

Review

# Microbial Degradation of Paracetamol in Pharmaceutical Wastewater: A Review

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**Abstract:** Paracetamol (4'-hydroxyacetanilide or N-acetyl-p-aminophenol or Acetaminophen) is an analgesic and antipyretic over-the-counter commonly used drug. Paracetamol has been detected in, surface waters, wastewater, and drinking water globally because of its significant utilization and unregulated release into the surroundings which have been a great concern and require an urgent approach. Microbial degradation of paracetamol is considered a desirable choice because of its lenient reaction conditions, low-cost operation, and eco-friendly process. This review focuses on summarizing the current processes for the biodegradation of paracetamol. The review includes characteristics and prevalent pharmaceutical drugs in wastewater, toxicity, degrading microorganisms, enzymes, and possible intermediates. Factors affecting the microbial degradation process of paracetamol such as growth pH, microbial cell concentration, temperature, and glucose have also been reported. The wide knowledge of biotransformation sequence and enzymatic processes engaged in the usage of paracetamol will help enable the optimization and simple design of microbial degradation techniques, which are expected to be more efficient in the treatment of paracetamol-contaminated wastewater.

**Keywords:** Paracetamol, Wastewater, Microbial, Biodegradation Pathway

## Introduction

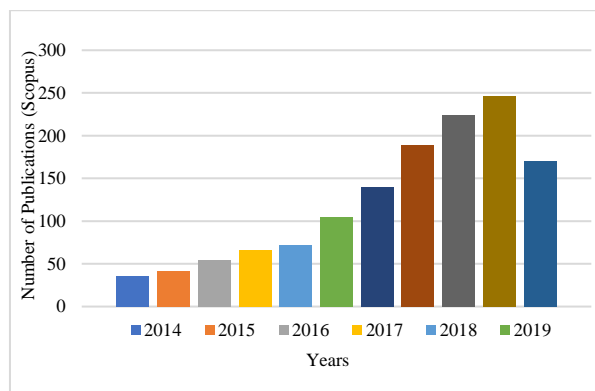
Pharmaceutical compounds are biologically active products that are continuously being used for various forms of prevention, cure, or treatment of diseases and one of the major worrying classes of emergent contaminants are these pharmaceutical contaminants from various pharmaceutical industries (Tiwari *et al.*, 2017; Samal and Trivedi, 2020) and these organic pollutants have been identified worldwide in wastewater and surface water (Phillips *et al.*, 2010). These pharmaceutical contaminants are consistently introduced into the environment via various emissions stemming from agricultural practices, manufacturing processes, consumption and disposal by consumers, and hospital waste discharge (Mahmood *et al.*, 2022). Pharmaceutical compounds are molecules premeditated to be biologically active which thus pose a great effect on aquatic organisms and humans when leached into the environment, even though the contaminants are normally detected at low levels, which range from ng/L (nano-gram per liter) to µg/L micrograms per liter (de Oliveira *et al.*, 2020). Varying levels of possible adverse impacts, such

effects encompass chronic toxicity and acute damage, endocrine destruction, sexual reproductive damage, and alteration of behavior are detected at these minimal concentrations (Tiwari *et al.*, 2017; Samal *et al.*, 2022).

It occurs that most common pharmaceuticals detected in wastewater and the environment are usually those that are often obtainable either by prescription or non-prescription and over-the-counter purchase, including a range of substituted acetanilides like paracetamol and its intermediates. Paracetamol (or Acetaminophen) is a non-opioid analgesic, an antipyretic and Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug (NSAID), and a popular over-the-counter pain relief medication (Chiam *et al.*, 2015) for headaches, fever, etc. Additionally, during COVID-19 disease outbreak in 2019, the major component of the therapeutic plans was this molecule which was consumed globally for the treatment of symptoms like cough, pain, flu, cold, and sleep disorders (Tony *et al.* 2020). Paracetamol with IUPAC N-(4-hydroxyphenyl) ethanamide, having a benzene ring core with a hydroxyl group and an amide group's nitrogen atom substituted in the para (1, 4) position (C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>9</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>) (Maes *et al.*, 2016).

Paracetamol has become an issue of concern that couldn't be overlooked due to its prevalent occurrence in drinking water and the environment's continuous documentation of its possible effects on human and environmental wellness. The intake of paracetamol has risen even more following the COVID-19 crisis, it has become the most recommended drug by various healthcare authorities across the world (Leal *et al.*, 2021). In America, about 50 million adults utilize products with paracetamol on a weekly basis (Mund *et al.*, 2015), and one of the most widely taken pain relief medications in Europe (Varrassi *et al.*, 2010). According to previous research, the occurrence of paracetamol concentration was observed in surface water, drinking water, and underground waters (Wadhah Hassan, 2017). Studies have proved that microorganisms play crucial and effective contributions to the degradation of paracetamol in the environment across various conditions, as stated by Rios-Miguel *et al.* (2022). This review aims to consolidate previous and recent studies on microbial degradation of paracetamol, focusing on the occurrence of paracetamol, biodegrading microorganisms, environmental toxicity and health risks of paracetamol in wastewater, factors affecting biodegradation of paracetamol and the proposed metabolic/biodegrading pathways by microorganisms.

The approach of this review stems from an examination of data from both previous and recent investigations into the microbial degradation of paracetamol and other pharmaceutical wastewater pollutants. However, a few articles (4 articles) published from 1975-1996 were considered when describing the microbial degradation and transformation pathway of paracetamol. Also, a few articles published between 2006-2010 were considered, although the majority of the utilized articles were published between 2011-2023 since they presented significant information. The principal database source for these articles was Scopus, accessed with search terms including "paracetamol"; "pharmaceuticals"; "microbial"; "pollutants"; "wastewater"; "biodegradation pathway" and "review". To analyze the range of available studies and highlight literature gaps concerning this topic, a database search was carried out, revealing studies spanning over 10 years between 2014-May 2024 with approximately 1,344 papers on biodegradation of paracetamol comprising 428 review articles and 610 research articles. 340 review articles and 292 research articles publications on the use of bacteria, 191 review articles and 162 research articles on the use of microalgae, and 104 review articles and 82 research articles on the use of fungi were published (Fig. 1). The quest to identify the most efficient microbial degradation method for wastewater polluted with paracetamol has garnered major attention, resulting in an increase in publications over recent years. Several comprehensive reviews exist; however, most of them lack a comprehensive critical analysis of both traditional and high-level techniques, in conjunction with optimizing operational details to enhance the efficiency of microbial processes in the complete removal of paracetamol.



**Fig. 1:** Quantity of published articles on paracetamol biodegradation in wastewater from the Scopus database between 2014-2024

### *Characteristics of Pharmaceuticals in Industrial Wastewater*

There is a need to characterize and discard effluent from the pharmaceutical industry so that safety standards are maintained before pharmaceutical wastewater discharge. Wastewater contains potent chemicals that are mutagenic, teratogenic, carcinogenic, and have other serious detrimental effects, so it is important to classify the elements and their forms before treatment. It is mainly composed of organic elements which pose greater harm in contrast to their inorganic variants (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). It is certain that pharmaceutical companies' generated wastewater streams are not uniform and are always found to contain substances such as active biomass, polyaromatic hydrocarbons, antibiotics, and phenols. (Dixit and Parmar, 2013; Kumar *et al.*, 2019). The wastewater could incorporate the following; heavy metals, non-biodegradable organic, biodegradable organic materials, and inorganic materials, and viable inhibitors that may be leached into the groundwater or ultimately flow into a water body. The presence and concentration of this contaminant can be assessed through water analysis by examining a water quality index employing several physicochemical parameters such as pH, turbidity, conductivity, Total Suspended Solids (TSS), Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD), and Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) amongst others. A comprehensive interpretation of wastewater composition and properties (Table 1) is crucial to the implementation of a particular method and certification of its operation in a wastewater treatment plant (Mhlanga and Brouckaert, 2013).

To devise an efficient method for wastewater treatment, it is crucial to identify the properties of water and its contaminants (Deegan *et al.*, 2011). The Pharmaceutical Industries' wastewater characteristic feature shows that it contains several intermediates, catalysts, solvents, and additional raw materials used during the synthesis and development of a certain drug in

its required dosage formula and not just the Active Pharmaceutical Ingredients (APIs) and these materials are quite harmful to the water bodies and environment been discharged in Zaman *et al.* (2014). Previous studies have evaluated the occurrence of the most prevalent drugs in pharmaceutical industrial wastewater and they have been classified into different therapeutic groups. (a) NSAIDs are largely found in Pharmaceutical Industrial Wastewater, such as Paracetamol: Ibuprofen, diclofenac, and Indomethacin, and the likes in their average mean and highest influent concentrations were detected. (b)

Antibiotics; another group of prevalent drugs that are found largely consist of Antibiotics such as Ofloxacin, Ciprofloxacin, Trimethoprim, Sulpham ethaxozole, Chloramphenicol and Penicillin (c) Additionally,  $\beta$ -blockers like Propranolol, Metoprolol and Atenolol were also be discovered over the years. (d) Anticonvulsant and psychiatric drugs, for example, Carbamazepine have also been detected as prevalent drug contaminants found in pharmaceutical wastewaters (Petrovic *et al.*, 2009; Shah and Shah, 2020). An overview of prevalent drugs in pharmaceutical wastewater is enumerated below in Table 2.

**Table 1:** Physicochemical parameters of pharmaceutical wastewater adapted (Rana *et al.*, 2017)

Physicochemical indicators and heavy metal concentrations in pharmaceutical wastewater

Parameters/Items	Ranges	Heavy metals and toxic compounds	
			Ranges (mg/L)
Ph	5.8-8.5	Lead	0.03-6.53
Biological oxygen demand	20-1800 mg per liter	Iron	8.5-10.8
Chemical oxygen demand	128-28,640 mg per liter	Selenium	0.428-0.67
TDS	600-20,000 mg per liter	Cadmium	0.036-0.56
TSS	48-7500 mg per liter	Nickel	0.02-2.35
Total phosphate	18-47 mg per liter	Manganese	6.41-8.47
Dissolved organic carbon	775.0 mg per liter	Chromium	0.01-1.11
Total nitrogen	80-164 mg per liter	Chloride	200-2800
Temperature	31-46°C (degree Celsius)	Sulphate	82-360
Phenol	95-125 mg per liter	Arsenic	0.0049-0.0076
Conductivity	157±115.8-1673±119 ( $\mu$ S/cm)	Sulphide	42-100
Turbidity	2.2-138 Nephelometric turbidity units		
Nalidixic acid	45.0 mg per liter		
Alkalinity	50-2500 mg per liter		
Total acidity	300.0 mg per liter		

**Table 2:** Prevalent drugs in pharmaceutical industrial wastewater (Petrovic *et al.*, 2009; Shah and Shah, 2020)

Pharmacological class	Drugs	Chemical class
NSAIDs	Paracetamol	Para-aminophenol derivative
	Ibuprofen	Propionic acid derivative
	ketoprofen	Propionic acid derivative
	Diclofenac	Acetic acid derivative
Antibiotics	Sulphamethaxozole	Sulphonamide
	Amoxicillin	Penicillin
	Sulfadiazine	Sulphonamide
	Ofloxacin	Fluoroquinolone
	Norfloxacin	Fluoroquinolone
	Ciprofloxacin	Fluoroquinolone
	Chloramphenicol	Amphenicol-class antibacterial
	Trimethoprim	Aminopyrimidine
Antihypertensive	Atenolol	Beta blocker
	Metoprolol	Beta blocker
	Propranolol	Beta blocker
	Sotalol	Beta blocker
Anticonvulsant/ Antiepileptic drugs	Carbamazepine	Tricyclic Anti-depressant
Lipid and	Clofibrilic Acid	Clofibrate metabolite
Cholesterol regulating	Gemfibrozil	Fibric acid derivative

## Occurrence of Paracetamol in Industrial Wastewater

Paracetamol was found to be one of the most abundant pharmaceuticals identified with widely varying concentrations in wastewater across the globe (Gracia-Lor *et al.*, 2012; Thomas *et al.*, 2007). A record has shown a range between 1.75-43.22 µg/L in inflow samples of wastewater purification plants and about 83% of wastewater treatment plant effluent has shown a range between 0.025-4.319 µg/L. Also, from Ullevål University effluent samples between the range 13.87-177.67 µg/L were observed, and 5.42-1368.5 µg/L from wastewater, Norway (Thomas *et al.*, 2007).

In Saudi Arabia, paracetamol concentrations of 12 and 0.073 micrograms per liter were observed in influent and effluent in wastewater purification facilities (Al Qami *et al.*, 2016). Also, paracetamol was found with a maximum concentration of 2.086 and 0.0521 µg/L in wastewater treatment plant inflow samples and effluent samples sequentially in the year 2011 in Kuwait (Alajmi, 2014).

In Canada, concentrations between 57.5-77.4 µg/L were found in influent samples of treatment plants and about 90.2 micrograms per liter in inflow samples from the hospital (Ba *et al.*, 2014).

Furthermore, in Italy, 246 µg/L paracetamol concentration was found in the raw influent wastewater treatment plant sample (Verlicchi *et al.*, 2012a) and in influents from two hospital wastewater varying from 1.4-5.9 µg/L as well as 1.2 and 0.058 µg/L concentration in influent and effluent of wastewater treatment systems accordingly (Verlicchi *et al.*, 2012b). However, in Switzerland, a paracetamol concentration of 107 µg/L was recorded in hospital wastewater influent (Kovalova *et al.*, 2012). In Taiwan, it was recorded that influents from hospital wastewater samples contain up to 186.5 µg/L and influents from drug production facilities contain about 417.5 µg/L (Lin and Tsai, 2009) and from 1.80-30.967 µg/L in effluents from six wastewater treatment plants (Lin *et al.*, 2010), about 2.69 µg/L in inflow and 0.33 µg/L in outflow of sewage water treatment facility (Dutta *et al.*, 2014) and 150 µg/L in hospital wastewater sample in China (Wu *et al.*, 2012). In North Korea, 41.90 and 6.760 µg/L (influent and effluent samples) of paracetamol were subsequently detected in a hospital wastewater treatment facility. Also, 6.80 µg/L was reported in influent from municipal wastewater purification facility (Sim *et al.*, 2010) then 10.234 µg/L in wastewater processing system influent was found in Ulsan (Behera *et al.*, 2011).

In the USA, a paracetamol concentration level of 1.06 µg/L was found in the effluent of a wastewater purification system (Glassmeyer and Shoemaker, 2005). A concentration of 61 and 0.86 µg/L in influent and effluent of a wastewater purification facility in New York City (Benotti and Brownawell, 2007), another influent contains 140 µg/L concentration in San Marcos, Texas,

from a hospital wastewater purification system (Foster, 2007), in the Back River, a concentration of 0.96 µg/L found inflow of a wastewater treatment facility in Baltimore (Yu *et al.*, 2006), Influent concentrations of 182-233 µg/L at five wastewater management plants in the Northwest Pacific (Lubliner *et al.*, 2010) and in effluents from fifty wastewater treatment plants, about 150.079 µg/L was recorded (Kostich *et al.*, 2014) and in influent of a wastewater purification system in Wisconsin, up to 1000 µg/L was found (Wilcox *et al.*, 2009).

In the United Kingdom, the concentration of paracetamol observed ranges between 5.53 to 69.57 µg/L as found in Howdon wastewater treatment plant influent (Roberts and Thomas, 2006), 0.129-0.555 µg/L was also detected from wastewater treatment plant effluent in England (Bound and Voulvoulis, 2006) and between 211.4 and 11.73 µg/L was found in inflow and outflow wastewater treatment plant in Cilfynydd, likewise 178.12 and 0.35 µg/L were found in a treatment facility of inflow and outflow wastewater in South Wales (Kasprzyk-Hordern *et al.*, 2009).

In Spain, a concentration of 0.5-29 µg/L was found in wastewater from the hospital, in Almeria (Gómez *et al.*, 2006), a level of 0.123 µg/L concentration was found in the influent of the wastewater treatment facility (Radjenovic *et al.*, 2007), influent level of 16.72 µg/L and effluent level of 0.34 µg/L in the wastewater treatment system, from Barcelona and Catalonia was noticed (Gros *et al.*, 2012). In Croatia, 0.130-26.10 and 5.990 µg/L inflow and outflow of a wastewater purification system (Gros *et al.*, 2006), between 1.13-201 µg/L in the inflow of a wastewater purification system detected in Castellon (Gracia-Lor *et al.*, 2012), In Girona hospital wastewater between the range of 109.3-114.4 µg/L concentration (Cruz-Morató *et al.*, 2014) and 58.857 µg/L from hospital wastewater influent, concentration of 9.29 and 0.11 µg/L from influent wastewater treatment plant and 0.106 µg/L effluent in Portugal (Santos *et al.*, 2013).

## Microbial Degradation

Biodegradation or microbial degradation is a biological process that offers an environmentally friendly means of breaking down various compounds found in the environment. This process converts pollutants into carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and water (H<sub>2</sub>O), which are then released as the final by-products of degradation (Chopra and Kumar, 2020a). Presently, wastewater containing pharmaceuticals is primarily treated using Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs), like Fenton and photo-Fenton reactions, photocatalysis employing titanium dioxide, ozonation combined with hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), or UV photolysis. However, understanding of the subsequent paracetamol characteristics in the environment is still limited. Studies have summarized the efficiency of chemical, and biological treatment systems

and hybrid approaches in wastewater treatment, reporting that a hybrid system employing zonation and biological activated carbon proved highly efficient in pesticide removal, pharmaceuticals, and beta-blockers (Ahmed *et al.*, 2017). However, despite their high efficacy, the significant operational expenses, stringent operational conditions, and the production of secondary compounds with elevated toxic effects often made these procedures undesirable. Hence, the microbial degradation of pharmaceuticals, including NSAIDs, employing microbial strains with high degradation capabilities, portrays a sustainable and promising tool in both the environmental and economic aspects of wastewater treatment. The potential of any microbes to degrade xenobiotics is driven by several environmental conditions (Žur *et al.*, 2018a), which impact the degradation process. It is widely understood that temperature, pH, and other environmental factors also contribute significantly to this degradation process, influencing microbial physiology and modulating the enzymatic reaction rate.

## Factors Affecting Microbial Degradation Processes

There are substantial numbers of previous studies that have found that pharmaceutical compound degradation is highly dependent on operating factors including pH, temperature, shaking speed, carbon, and energy sources, etc., (Chopra and Kumar, 2020b; Sharma *et al.*, 2020).

### *Effects of Temperature on Paracetamol Biodegradation*

The significant impact of temperature on xenobiotic degradation is widely recognized, as it impacts bacterial functioning and the efficiency of enzymatic-driven activities. The optimum xenobiotics biodegradation rate is observed within the temperature range of 30–40°C. In lower temperatures, the rigidity of bacterial membranes increased, leading to heightened viscosity of membrane phospholipids. Conversely, higher temperatures often impede membrane transport due to the alteration of proteins associated with membranes (Žur *et al.*, 2018a). However, for biodegradation of paracetamol, a wide range temperature of 25–35°C can still be considered to show a moderately high degradation, although, optimization studies as shown an efficient temperature of 25, 28, and 30°C (Edrees *et al.*, 2018; Palma *et al.*, 2022; Wadhah, 2018). As shown in Fig. 2, the study observed an optimal temperature of 25°C and the reducing effects of microbial degradation of paracetamol was recorded at temperatures below 20°C and above 30°C.

### *Effect of pH on Biodegradation of Paracetamol*

The pH stands as another critical factor regulating the xenobiotic degradation of paracetamol, impacting

membrane properties and microbial cell structure. For paracetamol, in a basic environment, it exists as a phenolate (RO<sup>-</sup>) form, whereas, at lower pH, it has been observed that there is a formation of a protonated form (ROH). Given that the acid dissociation constant (pKa) of paracetamol is 9.5, under mildly basic conditions, paracetamol exists predominantly in its non-ionic state (Xagorarakis *et al.*, 2008). It can be inferred from these findings that the optimal breakdown rate of paracetamol could be observed at a neutral pH level. This assumption was validated for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain DSM 50071, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain NBRC 12689 (Wadhah, 2018), and *Pseudomonas moorei* strain KB4, with an efficient paracetamol biodegradation at an optimal pH of 7.0 (Žur *et al.*, 2018b). However, in Fig. 3, a study on fungi degradation efficiency has shown a relatively higher degradation within a 5.5–6.5 pH range and the breakdown rate greatly reduced at a pH >7.0 (greater than 7.0) or 5.0 < 5.0 (smaller than 5.0) (Edrees *et al.*, 2018).

### *Effects of Cell Concentration on Paracetamol Biodegradation*

Several studies have observed that the cell concentration has a high influence on the degradation rate of paracetamol which plays a substantial role in transport elements. Some reports have proven this finding, as observed in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain DSM 50071 and *P. aeruginosa* strain NBRC 12689 (Wadhah, 2018) and *Rhodococcus erythropolis* (Akay and Tezel, 2016) which demonstrated the effect of varying cell concentrations on paracetamol degradation. Microorganisms are supplied with energy and cell-building materials through the degradation of organic substrate and are used up for cell maintenance, regeneration of cells, and co-metabolization of non or less degradable or other materials (Cornelissen and Sijm, 1996). Another optimization study has confirmed that cell concentrations affect the biodegradation rate of paracetamol (Edrees *et al.*, 2018). For example, at a higher bacterial concentration of 10<sup>8</sup> CFU/mL an optimal breakdown was achieved within 48 h (Fig. 4). That is, a higher cell concentration led to an increased rate of paracetamol breakdown by microbes.

### *Effects of Glucose Level on Paracetamol Biodegradation*

The role of glucose in paracetamol breakdown, serving as a carbon and energy source for microbial processes. Several studies have proven that the biodegradation of paracetamol glucose medium increased with higher glucose levels. It revealed that glucose acts as a facilitator, providing extra energy to bacteria for paracetamol breakdown. In a similar study, the result was

also the same for the effect of glucose, an optimal degradation was achieved at concentration of 5 g/L within 72 h (Fig. 5). The availability of glucose supplies microbes with energy which subsequently boosts their ability to use up the tolerant aromatic amines (Edrees *et al.*, 2018; Palma *et al.*, 2021; Wadhah, 2018).

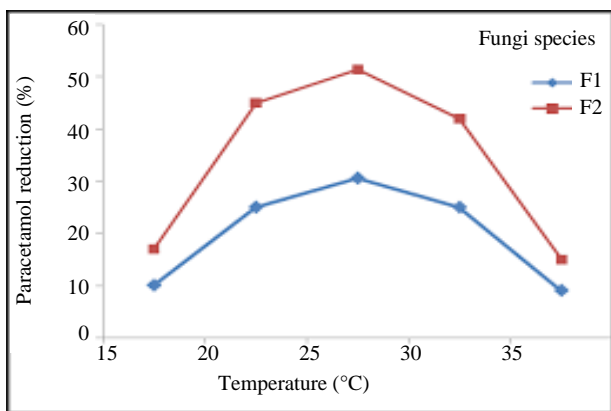


Fig. 2: Effect of temperature (Edrees *et al.*, 2018)

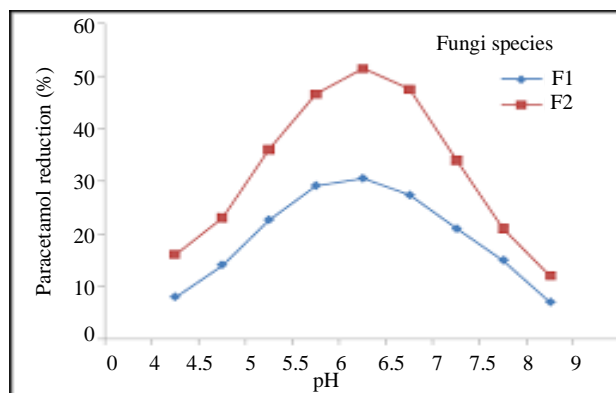


Fig. 3: Effect of pH (Edrees *et al.*, 2018)

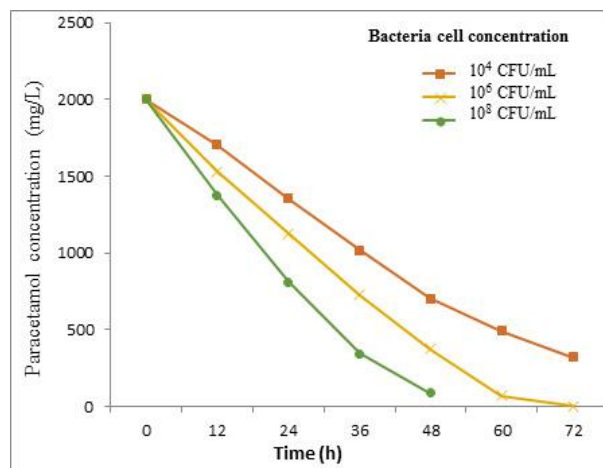


Fig. 4: Effect of Cell concentration (Wadhah, 2018)

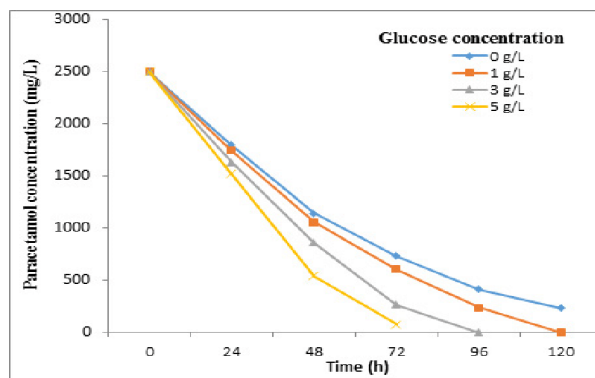


Fig. 5: Effect of glucose concentration (Wadhah, 2018)

### Paracetamol Biodegrading Microorganisms

Microorganisms have evolved efficient biodegradation mechanisms, employing unique enzymatic mechanisms and metabolic routes to metabolize paracetamol for carbon and energy utilization. As a result, these microorganisms are efficient in breaking down paracetamol and transforming it into readily metabolizable materials (Hasan *et al.*, 2011).

*Chlorella vulgaris*, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, and *Chlorella sorokiniana* are frequently utilized microalgae strains in wastewater treatment and have been identified to be efficient in the breakdown of 17-67% of Paracetamol in a study (Escapa *et al.*, 2019). Other research has revealed a rapid removal of paracetamol using *Chlorella sorokiniana* strains (Escapa *et al.*, 2015; 2017).

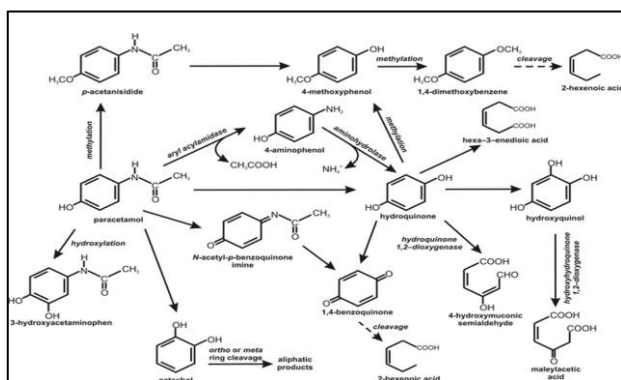
The wastewater environment consists of highly variable fungal communities, *Penicillium*, *Geotrichum*, and *Candida* species are the most highly represented then the next are *Trichoderma*, *Acremonium*, *Aspergillus*, *Trichosporon* and *Rhodotorula* (Buratti *et al.*, 2022). A study designating fungi as F1 and F2 recognized as *Aspergillus niger* and *Fusarium oxysporium* degraded 26.1 and 35.7% of 2000 and 1000 mg/L of paracetamol concentration respectively at optimum temperature 25°C and pH 6.0 (Sharma *et al.*, 2020). *Trichoderma harzianum* and *Pseudomonas* (Shabani *et al.*, 2021) and *Scedosporium dehoogii* (Pontié *et al.*, 2019) where a combination of bacterial and fungal biofilm having redox-active enzymes capable of electrogenic activity was used as a microbial fuel source and have shown to be effective in elimination of paracetamol contaminated wastewater.

Numerous bacteria with the ability to metabolize paracetamol as a carbon and energy source have been identified, with authors also proposing metabolic pathways for its degradation (Chopra and Kumar, 2020a). The isolation of *Cupriavidus necator* F1 from activated sludge has shown a complete breakdown of paracetamol at a starting concentration of 400.0 mg/L within 2 days. The results indicated that the strain possesses high capability for paracetamol mineralization as reported (Wei *et al.*, 2011). A report of 97% degradation by *Delftia tsuruhatensis* was also observed by De Gussemme *et al.* (2011), within 48 h. In addition, the isolation of *Stenotrophomonas* sp. f1,

*Pseudomonas* sp. fg-2, and *Pseudomonas* sp. f2 from aerobic aggregate breakdown of paracetamol with complete degradation of 400 mg/L, 2,000-2,500 mg/L in 116, 45 and 70 h respectively was reported (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). Lately, within 120 h, 79.4 and 88.4% degradation of 3000 mg/L concentration of paracetamol, by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains (labelled as STB2 and STB4) was reported (Abdullah *et al.*, 2018). Lastly, two bacteria strains described as *Pseudomonas stutzeri* CSW02 and *Pseudomonas extremaustralis* CSW01 have been shown to be efficient in the breakdown of paracetamol at high concentrations. These bacteria have proven to biodegrade about 500 mg/L concentration of paracetamol in 4 and 6 h, respectively. Hydroquinone and 4-aminophenol the two main paracetamol metabolites that pose high toxicity, were found and eliminated during the degradation process at a faster rate. Both bacterial strains show promise as prospective agents for bioremediation in sewage sludge and water contaminated with paracetamol (Vargas-Ordóñez *et al.*, 2023).

## Microbial Degradation and Transformation Pathway for Paracetamol

Several researchers were focused on summarizing paracetamol biodegradation studies in aspects such as bacteria degrading paracetamol, their enzymatic mechanisms, proposed biodegradation pathways/metabolic routes in microorganisms, and their possible intermediates. Isolated *Penicillium* sp. was observed to have the ability to degrade paracetamol into 4-aminophenol and acetate, possibly employing arylacylamidase. 4-aminophenol is a non-metabolizable end product (Hart and Orr, 1975) (Fig. 6). Additionally, findings indicate that *Rhodococcus* strains have the capability to decompose paracetamol, resulting in the production of three (3) identifiable metabolites: 4-aminophenol, hydroquinone, and catechol (Ivshina *et al.*, 2006).



**Fig. 6:** Microbial transformation of paracetamol pathways (Hart and Orr, 1975; Kolvenbach *et al.*, 2011; Takenaka *et al.*, 2003; Li *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2013)

The procedure involved in the continual breakdown of 1,4-hydroxybenzene could progress in two directions. First, direct cleaving of Hydroquinone through hydroquinone 1,2-dioxygenase along with 4-hydroxybenzoic semialdehyde, similar to an aliphatic material (Daubaras *et al.*, 1996). As documented in the biotransformation of paracetamol by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Delftia tsuruhatensis* bacterial strains, the methylation of hydroquinone might yield the mono and di O-methylated intermediates "4-methoxyphenol and 1,4-dimethoxybenzene." (De Gusseme *et al.*, 2011). Through an amidohydrolase reaction paracetamol possibly metabolizes and yields 4-aminophenol from the carbonyl group through the cleavage between nitrogen-carbon bond, in which the formation of hydroquinone would result from the nitrogen being removed followed by hydroxylation (Takenaka *et al.*, 2003). However, the transformation of 4-aminophenol to 1,4-hydroxybenzene by *Burkholderia* sp. strain AK-4 and then progress to 1,2,4-trihydroxybenzene was detailed. Progressively, hydroxy-hydroquinone 1,2-dioxygenase gradually cleaved 1,2,4-trihydroxybenzene to produce maleylacetic acid, incorporated into the core metabolism process (Kolvenbach *et al.*, 2011; Moonen *et al.*, 2008) (Fig. 6).

In more detail, the biotransformation of paracetamol to hydroquinone was followed by the conversion to the aliphatic product hexa-3-enedioic acid, this could stem from aromatic ring fission or might suggest the bypassing of intermediate metabolites between aliphatic and aromatic compounds. The Hexa-3-enedioic acid is related to muconic acid, which resulted from ortho-ring cleavage of catechol. A primary pathway of paracetamol biodegradation could be suggested based on reported intermediates. The mechanism may involve the elimination of two carbon atoms as formic acid (Zhang *et al.*, 2013) (Fig. 6). Additionally, a sequence of hydroxylation reactions resulted in the transformation of paracetamol to phenols and organic acids by using *Rhodococcus erythropolis* reported (Akay and Tezel, 2016). In the biotransformation course, paracetamol undergoes initial conversion to 4-aminophenol, then was later changed to hydroquinone by replacing the amino group with a hydroxyl and hydroquinone subsequently underwent ring fusion.

Moreover, filamentous fungi that produce glucoside conjugates with paracetamol by O and N linkages in soil were defined (Huang *et al.*, 2006). Phase-II xenobiotic detoxication routes for humans are absolutely related to this process (Halling-Sørensen *et al.*, 1998). Also, a proposed pathway for paracetamol breakdown by soil microorganisms was explained in depth. The first step indicated that Paracetamol's aromatic ring is hydroxylated to form 3-hydroxyacetaminophen, which is followed by methylation to form p-acetanilide or oxygenation to form N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone imine. Which is a more

stable and significant toxic metabolite i.e., the 1,4-benzoquinone, of the N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone imine, was produced next. Furthermore, the subsequent step transforms p-acetanisidide into 4-methoxyphenol and 1,4-dimethoxybenzene. The occurrence of 2-hexenoic acid in the soil extract is demonstrated by the breakdown of paracetamol's aromatic ring (Li *et al.*, 2014). In soil, flavin-containing hydroxylases, and monooxygenases are generally allocated among the microorganisms and as well catalyze several oxidative processes as found in the hydroxylation reaction of phenols to catechols (Sariaslani and Dalton, 1989).

## Environmental Toxicity and Health Risk of Paracetamol

Paracetamol is widely prescribed around the world for its analgesic antipyretic properties. However, at high doses, it becomes highly toxic (Nunes *et al.*, 2014). The rising levels of paracetamol and other emerging contaminants create the potential for toxic effects on unintended species in aquatic habitats. Lately, the England and Wales Environment Agency recognizing the possible threat of these contaminants to aquatic ecosystems, suggested a ranking scheme identifying the top 10 compounds of significance, with paracetamol listed as the 5<sup>th</sup> (Ebele *et al.*, 2017). The pervasive presence of paracetamol together with its primary product of degradation, 4-aminophenol, in the environment is somewhat linked to their application in the manufacture of azo dyes and photographic materials (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). In 2017, the consumption habits of paracetamol by consumers were assessed, and it was found that paracetamol is majorly consumed for fever, headaches, and general pain relief (Chong *et al.*, 2017). Even though paracetamol is generally regarded as safe, it is among the top causes of toxicity and liver impairment. Following administration, paracetamol is predominantly and rapidly metabolized in the liver by sulfotransferases and urine 5'-diphosphoglucuronosyltransferase (conjugating enzymes), which convert the drug into non-toxic molecules, biliary and renal excretion then followed. The residual paracetamol undergoes oxidation to form N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone-imine, a reactive electrophilic metabolite during Phase I cytochrome P450 isoenzymes. Glutathione detoxifies N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone-imine, forming conjugates of paracetamol with cysteine and mercapturate. A paracetamol overdose causes glutathione reserves to be depleted, resulting in the accumulation of N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone-imine. This buildup leads to covalent alteration of protein thiol groups, damage to genetic material, cell necrosis, oxidative damage to membrane lipids, and cell lysis (Žur *et al.*, 2018a).

## Effects on Aquatic Bodies

Several studies as observed the harmful effects connected to countless pharmaceutical contaminants. For example, A study on male fish (*Rhamdia quelen*), has shown that exposure to paracetamol caused an increase in thrombocytes and Leukocytes, and hemoglobin and hematocrit were reduced upon exposure to paracetamol concentration of 0.25 µg/L, reduced testosterone levels, increased dopamine and serotonin exposure level to 0.25 µg/L, estradiol levels increased at higher concentration and at 0.25 µg/L concentration hepatic genotoxicity arose; leucocytes infiltration and mild blood congestion in hepatic tissue (Guiloski *et al.*, 2017). Also, several studies have confirmed the endocrine disruption and hepatotoxicity effect of Paracetamol in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (Ayobahan *et al.*, 2020; Moreira *et al.*, 2023).

## Effects on Human Health

Paracetamol, as a non-opioid analgesic, operates through a unique mechanism different from that of other NSAIDs. The action mechanism is not fully comprehended, yet it seems to selectively target cyclooxygenase in the brain to alleviate pain or fever and possibly suppress prostaglandin production in the central nervous system. Paracetamol mode of action generates an antipyretic response by targeting the hypothalamus directly (Ghanem *et al.*, 2016). Harmful effects such as histopathological and biochemical alterations in rat livers at 66 mg per kg body weight and 15mg per kg body weight have been attached to exposure to paracetamol, exposure to paracetamol in the primary stages of growth has been linked to the medulla oblongata shown to affect the neurotransmission (Blecharz-Klin *et al.*, 2015a) or significantly influence effect on the spinal cord (Blecharz-Klin *et al.*, 2015b).

In the past, pregnancy was considered to be safe with the usage of paracetamol but now, it has become debatable that its usage may generate future adverse impacts on the offspring if consumed during pregnancy. A recent report on various epidemiological studies linked to offspring having behavioral syndromes such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and Autism spectrum disorder has been connected to exposure to paracetamol despite the limited evidence linking paracetamol use during pregnancy to brain function (Bührer *et al.*, 2021).

## Current Techniques for Paracetamol Degradation

Several treatment methods have been developed in response to the threat caused by paracetamol as an organic contaminant found in wastewater. Different techniques are used, depending on the structure and properties of the organic component. Four of these methods; adsorption, membrane processes, advanced oxidation processes, and



biodegradation are particularly popular for wastewater treatment. Each method uses a very distinct process to break down paracetamol, even though they are all capable of degrading it. For example, oxidation mechanisms break down a variety of organic contaminants by causing the compounds to undergo radical splitting by in situ formation via oxidation. The chief benefit of oxidation processes is their capability to completely break down pollutants without transitioning them into another phase or producing secondary waste (Lee *et al.*, 2020). The adsorption process operates through solutes and adsorbent interaction. Pollutants are attracted to the adsorbent by hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions and are subsequently removed by water. The primary benefit of adsorption is its non-toxic nature. Nevertheless, it has a short lifespan, is somewhat costly, and is ineffective against some pollutants. Regenerating the adsorbent is feasible, however, it frequently results in considerable mass loss, making it unfeasible from an economic standpoint (Cabrita *et al.*, 2010; Reungoat *et al.*, 2010). Membrane processes use a semi-permeable membrane's charge repulsion, solute adsorption, pressure, and size exclusion to separate solutes from water (Lee *et al.*, 2020). The benefit of membrane techniques lies in their capability to effectively eliminate nearly all types of pollutants. However, their operational costs are high due to significant energy consumption and the need for membrane replacement resulting from fouling (Babu *et al.*,

2019; Hua *et al.* 2020). Biodegradation is a broader term that encompasses the breakdown of organic compounds by biological processes, including microbial degradation. While microbial degradation is a type of biodegradation, not all biodegradation processes necessarily involve microorganisms. Biodegradation employs either an anaerobic or aerobic microbial process to effectively break down contaminants. Broadly, the resultant products are less harmful and more resilient than the original compound (Rana *et al.*, 2017). The flexibility of microbes in targeting a wide array of substrate media is a key advantage of biodegradation. However, microbial growth may be hindered in high-salinity effluents. In addition, biodegradation is a lengthy process and may result in non-biodegradable soluble or cellular residues. The effectiveness of the method is also contingent on the compound's biodegradability.

A closer examination is undertaken to explore the efficiency of microbial degradation of different pharmaceuticals (NSAIDs), sourced from multiple research findings. The focus lies on understanding the efficacy of different microbes in breaking down various pharmaceutical compounds. Table 3 presents a compilation of data sourced from multiple research papers, detailing the origins of these microbes, the pharmaceutical products of the target, and the rates and conditions of biodegradation.

**Table 3:** Microbial biodegradation efficiency of some selected pharmaceuticals (NSAIDs)

Microorganism	Habitat/location of isolation	Pharmaceutical products (drugs)	Biodegradation rate (%)	Biodegradation conditions	Reference
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Marseille, France	Diclofenac	Greater than 99% (1,000 mg/L)	Speed: 100 rpm, temp: 20°C, within 17 h	Grandclément <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Brevibacterium</i> sp. D4	Wastewater Treatment Plant (WWTP) in, Portugal	Diclofenac	About 90% breakdown (10 mg/L)	A temp: 25°C, speed: 150 rpm within 30 days	Bessa <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Klebsiella</i> sp. KSC	Sourced from livestock soil	Diclofenac	90% breakdown (i.e., 70,000 mg/L)	pH 7, 30°C, at a speed 100 rpm within 72 h	Stylianou <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Microbacterium paraoxydans</i>	East India pharmaceutical wastewater	Ibuprofen	92.01% breakdown (15 mg/L)	pH 7, 30°C, speed: 150 rpm, 0.3% yeast extract	Show <i>et al.</i> (2023)
<i>Patulibacter</i> sp. Strain L11	Lisbon, Portugal, From WWTP activated sludge	Ibuprofen	92% breakdown (0.05 mg/L)	Speed: 110 rpm, temp: 28°C, within 90 h	Almeida <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Sphingopyxis granulii</i> RW412	Downstream of the Hamburg harbor on the Elbe River, Germany	Ibuprofen	80% breakdown (800 mg/L)	Speed of 200 rpm, temp. 30°C, within 72 h	Aguilar-Romero <i>et al.</i> (2021)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	Delft, Netherland Hospital WWTP Pharma filter, sludge	Paracetamol	>99% breakdown (250 mg/L)	A pH 7, 500 rpm, temp. 20±1°C, airflow 30 mL/min, within 10 days	Rios-Miguel <i>et al.</i> (2022)
<i>Pseudomonas moorei</i> KB4	Poland. Activated sludge from Klimzowiec	Paracetamol (50 mg/L)	99% breakdown within 1.5 h	pH 7, temp. 30°C	Žur <i>et al.</i> (2018b)
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	Obtained from a	Paracetamol	About 71.4%	A pH 7, 30°C,	Hu <i>et al.</i> (2013)

**Table 3:** Count.

<i>aeruginosa strain</i> HJ1012	batch reactor microbial colony		breakdown (2,200 mg/L)	within 18 h	
<i>Stenotrophomonas</i> sp. f1	Paracetamol- metabolizing aerobic colony	Paracetamol	100% total breakdown (2,000 mg/L)	Speed of 200 rpm, 30°C, temp. 30°C within 16 h	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. fg-2	Paracetamol- metabolizing aerobic colony	Paracetamol	100% complete breakdown (2,500 mg/L)	Speed 200 rpm, 30°C within 45 h	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. f2	Paracetamol- metabolizing aerobic colony	Paracetamol	100% total breakdown (2,000 mg/L)	Speed 200 rpm, 30°C within 70 h	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Bacillus drentensis</i> <i>estirpe</i> S1	Derived sewage wastewater drains in Sonipat, India	Paracetamol	93% breakdown (300 mg/L)	A pH 7, 40°C, 165 rpm within 48 h	Chopra and Kumar (2020b)
<i>Micrococcus</i> <i>yunnanensis</i> TJPT4	Derived from marine organisms, obtained from Portugal	Paracetamol	Greater than 60% (i.e., about 15 mg/L)	At 150 rpm, within 360 h	Palma <i>et al.</i> (2022)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> <i>aeruginosa</i>	WWTPs Sludges from Portuguese	Paracetamol	90% (50 mg/L)	At 150 rpm, room temp., within 48 h	Palma <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Micrococcus</i> <i>yunnanensis</i> KGP04	Jaipur industrial Pharmaceutical WWT source	Paracetamol	80% breakdown (1% w/v)	pH 8, temp. 25°C, speed 200 rpm, by 6 h	Sharma <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> <i>extremaustralis</i> CSW01	Seville city sewage sludge from WWTP	Paracetamol	100% complete breakdown (500 mg /L)	Speed 150 rpm, ±31°C within 6 h	Vargas-Ordóñez <i>et al.</i> (2023)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> <i>stutzeri</i> CSW02	Seville city sewage sludge from WWTP	Paracetamol	100% total breakdown (500 mg/L)	Temp. ±31°C, speed 150 rpm By 4 h.	Vargas-Ordóñez <i>et al.</i> (2023)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. PrS10	Sourced from Gujarat Pharmaceutical, India	Paracetamol	96.37% breakdown (3,000 mg/L)	At speed 140 rpm, temp. 30°C within 168 h	Poddar <i>et al.</i> (2022)

## Research GAP and Future Directions

In spite of the fact that microbial degradation is a well-established process widely used in the treatment of wastewater, the removal of paracetamol and pharmaceuticals, in general, still requires further exploration in both theoretical and practical aspects related to risk assessment and ecological footprint. Key areas needing additional study include (a) Optimizing operational conditions to improve the microbial efficacy of processes in the complete removal of paracetamol; (b) Evaluating the risks associated with paracetamol and its metabolites in order to address legislative gaps; and lastly (c) Conducting direct measurement-based ecological footprint assessments of wastewater treatment systems, taking into consideration all emissions before, during and after treatment.

## Conclusion

This review delves into the critical issue of paracetamol contamination in pharmaceutical wastewater and explores microbial degradation as a potential solution. Paracetamol, extensively produced and consumed worldwide, poses a significant environmental threat as it enters water bodies through various sources, including

pharmaceutical production, consumer use, and improper disposal. Despite efforts by wastewater treatment plants, current methods fail to efficiently remove paracetamol, leading to its persistence in water sources.

Microbial degradation emerges as a promising approach, leveraging the natural abilities of microorganisms to break down paracetamol into less harmful compounds. Enzymes secreted by these microorganisms are essential in this process, highlighting the potential of biodegradation as an economically viable and environmentally friendly solution.

This review consolidates findings from a wide range of studies, emphasizing the importance of optimizing operational conditions to enhance microbial efficiency in wastewater treatment systems. This review will contribute to the advancement of wastewater treatment practices, safeguarding water quality, and protecting environmental health by addressing these research gaps aspects and focusing on future research directions.

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## Author's Contributions

**Yahya Seun Yisau:** Conceptualization data curation, written original drafted.

**Naeif Hamoud Al-Makishah:** Visualization, supervision, written, reviewed and edited.

**Mohamed Abou El-Fetouh Barakat:** Investigation, validation, written, reviewed and edited.

## Ethics

This article is original and contains unpublished material. The corresponding author confirms that all of the other authors have read and approved the manuscript and that no ethical issues are involved.

## Conflict of Interest

The authors affirm no conflicts of interest.

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