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Expired Actifed Drug as Corrosion Inhibitor for Low-Carbon Steel in Phosphoric Acid: Experimental and Theoretical Investigation

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Abstract

Corrosion remains a significant challenge for industrial infrastructure and equipment made from low-carbon steel, especially in acidic environments. Inhibitors have proven effective in mitigating corrosion, and expired pharmaceuticals offer an innovative class of potential solutions. This study explores the use of expired Actifed (ACD) as a sustained corrosion inhibitor for low-carbon steel in a 0.5 M H₃PO₄ solution. Both experimental and theoretical approaches were employed to assess the inhibitor's efficiency. Experimental techniques included potentiodynamic polarization (PDP), Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR), and microbiological tests. Theoretical evaluations utilized quantum chemical calculations to investigate how ACD interacts with the steel surface. The findings indicated that ACD significantly decreases the corrosion rate, resulting in an inhibition efficiency of 73.5% under the conditions (concentration of 60 mL/L and a temperature of 303 K). It was observed that ACD forms protective layers on the steel, providing mixed protection for both anodic and cathodic sites. The outcomes from FTIR, SEM, and theoretical studies corroborate the electrochemical findings, confirming the effectiveness of Actifed as an inhibitor under the selected conditions.

Keywords: Actifed expired drug; low-carbon steel; phosphoric acid; polarization; corrosion; inhibitor; DFT.

1. Introduction

Steel alloys are commonly used in numerous industries due to their excellent machining ability, high plasticity and toughness, and inexpensive cost [1]. The chemical industry's rapid growth has led to a worsening service environment for equipment components, resulting in economic losses due to corrosion. Additionally, operational safety issues are becoming more prevalent, particularly in acidification construction processes, which can lead to severe corrosion [2]. As a result, corrosion prevention remains a critical concern [3]. Metal corrosion can be prevented by organic coatings [4], cathodic protection [5], anode protection [6], and corrosion inhibitors [7]. Adding corrosion inhibitors can cause physical and chemical reactions on the metal surface, creating a protective coating. Corrosion inhibitors are typically organic molecules with heteroatoms or heterocycles and unsaturated linkages with different sources of electron density [8] that work by adsorption process, but the higher temperatures often decrease this adsorption by enhancing reaction kinetics, which can weaken the adsorbed inhibitor film and increases the movement of ions and electrons. These organic molecules have many advantages in their molecular formula assist in adsorption process such as 2-mercaptobenzothiazole (MBT) and 2-amino benzothiazole (ABT) compounds [9], novel N₂O₄ Schiff-base Ligands [10], N, N'-bis(4-formyl phenol)-trimethylene diamine Schiff base [11], a novel green material [12], N, N'-Bis(phloroacetophenone)-1,2-propane diamine [13], synthetic symmetrical Schiff bases [14], Thiobarbituric acid and Thiourea compounds [15], and new reduced Schiff base ligand [16].

Inorganic inhibitors are limited by their toxicity, which poses risks of environmental pollution and negative health effects. Conversely, organic inhibitors are categorized into natural and synthetic types. Synthetic organic inhibitors are produced through artificial synthesis, leading to an intricate and expensive manufacturing process [17]. As a result, research is urgently needed to find an efficient and eco-friendly alternative inhibitor. Plant extracts and expired drugs represent alternative sources. Plant extracts must be collected, cleaned, dried, extracted, filtered, and concentrated before use. This is a time-consuming process [18].

The use of medicines as corrosion inhibitors has recently increased. These pharmaceuticals outperform typical inhibitors in terms of environmental friendliness. Drugs have replaced traditional, harmful corrosion inhibitors since they are safer and have fewer adverse ecological consequences. A drug is used as a corrosion inhibitor because it contains donor atoms such as O, N, and S. Furthermore, drugs are environmentally friendly, have biological applications, and are simple to prepare and purify. During the last decades, many authors highlighted the addition of expired medications as green inhibitors for steel alloys in different environments, such as fluoroquinolones [19], tarivid [20], ranitidine [21], cefixime [22], antihypertensive drugs [23], antibiotic derivatives [24], amoxicillin [25], amodiaquine [26], farcolin [27], atorvastatin [28], sulpha drugs [29], levofloxacin [30], etoricoxib [31], metoclopramide [32], isosorbide dinitrate [33], spiramycin [34, 35], metheprim [36], butamirate [37]. These drugs have demonstrated effective inhibition properties in various settings, including their role when surgically implanted inside the body [38, 39]. In addition to pharmaceuticals, other green materials, such as Salicornia extract [40], Bhumyamalakhi [41], Trachyspermum leaves [42], Lavendula stoechas extract [43], active oleic imidazoline, 2-mercaptobenzimidazole [44], Mentha spicata extract [45], and matured cocoa pod extract [46], have also been confirmed as effective inhibitors.

Despite the promising results with other drugs, limited research has investigated the potential of Actifed as a corrosion inhibitor. This study aims to address this gap by evaluating the efficacy of expired Actifed Drug (ACD) in inhibiting the corrosion of carbon steel in (0.5 M) H_3PO_4 solution. Electrochemical techniques were used to conduct the experiments. SEM and FTIR techniques were used for surface morphological and diagnosis studies. Kinetics and adsorption studies were utilized to assess the drug's performance. Quantum chemical theoretical studies supported the experimental outcomes.

2. Experimental Procedure

2.1 Specimens and electrolyte

A carbon steel plate with a weight percentage of 0.0979 C, 0.185 Si, 0.551 Mn, 0.0069 P, <0.0005 S, 0.0077 Cr, 0.0193 Ni, 0.0072 Cu, 0.0332 Al, and the balance is Fe was cut into specimens with dimensions of 10mm×10mm×4mm. These specimens were subjected to grinding and polishing to get a mirror surface and kept for electrochemical testing [47]. The corrosive electrolyte 0.5 M H₃PO₄ was prepared by diluting concentrated 85% H₃PO₄. Expired (ACD) syrup contains 6 mg/ml of *pseudoephedrine hydrochloride*, and 0.25 mg/ml *triprolidine hydrochloride* was used as a corrosion inhibitor. The inhibitor's effectiveness was evaluated at the following concentrations: 4, 20, 40, and 60 mL of ACD per liter of 0.5 M H₃PO₄ [31].

2.2 Characterization

Various techniques were utilized to characterize the inhibited surface, including FTIR from Bruker and SEM from TESCAN, Czech Republic. The antibacterial properties of ACD were tested using the Well *Diffusion Method*, which comprised the preparation of Mueller-Hinton (MH) Agar and a diffusion well assay. This test aims to evaluate whether ACD can help reduce microbiological corrosion. Since ACD is a pharmaceutical product, it's essential to check if it can also limit bacterial growth, which may offer additional protection to the metal surface in environments where both corrosion and microbial activity could be an issue.

The microbiological test was conducted as follows: Mueller-Hinton (MH) agar was prepared by adding 38 grams of dried Mueller-Hinton agar powder into 1L of distilled water, mixed, and then heated to fully dissolve the agar powder. The agar was autoclaved for fifteen minutes at 121°C. Then, it was distributed into sterile Petri dishes to a depth of 4 mm. A bacterial suspension of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E. coli* was prepared with the standard of 0.5 McFarland turbidity ($\approx 1.5 \times 10^8$ CFU/mL) for the diffusion well test. The bacterial solution was dispersed uniformly over the surface of the MH agar in the prepared petri dishes. After complete absorption of the bacterial solution, a sterile cork borer was used to make wells of 5 mm diameter in the agar. ACD solution was then added to each well at a volume of 0.1 mL. Finally, the dishes were placed in the incubator for 24 hours at 37 °C before the growth inhibitory zones were investigated in millimeters (mm) [32].

2.3 Corrosion measurements

Three electrode cells (working, reference, and auxiliary) were used, which were connected to a potentiostat instrument from Corrtest CS^{ro0} using CS Studio 6 software. The potential-time relationship was recorded with a Saturated Calomel Electrode (SCE). Polarization curves were then obtained by applying potentials of +200 mV around the open circuit

potential to measure the corrosion potential, corrosion current density, and the cathodic and anodic Tafel slopes. Four experimental temperatures (303, 313, 323, and 333 K) were controlled using a jacketed cell connected to a circulating bath of water. These temperatures were selected to replicate typical conditions for pipelines exposed to atmospheric temperatures during both winter and summer. The detailed electrochemical procedure is described in previous studies [48, 49].

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Electrochemical studies

The first interaction between materials and the environment can be estimated by potential-time observation to record open circuit potential (Eoc), which correlates with the potential difference of the electrical double layer as described by Helmholtz. Equilibrium is established when the electrons leave the metal lattice structure to form a layer of ions that interact to produce solvated ions with the metal electrode through electrostatic force. This behavior in the presence and absence of Actifed is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows the shifting of the behavior of carbon steel toward a noble direction, referring to the formation of a protective layer on the metal surface due to the influence ACF. The value of (E_{oc}) for carbon steel in blank solution was recorded as -0.575 V, and in the presence of 4, 20, 40, and 60 mL/L Actifed, the values were -0.559, -0.558, -0.553, and -0.551 V, respectively.



Fig. 1 Potential-time illustration for carbon steel in the presence and absence of ACD.

The corrosion behavior can be estimated by recording the Tafel plot (polarization curve), which illustrates the cathodic behavior in the lower section and the anodic behavior in the upper section, where at the cathodic sites, the reduction reaction takes place. In the acidic medium, the evolution of molecular hydrogen is represented by the following:

$$2H^+ + 2e \rightarrow H_2 \uparrow$$

While at anodic sites, the dissolution of metals can occur as follows:

$$Fe \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + 2e$$

Fig. 2 shows Tafel plots for carbon steel in the presence and absence of ACD at different temperatures. The electrochemical data for these curves is listed in Table 1. The results showed that adding the drug slightly shifted the corrosion potential (Ecorr), indicating that they act as organic inhibitors, forming a protective hydrophobic layer of adsorbed molecules on the metal surface by solubility or dispersibility in the corrosive medium. The effectiveness of an adsorbed inhibitor depends on its chemical structure (size), aromaticity, and the number and type of bonding atoms (N atom and π). In addition, it depends on the nature of the bonding strength, and the charges of the metal surface (substrate) and its ability to form a stable complex with atoms within the metal lattice. The decrease in corrosion current density values (i_{corr}) refers to providing a barrier that hinders the metal's dissolution in the electrolyte. Furthermore, the reduction in Tafel slopes (bc and ba) indicates a decrease in cathodic and anodic sites and a reduction in their reactions. Additionally, the inhibition efficiency (%IE) was calculated using Eqs. 3 [50, 51], and the results are presented in Table 1. The results reveal that inhibition efficacy increases with concentration but declines as the temperature rises. The highest efficiency (73.5%) was observed at a concentration of 60 mL/L and a temperature of 30°C.

$$IE\% = \left[1 - \frac{i_{corr in \, presence \, Actifed}}{i_{corr \, in \, absence \, Actifed}}\right] \times 100$$

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Fig. 2 Tafel plot for low-carbon steel in 0.5M H₃PO₄ at different ACD concentrations and temperatures.

Conc. Of	Temp.	-E _{corr}	icorr	-bc	+ba	IE
Actifed	(K)	(V)	(mA.cm ⁻²)	(mV.dec ⁻¹)	(mV.dec ⁻¹)	(%)
Blank	303	0.539	0.57	155.21	42.94	
	313	0.536	0.62	159.89	61.88	
	323	0.538	0.72	165.39	67.26	
	333	0.537	0.74	160.46	60.01	
4 mL/L	303	0.549	0.388	46.40	37.53	31.9
	313	0.553	0.455	28.91	31.03	26.6
	323	0.550	0.4878	60.89	43.40	32.3
	333	0.556	0.641	52.17	43.32	13.4
20 mL/L	303	0.529	0.344	43.49	33.74	39.6
	313	0.531	0.387	43.43	27.85	37.6
	323	0.529	0.4351	86.15	21.66	39.6
	333	0.531	0.5287	57.88	16.28	28.6
40 mL/L	303	0.521	0.31	98.74	50.54	45.6
	313	0.522	0.35	56.26	21.23	43.5
	323	0.518	0.401	99.29	25.88	44.3
	333	0.520	0.417	87.58	22.92	43.6
60 mL/L	303	0.524	0.151	48.84	33.61	73.5
	313	0.517	0.175	42.81	24.02	71.8
	323	0.517	0.243	65.11	26.45	66.3
	333	0.521	0.284	85.14	19.33	61.6

Table 1 Electrochemical parameter of polarization diagrams for low-carbon steel in $0.5M H_3PO_4$ at different ACD concentrations and temperatures.

3.2 SEM studies

Inhibited surfaces can be effectively characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), which provides detailed insights into surface distinctions. Figure 3(a–c) illustrates these surface characteristics. The SEM image of the polished surface (Figure 3a) reveals a flat, smooth texture with minimal scratches caused by polishing, along with some signs of atmospheric corrosion likely resulting from sample storage. In contrast, the corroded surface (Figure 3b) exhibits uniform corrosion, characterized by the distribution of cathodic and anodic sites across the surface. For the inhibited surface (Figure 3), the SEM images highlight the adsorption process of ACD onto the metallic surface. The observed cracks are attributed to the drying of the protective film after it was removed from the electrolyte. These cracks are linked to the hydrophobic ends of the protective layer, which prevent moisture absorption. Studies have reported similar phenomena on protective layers formed by Methoprim [52] and urea-zinc sulfate-L-phenylalanine [53].



Fig. 3 SEM images of low-carbon steel in 0.5M H₃PO₄ with different ACD concentrations at 303 K. (a) Polished surface, (b) Corroded surface, (c) Protected surface.

3.3 FTIR studies

Actifed drug contains two components in its dose: phenylephrine and chlorpheniramine. Phenylephrine appears to have peaks corresponding to O–H stretching at 3266 cm⁻¹, C–H stretching at 2950 cm⁻¹, phenol at 1413 cm⁻¹, and C–N stretching at 1230 cm⁻¹. While for chlorpheniramine, it can be seen C–H stretching, C=N stretching at 1641 cm⁻¹, C=C stretching at ≈ 1600 cm⁻¹ and C–H bending at 924 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 4). FTIR for the film formed on the carbon steel surface after inhibition by expired Actifed within experimental conditions illustrates the groups that are attracted to the charged surface as a barrier for reducing corrosion. It was shown that the decrease in intensity took place in the stretching vibration for (O-H), which appeared in the range of 3400 - 2400 cm⁻¹ as a broad band, as well as in the stretching vibration of (N-H, which appeared as a short peak in the range of 3500 - 3300 cm⁻¹. Finally, the decrease occurred in the adsorption process, and the decrease in intensities is attributed to the formation of complexes between these groups and ferrous ions rather than their being presented as free in solution, as suggested in Fig. 5.



Fig. 4 FTIR of Actifed drug as it is and film formed by adsorption on the metal surface.



Fig. 5 Schematic mechanism of Iron (II)-Actifed coordinated complex.

3.4 Adsorption isotherms considerations

The adsorption isotherm determines how inhibitor chemicals interact with metal surfaces. Langmuir, Frumkin, Temkin, and Freundlich adsorption isotherms were tested. Extensive investigation has shown that the best model to fit electrochemical polarization data is the Freundlich adsorption isotherm (Eq. 4) [54]:

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$\theta = K_{ads}C^n$

In Eq. 4, *C* represents the concentration of the inhibitor, θ signifies the fraction of the surface coverage, and K_{ads} denotes the equilibrium constant. Eq. 5 is illustrated in Fig. 6; the average correlation coefficient (R2) equals 0.966. Values of K_{ads} can be calculated from the intercept of Eq. 5. The average value of K_{ads} was 4671 l/ml. The typical adsorption-free energy (ΔG_{ads}) of ACD on low-carbon steel surfaces can be computed using Eq. 5.

$$\Delta G_{ads} = -RT \ln(55.5K_{ads})$$

The average value of ΔG_{ads} was -36.63 kJ/mol. The negative ΔG_{ads} value indicated the spontaneity of the adsorption process. Typically, ΔG_{ads} values approaching or slightly fewer negative than -20 kJ/mol often signify electrostatic interactions of charged molecules with the metal, suggesting physical adsorption. In contrast, values exceeding -40 kJ/mol signify chemisorption, suggesting a substantial charge transfer between molecules of organic material and a metal surface. Given that the average value of ΔG_{ads} lies between -20 and -40 kJ/mol, the adsorption process can be classified as mixed-mode adsorption, involving both physical and chemical mechanisms.



Fig. 6 Freundlich adsorption isotherm of ACD on low-carbon steel surface in 0.5M H₃PO₄ at different temperatures.

3.5 Kinetics considerations

The mechanism of corrosion inhibition by adsorption can be estimated by calculating the activation energies (E_a) during the process of corrosion in the presence and absence of Actifed by applying the linear form of Arrhenius equation (Eq. 6).

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$$\ln i_{corr} = \ln A - \left[\frac{E_a}{RT}\right]$$

where A represents the frequency factor, T and R denote the absolute temperature and the gas constant, respectively. Plotting of $(\ln i_{corr})$ in the presence and absence of Actifed drug versus (1/T) in the range of experimental temperature (Fig. 7), yield a straight line with a slope $\left(\frac{-E_a}{R}\right)$ as shown in Fig. 7. In the absence of ACD, the value of E_a was 7.85 kJ/mol, while in the presence of ACD, the values were 20.02, 16.9, 11.61, and 29.42 kJ/mol at 4, 20, 40, and 60 ml/l, respectively. The obtained results reveal that the presence of ACD leads to higher activation energy, which most likely means that the inhibitory effect produces a thin layer of resistance to the corrosion reaction of low-carbon steel in solution [55]. This increase in E_a is probably attributable to the establishment of electrostatic attractions between the metal surface and the inhibiting molecules in the solution. The higher E_a suggests that the protective layer created by ACD acts as a barrier, which slows down the corrosion process and enhances the material's resistance to corrosion.



Fig. 7 Arrhenius plot of low-carbon steel in 0.5M H₃PO₄ at different concentrations of ACD and temperatures.

3.6 Quantum chemical considerations

The optimized structures, highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO), lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO), and mapped-density structures of *pseudoephedrine hydrochloride* and *triprolidine hydrochloride*, which represent the main compounds of ACD syrup, were analyzed. The calculations were conducted in gaseous phases using density function theory (DFT). The ArgusLab software was utilized for the calculations, where geometry and energy optimizations were performed using the Austin Model 1 (AM1), with a limit of 200 iterations and a convergence threshold of 10^{-10} kcal/mol. A variety of quantum chemical parameters, including HOMO energy (E_{HOMO}), LUMO energy (E_{LUMO}), energy gap (Δ E), dipole moment (μ) and fraction of electron transferred (Δ N), were evaluated and presented in Table 2.

Donor-acceptor interactions are critical in understanding how inhibitor compounds adsorb onto metal surfaces. Based on frontier molecular orbital theory, the E_{LUMO} value indicates the inhibitor molecule's ability to receive electrons. On the other hand, E_{HOMO} is known for its ability to donate electrons. An inhibitor with an elevated E_{HOMO} value is more likely to give electrons to the metal's proper d-orbital. Conversely, a reduced E_{LUMO} value of the inhibitor suggests a greater likelihood of the molecule accepting electrons from the metal orbital during the back-donation [56-58]. The energy difference (ΔE) between E_{HOMO} and E_{LUMO} indicates the effectiveness of inhibitor molecules in terms of inhibition. The smaller the energy difference, the higher the inhibition value, as it implies less energy is required to extract electrons from the highest occupied molecular orbital. ΔN is a critical quantity that quantifies the electron transfer between an inhibitory molecule and iron in a coordination reaction. It was calculated according to Eq. 7 [59]

$$\Delta N = \frac{X_{Fe} - X_{inh}}{2(\eta_{Fe} + \eta_{inh})}$$

$$\eta = \frac{E_{LUMO} - E_{HOMO}}{2}$$
8

$$\chi = -\mu = \frac{E_{LUMO} + E_{HOMO}}{2}$$

 X_{Fe} and X_{inh} represent the absolute electronegativity of iron and the inhibitor molecule, respectively, while η_{Fe} and η_{inh} represent the iron's and the inhibitor molecule's absolute hardness, respectively. Equations 8 and 9 were used to determine the values of X and η for inhibitors. On the Pearson scale, X_{Fe} has a theoretical electronegativity value of 7, whereas η_{Fe} has a theoretical value of 0 eV/mol [60]. A high Δ N value (Table 2) indicates that the inhibitory molecule is responsible for providing electrons to iron, thereby enhancing the interaction between the metal and the ligand. This enhanced interaction not only boosts the stability of the complex but also increases the effectiveness of corrosion inhibition, reducing the reactivity of iron in a corrosive environment. Furthermore, the dipole moment is a crucial electronic parameter in corrosion studies, as it helps evaluate the strength of intermolecular interactions. This moment arises from the uneven distribution of electrical charges among the atoms within a molecule. Some researchers have suggested that an increase in the dipole moment correlates with enhanced inhibition efficacy [61]. Conversely, other studies have reported the association between dipole moment and inhibition efficiency is in inconsistent [62].

 Table 2 Quantum chemical parameters of ACD.

Compound	Еномо (eV)	Elumo (eV)	ΔE (eV)	μ (dybe)	ΔΝ		
Seudoephedrine	-9.471	0.187	9.283	2.279	0.244		
Triprolidine	-6.663	-0.731	5.932	2.593	0.557		

3.7 Antibacterial considerations

The observation of microbial activity was estimated to inhibit bacterial growth in experimental conditions due to the wide range of carbon steel tanks and pipes attached to soil or other bacteria-containing mediums. The inhibition zone of antibacterial activity of the Actifed drug was determined by the disk diffusion method using *Staphylococcus aureus* (gramnegative bacteria) and *E. coil* (gram-positive bacteria). Fig. 9 shows the inhibition zone that formed with a diameter of 19 mm for *Staphylococcus* and 13 mm for *E. coil*. This means using Actifed drug is an excellent option to prevent microbiological corrosion.



Fig. 9 The inhibition zone against two types of bacteria by Actifed drug.

4. Conclusion

The current study investigated an expired Actifed drug (ACD) as a corrosion inhibitor for protecting low-carbon steel in 0.5M H₃PO₄. The study used experimental and theoretical methodologies to evaluate the corrosion inhibiting efficacy of ACD. PDP, FTIR, SEM, and microbiological tests were used in the experimental process, while quantum chemical calculations were used in the theoretical analysis to clarify the interaction processes between the ACD and the low-carbon steel surface. The study found that ACD considerably decreases corrosion rates in acidic solutions, with an inhibitory efficiency of 73.5% at a concentration of 60 ml/l and 303 K. ACD was found to adsorb spontaneously on the metal surface, aligning with the Freundlich adsorption isotherm. FTIR, SEM, and theoretical examinations confirmed the electrochemical findings.

Statements and Declarations

Competing Interests: The authors declare no financial or commercial competing interests.

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