



# Ionizing radiation induced degradation of salicylic acid in aqueous solution

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## ABSTRACT

The radiation-induced degradation of salicylic acid ( $\text{SA}^-$ ) in aqueous solutions ( $1.0$  and  $0.1 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3}$ ) saturated with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or air or without oxygen were studied. Irradiation was carried out using a cobalt-60 source. With a  $1 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3}$  solution saturated with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  a seemingly total degradation occurred at about  $18 \text{ kGy}$ , although small quantities of 2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid, catechol and 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid were present at that dose at concentrations of  $67$ ,  $22$  and  $6 \mu\text{mol dm}^{-3}$  respectively. Under air and when free oxygen, the three radiolytic products were present at  $18.54 \text{ kGy}$  while  $\text{SA}^-$  was destroyed only to  $90\%$  and  $62\%$ , respectively. In the case of  $0.1 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3}$   $\text{SA}^-$  solutions, the acid was degraded at  $3.5 \text{ kGy}$  if the solution contained  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , at  $5.8 \text{ kGy}$  in air and at  $7 \text{ kGy}$  without oxygen. The concentration of the radiolytic products increased with increasing dose and after a maximum they decreased. The oxidation was followed by measuring the chemical oxygen demand; the slopes were  $0.48$  and  $0.11$ ,  $0.21$  and  $0.07$ ,  $0.15$  and  $0.03 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3} \text{ kGy}^{-1}$  for  $1.0$  and  $0.10 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3}$  solutions saturated with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or air or without oxygen, respectively.

## 1. Introduction

There are several studies that deal with the removal of organic compounds from water using different advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) based on in situ generation of a powerful oxidizing agent, such as  $\cdot\text{OH}$ , at a sufficient concentration to effectively decontaminate water (Munter, 2001; Torun et al., 2014; Csay et al., 2014). These methods include heterogeneous photocatalysis using  $\text{TiO}_2$  suspensions (Palmisano et al., 2007), photoelectro-Fenton reactions, using UVA and solar light (Flores et al., 2007), ozonolysis ( $\text{O}_3 + \text{UV}$  irradiation) and peroxonation (Zaviska et al., 2009), photo-Fenton processes using  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{UV}$  (Brillas et al., 2009), and ultrasound in the presence of other oxidants (Ma, 2012). Other papers have described the oxidation and degradation-destruction of organic pollutants in water using ionizing radiation (Getoff, 1999; Peller and Kamat, 2005; Report of the 2nd RCM, 2012; Homlok et al., 2013; Wojnárovits and Takács, 2016).

Salicylic acid (SA) has been widely used as a medication mainly to treat skin ailments (Madan and Levitt, 2014). This acid acts as an antacid, mild antibiotic, bactericidal and antiseptic. SA is also used as a food preservative. However, it is ototoxic and causes diseases of the central nervous system. SA is also used in the production of other pharmaceuticals, such as acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin), 4-aminosalicylic acid sandulpiride, bismuth subsalicylate, etc. However, the pharmacological residues could have a negative impact on human health. Thus, it

is important to determine pharmacological contaminants in water intended for human consumption. SA is an active metabolite of aspirin after it has been processed by the body. Microbial and chemical degradation of aspirin includes its conversion to SA. Aspirin has been found in wastewater in several countries. As an example, in Tokyo aspirin was the most abundant pharmaceutical in the influent of water processing plants, with an average concentration of  $7300 \text{ ng dm}^{-3}$  (Nakada et al., 2006). In order to degrade SA, different AOPs have been employed. An example is photoelectrochemical oxidation using  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube arrays (Tian et al., 2009), where first-order kinetics and an  $83\%$  decomposition ( $30 \text{ ppm}$ ) oxidation were found over 2-h period. Guinea et al. (2008) studied the mineralization of SA by several electrochemical methods using platinum and boron-doped diamond as anodes. They found a quick destruction until totality with  $\cdot\text{OH}$  produced at the boron-doped diamond anode. Zanta and Martínez-Huitle (2009) and Chen et al. (2010) showed that the Fenton process was the most effective under acid conditions of SA degradation requiring only a short time. In Garza-Campos et al. (2016) studied different AOPs and found that the best treatment to mineralize SA was obtained by coupling solar photoelectro-Fenton and solar heterogeneous photocatalysis, due to the additional oxidation by  $\cdot\text{OH}$  at the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface.

The present study evaluates the use of ionizing radiation to degrade SA in water (salicylate  $\text{SA}^-$ ).

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## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Reagents

SA<sup>-</sup>, dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHBA), catechol (CAT), and potassium ferrocyanide, all of the purest commercially available quality, methanol (HPLC grade) and acetic acid for analysis (99.7%) were all from Sigma-Aldrich. The gases N<sub>2</sub>O (atomic absorption grade) and He (ultrahigh purity grade) were supplied by Praxair. For digestion, Hach Ultra-Low Range COD reagent (0.7–40 mg dm<sup>-3</sup> O<sub>2</sub>) was used. The water used in all irradiation experiments and for preparing the standard solutions was obtained using a Milli-Q Plus compact purifier from Millipore.

### 2.2. Sample preparation and irradiation

Aqueous solutions of 1.0 and 0.1 mmol dm<sup>-3</sup> SA<sup>-</sup> (138 and 13.8 mg dm<sup>-3</sup> respectively) were prepared for irradiation as follows: a) 1 mmol dm<sup>-3</sup> K<sub>3</sub>Fe(CN)<sub>6</sub> was added to these solutions, which were then put into hermetically sealed vials and then saturated with N<sub>2</sub>O using a needle; b) Aliquots of the solutions were placed in hermetically sealed vials and were saturated with N<sub>2</sub>O; c) Aliquots of the solutions were placed in hermetically sealed vials and residual oxygen was eliminated from the solutions by bubbling helium. d) The solutions were placed in open tubes. The vials and tubes were irradiated with a <sup>60</sup>Co gamma-source (Gammabeam 651 PT, MDS Nordion) at different doses with a dose rate of 103 Gy min<sup>-1</sup>, calibrated with a cupric-ferrous system (Spinks and Woods, 1990).

### 2.3. Analysis of the radiolytic products

The samples were analyzed immediately after irradiation with a HPLC chromatograph (Agilent Technologies Series 1100 System) coupled to a Chemstation for control and data acquisition. The chromatograph is equipped with both photodiode array and mass spectroscopy detectors. A Thermo Hypersil C18, 3 μm, 150 × 4.6 mm column was used for product separation. The products were eluted using 35:65 methanol:1% aqueous acetic acid. All products (peaks in the chromatogram) were identified by their retention times and their spectra, which were compared with authentic samples. In order to quantify the radiolytic products, the peaks from the chromatogram were integrated at their maximum wavelengths. The concentrations were determined from these areas using analytical curves obtained with reference sam-

ples, using the program Origin Pro 7.

### 2.4. Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD)

COD is a measure of the oxygen equivalent of the organic matter content a sample that is susceptible to oxidation by a strong chemical oxidant. In this work aliquots of 2 mL of the irradiated solutions were added to the Hach Ultra-Low Range solution for digestion, mixed and then heated for 2 h at 150 °C in a Hach reactor. Samples were cooled to room temperature and, when cool, were analyzed on an Agilent Technologies spectrophotometer with a diode array detector. A calibration curve was prepared from a Chemical Oxygen Demand standard solution (Hach) of 300 mg dm<sup>-3</sup> of potassium acid phthalate.

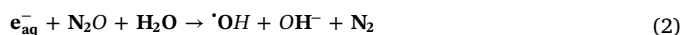
Experiments were conducted in at least triplicate to ensure the reproducibility of the results for each tested dose.

## 3. Theoretical considerations

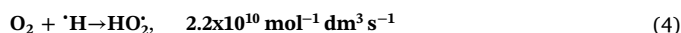
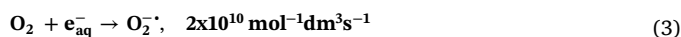
In the radiolysis of the water several species are generated (Spinks and Woods, 1990), principally <sup>•</sup>OH, e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> and H<sup>•</sup>, which play the main role in the degradation of SA<sup>-</sup>:



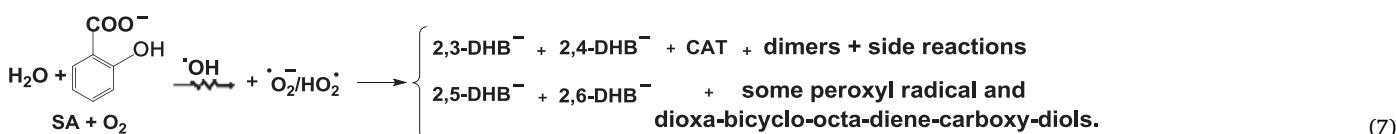
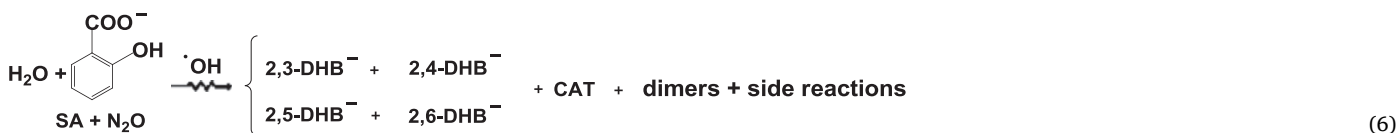
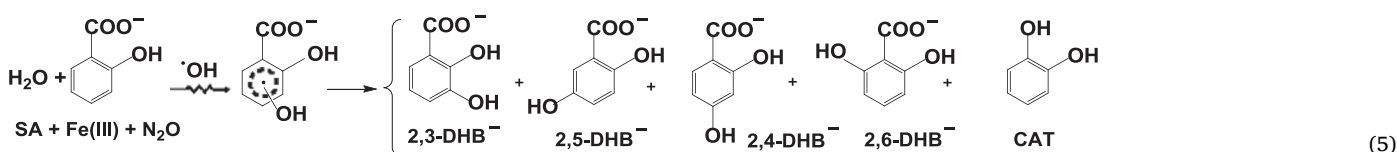
In addition, if water is treated prior to radiolysis with N<sub>2</sub>O to saturate the solutions, e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> is quantitatively converted to <sup>•</sup>OH ( $k = 9.1 \times 10^9 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) (Buxton et al., 1988) and the yield of the directly formed and the e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> converted <sup>•</sup>OH is G(<sup>•</sup>OH) = 0.56 μmol J<sup>-1</sup>, according to the following reaction (Janata and Schuler, 1982).



In solutions containing air the aqueous electron and the hydrogen atom, formed in the radiolysis of water, react with oxygen forming two new species according to reactions (3) and (4). The rate constants are given by Bielski et al. (1985).



Thus, the free radicals formed in water radiolysis interact with SA<sup>-</sup> in solution. The results depend on the conditions of the solution and the dose, according to the following reactions:



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