- 1 Investigation on the removal of the major cocaine metabolite (benzoylecgonine) in
- 2 water matrices by UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process by using a flow microcapillary film array
- 3 photoreactor as an efficient experimental tool.
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15 **Abstract**

- 16 A microcapillary film reactor (MCF) was adopted to evaluate and compare the removal efficiency
- of benzoylecgonine (BE), an emerging micropollutant deriving from illicit drug abuse (cocaine), in
- different aqueous matrices: milliQ water, synthetic and real wastewater and surface water. The
- removal processes investigated were the direct photolysis with UV radiation at 254 nm, and the
- 20 advanced oxidative process (AOP) with the same UV radiation and hydrogen peroxide. As a result
- 21 of the microfluidics approach developed through an innovative experimental apparatus, full
- 22 conversion of BE was reached within a few seconds or minutes of residence time in the MCF
- depending on the process conditions adopted. The radiation dose was estimated to be approximately
- 24 5.5 J cm⁻². The innovative MCF reactor was found to be an effective tool for photochemical studies,
- especially when using highly priced, uncommon, or regulated substances. The removal efficiency

- 26 was affected by the nature of the aqueous matrix, due to the presence of different xenobiotics and
- 27 natural compounds that act primarily as HO radical scavengers and secondly as inner UV₂₅₄ filters.
- 28 Moreover, nano-liquid chromatography (LC)-high resolution-mass spectrometry analysis was
- 29 utilized to identify the main reaction transformation products, showing the formation of
- 30 hydroxylated aromatics during the photochemical treatment.

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- 38 Keywords: microcapillary film photoreactor; advanced oxidation processes; benzoylecgonine;
- 39 wastewater; surface waters; emerging micropollutants

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1. Introduction

- 42 1.1. Benzoylecgonine as an emerging pollutant
- In the last few decades, non-conventional micropollutant removal is an emerging research focus
- 44 (Asu et al., 2011; Corominas et al., 2013). The improvement in analytical technologies and the
- 45 increasing consumption of both illicit and legal drugs by the world population allowed the
- discovery and identification in wastewater effluents (WW) and surface water (SurW) of new classes
- of contaminants, such as pharmaceuticals (Zuccato et al., 2009) and personal care products (Huerta-
- 48 Fontela et al., 2008a; Bartelt-Hunt et al., 2009). Among these contaminants of emerging concern, in
- 49 the last few years, the scientific literature shows an increasing interest in substances deriving from
- 50 illicit drug consumption (Richardson et al., 2014; Richardson, 2012). These compounds reach
- wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) through the drug users' urine and faeces and then are

52 released into the environment unchanged or as metabolites (Zuccato et al., 2009; Castiglioni et al., 53 2008). The eco-toxicological effects for most of these compounds are unknown, but their potential 54 hazard cannot be excluded (Huerta-Fontela et al., 2008b; Kasprzyk-Hordern et al., 2008; Repice et 55 al., 2008). Cannabinoids, cocaine, opiates, and amphetamine-like drugs are the most used illicit 56 drugs worldwide (van Nuijs et al., 2011). Cocaine is the second most used illicit drug in Europe 57 (World Drug Report, 2012). In the human body, only 1-9% of consumed cocaine is excreted in 58 urine as the unchanged parent drug, whereas the rest of it is metabolized to benzoylecgonine (45%) 59 and ecgonine methyl ester (40%) (Castiglioni et al., 2008). Consequently, benzoylecgonine (Fig. 1) 60 is the primary metabolite of cocaine, and it was found in almost all the WW and SurW samples in 61 Europe and in other parts of the world at higher levels than its parent compound (Irvine et al., 2011; 62 Yin Lai et al., 2013). 63 Moreover, while cocaine and its metabolite ecgonine methyl ester tend to spontaneously degrade in 64 WW and SurW effluents (more or less rapidly depending on the pH and temperature), 65 benzoylecgonine (BE) concentration is almost constant or slightly increasing, due to its relative 66 stability in aqueous matrices and the partial degradation of cocaine into BE (Castiglioni et al., 2006; 67 Gheorghe et al., 2008; Castiglioni et al., 2011; van Nuijs et al., 2012). Tables S1 a-b in the 68 supplementary information section show the BE levels reported in SurW and WWTPs effluents. 69 The finding of BE in WWTPs effluents attests to the incomplete removal in conventional plants. 70 Because of its relatively high levels in the inlet, even with good removal efficiency ($\geq 80\%$), the 71 levels in the effluents are still higher than other illicit drug contaminants (Huerta-Fontela et al., 72 2008; Kasprzyk-Hordern et al., 2008; Postigo et al., 2009; Repice et al., 2013; Du et al., 2014). 73 Despite the presence of illicit drug contaminants in WW and SurW, there are only a few studies 74 addressing the eco-toxicological effects of BE on the aquatic environment. The exposure of Dreissena polymorpha (a zebra mussel) to BE concentrations of 0.5 and 1.0 μg ·L⁻¹, resulted in a 75 76 3.5 fold increase of the oxidative stress in comparison to the background level and either an

and the exposure time (Parolini et al., 2013). In addition, an increased peroxidation of lipids and protein carbonylation, DNA damage, and cellular apoptotic death were found in experiments carried out up to 14 days (Binelli et al., 2013). Even more detrimental damage cannot be excluded at longer exposure times and in concert with the effects of other WW and SurW micropollutants. The kinetic behaviour of BE during a disinfection stage for water reuse was previously investigated (Russo et al., 2016) treating contaminated milliQ water under UV₂₅₄ radiation only. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of an advanced oxidation process (AOP) with hydrogen peroxide and UV₂₅₄ radiation on the removal and transformation of BE in four different aqueous matrices: milliQ water, synthetic wastewater (SWW), real wastewater (RWW) and SurW. 1.2. Microcapillary photoreactor The degradation experiments were carried out in a novel microcapillary film (MCF) array photoreactor (Reis and Li Puma, 2015) consisting of 10 microcapillaries with a mean diameter of about 200 µm transparent to UVC light. A schematic of the reactor is reported in fig. S1 in the supplementary information section. This experimental apparatus allows the use of very small volumes of reacting solution compared to the usual batch photo-reactors, leading to economic and environmental benefits. A significant benefit is the reduction of the volume of the experimental waste solution and decreased usage of costly border controlled substances, including the adoption of illicit drugs as the tested compounds. The cost of the low power (8 W) UV lamp necessary for this kind of reactor is also very low. Moreover, as described elsewhere (Reis and Li Puma, 2015; Russo et al., 2016), the extremely small reactor volume and optical path length allows for complete conversion of the contaminant in a few seconds or a few minutes depending on the treatment adopted. This is possible as a result of the high surface/volume ratio achievable in a microcapillary reactor and high photon irradiance, which is realized even in optically thick fluids. Therefore, the MCF photoreactor represents a powerful tool for the rapid determination of photodegradation kinetics of contaminants in fluids at a laboratory scale. The wider impact of this study will be maximized by the integration of MCF with ultra-rapid analytics for the determination of

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104 transformation products of contaminants of emerging concern which are often available only in 105 minute quantities. 106 107 2. Materials and methods 108 2.1. Materials 109 Hydrogen peroxide (30% v/v), benzoylecgonine ($\geq 99\%$ w/w), acetonitrile ($\geq 99.9\%$ v/v), formic 110 acid (≥ 95% v/v), sodium hydroxide, and sulfuric acid were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The 111 milli-Q water was prepared by a Millipore Elix water purification system. 112 Synthetic wastewater was prepared following the OECD Guidelines (Organisation for Economic 113 Cooperation and Development, 1999) using milliQ water and peptone (32 ppm), meat extract (22 114 ppm), urea (6 ppm), K₂HPO₄ (28 ppm), CaCl₂·H₂O (4 ppm), NaCl (7 ppm) and Mg₂SO₄ (0.6 ppm). 115 These substances were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Real wastewater was sampled from the 116 sewage water treatment plant of Festival Drive, Loughborough, Leichestershire (UK). Surface water 117 was collected from the Grand Union Canal in the same zone. All the real water samples were

sewage water treatment plant of Festival Drive, Loughborough, Leichestershire (UK). Surface water was collected from the Grand Union Canal in the same zone. All the real water samples were filtered through Whatman nylon filters (0.45 µm), to avoid clogging of the MCF and of the high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) tubing. Furthermore, this allowed the direct evaluation of the degradation of BE in the different aqueous matrices without considering the effect of the suspended solid matter on the absorption of radiation and sorption of BE and its transformation products (TPs).

2.2. Analytical methods

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The concentrations of hydrogen peroxide and BE in the samples were evaluated by HPLC analysis. The HPLC (1100 Agilent) apparatus was equipped with a Gemini C18 (Phenomenex) reverse phase column and a diode array UV/VIS detector (λ = 232 nm). The mobile phase consisted of a mixture of formic acid aqueous solution (25 mM) (A) and acetonitrile (B) flowing at 0.6 mL min⁻¹. The following gradient was adopted: 7% B to 28% B in 9 min, to 50% B in 5 min, constant for 2 min, and then to 35.7% in 3 min, and finally returned to the initial conditions in 5 min. The retention

131 was measured with an Accumet Basic AB-10 pH-meter. A Perkin Elmer UV/VIS spectrometer 132 (Lambda 35) was used to determine the absorbance spectra of the aqueous matrices. The 133 conductivity and the total organic carbon (TOC) of the water samples were respectively measured 134 with a WPA Linton Cambridge CM35 conductivity meter and a TOC-5000A TOC analyzer 135 (Shimadzu). The nitrate and nitrite content were measured by means of ion chromatography 136 (Metrohm 761 Compact). Table 1 summarizes the main water features. 137 2.3. Experimental apparatus and procedures 2.3.1. Apparatus and treatment 138 139 The spiked solutions were prepared by adding the solid BE to each filtered aqueous matrix. The initial concentration of BE in the solutions was kept in the range $2.8 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 4.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$ mol L⁻¹. This 140 value is much greater than the usual level of BE found in RWW and SurW (Tab. S1); however, it 141 142 was necessary to keep the concentration at a higher level for a better evaluation and comparison of 143 the removal kinetics and for the identification of the transformation byproducts. 144 In order to study the degradation of BE with the UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process, a fluorinated ethylene-145 propylene (FEP-Teflon) MCF photoreactor containing 10 capillaries with a mean hydraulic diameter of 195 µm was used. The description and the validation of the microreactor has been 146 147 described in detail elsewhere (Reis and Li Puma, 2015; Russo et al., 2016). As previously reported, 148 the microreactor was coiled around a 8 W (nominal power) UV monochromatic lamp (Germicidal 149 G8T5) emitting radiation at 254 nm. The segments not coiled were covered with aluminum foil to 150 avoid UV radiation reaching these sections. Experiments were performed in continuous flow 151 through the reactor. The residence time (i.e., the reaction time) was changed by varying the length 152 of the reactor exposed to the UV₂₅₄ radiation. Samples at different residence times were collected 153 from the outlet of the MCF after reaching the steady state condition (i.e., about 5 times the reactor 154 volume processed) and rapidly analyzed. The concentration of BE in the inlet to the reactor did not vary during the experimental runs. All experiments were carried out at room temperature (~ 25 °C). 155

times of H₂O₂ and BE were 4.9 min and 13.8 min, respectively. The pH of the reacting solutions

156 It was verified that thermostatic control was not necessary because at the outlet of the reactor, the 157 temperature of the solution did not vary significantly. The pH of the reacting solutions was adjusted with dilute solutions of NaOH and H₂SO₄. At the end of each experiment, the pH of the solutions 158 159 was re-measured and the results were always close to the initial value. 160 2.3.2. Analysis of transformation products 161 Aqueous reaction mixtures and untreated controls were extracted using solid phase extraction (SPE) 162 and analyzed using LC-mass spectrometry (MS)/MS. Water samples (150 mL) were passed through 163 SPE cartridges (Waters Oasis HLB, 6cc) at a rate of approximately 5 mL/min and were eluted with 164 8 mL of methanol, in 4 mL increments, using gravity elution. The eluted solutions were stored in 165 the freezer throughout the duration of the experiments. They were either used as is or blown down using nitrogen to make a more concentrated solution. 166 167 Mass spectrometry analyses of TPs were carried out using a high resolution Thermo Orbitrap Velos 168 Pro (Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany). A nano-LC was coupled to the Orbitrap for 169 chromatographic separation. The flow rate was 0.300 µL/min. Initial conditions were 2% organic 170 (acetonitrile) and were held for 5 min. The percent organic was ramped linearly to 40% over the 171 next 10 min, then ramped linearly to 95% over the next 40 min, held at 95% for 10 min, and then 172 returned to initial conditions. The capillary voltage was 1.8 kV. The column used was a picochip 173 C18 reversed phase column (10 cm x 75 µm; 3 µm; New Objective; Woburn, MA). The injection 174 volume was 1 µL and the column temperature was held at room temperature. Full-scan and data-175 dependent acquisition (DDA) MS/MS spectra were obtained using positive ion electrospray 176 ionization (ESI). The resolution was 30,000 for full-scan MS, and 7500 for DDA. The mass range 177 was m/z 100-800. 178 A fraction containing two transformation product isomers (TP305) was also collected via 179 continuous fractionation with preparative LC-MS using a Waters 2000 series LC-mass spectrometer 180 with a C18 column and single quadrupole detector. An acetonitrile/water gradient was used, with a

times. After collection, the sample was freeze dried and dissolved in deuterated methanol (d4) and

analyzed using ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) with a Bruker Avance III-HD 400 MHz

184 NMR spectrometer.

In this study, TPs are named using a number referring to their molecular mass (e.g., TP 305 refers to

a TP with a molecular mass of 305 Da).

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3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Degradation Absorbance Characteristics

Absorbance spectra were acquired to characterize and compare the different aqueous matrices. Fig. 2a. shows the characteristic absorption peak of BE in milliQ water at the wavelength of 232 nm. No significant differences were observed in the spectra in the pH range 4-8. This was confirmed by the mean reported values of pK_{a1} and pK_{a2} of BE, that are 3.35 and 10.45, respectively (Jeanville et al., 2003; Marchi et al., 2009). The spectra of filtered SWW, RWW, and SurW are also displayed in Fig. 2b. The absorbances were nearly coincident for the real wastewater and surface water samples, whereas the synthetic wastewater showed very low absorbance at 254 nm. This can be ascribed to the higher concentration of the aromatic compounds dissolved in the real wastewater and surface water samples compared to the lower concentrations of these in the synthetic wastewater, which is also supported by the TOC data in Table 1. This difference does not significantly affect the BE removal, as further discussed, because of the different nature of the organic compounds. Control experiments performed in pH range 4-8 with direct photolysis and with the UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process showed insignificant differences in the removal of BE (data not shown). Consequently, all further experiments were run at pH = 6.0 in milliQ water and at natural pH for the other different aqueous matrices (Table 1). Moreover, no BE degradation was recorded in the presence of hydrogen peroxide ($[H_2O_2]/[BE] \sim 500$) without UV₂₅₄ radiation (data not shown).

3.2. Degradation Kinetics

Figure 3 shows the removal percentage of BE by direct UV₂₅₄ photolysis at different residence times in the MCF and with the different aqueous matrices that were examined, compared to previously published removal in milliQ water. Even though UV treatment is not often adequate for chemical removal, it is important to consider that in the case of water reuse, UV treatment is indicated as a method to reduce the presence of pathogens. During this process a contemporary transformation of chemicals cannot be excluded. The removal rate of BE in the SWW sample was slower than in milliQ water. This rate difference could be easily justified by the presence of several compounds in SWW that may act as inner filters (optical competitors absorbing part of the radiation) since the absorption of the SWW at 254 nm (Fig. 2) was slightly higher than the absorbance of milliQ represented by the zero line in the absorbance spectrum. In spite of this, as reported elsewhere (De Laurentiis et al., 2012), while the chromophoric dissolved organic matter would inhibit the direct photolysis of BE by an inner-filter effect, it could simultaneously act as a producer of oxidant species that could promote BE degradation. Therefore, the degradation of BE showed in fig. 2 must be considered as a result of the balance of the effects described above. Moreover, the BE removal percentage and rate in SurW is very close to the removal in milliQ water, whereas in RWW effluents is significantly faster. These phenomena occur despite both SurW and RWW samples having considerably greater absorbances than the milliQ water. This evidence could suggest that the inner filter effect from the dissolved species was fully or more than offset by the chemical nature of the organic compounds present in these water matrices. Specifically, the photolysis of nitrates are a supplementary source of hydroxyl radicals (Mack and Bolton, 1999) and since the nitrate content of the RWW sample was double that of the SurW sample, (Table 2), the removal of BE in the RWW water matrix could be expected to be higher than in the SurW sample (Fig. 3). This effect has also been reported for the removal of other water contaminants (Alif and Boule, 1991; Pamela et al., 1998; Goldstein and Rabani, 2008; Keen et al., 2012; Ji et al., 2012; Li

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et al., 2014; Zaviska et al., 2014). The nitrate photolysis follows the pathways below (Mack and Bolton, 1999):

$$NO_3^- \xrightarrow{h\nu} NO_2^- + \frac{1}{2} O_2$$
 (1)

$$NO_3^- \stackrel{h\nu}{\to} [NO_3^-]^* \tag{2}$$

$$[NO_3^-]^* \to NO_2^- + O(^3P)$$
 (3)

$$[NO_3^-]^* \to NO_2 + O^{\bullet -} \xrightarrow{H_2O} NO_2 + HO^{\bullet} + HO^-$$
 (4)

- HO• radicals increase the removal rate of BE in the RWW sample by oxidizing the organic contaminant (Fig. 3). The possibility that the photolysis of nitrite could contribute to the generation of hydroxyl radicals is not considered because of their negligible content compared to nitrates concentration (Tab. 1).
- Once the effects of different aqueous matrices on the indirect photolysis of BE were investigated,
 the removal of BE by UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process was studied. The photolysis of the H₂O₂ molecule, with
 radiation at 254 nm, yields two strongly reactive HO[•] radicals. The reaction pathways can be
 exemplified as follow:

$$H_2 O_2 \stackrel{h\nu}{\to} 2HO^{\bullet} \tag{5}$$

$$BE + HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow Primary intermediates$$
 (6)

Primary intermediates $+ H0^{\bullet} \rightarrow Secondary intermediates$ (7)

$$H0^{\bullet} + H_2O_2 \to HO_2^{\bullet} + H_2O$$
 (8)

$$2HO_2^{\bullet} \to H_2O_2 + O_2 \tag{9}$$

$Scavengers + HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow By - products$ (10)

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Reaction (10) describes the scavenging effect of the organic compounds naturally or artificially present in the water. This reaction was not considered for the process in milliQ water due to the absence of organic contaminants. However, HO^o radical production via reactions 1-4 was considered where necessary. Mack and Bolton (1999) report that, using UV and nitrate, hydroxyl radical generation is not as efficient as the HO[•] production with hydrogen peroxide. The reduced UV/nitrate efficiency is due to the nitrate's low hydroxyl radical quantum yield in the 250 nm to 350 nm range compared to the quantum yield of direct photolysis of hydrogen peroxide $\Phi_{254}^{H_2O_2} =$ 0.5 mol ein⁻¹ (Nicole et al., 1990). Consequently reaction (5) is faster than (4) in the presence of nitrates in the water. Fig. 4 displays the effect of different [H₂O₂]_o/[BE]_o ratios on the removal efficiency in milliQ water, where [H₂O₂]_o and [BE]_o are respectively the initial concentrations of hydrogen peroxide and BE. Higher [H₂O₂]_o/[BE]_o ratios resulted in greater percentages of removal. Fig. 5 shows the BE percentage of removal at different [H₂O₂]_o/[BE]_o ratios for the four types of water matrices at three significant reaction times. However, the gain in the removal percentage gradually lessens with increased [H₂O₂]_o/[BE]_o ratio, such that the removal degree at a fixed reaction time reached a plateau for all aqueous matrices investigated (Fig. 5). In effect, an increase of the relative hydrogen peroxide concentration results also in increased rate of reaction (8) so that a smaller than expected amount of hydroxyl radicals is effective in the degradation. The high [H₂O₂]_o/[BE]_o ratios adopted in this experiment can be justified because in real wastewater samples collected worldwide, BE is just one of many micropollutants found in effluents and in surface waters. A greater hydrogen peroxide concentration may be necessary for efficient degradation of these different mixtures of xenobiotics normally present in water bodies.

A comparison of the time scale of UV₂₅₄ direct photolysis against UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ removal of BE 265 shows significantly different characteristic kinetics of the two processes. The UV₂₅₄ radiation 266 treatment (Fig. 3) requires up to two orders of magnitude longer time for the degradation of BE 267 268 compared to the UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process (Fig. 4). The difference in magnitude suggests that direct 269 photolysis is a negligible process during the AOPs and that it would be highly inefficient on its own 270 for BE degradation. 271 As shown in Fig. 5, BE removal is higher in milliQ water once all of the operating conditions are 272 standardized between the different aqueous matrices. This phenomenon is due to the absence of 273 organic molecules acting as scavengers of hydroxyl radicals. However, the presence of scavengers 274 alone cannot justify the differences in rates between RWW effluent and natural SurW. The rate 275 differences can be related to the balance between the contrasting effects of reactions 1-4. In almost 276 all of the experiments, the removal percentages in RWW samples are slightly but significantly 277 higher than in SurW. Similarly to what was reported for direct photolysis, this last evidence is in 278 agreement with RWW having a higher nitrate concentration with respect to SurW since the 279 absorbance of the two aqueous matrices is comparable (Fig 2). 280 3.3. Transformation Products 281 Several transformation products (TPs) resulting from UV photolysis and UV/H₂O₂ treatment of BE 282 were observed. These products increased in abundance with increasing reaction time, and they were 283 tentatively identified using their accurate masses (Orbitrap-MS) and MS/MS fragmentation. Fig. 6 284 shows some of the most prominent TPs found in UV/H₂O₂ reactions of BE, in which 40% of BE 285 was degraded (~ 0.5 s reaction time). These products were also present at 90% and 100% 286 degradation of BE, as well as in samples treated with UV only. 287 Three of these TPs (TP 305a, 305b, and 305c, fig. 6a) appear to be isomers, each having an 288 observed accurate mass of m/z 306.1348 (as the (M+H)⁺ ion), and eluting at 20.56, 21.18, and 23.05 289 min, respectively. Their accurate mass suggests a molecular formula of C₁₆H₁₉NO₅ (theoretical 290 mass of m/z of 306.1336). These TPs are likely monohydroxylated isomers, meta-, para-, and ortho291 hydroxybenzoylecgonine. The MS/MS product ion spectra support these structural assignments. At 292 a CE of 40 eV, two distinct fragments (m/z 168.1023 and 121.0287, fig. 7) matched viable 293 fragmentation on the two bonds on either side of the ester oxygen (theoretical m/z of 168.1024 and 294 121.0289, respectively, for these two fragment ions). In particular, the m/z 121.0287 fragment ion, 295 with a formula of $C_7H_5O_2$ indicates that hydroxyl radical addition occurs on the benzene ring, 296 which is consistent with UV and UV/H₂O₂ chemistry (Andreozzi et al., 2003). 297 Two of these TPs were isolated using preparative LC-MS, and NMR data supported the assignment 298 of the ortho- and para-hydroxylated TPs. Despite low levels collected from these reaction mixtures, 299 there was strong evidence for the ortho-hydroxy-BE [H6 d (J = 5.5 Hz), δ = 8.208 ppm; H4 m, δ = 7.740 ppm; H3 d (J = 8.04 Hz), δ = 7.630 ppm; H5 t (J = 8.04 Hz), δ = 7.478 ppm]. The para-300 301 hydroxy-BE assignment was also suggested by NMR data [H2,6 broad singlet, $\delta = 7.831$ ppm; H3,5 302 broad singlet $\delta = 7.207$ ppm], but it was not as definitive, due to lower levels of this TP isolated 303 relative to the ortho isomer. These TPs were also reported as by-products formed during two solar 304 photocatalytic treatments (TiO₂ photocatalysis and photo-Fenton) of cocaine in water (Postigo et al. 305 2011). 306 TP 321 was observed at m/z 322.1300 ((M+H)⁺ ion). This TP is likely dihydroxybenzoylecgonine, 307 which has a theoretical m/z of 322.1285 for the $(M+H)^+$ ion. This TP eluted at 19.36, 21.84 min, and 308 25.12 min, and likely has both hydroxyl substituents on the benzene ring, consistent with TP 305a, 309 305b, and 305c, and consistent with hydroxyl radical chemistry. It is currently not known which 310 isomer this TP represents (6 isomers are possible). MS/MS data provide evidence that the three 311 chromatographic peaks in Fig. 6B indicate three isomers of dihydroxybenzoylecgonine, all of which 312 have the two hydroxyl substituents on the aromatic ring. When the TP was fragmented using CID 313 (27 eV), the resulting fragmentation pattern matches the half of the parent molecule with the 314 bridged ring and no evidence of the hydroxyl groups. The half with the aromatic ring (and hydroxyl 315 groups) breaks off as a neutral molecule and is not observed by the detector. Three chromatographic 316 peaks for TP 321 were seen in the MS/MS data, and all of them yielded the same fragmentation

pattern as discussed above. Work continues to identify other less predominant TPs, as well as to collect additional individual TP fractions (using preparative-LC-MS) for nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analysis and confirmation of proposed chemical structures. NMR is particularly helpful for determining substituent positions, and can aid in the identification of specific isomers for TPs for cases where MS spectra are not definitive (Wendel et al., 2014; Luft et al., 2014). Further chemical characterization of transformation products will be done using 2-dimensional NMR spectroscopy on transformation products isolated with preparative-LC, and further mass spectrometry analyses will be performed using targeted MS/MS on selected degradation products.

4. Conclusions

- The microfluidics approach adopted in this study allowed a full investigation on the removal of benzoylecgonine by photolysis and the UV₂₅₄/H₂O₂ process using minute quantities (100 mg) of this border controlled substance.
- Benzoylecgonine, the primary human urinary metabolite of cocaine, was efficiently removed by

 UV₂₅₄ photolysis coupled with H₂O₂ in a microcapillary film photoreactor at approximately neutral

 pH. The removal efficiency was affected by the nature of the aqueous matrix.
- Mass spectrometry analyses showed a significant decrease of benzoylecgonine and subsequent increase in transformation products. The potential toxicity of these compounds is as yet unknown.

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Water matrix	pН	Conductivity (μS)	TOC (ppm)	Nitrates (mg/L)	Nitrites (mg/L)
MilliQ	6.0	2.5	0.248	1.0	0
sww	6.0	80	20.79	1.0	0
RWW	7.6	960	43.25	52.4	0,17
SurW	7.8	930	46.37	25.8	0,04

Tab. 1. Measured parameters of different aqueous matrices. MilliQ (milliQ water); SWW (synthetic wastewater); RWW (real wastewater); SurW (surface water).

Fig. 1. Molecular structures of cocaine and benzoylecgonine.

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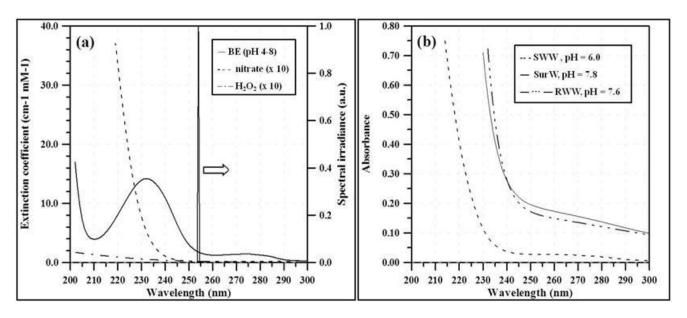


Fig. 2.

Fig. 2a. Extinction coefficient of BE, nitrate and hydrogen peroxide in milliQ water and spectra irradiance of the UV_{254} lamp.

Fig. 2b. Absorbance of the different aqueous matrices.

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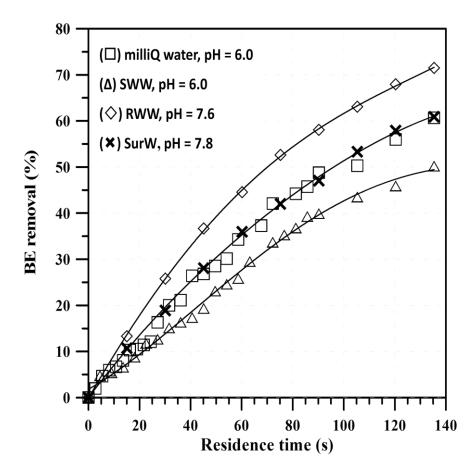


Fig. 3. Removal degree of BE through direct photolysis process. Effect of aqueous matrix. SWW (Synthetic Waste Water) – RWW (Real Waste Water) – SurW (Surface Water). (MilliQ Water, pH = 6.0, data from Russo et al., 2015).

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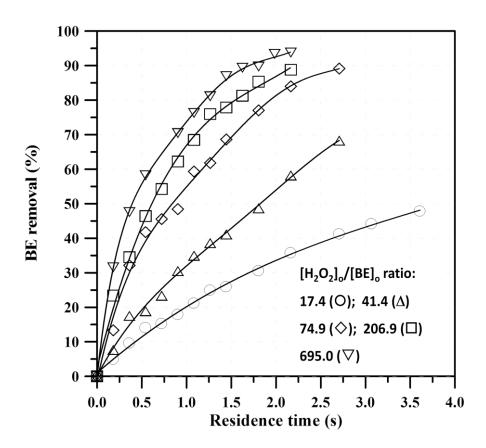


Fig. 4. Removal degree of BE through UV_{254}/H_2O_2 process in milliQ water: effect of $[H_2O_2]_o/[BE]_o$ ratio at pH = 6.0.

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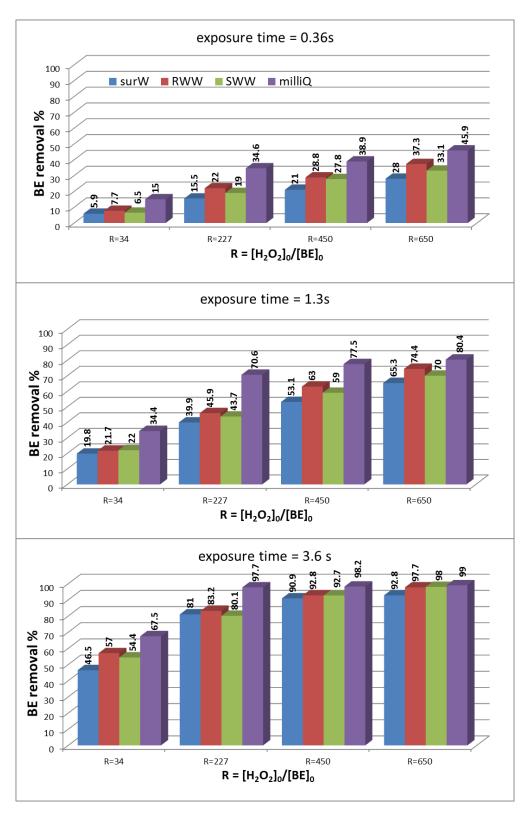


Fig. 5. BE removal degree in different aqueous matrices at various $[H_2O_2]_o/[BE]_o$ ratios and contact time during UV/H_2O_2 treatment.

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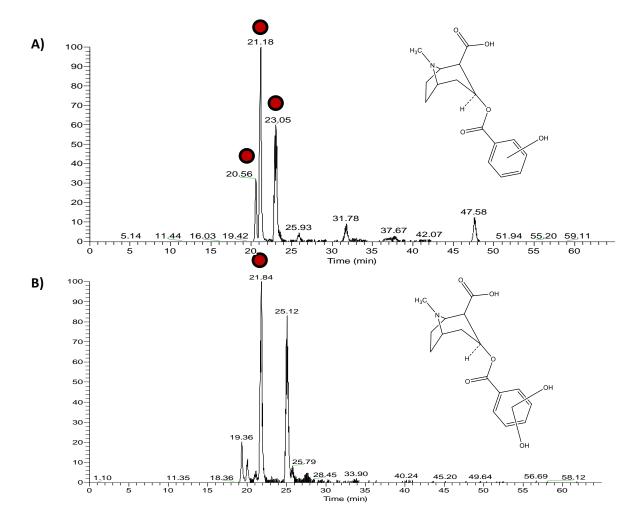


Fig. 6. Extracted ion LC-MS chromatograms for: A) TP 305a, TP 305b, and TP 305c; and B) TP 321, resulting from UV/H_2O_2 reactions with BE (~ 0.5 s reaction time, 40% degradation of BE).

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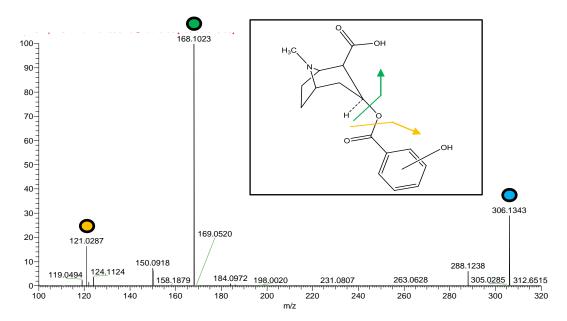


Fig. 7. Product ion MS/MS spectrum of m/z 306.1343 ((M+H)⁺ ion of TP 305) with proposed fragmentation sites.

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Supplementary data (figure and tables) Click here to download Electronic Supplementary Material (for online publication only): supplementary data.docx