

# Formation of Haloacetonitriles, Haloacetamides, and Nitrogenous Heterocyclic Byproducts by Chloramination of Phenolic Compounds

Maolida Nihemaiti, Julien Le Roux, Christiane Hoppe-Jones, David A. Reckhow, Jean-Philippe Croué

## ► To cite this version:

Maolida Nihemaiti, Julien Le Roux, Christiane Hoppe-Jones, David A. Reckhow, Jean-Philippe Croué. Formation of Haloacetonitriles, Haloacetamides, and Nitrogenous Heterocyclic Byproducts by Chloramination of Phenolic Compounds. Environmental Science

Technology, American Chemical Society, 2017, 51 (1), pp.655 - 663. <10.1021/acs.est.6b04819>. <hal-01425762>

HAL Id: hal-01425762

<https://hal-enpc.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01425762>

Submitted on 19 Apr 2018

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 **Formation of haloacetonitriles, haloacetamides and nitrogenous**  
2 **heterocyclic by-products by chloramination of phenolic**  
3 **compounds**

4 **Maolida Nihemaiti <sup>a</sup>, Julien Le Roux <sup>b</sup>, Christiane Hoppe-Jones <sup>c</sup>, David A.**  
5 **Reckhow <sup>d</sup>, Jean-Philippe Croué <sup>a,\*</sup>**

6 <sup>a</sup> Curtin Water Quality Research Centre, Department of Chemistry, Curtin University,  
7 GPO Box U1987, Perth, WA 6845, Australia

8 <sup>b</sup> LEESU (UMR MA 102), Université Paris-Est - AgroParisTech, 61 avenue du Général  
9 de Gaulle, 94010 Créteil cedex, France

10 <sup>c</sup> Department of Chemical and Environmental Engineering, The University of Arizona,  
11 P.O. Box 210011, Tucson, AZ, United States

12 <sup>d</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Massachusetts  
13 Amherst, 18 Marston Hall, 130 Natural Resources Rd., Amherst, MA 01003-9293,  
14 United States

15 **Corresponding Author**

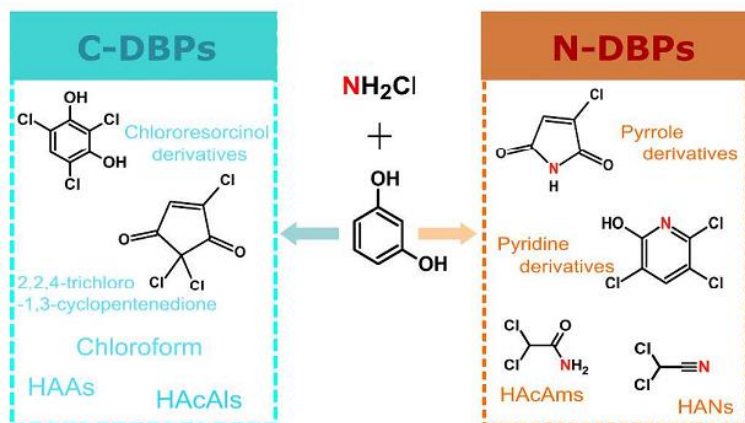
16 \*Tel.: +61(0)892669793; fax: +61(0)892662300; e-mail: jean-philippe.croue@curtin.edu.au

17  
18 **Abstract**

19 The potential formation of nitrogenous disinfection by-products (N-DBPs) was investigated from the  
20 chloramination of nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous aromatic compounds. All molecules led to the  
21 formation of known N-DBPs (e.g., dichloroacetonitrile, dichloroacetamide) with various production  
22 yields. Resorcinol, a major precursor of chloroform, also formed di-/tri-chloroacetonitrile, di-/tri-  
23 chloroacetamide, and haloacetic acids, indicating that it is a precursor of both N-DBPs and  
24 carbonaceous DBPs (C-DBPs) upon chloramination. More detailed experiments were conducted on  
25 resorcinol to understand N-DBPs formation mechanisms and to identify reaction intermediates. Based  
26 on the accurate mass from high resolution Quadrupole Time-of-Flight GC-MS (GC-QTOF) and  
27 fragmentation patterns from electronic impact and positive chemical ionization modes, several  
28 products were tentatively identified as nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds (e.g., 3-chloro-5-hydroxy-  
29 1H-pyrrole-2-one with dichloromethyl group, 3-chloro-2,5-pyrroledione). These products were  
30 structurally similar to the heterocyclic compounds formed during chlorination, such as the highly

31 mutagenic MX (3-chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone) or halogenated pyrroles. To  
32 our knowledge, this is the first time that the formation of halogenated nitrogenous heterocyclic  
33 compounds is reported from chloramination process. The formation of these nitrogenous by-products  
34 during chloramination might be of concern considering their potential toxicity.

## 35 ABSTRACT ART



36

37

## 38 INTRODUCTION

39 As an alternative to chlorine, monochloramine ( $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$ ) is often used as a secondary disinfectant to  
40 obtain a more stable residual in distribution systems (Seidel et al., 2005). Chloramines generally form  
41 less trihalomethanes (THMs), haloacetic acids (HAAs) and total organic halogen (TOX) than free  
42 chlorine. However, the percentage of unknown TOX produced from chloramines is higher than that  
43 from free chlorine (Hua et al., 2007).

44 During chloramination,  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  can be an additional source of nitrogen and produce halogenated  
45 nitrogenous disinfection by-products (N-DBPs). N-DBPs, including haloacetonitriles (HANs) and  
46 haloacetamides (HAcAms), generally form in lower amounts than regulated DBPs (i.e., THMs and  
47 HAAs). It has been proposed that the mass of HANs represents around 10% of the THMs (Krasner  
48 Stuart et al., 1989; Oliver, 1983) whereas HAcAms formation was reported to be approximately 10  
49 times lower than HAAs (Krasner et al., 2006). Regardless of their relatively low occurrence, HANs  
50 and HAcAms have been a growing health risk concern over the past decades because of their high  
51 toxicity (Muellner et al., 2007; Plewa et al., 2004).

52 Nitrogen-containing organic compounds (e.g., amino acids, pyrroles and pyrimidines) are ubiquitous  
53 in surface water (Westerhoff et al., 2002) and have been associated with the formation of N-DBPs  
54 (Bond et al., 2011). Wastewater effluents and algal organic matter, which are enriched in organic  
55 nitrogen, enhance N-DBPs formation during drinking water treatment process (Dotson et al., 2009). It

56 was recently reported that antibiotic chloramphenicols may contribute to the formation of HAcAms in  
57 heavily wastewater-impacted waters (Chu et al., 2016).

58 Most of the previous studies exploring the sources of nitrogen in N-DBPs focused on chloramination  
59 of nitrogenous model compounds (e.g., amino acids) or matrices enriched in nitrogen moieties (e.g.,  
60 algal organic matter) by the application of isotopically labeled monochloramine (i.e.,  $^{15}\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$ ).  
61 Inorganic nitrogen incorporation into dichloroacetonitrile (DCAN) and dichloroacetamide (DCAcAm)  
62 has been reported during chloramination of wastewater effluents, algal extracellular organic matter,  
63 humic substances and free amino acids (i.e., aspartic acid and asparagine) (Huang et al., 2012).  
64  $^{15}\text{N}$ -DCAN percentages in total DCAN were found to be 78% and 92% by chloramination of  
65 tryptophan and Suwannee River NOM, respectively (Yang et al., 2010). More than 70% of DCAN  
66 originated from monochloramine during chloramination of NOM isolates (Huang et al., 2012),  
67 indicating that high amounts of inorganic nitrogen (i.e., Monochloramine) can be incorporated into  
68 organic structure.

69 Only few studies are available on N-DBPs formation from non-nitrogenous precursors. Formaldehyde  
70 reacts with  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  to form cyanogen chloride (Pedersen et al., 1999). Chloroacetonitrile and  
71 N,2-dichloroacetamide formation was found from chloramination of chloroacetaldehyde (Kimura et  
72 al., 2013). Recent studies on chloramination of lignin phenols and low-molecular weight organic acids  
73 have reported the formation of DCAN, DCAcAm and trichloroacetamide (TCAcAm) through  
74 chloramine-nitrogen incorporation (Chu et al., 2016; Chuang et al., 2015; Hua et al., 2014).

75 Previous studies indicated that non-nitrogenous precursors can produce N-DBPs via inorganic  
76 nitrogen incorporation. However limited information is available on the nature of these N-DBPs  
77 precursors as well as the chloramine-nitrogen incorporation mechanism. Recent results showed that  
78 organic matter isolates enriched in aromatic moieties (i.e., high SUVA value) produced more N-DBPs  
79 by chloramine-nitrogen incorporation as compared to low-aromatic-content organic matter (Le Roux  
80 et al., 2016). In addition, chloramination of aromatic model compounds (i.e., phenol and resorcinol)  
81 formed more DCAN and DCAcAm than amino acids (e.g., tyrosine, aspartic acid), which were  
82 previously considered as important precursors of N-DBPs.

83 Meta-dihydroxybenzene structures were proposed as main reactive sites of NOM for the formation of  
84 THMs upon chlorination (Norwood et al., 1980; Rook, 1977). 1,3-hydroxybenzene (resorcinol) has  
85 been extensively studied as a model compound and is a major precursor of chloroform (TCM) during  
86 chlorination (Boyce et al., 1983; Norwood et al., 1980; Rook, 1980). The reaction of resorcinol with  
87 monochloramine follows a similar mechanism to chlorination, involving aromatic ring-substitution,  
88 oxidation, hydrolysis and decarboxylation reactions (Heasley et al., 1999). However, the reactions  
89 involving the formation of N-DBPs from resorcinol by incorporation of nitrogen from  
90 monochloramine have not been investigated yet.

91 The objective of this study was to investigate the formation of HANs and HAcAms from  
92 chloramination of resorcinol in comparison with TCM and HAAs formation and to elucidate their

93 formation mechanisms through the identification of intermediate products. Effects of monochloramine  
94 dose, reaction time, and pH on by-products formation were examined. GC-MS/MS and high  
95 resolution GC-QTOF full scan analysis were conducted for the identification of unknown products.

96

## 97 **EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

98 **Materials.** All chemicals were of analytical grade or higher and were used as received without further  
99 purification. Milli-Q water (18.2 M $\Omega$ .cm, Millipore) was used for all experiments. Resorcinol  
100 ( $\geq 99.0\%$ ) and other model compounds were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Table S1). Sodium  
101 hypochlorite (5.65-6%, Fisher Scientific) and ammonium chloride (99.6%, Acros Organics) were used  
102 for monochloramine preparation.  $^{15}\text{N}$ - labeled ammonium chloride was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich  
103 (98%). Sodium thiosulfate (Fisher Scientific) was applied to quench residual oxidant. A  
104 trihalomethanes (THM) calibration mix, a mixed standard (EPA 551B Halogenated Volatiles Mix)  
105 containing haloacetonitriles (HANs), and a mixed standard (EPA 552.2 Methyl Ester Calibration Mix)  
106 containing 9 haloacetic acids (HAAs) were supplied from Supelco (Sigma-Aldrich). Chloro-,  
107 dichloro- and trichloroacetamide were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Decafluorobiphenyl (99%,  
108 Sigma-Aldrich, Supelco) was used as a surrogate standard. 2-bromopropionic acid (Fluka Analytical)  
109 was used as a surrogate for HAAs extraction and analysis. Fisher Scientific Methyl tert-butyl ether  
110 (MTBE) and ethyl acetate ( $> 99\%$ ) were used for DBP extractions.

111 **Experimental procedures.** Experiments were conducted at room temperature ( $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ) in  
112 headspace-free amber glass bottles (individual bottle per contact time). Preformed monochloramine  
113 and  $^{15}\text{N}$ -labeled monochloramine stock solutions were daily prepared by dissolving ammonium  
114 chloride or  $^{15}\text{N}$ -labeled ammonium chloride, respectively, in Milli-Q water adjusted to pH 8.5 with  
115 sodium hydroxide. Sodium hypochlorite was then slowly added to the rapidly stirred solution (N:Cl  
116 molar ratio of 1.2:1). Initial  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  and  $\text{NHCl}_2$  concentrations were spectrophotometrically measured  
117 at 245 and 295 nm (Schreiber et al., 2005). Predetermined volumes of monochloramine and each  
118 model compound stock solution were injected into 65 mL of 10 mM acetate (pH = 4.0-5.5), phosphate  
119 (pH = 7.0-8.0) or carbonate (pH = 10) buffer to get the desired initial concentrations  
120 (monochloramine:model compound molar ratio of 5.6 or 11.2). The concentration of residual oxidant  
121 was iodometrically determined (Eaton et al., 1995). Residual monochloramine was quenched with a  
122 slight excess of sodium thiosulfate. Samples were extracted immediately after quenching to avoid any  
123 loss of by-products.

124 **GC-MS and GC-QTOF-MS/MS Analysis.** TCM and two HANs (dichloroacetonitrile,  
125 trichloroacetonitrile) were analysed after liquid-liquid extraction following EPA Method 551. Three  
126 HAcAms (chloroacetamide, dichloroacetamide, trichloroacetamide) were analysed following the

127 same protocol that was applied for HANs; however, the extraction solvent MTBE was replaced by  
128 ethyl acetate since it was shown to improve the recovery of HAcAms (Chu and Gao, 2009). HAAs  
129 were extracted and analysed following the EPA Method 552.2, which is based on a liquid-liquid  
130 extraction with MTBE in acidic condition followed by derivatization to methyl esters using acidic  
131 methanol. All DBPs were quantified using a gas chromatograph (Agilent 7890A) coupled with a mass  
132 spectrometer (Agilent 5975C, GC-MSD). Since <sup>15</sup>N-labeled DBPs are not commercially available,  
133 their concentrations were determined using <sup>14</sup>N-DBPs standards, based on the assumption that <sup>15</sup>N-  
134 DBPs and <sup>14</sup>N-DBPs have a similar MS response (Huang et al., 2012). DBPs were separated on a DB-  
135 1701 (30m × 250 μm × 0.25 μm) capillary column.

136 In order to identify unknown by-products, full scan analysis in electronic impact (EI) and positive  
137 chemical ionization (PCI, using methane as reagent gas) modes were performed on MTBE extracts at  
138 various reaction times. Two different GC-MS systems were used for full scan analysis: an Agilent  
139 5975C GC-MSD and an Agilent 7200 Accurate-Mass Quadrupole Time-of-Flight (GC-QTOF).  
140 MS/MS analysis at three different collision energies (i.e., 20 eV, 40 eV and 60 eV) were performed on  
141 GC-QTOF for all main peaks detected. Agilent MassHunter Qualitative analysis B.07.00 was used for  
142 deconvolution of data from GC-QTOF. The column used for GC-MSD was a DB-1701 (30 m × 250  
143 μm × 0.25 μm) or a ZB-5MS (30 m × 250 μm × 1 μm). GC separation on GC-QTOF was performed  
144 with a DB-5MS UI column (30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μm).

145 Details on quantification of DBPs and full scan analysis of unknown by-products are provided in Text  
146 S1.

147

## 148 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

149 **N-DBPs Formation from Model Aromatic Compounds.** Preliminary experiments were conducted  
150 at pH 7 (10 mM phosphate buffer) for 72 h to investigate the formation potential of DCAN and  
151 DCACAm from several aromatic compounds (250 μM) during chloramination (1.4 mM). <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>2</sub>Cl was  
152 applied to nitrogenous model compounds and <sup>14</sup>NH<sub>2</sub>Cl to others. N-DBPs formation was observed  
153 from both nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous compounds (Table 1). In the case of nitrogenous  
154 compounds (aniline and amino acids), more than 50% of DCAN and DCACAm incorporated <sup>15</sup>N  
155 originating from <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>2</sub>Cl. Model compounds (i.e., resorcinol, phenol, aniline, and 3-hydroxybenzoic  
156 acid), including an aromatic ring activated by electron donating groups (i.e., -OH and -NH<sub>2</sub>) in their  
157 structure, were the most important precursors of DCAN and DCACAm. Despite their similar  
158 structures, tyrosine formed more DCAN and DCACAm (i.e., 0.50% and 0.10% molar yield,  
159 respectively) than phenylalanine (i.e., 0.12% and 0.05%, respectively). The activation of the aromatic  
160 ring by a hydroxyl group in the case of tyrosine favours chlorine electrophilic substitution leading to  
161 N-DBPs formation via ring-cleavage reaction (Hureiki et al., 1994). Phenol produced the highest

162 proportion of DCAN (4.44%) and resorcinol produced the highest proportion of DCACAm (0.83%).  
 163 Resorcinol is more reactive than phenol because of its additional hydroxyl group in meta position,  
 164 resulting in chlorine substitutions in ortho and para positions of hydroxyl groups. Interestingly, TCM  
 165 was the highest DBP produced from resorcinol, while DCAN was the dominant species from phenol  
 166 (molar yield of TCM: 4.8% for resorcinol; 0.4% for phenol), suggesting different DBPs formation  
 167 pathways from these two precursors. In this study, resorcinol was selected to explore N-DBPs  
 168 formation mechanisms, since it produced DCAN and DCACAm in relatively high concentrations.

169 Table 1. N-DBP yields from model aromatic compounds during chloramination<sup>a</sup>

	Molar yield (%) (SD) <sup>b</sup>		<sup>15</sup> N-DBP proportion (%)	
	DCAN	DCACAm	<sup>15</sup> N-DCAN	<sup>15</sup> N-DCACAm
Non-nitrogenous compounds				
Resorcinol	1.14(0.08) <sup>c</sup>	0.83(0.04) <sup>c</sup>	NA	NA
Phenol	4.44(0.29) <sup>c</sup>	0.22(0.01) <sup>c</sup>	NA	NA
3-Hydroxybenzoic acid	1.00(0.07)	0.22(0.01)	NA	NA
Benzoic acid	0.17(0.01)	0.09(0.01)	NA	NA
3-Phenylpropionic acid	0.10(0.01)	0.04(0.01)	NA	NA
Nitrogenous compounds				
Aniline	1.73(0.11)	0.12(0.01)	85	74
Tyrosine	0.50(0.03) <sup>c</sup>	0.10(0.01) <sup>c</sup>	83	70
Phenylalanine	0.12(0.01)	0.05(0.01)	83	56

<sup>a</sup>Chloramination conditions: [model compound] = 250 μM; [NH<sub>2</sub>Cl] = 1.4 mM; pH = 7.0 in 10 mM phosphate buffer; contact time 72h; NA: not applicable. <sup>b</sup>SD=Standard Deviation on 3 replicates. <sup>c</sup>Previously published data (Le Roux et al., 2016)

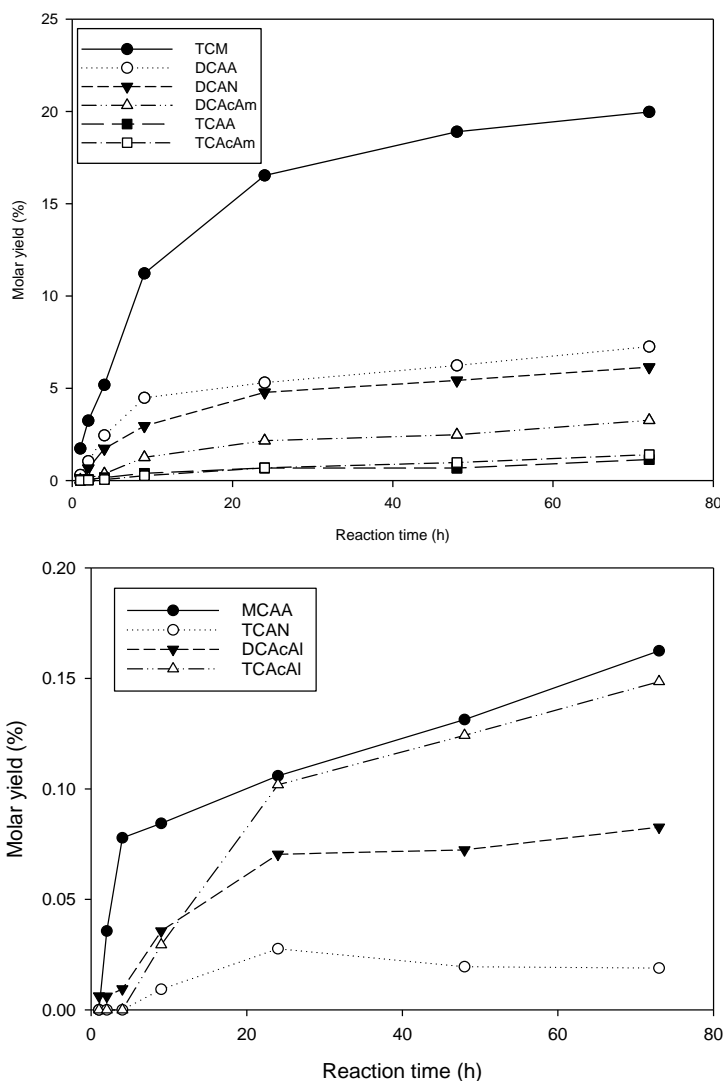
170

171 **Effect of monochloramine dose.** Experiments were performed with resorcinol (500 μM) for 72 h  
 172 using different NH<sub>2</sub>Cl: resorcinol ratios (i.e., 1:1, 5:1 and 11.2:1) at pH 7 (10 mM phosphate buffer).  
 173 TCM was the dominant DBP identified for all ratios (i.e., 0.3%, 11% and 20% yield), followed by  
 174 DCAA (i.e., 0.1%, 3% and 7%) (Figure S1). As hypothesized, the concentration of DBPs increased  
 175 with increasing monochloramine dose since the application of higher oxidant doses facilitates the  
 176 production of smaller and more halogenated by-products (Boyce and Hornig, 1983). The increase in  
 177 DCAN and DCACAm concentrations were proportionally higher than those in TCM and DCAA. The  
 178 highest dose (i.e., 11.2:1 ratio) was selected in the following experiments since it maximized DBP  
 179 formation.

180 Previous studies on chloramination of resorcinol and its chlorinated derivatives have been conducted  
 181 in ether solution (~0.3M) with NH<sub>2</sub>Cl:model compound ratio of 3:1 (Heasley et al., 1999). In these  
 182 conditions, chloroketones were the major by-products identified (compound II and III in Scheme 1),  
 183 and the formation of nitrogenous compounds was not reported, which could be due to the lower  
 184 chloramine dose employed as compared to this study.

185

186 **Effect of reaction time.** Kinetic experiments were performed with 500  $\mu\text{M}$  resorcinol at pH 7  
 187 (10 mM phosphate buffer). Initial  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  was 5.6 mM ( $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$ : resorcinol ratio of 11.2:1) and the total  
 188 oxidant concentration remained in excess during all the reaction time (Figure S2). Figure 1 illustrates  
 189 the kinetic profiles of DBPs formation. TCM was the major DBP found (20% yield after 72 h),  
 190 followed by DCAA (7.2%). MCAA and DCAA were rapidly formed during the first 9 h, suggesting  
 191 that they might form directly from ring-cleavage. DCAN followed the same profile as TCM and  
 192 reached 6.1% yield after 72 h. DCACAm and TCACAm formation was slow within the first 4 h and  
 193 then gradually increased, reaching 3.3% and 1.4% yield after 72 h, respectively. Unlike DCAA and  
 194 MCAA, TCAA increased slowly with time and its profile was very similar to that of TCACAm. Low  
 195 amounts of trichloroacetaldehyde (TCACAl) (0.14% at 72 h), dichloroacetaldehyde (DCACAl)  
 196 (0.08%) and TCAN (0.02%) were detected.



198 Figure 1. Kinetics of DBPs formation from chloramination of resorcinol.  
 199 Resorcinol= 500  $\mu\text{M}$ ;  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  = 5.6 mM; pH=7.0 (10 mM phosphate buffer)  
 200

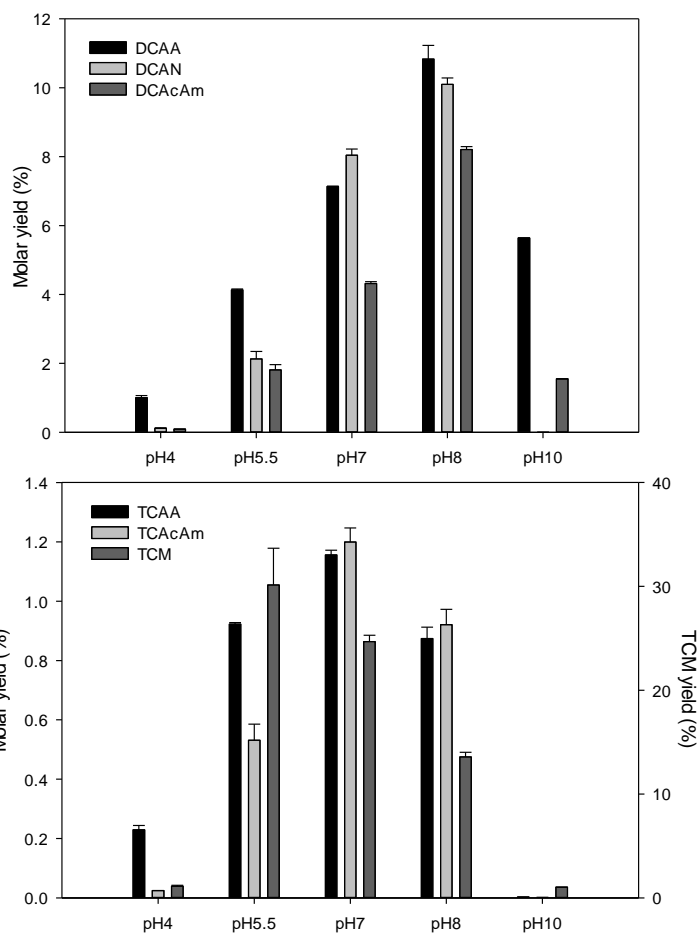
201



202 **Effect of pH.** Formation potential of DBPs from resorcinol upon 72 h of chloramination was  
203 evaluated at different pH values (Figure 2). Dichlorinated DBPs (i.e., DCAA, DCAN and DCAcAm)  
204 exhibited a maximum formation at pH 8, while the highest formation of trichlorinated DBPs (i.e.,  
205 TCAA and TCAcAm) was found at pH 7. Taking into account the analytical error recorded at pH 5.5  
206 (standard deviation: 3.5% of molar yield), the TCM yields obtained at pH 5.5 and pH 7 should be  
207 considered as relatively similar. Generally, the concentration of TCM increases with increasing pH  
208 during chlorination of natural water due to base-catalyzed reaction (Hua and Reckhow, 2008). In  
209 contrast to this, the TCM yields from chloramination of resorcinol gradually decreased as pH  
210 increased from pH 7. Our result is consistent with previous observations, where the formation of TCM  
211 from chloramination of resorcinol also decreased with increasing pH (pH 6.5-12) under similar  
212 experimental conditions (Cimetiere et al., 2010). It was proposed that the free chlorine released from  
213  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  hydrolysis plays a significant role on TCM formation during chloramination of resorcinol  
214 (Cimetiere et al., 2010). In the organic-free solution of monochloramine, the concentration of free  
215 chlorine is the lowest around pH 8.4 and increases with increasing pH (Cimetiere et al., 2010).  
216 However, the free chlorine species shift from HOCl to  $\text{OCl}^-$  as pH increases. TCM was also  
217 demonstrated to form in significantly lower amounts during chlorination of resorcinol in alkaline  
218 conditions (pH > 10) (Boyce et al., 1983), most likely due to the less reactivity of  $\text{OCl}^-$  with  
219 intermediate precursors of chloroform. Therefore, the pH-dependency of TCM yield might be related  
220 to the free chlorine from the hydrolysis of monochloramine, as well as the distribution of free chlorine  
221 species with pH. Most DBPs exhibited a substantially lower formation at pH 10, suggesting that an  
222 alternative degradation pathway of resorcinol may exist. Reduction of N-DBPs from pH 8 to pH 10  
223 was possibly related to their base catalysed hydrolysis as well (Reckhow et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2015).  
224 No resorcinol or chlorinated analogues were detected in samples at pH 7, 8 and 10, indicating that  
225 they completely decomposed to intermediates or final by-products after 72 h, but large peaks of  
226 mono-, di- and tri-chlororesorcinol were still detected from GC-MS full scan after 72 h at pH 4  
227 (Figure S3). This might explain the low non-aromatic DBP formation at pH 4, as the reaction did not  
228 lead to significant ring-opening of resorcinol.

229

230



231

232

233

234

Figure 2. Effect of pH on DBPs formation from chloramination of resorcinol. Resorcinol= 500  $\mu$ M;  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  = 5.6 mM; 72h; Error bars represent standard deviation (n=2)

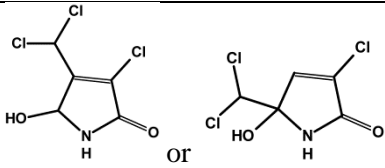
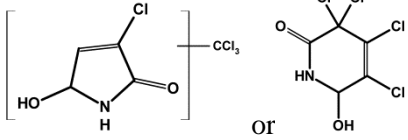
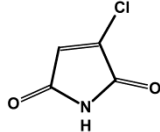
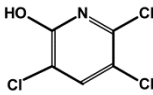
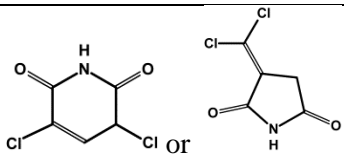
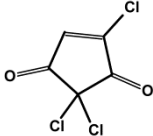
235 **Identification of nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds.** Resorcinol (500  $\mu$ M) was chloraminated  
236 (5.6 mM  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$ ) at pH 7 to investigate its decomposition mechanism and to identify the intermediate  
237 products that could lead to the formation of N-DBPs (e.g., DCACAm). Several peaks were observed in  
238 the PCI chromatogram recorded on the GC-QTOF such as DCAN (retention time (RT) =3.7 min),  
239 DCACAm (RT = 7.5 min), TCACAm (RT = 8.6 min), and other unknown compounds (P131 at RT =  
240 8.5 min, P197 at RT= 10.6 min, P215 at RT = 11.0 min and P249 at RT = 11.5 min) (Figure S4). P215  
241 and P249 were two major compounds exhibiting larger peak areas than known DBPs (i.e., DCAN,  
242 DCACAm and TCACAm). Molecular formulas and structures of these compounds were proposed  
243 based on their accurate mass obtained from GC-QTOF and fragmentation patterns observed in EI and  
244 PCI modes (Table 2).

245

246

247

248 Table 2. Chloramination by-products of resorcinol detected by GC-QTOF

Compound	Exact Mass	Accurate Mass	Error (ppm)	Molecular Formula	Proposed Structures
P215	215.9380 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	215.9379 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	0.64	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>4</sub> NO <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>3</sub>	
P249	249.8990 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	249.8988 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	1.06	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>4</sub>	
P131	131.9845 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	131.9847 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	-0.13	C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>2</sub> Cl	
P197 <sup>a</sup>	197.9270 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	197.9262 [M+H] <sup>+</sup>	6.43	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>2</sub> NOCl <sub>3</sub>	
P179 <sup>b</sup>	178.9540	N.D	N.D	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub>	
P198 <sup>c</sup>	197.9042	197.9252	-106.05	C <sub>5</sub> HO <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>3</sub>	

<sup>a</sup>Confirmed by NIST database (94% similarity)

<sup>b</sup>Detected by GC-MSD; also reported in a previous study (Haddon et al., 1996); N.D: not detected by GC-QTOF.

<sup>c</sup>Confirmed by NIST database (95% similarity); also reported in previous studies (Norwood et al., 1980; Boyce and Hornig, 1983).

249

250 The EI mass spectrum of P215 exhibited two dominant ion clusters (*m/z* 132/134 and 114/116)  
 251 comprising one chlorine atom, with a difference of 18 Da corresponding to the loss of one water  
 252 molecule (i.e., dehydroxylation) (Figure S5a). The corresponding PCI mas spectrum contained a  
 253 major ion cluster *m/z* 216/218/220/222 (i.e., [M+H]<sup>+</sup>) with relative abundance, suggesting that this  
 254 compound had three chlorine atoms (Figure S5b). The odd-numbered nominal mass (i.e., 215 Da)  
 255 indicated an odd-number of nitrogen atoms. Loss of 83 along with two chlorine was observed from  
 256 *m/z* 215 to *m/z* 132, indicating the loss of a (-CHCl<sub>2</sub>) group. The PCI mass spectrum obtained from  
 257 GC-QTOF showed an accurate mass of 215.9379 for [M+H]<sup>+</sup>. Accordingly, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>3</sub> was  
 258 confirmed to be the molecular formula of this compound (0.64 ppm). Based on the fragmentation  
 259 pattern and accurate mass of fragments obtained from EI and PCI modes (Table S2), the proposed  
 260 molecular structure of this compound is 3-chloro-5-hydroxy-1H-pyrrole-2-one with dichloromethyl  
 261 group. It is structurally very similar to MX (3-chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone),  
 262 the strong mutagen found from chlorinated drinking water and humic water (Hemming et al., 1986;

263 Kronberg et al., 1988). Additionally, the corresponding methyl ester form of P215 was also detected  
264 after derivatization of the MTBE extract using acidic methanol, with a molecular formula of  
265  $C_6H_6NO_2Cl_3$  (9.52ppm). The corresponding EI and PCI mass spectra presented a loss of 31 Da (–  
266  $OCH_3$  group) from  $m/z$  229 to  $m/z$  198 (Text S2).

267 A similar method was used for the identification of other compounds. P249 exhibited a similar EI  
268 mass spectrum to P215, with dominant ion clusters  $m/z$  132/134 and 114/116. However, its PCI mass  
269 spectrum showed a main molecular ion (i.e.,  $[M+H]^+$ ) at  $m/z$  250 including four chlorine atoms.  
270 Therefore, we proposed P249 as an analogue of P215 with an additional chlorine atom or as 6-  
271 hydroxy-2-pyridone with four chlorine atoms (Text S3).

272 The EI mass spectrum of P131 contained ion clusters  $m/z$  131/133, 103/105 and 88/90, which was  
273 similar to the mass spectrum of 3-chloro-2,5-furandione present in the NIST database (Figure S6).  
274 However the molecular ion  $m/z$  132 (i.e., a nominal mass of 131 Da) obtained from PCI mass  
275 spectrum suggested the presence of a nitrogen atom. The accurate mass of ion  $m/z$  131.9847 (i.e.,  
276  $[M+H]^+$  adduct) supported a molecular formula of  $C_4H_2NO_2Cl$  (-0.13 ppm). Accordingly, P131 was  
277 tentatively identified as 3-chloro-2,5-pyrroledione (chloromaleimide) (Text S4).

278 Product P197 was confirmed as 2-hydroxy-3,5,6-trichloropyridine because a library match of its  
279 spectrum was obtained from NIST database (94% similarity) and the corresponding formula  
280 ( $C_5H_2NOCl_3$ ) was derived from its accurate mass (Figure S7).

281 Product P179 was proposed as another pyridine-based compound (i.e., dichloro-pyridine-dione) or its  
282 isomer, chloro-pyrrole-dione with dichloromethylene group. The formation of the latter was reported  
283 during chlorination of poultry chiller water (Haddon et al., 1996). P179 was only detected from GC-  
284 MSD (DB-1701 column) (Figure S8), but was not found by high resolution analysis on GC-QTOF.  
285 2,2,4-trichloro-1,3-cyclopentenedione (P198) and its isomer were detected (95% similarity with NIST  
286 database) from the MTBE extract after derivatization using acidic methanol (RT= 9.7min) (Figure  
287 S9). The formation of 2,2,4-trichloro-1,3-cyclopentenedione has been reported as a chlorination by-  
288 product of resorcinol (Boyce et al., 1983; Norwood et al., 1980).

289 Because of the lack of analytical standards, the proposed structures of P215, P249, P131 and P179  
290 could not be confirmed. However, the formation of halogenated heterocyclic compounds (e.g.,  
291 halogenated furanones and pyrroles), which are structurally similar to the compounds found from this  
292 study, has been reported in several chlorination studies (Table S3). The most known halogenated  
293 furanone formed by chlorination of drinking water is the highly mutagenic MX and its analogues  
294 (Hemming et al., 1986; Kronberg and Vartiaine, 1988; Meier et al., 1986). In a previous study on  
295 chlorination of phenolic compounds, resorcinol was found to produce MX, but in low concentration at  
296 acidic pH (i.e., 0.01 mmol/mol, pH 2) (Långvik et al., 1991). Several compounds similar to MX were  
297 identified from chlorination of orcinol (Tretyakova et al., 1994). Moreover, it was found that MX can  
298 be produced during chloramination of humic water (Backlund et al., 1988) and fulvic acid solution

299 (Kanniganti et al., 1992). Dichloromaleic anhydride (3,4-dichloro-2,5-furandione) and  
300 monochloromaleic anhydride (3-chloro-2,5-furandione), which are structurally similar to the  
301 chlorinated pyrroledione found from this study (i.e., P131), are major chlorination by-products of  
302 resorcinol (Rook, 1980) or swimming pool waters (Richardson et al., 2010). Similarly, 3-bromo-2,5-  
303 furandione was reported from bromination of resorcinol (Boyce et al., 1983). Dichlorinated analogue  
304 of P131, 3,4-dichloro-2,5-pyrroledione, was detected with three other chlorinated cyclic imides in  
305 chlorinated poultry chiller water (Haddon et al., 1996). These five-carbon chlorinated cyclic imides  
306 were structurally similar to P215 and found to be direct acting Ames mutagens (Freeman et al., 2001;  
307 Haddon et al., 1996). Moreover, the presence of brominated pyrroles was reported from chlorinated  
308 saline wastewater effluents (M. Yang et al., 2014). Tribromopyrrole is a major chlorination by-  
309 product of bromide-containing waters and has been demonstrated to be strongly cytotoxic and  
310 genotoxic to mammalian cells (Richardson et al., 2003).

311 Based on the potential toxicity of halogenated furanone, cyclic imide and pyrrole compounds  
312 (Freeman et al., 2001; Haddon et al., 1996; Hemming et al., 1986; Kronberg et al., 1988; Richardson  
313 et al., 2003), the halogenated nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds identified from this study could be  
314 also strong mutagenic products and would require toxicity assays.

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

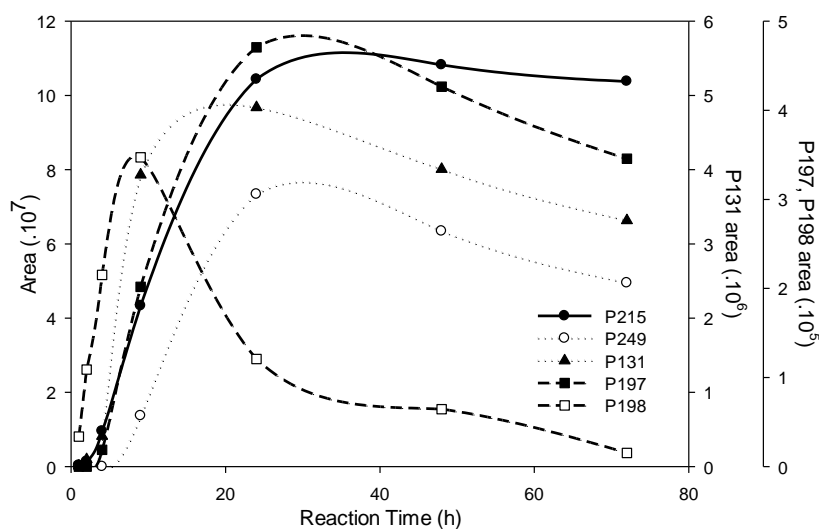
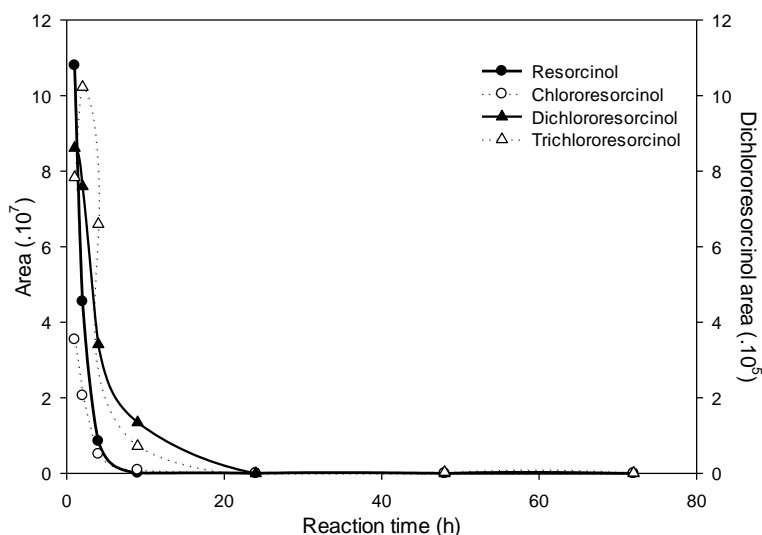


Figure 3. (a) Degradation of resorcinol and its chlorinated derivatives and (b) formation of by-products during chloramination (5.6 mM) of resorcinol (500  $\mu$ M) at pH=7.0 (10 mM phosphate buffer)

326

327

328

329

330

331 **Effect of reaction time and pH on heterocyclic compounds formation.** Figure 3 shows the

332 evolution of peak areas of chlorinated derivatives of resorcinol and identified by-products with

333 reaction time. Mono-, di- and tri-chlorinated derivatives of resorcinol were detected after 1 h of

334 reaction time, indicating a fast electrophilic substitution of the aromatic ring by chlorine. The majority

335 of resorcinol and its chlorinated derivatives (>90%) decomposed within the first 9 h of reaction

336 (Figure 3a). It has been proposed that chlorination and chloramination of aqueous solutions of

337 resorcinol lead to the formation of a pentachlororesorcinol intermediate (compound I in Scheme 1),

338 which then undergoes hydrolysis and decarboxylation to produce chloroform and other chlorinated

339 compounds (Boyce et al., 1983; De Leer et al., 1985; Heasley et al., 1999; Rook, 1980). The

340 nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds found in this study exhibited the largest peak areas on GC-MS

341 chromatograms, suggesting that inorganic nitrogen incorporation is a major reaction pathway during

342 chloramination of resorcinol. A chloramination mechanism of resorcinol is proposed on Scheme 1,

343 where the carbonyl group of the pentachlororesorcinol intermediate is attacked by electron pairs of

344 nitrogen atom from  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$  or oxygen atom from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . The ring-cleavage by-product from nitrogen  
345 attack then undergoes intramolecular nucleophilic substitution to form a nitrogenous heterocyclic  
346 compound and finally P249 (Scheme 1a). A similar ring contraction mechanism is proposed for the  
347 formation of 2,2,4-trichloro-1,3-cyclopentenedione (i.e., P198), based on its formation pathway  
348 previously proposed during chlorination of resorcinol (Rook, 1980; Tretyakova et al., 1994) (Scheme  
349 1b). P198 was formed rapidly from 1 h to 9 h and gradually degraded (Figure 3b). We propose that in  
350 excess of  $\text{NH}_2\text{Cl}$ , P198 will be an intermediate product of nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds (i.e.,  
351 P131, P215 and P249) through nitrogen attack and intramolecular nucleophilic substitution. As  
352 shown in Figure 3b, P131 and P249 started to degrade after 24 h of reaction time. These compounds  
353 comprise a Cl-C-CO-NH- moiety, which could be responsible for HAcAms and haloacetaldehydes  
354 (HAcAls) formation with an excess of oxidant (Scheme 1).

355 Figure S10 presents the peak area of P131, P197, P198 and P215 after 72 h of reaction time at  
356 different pHs. The highest formation was found in neutral (pH 7 for P197 and P215) or weak acidic  
357 (pH 5.5 for P131 and P198) condition. Low formation of these compounds at pH 4 is in accordance  
358 with the higher formation of chlorinated derivatives of resorcinol (Figure S3), supporting the  
359 hypothesis that the reaction at pH 4 did not lead to significant ring-opening of resorcinol. Little or no  
360 nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds were detected in alkaline conditions (pH 8.5 and 10), suggesting  
361 that they might decompose at higher pH to form other by-products. To support our hypothesis, MX  
362 mainly undergoes hydrolytic degradation at pH higher than 8 (Kronberg et al., 1989).

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

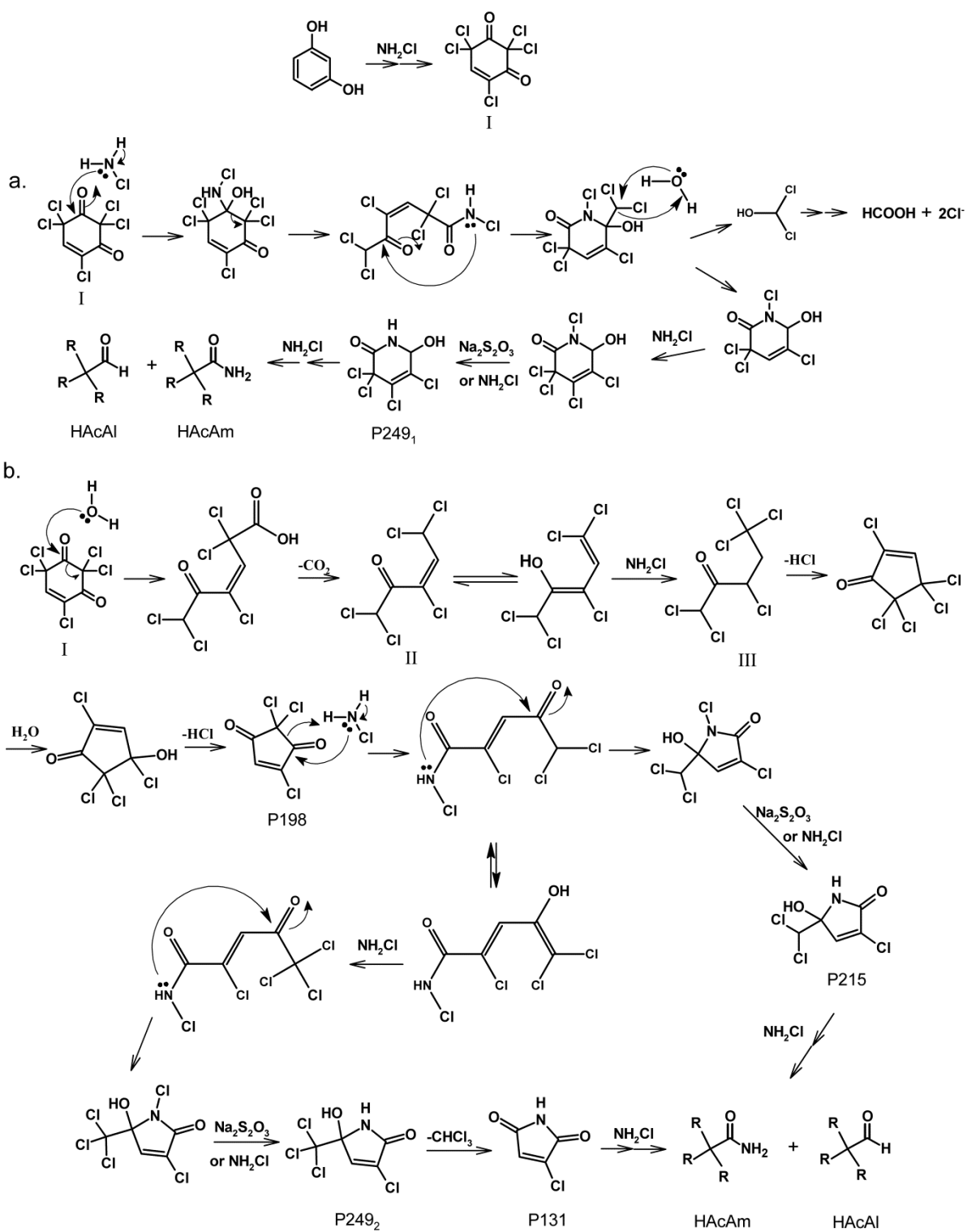
370

371

372

373

374 Scheme 1. Proposed formation pathway of by-products from chloramination of resorcinol (I:  
 375 pentachlororesorcinol; II, III: compounds identified in a previous study (Heasley et al., 1999). b:  
 376 adapted from previous studies (Rook, 1980; Heasley et al., 1999; Tretyakova et al., 1994). P215,  
 377 P249<sub>1,2</sub>: possible structures for P215, P249).



378

379

380



381 **ENVIRONMENTAL SIGNIFICANCE**

382 High concentrations of model compounds and high monochloramine doses were used in this study to  
383 maximize the formation of by-products and thus facilitate their detection and identification by GC-MS  
384 in full scan mode. The possible reasons why the products identified in this study (i.e., chlorinated  
385 nitrogenous heterocyclic compounds) have not yet been observed during the chloramination of real  
386 water samples, include: (1) many studies about the identification of unknown DBPs were mainly  
387 focused on chlorination process, and less on chloramination; (2) the amounts of by-products formed in  
388 real case disinfection scenarios (i.e., low precursors concentration and low monochloramine doses)  
389 were not sufficient to be detected during analytical screenings. From another study we detected a  
390 compound likely to be dibromo-pyrrole-dione (molecular ion  $m/z$  253), similar base structure to P131,  
391 during chloramination (14.9 mg/L  $Cl_2$ ) of a treated wastewater effluent (5 mg/L DOC) containing 2.5  
392 mg/L of bromide ion. It exhibited a similar mass spectrum to dibromo-furan-dione ( $m/z$  254). The  
393 accurate mass obtained from GC-QTOF ( $m/z$  252.8408) supports the molecular formula of  
394  $C_4HNO_2Br_2$  (11 ppm) (Figure S11). The occurrence of brominated pyrroledione indicated that this  
395 class of compounds can be formed during real chloramination scenarios. Similar screening of  
396 chlorinated or brominated pyrroledione compounds should be performed during chloramination of  
397 natural waters or NOM in order to confirm their formation from other organic matrices.

398 Aromatic compounds that do not contain nitrogen can react with monochloramine to produce N-DBPs  
399 through inorganic nitrogen incorporation. The potential formation of nitrogenous heterocyclic  
400 compounds is of importance for water treatment facilities using chloramine as disinfectant since they  
401 could be substantially toxic due to their similarity to known mutagenic compounds (e.g., MX). The  
402 removal of aromatic NOM must be optimized to avoid the production of these potentially toxic  
403 N-DBPs.

404

405 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

406 Detailed information on analytical methods, total ion chromatogram from GC-MS and mass spectrum  
407 of each compound in EI and PCI mode are available in supporting information.

408 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

409 We acknowledge the financial support from Water Research Australia and Water Corporation of  
410 Western Australia (WaterRA Postgraduate Scholarship).

411 **References**

- 412 Backlund, P., Kronberg, L., & Tikkanen, L. (1988). Formation of AMES mutagenicity and of the  
 413 strong bacterial mutagen 3-chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone and other  
 414 halogenated compounds during disinfection of humic water. *Chemosphere*, *17*(7), 1329-1336.
- 415 Bond, T., Huang, J., Templeton, M. R., & Graham, N. (2011). Occurrence and control of nitrogenous  
 416 disinfection by-products in drinking water - A review. *Water Research*, *45*(15), 4341-4354.
- 417 Boyce, S. D., & Hornig, J. F. (1983). Reaction pathways of trihalomethane formation from the  
 418 halogenation of dihydroxyaromatic model compounds for humic acid. *Environmental Science  
 419 & Technology*, *17*(4), 202-211.
- 420 Chu, W. H.; Gao, N. Y. (2009) Determination of nitrogenous disinfection byproducts  
 421 chloroacetamides in drinking water by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Chin. J. Anal.  
 422 Chem.*, *37*(1), 103-106.
- 423 Chu, W.; Krasner, S. W.; Gao, N.; Templeton, M. R.; Yin, D. (2016) Contribution of the  
 424 Antibiotic Chloramphenicol and Its Analogues as Precursors of Dichloroacetamide and Other  
 425 Disinfection Byproducts in Drinking Water. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, *50*(1), 388-396.
- 426 Chu, W., Li, X., Bond, T., Gao, N., & Yin, D. (2016). The formation of haloacetamides and other  
 427 disinfection by-products from non-nitrogenous low-molecular weight organic acids during  
 428 chloramination. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, *285*, 164-171.
- 429 Chuang, Y. H., McCurry, D. L., Tung, H. H., & Mitch, W. A. (2015). Formation Pathways and Trade-  
 430 Offs between Haloacetamides and Haloacetaldehydes during Combined Chlorination and  
 431 Chloramination of Lignin Phenols and Natural Waters. *Environmental Science and  
 432 Technology*, *49*(24), 14432-14440.
- 433 Cimetiere, N., Dossier-Berne, F., & De Laat, J. (2010). Effect of some parameters on the formation of  
 434 chloroform during chloramination of aqueous solutions of resorcinol. *Water Research*,  
 435 *44*(15), 4497-4504.
- 436 De Leer, E. W. B., & Erkelens, C. (1985). Chloroform production from model compounds of aquatic  
 437 humic material the role of pentachlororesorcinol as an intermediate. *Science of the Total  
 438 Environment*, *The*, *47*(C), 211-216.
- 439 Dotson, A., Westerhoff, P., & Krasner, S. W. (2009). Nitrogen enriched dissolved organic matter  
 440 (DOM) isolates and their affinity to form emerging disinfection by-products. *Water Science  
 441 and Technology*, *60*(1), 135-143.
- 442 Freeman, B. A., Wilson, R. E., Binder, R. G., & Haddon, W. F. (2001). Halogenated 2,5-  
 443 pyrrolidinediones: Synthesis, bacterial mutagenicity in Ames tester strain TA-100 and semi-  
 444 empirical molecular orbital calculations. *Mutation Research - Genetic Toxicology and  
 445 Environmental Mutagenesis*, *490*(2), 89-98.
- 446 Haddon, W. F., Binder, R. G., Wong, R. Y., Harden, L. A., Wilson, R. E., Benson, M., & Stevens, K.  
 447 L. (1996). Potent Bacterial Mutagens Produced by Chlorination of Simulated Poultry Chiller  
 448 Water. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *44*(1), 256-263.
- 449 Heasley, V. L., Alexander, M. B., Deboard, R. H., Hanley Jr, J. C., McKee, T. C., Wadley, B. D., &  
 450 Shellhamer, D. F. (1999). Reactions of resorcinol and its chlorinated derivatives with  
 451 monochloramine: Identification of intermediates and products. *Environmental Toxicology and  
 452 Chemistry*, *18*(11), 2406-2409.
- 453 Hemming, J., Holmbom, B., Reunanen, M., & Kronberg, L. (1986). Determination of the strong  
 454 mutagen 3-chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone in chlorinated drinking and  
 455 humic waters. *Chemosphere*, *15*(5), 549-556.
- 456 Hua, G., Kim, J., & Reckhow, D. A. (2014). Disinfection byproduct formation from lignin precursors.  
 457 *Water Research*, *63*, 285-295.
- 458 Hua, G., & Reckhow, D. A. (2007). Comparison of disinfection byproduct formation from chlorine  
 459 and alternative disinfectants. *Water Research*, *41*(8), 1667-1678.
- 460 Hua, G.; Reckhow, D. A. (2008) DBP formation during chlorination and chloramination: Effect of  
 461 reaction time, pH, dosage, and temperature. *J. Am. Water Works Assoc.*, *100* (8), 82-95+12
- 462 Hureiki, L.; Croué, J. P.; Legube, B. (1994) Chlorination studies of free and combined amino acids.  
 463 *Water Res.*, *28*(12), 2521-2531.

- 464 Huang, H., Wu, Q. Y., Hu, H. Y., & Mitch, W. A. (2012). Dichloroacetonitrile and dichloroacetamide  
465 can form independently during chlorination and chloramination of drinking waters, model  
466 organic matters, and wastewater effluents. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 46(19),  
467 10624-10631.
- 468 Kanniganti, R., Johnson, J. D., Ball, L. M., & Charles, M. J. (1992). Identification of compounds in  
469 mutagenic extracts of aqueous monochloraminated fulvic acid. *Environmental Science and*  
470 *Technology*, 26(10), 1998-2004.
- 471 Kimura, S. Y., Komaki, Y., Plewa, M. J., & Mariñas, B. J. (2013). Chloroacetonitrile and N,2-  
472 dichloroacetamide formation from the reaction of chloroacetaldehyde and monochloramine in  
473 water. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 47(21), 12382-12390.
- 474 Krasner Stuart, W., McGuire Michael, J., Jacangelo Joseph, G., Patania Nancy, L., Reagan Kevin, M.,  
475 & Marco Aieta, E. (1989). Occurrence of disinfection by-products in US drinking water.  
476 *Journal / American Water Works Association*, 81(8), 41-53.
- 477 Krasner, S. W., Weinberg, H. S., Richardson, S. D., Pastor, S. J., Chinn, R., Scilimenti, M. J., Onstad,  
478 G. D., & Thruston Jr, A. D. (2006). Occurrence of a new generation of disinfection  
479 byproducts. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 40(23), 7175-7185.
- 480 Kronberg, L., & Christman, R. F. (1989). Chemistry of mutagenic by-products of water chlorination.  
481 *Science of the Total Environment, The*, 81-82(C), 219-230.
- 482 Kronberg, L., & Vartiaine, T. (1988). Ames mutagenicity and concentration of the strong mutagen 3-  
483 chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone and of its geometric isomer E-2-chloro-  
484 3-(dichloromethyl)-4-oxo-butenoic acid in chlorine-treated tap waters. *Mutation*  
485 *Research/Genetic Toxicology*, 206(2), 177-182.
- 486 Långvik, V.-A., Hormi, O., Tikkanen, L., & Holmbom, B. (1991). Formation of the mutagen 3-  
487 chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5H)-furanone and related compounds by chlorination  
488 of phenolic compounds. *Chemosphere*, 22(5), 547-555.
- 489 Le Roux, J., Nihemaiti, M., & Croué, J.-P. (2016). The role of aromatic precursors in the formation of  
490 haloacetamides by chloramination of dissolved organic matter. *Water Research*, 88, 371-379.
- 491 Meier, J. R.; Ringhand, H. P.; Coleman, W. E. (1986) Mutagenic by-products from chlorination of  
492 humic acid. *Environ. Health Perspect.*, Vol. 69, 101-107.
- 493 Muellner, M. G., Wagner, E. D., McCalla, K., Richardson, S. D., Woo, Y. T., & Plewa, M. J. (2007).  
494 Haloacetonitriles vs. regulated haloacetic acids: Are nitrogen-containing DBFs more toxic?  
495 *Environmental Science and Technology*, 41(2), 645-651.
- 496 Norwood, D. L., Johnson, J. D., Christman, R. F., Mass, J. R., & Bobenrieth, M. J. (1980). Reactions  
497 of chlorine with selected aromatic models of aquatic humic material. *Environmental Science*  
498 *and Technology*, 14(2), 187-190.
- 499 Oliver, B. G. (1983). Dihaloacetonitriles in drinking water: Algae and fulvic acid as precursors.  
500 *Environmental Science and Technology*, 17(2), 80-83.
- 501 Pedersen, I. E. J., Urbansky, E. T., Mariñas, B. J., & Margerum, D. W. (1999). Formation of  
502 cyanogen chloride from the reaction of monochloramine with formaldehyde. *Environmental*  
503 *Science and Technology*, 33(23), 4239-4249.
- 504 Plewa, M. J., Wagner, E. D., Jazwierska, P., Richardson, S. D., Chen, P. H., & McKague, A. B.  
505 (2004). Halonitromethane Drinking Water Disinfection Byproducts: Chemical  
506 Characterization and Mammalian Cell Cytotoxicity and Genotoxicity. *Environmental Science*  
507 *and Technology*, 38(1), 62-68.
- 508 Reckhow, D. A., MacNeill, A. L., Platt, T. L., MacNeill, A. L., & McClellan, J. N. (2001). Formation  
509 and degradation of dichloroacetonitrile in drinking waters. *Journal of Water Supply: Research*  
510 *and Technology - AQUA*, 50(1), 1-13.
- 511 Richardson, S. D., DeMarini, D. M., Kogevinas, M., Fernandez, P., Marco, E., Lourencetti, C.,  
512 Ballesté, C., Heederik, D., Meliefste, K., McKague, A. B., Marcos, R., Font-Ribera, L.,  
513 Grimalt, J. O., & Villanueva, C. M. (2010). What's in the pool? a comprehensive  
514 identification of disinfection by-products and assessment of mutagenicity of chlorinated and  
515 brominated swimming pool water. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 118(11), 1523-1530.
- 516 Richardson, S. D., Thruston Jr, A. D., Rav-Acha, C., Groisman, L., Popilevsky, I., Juraev, O., Glezer,  
517 V., McKague, A. B., Plewa, M. J., & Wagner, E. D. (2003). Tribromopyrrole, brominated

518 acids, and other disinfection byproducts produced by disinfection of drinking water rich in  
519 bromide. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 37(17), 3782-3793.

520 Rook, J. J. (1977). Chlorination reactions of fulvic acids in natural waters. *Environmental Science and*  
521 *Technology*, 11(5), 478-482.

522 Rook, J. J. (1980). Possible pathways for the formation of chlorinated degradation products during  
523 chlorination of humic acids and resorcinol. *Water Chlorination: Environmental Impact and*  
524 *Health Effects*, 3, 85-98.

525 Schreiber, I. M., & Mitch, W. A. (2005). Influence of the order of reagent addition on NDMA  
526 formation during chloramination. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 39(10), 3811-  
527 3818.

528 Seidel, C. J., McGuire, M. J., Summers, R. S., & Via, S. (2005). Have utilities switched to  
529 chloramines? *Journal / American Water Works Association*, 97(10), 87-97.

530 Tretyakova, N. Y., Lebedev, A. T., & Petrosyan, V. S. (1994). Degradative pathways for aqueous  
531 chlorination of orcinol. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 28(4), 606-613.

532 Westerhoff, P., & Mash, H. (2002). Dissolved organic nitrogen in drinking water supplies: A review.  
533 *Journal of Water Supply: Research and Technology - AQUA*, 51(8), 415-448.

534 Yang, M., & Zhang, X. (2014). Halopyrroles: A new group of highly toxic disinfection byproducts  
535 formed in chlorinated saline wastewater. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 48(20),  
536 11846-11852.

537 Yang, X., Fan, C., Shang, C., & Zhao, Q. (2010). Nitrogenous disinfection byproducts formation and  
538 nitrogen origin exploration during chloramination of nitrogenous organic compounds. *Water*  
539 *Research*, 44(9), 2691-2702.

540 Yu, Y., & Reckhow, D. A. (2015). Kinetic Analysis of Haloacetonitrile Stability in Drinking Waters.  
541 *Environmental Science and Technology*, 49(18), 11028-11036.

542

543