



# Efficient cephalosporin degradation using active chlorine produced on ruthenium and iridium oxide anodes: Role of bath composition, analysis of degradation pathways and degradation extent

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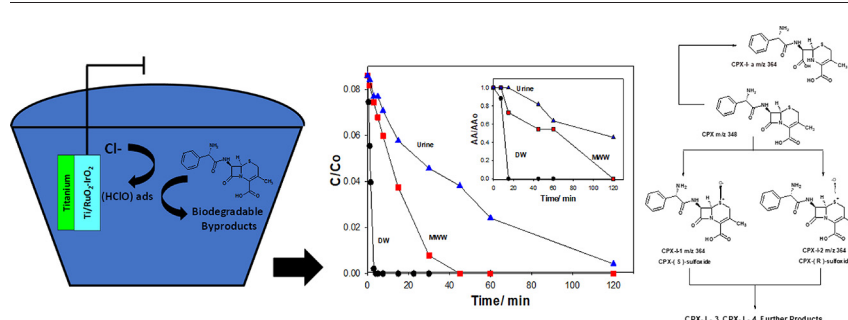
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## HIGHLIGHTS

- XRD and profile refinement indicate that Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub>-IrO<sub>2</sub> forms a solid solution.
- Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub>-IrO<sub>2</sub> anode experienced a higher active chlorine production.
- Cephalosporin degradation on Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub>-IrO<sub>2</sub> was carried out in urine and MWW.
- Initial organic byproducts were identified, and pH and j evaluated.
- Antimicrobial activity was removed and biodegradable byproducts were obtained.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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## ABSTRACT

The elimination of cephalosporin (CPX) using electro-generated Cl<sub>2</sub>-active on Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub>-IrO<sub>2</sub> anode was assessed in different effluents: deionized water (DW), municipal wastewater (MWW) and urine. Single Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub> and Ti/IrO<sub>2</sub> catalysts were prepared to compare their morphologies and electrochemical behavior against the binary DSA. XRD and profile refinement suggest that Ti/RuO<sub>2</sub>-IrO<sub>2</sub> forms a solid solution, where RuO<sub>2</sub> and IrO<sub>2</sub> growths are oriented by the TiO<sub>2</sub> substrate through substitution of Ir by Ru atoms within its rutile-type structure. SEM reveals mud-cracked structures with flat areas for all catalysts, while EDS analysis indicates atomic ratios in the range of the oxide stoichiometries in the nominal concentrations used during synthesis. A considerably higher CPX degradation is achieved in the presence of NaCl than in Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> or Na<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> media due to the active chlorine generation. A faster CPX degradation is reached when the current density is increased or the pH value is lowered. This last behavior may be ascribed to an acid-catalyzed reaction between HClO and CPX. Degradation rates of 22.5, 3.96, and 0.576  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$  were observed for DW, MWW and urine, respectively. The lower efficiency measured in these last two effluents was related to the presence of organic matter and urea in the matrix. A degradation pathway is proposed based on HPLC-DAD and HPLC-MS analysis, indicating the fast formation (5 min) of CPX-(S)-sulfoxide and CPX-(R)-sulfoxide, generated due the Cl<sub>2</sub>-active attack at the CPX thioether. Furthermore, antimicrobial activity elimination of the treated solution is reached once CPX, and the initial by-products are considerably eliminated. Finally, even if only 16% of initial TOC is removed, BOD<sub>5</sub> tests prove the ability of electro-

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generated  $\text{Cl}_2$ -active to transform the antibiotic into biodegradable compounds. A similar strategy can be used for the abatement of other recalcitrant compounds contained in real water matrices such as urine and municipal wastewaters.

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## 1. Introduction

Cephalexin (CPX) belongs to the cephalosporins family, the second group of antibiotics most consumed worldwide which are characterized by a  $\beta$ -lactam ring within their structures and high-water solubility (Homem and Santos, 2011; Watkinson et al., 2009). This pharmaceutical compound is widely used to treat infectious diseases caused by bacteria on skin, throat, tonsils, and urinary tract, and undergoes a biotransformation rate of only 10%, excreting the remaining 90% via urine (Kümmerer, 2009a; Mirzaei et al., 2018). Consequently, its presence is becoming a serious human risk in aquatic environments, since it is mainly associated with the proliferation of organisms resistant to antibiotics and it can generate toxic effects even at low concentrations (Kümmerer, 2009b). These effects are more severe considering that a maximum residue limit has not been established for this compound by any international health organization (i.e. WHO), whence its use is not regulated. Due to its chemical structure and antimicrobial nature, conventional methods for wastewater treatment (physical, chemical and biological) are ineffective to eliminate this compound; thus, CPX, as antibiotics in general, is considered a pseudo-persistent emergent contaminant (Ma and Zhai, 2014).

In recent years, indirect electrochemical oxidation by active chlorine ( $\text{Cl}_2$ -active) species ( $\text{Cl}_2/\text{Cl}^- E_{red} = 1.36 \text{ V vs SHE}$ ,  $\text{HClO}/\text{Cl}^- E_{red} = 1.49 \text{ V vs SHE}$  and  $\text{ClO}^-/\text{Cl}^- E_{red} = 0.89 \text{ V vs SHE}$ ) has emerged as a novel alternative system to degrade organic pollutants in the existence of chloride ions (Palma-Goyes et al., 2015; Palma-Goyes et al., 2016a, 2016b; Serna-Galvis et al., 2017c). Under this context, these ions are used as reagent by the application of an electric current. One advantage is that the activity of electro-generated  $\text{Cl}_2$ -active occurs at less positive potentials compared to the formation of other oxidants, thus, decreasing the energy consumption and enabling the selective oxidation towards pollutants contained in wastewater with natural organic matter (Deborde and von Gunten, 2008). In electrochemical oxidation with  $\text{Cl}_2$ -active, the composition of anode materials plays a dominant role, and substantially influences both the selectivity and the efficiency of the process (de Menezes et al., 2017; Palma-Goyes et al., 2016a, 2016b; Steter et al., 2016). These species are efficiently generated using dimensionally stable anodes (DSAs) which are distinguished by their high catalytic activity towards  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  oxidation, poor corrosion, low energy consumption, and typically based on  $\text{RuO}_2$  (Chen et al., 2013). A mixture of  $\text{RuO}_2$  and  $\text{IrO}_2$  (Ti/Ru-Ir) has been proposed as electrocatalyst since pure  $\text{RuO}_2$  despite displaying the highest activity for  $\text{O}_2$  evolution becomes inactive over usage, while  $\text{IrO}_2$  exhibits adequate corrosion resistance, and promotes the formation of  $\text{Cl}_2$ -active species (Cheng et al., 2009; Kötzt et al., 1984; Lyons and Floquet, 2011; Trasatti, 2000).

Recent studies have described the indirect oxidation of  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotic type-compounds by electrogenerated active chlorine using Ti/Ir $\text{O}_2$  anodes (Ti/Ir) (Serna-Galvis et al., 2017b; Serna-Galvis et al., 2016a, 2016b). However, Ti/Ru-Ir anode possesses superior activity compared to Ti/Ir towards the active chlorine production, since it synergistically combines the properties of two catalysts, whence it turns out to be essential to test its degradation capacities towards cephalexin, which to our current state of knowledge has not been conducted. In addition, the influence of matrix effects (i.e. “apparent inactive” components in the wastewater) on the removal efficiency is nowadays of special interest (Paredes-Laverde et al., 2018; Serna-Galvis et al., 2017b; Serna-Galvis et al., 2017a), as well as the elimination of antimicrobial activity, biodegradability and mineralization extent of electro-

treated effluent. Thus, the present work is intended to assess for the first time the elimination of CPX and its antibiotic activity from municipal wastewater (MWW) and urine effluents by electro-generated  $\text{Cl}_2$ -active on a Ti/Ru-Ir anode. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy for scanning electron microscopy (SEM-EDS), and X-ray diffraction (XRD) are employed to account for the chemical structure and morphology of the electrode material, while electrochemical techniques are used to describe the electro-catalytic behavior of the system. The effects of current density, effluent composition and pH are also evaluated, the degradation pathway is elucidated and biodegradability and mineralization extent is analyzed.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Chemicals and preparation of effluents

The following analytical reagents were purchased from Merck and used as received: sodium chloride ( $\text{NaCl}$ ), potassium dihydrogenphosphate ( $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ), monoacid potassium phosphate ( $\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4$ ), acetonitrile ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{N}$ ), sulfuric acid ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ ), potassium iodide (KI), sodium hydroxide ( $\text{NaOH}$ ), magnesium sulfate ( $\text{Mg}_2\text{SO}_4$ ), sodium hydroxide ( $\text{NaOH}$ ), potassium chloride (KCl), and magnesium chloride ( $\text{MgCl}_2$ ), oxalic acid, ethyleneglycol (EG) and citric acid (CA). Ammonium heptamolybdate ( $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) was obtained from Pro analysis. Analytic grade reagents of  $\text{RuCl}_3$ ,  $\text{IrCl}_3$  and perchloric acid ( $\text{HClO}_4$ ) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Cephalexin (CPX) was provided by Syntopharma laboratories (Bogota, Colombia).

Urine solutions were synthetically prepared according to Udert et al. (2003), while MWW was made according to the ASTM standard D5905-98 (ASTM D5905-98(2013), Standard Practice for the Preparation of Substitute Wastewater, ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2013) (Table 1).

### 2.2. Synthesis of anode materials

DSAs films were impregnated on titanium plates using the Pechini method according to Palma-Goyes et al. (2016a, 2016b). Analytic grade reagents of  $\text{RuCl}_3$  and  $\text{IrCl}_3$  were utilized as metallic precursors in a polymeric mixture prepared with a molar ratio of  $\text{Ru}/\text{Ir} = 1$  with  $2.4 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  CA as chelating agent, and  $18 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  EG as reaction solvent. The polymeric mixture was kept stirred for 30 min at  $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and subsequently deposited on Ti plates ( $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}$ ), which were previously treated in oxalic acid at  $75 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min. These plates were dried at  $180$

**Table 1**  
Chemical composition of municipal wastewater and fresh urine used for the electrochemical treatment.

Fresh urine	Municipal wastewater		Distilled water		
pH 6	pH 8		pH 6		
Concentration $\text{mg L}^{-1}$					
$\text{Cl}^-$	6254	$\text{Cl}^-$	18	$\text{Cl}^-$	2900
Urea	16,000	Peptone	160		
$\text{NaAc}^a$	10,250	Meat extract	110		
$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$	2300	Urea	30		
$\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$	2900	$\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4$	28		
$\text{NaOH}$	120	$\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	4		

<sup>a</sup> NaAc: sodium acetate.

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