 71.1%). Moreover, Luo and coworkers¹⁸⁷ examined the role of MnO₂ in a Pd/MnO₂/Ni

foam electrode, and they found that the introduction of MnO_2 could drastically decrease the consumption of Pd by four times when achieved complete removal of 2,4-dichlorobenzoic acid (Fig. 8 a). Surprisingly, MnO_2 could promote the water dissociation and provide more atomic H^* for dechlorination, which is the main reason for the electrochemical dehalogenation improvement of Pd/ MnO_2 /Ni foam electrode (Fig. 8 b). Coupling with other metal(s) is another way to decrease the dosage of Pd and boost its electrocatalytic properties. The synergistic effect of metals can upgrade the activity and selectivity of catalysts and relieve catalyst aging and loss.^{197, 198} For example, Wu and co-workers¹⁹⁸ developed a palladium-nickel/multi-walled carbon nanotubes/graphite felt electrode (Pd-Ni/MWCNTs/GF) for the electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination of 4-chlorophenol (4-CP). Experimental results suggested that the interaction between Pd and Ni was beneficial for Pd reinforcement, and thus improving the stability of electrodes. Compared to those cathodes with single-metal Pd, Pd-Ni/ MWCNTs/GF demonstrated better stability and higher reactivity for the degradation process, with complete removal of 4-CP being achieved in 30 min.

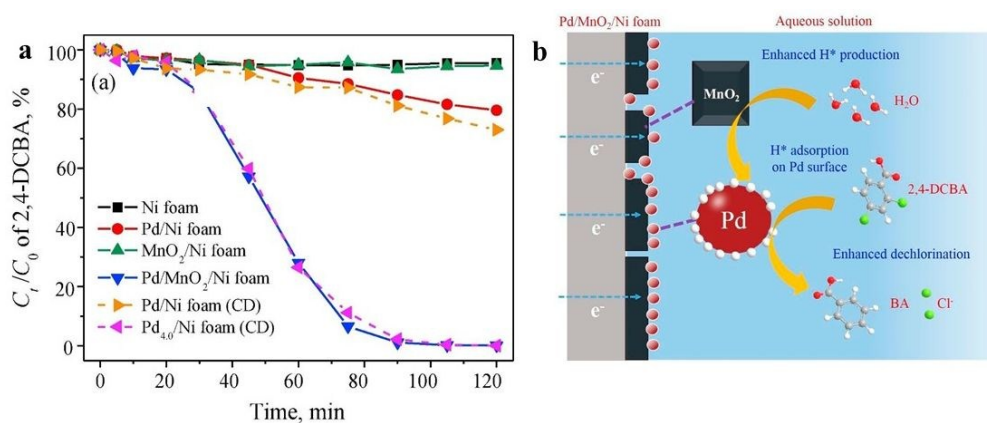


Fig.8 The removal efficiency of 2,4-DCBA by six different electrodes (a); schematic of 2,4-DCBA dechlorination process by the Pd/ MnO_2 /Ni foam electrode (b). Reproduced with permission from ref. 187, Copyright 2018, Elsevier.

Experimental parameters (e.g., pH value, applied current, electrolyte) also impact the performance of cathodes heavily.^{185, 198, 199} Take the cathode potential as an example, Jiang et

al.¹⁹⁹ found that the applied potential had a great influence on the evolution of three different hydrogen species, namely adsorbed atomic hydrogen (H^*_{ads}), absorbed atomic hydrogen (H^*_{abs}), and molecular hydrogen (H_2). Combined with the degradation efficiency and kinetics of 2,4-Dichlorophenol (Fig. 9), they confirmed that H^*_{ads} is the active species, H^*_{abs} is inert, while H_2 bubbles are detrimental to the electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination reaction. Consequently, to achieve a desired degradation result, a moderate potential is needed to produce sufficient H^*_{ads} and limit the negative effect of H_2 .

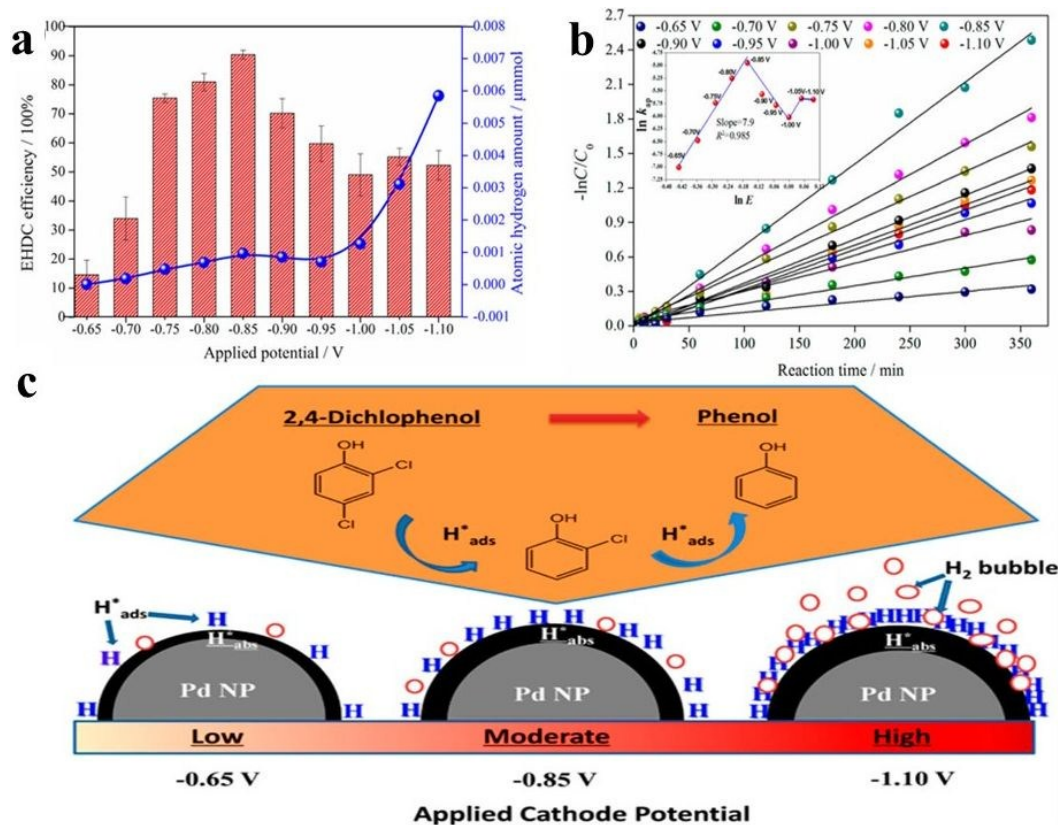


Fig.9 The correlation of EHDC efficiency (denoted as $(C-C_0)/C_0 \times 100\%$) and H^*_{ads} evolution on C-Pd under different cathode potentials from -0.65 to -1.10 V (a); pseudo-first-order representation of the EHDC reaction of 2,4-DCP versus time under different cathode potentials (The inset is the relationship between $\ln k_{ap}$ and $\ln E$) (b); schematic illustration of the potential-dependent 2,4-DCP EHDC mechanism (c). Reproduced with permission from ref. 199, Copyright 2015, American Chemical Society.

3.3. Metal complex-based catalysts

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In recent years, electrogenerated low-valent metal complexes, known as mediator catalysts, have attracted immense attention to the catalytic reduction of HOPs. These metal complexes are generated at a more positive potential than that needed for the direct breakage of C-X bonds. Surprisingly, these electrogenerated catalysts possess great catalytic activities, preparative accessibility, as well as structural flexibility.^{2, 200} To date, nickel together with cobalt species are the most prominent catalysts for the reduction of HOPs, and Table 7 summarises the catalytic performance of the representative metal complexes.

Nickel(I) salen, usually electrogenerated at glass carbon cathodes in either acetonitrile or dimethylformamide, has presented an excellent catalytic activity towards the reduction of different HOPs, including 1,6-dihaloalkanes, 1-bromodecane, 1-iododecane, α,ω -dihaloalkanes, 6-bromo-1-hexene, haloalkynes, cyclohexyl bromide, and cyclohexyl iodide, etc.^{201, 202} For example, Wagoner and co-workers²⁰³ examined the catalytic reduction of 1,2,5,6,9,10-hexabromocyclododecane (HBCD) with nickel(I) salen in dimethylformamide. The bulk electrolysis of less than 20.0 mM HBCD underwent in a six-electron process, which resulted in the conversion of the initial pollutant to 1,5,9-cyclododecatriene (88-95%), with small amounts of cyclododeca-1, 5-dien-9-yne (3-4%). In addition, it is worth noting that nickel (I) salen-catalyzed reduction of alkyl halides often leads to alkylation of one or both imino (C=N) bonds, which seriously impedes the dehalogenation process.^{2, 202} Under such circumstance, structurally modified nickel(I) salen species have exhibited a better performance, mainly due to they possess methyl protecting group on imino (C=N) bonds.^{201,}

²⁰⁴

Cobalt complexes such as cobalt(I) alamin (vitamin B₁₂), cobalt(I) salen, cobalt(I) polypyridyl, and cobalt (I) phthalocyanine complexes have displayed great catalytic

performance toward the reduction of organohalides.^{2, 30} Among these complexes, vitamin B₁₂ that consists of a cobalt atom coordinated by four nitrogen atoms of the corrin ring. Its derivatives has been widely investigated for its extensive application in synthesis, bioremediation, biocatalysis, as well as electrocatalysis, especially in the electrocatalytic reduction process of organic halides.²⁰⁵⁻²⁰⁷ As reported, vitamin B₁₂ species are able to reduce arenes, ethanes, ethylenes, higher alkanes, chlorinated methanes, etc.^{30, 206, 207} More in-depth information related to the vitamin B₁₂ dehalogenation performance can be referred to a recent review.²⁰⁶ Similar to nickel(I) salen, cobalt(I) salen is another extensively discussed catalyst in the scission of C-X bonds. In a typical study, 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2,2-trifluoroethane (CFC-113a) was reduced by electrogenerated cobalt(I) salen at a glassy carbon cathode. Surprisingly, CFC-113a (10.0 mM) has been successfully converted, with the main product distribution of 2,2-dichloro-1,1,1-trifluoroethane (52%), 2-chloro-1,1,1-trifluoroethane and 2-chloro-1,1-difluoroethene (7%), and 1,1-difluoroethene (1%). In addition, the salen ligand of cobalt(I) salen was modified through the addition of a CF₃CCl₂- or CF₃CHCl- moiety to the C=N bond in the catalytic reduction process.²⁰⁸

Table 7 Summary of representative HOPs electroreductive dehalogenation using metal complex cathodes.

Metal complex	electrolyte	HOPs	Main Products	Ref.
1.0 mM nickel(I) salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	10.0 mM 1,2,5,6,9,10-hexabromocyclododecane	isomers of 1,5,9-cyclododecatriene (95%), isomers of cyclododeca-1,5-dien-9-yne (3%) Cyclohexane (61%), cyclohexene (40%), bicyclohexyl (5%) (1);	203
2.0 mM nickel(I) salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	2.0 mM cyclohexyl bromide (1) 2.0 mM cyclohexyl iodide (2)	Cyclohexane (65%), cyclohexene (15%), bicyclohexyl (7%) (2)	202
2.0 mM cobalt(I) salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	2.0 mM cyclohexyl iodide	Cyclohexane (63%), cyclohexene (22%), bicyclohexyl (12%)	202
2.0 mM Cobalt(I) Salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	0.202 mM 1,1,1-Trichloro-2,2,2-trifluoroethane	2,2-dichloro-1,1,1-trifluoroethane (52%), 2-chloro-1,1,1-trifluoroethane + 2-chloro-1,1-difluoroethene (7%), 1,1-difluoroethene (1%)	208
1.0 mM structurally modified nickel(I) salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	10.0 mM 1-bromodecane (1) 10.0 mM 1-iododecane (2)	n-eicosane (70%), n-decane (8%), 1-decene (4%), N,N-dimethylundecanamide (4%) (1); n-eicosane (63%), n-decane (12%), 1-decene (3%), N,N-dimethylundecanamide (5%) (2)	201
2.0 mM Ni(II) Salen	DMF + 0.05 M TBABF ₄	20 mM benzyl bromide (1) 20 mM 1-bromomethylnaphthalene (2)	toluene (48%), toluene (19%), benzyl ether (18%) (1); 1-methylnaphthalene (52%), 1,2-bis(1-naphthyl)ethane (30%), bis(1-naphthylmethyl) ether (2)	209
2.0 mM Ni(II) Salen	DMF + 0.05 M TBABF ₄	5.0 mM 4,4'-(2,2-dichloroethene-1,1-diyl)bis(chlorobenzene)	1,1-Diphenylethene (14%), 1-Chloro-4-(1-phenylvinyl)benzene (51%)	210
1.0 mM nickel(I) salen	DMF + 0.1 M TBABF ₄	10.0 mM 1-Iodoctane (1); 10.0 mM 1-Bromoctane (2); 5.0 mM 1-Bromo-5-decyne	Octane (4%), 1-octene (9%), hexadecane (87%) (1); Octane (5%), 1-octene (4%), hexadecane	211

(3); (89%) (2); View Article Online
 5.0 mM 1-Iodo-5-decyne (4); Dec-5-yne (11%), dec-1-en-5-yne (3%), 10.1039/C9EN00411D
 pentylidenecyclopentane (74%) (3);
 Dec-5-yne (8%), dec-1-en-5-yne (3%),
 pentylidenecyclopentane (88%) (4)

3.4. Electroreductive dehalogenation mechanisms

Mechanisms of the electroreductive scission of C-X bonds have been broadly investigated, and still are, discussed in many authoritative studies,^{1, 2, 168} and are also outlined in this work briefly.

Firstly, the heterogeneous and homogeneous electron transfer (ET) plays an important role in the reduction process.¹⁶⁸ The extensively researched dissociative electron transfer (DET) theory can account for vast experimental results when Ag-based cathodes are applied, and a scheme mechanism of DET is provided in Fig. 10 a.²¹² The scheme **a** is a stepwise mechanism, involving the formation of an intermediate radical anion (RX^{•-}) before the cleavage of the C-X bond, while scheme **b** that named concerted mechanism represents the simultaneous electron transfer and the C-X bond breaking. Literature data suggest that degradation of aromatic halides mainly follows the stepwise mechanism, whereas aliphatic halides prefer the concerted one,^{1, 170} but there are several exceptions to this rule.²¹² Hence, it is necessary to carry out careful exploration of the reaction system before assigning one or another mechanism to a typical degradation process. Additionally, the scheme **c** that is a variant of the concerted mechanism referred as sticky DET, and two fragments (e.g., R[•] and X⁻) can induce ion-dipole interactions in the solvent cage before they diffuse apart in this procedure. Generally, many subsequent reactions will occur and produce dimers and hydrodehalogenated species (Eqs. (19)- (23)), and SH is the solvent.^{2, 168}





Secondly, when electrogenerated low-valent metal complexes are employed as catalysts, the ET process will occur in homogeneous conditions.¹⁶⁸ In a representative work, Chan and co-workers²¹³ discussed the use of cobalt porphyrin to catalyze the hydrodehalogenation of aryl bromides, and the plausible mechanism is illustrated in Fig. 10 b. Initially, $\text{Co}^{\text{II}}(\text{ttp})$ abstracts a bromine atom from ArBr to generate $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}(\text{ttp})\text{Br}$ and Ar^\bullet . Then, the Ar^\bullet abstracts an H from solvent to form the ArH , while the $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}(\text{ttp})\text{Br}$ undergoes ligand substitution with KOH and generates $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}(\text{ttp})\text{OH}$ and KBr . Afterwards, $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}(\text{ttp})\text{OH}$ produces H_2O_2 and regenerates $\text{Co}^{\text{II}}(\text{ttp})$ by reductive elimination. Subsequently, the H_2O_2 catalyzed by $\text{Co}^{\text{II}}(\text{ttp})$ or base to H_2O and O_2 .

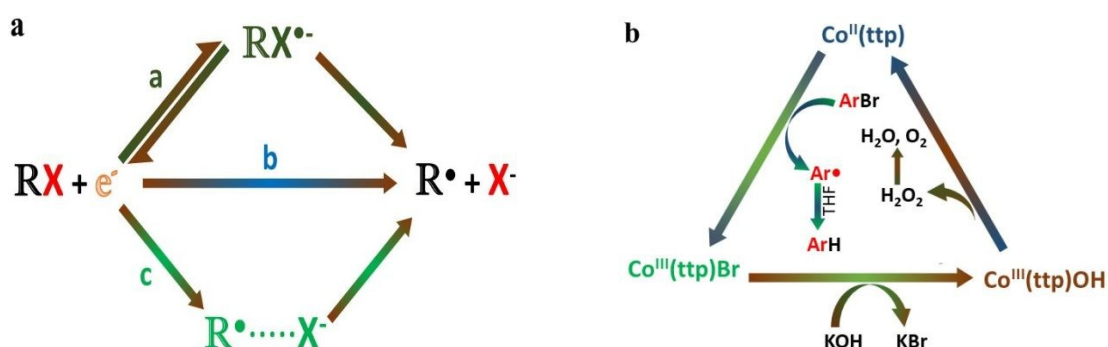
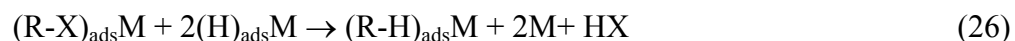
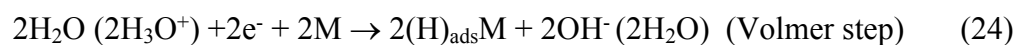


Fig.10 The general mechanism of dissociative electron transfer (a). Reproduced with permission from ref. 212, Copyright 2015, Royal Society of Chemistry. Proposed hydrodehalogenation mechanism of aryl bromides (b). Reproduced with permission. Reproduced with permission from ref. 213, Copyright 2015, Elsevier.

Finally, the indirect dehalogenation process with the H^*_{ads} is another efficient way to degrade HOPs,¹⁶⁸ and this mechanism often associates with the application of Pd-based catalysts. The reductive dehalogenation process is known as electrocatalytic hydrogenolysis (ECH),^{214, 215} which can be described as chemisorbed hydrogen atoms first generated on the cathode

surface by electrolysis of water and then react with adsorbed HOPs. The key steps are listed in Eqs. (24)- (29).^{193, 214, 216}



where M represents the metallic surface, and HX denotes HOPs. Actually, the ECH process is just a combination of Eqs. (21)- (24), whereas the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) reaction (Eqs. (25)- (26)) occurs as the competition process. Hence, it is of great importance to depress the HER reaction in the degradation process.

The HER process starts with the formation of H^*_{ads} and then the electrochemical desorption (Volmer-Heyrovsky), or the recombination of the atomic H^*_{ads} (Volmer-Tafel).²¹⁷⁻²¹⁹ Both HER and ECH process require abundant surface adsorbed hydrogen through the Volmer step, so the key to suppress the HER process is to block the Heyrovsky step or the Tafel step. Currently, two strategies are often applied to optimize the degradation process through effectively vanquish the HER process. The first strategy is using cathode materials with a favorable ability for the generation and retainment of H^*_{ads} . In this regard, Pd distinguishes itself not only for its high efficiency in taking up protons to generate H^* but also due to its property to retain the H^* by adsorption onto the Pd surface (H^*_{ads}) and absorption to the Pd atoms via the formation of Pd hydride (H^*_{abs}).²²⁰ Therefore, Pd can maintain a high surface hydrogen concentration for the ECH process. In most of the cases, it is difficult for other materials (e.g., Pt, Rh) to retain the generated H^*_{ads} , since the H^*_{ads} are easily transform to molecular hydrogen through the Heyrovsky step or the Tafel step. Recently, several effective

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3 methods have been applied to further enhance the selectivity of Pd.^{190, 220} For example, Liu
4 and co-workers²²⁰ found that the defective sites in Pd nanowires could enhance the stability of
5 the generated H^*_{ads} and suppress the HER process. Due to the magnificent H^*_{ads}
6 generation/provision capacity, the defect-rich Pd nanowires exhibited a higher 2,4-
7 dichlorophenol removal efficiency with a six-times-lower Pd loading than the unmodified Pd
8 materials. Another strategy to extinguish the HER process is to optimize the operating
9 parameters, such as the cathode potential,^{185, 199, 221, 222} pH value,²²³ and dissolved oxygen²¹⁷.
10 Among these factors, the cathode potential is most frequently studied. Commonly, the
11 kinetics of H^*_{ads} production are modulated by the cathode potential, and a more negative
12 potential will usually hasten H^*_{ads} generation, which could offer sufficient H^*_{ads} for enhanced
13 ECH.²²¹ However, as a side reaction, H^*_{ads} may evolve into H_2 through the Heyrovsky step or
14 the Tafel step at a more reductive potential. Such side reaction can compete with ECH in
15 H^*_{ads} utilization, and the generated hydrogen bubbles also interfere with the mass transfer of
16 H^+ and HOPs to the cathode surface, resulting in a decay in ECH efficiency.¹⁹⁹ As a result, an
17 optimal cathode potential is critical for the restraint of HER.

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However, it should be noted that there is still lacking of fundamental principles for interpreting the dehalogenation mechanism of a typical HOP without experimental examination due to that fact that there are many unexpected observations related to the mechanisms mentioned above.^{187, 195, 197, 212, 215} For instance, Liu et al.¹⁹⁷ found that atomic H^*_{ads} formation function and the electron transfer process both existed in the trichloroacetic acid (TCAA) removal process, while the enhanced indirect atomic H^*_{ads} reduction process played a principal role in the degradation process (Fig. 11).

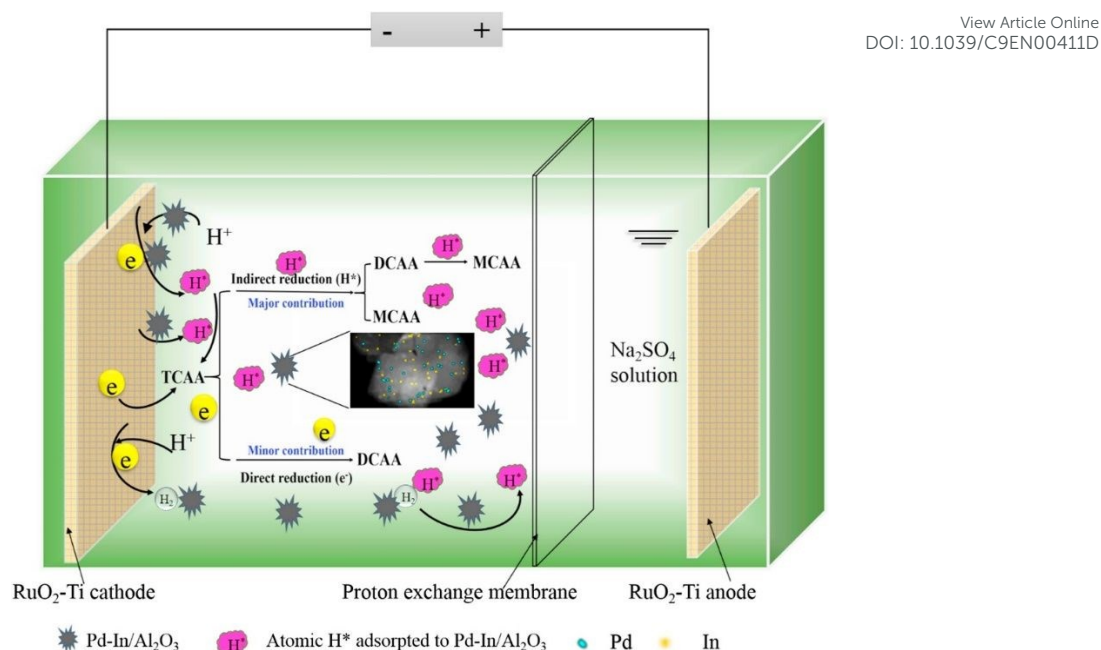


Fig.11 Schematic diagram of reaction mechanism for TCAA reduction over Pd-In/Al₂O₃. Reproduced with permission from ref. 197, Copyright 2017, Elsevier.

4. Integrated Technologies

Recently, the number of strategies has grown rapidly with the development of coupling synergistic processes based on the combination of electrocatalysis.²²⁴ The coupling can upgrade the overall degradation performance toward HOPs due to the synergy between different sophisticated processes.^{224, 225} Fenton reaction,^{87, 226} membrane filtration,^{227, 228} biological treatment,^{225, 229} photocatalysis,^{230, 231} ozonation,^{225, 232} adsorption,^{225, 233} ultrasound,^{230, 234} UV irradiation,^{230, 235} microwave,²³⁶ and thermolysis^{237, 238} are the widely reported methods that can assist the electrochemical activity of electrocatalysis. In this part of the review, the first four methods are detailed due to their wide applications. A list of representative HOPs dehalogenation with synergistic methods is shown in Table 8.

Table 8 Summary of representative HOPs dehalogenation using synergistic methods.

Method	Experimental conditions	HOPs	Degradation rate (%)	Ref.
Reactive electrochemical filter system	50 mM Na ₂ SO ₄ ; inlet flow rate 1.8 L min ⁻¹ ; 25 ± 1 °C; pH 7; 0.25A; 3.0V	50 mg L ⁻¹ rhodamine B	97.6(30min)	227
Reactive electrochemical membranes	100 mM KH ₂ PO ₄ ; pH 4.5; flow rate 0.5 mL min ⁻¹ ; 3.0V	10 μM atrazine	>99.9 (100min)	239
Bioelectrode-anaerobic sludge	-660 mV; 400mL; 35 °C	50 mg L ⁻¹ 2,4-	100(12h)	229

system				View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/C9EN00411D
Nanofiltration- electrooxidation	14.9V; 20 °C; 50 A m ⁻²	dichloronitrobenzene	~100 (1.47h)	232
O ₃ -electrochemical coupled process	60 mA cm ⁻² ; pH 3; 0.750L; ozone concentration 5 ± 0.5 mg L ⁻¹	870 mg L ⁻¹ PFHxA	COD 95 (40min); TOC 94 (40min)	232
Electro-Fenton/BDD	80 mA cm ⁻² ; flow rate 4 L min ⁻¹ ; 3L; Fe ²⁺ 0.5mM; 25 °C	20 mg L ⁻¹ endosulfan	90(180min)	241
Photo-assisted electrochemical oxidation	2 g L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄ ; pH 4.5 ± 0.2; flow rate of 1 L min ⁻¹ ; 250 W HPL-N lamp	300 mg L ⁻¹ reactive yellow HF	76 (360min)	231
Hydrothermal electrocatalytic oxidation	50 mM Na ₂ SO ₄ ; 0.2M H ₂ O ₂ ; 0.55L; 5 mA cm ⁻² ; 135 °C	0.2 mg L ⁻¹ fluoroquinolone	93.7(90min); TOC 99.8(180min)	237
Bioelectrocatalysis system	Volume of single chamber 130mL; 55± 2 °C; mixed anaerobic seed sludge concentration ~3000 mg L ⁻¹ ; hydraulic retention time 2 d;	100 mg L ⁻¹ 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid	0.188 mM d ⁻¹	242
Sonoelectrochemical system	0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄ ; frequency 380 kHz; 25±2 °C; 20 mA	0.4 mM p-fluoronitrobenzene	100 (1h)	234
nZVI and electrochemical reduction system	cathode 80 mL, anode 40mL; 2 g L ⁻¹ NaCl; 20 ±0.5 °C; 0.167 mA cm ⁻²	0.025mM methylene blue	87.6(4h)	243
		50 mg L ⁻¹ 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid		

The electro-Fenton (EF) process, namely the combination of electrochemical oxidation (EO) with the Fenton process, which usually electrogenerates Fenton's reagents (i.e., ferrous ion and hydrogen peroxide) in situ.^{244,245} Compared with the traditional Fenton process, EF consumes fewer reagents and thus produces less iron sludge. Additionally, the EF process often exhibits higher activity than EO for the mineralization of HOPs. For example, Guzman and co-workers²⁴¹ employed both EO and EF to treat the reactive yellow HF dye, and they found that the •OH generated by the EF process removed more rapidly organic pollutants than EO. An interesting chapter by Oturan, N., and Oturan, M. A. keeps a close eye on important parameters of EF process, including principles, operational parameters, application, heterogeneous EF, and bioelectro-EF, which may benefit researchers in this field.²⁴⁵

Photocatalysis is another effective approach to eliminate pollutants from wastewater.²⁴⁶ In the last few years, photocatalysis has shown to enhance the degradation efficiency of electrocatalysis.^{231, 247-249} Generally, the following points can explain the synergistic effect. On the one hand, the external bias lead to a decline in the electron-hole recombination process and the UV-photons reaching the electrode surface form excited radicals. On the other hand, the photo irradiation can activate the electrochemically generated reactive radicals and overcome the mass-transport limitation.²⁴⁹ To mineralize the norfloxacin in

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3 wastewater, Salatiel and co-authors²³¹ found that the ultraviolet radiation could significantly
4 improve the degradation performance of electrochemical oxidation. The coupling strategy
5 possessed a higher TOC abatement (76%) than the direct photolysis (60%) and the
6 electrochemical oxidation process (26%) in 360 min. In-depth analysis suggested that the
7 increase in mineralization could be explained by a decrease in the electron-hole
8 recombination on the TiO₂ phase of the electrode, and thus improving the generation of
9 hydroxyl radicals.
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20 In the traditional flow-by EO process, the diffusion of HOPs to the reaction zone is quite
21 difficult, which results in a low mass transfer rate constant.²²⁷ To overcome this mass transfer
22 limitation, combining membrane filtration with the EO process in flow-through mode is an
23 efficient method for HOPs mineralization. In this process, water moves through the pores on
24 the designed electrode materials, which can minimize the thickness of the boundary layer,
25 thus significantly upgrading the mass transfer rate of HOPs moving towards the electrode
26 surface.^{226, 227, 239} In a recent work, tubular porous Ti/SnO₂-Sb filters which possessed
27 excellent electrochemical activity and penetration flux were worked as anodic reactive
28 electrochemical membranes in a reactive electrochemical filter system.²²⁷ The developed
29 reactive electrochemical filter system in flow-through mode resulted in a higher RhB
30 oxidation efficiency than the flow-by mode by 8.6-fold under the same operational conditions.
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46 Bioelectrochemical systems (BESs) which based on the integration of the biological process
47 and the electrochemical method have attracted increasing attention in the HOPs degradation
48 process because the BES process possesses high degradation efficiency, low operational cost,
49 environmental sustainability, high selectivity, ambient operating conditions and reusable
50 effluents.^{242, 250} In a typical study, a coupled microbial electrosynthesis-upflow anaerobic
51 sludge reactor (MES-UASB) was established to mineralize 2,4-dichloronitrobenzene,²²⁹ and
52 the experimental results indicated that the coupled MES-UASB obtained a high
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dechlorination efficiency (100%) at -660 mV in 12h. More information involves this topic can be found in pervious reviews and chapters.²⁵⁰⁻²⁵³

5. Conclusions and prospects

In this work, the recent development of electrocatalysts for the degradation of HOPs in terms of the strategies for promoting the catalysts activities is comprehensively reviewed. It can be concluded that both electrooxidation and electroreduction are effective strategies to mineralize HOPs, with the application of adequate catalysts.

In the electrooxidative process, metal oxides (e.g., PbO_2 and SnO_2) and BDD are extensively applied as anodes due to their high performance in the production of $\bullet\text{OH}$ that is the main reactive radical in the oxidation degradation pathway. Additionally, nanostructuring, compositing, doping, and surface modification are extensively used strategies to upgrade the ability of these catalysts. Notably, the oxidation mechanisms that involve $\bullet\text{OH}$ rely heavily on the properties of catalysts. For the active anodes (e.g., Pt, RuO_2 , IrO_2), the degradation process often leads to electrochemical conversion, while the inactive anodes (e.g., BDD, doped- SnO_2 , PbO_2) commonly result in electrochemical combustion.

In the electroreductive process, metals (e.g., Ag and Pd) and low-valent metal complexes are responsible for the reduction of HOPs through the generated $\bullet\text{H}$ and electrons. To obtain a better degradation performance, many sound methods such as nanosizing, structure designing, alloying, and component modification are extensively introduced. The reduction principles are closely related to the type of catalysts. The dissociative electron transfer (DET) theory can account for vast experimental phenomena when Ag-based cathodes are used. The homogeneous ET process will occur when electrogenerated low-valent metal complexes are employed as catalysts. In addition, the application of Pd-based catalysts is an indirect dehalogenation process, with the H^*_{ads} acting as the main active radical.

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3 Identifying the structure-performance relationship of materials is crucial to the design of View Article Online
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5 desirable electrocatalysts. For the electrochemical dehalogenation process, both activity and
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7 stability of catalysts need to be considered carefully. As aforementioned, nanostructuring,
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9 compositing, component regulation (doping, alloying), inserting interlayer, and surface
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11 modification have shown great potential in designing robust and highly active electrocatalysts.
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13 Nanostructuring catalysts with well- dispersed active components that exhibit a high active
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15 surface area can provide more sites for the degradation reaction. Compositing also leads to a
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17 high specific surface area, specially, when a conductive substrate is involved, the
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19 conductivity and mass transfer process can be significantly elevated, and thus accelerating the
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21 degradation process. Component regulation, such as doping and alloying, usually results in
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23 more abundant active components on catalyst surfaces, and thereby benefits the generation of
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25 more active radicals for the decomposition reaction. In addition, the optimal components
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27 possess a decent interaction strength with radicals (e.g., H^{*}, •OH), and diminish the side
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29 reactions (e.g., oxygen and hydrogen evolution reactions). Interlayer and surface modification
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31 have a significant impact on the lifetime of electrocatalysts by hindering the penetration of
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33 electrolytes, decreasing the inner mechanical stress, and preventing the catalyst damages (e.g.,
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35 detachment, consumption, dissolution). Other strategies that mentioned above also benefit the
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37 durability of catalysts.
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45 However, more innovative catalysts and technological methods are still highly desired for the
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47 further development of electrocatalytic dehalogenation process due to some critical
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49 limitations/challenges related to the practical application of the current electrocatalytic
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51 dehalogenation treatment.^{1, 28, 254} Firstly, the electricity is required continuously to support the
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53 electrochemical degradation process, and the electrical efficiency should be checked when
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55 evaluating the applicability of the electrocatalysis techniques. To decrease the energy cost,
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57 integrating electrocatalysis with other renewable energy techniques (e.g., solar photovoltaic
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power) and optimizing the operational parameters are highly advisable. Another interesting factor is the wastewater conductivity, which can be enhanced through the addition of seawater and inorganic salts (e.g., Na_2SO_4 , phosphate buffer, Na_2CO_3). Secondly, the released toxic ions (e.g., Pb^{2+}) of electrodes may decrease the durability of electrodes and pose toxicity toward organisms, while the fouling and corrosion of electrodes (e.g., BDD) may also lead to an unstable degradation efficiency. These factors could hinder the industrial applications of the electrocatalytic degradation method. As a result, the robust and highly active electrodes are extremely needed. Thirdly, the formation of toxic by-products in the degradation of HOPs, especially halogen-based compounds (e.g., BrO_3^- , ClO_3^- , ClO_4^-), can limit the adoption of the electrochemical mineralization techniques. To control the generation of these products, the optimal operational strategies and the efficient electrode modifications are necessary. Currently, the electrocatalysis has been extensively studied in the mineralization of pollutants beyond HOPs, while the degradation of real wastewater is still limited. Consequently, it is of great significance to explore the potential application of electrochemical method in degrading complex pollutants in industrial wastewater. As indicated, the controllable electroreduction of organic pollutants can lead to the transformation of pollutants into value-added chemicals, for example the generation of n-hexane from the degradation of 1, 2-dibromohexane. Accordingly, the electrochemical method is a promising approach to generate valuable chemicals with specific functional groups. In summary, a combination of hybrid technologies, ideal operating conditions, and electrode modifications needs to be explored to address these crucial challenges.

Herein, several prospects are listed below for the purpose of upgrading existing electrochemical degradation techniques.

Developing high-performance catalysts is of great importance and many strategies including doping, nanostructuring, facet engineering, hybrid engineering, defect engineering, and

alloying are efficient ways to improve the activity of catalysts. Furthermore, the structure-performance relationship should be taken seriously with the help of computational methods, and high-through screening is also vital to select typical catalysts for a determined pollutant. Another factor should be taken into consideration is the cost. More efforts should be devoted to using those low-cost materials (e.g., non-precious metals, graphite-based materials) and simple fabrication methods to obtain cost-effective electrodes.

To maximize the performance of electrocatalysts, it is necessary to optimize the experimental parameters in the degradation process. Normally, a reactor/system with a high electrode area to volume ratio, a low cell voltage, and a high mass transport rate is desired.² As discussed aforementioned, the role of current, voltage, pH, electrolyte, and concentration of HOPs is also vital to the activity of catalysts, as well as the degradation pathway. Hence, systematic investigations should be conducted to achieve better mineralization efficiency.

Advancing the scientific understanding of dehalogenation/electrochemical process is still a key challenge, and the mechanism should be investigated case by case with the experimental and theoretical methods, especially those operando characterization techniques. The applications of advanced in situ characterization techniques have benefited a lot for exploring the active sites on electrocatalysts for various reactions.²⁵⁵ For instance, the advanced scanning electrochemical microscopy technique can offer spatially resolved details of electrode reactivity at the micron to submicron scale, which is highly beneficial for characterizing the performance of catalysts and identifying mechanisms involves HOPs transformation.¹⁰⁸ This process could also leads to the design of more favorable catalysts. Additionally, the theoretical study based on density functional theory can provide critical information to understand the interaction between catalysts/radicals and pollutants, thus leading to a better understanding of the degradation/mineralization process.^{220, 256, 257}

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3 Taking advantages of other useful processes for HOPs degradation, coupling electrocatalysis
4 with those sophisticated methods will significantly upgrade the degradation performance. On
5 one side, to achieve better degradation efficiencies, integrating those verified effective
6 techniques such as membrane techniques, biological methods, Fenton processes, and
7 photocatalysis with electrocatalysis is a promising solution. On the other hand, to decrease
8 the operational cost, mainly the electricity utilization, it is advisable to investigate the
9 combination the electrochemical degradation process with renewable energy (e.g., solar
10 photovoltaic power, wave power, wind energy, geothermal energy) in future research.
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21 22 23 **Acknowledgments**

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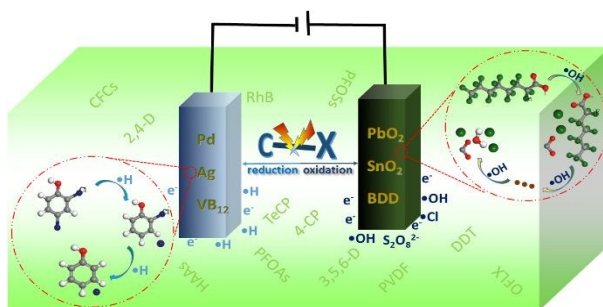
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