Entomology and Applied Science Letters Volume 8, Issue 1, Page No: 77-89

Copyright CC BY 4.0

Available Online at: www.easletters.com



Pharmaceutical Pollution Crisis in the World: A Menace to Ecosystem

Subramanian Anjanapriya¹, Mohamed SulaimanMumtaz², Muhamed Hanifa Abdul Kader Mohideen², Ayyanar Radha³, Nambirajan Sasirekha⁴, Barbara Sawicka⁵, Vairakannu Tamizhazhagan^{6*}

¹Department of Microbiology, PKN Arts and Science College, Madurai, India.

²Department of Zoology, MSS Wakf Board College, Madurai, India.

³Department of Zoology, Kunthavai Naacchiyaar College, Thanjavur, Tamil Nadu, India.

⁴Department of Zoology, Government Arts College for Women, Sivagangai, India.

⁵Department of Plant Production Technology and Commodities Science, University of Life Sciences in Lublin, Poland.

⁶Department of Zoology, Syed Ammal Arts and Science College, Ramanathapuram, Tamilnadu, India.

ABSTRACT

Pharmaceutical pollution is an emerging concern in the world. Major manufacturing units of pharmaceutical companies are successfully running in the developed countries like the USA, UK, Canada, Germany, Australia, Ireland, and Japan and the developing countries like China, India, Brazil, Argentina, and Thailand. Pharmaceutical compounds are entering into the ecosystem finally end up in the drinking water as well as in the food web. Excessive usage of antibiotics for animals, as well as human beings, generates superbugs, this is the root cause of superbug crisis and untreated superbug infection. This review proposed the current scenario of pharmaceutical waste and its effects globally. Furthermore, it compile the pharmaceutical pollution in soil, water resources, and also discussed the suitable treatment process.

Keywords: Active pharmaceutical ingredients, Environmental pollutants, Hospital waste, Metabolic compounds, Microbial consortium.

HOW TO CITE THIS ARTICLE: Anjanapriya S, SulaimanMumtaz M, Mohideen MHAK, Radha A, Sasirekha N, Sawicka B, et al. Pharmaceutical Pollution Crisis in the World: A Menace to Ecosystem. Entomol Appl Sci Lett. 2021;8(1):77-89. https://doi.org/10.51847/iUGgphofKK

Corresponding author: Vairakannu Tamizhazhagan

 $\textbf{E-mail} \boxtimes : tamilzoon@gmail.com$

Received: 20/12/2020 **Accepted:** 24/03/2021

INTRODUCTION

In the modern world human and animal life are not being without pharmaceutical products, most of the developed countries routines the usage of active pharmaceutical compounds (API) like hormones and personal care products which are present everywhere [1]. Across the world, numerous studies reported that the environment is highly contaminated by pharmaceutical compounds Pharmaceuticals are chemical substances that have definite biological activity [4] and could not be completely removed by WWTP some amounts enter into the water system. Ministry of Health Labour and Welfare, Japan, 2013, reported that Japan is the second-largest country by the usage of pharmaceuticals than the United States. Worldwide 80% of people use Tamiflu (Oseltamivir), which anactivecompound and has been responsible for the development of the drug-resistant virus. Several studies have noticed the presence of pharmaceutical compounds, in the river [5], soil [6], WWTP [7], stream [2], drinking water [8], surface and groundwater, aquatic organism, crop plant. The root cause of pharmaceutical waste in the environment thru human and animal excretion, hospital waste and effluents

© 2021 Entomology and Applied Science Letters

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

discharged from the pharmaceutical manufacturing industry, discarding of expired or unwanted medicine into landfills and leachate [9] which are harmful to the environment. According to commonly household waste contains unused and expired medicines that are disposed of in a landfill or often people flushing the medications into the toilet. down Pharmaceutical and personal care products (PPCPs) like therapeutic, veterinary, fragrance, and cosmetics are substances and have diverse physicochemical properties [10, compounds Pharmaceutical cannot be completely metabolized by human and animal it enters into municipal wastewater treatment plant [12]. According to [7], the traditional sewage treatment method removes only the organic matter, cannot remove the metabolized pharmaceutical compounds. The presence of toxic pharmaceutical ingredients in the aquatic system can alter the homeostasis of aquatic organisms, and induce tragic changes in the endocrine system like enzyme inhibition, cellular damage, atrophy of organs and tissues, decreased growth, cytotoxicity, reproductive abnormalities, and immune system damage [13]. Advanced technology is available for the treatment of effluent like oxidation and filtration, wastewater treatment plant (WWTP), Sewage treatment plant (STP), and among these methods ozone and activated carbon treatments efficiently remove these chemicals. Hence the cost of these effluent treatments is high; consequently, a lot of research is focused to develop green and sustainable pharmacies. This paper reviews and deliberates the pharmaceutical industry waste and its impacts on the environment, and suitable methods of remediation and suggestion for pharmaceutical waste contamination.

Active pharmaceutical compounds and their metabolite

Globally the production and consumption of drugs are increased due to the growth of health

care units and people hope that being longer life [8]. Environmental Production Agency's (EPA's) regulations classified solid waste as hazardous by the authority of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act(RCRA). By their classification, hazardous waste is listed as F (non-specific source waste, K list are source-specific waste, P and U list are discarded commercial chemical products, this list is found in 40 CFR 261.33.Based on the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) regulation, P listed waste are pharmaceuticals and commercial chemical products, therapeutic agents and characterized as acutely hazardous. The U Listed wastes are chemicals, when drugs manufactured with these chemicals are called hazardous waste [14]. **Table 1** shows Pharmaceutical compounds listed waste by RCRA. Some of the medicine (aspirin, ibuprofen, paracetamol, caffeine, ranitidine, and diclofenac) are non-prescription drugs that are commonly sold over the counter (OTC), hence, the prescription drugs like carbamazepine, codeine, and diazepam are also sold by OTC in India without prescription.. Many countries like (European Union, Germany, Hungry, Italy, Portugal, and Spain) banned the drug dipyrone. Anticancer drugs are designed to stop cellular proliferation by disturbing DNA synthesis, and the mutagenic, fetotoxic and teratogenic properties of anticancer drugs are dangerous contaminants [15]. According to more than 150 anticancer drugs were consumed over the year 2007-2015 in Portugal, the study proposed that most of the drugs are Antineoplastic and Immuno modulating agents, in addition, megestrol (H02AB07), Cyproterone (G03HA01), a sex hormone and corticosteroid are used for the treatment of cancer. Antiinfluenza drugs Inavir (laninami viroctanoate) was developed in 2014, Tarbet, Avigan (favipiavir), and Rapiacta (peramivir) were developed in 2012, from this Inavirare transformed into pharmacologically active metabolite laninamvir.

Table 1. Pharmaceutical compounds listed waste by Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA).

P listed waste (Waste code)	U Listed waste(Waste code)
Arsenic trioxide(P012)	Hexachlorophene(U132)
Epinephrine base(P042)	Lindane(U129)
Nicotine(P075)	Melphalan (chemo)(U150)

Nitroglycerin(P081)	Mercury(U151)	
Phentermine(CIV)(P204)	Mitomycin C (chemo)(U010)	
Physostigmine salicylate(P188)	Paraldehyde (CIV)2(U182)	
Warfarin(P001)	Phenacetin(U187)	
U Listed waste	Phenol(U188)	
Chloral Hydrate (U034)	Reserpine(U200)	
Chlorambucil (U035)	Resorcinol(U201)	
Chloroform (U044)	Saccharin(U202)	
Cyclophosphamide (U058)	Selenium sulfide(U205)	
Daunomycin (U059)	Streptozotocin (chemo)(U206)	
Dichlorodifluromethane(U075)	Trichloromonofluromethane(U121)	
Diethylstilbestrol (U089)	Uracil mustard (chemo)(U237)	
Formaldehyde (U122)	Warfarin(U248)	

Source of pharmaceutical waste

Generally, pharmaceutical waste is separated into point source pollution and diffuse pollution. Point source pollution is detectible source from distinct location such as hospital and industrial effluents, sewage treatment plants, and septic tanks [16]. The unsafe release and rise of pharmaceutical compounds in the environment due to Lack of policy implementation, ineffective regulation, and lack of awareness on public health are the major issues [2]. Household, commercial and industrial waste is collected by the local municipality and dumped as landfill. The source is entered through dumping of expired, unused drugs, waste medicine from the house and health care centres, and human, animal excretion to landfill. According to [17] the lack of monitoring system, regulatory body, and guidelines for the discarding of expired drugs increased the pollution level in the environment. Generally, some pharmaceutical compounds (PCs) and antibiotics are not be completely removed by the wastewater treatment plant, when using for irrigation pharmaceutically active compounds are leached into groundwater. According to [4], human excretion enters the aquatic system by the release of the septic tank. Similarly, pharmaceutical compounds enter the aquatic by the main route of sewage treatment plants [18]. Diffuse pollution is very hard to be found in sustenance environmental scales [16]. For example, runoff from agricultural land, domestic waste, animal waste, and sludge from WWTP [19]. The release of scantily treated effluents is

the major cause of PPCPs contamination in the environment, high concentration acetaminophen (21-119 µg/L) and ibuprofen (0.3- 63 µg/L) were found in two hospitals WWTPs in South Africa [7]. According to [6] Continual input and presence of antibiotics in the environment are considered pseudo persistent contaminants. Irrational antibiotic usage as growth promoters for poultry and cattle is a source of antibiotic contamination in theenvironment. Sewage sludge is the semisolid, solid, or liquid waste produced during the treatment process of domestic sewage. Based on EPA standards additional treatments are required for sludge to land application, after treatment process these are referred to as bio solid and it can be used as a soil amendment, it contains organic as well as inorganic matter by the way it can improve the quality of soil or contaminate soil [14]. European Commission reported (2016) that, use of reclaimed wastewater for irrigation is an emerging contaminant. A study was conducted in Sweden and Germany, in this research high nutrient sand fewer pharmaceuticals were found in black water (un separated toilet waste) [20]. In America, 50% of these bio solids are applied to agricultural land to improve crop production. Indicated that the land application of bio solid is one of the major causes of groundwater contamination due to the high soluble nature of halogenated hydrocarbon and high concentration of pharmaceutically active compounds in bio solid.

Occurrence in the environment

80

Pharmaceutical compounds and their metabolic products are increasing and quickly contaminate the environment. Worldwide the pharmaceutical compounds witnessed various countries, groundwater from the USA; soil from Victoria, Australia [21] Sydney estuary in Australia River Avon, from Salford, England Yodo River, Japan [5] wastewater from the residential, dairy hospital, and WATP, Albuquerque, New Mexico; Sewage effluents, Nova Scotia, Canada, Sewage treatment plant,

Spain; Eschede, Germany [22] Sewage treatment plant, Beijing, China [23] Rivers Lakes, Groundwater, Hyderabad, India [3]. According to [4] occurrence of active pharmaceutical ingredients in groundwater, drinking water, seawater, landfill, leachate, effluents from Sewage Treatment Plant (STP), Wastewater Treatment Plant (WWTP) is a major concern. **Table 2** shows the occurrence of pharmaceutically active substances in soil and water resources.

Table 2. Concentration of pharmaceutical compounds found in soil, WWWTP/STP, freshwater, ground water and Tap water from different countries.

from different countries. Compound Source Concentration ng/l Country Reference						
Acetaminophen	Ground water	1890	California, Canada	[24]		
Treetaninopilen	WWTP	10,0	India	[25]		
Amantadine	Effluent	75000,150000	Japan	[5]		
Atenolol	WWTP	232	India	[25]		
Azithromycin	WWTP	300000	India	[25]		
Caffeine	Ground water	150000-300000	California, Canada	[24		
Currente	Surface water	290	China	[26]		
	WWTP	270	India	[25]		
	Fresh Water	3500	California	[24]		
	Ground water	3300	China	[26]		
	Surface water	150000	India	[8]		
	Lakes	735	India	[8]		
Capecitabine	River	733	India	[8]		
Ciprofloxacin	Well	420	India	[8]		
Сіргополасії	Lakes	120	USA	Gómez-Canela <i>et al.</i> , 2013		
	River	15.70,5.21	Lisbon, Algarve	Gómez-Canela <i>et al.</i> , 2013		
Cyclophosphamide	River	13.70,3.21	China,	López-Serna et al., 2012		
Diazepam	Soil (µg/kg)	6.5 mg/l	China	[26]		
Ibuprofen	WWTP/STP	2.5 mg/l	Canada	[27]		
Touproren	Fresh Water	14000 ng/l	Italy Taiwan, Korea	[24]		
	River	1.2 mg/l	China	[26]		
	Tap water	131	Algarve,Portugal	[28]		
	Surface water	44,88,102	India	[25]		
	Surface water	0.35-1.16	China	[26]		
Meprobamate	Lakes	1.3	India	[8]		
Metformin	River	11900,8000,1600	Japan	[5]		
Mycophenolic acid	Wells		Japan	[5]		
Mycophenolate	River	203,468,30	Japan	[5]		
mofetil	Effluent		Japan	[5]		
Naproxen	River	5.67,0.94	Canada	[29]		
Norfloxacin	Effluent		USA	[30]		
	Drinking water	5.37	Japan	[5]		
	Ground water		Germany	[5]		
Oseltamivir	River	5.9	Germany	[31]		
	Tap water	149.06,10.75	India	[31]		
Oseltamivir carboxylate	Tap water	555	India	[25]		

			* *	
	Tap water	0.5 mg/l	China	[25]
Paracetamol	WWWTP	4700 ng/l	Taiwan, Korea	[27]
i aractialliui	Fresh Water	31 ng/l	Spain, Taiwan,	[31]
Peramivi	Soil (µg/kg)	20	Vietnam	[24]
i ciamivi	Ground water	140	China	[24]
PDP	Surface water	70	Mexico	[27]
Propyphenazone		0.298	China	
Propyphenazone	Soil (µg/kg)	6.5	Cillia	[31]
D. W.F.	WWTP/STP		N M ' C '	[24]
Ranitidine	Ground water	157,1708,274	New Mexico, Spain	[26]
0.10.11.1	Surface water	10	New Jersey, Canada,	[5]
Sulfadiazine		0.24	California, Canada,	
Sulfamethoxazole	River	250-400	China	[5]
Tridosan	Surface water	80-240		[5]
Trimethoprim	Surface water	75000		[5]
Zanamivir	Effluent		Japan	[26]
		184	Canada	[5]
			USA	
		170,33,4330	Japan	[5]
			Germany	[5]
		458,38,3	Germany	
			India	[5]
		380	India	
			China	[26]
		16.7		[5]
			Canada	
		2550,39,2000	USA	
			Japan	
		145,59.9,1808	Germany	
		18	Germany	
		4500	India	
		89		
		200		

Pharmaceutical compounds in soil

Water demands and scarcity are a major threat, to overcome this most of the countries turned to wastewater for irrigation. Organic pollutants enter into the soil by the way irrigation of septic tank water, application of biosolids and manure directly environment. Commonly the existence of pharmaceutical compounds in the soil is lower than water resources. Li et al., [32] reported that the concentration of anticonvulsant carbamazepine is the recurrent compound in soil; it enters the soil through irrigation of wastewater in Mexico and China. Generally, the antibiotics levels in soil were higher due to the addition of sewage sludge, biosolids, and manure to the agricultural land. The highest amount of tetracycline-chlortetracycline (12900

μg/kg) [33], doxycycline (728 μg/kg), and oxytetracycline (50000 μg/kg) [32] were observed from manure similarly considerable amount of sulfonamides of sulfamethazine (200-25000 μg/kg), sulfoxide (9.1)μg/kg), sulfadiazine (85 μg/kg) and fluoroquinolones of ciprofloxacin (5600 µg/kg), enorfloxacin (1347 μg/kg), norfloxacin (2160 μg/kg) [34]. In [35] Table 2 shows the concentration of some pharmaceutically active compounds in soil and water resources. According to [36] when sludge applied to soil bioactive compounds are enter into soil and transfer into the plant, he measured high concentration of Metformin (12 mg/kg) than naras in and ciprofloxacin (11.3 and 6.5 mg/kg) in soil. Soil samples were collected from the garden of Jerez de la Frontera, Spain, this garden was fully irrigated

with treated WWTPs water and effluent, the samples contain high concentrations (ng/g) of acetaminophen (5.95), diclofenac (5.06), caffeine (3.21), flumequine (5.31) [37].

Pharmaceutical compounds in water

A study published by [38] by their investigated pharmaceutical residues found in the Yamuna River due to STP effluents released to the river. Based on the results in location (YMN-1) drugs like ibuprofen, paracetamol and caffeine were found in the winter season, except for ibuprofen two drugs observed in the summer season, no drugs were found in monsoon. Therefore, in location YMN-2 high concentrations of aspirin, ibuprofen, paracetamol, caffeine. carbamazepine, codeine, and diazepam were witnessed in summer, but throughout the year maximum concentration of caffeine was found. found anticancer drugs Similarly, Portuguese surface water such as mycophenolic acid (117-213 ng/l), hydroxycarbamide (55-81 ng/l), bicalutamide (4-10 ng/l), capecitabine (8-17 ng/l), imatinib (3-8 ng/l) and cyproterone (2ng/l). [26] detected some pharmaceutically active compounds in the surface water of China and compared with other countries, for example, carbamazepine was lower (69 ng/l) than South Korea (95 ng/l), United States (190 ng/l) and South Africa (3240 ng/l) [39], the levels were higher than Japan (15ng/l) and in Spain 53.8 ng/l. Paracetamol is generally used as a pain reliever and reduces fever and selling as OTC because most people in India taking the drug without physician consultation. For this reason, the concentration of paracetamol 157, 1708, 274ng/l was noticed in river water in India [38]. Codeine concentration in Sydney estuary water (9.5ng/l), wastewater (1000ng/l), river water (100ng/l), estuarine from Taff and Ely River (258-333 ng/l). Similarly, fluconazole concentration (236,950µg/l) is 20 times higher than therapeutically desired levels in blood detected from sewage samples around industrial Zone in India. In a study conducted by [19] in China, they detected 42 PPCPs in WWTP effluent, sludge, and suspended solids, the study proposed that Ketoprofen, Metoprolol, Ibuprofen, Triclocarban, Ofloxacin, propylparabens were most abounded in effluent and also caffeine, oxytetracycline, ibuprofen. Similarly, 103 pharmaceuticals and hormones were detected in groundwater used

drinking water in the United States, particularly hydrocortisone concentrations higher than human health. In a study micropollutants (in ng/L) were analyzed in groundwater downgradientin Minnesota, the USA they found sulfamethoxazole (965), carbamazepine (1000), methocarbamol (550), metformin (206), and fluconazole (184). Likewise, Ketoprofen (1820), gemfibrozil (1910), atenolol (1140), ranitidine (2770), and hydrochlorothiazide (2270) were detected in WWTPs effluent from Jerez del Frontera city in Spain [37].

Pharmaceutical compounds in the plant

Treated wastewater reused for agriculture irrigation and which introduce pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) and endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs) into the soil environment, which are taken up by plants enter into food web [22, 40]. Biotransformation and bio concentration of PPCPs and EDCs were studied by [40] in the plant (Carrot, tomato, and lettuce). In his study, the least accumulated compounds were atorvastatin, clofibric acid, and diclofenac (Bioconcentration factor (BCF) 0.0-69.3 μg/Kg), but diazepam, diuron, and perfluorooctanoic acid were most accumulated (BCF 4.5-718.6 μg/kg), and BCF value of root tissues was higher than leaves. Soybean [41], and ryegrass [20] uptake more carbamacepine than root. But the opposite statements reported by [42] showing more concentrations of salbutamol, carbamazepine, trimethoprim, and sulfamethoxazole were taken by roots of cabbage and fluoxetine and diphenhydramine uptake by the root of soybean [41]. Antimicrobial Triclosan and triclocarban were reduced from the soil by pumpkin and zucchini plants. Cui et al. studied the uptake process of Metformin (MET) in the plant, he reported that MET compounds enter root through the apo plastic pathway by diffusion and are transported by active transport through a symplastic pathway. Similarly, [36] said Plant uptake a higher concentration of motor man than nursing and ciprofloxacin.

Impact of pharmaceutical contamination in the environment

Pharmaceutical compounds are metabolized and release a complex mixture of bioactive compounds, which are highly active than the parent compound [43]. The conventional wastewater treatment process is not completely removed the PPCP compounds therefore pharmaceutical pollution is rising globally, while using treated wastewater for irrigation. Such practice highly contaminates the soil and water resources, as well as increasing drug-resistant bacteria. Pharmaceutically active compounds contamination directly affects the human by the way of respiratory disorder, loss of reproductive ability, cancer, skin allergies, and congenital problems. For example, anticancer drugs of tamoxifen & 40HTam induced adverse effects on the aquatic organism for example in Daphnia pulexthe drug highly influences the size and reproductive rate of the organism Figure 1. Shows pharmaceutical waste entry and its effects on environment. According to [22] the biguanidine class of antidiabetic II drug MET acts as a glucose suppressor by the way it can suppressing glucose production in the liver. This could not metabolize by the human body and directly enters into the environment through urine. Antibiotic in the environment generates superbug crisis, present-day this is the challenging issue worldwide. Excessive use of antibiotics creates resistance, it succumbs to untreatable superbug infection. The effluents from the pharmaceutical manufacturing industry contaminate the ecosystem and growing drug resistance at the global level. Another study reported that seasonal variation

noticed in the occurrence of the drug in river water, this study said anti-influenza drugs of oseltamivir, oseltamivir carboxylate, peramivir, and zanamivir were not observed at the end of December 2015 in river water but from January 2016 to February 2016 they appear in the concentration 20, 70, 10, 89ng/respectively. Then concentration was rapidly diminished and become not detectable in March 2016. Consequently, the anti-influenza drugs laninamivir, laninamiviroctanoate. and favipiravir were witnessed only in the influenza season [5]. The toxicity and risk arevarying with the concentration of individual compound contamination. An investigation said, trimetho prime in the surface water is extremely risky to aquatic organism, hence ibuprofen, roxithromycin, and gemfibrozil show medium risks. Generally, in hospitals no separate sewage system for cancer patient wards, due to this the radioactive waste and cancer drugs are directly going to the sewage system. Discussed [17] in their review estradiol concentration in water resources can induce vitellogenin production and structural changes in sex organs observed. [37] Assessed environmental risk factors in soil irrigated with WWTPs treated water, the study shows the concentration of trimethoprim, caffeine, flumequine, and acetaminophen were in low risk and maximum risk observed for diclofenac and phenazone.

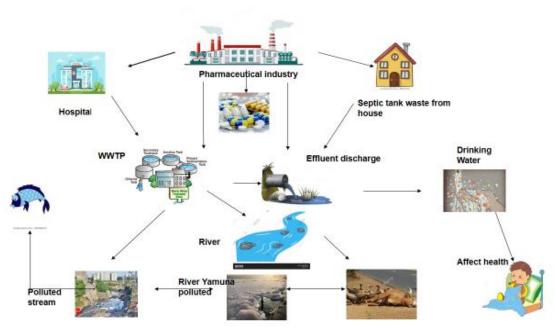


Figure 1. Pharmaceutical waste entry and its effects on environment

Methods of pharmaceutical waste degradation Pharmaceuticals are one of the essential products in our daily life; however, poor removal is a great concern. Several studies focused to remove active compounds by various methods, but some limitations are present. This review discussed the overview of the wastewater treatment process, the following methods of physical adsorption, biological degradation, and chemical oxidation are involved [19]. Several studies analyzed the efficiency of these methods. wastewater treatment method is considered as the central unit to remove pollutants from the wastewater. The removal efficiency is vastly different, it depends on the environmental condition and physicochemical properties of the adsorption substances, materials, and combination of the treatment process [44]. Numerous studies witnessed the pharmaceutical compounds from effluents, also the release of improperly treated effluents to lake and river water APC will contaminate the environment. Even trace (ngmg/l) level of pharmaceutical compounds in the water cycle is a high risk to humans. Various studies focused to improve the removal efficiency with physical adsorption materials in the wastewater treatment process such as powdered activated carbon (PAC), granular activated carbon (GAC), graphene, graphene oxide, carbon nanotubes. Activated carbon is highly used for the removal of PCs from wastewater and groundwater, therefore adsorption capacity depends on the hydrophobicity and charge of PCs. In the pilotscale, the treatment process of remaining organic matter in the water can compete with PCs to the binding sites of powdered activated carbon, which can reduce the adsorption capacity [45]. Therefore, to avoid the problem higher dose of PAC was needed to improve the removal efficiency. Various factors influenced the removal efficiency such as molecular weight of compounds, presence of organic matter, theconcentration of PAC, contact time, and structure of activated carbon materials. Table 3 shows the removal efficiency of PCs by activated carbon. Graphene is composed of carbonatoms and graphene oxide is a precursor of graphene, due to the remarkable properties of graphene and graphene oxide has high attention for the

removal of PCs [19]. Their removal efficiency varied with physicochemical properties of PCs, pH, and contact time influence the rate of adsorption. Comparatively graphene and graphene oxide have aspecific surface area than activated carbon hence it can potentially remove the PC. Carbon nanotubes have excellent properties in the removal of PCs than PAC, GAC, graphene, and graphene oxide. Adsorption efficiency varied with the structure and properties of carbon nanotubes. Multi-walled nanotubes can effectively remove PCs of ibuprofen, carbamazepine, caffeine, triclosan, prometryn, carbendazim [19].

Pharmaceutical waste compounds are frequently identified by the above-mentioned methods, therefore advanced chemical oxidation methods are required to remove pollutants. Recently chemical oxidation processes of ozonation, Fenton oxidation, and ultraviolet (UV) treatment are used for the treatment of waste. Ozone is anoxidation method, and which are effective removes the PCs, ozonationis mainly based on the oxidizing activity of hydroxyl radicals to remove PCs. concentration of hydroxyl radicals influences ozonation, threat of ozonation decrease when there is an increase in hydroxyl radicals. Fenton oxidation ismostly used in industrial wastewater treatment, in which iron salts and hydrogen peroxide are used to remove pollutants. Fenton oxidation and Fenton like oxidation mainly depend on the hydroxyl in this oxidation process radicals, O2decomposed and generate hydroxyl radicals [19]. Another method is UV treatment, it is mainly applied for drinking water and wastewater treatment, for the removal of PCs V light destroys chemical bonds of pollutants by the process called photolysis. Hence photolysis is not effective in all the compounds for example concentration of carbamazepine is not reduced by this process. According to [46] revealed that the new methodology is to increase the efficiency of removal of PCs. In which combination of UV with hydrogen peroxide effectively reduce the pollutants. The abovementioned methods are an effective treatment for the removal of PCs but are economically not suitable for undeveloped and developing countries.

biological degradation process is considered a cost-effective and eco-friendly method in the excellence of pharmaceutical waste removal mechanisms. Microorganisms are utilizing pollutants as an energy source for metabolic functions. Pure culture isolated from activated sludge predominantly removes the PCs, some strains highly degrade a wide range of components. In the presence of glucose, and Basidiomycete StreptomycesMIUG degrade carbamazepine and iopromide can degrade with the extra substrate noticed that microorganisms use ibuprofen and paracetamol as a carbon source, the metabolic product of hydroquinone and 4-aminophenol were formed during the microbial degradation paracetamol. Diclofenac has high resistance in the activated sludge process. However, revealed

that the white-rot fungus completely removes diclofenac and eliminates its lethal toxicity to an organism in the absence of extra substrate. Likewise, in another study white-rot fungi and their oxidoreductase enzymes are effective for the removal of PCs contaminants; hence the removal efficacy of fungal cells is highly dependent on the molecular structure of targeted PCs, fungal species, and secreted enzymes. Mixed culture easily degrades the pharmaceutical compounds than pure culture. [47] Reported that removal of compounds enhanced by adding mixed cultures in the activated sludge process. Comparatively, a mixed culture has a higher degradability of mixed pharmaceutical compounds than individual compounds.

Table 3. Removal efficiency of pharmaceutical compounds through various activated carbons.

Compounds Adsorbent		T *** 1	Source	Removal efficiency	D. e
	Adsorbent	Initial concentration		(%)	Reference
Antibiotic					
Sulfamethoxazole	PAC (5mg/l)	100 ng/l	Surface water	~35	[1]
	PAC (50 mg/l)	600 ng/l	WWTP	~60	[48]
	PAC (20 mg/l)	100 ng/l	Synthetic water	~95	[48]
	PAC (5 mg/l)	100 ng/l	Surface water	~65	[1]
<u>Antidepressant</u>	PAC (5 mg/l)	100 ng/l	Surface water	~60	[48]
Diazepam					
Hormone					
Estriol	PAC (50 mg/l)	1.3 mg/l	WWTPs effluents	~90	[1]
Lipid regulator					
Bezafibrate	Graphene	100 ng/l	Surface water	95.5	[49, 50]
Non-steroidal anti-					
inflammatory drugs					
Ibuprofen	PAC (50 mg/l)	10 mg/l	Synthetic water	~80	[1]
Diclofenac	PAC (20 mg/l)	$5.8 \ \mu g/l$	WWTPs effluents	~100	[48]
Paracetamol	Graphene	100 ng/l	Synthetic water	97	[49, 50]
Naproxen	PAC (20 mg/l)	10 mg/l	Synthetic water	~85	[48]
	PAC (20 mg/l)	100 ng/l	Synthetic water	~95	[48]
		100 ng/l	Synthetic water		

CONCLUSION

Pharmaceutical pollution is rising globally while using treated wastewater for irrigation. Such practice highly contaminates the soil and water resources, as well as increasing drug-resistant bacteria. The entry of such active pharma compounds in water resources will affect the

aquatic population and pollutants enter into food webs. The conventional mode of discharge and treatment of pharmaceutical wastes is not completely removing the pharmaceutically active compounds. The review proposed that carbon nanotubes have excellent properties in the removal of PCs than PAC, GAC, graphene, and graphene oxide, however, few compounds

are frequently identified by the abovementioned methods. Consequently, advanced chemical oxidation methods of Ozonation, Fenton oxidation, and UV treatment are required to remove pollutants. Ozonation and Fenton oxidation highly depends on the concentration of hydroxyl radicals. treatment is based on the process of photolysis hence it is not effective for all compounds, while the combination of UV with hydrogen peroxide effectively reduces the pollutants. The abovementioned methods are an effective treatment for the removal of PCs but are economically not suitable for undeveloped and developing countries. Even though, the Biological degradation process is considered acosteffective eco-friendly method and has an excellent removal mechanism for organic pollutants in the environment. Pure culture of bacteria, algae, and fungi can remove PCs effectively, whereas microbial consortium easily degrades the pharmaceutical compounds than individual culture. Globally, they are many surveys conducted and proposed that the need for awareness within people about the proper disposal of waste will control pollution. Adhering to the environmental monitoring regulatory system, body and stringent guidelines for the discarding of expired drugs in developing and under-developing countries increased the pollution level.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS: The authors express sincere thanks to the Department of Microbiology, PKN Arts and Science College, Madurai, India for the facilities provided to carry out this research work.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST: None

FINANCIAL SUPPORT: None

ETHICS STATEMENT: The studies mainly involving pharmacology and also secondary data so there is no ethical approval under the verification and monitor by Syed Ammal Arts and Science College, Research and Development Cell.

REFERENCES

 Altmann J, Ruhl AS, Zietzschmann F, Jekel M. Direct comparison of ozonation and

- adsorption onto powdered activated carbon for micropollutant removal in advanced wastewater treatment. Water Res. 2014;55:185-93.
- doi:10.1016/j.watres.2014.02.025.
- Ikem A, Lin CH, Broz B, Kerley M, Le Thi H.
 Occurrence of enrofloxacin in overflows
 from animal lot and residential sewage
 lagoons and a receiving-stream. Heliyon.
 2017;3(10):e00409.
 doi:10.1016/J.heliyon.2017.e00409.
 - Lübbert C, Baars C, Dayakar A, Lippmann N, Rodloff AC, Kinzig M, et al. Environmental pollution with antimicrobial agents from bulk drug manufacturing industries in
 - Hyderabad, South India, is associated with dissemination of extended-spectrum betalactamase and carbapenemase-producing pathogens. Infection. 2017;45(4):479-91. doi:10.1007/s15010-017-1007-2
- 4. Kummerer K. Pharmaceuticals in the environment. Annu Rev Environ Resour. 2010;35(1):57-75. doi:10.1146/annurevenviron-052809-161223
- 5. Azuma T, Ishida M, Hisamatsu K, Yunoki A, Otomo K, Kunitou M, et al. Fate of new three anti-influenza drugs and one prodrug in the water environment. Chemosphere. 2017;169:550-7.
 - doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.11.102.
- Cycoń M, Mrozik A, Piotrowska-Seget Z. Antibiotics in the soil environment degradation and their impact on microbial activity and diversity. Front Microbiol. 2019;10:338.
 - doi:10.3389/fmicb.2019.00338.
- 7. Kanama KM, Daso AP, Mpenyana-Monyatsi L, Coetzee MA. Assessment of pharmaceuticals, personal care products, and hormones in wastewater treatment plants receiving inflows from health facilities in North West Province, South Africa. J Toxicol. 2018;2018:1-15. doi:10.1155/2018/3751930
- 8. Chander V, Sharma B, Negi V, Aswal R, Singh P, Singh R, et al. Pharmaceutical compounds in drinking water. J Xenobiot. 2016;6(1):1-7. doi:10.4081/xeno.2016.5774.
- Lu MC, Chen YY, Chiou MR, Chen MY, Fan HJ.
 Occurrence and treatment efficiency of pharmaceuticals in landfill leachates. Waste

- Manag. 2016;55:257-64. doi:1.1016/j.wasman.2016.03.029
- 10. Sergeevna SM, Efimovna LE. Improving Training of Pharmaceutical Specialists for Consultation in Pharmacy Organizations Using Interactive Forms of Education. Pharmacophore. 2020;11(2):7-14.
- 11. Sergeevna SM, Efimovna LE, Vladimirovna AI. Improvement of pharmaceutical consultation process in drugstores. J Adv Pharm Educ Res. 2020;10(1):137.
- 12. Tiwari B, Sellamuthu B, Ouarda Y, Drogui P, Tyagi RD, Buelna G. Review on fate and mechanism of removal of pharmaceutical pollutants from wastewater using biological approach. Bioresour Technol. 2017;224:1-2. doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2016.11.042.
- 13. Felis E, Kalka J, Sochacki A, Kowalska K, Bajkacz S, Harnisz M, et al. Antimicrobial pharmaceuticals in the aquatic environment-occurrence and environmental implications. Eur J Pharmacol. 2020;866:172813. doi:10.1016/j.ejphar.2019.172813.
- 14. European Commission, Report of the Adhoc Working Group on defining critical raw materials. Report on critical raw materials for the EU. Available from: https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2017/En/com-2017-490-F1-EN-MAINPART. (Accessed on January 2021).
- 15. Rowney NC, Johnson AC, Williams RJ. Cytotoxic drugs in drinking water: a prediction and risk assessment exercise for the Thames catchment in the United Kingdom. Environ Toxicol Chem. 2009;28(12):2733-43.
- 16. Estévez E, del Carmen Cabrera M, Molina-Díaz A, Robles-Molina J, del Pino Palacios-Díaz M. Screening of emerging contaminants and priority substances (2008/105/EC) in reclaimed water for irrigation and groundwater in a volcanic aquifer (Gran Canaria, Canary Islands, Spain). Sci Total Environ. 2012;433:538-46.
- 17. Mani A, Thawani V. The persisting environmental problem of disposal of expired and unused medicines. J Mahatma Gandhi Inst Med Sci. 2019;24(1):13. doi:10.4103/jmgims.jmgims_43_18
- 18. Lin H, Li H, Chen L, Li L, Yin L, Lee H, et al. Mass loading and emission of thirty-seven

- pharmaceuticals in a typical municipal wastewater treatment plant in Hunan Province, Southern China. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf. 2018;147:530-6. doi:10.1016/j.ecoenv.2017.08.052
- 19. Wang J, Wang S. Removal of pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) from wastewater: a review. J Environ Manag. 2016;182:620-40. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2016.07.049.
- 20. Winker DM, Pelon J, Coakley Jr JA, Ackerman SA, Charlson RJ, Colarco PR, et al. The CALIPSO mission: A global 3D view of aerosols and clouds. Bull Am Meteorol Soc. 2010;91(9):1211-30.
- 21. Hu HW, Han XM, Shi XZ, Wang JT, Han LL, Chen D, et al. Temporal changes of antibiotic-resistance genes and bacterial communities in two contrasting soils treated with cattle manure. FEMS Microbiol Ecol. 2016;92(2):fiv169. doi:10.1093/femsec/fiv169.
- 22. Cui H, Hense BA, Müller J, Schröder P. Short term uptake and transport process for metformin in roots of Phragmites australis and Typha latifolia. Chemosphere. 2015;134:307-12. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2015.04.072
- 23. Gao H, Bohn TJ, Podest E, McDonald KC, Lettenmaier DP. On the causes of the shrinking of Lake Chad. Environ Res Lett. 2011;6(3):034021.
- 24. Van Stempvoort DR, Roy JW, Grabuski J, Brown SJ, Bickerton G, Sverko E. An artificial sweetener and pharmaceutical compounds as co-tracers of urban wastewater in groundwater. Sci Total Environ. 2013;461:348-59. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.05.001.
- 25. Mohapatra S, Huang CH, Mukherji S, Padhye LP. Occurrence and fate of pharmaceuticals in WWTPs in India and comparison with a similar study in the United States. Chemosphere. 2016;159:526-35. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.06.047.
- 26. Yao B, Yan S, Lian L, Yang X, Wan C, Dong H, et al. Occurrence and indicators of pharmaceuticals in Chinese streams: a nationwide study. Environ Pollut. 2018;236:889-98.
- 27. Chen F, Ying GG, Kong LX, Wang L, Zhao JL, Zhou LJ, et al. Distribution and accumulation

- of endocrine-disrupting chemicals and pharmaceuticals in wastewater irrigated soils in Hebei, China. Environ Pollut. 2011;159(6):1490-8. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2011.03.016.
- 28. EPA. Estimation Program Interface EPI Suite, 4.11. 2013. Available from: https://www.epa.gov/tsca-screening-tools/episuitetm-estimation-program-interface. (Accessed: 06-12-2016).
- 29. Boleda MR, Galceran MT, Ventura F. Behavior of pharmaceuticals and drugs of abuse in a drinking water treatment plant (DWTP) using combined conventional and ultrafiltration and reverse osmosis (UF/RO) treatments. Environ Pollut. 2011;159(6):1584-91.
- 30. Vulliet E, Cren-Olivé C. Screening of pharmaceuticals and hormones at the regional scale, in surface and groundwaters intended to human consumption. Environ Pollut. 2011;159(10):2929-34. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2011.04.033.
- 31. Martín J, Camacho-Muñoz D, Santos JL, Aparicio I, Alonso E. Occurrence of pharmaceutical compounds in wastewater and sludge from wastewater treatment plants: removal and ecotoxicological impact of wastewater discharges and sludge disposal. J Hazard Mater. 2012;239:40-7. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.212.04.068
- 32. Liu L, Liu YH, Liu CX, Huang X. Accumulation of antibiotics and tet resistance genes from swine wastewater in wetland soils. Environ Eng Manag J. 2016;15(10):2137-45. doi:10.30638/eemj.2016.231
- 33. Łukaszewicz P, Białk-Bielińska A, Dołżonek J, Kumirska J, Caban M, Stepnowski P. A new approach for the extraction of tetracyclines from soil matrices: application of the microwave-extraction technique. Anal Bioanal Chem. 2018;410(6):1697-707. doi:10.1007/s00216-017-0815-7.
- 34. Pan M, Chu LM. Fate of antibiotics in soil and their uptake by edible crops. Sci Total Environ. 2017;599:500-12. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.04.214.
- 35. Tasho RP, Cho JY. Veterinary antibiotics in animal waste, its distribution in soil and uptake by plants: a review. Sci Total Environ. 2016;563:366-76. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.04.140.

- 36. Eggen T, Asp TN, Grave K, Hormazabal V. Uptake and translocation of metformin, ciprofloxacin and narasin in forage-and crop plants. Chemosphere. 2011;85(1):26-33.
- 37. Biel-Maeso M, Corada-Fernández C, Lara-Martín PA. Monitoring the occurrence of pharmaceuticals in soils irrigated with reclaimed wastewater. Environ Pollut. 2018;235:312-21. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2017.12.085.
- 38. Mutiyar PK, Gupta SK, Mittal AK. Fate of pharmaceutical active compounds (PhACs) from River Yamuna, India: An ecotoxicological risk assessment approach. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf. 2018;150:297-304.
- 39. Matongo S, Birungi G, Moodley B, Ndungu P. Pharmaceutical residues in water and sediment of Msunduzi River, kwazulu-natal, South Africa. Chemosphere. 2015;134:133-40.
- 40. Dodgen LK, Ueda A, Wu X, Parker DR, Gan J. Effect of transpiration on plant accumulation and translocation of PPCP/EDCs. Environ Pollut. 2015;198:144-53. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.201.01.002.
- 41. Wu M, Cao C, Jiang JZ. Light non-metallic atom (B, N, O and F)-doped graphene: a first-principles study. Nanotechnology. 2010;21(50):505202.
- 42. Herklotz A, Plumhof JD, Rastelli A, Schmidt OG, Schultz L, Dörr K. Electrical characterization of PMN–28% PT (001) crystals used as thin-film substrates. J Appl Phys. 2010;108(9):094101.
- 43. Bound JP, Voulvoulis N. Household disposal of pharmaceuticals as a pathway for aquatic contamination in the United Kingdom. Environ Health Perspect. 2005;113(12):1705-11.
- 44. Roberts J, Kumar A, Du J, Hepplewhite C, Ellis DJ, Christy AG, et al. Pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) in Australia's largest inland sewage treatment plant, and its contribution to a major Australian river during high and low flow. Sci Total Environ. 2016;541:1625-37. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.03.145.
- 45. Mailler R, Gasperi J, Coquet Y, Deshayes S, Zedek S, Cren-Olivé C, et al. Study of a large scale powdered activated carbon pilot: Removals of a wide range of emerging and priority micropollutants from wastewater

- treatment plant effluents. Water Res. 2015;72:315-30.
- 46. Yuan Y, Zhao B, Zhou S, Zhong S, Zhuang L. Electrocatalytic activity of anodic biofilm responses to pH changes in microbial fuel cells. Bioresour Technol. 2011;102(13):6887-91.
- 47. Zhou NA, Lutovsky AC, Andaker GL, Ferguson JF, Gough HL. Kinetics modeling predicts bioaugmentation with Sphingomonad cultures as a viable technology for enhanced pharmaceutical and personal care products removal during wastewater treatment. Bioresour Technol. 2014;166:158-67. doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2014.05.028.
- 48. Nam SW, Choi DJ, Kim SK, Her N, Zoh KD.

 Adsorption characteristics of selected hydrophilic and hydrophobic micropollutants in water using activated

- carbon. J Hazard Mater. 2014;270:144-52. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2014.01.037.
- 49. Rizzo L, Fiorentino A, Grassi M, Attanasio D, Guida M. Advanced treatment of urban wastewater by sand filtration and graphene adsorption for wastewater reuse: Effect on a mixture of pharmaceuticals and toxicity. J Environ Chem Eng. 2015;3(1):122-8. doi:10.1016/j.jece.2014.11.011.
- 50. Antoniou MG, Hey G, Vega SR, Spiliotopoulou A, Fick J, Tysklind M, et al. Required ozone doses for removing pharmaceuticals from wastewater effluents. Sci Total Environ. 2013;456:42-9. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.03.072