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Degradation of indomethacin in river water under stress and non-stress laboratory conditions: Degradation products, long-term evolution and adsorption to sediment

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52 Introduction

53 The presence of pharmaceutical compounds in the environ-54 ment is a matter of increasing concern because they impact 55 negatively on the environment. The effluents discharged from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) are the main intro- 56 duction source of pharmaceuticals in surface waters. These 57 compounds are found in the influents of the WWTPs mainly 58 as a result of the inappropriate domestic disposal of unused 59 medicinal products. Indomethacin (INDO) is a non-steroid 60

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ABSTRACT

The pharmaceutical compound indomethacin is not totally removed in wastewater treatment 19 plants, whose effluents flow into aquatic environments; concentrations in the 0.1–100 ng/L 20 range are commonly found in surface waters, and its fate is unknown. Here, biological, 21 photochemical and thermal degradation assays were conducted under stress and non-stress 22 conditions to estimate its degradation rate in river water and establish its degradation products 23 over time. The results revealed that direct sunlight irradiation promoted the complete 24 degradation of indomethacin (2 µg/L) in less than 6 hr, but indomethacin was detected over a 25 period of 4 months when water was kept under the natural day-night cycle and the exposure to 26 sunlight was partially limited, as occurs inside a body of water. The biological degradation in 27 water was negligible, while the hydrolysis at pH 7.8 was slow. Residues were monitored 28 by ultra-pressure liquid chromatography/quadrupole time-of-flight/mass spectrometry after 29 solid-phase extraction, and six degradation products were found; their structures were 30 proposed based on the molecular formulae and fragmentation observed in high-resolution 31 tandem mass spectra. 4-Chlorobenzoic and 2-acetamido-5-methoxybenzoic acids were the 32 long-term transformation products, persisting for at least 30 weeks in water kept under 33 non-stress conditions. Furthermore, the degradation in the presence of sediment was also 34 monitored over time, with some differences being noted. The adsorption coefficients of 35 indomethacin and degradation products on river sediment were calculated; long-term 36 degradation products did not have significant adsorption to sediment. 37

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anti-inflammatory drug detected in the primary influents that 61 reach the WWTPs in concentrations, generally, of 20-100 ng/L, 62 although concentrations of about 1 µg/L have also been 63 reported (Sui et al., 2009; Radjenovic et al., 2009). Concentra-64 tions of about 10-20 ng/L have been found in depurated 65 effluents (Zhou et al., 2009). In river water, INDO concentra-66 67 tions between 0.1 and 100 ng/L are frequent (Kim et al., 2009; Lewandowski et al., 2011; Yamamoto et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 68 69 2009). Concerning the efficiency of WWTPs at removing INDO, 70 there are contradictory data; some authors have concluded that its removal in the global process is non-existent or slight 71 (Radjenovic et al., 2009; Rosal et al., 2010; Sui et al., 2009; Tran 72 et al., 2014), while other authors find that the removal rates are 73 about 40%-100% (Huang et al., 2011; Matsuo et al., 2011; Zhou 74 et al., 2009). Moreover, it has been stated that INDO infiltrates to 75subsurface waters (1 m depth) from surface waters, as has 76occurred for other pharmaceuticals (Lewandowski et al., 2011). 77

The frequent detection of INDO in surface waters and 78 79 WWTP effluents discharged into rivers advises us not only to evaluate its persistence in the environment, but also to 80 determine the possible transformation products in order to 81 obtain an overall perspective and to assess possible risks, 82 because the effects resulting from exposure to the parent 83 84 pharmaceutical and the degradation products can be different (Celiz et al., 2009). So, INDO dissolved in different media has 85 86 been subjected to degradation studies under stress conditions 87 that indicate its photolability, and some degradation products 88 generated in these conditions have been described (Temussi et al., 2011; Yamamoto et al., 2009), but there is no reliable 89 information about its behavior in surface water and especially 90 91 about its long-term fate in non-stress conditions.

In this context, river water spiked with INDO at trace levels 92 was subjected to degradation studies in this work to ascertain 93 the importance of the chemical, photochemical and biological 94 processes in its degradation in surface water. In addition to 95 assays under stress conditions, non-stress conditions were 96 also applied to INDO in aqueous solution in order to simulate its 97 behavior inside a body of water. Water aliquots were analyzed by 98 ultra-pressure liquid chromatography/quadrupole time-of-flight/ 99 mass spectrometry, and the structures of the degradation 100 products found were tentatively elucidated from the molecular 101 102 formulae and fragmentation observed in high-resolution tandem mass spectra. The evolution of the degradation products 103 was also monitored over time to estimate their occurrence, and 104a degradation pathway was outlined. In addition, the adsorp-105tion capacity of sediment for INDO and its degradation products 106 was evaluated by calculating the corresponding adsorption 107coefficients. 108

109 1. Experimental

111 **1.1. Materials and reagents**

Water samples were collected from the rivers Pisuerga (pH value 7.8, chemical oxygen demand value 4.6 mg/L), in the urban area of the city of Valladolid, and Tuerto (pH value 7.4, chemical oxygen demand value 3.9 mg/L), in the rural area of the La Bañeza, province of León; chemical oxygen demand was determined by the potassium dichromate method. A sediment sample (total organic carbon 1.2%; clay 11%, silt 44%, 118 sand 45%) was collected from the river Pisuerga. Total organic 119 carbon was measured by a combustion method with a LECO 120 CS-225 elemental analyzer (St. Joseph, MI, USA). Sediment 121 particle size analysis was based on the Bouyoucos hydrometer 122 method; soil aggregates were dispersed by chemical means. 123

Cellulose nitrate disks from Sartorius (Barcelona, Spain) 124 were used: river water was filtered through 0.2 μ m pore-size 125 disks for the estimation of adsorption coefficients, through 126 3 μ m pore-size disks to carry out biodegradation experiments, 127 and through 0.45 μ m pore-size disks for other degradation 128 experiments. 129

Indomethacin (99% purity) was obtained from Sigma- 130 Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). LC-MS grade methanol, acetonitrile 131 and formic acid were supplied by Panreac (Barcelona, Spain) 132 and ultrapure water was obtained from a Milli-Q plus apparatus 133 (Millipore, Milford, MA, USA). Analysis-grade sodium hydroxide, 134 potassium dihydrogen phosphate and sodium azide were 135 purchased from Panreac. EBH cartridges (60 mg) for solid- 136 phase extraction (SPE) and PTFE disposable syringe filter units, 137 0.20 µm pore size, were obtained from Scharlab (Barcelona, 138 Spain). Tryptone soya broth (TSB), a highly nutrient liquid 139 culture medium for general purpose use, was purchased from 140 Scharlab; its composition can be seen in the supplementary 141 material (Appendix A Table S1). A vacuum centrifuge evapora- 142 tor, Myvac model, was provided by Genevac (Ipswich, UK), a 143 PK120 centrifuge by ALC (Winchester, VA, USA) and a Promax 144 2020 reciprocating platform shaker by Heidolph (Germany). 145

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1.2. Biological degradation

1.2.1. Aerobic degradation

Biological degradation assays were carried out with water 148 from the river Pisuerga (pH 7.8) which was spiked with INDO 149 to achieve a concentration of 2 $\mu\text{g/L}$ A volume of 50 mL of 150river water was transferred into a 100 mL Erlenmeyer flask, 151 which was then coated with aluminum foil to avoid exposure 152 to sunlight but allowing the exchange of air with the 153 atmosphere. An INDO control solution was similarly prepared 154 in ultrapure water (pH 7.8 adjusted with NaOH) containing 155 0.02% (W/V) sodium azide as a biocide. Water blanks were 156 prepared as well. Samples were run in parallel; flasks 157 were shaken in a reciprocating shaker at a rotation speed of 158 130 r/min for 5 weeks, within a temperature range of 18-21°C. 159 Aliquots of 5 mL were collected each week and subjected 160 to analysis. Evaporation water losses were periodically 161 restored by addition of water of the same type. All biological 162 experiments were carried out in duplicate. 163

1.2.2. Anaerobic degradation

River water (pH 7.8) spiked at 2 μ g/L was placed in 15 mL vials, 165 completely filled to avoid the presence of air in the headspace. 166 The vials were closed, protected from light by coating them 167 with aluminum foil and kept in a temperature range of 18– 168 21°C during experimentation. Control solutions with INDO in 169 ultrapure water (pH 7.8 adjusted) containing 0.02% sodium 170 azide, and the corresponding blanks, were also run in parallel. 171 A batch of vials was assembled to withdraw weekly samples 172 over a period of 5 weeks; a volume of 5 mL from each 173 withdrawn vial was collected for analysis. 174

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