

# Clay minerals for the removal of pharmaceuticals: Initial investigations of their adsorption properties in real wastewater effluents

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# Clay minerals for the removal of pharmaceuticals: Initial investigations of

# their adsorption properties in real wastewater effluents

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#### Abstract

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The adsorption of pharmaceutical products (PPs) onto kaolinite and raw and sodium-exchanged montmorillonite was investigated in real wastewater effluents (WWE). The important role of the charge state of the PPs in controlling the adsorption extent was highlighted. Whereas cationic PPs were mostly adsorbed through cation exchange, the adsorption of neutral and anionic PPs appeared to be controlled by the nature of compensating inorganic cations and/or the simultaneous adsorption of organic moieties onto clay minerals. In raw WWE, the concentration of PPs is indeed far lower than the concentration of other organic molecules. Among the adsorbents tested, kaolinite displayed the lowest adsorption capacity of both PPs and other organic molecules, compared to raw montmorillonite which presented the highest adsorption capacity. The sodium-exchanged montmorillonite displayed intermediate adsorption properties, highlighting the key role of divalent inorganic cations in the adsorption of non-cationic PPs and other organic molecules. Hence, raw

25 montmorillonite appears to be the most promising adsorbent for further investigations aiming to 26 test the practicability of a clay-based adsorbent for the removal of organic contaminants, such as 27 PPs, in WWE.

# Keywords

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Pharmaceutical Products, Clay minerals, Adsorption, Wastewater Treatment, Organic Matter

# 1. Introduction

The occurrence of pharmaceutical products (PPs) in numerous environmental compartments (da Silva et al., 2011; Patel et al., 2019) raises serious concerns about their potential hazard for living organisms (Richmond et al., 2018; Saaristo et al., 2018). Contamination by PPs is mostly generated by excretion through urine and feces following both human and veterinary uses (Baker et al., 2014; Choi et al., 2018). Then, PP-contaminated wastewaters are transferred toward wastewater treatment plants, in which current treatment chains remain inappropriate for their complete removal (Grandclément et al., 2017; Petrie et al., 2015). This contamination therefore challenges the scientific community and water treatment operators in order to find efficient and economically practicable removal solutions. Among the innovative treatments for the removal of organic contaminants, adsorption is considered as a promising way if the selected adsorbent displays a high adsorption capacity and moderate cost (de Andrade et al., 2018). Most of the literature focuses on activated carbons, which are currently used for the treatment of drinking water (Cuthbertson et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2018), even though the potential of clay minerals for the removal of organic contaminants has already been demonstrated (Thiebault, 2019; Zhu et al., 2016). Moreover, clay minerals can be considered as cheap and widely available materials. Yet, several studies pointed out their limitations for the adsorption of non-cationic PPs (Gao and Pedersen, 2005; Zhang et al., 2010). These limitations, however, were mostly found during batch experiments, in which the starting concentration of PPs wase much higher than their environmental occurrences, and in idealized solutions (i.e. pure water, no competing compounds). Several studies have recently demonstrated that the affinity of anionic and neutral PPs with clay minerals can be improved in the presence of other organic moieties (de Oliveira et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2019). Therefore, it appears necessary to assess as precisely as possible the potential of a clay-based solution for the removal of PPs in real WWE in order to determine the affinity of such contaminants with adsorbents and to evaluate which type of clay minerals would be the most versatile for the design of a removal solution. The purpose of this work was therefore to investigate the PP removal potential of three clay minerals in raw WWE.

#### 2. Material and methods

# 2.1. Chemical reagents and adsorbents

Standards for atenolol (ATE), bezafibrate (BZB), carbamazepine (CBZ), codeine (COD), diazepam (DIA), diclofenac (DCF), doxepin (DOX), gemfibrozil (GEM), ketoprofen (KET), naproxen (NAP), metoprolol (MET), norfloxacin (NOR), oxazepam (OXA), sulfamethoxazole (SUL), tramadol (TRA) and trimethoprim (TMP) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich with a purity > 98%. Separation solvents, methanol (MeOH) and acetonitrile (AcN) were purchased from Fisher-Scientific, assuming an analytical grade (purity higher than 99.95%).

Table 1: Physico-chemical properties of the targeted PPs, with Abb. the abbreviation,  $M_w$  the molecular weight in g.mol<sup>-1</sup>, pK<sub>a</sub> the acid dissociation constant, log K<sub>ow</sub> the octanol/water partition coefficient, S<sub>w</sub> the solubility in water at 25°C in mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, and Charge the dominant form at the effluent pH (i.e. = 6.4)

PP	Abb.	Formula	CAS-Number	$\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$	$\mathbf{p}\mathbf{K_{a}}^{\mathbf{a}}$	log K <sub>ow</sub> b	$S_w^a$	Charge
Atenolol	ATE	$C_{14}H_{22}N_2O_3$	29122-68-7	266.3	9.6	0.16	430	+
Bezafibrate	BZB	C <sub>19</sub> H <sub>20</sub> ClNO <sub>4</sub>	41859-67-0	361.8	3.9	4.25	1.5	-
Carbamazepine	CBZ	$C_{15}H_{12}N_2O$	298-46-4	236.3	13.9	2.45	152	0
Codeine	COD	$C_{18}H_{21}NO_3$	76-57-3	299.4	8.2	1.28	577	+
Diazepam	DIA	$C_{16}H_{13}ClN_2O$	439-14-5	284.7	3.4	2.70	50	0
Diclofenac	DCF	$C_{14}H_{11}Cl_2NO_2$	15307-79-6	296.1	4.2	4.02	4.5	-
Doxepin	DOX	$C_{19}H_{21}NO$	1229-29-4	279.4	9.0	3.86	32	+
Gemfibrozil	GEM	$C_{15}H_{22}O_3$	25812-30-0	250.3	4.8	4.33	28	-
Ketoprofen	KET	$C_{16}H_{14}O_3$	22071-45-4	254.3	4.4	3.00	21	-
Metoprolol	MET	$C_{15}H_{25}NO_3$	56392-17-7	267.4	9.6	1.69	502	+
Naproxen	NAP	$C_{14}H_{14}O_3$	22204-53-1	230.3	4.2	3.10	16	-

Norfloxacin	NOR	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>18</sub> FN <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	70458-96-7	319.3	5.7-8.7	-0.31	1,010	+/-
Oxazepam	OXA	$C_{15}H_{11}ClN_2O_2$	604-75-1	287.0	1.7-11.6	3.34	88	0
Sulfamethoxazole	SUL	$C_{10}H_{11}N_3O_3S$	723-46-6	253.3	6.2	0.48	459	-
Tramadol	TRA	$C_{16}H_{25}NO_2$	27203-92-5	263.4	9.4	3.01	750	+
Trimethoprim	TMP	$C_{14}H_{18}N_4O_3$	738-70-5	290.3	7.2	0.73	615	+/0

With adrugbank.ca and bchemspider.com (predicted KOWWIN v.1.67)

The selected adsorbents were Georgia kaolinite KGa-2 and Wyoming smectite SWy-2 both obtained from the Source Clay Minerals Repository, University of Missouri (Columbia, MO). The two adsorbents were fractionated  $< 2\mu m$  by gravity sedimentation prior to use in order to limit the impact of mineralogical impurities (Chipera and Bish, 2001). In order to investigate the impact of compensating inorganic cations on the removal capacity of SWy-2, this adsorbent was used raw ( $\sim 20\%$  of Ca<sup>2+</sup> and 80% of Na<sup>+</sup>) and Na-exchanged through well-established procedures (Le Forestier et al., 2010).

The resulting materials, labelled KGa2, SWy2 and Na-SWy2 display a cation exchange capacity of 3.7, 85 and 85 meq.100g<sup>-1</sup> respectively, and a specific surface area of 18, 32 and 32 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup> respectively with the N<sub>2</sub> BET method (Le Forestier et al., 2010; Lv et al., 2013).

# 2.2. Sample collection and batch experiments

10 L of WWE were sampled at the outlet of a vertical-flow constructed wetland in one intake (central part of France). The design of this sewage treatment plant consists of two stages of unsaturated vertical-flow constructed wetlands in series, with the first one planted with *Phragmites Australis* (Paing and Voisin, 2005). After collection, WWE were filtered with glass-fiber filters (GF/F, Whatman) prior to storage at 4°C in amber glass bottles.

Batch experiments were systematically conducted in triplicate on the day following the sampling.

(i.e. KGa2, Na-SWy2 and SWy2) and then wrapped in aluminum foil in order to prevent light-induced degradation. The solutions were stirred for 2 hours at 500 rpm with a magnetic stirrer. This

The WWE solutions (200 mL) were put in 250 mL bottles, mixed with 100 or 200 mg of adsorbents

time was considered as appropriate to reach equilibrium in such conditions (Thiebault et al., 2016a). A volume of 100 mL of supernatant was recovered by centrifugation at 8,000 rpm during 10 minutes prior to the extraction and analysis of the PPs. In parallel, blank experiments (i.e. Blank) were conducted in the same conditions without adsorbent, in order to estimate the initial PP concentration and avoid any misinterpretation due to degradation.

#### 2.3.Quantification and validation

The quantification procedure of PPs, and its validation, were already presented in detail (Thiebault et al., 2019). Briefly, a solid phase extraction was performed on the supernatant using Chromabond HR-X cartridges (6 mL x 500 mg, Macherey-Nagel) prior to analysis and quantification in high pressure liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry. The equipment, analytical procedures and quantification performances are detailed in the supplementary material (Table S1-2).

#### 2.4. Processing of the results and analysis of the adsorbents

The removal of PPs after interaction was calculated using the following equation:

Removal = 
$$100 - \left(\frac{100 \times C_{eq}}{C_{st}}\right)$$

with the Removal in %,  $C_{eq}$  the equilibrium concentration in  $\mu g.L^{-1}$  and  $C_{st}$  the starting concentration in  $\mu g.L^{-1}$ 

In order to evaluate the amount of organic matter adsorbed onto the clay minerals after interaction, carbon analyses were performed on powdered samples by using a Thermo Scientific Flash 2000 organic analyzer. These analyses were systematically triplicated. XRD and FTIR analysis conditions are given in the supplementary material.

#### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Wastewater effluent basic parameters

The concentrations of PPs and the physico-chemical characterization of the raw WWE were determined in triplicate experiments. The most concentrated PPs were TRA and DCF with concentrations of 12.48 and 8.23  $\mu g.L^{-1}$ , respectively. The concentrations of the other PPs mostly ranged between 0.03 and 1.32  $\mu g.L^{-1}$  (Table 2).

The analysis of the WWE provided the following values: pH = 6.4, Total Organic Carbon content was 27.6 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, P-PO<sub>4</sub> content was 12.0 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, N-NO<sub>2</sub> content was 59.2 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, Suspended solids concentration was 5 mg.L<sup>-1</sup> and the conductivity was 950  $\mu$ S.cm<sup>-1</sup>.

Table 2: Concentrations of the targeted PPs (in µg.L<sup>-1</sup>) in the raw effluent (Blank) and after interaction with 100 and 200 mg of the selected clay minerals, with LOD the limit of detection

PP	Blank -	KG	a2	Na-S	SWy2	SV	Vy2
T I	Dialik	100mg	200mg	100mg	200mg	100mg	200mg
ATE	$0.55 \pm 0.10$	$0.52 \pm 0.16$	$0.46 \pm 0.10$	$0.40 \pm 0.13$	$0.25 \pm 0.00$	$0.42 \pm 0.15$	$0.23 \pm 0.10$
BZF	$0.19 \pm 0.08$	$0.14 \pm 0.03$	$0.13 \pm 0.04$	$0.12 \pm 0.06$	$0.14 \pm 0.09$	$0.11 \pm 0.05$	$0.05 \pm 0.01$
CBZ	$0.34 \pm 0.03$	$0.34 \pm 0.04$	$0.33 \pm 0.04$	$0.33 \pm 0.03$	$0.34 \pm 0.02$	$0.31 \pm 0.06$	$0.31 \pm 0.07$
COD	$0.03 \pm 0.01$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.00 \pm 0.01$	< LOD	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
DIA	$0.03 \pm 0.00$	$0.03 \pm 0.00$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$	$0.01 \pm 0.01$
DCF	$8.23 \pm 1.69$	$7.46 \pm 0.86$	$6.87 \pm 1.59$	$8.05 \pm 0.59$	$7.84 \pm 1.99$	$6.91 \pm 0.50$	$5.19 \pm 0.42$
DOX	$0.84 \pm 0.09$	$0.80 \pm 0.08$	$0.67 \pm 0.36$	$0.74 \pm 0.26$	$0.30 \pm 0.07$	$0.50 \pm 0.41$	$0.07 \pm 0.02$
GEM	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.01$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.05 \pm 0.01$	$0.05 \pm 0.03$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$
KET	$0.62 \pm 0.04$	$0.58 \pm 0.09$	$0.53 \pm 0.11$	$0.58 \pm 0.04$	$0.53 \pm 0.14$	$0.51 \pm 0.06$	$0.20 \pm 0.16$
MET	$0.07 \pm 0.03$	$0.06 \pm 0.01$	$0.05 \pm 0.02$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.03 \pm 0.02$	$0.05 \pm 0.01$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$
NAP	$1.32 \pm 0.10$	$1.43 \pm 0.31$	$1.35 \pm 0.31$	$1.38 \pm 0.18$	$1.13 \pm 0.87$	$1.16 \pm 0.15$	$0.58 \pm 0.26$
NOR	$0.92 \pm 0.78$	$0.03 \pm 0.03$	< LOD	$0.12 \pm 0.21$	< LOD	$0.28 \pm 0.49$	< LOD
OXA	$0.16 \pm 0.01$	$0.15 \pm 0.01$	$0.14 \pm 0.03$	$0.15 \pm 0.02$	$0.15 \pm 0.03$	$0.14 \pm 0.01$	$0.12 \pm 0.03$
SUL	$0.00 \pm 0.01$	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD
TRA	$12.48 \pm 1.04$	$11.55 \pm 0.61$	$10.6 \pm 2.11$	$2.83 \pm 1.35$	$2.87 \pm 0.46$	$8.37 \pm 7.78$	$3.47 \pm 4.30$
TMP	$0.05 \pm 0.02$	$0.05 \pm 0.03$	$0.05 \pm 0.04$	$0.03 \pm 0.02$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.04$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$

#### 3.2.Removal of PPs from wastewater effluents

Due to the important role of the speciation on the affinity between PPs and clay minerals, the removal values after interaction with clay minerals are hereafter detailed according to the theoretical speciation of the PPs (Table 1).

#### 3.2.1. Positively charged PPs

The removal values of cationic and zwitterionic PPs are presented in Figure 1. Except for NOR, which shows a high removal rate whatever the adsorbent, the removal rates of cationic PPs display

the same pattern. The removal is lower after interaction with KGa2, whereas very similar removal values are found for SWy2 and Na-SWy2. Moreover, increasing the mass of adsorbent increases the removal values of PPs (Figure 1). In general, with 200 mg of montmorillonite, the removal rate ranges from 58 to 100 %. Yet, for several cationic PPs such as DOX and TRA, it was expected that this removal would be total within this range of concentration due to the high affinity between these PPs and clay minerals, and the adsorption through cation exchange (Chen et al., 2010; Thiebault et al., 2015). However, the complexity of WWE (e.g. inorganic and organic compounds) associated with the low starting concentration of PPs in comparison to total organic carbon (i.e. < 0.1%), appear to strongly hinder the adsorption of cationic PPs, suggesting that the cation exchange mechanism between compensating inorganic cations and cationic PPs is limited due to the competition with other compounds for cation exchange (Thiebault et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2009).

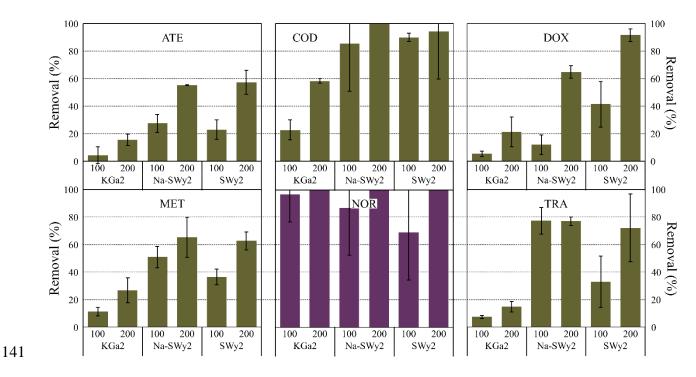


Figure 1: Removal percentages of cationic (green bars) and zwitterionic (purple bars) PPs as a function of the mass of adsorbent (i.e. 100 and 200 mg), n=3

#### 3.2.2. Neutral PPs

The removal rates of neutral PPs are presented in Figure 2. Various patterns are exhibited as a function of the PP and/or the mass of adsorbent. TMP is a particular case as its speciation in this pH range is partially neutral and partially protonated (Table 1). As a result, its behavior appears to be intermediate between neutral and cationic molecules. CBZ and OXA are poorly adsorbed onto clay minerals whatever the clay type and the mass of adsorbent; the only significant removal rates displayed are onto SWy2 (Figure 2). DIA is conversely significantly adsorbed onto the three adsorbents with higher removal values on increasing the mass of adsorbent, and higher removal values on SWy2 (i.e. between 5 and 20%) in comparison with the other two adsorbents (i.e. between 0 and 11%). This variation between PPs with closely related properties highlights the important role of the starting concentrations of PPs in order to assess their affinity with clay minerals (Thiebault and Boussafir, 2019), and of the affinity of PPs with organic moieties for the adsorption onto clay minerals in effluent solutions (Torrents and Jayasundera, 1997).

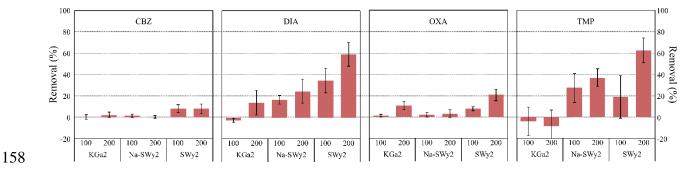


Figure 2: Removal percentages of neutral PPs as a function of the mass of adsorbent (i.e. 100 and 200 mg), n=3

#### 3.2.3. Anionic PPs

The removal rates of anionic PPs are displayed in Figure 3. Only SUL displays a total removal whatever the adsorbent, mostly due to its very low concentration in the selected effluent (Table 2). The other PPs present a similar pattern with lower removal rates onto KGa2 and higher rates after interaction with SWy2. Weak removal variations are displayed between KGa2 and Na-SWy2

highlighting the limited affinity of anionic PPs for these two clay minerals. The higher removal rates observed after interaction with 200 mg SWy2 (i.e. between 38 and 78% except for SUL) emphasize the impact of the compensating inorganic cations. The only variation between SWy2 and Na-SWy2 is the homogenization of the compensating cations in the latter adsorbent. As a result, the significant amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in SWy2 (i.e. ~20%) appears to significantly enhance the adsorption extent of anionic PPs, or the adsorption of organic moieties which may adsorb such PPs in a second phase.

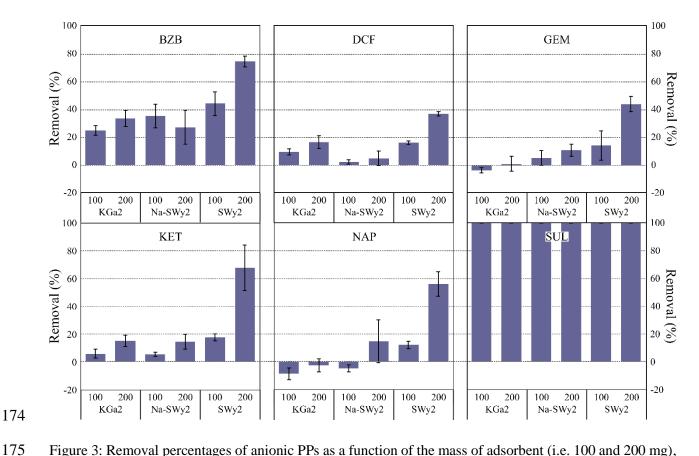


Figure 3: Removal percentages of anionic PPs as a function of the mass of adsorbent (i.e. 100 and 200 mg), n=3

#### 3.3.Adsorbent characterization

Prior to characterization, the clay minerals were separated from the supernatant after the interaction experiment by centrifugation. XRD patterns and FTIR spectra exhibited no significant layer expansion or band stretching, respectively (data not shown).

Table 3: Carbon percentages of raw adsorbents (Raw) and after interaction (i.e. 100 and 200 mg) with the effluent, n=3

	KGa2	Na-SWy2	SWy2
Raw	$0.256 \pm 0.02$	$0.214 \pm 0.03$	$0.312 \pm 0.05$
100 mg	$0.336 \pm 0.03$	$0.648 \pm 0.04$	$1.027 \pm 0.05$
200 mg	$0.341 \pm 0.05$	$0.581 \pm 0.07$	$0.959 \pm 0.06$

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The organic carbon content adsorbed onto clay after interaction was estimated from the elemental analyses. This bonded organic carbon can be either PPs or organic complexes present in the WWE. All the clay minerals display an increase in the carbon content in comparison with the initial composition (Table 3). Moreover, due to the weak concentration of PPs in the raw effluents in comparison with the total organic carbon content (i.e. < 0.1%), it is highly possible that most of the adsorbed organic carbon was generated by other organic compounds, thus masking the PP contribution to the whole carbon content. The carbon content after interaction ranges from 0.34 % (or 0.08 % if we consider the carbon content of the raw adsorbent) for KGa2 to ~1 % (or 0.7% if we consider the carbon content of the raw adsorbent) for SWy2 (Table 3). On increasing the mass of adsorbent from 100 to 200 mg, the carbon content of the adsorbents did not significantly vary, highlighting that the adsorption of organic moieties onto these adsorbents may be controlled by the solid/water partition. Therefore, an increase in the mass of adsorbent proportionally increases the amount of organic carbon adsorbed. From a global point of view, the displayed pattern is equivalent for PP removal and carbon analyses. The adsorption is weak onto KGa2 whereas it is higher onto SWy2, emphasizing the important role of the properties of the adsorbent, and the impact of the inorganic compensating cations.

#### 3.4. Comparative efficiency of clay minerals

The removal capacity of the three selected clay minerals appears to be enhanced when a higher mass of adsorbent is used. This is consistent with previous studies, which emphasized the contribution of the solid liquid partition coefficient in the adsorption of non-cationic PPs (Stein et al., 2008). Hence, the higher the solid/liquid ratio of adsorbent, the higher the removal rate. However, significant variations are found in the efficiency of the tested adsorbents. KGa2 presents the lowest adsorption capacities of all the targeted PPs, whatever their charge state. This is probably due to its weak CEC and SSA, limiting the affinity with organic moieties in comparison with montmorillonites. Between SWy2 and Na-SWy2, the adsorption performance of the latter is slightly better for the removal of cationic PPs whereas the opposite pattern is displayed for neutral and anionic PPs. This can be attributed to the fact that the compensating inorganic cations of SWy2 are not only Na<sup>+</sup>, but also Ca<sup>2+</sup> in a significant proportion, allowing the formation of cationic bridges with negatively charged organic moieties such as anionic PPs, or organic complexes present in the effluents (Aristilde et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). These results on PPs are confirmed by the elemental analyses, in which SWy2 displays the highest adsorbed amount of carbon. The latter adsorbent, therefore, presents the most suitable adsorption properties for the removal of PPs and potentially other organic contaminants, from WWE.

# 4. Conclusion

In this study, the potential of three clay minerals for the removal of PPs from raw WWE was studied for the first time in batch experiments, thereby deepening our understanding of the affinity between such adsorbents and PPs. The results clearly show that among the three adsorbents tested, KGa2 presents the lowest adsorption capacity for both PPs and other organic moieties present in the effluent. Secondly, the homogenization of the compensating cations of SWy2 (i.e. Na-SWy2) is not favorable for the adsorption of neutral and anionic PPs, which may interact with Ca<sup>2+</sup> cations through cationic bridges. This can be considered as a positive outcome, given the need to use as raw as possible material. Hence, SWy2 presents suitable adsorption properties in batch experiments

- for the removal of PPs from wastewater effluents. Finally, this work demonstrates that, in contrast to many studies on idealized solutions, the organic compounds present in raw WWE contribute to improving the adsorption capacity of neutral and anionic PPs by clay minerals in comparison to experiments conducted in pure water. These adsorbed organic moieties increase the hydrophobicity of the adsorbent and the number of adsorption sites. However, further studies remain necessary in order to transfer these results from batch experiments to dynamic ones, closer to the design of a
- 232 field solution.

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