

1 **Sonochemical degradation of antibiotics from representative classes-**
2 **Considerations on structural effects, initial transformation products,**
3 **antimicrobial activity and matrix**

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19 **Abstract**

20 In this work, the sonochemical treatment (at 354 kHz and 88 W L⁻¹) of six relevant
21 antibiotics belonging to fluoroquinolones (ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin), penicillins
22 (oxacillin and cloxacillin) and cephalosporins (cephalexin and cephadroxyl) classes
23 was evaluated. Firstly, the ability of the process to eliminate them was tested,
24 showing that sonodegradation of these antibiotics is strongly chemical structure-
25 dependent. Thus, correlations among initial degradation rate of pollutants (Rd),
26 solubility in water (Sw), water-octanol partition coefficient (Log P) and topological
27 polar surface area (TPSA) were tested. Rd exhibited a good correlation with Log P
28 (i.e., the hydrophobicity degree of antibiotics). The considered penicillins had the
29 fastest elimination and from the constitutional analysis using Lemke method was
30 clear that the functional groups arrangement on these antibiotics made them highly
31 hydrophobics. The penicillins were degraded closer at cavitation bubble than the
32 fluoroquinolones or cephalosporins. The investigation of degradation products
33 showed that sonogenerated hydroxyl radical primary attacked the β -lactam ring of
34 cloxacillin and cephalexin, whereas on norfloxacin induced a decarboxylation. On
35 the other hand, the evolution of antimicrobial activity was also followed. It was
36 evidenced the process capacity to remove antimicrobial activity from treated
37 solutions, which was associated to the transformations of functional groups on
38 antibiotics with important role for interaction with bacteria. Additionally, degradation
39 of antibiotics having the highest (the most hydrophobic, i.e., cloxacillin) and lowest
40 (the most hydrophilic, i.e., cephadroxyl) Rd, was performed in synthetic matrices
41 (hospital wastewater and seawater). Ultrasound degraded both antibiotics; for

42 cloxacillin in such waters higher eliminations than in distilled water were observed
43 (probably due to a salting-out effect exerted by matrix components). Meanwhile, for
44 cephadroxyl a moderate inhibition of degradation in hospital wastewater and
45 seawater respect to distilled water was found, this was related to competition by
46 hydroxyl radical of the other substances in the matrices. These results show the
47 quite selectivity of high frequency ultrasound to eliminate antibiotics form different
48 classes even in complex matrices.

49

50 **Keywords:** Antibiotic structure differences; Advanced oxidation process, Matrix
51 effects, Water treatment; Pollutants degradation; Ultrasound.

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 Antibiotics are commonly utilized for treatment and prevention of deadly infections
55 in humans and animals. The antibiotics over-prescription in medical centers and
56 increasing uses in agriculture and livestock are pushing the development of
57 antibiotic resistant microorganisms, which represents a global environmental and
58 health concern [1,2]. Nowadays, effluents from municipal wastewater treatment
59 plants (MWTP) and hospital wastewaters (HWW) are considered among the main
60 sources of antibiotics discharge into the environment [3,4]. This is because most of
61 these substances are recalcitrant to conventional water treatments [5]. Thus, the
62 application of complementary processes able to efficiently eliminate antibiotics
63 from water is urgently required.

64 The advanced oxidation processes (AOP) are alternatives, which take advantage
65 of short lived and highly reactive radical species, that have been successfully
66 utilized for organic pollutants degradation [6]. Among AOP, the sonochemical
67 treatment has shown a high proficiency in remediation of water contaminated with
68 pharmaceuticals [7–10]. Sonochemistry is based on the acoustic cavitation
69 process: bubbles formation and growth until reaching a critical size at which they
70 violently collapse generating small hot spots with singular conditions of pressure
71 (~1000 atm) and temperature (~5000 K) [11]. As a consequence, hydroxyl radicals
72 are generated from water molecules and oxygen rupture (Eq. 1-4). Also, hydrogen
73 peroxide can be formed by recombination of hydroxyl radicals (Eq. 5).



79 On the other hand, fluoroquinolones and β -lactams (cephalosporin and penicillins)
80 are in the top of antibiotics consumption [7,12,13]. In fact, they are frequently found
81 in the MWTP effluents [3,14] and HWW (which is one of the main contributors of
82 antibiotic to municipal wastewater, [3,15]). Considering the structural diversity of
83 such pollutants, the present work was focused on the evaluation of the chemical
84 structure effect of representative fluoroquinolones, penicillins and cephalosporins
85 antibiotics during their elimination by sonochemistry. Initially, rates of antibiotics
86 degradation and hydrogen peroxide accumulation were established. Besides, the
87 closeness of antibiotics to cavitation bubble was determined by the degradation
88 inhibition degree in 2-propanol presence. Then, correlations among initial
89 degradation rate of pollutants and diverse molecular properties of antibiotics were
90 studied. Also, the primary transformation products were identified and the structural
91 control on sonochemical degradation was discussed under the constitutional
92 approach (Lemke method). After that, the evolution of antimicrobial activity during
93 treatment was tested and related to antibiotic modifications. Finally, degradations
94 of both the most hydrophobic and hydrophilic antibiotics in complex matrixes were
95 assessed.

97 2. Experimental

98 2.1 Reagents and reaction system

99 Fluoroquinolones: ciprofloxacin (CIP) and norfloxacin (NOR) were provided by
100 Laproff laboratories (Medellín, Colombia). Cephalosporins: cephalexin (CPX) and
101 cefadroxil (CDX) were provided by Syntopharma laboratories (Bogotá, Colombia).
102 Penicillins: oxacillin (OXA) and cloxacillin (CLX) were purchased from
103 Syntopharma laboratories and Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, USA), respectively.
104 Sodium chloride, calcium chloride dihydrate, potassium chloride, ammonium
105 chloride, sodium sulfate, potassium dihydrogen phosphate, urea, acetonitrile, 2-
106 propanol and nutrient agar were provided by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).
107 Peptone, meat extract and potato dextrose agar were purchased from Oxoid
108 (Basingstoke, England). Formic acid was provided by Carlo-Erba (Val de Reuil,
109 France). All chemicals were used as received. The solutions were prepared using
110 distilled water and the experiments were carried out at least by duplicate.

111 For UHPLC-QTOF MS analysis, HPLC-grade water was obtained by purifying
112 demineralized water using a Milli-Q system from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA).
113 HPLC-grade methanol (MeOH), HPLC-grade acetonitrile (ACN), formic acid
114 (HCOOH), acetone, and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) were acquired from Scharlau.
115 Leucine enkephalin was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

116 A Meinhardt ultrasound reactor with capacity of 500 mL was used. The reactor was
117 operated at 88 W L⁻¹ of actual ultrasonic power density (measured by calorimetric

118 method [16]). Reactor temperature was controlled at 20°C using a Huber
119 Minichiller. It should be mentioned that the energy consumption by the ultrasound
120 reactor plus the cooling system (minichiller) is 0.514 kWh. On the other hand, the
121 antibiotics were individually treated (300 mL, at 40 µM and pH 6.5). These
122 experimental conditions were selected based on previous works (details about it
123 are indicated in Text SM1).

124 2.2 Analyses

125 Antibiotics degradations were followed using a UHPLC Thermoscientific Dionex
126 UltiMate 3000 instrument equipped with an Acclaim™ 120 RP C18 column (5 µm,
127 4.6 x150 mm) and a diode array detector as previously reported [17]. Accumulation
128 of hydrogen peroxide was estimated by iodometry method [18]. The antimicrobial
129 activity (AA) was determined by analyzing the inhibition zone in the agar diffusion
130 test [19].

131 The primary transformation products were elucidated by liquid chromatography
132 coupled with quadrupole-time of flight mass spectrometry (UHPLC-QTOF MS).
133 Briefly, a Waters Acquity UHPLC system (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) coupled to a
134 hybrid quadrupole-orthogonal acceleration-TOF mass spectrometer (XEVO G2
135 QTOF, Waters Micromass, Manchester, UK), using an orthogonal Z-spray-ESI
136 interface was used, operating in both positive and negative ionization modes. For
137 further details about the conditions employed, see Supplementary Material (Text
138 SM2).

139 For MS^E experiments, two acquisition functions with different collision energies
140 were selected. The low energy function (LE), selecting a collision energy of 4 eV,
141 and the high energy (HE) function, with a collision energy ramp ranging from 15 to
142 40 eV, were used in order to obtain a greater range of fragment ions. Additional
143 MS/MS experiments at different collision energies (10, 20, 30, 40 and 50 eV) were
144 also performed to helping the elucidation process. Mass data was acquired with
145 MassLynx v 4.1 (Waters).

146

147 **3. Results and discussion**

148 **3.1 Rate of antibiotics degradation and hydrogen peroxide accumulation**

149 As previously reported by several authors, the highest sonochemical production of
150 hydroxyl radical is obtained at frequencies around 300 kHz [20]. Therefore, the
151 ultrasonic reactor was operated at 354 kHz (88 W L⁻¹) for the pollutants treatment.
152 **Fig. 1A** presents the comparison of initial degradation rate (R_d) for the six
153 antibiotics. It can be observed that the compounds belonging to the penicillin class
154 (CLX and OXA) are faster degraded than fluoroquinolones (NOR and CIP) or
155 cephalosporins (CPX and CDX) by the sonochemical system.

156 In addition to R_d, the rate of accumulation of hydrogen peroxide (R_a), which is an
157 indirect indicator of •OH formation, in presence and absence of antibiotics (BK)
158 was also analyzed (**Fig. 1B**). In all of cases, the R_a value in antibiotics presence is
159 lower than in the blank (BK). Moreover, it can be noted that the antibiotics with the
160 lowest accumulation of H₂O₂ (CLX and OXA), presented the highest rate of

161 degradation. Interestingly, the R_d and R_a are correlated showing that a higher
162 antibiotic degradation implies a decreasing accumulation of H_2O_2 . This suggests
163 that the reaction of antibiotics (An) with the sonogenerated hydroxyl radical (Eq. 6)
164 reduces the recombination of radicals to produce hydrogen peroxide (Eq. 5) [21].



166 At this point, it is clear the ability of the ultrasound to degrade antibiotics from three
167 different classes. However, as previously indicated, the six antibiotics showed a
168 differential response to the sonochemical treatment. The explanation of such fact
169 should take into account the structural and chemical characteristics, which will be
170 discussed in the next section.

171

172 **3.2 Structural effects interpretation**

173 The sonochemical system can be divided in three degradation zones: 1) the bulk of
174 solution, 2) the bubble-solution interface and 3) the inner part of cavitation bubble
175 [11]. As the evaluated antibiotics are not volatile molecules, the degradation
176 depends on their proximity to the cavitation bubble. Thus, to study the antibiotics
177 closeness to cavitation bubble, the inhibition degree of sonochemical degradation
178 (IDS) by the addition of the well-known radical scavenger 2-propanol was
179 evaluated [22]. A representative molecule from each antibiotic class was taken
180 (Table 1). It was found that for NOR the inhibition was total, for CPX was 80% and
181 for CLX was 55%. These results indicate that the penicillin is closer to cavitation
182 bubbles (because its degradation is the least inhibited), whereas the

183 fluoroquinolone and cephalosporin are farther (in the bulk of solution). Therefore,
184 due to the higher proximity to the bubbles (where $\bullet\text{OH}$ is at high concentration),
185 CLX experiments a faster the degradation, which is coherent with the observed Ra
186 values in **Fig. 1A**.

187 To better understand the differences among the pollutants, possible relationships
188 among the initial degradation rate and the physico-chemical characteristics were
189 examined. Solubility in water (expressed as Log Sw), water-octanol partition
190 coefficient (Log P), and topological polar surface area (TPSA), which reflect
191 interaction of antibiotics with water and cavitation bubble, were considered. From
192 Fig. 2B can be noted the high relationship between initial degradation rate and Log
193 P of antibiotics. In fact, the correlation coefficient is $R = 0.911$. Meanwhile, Sw and
194 TPSA showed a low interrelation with Rd (Fig. 2A and 2B), having correlation
195 coefficient values of $R = 0.588$ and 0.129 , respectively.

196 The octanol-water partition coefficient is a physico-chemical property related to
197 hydrophobicity and it is recognized that hydrophobic compounds tend to
198 accumulate at the cavitation bubble interface, in which they can have a high
199 interaction with hydroxyl radicals [23]. Thus, as hydrophobicity increases the rate of
200 degradation is higher. Consequently, the antibiotics with the highest Log P values
201 (i.e., CLX and OXA) are faster degraded than the others (CIP, NOR, CPX and
202 CDX).

203 The Log P of a compound can be estimated by addition of all contributions of
204 atom/fragment present in its chemical structure [24]. Although Log P is influenced

205 by geometrical, constitutional, electronic and electrostatic characteristics of
206 molecules [25], the constitutional analysis (Lemke method, based on hydrophilic-
207 lipophilic fragments computation) has been a useful tool to easy and fastly estimate
208 hydrophilic-hydrophobic properties of organic substances [26]. Thus, to better
209 interpreting the structural and Log P differences of the tested antibiotics, the Lemke
210 methodology was applied. As Table 2 shown, the hydrophobic and hydrophilic
211 contribution of constitutional fragments on each antibiotic are pondered.
212 Subsequently, the total hydrophobicity is estimated by subtraction of the
213 hydrophilic contribution from the hydrophobic.

214 It can be noted that CLX and OXA have a predominance of hydrophobic parts
215 (e.g., chlorine, phenyl-isoxazolyl and aliphatic moieties); this can explain their
216 highest Log P values and sonochemical degradation. Meanwhile, NOR, CIP, CPX
217 and CDX have other functional groups (e.g., hydroxyl, amines, or ketones) on their
218 structures, which make these molecules less hydrophobics (i.e., more
219 hydrophilics). At this point, it is important to clarify that the Lemke approach is a
220 basic guide for interpretation of structural effect. However, if exact numbers are
221 required, methodologies including geometrical, electronic and electrostatic criteria
222 must be applied

223

224 **3.3 Primary antibiotics transformation, removal of the antimicrobial activity**
225 **and prediction of toxicity changes**

226 The primary transformations of antibiotics during the sonochemical treatment were
227 studied through establishing the initial degradation products by UHPLC-HRMS. For
228 such purpose, CLO, CPX and NOR (a representative antibiotic of each class) were
229 selected. Table 3 contains the elucidated transformation products (TPs). In the
230 case of CLO, three initial products were found, whereas for NOR and CPX a by-
231 product from each one was identified. This result is coherent with the indicated in
232 section 3.2, as CLO is closer to the cavitation bubble than the other antibiotics, and
233 therefore it can react more efficiently with sonogenerated hydroxyl radical and
234 consequently more initial degradation products are observed. MS/MS data for both
235 parent compounds and identified TPs are shown in Supplementary Material (SM2-
236 SM15).

237 According to the identified TPs (Table 3), the primary attacks of $\bullet\text{OH}$ to CLO seem
238 to occur on two sites: 1) the β -lactam moiety (DP1 and DP2, two isomers), this ring
239 is highly reactive due to its strained linkages, which does labile the carbonyl-
240 nitrogen bond [32]; 2) the central secondary amide (DP3), where the radical attack
241 is favored by inductive and resonant effects generated by the oxazolyl substituent
242 [35], such effects leave the electrons on the nitrogen more available to react (see
243 Figure SM1, in Supplementary Material). Interestingly, previous works on
244 sonochemical elimination of oxacillin have shown degradation products analogous
245 to those obtained for CLX [19,27]. Besides, the primary transformation product of
246 CPX (DP5) comes from the opening of β -lactam ring, similar to that observed for
247 CLX (see DP1 and DP2). These results evidence the high susceptibility of the β -
248 lactam moiety to transformations by sonogenerated hydroxyl radical.

249 DP4 indicates that the initial NOR degradation proceeds via decarboxylation.
250 Although in typical AOPs, such as TiO₂-photocatalysis and photo-Fenton, the
251 primary •OH attacks are on the piperazyl ring of NOR (or CIP) [28,29], here we
252 observed the rupture of carboxylic group. This difference could be associated to
253 the nature of sonochemical process (having three differential degradation zones),
254 which may favor other routes. In fact, in the sonochemical degradation of the
255 pharmaceuticals ciprofloxacin and ibuprofen, the decarboxylation joined to
256 hydroxylation, dehalogenation, demethylation were also reported as major
257 elimination pathways [30].

258 Many works on the degradation of organic pollutants have shown that ultrasound
259 induces oxidative pathways on substances (as observed for the antibiotics (Table
260 3)), but this process has low mineralizing ability [8,9,27,30]. In fact, a previous
261 paper about the sonochemical treatment of Oxacillin (OXA, one of the antibiotics
262 with highest degradation rate here) demonstrated that even after 6h of process
263 application there was no mineralization [27]. Although ultrasound alone is not
264 mineralizing, its combination with others AOP such as Fenton, TiO₂-photocalaysis
265 or ozonation may lead to pollutants transformation into carbon dioxide, water and
266 inorganic ions [30–32]. Thus, considering the limitation of sonochemistry in the
267 mineralization other parameters to verify the process efficiency must be evaluated.

268 In the case of antibiotics degradation, it is important to determine the residual
269 antimicrobial activity (AA) because in some cases the initial molecule may be
270 degraded, but the transformation products continue generating AA [17]. Therefore,
271 the evolution of AA for the three representative antibiotics was followed (**Fig. 3**).

272 For both CPX and NOR, the antimicrobial activity was removed at short treatment
273 time (75 min). In contrast CLX, which experienced a faster degradation, required
274 120 min of ultrasound application to remove its associated AA. As the evolution of
275 AA can be related to the antibiotics transformations, the faster antimicrobial activity
276 elimination suggests that the degradation products of CPX or NOR are less active
277 than the by-products from CLX.

278 From DP4 is noted that the sonochemical process initially removes the carboxylic
279 group on NOR. Such moiety is essential for the antibiotic binding to DNA-gyrase. It
280 is well-known that fluoroquinolones inhibit the bacterial DNA synthesis by blocking
281 the DNA-gyrase (Topoisomerase II) and Topoisomerase IV enzymes [33,34]; thus,
282 the removal of carboxylic group on NOR leads to the decreasing of AA. Although
283 here is presented the primary transformation product, during the whole period of
284 process application, it may occur the formation of other substances, in which the
285 quinolone core is modified, contributing to the AA elimination.

286 Meanwhile, DP1, DP2, DP3 and DP5 show the elimination of β -lactam ring from
287 the penicillin and cephalosporin. This part of such antibiotics plays the main active
288 role against bacteria [35,36]; consequently, its elimination produces the reduction
289 of antimicrobial activity. In fact, different works on the treatment of penicillins and
290 cephalosporins have also evidenced that the AA of treated solutions toward
291 bacteria is removed by the β -lactam ring breakdown [37,38]. It can be pointed out
292 that the removal of antimicrobial activity evidenced the ability of sonochemistry to
293 diminish the development of antibiotic resistance.

294 Other important factor to be considered during treatment of water pollutants is
295 toxicity changes. Recently, it was demonstrated the direct relationship between
296 Log P and aquatic toxicity [39]. Indeed, widely used toxicity prediction tools such as
297 ECOSAR, ADMET, CADRE-AT, KATE or TEST rely on octanol-water partition
298 coefficient [40]. Thereby, Log P could be assumed as an indirect indicator of
299 aquatic toxicity. Then, to obtain a rough idea on the toxicity changes, it was
300 calculated the variation of octanol-water partition coefficient ($\Delta\text{Log P}$) for the
301 identified primary transformations products (Table 3).

302 The $\Delta\text{Log P}$ of the initial transformation products from CLX (DP1, DP2 and DP3)
303 and CPX (DP5) were negative values, which indicates that these new substances
304 are less lipophilic than the parent antibiotics. In contrast, for the product DP4 is
305 positive indicating that it has higher lipophilicity than NOR. The negative $\Delta\text{Log P}$
306 values for degradation products can be associated to the generation of polar
307 functional groups such carboxylic acid (DP1, DP2 and DP5) or primary amide
308 (DP3) by the sonochemical action. Whereas a positive $\Delta\text{Log P}$ is related to
309 removal of polar functional groups (e.g., the decarboxylation of NOR, DP4) [40].

310 The lipophilicity is determinant for the toxicity and bioaccumulation of compounds
311 [41]. Thus, a low lipophilicity points out an inferior affinity of substances for the lipid
312 bilayer of cells [42]. Therefore, in the case of the DP1, DP2, DP3 and DP5, it could
313 be expected an aquatic toxicity lower than for the parent antibiotics. A contrary
314 situation is expected for DP4, which is more lipophilic than NOR. Here, it should be
315 indicated that this information on toxicity is a reasonable prediction based on the
316 primary structural modifications of antibiotics. However, as final solutions of longer

317 treatment times may contain other products in addition to the initially identified,
318 experimental analyses of aquatic toxicity using biological models (e.g., *Vibrio*
319 *fishery* or fishes) must be applied to guarantee a beneficial impact on treated water
320 on the environment (topic to be studied in further works).

321

322 **3.4 Treatment of complex matrices**

323 To study the process application to complex matrices, simulated seawater and
324 hospital wastewater (Table SM1) were considered. These matrices were selected
325 taking into account that hospital wastewater is recognized as a constant source of
326 antibiotics [15,43] and historically in many coastal cities the wastewater has been
327 directly disposed on sea [44,45]. Furthermore, two antibiotics were used in this
328 part: the fastest (CLX) and the slowest (CDX) degraded by the sonochemical
329 process. **Fig. 4** presents the ratio between degradation rate in the matrices and in
330 distilled water (ρ : $R_d \text{ in Matrix} / R_d \text{ in distilled water}$). Interestingly, the elimination
331 of cloxacillin in the matrices was higher than in distilled water. On the contrary,
332 cephadroxyl degradation was inhibited by the matrix components.

333 A careful revision of matrices composition (Table SM1) indicates that the
334 substances present in such waters are inorganic ions and urea, which have mainly
335 hydrophilic nature. Thus, due to the high hydrophobic character of CLX, the matrix
336 components did not affect the antibiotic elimination. Indeed, because of such
337 chemical differences a *salting-out* effect can be induced on CLX. This means that
338 in presence of inorganic anions or urea, which are at much higher concentrations

339 than the antibiotic (Table SM1), the water molecules surround more effectively
340 these species, thereby pushing more molecules of the target compound towards
341 the interfacial zone of the cavitation bubbles [46]. As a result, the degradation of
342 CLX increased (i.e., $\rho > 1$).

343 For cephadroxy, the matrix components would compete by hydroxyl radicals.
344 Because of its hydrophilic nature, CDX is far to the cavitation bubble and at
345 concentration much lower than such components. Hence, the pollutant degradation
346 in seawater and hospital wastewater was found to be lower than in distilled water.
347 However, it can be remarked a moderate competition effect (i.e., $0.7 < \rho < 1$)
348 indicating that even at such matrix conditions the sonochemical process is
349 applicable.

350 At this point, it should be indicated that ultrasound has some advantages and
351 limitations for the elimination of pollutants. Sonochemistry can selectively degrade
352 antibiotics, which is an important advantage over others AOP [19]; in contrast,
353 ultrasound operation demands higher electrical consumption. Processes such as
354 UVC photolysis or UVC/persulfate are more affected than ultrasound by matrix
355 components for antibiotics degradation [17]. On the other hand, anodic oxidation
356 using Ti/IrO_2 as anode and sodium chloride as supporting electrolyte induces the
357 formation of chlorinated degradation products in the treatment of fluoroquinolones
358 [47], which may be toxic substances. Meanwhile, during the treatment of these
359 antibiotics with high frequency ultrasound such chlorinated transformation products
360 were not found here; which is other advantage of the sonochemical process.
361 Additionally, HWW matrix strongly retards the electrochemical elimination of

362 antibiotics, whereas using ultrasound, in cases as CLX; this matrix can even
363 enhance the pollutant degradation. Furthermore, it should be also mentioned that
364 seawater matrix accelerates the antibiotic elimination by anodic oxidation [48],
365 while in sonochemistry this matrix exerts a dual effect (i.e., acceleration or
366 inhibition) depending on the antibiotic nature (Figure 4). All these comparative
367 aspects highlight the interesting potentialities of high frequency ultrasound toward
368 future applications in the removal of antibiotics in complex matrices.

369

370 **4. Conclusions**

371 This study shows that the application of ultrasonic waves leads to degradation of
372 antibiotics from diverse classes. The rate of pollutants elimination (R_d) was
373 strongly dependent of pollutant closeness at the cavitation bubbles, and as the
374 considered antibiotics are non-volatile molecules, the closeness to the bubbles was
375 determined by their hydrophobicity. In fact, the R_d value correlated well with the
376 Log P value of the antibiotics. Moreover, the utilization of Lemke methodology
377 allowed estimate the contribution of constitutional functional groups to antibiotics
378 hydrophobicity, which explained the structural differences reflected in both Log P
379 values and sonochemical degradation rate.

380 The elucidation of primary transformation products of representative pollutants
381 (cloxacillin, norfloxacin and cephalexin) indicated that sonogenerated hydroxyl
382 radical modified the penicillin and cephalosporin cores from the β -lactam
383 antibiotics, whereas the fluoroquinolone was decarboxylated. Additionally, the

384 antimicrobial activity removal depended on the structural changes of antibiotics
385 under treatment. Finally, the degradation in seawater and hospital wastewater
386 evidenced that highly hydrophobic antibiotics could be selectively eliminated in
387 complex matrices, whereas elimination of hydrophilic pollutants can experiment
388 moderate inhibition. These facts illustrate the potential of sonochemical process for
389 the treatment of real-world waters.

390

391

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404

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