# Solar photo–Fenton as finishing step for biological treatment of a pharmaceutical wastewater

C. Sirtori <sup>a,b,c</sup>, A. Zapata <sup>a</sup>, I. Oller <sup>a</sup>, W. Gernjak <sup>a,d</sup>, A. Agüera <sup>b</sup>, S. Malato <sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Plataforma Solar de Almería (CIEMAT), Carretera Senés, km 4, 04200 Tabernas (Almería),

Spain

<sup>b</sup> Pesticide Residue Research Group, University of Almería, 04120 Almería, Spain

<sup>c</sup> The Capes Foundation, Ministry of Education of Brazil, PO Box 365, Brasília-DF 70359-970,

Brazil

<sup>d</sup> The University of Queensland, Advanced Water Management Centre (AWMC), Qld 4072,

Australia

\* To whom all correspondence should be addressed

e-mail: <u>sixto.malato@psa.es</u>,

Tel.: +34-950387940, fax: +34-950365015

## Abstract

Remediation of pharmaceutical wastewater, containing nalidixic acid (NXA, 38 mg/L), a quinolone antibacterial agent commonly used in human and veterinary medicine, and characterised as having mainly 725 mg/L of dissolved organic carbon (DOC). <u>3400 mg/L of COD</u> and NaCl of around 4 g/L, was studied. A prior biodegradability study (Zahn-Wellens test) had demonstrated that the matrix was biodegradable after a rather long biomass adaptation period. After 4 days of treatment in an immobilized biomass reactor (IBR), 96% of the original DOC was removed by the biological treatment, however, more than 50% of NXA was adsorbed on the biomass. As development of chronic toxicity in the IBR is possible after long exposure to NXA, adsorption and biomass stability during continuous exposure to NXA were studied in different cycles for one month. After the biotreatment, the effluent was treated by solar photo-Fenton. Total degradation of NXA and reduction in toxicity were observed. The intermediates formed during degradation by biotreatment and subsequent photo-Fenton were studied by Liquid Chromatography- Time of Flight-Mass Spectrometry.

Keywords: Detoxification, nalidixic acid, immobilised biomass reactor, solar photo-Fenton.

### Introduction

Today's extensive use of pharmaceuticals for preventing and treating infectious diseases in both humans and animals has contributed to the appearance of a new class of potentially hazardous organic pollutants. The occurrence and fate of antibiotics in the aquatic environment has been internationally documented (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). Antibiotics are of particular concern, as they can induce bacterial resistance, even at low concentrations (6, 7, 8, 9). In addition, many pharmaceutical substances are often not eliminated by wastewater treatment or biodegraded in the environment, as described in recent reviews (10, 11, 12, 13).

It has been demonstrated that the use of advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) can break down a wide range of pharmaceutical molecules due to the on-site generation of sufficient hydroxyl radicals (\*OH), a highly potent, extremely reactive chemical oxidant, to oxidize these compounds and purify water. Light-driven AOPs produce hydroxyl radicals by combining oxidants such as ozone or  $H_2O_2$  with highly energetic UV-C radiation or in the presence of catalysts such as metal ions or semiconductors and irradiation in the UV, or even in the visible range. Among the AOPs, photo-Fenton has gained increasing attention due to its simplicity and the possibility of using sunlight for the reaction, considerably lowering the operating cost (*14*). Its application for the degradation of pharmaceuticals, such as antibiotics, hormones, analgesics, anti-inflammatory drugs and others, has recently been reported (*15, 16, 17*).

The efficacy of AOPs in treating a wastewater is strongly dependent on (i) the composition and concentration of the wastewater in question and (ii) the treatment target, so the heavier the pollutant load and the more removal is required, the stronger the treatment conditions must be. From this point<u>of view</u>, treatment performance can be enhanced by the application of AOPs as a pre-treatment stage to enhance biodegradability and reduce toxicity followed by biological post-treatment. This concept, which has attracted much attention over the past several years (*18*,

*19)*, is relatively straightforward and based on (i) biological treatment being less expensive and more environmentally friendly than any other destructive treatment, and (ii) complete mineralisation by AOPs leads to excessive treatment cost since the highly oxidized end-products tend to be <u>resistant</u> to total chemical oxidation. In previous studies, it has been observed that the products remaining after AOP treatment of pharmaceuticals are biodegradable (*20, 21, 22, 23*), and therefore more suitable for biological treatment. But studies involving real wastewater treatment are scarce, and still scarcer those taking into account that wastewater often contains a significant number of biodegradable compounds along with those that are biorecalcitrant.

The aim of this study was to find the best way of treating wastewater containing NXA, a synthetic antibacterial agent frequently used in the treatment of urinary tract infections involving Gram-negative organisms (24), by combining an AOP and a biotreatment. A pilot solar photo-Fenton -plant and an immobilised biomass reactor (IBR), were used for the study. The work also involved a detailed liquid chromatography-time of flight-mass spectrometry (LC-TOF-MS) study of intermediates formed during <u>both treatments</u>.

## Experimental

## Chemicals

The NXA standard was provided by Fluka. Photo-Fenton experiments were performed using FeSO<sub>4</sub><sup>·7</sup>H<sub>2</sub>O and reagent-grade H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30% w/<u>w</u>). The pharmaceutical wastewater had a pH of 3.98, 725 mg/L of DOC, 3400 mg/L of COD, 0.4 g/L of TSS, 38 mg/L of NXA and inorganic ions (Cl<sup>-</sup> = 2.7 g/L, Na<sup>+</sup> = 1.8 g/L, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> = 0.018 g/L and <0.1 mg/L of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>). Other organics present in the pharmaceutical wastewater were analysed by LC-TOF-MS (Table 1). The actual treatment procedure includes blending the wastewater with other water and the combined stream is disposed of in a central biotreatment plant. NXA was found to cause serious problems in such a centralized treatment plant.

## Analytical methods

An Agilent Series 1100 HPLC system with a UV-DAD detector ( $\lambda = 254$ nm), C-18 column (Phenomenex LUNA 5 µm, 3 mm x 150 mm) and methanol/formic acid (25mM) 50/50 mobile phase were used to monitor NXA concentration during degradation. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was monitored by a total organic carbon analyser (Shimadzu-5050A TOC analyser). NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> were monitored by ion chromatography (Dionex DX120 for cations and Dionex DX600 for anions). Chemical oxygen demand (COD) was measured with Merck<sup>®</sup> Spectroquant kits. Total iron concentration was monitored by colorimetric determination with 1,10-phenanthroline, according to ISO6332. Fe(III) was reduced with ascorbic acid to determine the total amount of iron. Hydrogen peroxide was analyzed by a spectrophotometric method using ammonium metavanadate (25).

Solid-phase extraction using Oasis<sup>TM</sup> HLB cartridges was applied first to reduce the salt content in the matrix before chromatographic analysis, and to improve intermediate detectability. Intermediates were studied by Liquid Chromatography- Time of Flight-Mass spectrometry using positive-ion mode electrospray ionization in positive mode, LC-TOF-MS (ESI+). The HPLC System (Agilent Technologies Series 1100) was equipped with a ZORBAX, SB-C18 analytical column (5 µm, 3 mm x 250 mm). The mobile phase was a mixture of acetonitrile acidified by 0.1% formic acid (A) and water acidified by 0.1% formic acid (B) at a flow rate of 0.4 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. A linear gradient progressed from 10% A (initial conditions) to 100% A in 30 minutes, and then remained at 100% A for 5 minutes. A connected TOF mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies) was equipped with an electrospray interface operating with a capillary voltage of 4000 V, nebulizer 40 psi g, drying gas 9 L min<sup>-1</sup>, gas temperature 300°C; skimmer voltage 190 V, octapole DC1, 37.5 V, and octapole rf 250 V. Data were processed with Applied Biosystem/MDS-SCIEX Analyst QS software with Agilent MSD TOF specific

<u>accurate mass application- software</u>. Possible elemental ion composition was assigned with a maximum deviation of 6.6 ppm.

## Biotreatment

The biological reactor was an <u>immobilized biomass reactor (IBR)</u> consisting of a 160-L flat-bottom tank filled with 90-95 L of polypropylene Pall Rings (15 mm nominal diameter) colonized by activated sludge from a conventional wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) in Almeria (southeast Spain). The system is composed of a 100-L conditioner tank with a pH control system connected to the IBR by a recirculation pump (500 L/h). Dissolved oxygen, pH and temperature were automatically measured and registered. The bioreactor was operated in batch mode.

The biological reactor was started up and adapted, starting with immobilization of sludge on the rings, which took two days (total suspended solids = 0 g/L). After this, the system was maintained by controlled addition of glucose and ammonium chloride, keeping the carbon/nitrogen ratio at 100/20. The next step was to adapt the sludge to high NaCl content (approximately 5 g/L). Total suspended solids, DOC, pH, and nitrogen concentration (as  $NH_4^+$ and  $NO_3$ ) were analysed throughout IBR adaptation.

#### **Solar photo-Fenton**

All solar photo-Fenton experiments were performed in a compound parabolic collector (CPC) solar photocatalytic pilot plant composed of two modules of twelve Pyrex glass tubes mounted on a fixed platform tilted  $37^{\circ}$  (local latitude), with a total area of  $3 \text{ m}^2$  and 40-L volume (22 L irradiated) (26).

At the beginning of all the photo-Fenton experiments, the wastewater was added to the photoreactor. Then the pH was adjusted to 2.6-2.8 with  $H_2SO_4$  (2 N). Afterwards, iron salt was

added (FeSO<sub>4.7</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O, 20 mg/L of Fe<sup>2+</sup>) and <u>mixed</u>. Finally, the first dose of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (300 mg/L) was added and the reactor uncovered. Samples were taken at time intervals during the experiments to evaluate degradation and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was kept in the range of 200- 400 mg/L during the experiments.

Solar ultraviolet radiation was measured and recorded continuously by a global UV radiometer (KIPP&ZONEN, model CUV 4). With Equation 1 (27), combination of the data from several days' experiments and their comparison with other photocatalytic experiments is possible, where  $t_n$  is the experimental time for each sample, UV is the average solar ultraviolet radiation measured during  $\Delta t_n$ , and  $t_{30W}$  is a "normalized illumination time". In this case, time refers to a constant solar UV power of 30 W.m<sup>-2</sup> (typical solar UV power on a perfectly sunny day around noon).  $V_T$  is the total volume of the water loaded in the pilot plant (40 L), and  $V_i$  is the total irradiated volume (22.0 L).

$$t_{30W,n} = t_{30W,n-1} + \Delta t_n \frac{UV}{30} \frac{V_i}{V_T}; \quad \Delta t_n = t_n - t_{n-1}$$
(1)

### Toxicity and biodegradability assays

Toxicity of the original pharmaceutical wastewater and final samples of each process was evaluated using a commercial luminescence inhibition assay marketed as Biofix®Lumi-10 (*Vibrio fischeri*). Sample inhibition effect on the bacteria was analysed by measuring the drop in light emission after contact periods of 30 minutes compared to a toxicant-free control (ISO 11348-3). Toxicity of the same samples was also measured using the crustacean *Daphnia magna* (Cladocera) with a commercially available kit (Daphtoxkit Creasel). The toxicity studies were performed in accordance with test conditions prescribed by OECD Guideline 202 and ISO 6341.

The biodegradability of the original pharmaceutical wastewater was found by a 28-day Zahn-Wellens (Z-W) test (an adaptation of the EC protocol, Directive 88/303/EEC) done at 20-25°C under diffuse illumination (28).

#### **Results and discussion**

The main wastewater parameters were described above in the Experimental section. The Z-W test showed significant biodegradability (around 80%), but only after 15 days, and NXA concentration remained constant, demonstrating that NXA is biorecalcitrant and cannot be degraded by conventional biotreatment. The Z-W test showed that although the most of the organic content of the wastewater could be biodegraded, the biomass required a long adaptation period and NXA persisted. This demonstrated that a biological system could treat the matrix studied, but not NXA, which is not biodegradable and should be removed afterwards by an AOP.

## **Evaluation of combined biological and photo-Fenton treatment**

The IBR was emptied and filled with pharmaceutical wastewater with pH previously adjusted to <u>around pH = 7</u>, and <u>maintained between 7 and 8 by an IBR pH control system</u>. DOC and NXA concentrations were monitored throughout the biological treatment. After 4 days, 96% of the initial DOC was removed, demonstrating that biomass immobilization was successful. On the first day, NXA concentration was reduced to 14 mg/L and remained constant until the end of the process. This sharp drop in NXA could only be related to the adsorption of the compound on the IBR (biomass or 15-mm polypropylene Pall Rings).

NXA is a very weak organic acid with a pKa of 5.95 that may be present in both neutral and anionic forms in the neutral pH range. Therefore, the adsorption capacity of this compound also varies according to the pH. Lorphensri et al. (29) studied the adsorption and transport of some pharmaceuticals, including NXA, in low-organic-content aquifer sand. NXA showed

much stronger adsorption in low-organic aquifer sand than expected based on its hydrophobicity. The adsorption of NXA was also observed to be highly dependent on pH, which further supports electrostatic forces as dominant in the sorption (29). The pH in the IBR was around 7 throughout the process, with NXA solubility around 300 mg/L and log  $K_{ow}$  0.4 ( $K_{ows}$  octanol-water partition constant). Stackelberg et al. (30) also studied removal of the pharmaceutical in conventional drinking-water-treatment processes. Hydrophobic compounds, such as NXA, are generally detected at elevated concentrations in dried-solid samples and are not present at measurable concentrations in finished-water samples. As there was no inorganic N in the wastewater matrix, nitrogen as ammonium chloride was added to satisfy the need for a constant C:N ratio (100:20) in the aerobic biological systems. Inorganic nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) was monitored during the biotreatment, however no nitrification was observed.

After the biological treatment, the partially biotreated wastewater was treated by photo-Fenton (Figure 1). Two degradation studies were carried out. In the first, the biotreatment effluent (NXA 13 mg/L and DOC 22 mg/L) was treated directly. In the second study, the biotreated wastewater was enriched by adding NXA standard until 38 mg/L,, simulating absence of IBR adsorption of NXA after biomass saturation. The other parameters, common to both studies, were 20 mg/L of iron, pH = 2.7 and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration kept between 200 and 400 mg/L. In both cases, NXA was completely degraded at around 25 minutes of illumination time and 12 mM of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> consumed, reaching a DOC of around 20 mg/L, which is low enough for disposal. In both experiments, after 50 minutes of illumination time, the DOC reaction rate decreased drastically, however, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> consumption continued. The overall efficiency of the combined IBR+solar photo-Fenton treatment in terms of elimination of DOC was over 97%. Biorefractory compounds are very often not so toxic to activated sludge,, and biodegradation prior to AOP may be successful, avoiding long treatment times and high chemical consumption, the main drawbacks of AOP treatments. In these cases, AOP treatment is more suitable as a polishing step than as a pretreatment. It should be mentioned that direct photo-Fenton treatment of this wastewater required around 3 hours of treatment time and 85 mM of  $H_2O_2$  to completely degrade NXA, and 600 mg/L of DOC still remained after NXA had completely disappeared (31).

On the other hand, the presence of Cl<sup>-</sup> in the wastewater matrix affects the photo-Fenton process, as Cl<sup>-</sup> acts as a hydroxyl radical scavenger. Less reactive species, such as chlorine atoms (Cl<sup>•</sup>) and dichloride anion radicals (Cl<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup>), are generated by Reactions 2-4.

$$Cl^- + HO^\bullet \to ClOH^{\bullet-}$$
 (2)

$$ClOH^{\bullet-} + H^+ \to Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O \tag{3}$$

$$Cl^{\bullet} + Cl^{-} \to Cl_{2}^{\bullet-} \tag{4}$$

The negative effect of Cl<sup>-</sup> on photo-Fenton efficiency is also related to the formation of iron(III)-chloro complexes, <u>which inhibit</u> the formation of iron(III)-hydroperoxide complexes, <u>active species in photo-Fenton process</u>. Similarly, by Reactions <u>5-6</u>, chloride ions also make heavier consumption of hydrogen peroxide necessary for the same mineralisation. De Laat and Le (*32*) conclude that over 100 mM <u>of chloride inhibits</u> formation of iron(III)-hydroperoxide complexes and slows down the reaction rate. Therefore, the photo-Fenton NXA mineralisation rate in saline water could be expected to be inhibited. <u>Active chlorine compounds formed could have other effects</u>, such as the formation of chlorinated intermediates, described in previous studies (*33*). However, in this study, assuming that they were formed, they were not detected by <u>LC-TOF-MS</u>.

$$Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O_2 \rightarrow HO_2^{\bullet} + Cl^- + H^+$$
 (5)

$$Cl_{2}^{\bullet-} + H_{2}O_{2} \to HO_{2}^{\bullet} + 2Cl^{-} + H^{+}$$
 (6)

Toxicity was monitored using two different organisms, *Vibrio fischeri* and *Daphnia magna*. *Vibrio fischeri* showed high toxicity (97% inhibition) in the first wastewater sample, but

did not show any after biological treatment, and at the end of photo-Fenton, inhibition was 59%. Toxicity could be related to the presence of organic acids characteristic of the last stages of the oxidation process. *Daphnia magna* bioassay demonstrated very high toxicity in the original matrix (all daphnids dead after 24 h of culturing) and the biotreated sample did not show any toxicity at all. At the end of the photo-Fenton treatment, the sample was not acutely toxic to *Daphnia magna*, which showed mobility of 95% after 48 h of culture.



**Figure 1**: DOC reduction, NXA degradation (inset) and  $H_2O_2$  consumption during photo-Fenton treatment: Fe =20 mg/L, pH<sub>0</sub> = 2.7, [H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>] = 200-400 mg/L.

# **Evaluation of continuous biomass exposure to NXA**

As NXA is an antibacterial agent, chronic toxicity could develop in the IBR after long exposure. Therefore, biomass stability and adsorption studies were performed during continuous exposure to NXA. To better evaluate this effect, instead of real wastewater, synthetic wastewater containing NXA and a similar DOC concentration was prepared. This procedure was intended to evaluate only the effect of NXA, avoiding any interference from unknown compounds present in wastewater. The study was divided in five steps with addition of a synthetic influent (S.I.; DOC around 600 mg/L) and 45 mg/L of NXA in each (Figure 2). The chemical composition of the synthetic influent adapted from OECD was 960 mg/L of peptone, 660 mg/L of meat extract, 180 mg/L of urea, 28 mg/L of K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 4 mg/L of CaCl<sub>2</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O and 2 mg/L of Mg<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O (*34*).

The reactor was emptied between runs. The 5<sup>th</sup> run was maintained for seven days to observe the progress of the parameters studied during longer periods and determine any change in NXA concentration with low DOC or biomass death (DOC should increase) due to chronic toxicity, etc. After that, the system was emptied and filled with S.I. without NXA ( $6^{th}$  cycle) to evaluate possible desorption. In all of the steps, significant DOC reduction was observed (>90% mineralisation), while the pH remained between 6.8-8.0.

NXA concentration was only reduced in the first run and in the first measurement of the 2<sup>nd</sup> run due to adsorption on the biomass, after which it returns to the original concentration after just 26 hours of treatment. However, in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> runs, pollutant concentration increased. This means that the biomass adsorption rate decreased over exposure time to NXA. Indeed, during runs 3 and 4, NXA adsorbed during the 1<sup>st</sup> run (around 25 mg/L) was released back into the water. During run 5 there was again slight adsorption. Finally, during run 6 (S.I. without NXA) no desorption and only traces of NXA were detected. As commented above, NXA is a very weak organic acid that may be present in both neutral and anionic forms in the neutral pH range. Therefore, the adsorption capacity of this compound may also vary with pH. As pH during the biotreatment varied between 6.8 and 8 and the composition of the water also varied due to DOC biodegradation, NXA adsorption/desorption phenomena did not follow any predictable pattern.



**Figure 2**: Study of biomass stability and adsorption in IBR during exposure to NXA along 5 runs in batch mode using S.I. and NXA<sub>0</sub> = 45 mg/L. 6<sup>th</sup> run was only with S.I.

Monitoring of inorganic nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) provides more information about nitrification. The first three steps showed a high NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration at the end of the run (between 415 and 530 mg/L), while the concentration of ammonia decreased. During the last steps, nitrification was drastically reduced as the increase in nitrate was insignificant compared to the original concentration of ammonia. This can be interpreted as a probably chronic toxic effect of NXA accumulation on the nitrifying bacteria population in the biological system. When the system was maintained only with S.I., nitrification slowly started up again (300 mg/L of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and <0.1 mg/L of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> at the end of the 6<sup>th</sup> run), demonstrating that the nitrifying microorganisms were reactivated.

The intermediates formed during the different degradation steps were studied by LC-TOF-MS (ESI+). The elemental composition proposed for the molecules of interest is based on its accurate mass measurements. The efficacy of this analytical technique in the identification of unknown compounds has been widely demonstrated in previous work (35, 36). In this case, 23 different compounds could be identified. Analytical information provided by the LC-TOF-MS analyses is included in Table 1.

**Table 1**: Accurate mass measurements found by LC-TOF-MS (ESI+) for raw wastewater and wastewater after biotreatment. DBE = double bond equivalent.

Raw wastewater										
Compound	R <sub>t</sub>	Formula	Experimental	Calculated	ppm	DBE				
-			mass (m/z)	mass (m/z)	Error					
NXA	34.0	$C_{12}H_{12}N_2O_3Na$	255.0744	255.074	1.5	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{13}N_2O_3$	233.0929	233.092	3.5	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_2$	215.0826	215.0831	-2.4	8.5				
		$C_{10}H_7N_2O_2$	187.0506	187.0502	2.1	8.5				
P1	33.0	$\underline{C_{11}}\underline{H_{13}}\underline{N_2}\underline{O}$	<u>189.1027</u>	<u>189.1022</u>	<u>2.4</u>	<u>6.5</u>				
		$\underline{C_9H_9N_2O}$	<u>161.0715</u>	<u>161.0709</u>	<u>3.4</u>	<u>6.5</u>				
P2	33.5	$C_{14}H_{19}N_2O_2$	247.1458	247.1441	6.8	6.5				
		$C_{13}H_{15}N_2O$	215.1165	215.1178	6.4	7.5				
P3	31.4	$C_{12}H_{12}N_2O_4Na$	271.0609	271.0689	0.2	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{13}N_2O_4$	249.0874	249.0669	1.6	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_3$	231.077	231.0764	2.5	8.5				
		$C_{10}H_7N_2O_3$	203.0454	203.0451	1.3	8.5				
P4	28.0	$C_{12}H_{15}N_2O_2$	219.1134	219.1128	2.7	6.5				
		$C_{12}H_{13}N_2O$	201.1031	201.1022	4.7	7.5				
		$C_{10}H_9N_2O$	173.0711	173.0709	0.9	7.5				
P5	26.0	$C_{12}H_{12}N_2O_4Na$	271.0609	271.0689	0.2	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{13}N_2O_4$	249.0874	249.0669	1.6	7.5				
		$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_3$	231.0773	231.0764	3.8	8.5				
	•••	$C_{10}H_7N_2O_2$	187.0507	187.0502	2.6	8.5				
P6	23.6	$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_2$	215.0818	215.0815	1.3	8.5				
	<b>aa</b> 0	$C_{11}H_{11}N_2O$	187.0863	187.0865	-1.5	7.5				
<b>P</b> 7	22.8	$C_{11}H_{13}N_2O_2$	205.0976	205.0971	2.1	6.5				
		$C_9H_9N_2O_2$	17/.0667	177.0658	4.7	6.5				
<b>D</b> 0	20.2	$C_9H_7N_2O$	159.0558	159.0552	3.2	7.5				
P8	20.2	$C_9H_{13}N_2O$	165.1025	165.1022	1.5	4.5				
DO	20.0	$C_7H_9N_2O$	13/.0/07	137.0709	-1.7	4.5				
РУ	20.0	$C_{11}H_{13}N_2O_2$	205.0978	205.0971	3.1	6.5				
<b>D</b> 10	10 5	$C_{11}H_{11}N_2O$	187.0872	187.0865	3.2	7.5				
P10	19.7	$C_{10}H_{13}N_2O_3$	209.0922	209.092	0.6	5.5				
DII	10.4	$C_8H_9N_2O$	149.0709	149.0709	-0.2	5.5				
P11	19.4	$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_3$	231.0766	231.7764	0.7	8.5				

P12	18.7	$C_{11}H_{15}N_2O_3$	223.1078	223.1077	0.3	5.5			
		$C_9H_{11}N_2O$	163.0862	163.0865	-2.3	5.5			
P13	16.5	$C_{11}H_{17}N_2O_2$	209.1285	209.1284	0.2	4.5			
P14	15.2	$C_{11}H_{13}N_2O$	189.1027	189.1022	2.4	6.5			
P15	14.9	$C_9H_{13}N_2O_2$	181.0977	181.0971	3.0	4.5			
		$C_9H_{11}N_2O$	163.0867	163.0865	0.6	5.5			
		$C_7H_7N_2O$	135.0554	135.0552	0.8	5.5			
P16	8.5	$C_{11}H_{15}N_2O_2$	207.1129	207.1128	0.4	5.5			
		$C_{11}H_{13}N_2O$	189.1022	189.1020	-1.2	6.3			
		$C_9H_{11}N_2O$	163.0861	163.0865	-3.0	5.5			
P17	6.2	$C_9H_{15}N_2O$	167.1178	167.1178	-0.5	3.5			
P18	6.1/	$C_6H_9N_2$	109.0761	109.076	0.6	3.5			
	8.3	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>6</sub> N	92.0497	92.0494	2.4	4.5			
Wastewater after biotreatment									
Compound	R <sub>t</sub>	Formula	Experimental	Calculated	ppm	DBE			
			mass (m/z)	mass (m/z)	Error				
P19	30.5	$C_{11}H_{11}N_2O_3$	219.0767	219.0764	1.2	7.5			
		$C_{11}H_9N_2O_2$	201.0659	201.0658	0.2	8.5			
P20	27.0	$C_{11}H_{11}N_2O_4$	235.0729	235.0713	6.6	7.5			
		$C_{11}H_9N_2O_3$	217.0610	217.0607	1.0	8.5			
P21	26.7	$C_{12}H_{11}N_2O_3$	231.0765	231.0764	0.3	8.5			
		$C_{12}H_9N_2O_2$	213.0661	213.0658	1.1	9.5			
P22	26.1	$C_{10}H_9N_2O_3$	205.0609	205.0607	0.6	7.5			
		$C_{10}H_7N_2O_2$	187.0503	187.0502	0.5	8.5			
P23	22.6	$C_{11}H_{11}N_2O_3$	219.0768	219.0764	1.7	7.5			

The industrial wastewater had been characterised previously to determine its main organic components and their behaviour after biological and photo-Fenton treatments. Together with NXA, which was the main constituent of the wastewater effluent, a second compound was present in similar abundance (P1, see Figure 3), which was identified as 1-ethyl-1,4 dihydro-7-methyl-4-oxo-1,8-naphthyridine, a decarboxylated form of NXA, which has also been described as a product of NXA photolysis and thermolysis (*37*). An isobaric compound (P14) was also identified at a different retention time (15,2 min), which could correspond with a positional isomer of P1, probably generated during the synthesis of NXA (structure not proposed).

Other lower intensity peaks were present in the chromatogram (see Figure 3), showing the presence of a complex mixture of NXA derivatives. The most relevant were identified and their structures are <u>shown</u> in Figure 4. They may correspond to previous stages of NXA NXA metabolite. This compound exhibits at least in vitro anti-bacterial activity identical in spectrum and potency to that of the parent compound  $(3\underline{8}, 3\underline{9}, \underline{40})$ .



**Figure 3**: LC-TOF-MS chromatograms obtained by the analysis of a wastewater sample before and after the application of biological and photo-Fenton treatments.

After biotreatment, compounds originally present in the wastewater were completely degraded (P3-P10, P13, P17), or their concentrations dropped as observed in Figure 3 (see

intensity scale). NXA and P1 still remained the main components of the mixture, and a new group of compounds (P19-P23) were identified. The absence of commercial standards for the intermediates identified makes their quantitative evaluation impossible, and the material balance could therefore not be closed.

Only after photo-Fenton treatment, were NXA and analogous compounds totally eliminated, and no further intermediates detected (Figure 3). Residual DOC measured is thus assigned to the presence of organic acids characteristic of the last stages of the oxidative process. This biotreatment, coupled with photo-Fenton, degraded the recalcitrant antibiotic (NXA) originally present in the matrix, and eliminated the by-products generated during biotreatment, demonstrating that photo-Fenton applied to finish off biological treatment of pharmaceutical wastewater is a useful approach.



Figure 4: Chemical structures proposed for the intermediates identified by LC-TOF-MS.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank the European Commission for financial support for the INNOWATECH project under the Sixth Framework Programme, under the "Global Change and Ecosystems Programme" (Contract n°: 036882) and AUSTEP (Italy) for providing the wastewater. Ana Zapata and Carla Sirtori thank the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science and the Capes Foundation, respectively, for their Ph.D. research grants. The authors also thank Mrs. Deborah Fuldauer for the correction of the English

#### References

(1) Watkinson, A.J.; Murby E.J., Costanzo S.D. Removal of antibiotics in conventional and advanced wastewater treatment: Implications for environmental discharge and wastewater recycling. *Water Research* **2007**, *41*, 4164 – 4176.

(2) Hernández, F.; Sancho, J.V.; Ibáñez, M.; Guerrero, C. Antibiotic residue determination in environmental waters by LC-MS. *Trends in Analytical Chemistry* **2007**, *26*(*6*), 466-485.

(3) Hernando, M.D.; Mezcua, M.; Fernández-Alba, A.R.; Barceló, D. Environmental risk assessment of pharmaceutical residues in wastewater effluents, surface waters and sediments. *Talanta* **2006**, *69*, 334–342.

(4) Duong, H.A.; Pham, N.H.; Nguyen, H.T.; Hoang, T.T.; Pham, H.V.; Pham, V.C.; Berg, M.; Giger, W.; Alder, A.C. Occurrence; fate and antibiotic resistance of fluoroquinolone antibacterials in hospital wastewaters in Hanoi, Vietnam. *Chemosphere* **2008**, *72*, 968–973.

(5) Xu, W.; Zhang, G.; Li, X.; Zou, S.; Li, P.; Hu, Z.; Li, J. Occurrence and elimination of antibiotics at four sewage treatment plants in the Pearl River Delta (PRD), South China. *Water Research* **2007**, *41*, 4526 – 4534.

(6) Harold, C.N. The Crisis in Antibiotic Resistance. Science. 1992, 257, 1064-1073.

(7) Costanzo, S. D.; Murby, J.; Bates, J. Ecosystem response to antibiotics entering the aquatic environment. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* **2005**, *51*, 218-223.

(8) Kim, S.; Jensen, J. N.; Aga, D. S.; Weber, A. S. Tetracycline as a selector for resistant bacteria in activated sludge. *Chemosphere* **2007**, *66*, 1643-1651.

(9) Cooper, E. R.; Siewicki, T. C.; Phillips, K. Preliminary risk assessment database and risk ranking of pharmaceuticals in the environment. *Science of the Total Environment* **2008**, *398*, 26-33.

(10) Díaz-Cruz, M.S.; Barceló, D. Trace organic chemicals contamination in ground water recharge. *Chemosphere* **2008**, *72 (3)*, 333-342.

(11) Wintgens, T.; Salehi, F.; Hochstrat; R..; Melin, T. Emerging contaminants and treatment options in water recycling for indirect potable use. *Water Science and Technology* **2008**, *57*(*1*) 99-107.

(12) Cirja, M.; Ivashechkin, P.; Schäffer, A.; Corvini, P.F.X.., Factors affecting the removal of organic micropollutants from wastewater in conventional treatment plants (CTP) and membrane bioreactors (MBR). *Reviews in Environmental Science and Biotechnology* **2008**, *7*(*1*), 61-78.

(13) Kemper, N. Veterinary antibiotics in the aquatic and terrestrial environment. *Ecological Indicators* **2008**, *8*, 1-13.

(14) Comninellis, C.; Kapalka, A.; Malato, S.; Parsons, S.A.; Poulios, I.; Mantzavinos, D. Advanced oxidation processes for water treatment: advances and trends for R&D. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol.* **2008**, *83*, 769–776.

(15) Trovó, A.G.; Santos Melo, S.A.; Pupo Nogueira, R. F. Photodegradation of pharmaceuticals amoxicillin, bezafibrate and paracetamol by photo-Fenton process-Application to sewage treatment plant effluent. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* **2008**, *198*, 215-220.

(16) Bautitz, I.R.; Pupo Nogueira, R.F. Degradation of tetracycline by photo-Fenton process. Solar irradiation and matrix effects. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* **2007**, *187*, 33-39.

(17) Yaping, Z.; Jiangyong, H. Photo-Fenton degradation of  $17\beta$ -estradiol in presence of  $\alpha$ -FeOOHR and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* **2008**, *78*(*3-4*), 250-258.

(18) Tabrizi, G.B.; Mehrvar, M. Integration of advanced oxidation technologies and biological processes: Recent developments, trends and advances. *J. Environ. Sci. Health A* 2004, *39*, 3029-3081.

(19) Mantzavinos, D.; Psillakis, E. Enhancement of biodegradability of industrial wastewaters by chemical oxidation pre-treatment. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* **2004**, *79*, 431-454.

(20) Varatharajan, B.; Kanmani, S. Treatability study of pharmaceutical wastewater by combined solar photo Fenton and activated sludge process. *J. Industrial Pollution Control* **2007**, *23*, 157-164.

(21) Alaton, I.A.; Dogruel, S.; Baykal, E.; Gerone, G. Combined chemical and biological oxidation of penicillin formulation effluent. *J. Environmental Management* **2004**, *73*, 155-163.

(22) Tuïnay, O.; Samuk, B.; Olmez, T.; KabdasJi, I. Application of advanced oxidation to enhance biodegradability of pharmaceutical industry wastewaters. *Fresenius Environmental Bulletin* **2004**, *13*, 965-968.

(23) González, O.; Sans, C.; Esplugas, S. Sulfamethoxazole abatement by photo-Fenton.
Toxicity, inhibition and biodegradability assessment of intermediates. *J. Hazardous Materials*2007, *146*, 459-464.

(24) Tillotson, G.S. Quinolones: Structure-activity relationships and future predictions. *J. Medical Microbiology* **1996**, *44*, 320-324.

(25) Nogueira, R. F. P.; Mirela, C. O.; Paterlini, W. C. Simple and fast spectrophotometric determination of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in photo-Fenton reactions using metavanadate. *Talanta* **2005**, *66*, 86-91.

(26) Kositzi, M.; Antoniadis, A.; Poulios, I.; Kiridis, I.; Malato, S. Solar photocatalytic treatment of simulated dyestuff effluents. *Solar Energy* **2004**, *77*, 591-600.

(27) Malato, S.; Blanco, J.; Vidal, A.; Alarcón, D.; Maldonado, M. I.; Cáceres, J.; Gernjak, W.
Applied studies in solar photocatalytic detoxification: an overview. *Solar Energy* 2003, 75, 329-336.

(28) US Environmental Protection Agency. Prevention Pesticides and Toxic Substances (7101). Fates; Transport and Transformation Test Guidelines OPPTS 835.3200 Zahn-Wellens/EMPA Test. EPA 712-C-96-084, 1996.

(29) Lorphensri, O.; Sabatini, D.A.; Kibbey, T.C.G.; Osathaphan, K.; Saiwan, C. Sorption and transport of acetaminophen, 17a-ethynyl estradiol, nalidixic acid with low organic content aquifer sand, *Water Research* **2007**, *41*, 2180-2188.

(30) Stackelberg, P.E.; Gibs, J.; Furlong, E.T.; Meyer, M.T.; Zaugg, S.D.; Lippincott, R.L. Efficiency of conventional drinking-water-treatment processes in removal of pharmaceuticals and other organic compounds. *Science of the Total Environment* **2007**, *377*, 255–272.

(31) <u>Sirtori, C.; Zapata A.; Oller, I.; Gernjak, W.; Agüera, A.; Malato S. Decontamination</u> <u>industrial pharmaceutical wastewater by combining solar photo-Fenton and biological</u> treatment. *Wat Res*, **2008**, in press.

(32) De Laat, J.; Le, T.G. Effects of chloride ions on the iron(III)-catalyzed decomposition of hydrogen peroxide and on the efficiency of the Fenton-like oxidation process. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* **2006**, *66*, 137-146.

(33) Anipsitakis, G.P.; Tufano, T.P., Dionysiou D.D. Chemical and microbial decontamination of pool water using activaterd potassium peroxymonosulfate. *Wat. Res.* **2006**, 42, 2899-2910.

(3<u>4</u>) OECD Guidelines for Testing of Chemicals. *Simulation Test-Aerobic Sewage Treatment* 303A. 1999.

(3<u>5</u>) Agüera, A.; Pérez Estrada, L.A.; Ferrer, I.; Thurman, E.M.; Malato, S.; Fernández-Alba, A.R. Application of time of flight mass spectrometry to the analysis of natural sunlight photodegradation products of diclofenac in water. *J. Mass Spectrometry* **2005**, *40*, 908-915.

(3<u>6</u>) Gárcía-Reyes, J. F.; Molina-Díaz, A. Fernández-Alba, A.R. Identification of pesticide transformation products in food by liquid chromatography/time-of-flight mass spectrometry via "fragmentation-degradation" relationships. *Analytical Chemistry* **2007**, *79*, 307-321.

(3<u>7</u>) Fernández, E.; Cárdenas, A.M. The Mechanism of Photohaemolysis by Photoproducts of NXA. *J. Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology* **1990**, *4*, 329-333.

(38) Guiberteau Cabanillas, A.; Rodríguez Cáceres, M.I.; Martínez Cañas, M.A.; Ortiz Burguillos, J.M.; Galeano Díaz, T. Square wave adsorptive stripping voltametric determination of the mixture of NXA and its main metabolite (7-hydroxymethyl nalidixic acid) by multivariate methods and artificial neural network. *Talanta* **2007**, *72*, 932-940.

(3<u>9</u>) Pérez-Ruiz, T.; Martínez-Lozano, C.; Sanz, A.; Bravo, E. Separation and simultaneous determination of NXA, hydroxy-nalidixic acid and carboxy nalidixic acid in serum and urine by micellar electrokinetic capillary chromatography. *J. Chromatography B* **1999**, *724*, 319-324.

(<u>40</u>) Cuisinaud, G.; Ferry, N.; Seccia, M.; Bernard, N.; Sassard, J. Determination of NXA and its major metabolites in human plasma and urine by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. *J. Chromatography* **1980**, *181*, 399-406.