

# Ibuprophen Removal from Synthetic Effluents Using Electrocoagulation-Peroxidation (ECP)

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** Emerging contaminants, Scrap iron electrode, Hydrogen peroxide, High performance liquid chromatography, Electrochemical process, Medicines

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1 IBUPROPHEN REMOVAL FROM SYNTHETIC EFFLUENTS USING ELECTROCOAGULATION-  
2 PEROXIDATION (ECP)

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34

## 35 Abstract

36 Concerning water resources, several ordinances and legislation determine standards and conditions for the  
37 discharge of effluents into water bodies. However, several contaminants are not covered by these guidelines  
38 because they are found in low concentrations and due to little knowledge of their long-term effects. These  
39 contaminants are called emergents, and this category includes drugs, such as anti-inflammatory drugs. The  
40 electrocoagulation process associated with advanced oxidation comes up as an alternative to conventional  
41 effluent treatment processes, and the objective of this work was to evaluate this process using scrap iron as  
42 sacrificial electrodes in the treatment of synthetic effluents containing Ibuprofen. High performance liquid  
43 chromatography (HPLC) was used to quantify the drug in synthetic effluents. The CCRD 2<sup>4</sup> was used in an  
44 experimental design, having as independent variables evaluated the concentration of contaminants, applied  
45 current, the concentration of the primary oxidizing agent H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and the reaction time. The optimized conditions  
46 determined by statistical analysis were drug concentration of 5 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration of 200 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>,  
47 current of 5 A and 150 min. The removals obtained under these conditions were higher than 92% in the  
48 aqueous phase, showing that ECP technique has the potential to treat contaminants such as drugs present in  
49 effluents and waters.

50

51 **Keywords:** Emerging contaminants. Scrap iron electrode. Hydrogen peroxide. High performance liquid  
52 chromatography. Electrochemical process. Medicines.

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## 54 1. Introduction

55

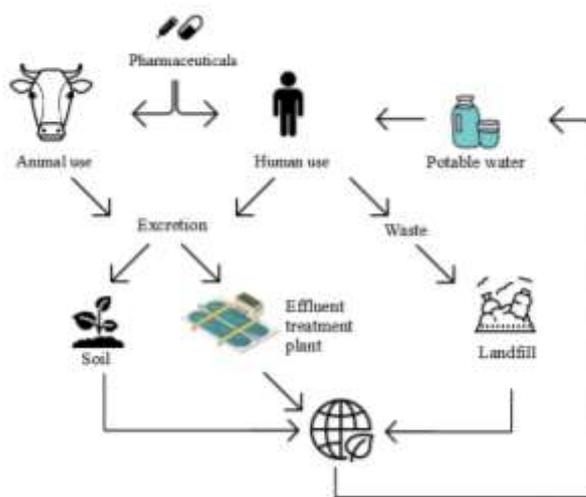
56 One of the main concerns of society today is the preservation of water resources, in view of the  
57 importance of water for the life of all species on the planet. Among the various contaminants studied that may  
58 affect this natural resource, the so-called emerging contaminants have stood out in the last decade.

59 Emerging contaminants are defined as a class of contaminants that has evolved as a result of the  
60 development of new products, most of these are not inserted in monitoring programs or environmental  
61 legislation. Emerging contaminants are chemical substances (synthetic or natural) that were recently detected  
62 in the environment and there is little information about the environmental and public health risks that they  
63 may cause (Naidu et al. 2016). Among the emerging contaminants, which are produced on a large industrial  
64 scale, drugs stand out, as they are directly linked to human health (Ebele et al. 2016). Among the drugs most  
65 used by self-medication in Brazil, Ibuprofen stands out (Arrais et al. 2016). The continuous disposal of drugs  
66 in water bodies is a worldwide socio-environmental problem.

67 Chronic exposure to drugs can cause unexpected effects on the human organism and other living  
68 beings (Torres 2012). That said, much research and discussion has been carried out regarding the presence of  
69 drugs in water, underground and surface bodies. These compounds, when discarded improperly in the  
70 environment, are almost unchanged (Aramani and Readman 2007). This contamination is a major challenge  
71 for water distributors and public health. Some research has shown the consequences of emerging contaminants  
72 in the environment, such as hormonal damage in aquatic beings, impaired development of insects and  
73 invertebrates, inhibition of algae photosynthesis, in humans there is an increase in the incidence of breast,  
74 testicular and prostate cancer, infertility and endometriosis (Naidu et al. 2016; Machado et al. 2016).

75 The concentration of these drugs in the effluent treatment stations can reach the level of  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  and,  
 76 in some treatment stations, aimed at the treatment of drug effluents, it can reach levels of  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  (Santos et al.  
 77 2009; Sim et al. 2011; Zhao et al. 2019).

78 Most of the water used for human supply in Brazil originates from surface water treatment, requiring  
 79 advanced treatment to eliminate various pollutants. But most treatment plants use conventional processes,  
 80 inefficient for emerging contaminants (Machado et al. 2016). Another source of contamination is the  
 81 inappropriate disposal of drugs, which is of greater relevance in view of the growing consumption of  
 82 medicines by the population, Figure 1 shows possible pharmaceuticals paths in the environment.



83  
 84 **Fig. 1** Possible pharmaceuticals paths in the environment

85

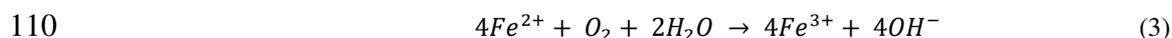
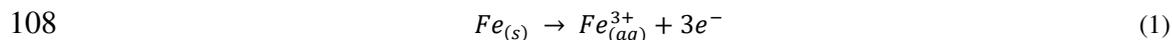
86 In order to minimize environmental impacts, it is necessary to develop treatment technologies that  
 87 combine low cost and high efficiency. In this context, the electrocoagulation (EC) process appears as an  
 88 alternative to conventional effluent treatment processes, and it can be associated with the presence of a  
 89 primary oxidizing agent, which may enhance the process of removing contaminants, as it associates the  
 90 electrochemical process with advanced oxidative processes (AOPs), where the formation of hydroxyl radicals  
 91 ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) that present a high oxidative potential occurs, and in this way make the EC process more effective.

92 Several electrochemical methodologies are applied in wastewater treatment, including  
 93 electrocoagulation, which was highlighted due to its advantages (Deghles and Kurt 2016). Electrocoagulation  
 94 is an electrolytic process that consists of dissolving a sacrificial electrode after applying a current between  
 95 two electrodes to treat liquid wastewater containing organic pollutants (Khemila et al. 2018).

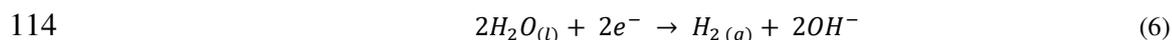
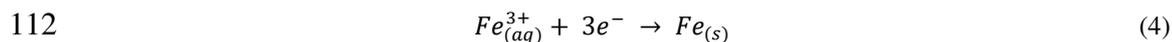
96 According to Aquino Neto et al. (2012), the electrocoagulation process occurs in three stages.  
 97 Initially, the cations that are generated in the oxidation of the sacrificial metal anode will react with the water  
 98 molecules to form hydroxides and polyhydroxides. Iron and aluminum are the metallic materials most used  
 99 as sacrificial electrodes, due to their low cost and high efficiency. At the same time, electrolysis of water  
 100 occurs and the formation of oxygen and hydrogen microbubbles, which will later serve to load the flocculated  
 101 material to the surface. Then, the hydroxides that have been formed are adsorbed into colloidal particles that  
 102 will cause the formation of the flocules, which during their transport, end up in contact with the impurities.  
 103 Flotation occurs due to the formation of microbubbles of oxygen at the anode and hydrogen at the cathode,  
 104 due to water electrolysis. The pollutants end up being dragged to the surface, clarifying the effluent.

105 The electrochemical reactions, of the metal as anode and cathode, can be summarized according to  
 106 Equations 1 to 6 (Mollah et al. 2004; Chen, 2004; Gabriel 2017):

107 For the iron anode:



111 Cathode reactions and formation of oxygen and hydrogen are:



115

116 Electrocoagulation has been widely used in the treatment of industrial effluents, such as effluent from  
 117 the textile industry (Tones 2015), refrigerator (Eryuruk et al. 2018), tannery (Pavão et al. 2018), dairy (Behling  
 118 et al. 2018), oily effluent (Cometti et al. 2014), paper and cellulose (Carvalho et al. 2015), biodiesel (Cordeiro  
 119 et al. 2015), drugs (Olvera-Vargas et al. 2021) among other types. It is a particularly effective technique for a  
 120 wide range of pollutants, such as heavy metals, organic compounds, microorganisms and several others, due  
 121 to this, it is receiving greater prominence today.

122 One of the ways to potentiate the effect of electrocoagulation is the use of oxidizing agents such as  
 123 hydrogen peroxide, since in addition to the removal by the formation of the coagulant, it can accentuate the  
 124 mineralization of the contaminants, and its decomposition generates \*OH radicals, which present high  
 125 oxidative potential and thus has the ability to degrade these compounds reaching mineralization.

126 Due to their remarkable mineralization efficiency and because they are considered ecologically  
 127 correct, advanced electrochemical oxidation processes (AEOPs) stand out among the most promising  
 128 technologies for treating refractory organic pollutants, including pharmaceutical compounds (Olvera-Vargas  
 129 et al. 2021).

130 The presence of hydrogen peroxide promotes the production of the hydroxyl radical (\*OH) and,  
 131 therefore, the oxidation potential can be improved (Sun et al. 2017; Bashir et al. 2018). Hydroxyl radicals are  
 132 powerful secondary oxidizing agents, they are not selective, reacting quickly with organic compounds by  
 133 means of hydroxylation with the addition of a hydroxyl group to an unsaturated bond or dehydrogenation,  
 134 through the loss of a hydrogen atom, following a mechanism with radical until the conclusion of its  
 135 mineralization, through the transformation of initial pollutants into carbon dioxide, water and inorganic ions  
 136 (Boye et al. 2003; Asghar et al. 2015; Bashir et al. 2018).

137 Thus, the best conditions are sought to improve the efficiency of the peroxidation electrocoagulation  
 138 process in the removal of contaminants of pharmaceutical origin, without the need to use large amounts of  
 139 energy, and thus optimizing the current density, the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and the reaction time in the process.  
 140 About this perspective, the objective of this work was to evaluate the application of EC associated with  
 141 advanced oxidation, electrocoagulation peroxidation (ECP) to remove Ibuprofen from synthetic effluents.

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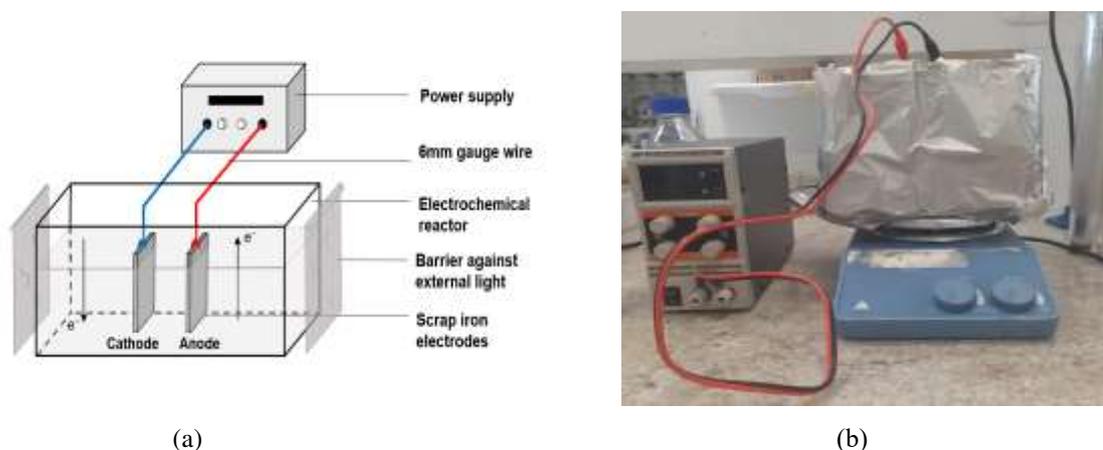
## 143 2. Materials and Methods

144 2.1 Synthetic effluent containing Ibuprofen

145 Synthetic effluents were prepared containing Ibuprofen diluted in deionized water, in varying  
 146 concentrations, according to the experimental planning matrix. Reagents with a pharmaceutical standard  
 147 acquired in a handling pharmacy were used to prepare synthetic effluents. In preparing the solutions, it was  
 148 necessary to add 5 mL of methanol in order to improve the dilution of the contaminant. In this study, analytical  
 149 standards were used for HPLC analysis (Sigma Brand) to build the standard curve for quantification.

150 2.2 Experimental module

151 As electrodes for the electrocoagulation system, iron scrap was used, supplied by the Cercena  
 152 Foundry Industry, located in the city of Erechim - RS, Brazil. The electrodes used had the dimensions of 12  
 153 cm x 9 cm x 3 mm. In the ECP process, an electrochemical reactor on a laboratory scale made of glass was  
 154 used, with dimensions 15 cm x 30 cm, and a capacity for a volume of 3 L (2 L of synthetic effluent was used  
 155 for each treatment (Fig. 2). The density of the electric current applied to the treatments was based on the  
 156 literature, varying from 1 to 5 A, the distance between the electrodes being fixed at 3 cm. For a better  
 157 conductivity in the synthetic effluent, 2 gL<sup>-1</sup> of NaCl was added to each treatment, and this value was obtained  
 158 in preliminary tests as the most suitable for the system under study and then fixed for all tests. All tests were  
 159 performed at room temperature (20 - 25 °C) under agitation of 100 rpm. The pH of the effluent remained with  
 160 the natural value of the solution, close to neutral (6.5 - 7.5). It is worth mentioning that preliminary tests were  
 161 performed without the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, where there was no significant removal of the drugs.



162 (a) 163 **Fig. 2** Representative diagram of the electrocoagulation system (a) and real image of the system (b)

164 2.3 Experimental procedure

165 For the experimental design, the Central Rotational Composite Design (CCRD) was used (Rodrigues  
 166 and Iemma 2009). Four independent variables were worked on: electric current, treatment time, Ibuprofen  
 167 concentration and hydrogen peroxide concentration. A complete factorial design 2<sup>4</sup> was carried out, including  
 168 8 axial points and 4 repetitions in the central points, totaling 28 tests. The efficiency of EC was based on the  
 169 percentage of drug removal. Table 1 shows the coded values of the independent variables. It is noteworthy  
 170 that the values of the independent variables were defined from preliminary tests with the effluent. Table 2  
 171 shows the matrix of the experimental design. The influence of the independent parameters was determined  
 172 from the efficiency of removing the response or dependent parameter. From the empirical models obtained

173 with the CCRD, the condition of optimization of the treatment process is obtained, in which the maximization  
 174 of efficiency in the removal of response variable is sought.

175 **Table 1** Levels studied for the independent variables of the experimental design matrix

Independent variables	Levels				
	-2	-1	0	1	2
Ibuprofen concentration (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	5	10	15	20	25
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> concentration (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	150	200	250	300	350
Current (A)	1	2	3	4	5
Time (min)	30	60	90	120	150

176 **Table 2** Experimental design matrix

Test	Coded variables				Independent variables			
					IC (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> C (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	C (A)	T (min)
1	-1	-1	-1	-1	10	200	2	60
2	-1	-1	-1	1	10	200	2	120
3	-1	-1	1	-1	10	200	4	60
4	-1	-1	1	1	10	200	4	120
5	-1	1	-1	-1	10	300	2	60
6	-1	1	-1	1	10	300	2	120
7	-1	1	1	-1	10	300	4	60
8	-1	1	1	1	10	300	4	120
9	1	-1	-1	-1	20	200	2	60
10	1	-1	-1	1	20	200	2	120
11	1	-1	1	-1	20	200	4	60
12	1	-1	1	1	20	200	4	120
13	1	1	-1	-1	20	300	2	60
14	1	1	-1	1	20	300	2	120
15	1	1	1	-1	20	300	4	60
16	1	1	1	1	20	300	4	120
17	-2	0	0	0	5	250	3	90
18	2	0	0	0	25	250	3	90
19	0	-2	0	0	15	150	3	90
20	0	2	0	0	15	350	3	90
21	0	0	-2	0	15	250	1	90
22	0	0	2	0	15	250	5	90
23	0	0	0	-2	15	250	3	30
24	0	0	0	2	15	250	3	150

25	0	0	0	0	15	250	3	90
26	0	0	0	0	15	250	3	90
27	0	0	0	0	15	250	3	90
28	0	0	0	0	15	250	3	90

177 Note: IC – Ibuprofen concentration; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>C – H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration; C – current; T - time

#### 178 2.4 Analytical determination of Ibuprofen

179 The determination of the concentration of the drug Ibuprofen during the tests, was done by means of  
 180 high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). For this, a chromatograph of the Shimadzu brand, model  
 181 LCMS-2020, was used, equipped with a C18 column, 5 µm in diameter, 250 mm in length and 4.6 mm in  
 182 internal diameter, and a SPD-M20A photodiode network detector. The analysis occurred by isocratic elution,  
 183 with the mobile phase consisting of 80% methanol HPLC (≥ 99.9%) and 20% ultrapure water (mili-Q ®),  
 184 acidified with 0.1% formic acid, flow 0, 8 mL.min<sup>-1</sup>, injection volume of 20 µL, analysis time of 20 min and  
 185 oven temperature of 30 °C, with the same temperature for the column. The quantification of the compound  
 186 was performed through analytical curves with solutions of the analytical standards for each compound.

187 To create the analytical curve, standard solutions were prepared with eight concentrations, in the  
 188 range of 0.05 to 20 ppm. Before all injections in the chromatograph, the raw and treated effluent went through  
 189 a filtration process, with a 0.45 µm PTFE filter.

#### 190 2.5 Sludge analysis

191 The analysis of the contaminants in the sludge was performed after the peroxidation  
 192 electrocoagulation with the optimized variables. At the end of the process, excess liquid was removed, sludge  
 193 was collected in Falcon tubes, totaling 23 samples. These samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 1500 rpm.  
 194 The solid was deposited at the bottom of the tubes, facilitating the removal of the supernatant for disposal.  
 195 The sludge was resuspended, using 10 mL of methanol in each tube, followed by stirring. Again the tubes  
 196 were centrifuged, under the same conditions. The supernatant methanol was removed, filtered with a 0.45  
 197 PTFE filter, the final volume was combined, and the sample was then injected into the chromatograph.  
 198 Equation 7 can be used to check the concentration of total contaminants that has been removed.

$$199 \quad [C_{TR}] = [C_I] - ([C_{FL}] + [C_L]) \quad (7)$$

200 Meaning:

201 [C<sub>TR</sub>] = total contaminant concentration removed

202 [C<sub>I</sub>] = initial contaminant concentration

203 [C<sub>FL</sub>] = contaminant concentration in the liquid phase after ECP treatment

204 [C<sub>L</sub>] = contaminant concentration in the sludge formed in the treatment

205

#### 207 2.6 Analysis of residual hydrogen peroxide

208 For the analysis of residual hydrogen peroxide in the samples, the MQuant® colorimetric kit (Merck)  
 209 was used, which detects the peroxide in the concentration range of 0.5-25 mg.L<sup>-1</sup> and 1-100 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>.

210

211 *2.7 Determination of Total Iron*

212 To determine the total dissolved iron in the treated effluent, an analysis was performed by ICP-MS  
213 (mass spectrometry with inductively coupled plasma), only in the sample under the optimized conditions.

214 *2.8 Statistical analysis*

215 For the statistical analysis of the results of the Central Composite Rotational Design (CCRD) matrix,  
216 the Statistica® 7 program was used to perform analysis of variance (ANOVA) and obtain the graphical  
217 representation of the model, using a response surface graph and contour profile, which assists in determining  
218 the optimal operating region for EC.

219 Since the model is valid for the response variables, the global desirability function, available in the  
220 Statistica® 7 program, is applied. This function is based on the precept that the quality of a process that has  
221 many resources is completely unacceptable, if one of them is outside a desirable limit, aiming to find  
222 conditions that can guarantee compliance with the criteria of all response variables and also provide the best  
223 value in the response, with this value being the most desirable, converting the variables responses into a single  
224 one, combining individual responses into a composite function, followed by their optimization (Candiotti et  
225 al. 2014).

226

227 **3. Results and discussion**

228 *3.1 Optimization of the ECP process*

229 With the objective of verifying the efficiency of the electrocoagulation treatment with the use of  
230 scrap iron electrodes applied in the synthetic effluents containing Ibuprofen, the removal percentage was  
231 calculated for each proposed test. The results obtained can be seen in Table 3, below.

232 **Table 3** Removal of Ibuprofen by ECP process

Test	Independent variables				% Ibuprofen removal
	IC (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> C (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	C (A)	T (min)	
1	10	200	2	60	57,537
2	10	200	2	120	88,339
3	10	200	4	60	95,125
4	10	200	4	120	89,551
5	10	300	2	60	92,766
6	10	300	2	120	96,146
7	10	300	4	60	94,728
8	10	300	4	120	90,991
9	20	200	2	60	80,359
10	20	200	2	120	71,794

11	20	200	4	60	94,109
12	20	200	4	120	84,505
13	20	300	2	60	93,105
14	20	300	2	120	95,681
15	20	300	4	60	87,513
16	20	300	4	120	95,589
17	5	250	3	90	88,969
18	25	250	3	90	94,831
19	15	150	3	90	72,657
20	15	350	3	90	97,702
21	15	250	1	90	86,353
22	15	250	5	90	99,882
23	15	250	3	30	96,902
24	15	250	3	150	96,641
25	15	250	3	90	90,033
26	15	250	3	90	96,004
27	15	250	3	90	88,011
28	15	250	3	90	94,538

233 Note: IC – Ibuprofen concentration; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>C – H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration; C – current; T - time

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According to the results of Table 3, simultaneously analyzing all the tests, there were high removals of Ibuprofen, reaching more than 99% removal. Khadir, Negarestani and Motamed (2020) applied electrocoagulation in water contaminated with Ibuprofen and, under the optimized conditions of 110 min, pH 5, 2 A of current and 3 cm of distance between the electrodes, the maximum removal was 63%. It can be seen that there is a lot of variation in the removals, this may have happened because the electrodes are made of scrap iron and may differ from each other. It is worth mentioning that only in the tests with the lowest current and the shortest time (tests 21 and 23), the effluent, after treatment, presented residual hydrogen peroxide, with concentrations of 100 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>.

243

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250

The final pH of the treated effluent remained in the range close to neutral (6 - 7.5). According to de Zaied et al. (2020), pH is a significant parameter in the performance of EC in the treatment of drug effluent, which removal efficiency reduces when the pH of the solution becomes alkaline or acid. Concluding that the removal efficiency with pH in the range of 5.74 to 7.48 is greater in comparison with the pH value of 7.48 to 8.26. In the study by Khadir, Negarestani and Motamedi (2020), where electrocoagulation was applied to remove Ibuprofen, they analyzed the removal efficiency with pH values of 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9. The removal efficiency of 28.75% and 11.5% was reached at pH 2 and 9, respectively. At pHs 3, 5 and 7 the removal efficiency was 46.55, 63% and 35.75%, respectively, with pH 5 having the highest removal.

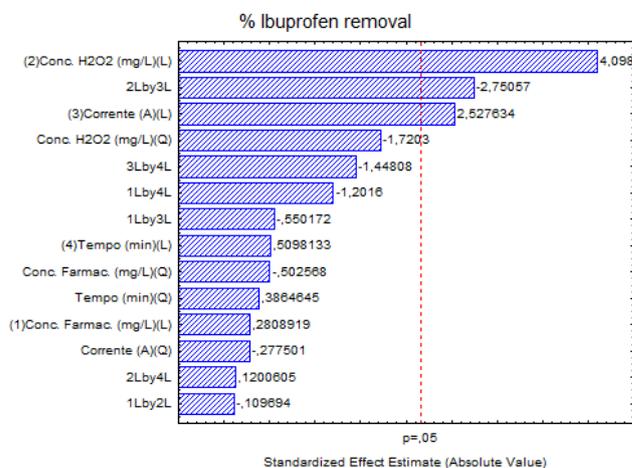
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253

To validate the adjustment proposed by the results obtained, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed, based on the model provided for in the experimental design for the removal of Ibuprofen. The first stage of validation took place using the Pareto graph, shown in Figure 3, where it is possible to identify the

254 parameters and interactions that significantly influence the dependent variables, with 95% confidence,  
 255 represented by the red line. Linear variables are represented by (L) and quadratic variables by (Q), the positive  
 256 signs next to the bars indicate an increase in the removal of the parameters and the negative signs reduce the  
 257 parameters.



258  
 259 **Fig. 3** Pareto Chart for Ibuprofen

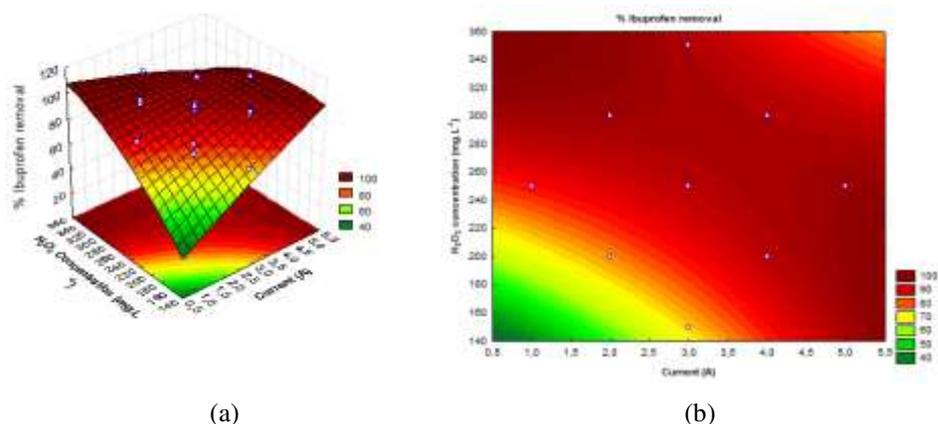
260  
 261 According to the simultaneous analysis of the Pareto graphs, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration and the current  
 262 in linear terms proved to be efficient in the 95% confidence interval for removing Ibuprofen. The interaction  
 263 between these two parameters in linear terms is also efficient in removing Ibuprofen. ANOVA results are  
 264 shown in Table 4.

265  
 266 **Table 4** Analysis of variance of the model foreseen for the removal of Ibuprofen from effluent treated by EC  
 267 with iron electrode at a significance level of 95% ( $p < 0.05$ )

Parameter	Quadratic model	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Means	$F_{\text{calculated}} / F_{\text{tabulated}}$	p-value
% Ibuprofen removal	Regression	2347,165	14	167,655	3,692 / 2,554	0,01204
	Residuals	590,28	13	45,406		
	Total	2937,445	27	213,061		

268  
 269 For the Ibuprofen removal variable, the p-value was statistically satisfactory at 95% confidence. It is  
 270 noteworthy that the value of  $F_{\text{calculated}}$  is greater than  $F_{\text{tabulated}}$ , which also proves that it is significant. In addition,  
 271 the regression is greater than the residuals for all variables, proving that the proposed statistical model is valid.

272 Subsequently, the response surface and contour profile graphs are shown (Fig. 4). The graphs express  
 273 the behavior of the percentage of removal of Ibuprofen, in function of the independent variables concentration  
 274 of hydrogen peroxide and applied current, the two variables that significantly influence in the removal of  
 275 Ibuprofen.



276

277

278 **Fig. 4** (a) Response surface and (b) contour profile of Ibuprofen removal considering hydrogen peroxide  
 279 concentration and applied current

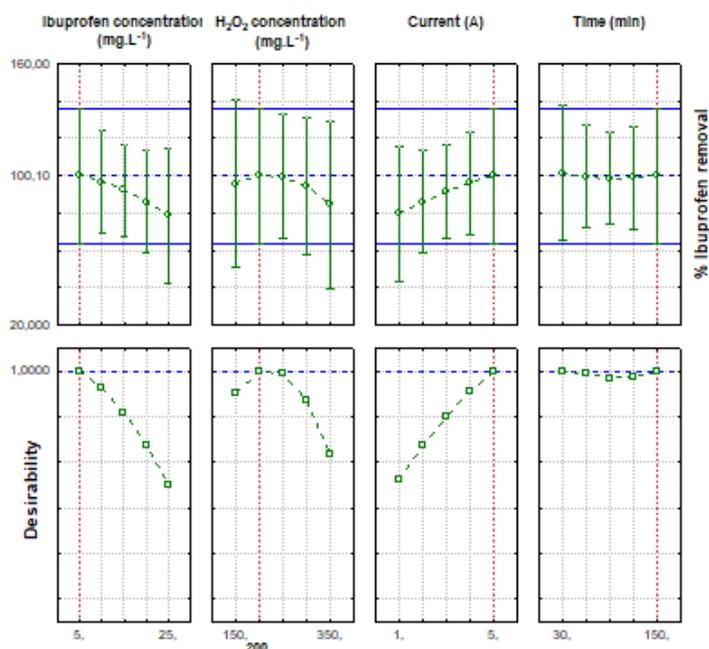
280

281 From Figure 4, it can be seen that when using hydrogen peroxide concentrations around 200 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>,  
 282 associated with an average applied current (4.5 – 5 A), influences an increase in efficiency of removing  
 283 Ibuprofen. Also, it can be seen that higher values of hydrogen peroxide are associated with greater removal  
 284 of Ibuprofen as well. According to the study by Khadir, Negarestani and Motamedi (2020), the greatest  
 285 removal of Ibuprofen by electrocoagulation was 54.75% using a current of 2 A, for 110 min. This trend can  
 286 be attributed to the phenomenon that with increasing current density, the rate of dissolution of the anode  
 287 increases, leading to greater removal.

288

### 289 3.2 Global desirability

290 As observed in the statistical analysis, the response variable for removing Ibuprofen was significant  
 291 at the 95% confidence level. Thus, it was decided to use the function Desirability, from the software  
 292 Statistica® 7, which allows the optimization of multiple response variables, to determine the optimized  
 293 operational values of the independent variables aiming at greater removal of the dependent variables. Figure  
 294 5 shows the optimal work values. The overall desirability value varies from 0 to 1, the closer it is to 1, the  
 295 closer the response obtained to that intended. The overall function obtained was equal to 1, thus indicating an  
 296 excellent response.



297

298 **Fig. 5** Simultaneous optimization of dependent variables through the Global Desirability function

299 The red line in the graphs indicates the optimized values of the variables drug concentration,  
 300 hydrogen peroxide concentration, current and treatment time at: 5 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, 200 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>, 5 A and 150 min,  
 301 respectively, aiming at greater removal possible of Ibuprofen. From these conditions, 100% drug removal is  
 302 expected to occur. Mission et al. (2011) obtained the greatest removal of Ibuprofen using a current of 21,4 V.  
 303 Velasquez (2019) removed 87.61% of Ibuprofen using a current of 8 A and 20 minutes. Negarestani et al.  
 304 (2020) obtained the greatest removal of Ibuprofen with the optimized values of 110 min and 2 A and drug  
 305 concentration of 40 ppm. The treatment is enhanced with the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, allowing greater removal of  
 306 the contaminant in a shorter time (Pereira et al. 2018).

307 

### 3.3 Validation of the proposed model

308

309 Through the electrocoagulation test using the optimized condition obtained through the Global  
 310 Desirability test, it is possible to validate the results obtained in Figure 5. A removal close to 100% was  
 311 expected, however the actual removal obtained using the optimized conditions was 92, 91%, still resulting in  
 312 a concentration of 0.4 mg.L<sup>-1</sup> for Ibuprofen. In their study, Yoosefian et al. (2017) applied electrocoagulation  
 313 with iron electrodes to remove the antibiotic ciprofloxacin. With the variables initial concentration, pH,  
 314 current, time and distance between electrodes optimized, the expected removal was 99% and the experimental  
 315 one was 100%. Irdemenez et al. (2006) applied electrocoagulation to remove phosphate from effluents with  
 316 aluminum electrodes. With the parameters optimized, the estimated and experimental phosphate removal from  
 317 wastewater was 76% and 99%, respectively. With another configuration, the actual removal was 93% and 99%  
 318 predicted. The difference between the actual and the estimated value may be related to the fact that the  
 319 electrodes used in this work are made of scrap iron material.

320 In order to verify whether the ECP process enabled the effective removal of contaminants, an analysis  
 321 was carried out on the sludge formed after treatment with the optimized values. The result obtained was

322 residual Ibuprofen of  $0.628 \text{ mg.L}^{-1}$ . Thus, it was possible to verify through Eq. 07 that there was a removal of  
323 79.4% of the contaminant.

324 Some studies report the possibility of removing 95% of organic contaminants just by applying the  
325 electrochemical process (Urtiaga et al. 2014), however, it must be emphasized that the characteristics of the  
326 system, as well as the concentration of the contaminant and its structural peculiarities that will define the  
327 efficiency of the process. It should be noted that the presence of Ibuprofen in the sludge, shows that the  
328 physical-chemical processes can assist in the treatment of this type of contaminant, and if associated with  
329 other methods, their efficiency can be enhanced.

330

### 331 3.4 Total Iron Residual

332 The result obtained for the total iron residual was  $132.4 \text{ mg.L}^{-1}$ . The high concentration can be  
333 attributed mainly to the high current that was employed (Giordanni 2017). Ryan, McNamara and Mayer (2020)  
334 used electrocoagulation with iron electrodes to remove disinfection by-products in the water. The residual  
335 iron after the process was between  $4.6$  to  $5.8 \text{ mg Fe.L}^{-1}$ . Pereira and Brito (2018) obtained, at the end of the  
336 treatment process for the removal of laboratory effluents, the concentration of residual total soluble iron was  
337  $6.40 \text{ mg.L}^{-1}$ . In Figure 6, it is possible to see the difference between the synthetic effluent after the treatment,  
338 with a color change due to the presence of the sludge containing the iron, and after it is filtered with a  $0.45$   
339  $\mu\text{m}$  PTFE filter.



340  
341

(a) (b)

342 **Fig. 6** (a) Synthetic effluent after electrocoagulation-peroxidation and (b) after filtration

343

344 The Brazilian Resolution of the National Environment Council No. 430, of May 13, 2011, presents  
345 conditions and standards for the discharge of effluents. It provides that the effluents from any polluting source  
346 can only be released directly into the receiving body if they have a dissolved iron value below  $15 \text{ mg.L}^{-1}$ .  
347 Although iron is not toxic, its presence in high concentrations can affect aquatic life, public supply and human  
348 health. Therefore, secondary treatment is necessary for enable the effluent to be released into the receiving  
349 water body.

350

## 351 4. Conclusions

352

353 Electrocoagulation using scrap iron electrodes proved to be an efficient treatment for the removal of  
 354 Ibuprofen from effluents, with an average removal of more than 90% and with no residual hydrogen peroxide  
 355 in most of the tests. Analysis of variance showed that the model is valid with 95% confidence in removing  
 356 Ibuprofen. The analysis of the global desirability function and the response surface, made it possible to  
 357 determine the optimized values of the independent variables, and the actual removal for Ibuprofen was 92%  
 358 in the liquid phase, showing that the treatment is efficient. Still, the importance of using industrial waste in  
 359 the manufacture of the electrodes used in this study is emphasized, adding value to scrap iron.

360 It is suggested a post-treatment step to remove dissolved iron that is in disagreement with the limit  
 361 stipulated in environmental legislation and to determine the intermediate compounds formed from this process,  
 362 in order to enable the verification of the mineralization capacity of this system.

363

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