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Reference:

Been Frederic, Lai Foon Yin, Covaci Adrian, van Nuijs Alexander.- Evaluating substance use via wastewater analysis : an overview of analytical workflows
LC-GC North America: Special Issues - 35:10(2017), p. 14-20

1 **Evaluating substance use via wastewater analysis: an overview of analytical workflows**

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9
10 **Abstract**

11 From an epidemiological perspective, evaluating substance use (e.g. illicit drugs, alcohol, and tobacco)
12 at the population level is a crucial aspect for the assessment of public health. Yet, currently used survey-
13 based methods are subject to various limitations. Recently, wastewater analysis, known also as
14 wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE), has become an established approach for retrieving additional
15 epidemiological information. The added value of WBE to monitor illicit drug use in Europe has been
16 recognised and adopted by the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction since 2011.
17 WBE relies on the analysis of human metabolites (biomarkers) in urban wastewater to monitor and
18 back-estimate substance (ab)use in the studied populations. Biomarkers of interest are typically
19 identified and quantified with target analytical strategies using liquid chromatography coupled to
20 tandem mass spectrometry. However, high resolution and accurate mass spectrometry is also employed
21 in WBE as the most suitable technique to perform suspect and non-target screening for emerging
22 substances, such as new psychoactive substances and their metabolites, in wastewater and public
23 urinals. This article presents an overview of the recent analytical framework and workflows for target
24 and suspect analyses using low and high resolution mass spectrometry and discusses the latest advances
25 in WBE. Finally, future perspectives and developments are shortly discussed.

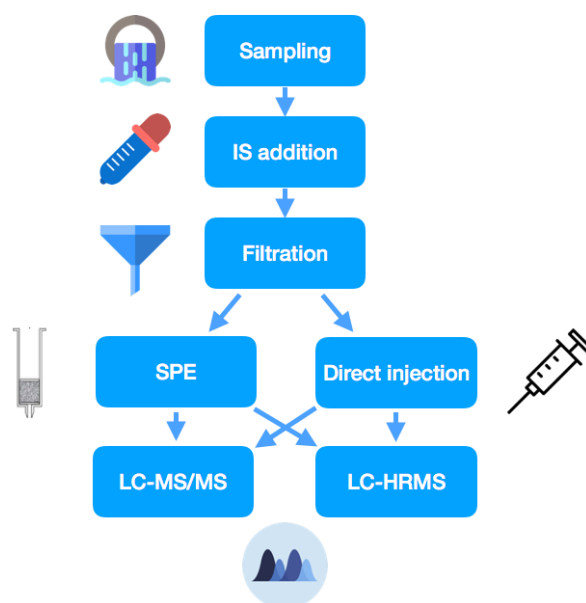
27 Consumption of illicit drugs is a global health issue which affects millions worldwide, with figures
28 suggesting that as many as 29.5 million people are affected by drug-related disorders (1). There is thus
29 an urgent need to implement fast, objective and evidence-based monitoring tools to better measure the
30 extent of the phenomenon and assess the effectiveness of related drug policies (2). Commonly, illicit
31 drug monitoring makes use of various indicators (e.g., general population surveys, treatment demands,
32 police statistics and medical records) to estimate the prevalence of drug use. Yet these indicators suffer
33 from various limitations which prevent obtaining a complete picture of the situation. In particular, they
34 do not allow obtaining an estimate of the actual amounts of illicit drugs which are being consumed, nor
35 do they allow to easily estimate the contribution of heavy drug users. In an attempt to overcome these
36 limitations, an approach referred to as “wastewater-based epidemiology” (WBE) has been developed
37 and implemented in the last decade (3). The WBE approach relies on the measurement of human
38 metabolites of illicit drugs in wastewater samples collected at the influent of wastewater treatment
39 plants (WWTP). Analogously to urine testing, types and levels of metabolites found in wastewater
40 reflect the type and amount of illicit drugs consumed by the sampled community. Since its first
41 application, WBE has seen an astonishing development, both in terms of the extent of locations
42 monitored (4) and the analytical technologies implemented (5).

43 Conventional illicit drugs, such as cocaine, amphetamine-type stimulants (ATS, such as amphetamine,
44 methamphetamine, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA)), heroin and cannabis, and their
45 urinary metabolites have been monitored in multiple locations across the world. Beyond conventional
46 drugs, novel psychoactive substances (NPS), such as synthetic cathinones and phenethylamines, have
47 also been the target of various studies (6,7). NPS represent an ever growing group of substances
48 designed to mimic the effect of conventional drugs such as MDMA or cannabis (8). However, because
49 their structure differs from that of controlled substances, they can be sold legally (mainly online) until
50 they are detected and added to the list of scheduled chemicals. Currently, almost 700 NPS are being
51 monitored, yet their number has been increasing in recent years (9) and measuring the prevalence of
52 use of these compounds is extremely difficult. This is mainly because new substances are being
53 continuously introduced and users, upon which rely many of the monitoring systems (e.g., household
54 surveys), rarely know which substance they have been actually using. Two additional groups of
55 substances have also been the target of WBE studies, namely pharmaceuticals with potential for abuse
56 (e.g., benzodiazepines) and opiates (e.g., morphine, methadone, oxycodone, fentanyl) (10–12).

57 Wastewater is however a complex matrix containing thousands of compounds deriving from human
58 metabolism, personal care products, household appliances, industrial processes and environmental
59 runoff (e.g., agriculture). Furthermore, whilst some analytes can be measured in the high ng/L or even
60 µg/L range (i.e., benzoylecgonine and methamphetamine), and can thus be analysed by direct injection,
61 others are present in much lower concentrations and require laborious sample preparation strategies
62 (e.g., opiates, NPSs). This requires furthermore the use of highly sensitive and selective methods.
63 Moreover, because of a large number of target compounds, methods are needed to allow the robust,
64 accurate and simultaneous analysis of multiple compounds. The present paper aims at providing an

65 overview of sample preparation and instrumental techniques used in the field of WBE to process and
66 analyse wastewater samples (Figure 1).

67



68

69 Figure 1: Scheme of the procedures used to analyse metabolites of illicit drugs in WBE.

70

71 **Sample preparation**

72 Sampling

73 Wastewater sampling plays a crucial role in WBE as it directly influences the representativeness of the
74 collected samples and, consequently, the validity of the obtained estimates of illicit drug use (13).
75 Sampling is generally carried out using automated samplers installed at the influent of a WWTP. These
76 can be programmed to collect wastewater at fixed intervals (i.e., time-proportional sampling) or as a
77 function of the flow or volume of wastewater (i.e., flow- or volume-proportional sampling, respectively)
78 (14). Incorrect sampling approaches can have a significant influence on the total uncertainty of WBE
79 and, even when working in ideal conditions (i.e., flow-proportional sampling (14)), errors in the final
80 estimate ranging from 5% to 10% can be expected (15).

81

82 Sample preparation

83 After collection, samples are generally immediately frozen to ensure the stability of the analytes during
84 storing and transport. Once received in the laboratory, samples are thawed, spiked with mass labelled
85 internal standards and then filtered (e.g., glass microfiber filters with 1.6 μm pore size) (16) and/or
86 centrifuged (17), as wastewater contains large amounts of suspended matter (18). The latter is generally
87 not analysed in WBE due to logistic reasons (i.e., long sample preparation procedures involving
88 filtration, drying, homogenisation and multiple cycles of pressurized liquid extraction (19)) and because
89 sorption is expected to be limited due to the polarity of the target analytes. Yet, for more lipophilic
90 compounds, adsorption onto particulate matter has been shown to be substantial. For instance, in the
91 case of methadone and its major metabolite 2-ethylidene-1,5-dimethyl-3,3-diphenyl-pyrrolidine

92 (EDDP), 11-20% and 21-50% of the total concentration found in wastewater is adsorbed onto
93 suspended matter, respectively (20).

94 Following filtration of wastewater samples, two approaches are most commonly implemented, namely
95 direct injection or offline solid-phase extraction (SPE). In the first case, no further processing of the
96 samples is applied and these are directly analysed using liquid chromatography coupled to tandem (LC-
97 MS/MS) or high-resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) (21). Large-volume injection, with injected
98 sample volumes of 1800 μ L, has also been reported (22).

99 However, since some compounds, such as synthetic opiates (e.g., fentanyl and substitutes) and NPS,
100 are present in particularly low concentrations, a pre-concentration step is necessary. SPE has been
101 carried out mainly offline, using sample volumes ranging from 10 mL to 500 mL, although successful
102 analysis of illicit drug metabolites in wastewater using online SPE and sample volumes of only 5 mL
103 have been reported (23). Various types of sorbents have been contemplated, as shown in Table 1, yet,
104 because most illicit drugs are weak bases, ion-exchange and, in particular, mixed reversed-phase cation-
105 exchange sorbents have been most commonly used (24). Reversed-phase sorbents have also been
106 contemplated, in particular because these provide improved recovery for 11-nor-9-carboxy-delta-9-
107 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC-COOH), one of the metabolites of the active ingredient in cannabis,
108 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) (Table 1). Furthermore, because these sorbents are universal (25), they are
109 generally preferred for suspect and non-targeted screening approaches (6). The use of molecularly
110 imprinted polymers (MIPs) has also been reported, yet applications were limited to ATS (26). The
111 authors nevertheless reported excellent results in terms of recovery, matrix effects, accuracy and
112 precision.

113 SPE and direct injection have been commonly used in combination with LC-MS/MS, since the main
114 objective is to obtain optimum conditions in terms of recovery and matrix effect, thus providing the
115 highest sensitivity for a selected number of compounds. In the specific case of (targeted or unknown)
116 screening approaches, however, sample preparation plays a crucial role. Particularly because the use of
117 more selective pre-concentration protocols based on cation-exchange SPE sorbents will limit the
118 universality of the screening approaches, whilst some analytes could potentially not be detected via
119 direct injection because of their low concentrations. In this situation, researchers have often opted for
120 using universal reversed-phase sorbents (6), which allow the recovery of a broader range of chemicals.

121

122 Table 1: Example of SPE sorbents used to extract illicit drugs from wastewater samples. Recovery data
 123 taken from (16).

Considered SPE sorbents	Oasis MCX	Oasis HLB	PLRPs	SupelMIP Amphetamine	Strata XC	UCT x RDAH
Description	Mixed-mode cation exchange	Hydrophilic-lipophilic balance	Cross-linked styrene-divinylbenzene copolymer	Molecularly imprinted polymer	Mixed-mode strong cation mixed mode	Mixed-mode Ion Exchange
Compounds	Recoveries [%]					
Cocaine	91 - 102	86 - 121	59	-	56 - 100	-
Benzoylcegonine	87 - 107	40 - 100	8	-	53 - 85	57
Amphetamine	10 - 110	70 - 96	15	90	63 - 63	-
Methamphetamine	65 - 99	80 - 96	20	75	80	83
MDMA	86 - 102	84 - 125	27	98	52 - 60	88
Morphine	75 - 107	29 - 83	14	-	4 - 65	-
6-monoacetylmorphine	90 - 139	85 - 90	21	-	100	-
Methadone	97 - 112	44 - 100	-	-	55	-
EDDP	38 - 88	68 - 68	-	-	59	-
THC-COOH	51 - 68	67 - 96	-	-	-	-

124
 125 **Chromatographic approaches**
 126 Liquid chromatography hyphenated to mass spectrometry has by far been the most common
 127 instrumental technique used to detect and quantify illicit drug residues in wastewater. High performance
 128 liquid chromatograph (HPLC) or ultra-high performance chromatography (UHPLC) equipped with
 129 reverse-phase (RP) chromatographic columns have been generally used. Water, ammonium formate or
 130 acetate (1- 50 mM) acidified with formic or acetic acid (0.05-0.1%) have commonly been used as
 131 aqueous phases, whilst methanol or acetonitrile as organic phases (24). Some applications using
 132 hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC) have also been reported (27,28), which
 133 provided better retention for more polar compounds, such as ecgonine methyl ester (a metabolite of
 134 cocaine), poorly retained on RP columns. Enantiomeric analysis has also been reported in the field of
 135 WBE (29). In particular, authors contemplated the possibility of using chiral columns, operated under
 136 isocratic conditions and using different modifiers (e.g., 10% propanol and 1 mM ammonium acetate),
 137 to separate and quantify the enantiomeric fractions of various classes of illicit drugs and
 138 pharmaceuticals (30–32). These studies allowed to discern consumption from the direct disposal of
 139 unused drugs (in particular for MDMA, which is preferentially excreted as *R*-enantiomer whilst it is
 140 synthesised as racemate (32)), obtain clues about their potency and synthesis route (31).

141

142 Mass spectrometry

143 *Tandem mass spectrometry*

144 Tandem mass spectrometry has by far been the most common mass analyser implemented in WBE
145 studies, in particular because of its higher sensitivity compared to high resolution approaches. In
146 particular, triple quadrupole (QqQ) and quadrupole-linear ion trap (QLIT) mass spectrometers have
147 been used to analyse illicit drug residues in wastewater. These were generally operated in multiple
148 reaction monitoring (MRM, Figure 1), providing both sensitivity and selectivity through the monitoring
149 of at least two specific transitions. Electrospray (ESI), operated both in positive and negative modes,
150 was used for ionisation of illicit drugs in WBE applications; other techniques such as atmospheric
151 pressure chemical ionisation (APCI) have not been contemplated. LC-MS/MS has been commonly used
152 to monitor consumption of conventional drugs (e.g., cocaine, ATS, heroin, cannabis), but also for more
153 recent NPS such as synthetic cathinones and phenethylamines (7,33,34). Examples of common limits
154 of quantitation are reported in Table 2.

155

156 Table 2: Range of method quantitation limits [ng L^{-1}] reported for conventional illicit drugs (16) and
157 NPS (7,33,34).

	Target compound	Reported method quantitation limit (ranges) [ng L^{-1}]
Conventional illicit drugs	Cocaine	0.2 - 20
	Benzoyllecgonine	0.2 - 20
	Amphetamine	1 - 20
	Methamphetamine	0.4 - 20
	MDMA	0.5 - 20
	Morphine	4 - 20
	6-acetylmorphine	3 - 20
	Methadone	0.3 - 50
	EDDP	0.7 - 20
	THC-COOH	2 - 100
Novel psychoactive substances	Methoxetamine	0 - 0
	Butylone	0.2 - 2
	Ethylone	0.6 - 2
	Methylone	0.05 - 2
	Methiopropamine	2
	PMMA	2
	PMA	2

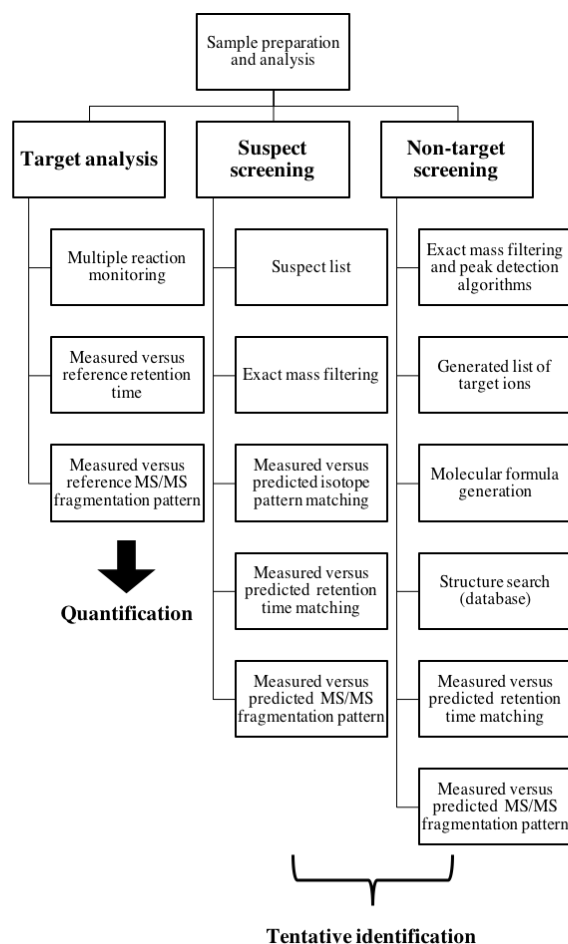
158

159 *High-resolution mass spectrometry*

160 The implementation of LC-MS/MS is however limited by the availability of certified reference
161 standards which, in the particular case of NPS, are rarely available. In fact, the ever growing number of

162 NPS detected makes it impossible for manufacturers and laboratories to have reference standards of the
163 newest compounds available.

164 High-resolution mass spectrometry is thus an extremely appealing approach to tentatively screen for
165 these compounds in wastewater and thus detect and highlight their potential consumption. In fact, the
166 possibility of acquiring accurate mass full spectra opens the way for conducting screening studies to
167 detect illicit drugs, in particular NPS, their metabolites and transformation products as well as to
168 elucidate unknowns (5). Furthermore, the possibility of performing retrospective analyses allows
169 determining if specific chemicals were present in previously analysed samples, opening the way to
170 conduct longitudinal studies. Specific workflows based on mass filtering and peak detection algorithms,
171 molecular formula determination, isotope pattern matching, database comparison, retention time
172 prediction and MS/MS fragmentation pattern matching have been developed and implemented for
173 suspect and non-target screening approaches in the field of WBE (35,36) (Figure 1). In particular
174 Quadrupole-TOF (QTOF-MS) and linear ion trap Orbitrap (LIT-Orbitrap) mass spectrometers have
175 been implemented in WBE studies (5). The main advantage of these instruments lies in the possibility
176 of conducting MS/MS experiments for data on product-ion spectra. The obtained data is highly useful
177 during the tentative identification process, in particular for structure elucidation. Whilst MS/MS
178 experiments can be carried out in data-dependent (DDA) and data-independent acquisition (DIA), the
179 former was generally preferred in WBE studies (6,37,38), as it reduces the load of data needing to be
180 processed. Yet, it also increases the risk of missing relevant compounds which fall beneath the selected
181 thresholds. However, regardless of the selected acquisition mode, methods need to undergo qualitative
182 validation and, in particular, need to be tested on their ability to detect target compound at the
183 established concentrations.



184

185 Figure 2: Scheme of workflows commonly implemented in target analysis, suspect and non-target
 186 screening approaches for WBE applications.

187

188 *Screening for new psychoactive substances in wastewater*

189 Detecting and identifying trace level compounds in a complex matrix such as wastewater has been
 190 shown to be a nontrivial task. This is particularly important for NPS, whose lifetime on the market is
 191 relatively short (few months to 1-2 years from introduction into the market until they are detected and
 192 banned). Individual substances will thus have a limited number of users and concentrations in
 193 wastewater will consequently be extremely low, further complicating the task of analysts trying to
 194 detect, identify and inform public health officials about the consumption of specific NPS. Recently,
 195 researchers active in the field of WBE have contemplated an alternative matrix to gain information
 196 about consumption of NPS, namely pooled urine samples collected from urinals (disposed in public
 197 spaces or at festivals). The main advantage of this matrix, compared to wastewater, is that target
 198 compounds are expected to be present in substantially higher concentrations. In one study, the authors
 199 optimized both sample preparation protocols and instrumental conditions for various groups of
 200 substances (i.e., general and basic drugs, as well as synthetic cannabinoids screening) (39). The analysis
 201 was carried out using an LIT-Orbitrap system and, in addition to full scan MS, MS/MS and MSⁿ
 202 experiments, allowed to tentatively identify 13 different NPS in samples collected over the course of 6
 203 months. Amongst these were methiopropamine, 1,4-trifluoromethylphenylpiperazine, 4-methyl-

204 buphedrone, methcathinone, ethyl-methcathinone, and 1,4-methoxyphenylpiperazine. Following a
205 similar strategy, researchers also implemented a suspect screening approach, involving an in-house data
206 base containing approximately 2000 entries, to identify NPS in wastewater samples collected during a
207 major public event (6). The authors reported the (tentative) identification of 8 NPS, ranging from
208 identification level 1 to 3 on the scale proposed by Schymanski et al. (40). LC-HRMS has also been
209 used to elucidate transformation products of NPS in wastewater. In particular, the use of a hybrid
210 quadrupole-Orbitrap system to identify microbial transformation products of methylenedioxy-
211 pyrovalerone (MDPV) has been reported (41). Through the interpretation of HR-MS² spectra the
212 authors were able to tentatively identify 12 transformation products as well as their biotransformation
213 pathways (i.e., demethylation followed by *O*-methylation, hydroxylation followed by oxidation or
214 methylation, *N*-demethylation and hydroxylation).

215

216 **Perspectives**

217 Whilst most applications of WBE focused on obtaining information about the consumption of illicit
218 drugs, the potential information contained in wastewater is not limited to these substances. Recent
219 studies have explored other applications of WBE which encompass various aspects related to lifestyle.
220 For instance, the analysis of nicotine and its metabolites (42,43) as well as other tobacco alkaloids (i.e.,
221 anatabine and anabasine) (44) in wastewater to monitor the use of tobacco has been reported by various
222 groups. Sample preparation protocols similar to illicit drugs, namely SPE using mixed-mode cation-
223 exchange sorbents (43,44) or direct injection (42), were developed and analyses were carried out using
224 LC-MS/MS systems. A comprehensive method was recently developed to analyse a broad range of
225 tobacco-related compounds, including nicotine metabolites, alkaloids, toxicants and carcinogens (i.e.,
226 *N*-nitrosoanabasine, *N*-nitrosoanatabine, 4-(methyl-nitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK) and
227 *N*-nitrosonornicotine (NNN)) and their metabolites (4-(methyl-nitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanol
228 (NNAL)), for epidemiological purposes (45). The authors optimized the extraction protocol after testing
229 various types of sorbents including mixed mode reversed-phase cation and anion exchangers,
230 hydrophilic-lipophilic balanced sorbents and MIPs. Best results were obtained with mixed mode cation
231 exchange cartridges.

232 Consumption of alcohol has also recently been monitored through wastewater analysis. This is achieved
233 through the analysis of phase-II metabolites of ethanol, namely ethyl sulfate (EtS) and ethyl glucuronide
234 (EtG). Analyses were performed by direct injection however, because of the low retention of EtS and
235 EtG on reversed-phase columns, various ion-pairing agents have been used. In one case, authors added
236 dihexylammonium acetate (7 mM) to the mobile phases (i.e., water and methanol) (46), whilst in
237 another study 50 mM tetrabutylammonium bromide were added directly to the sample (47). In one study,
238 however, authors reported the use of a reversed-phase column with 0.1% acetic acid in water and
239 acetonitrile as mobile phases, without any particular sample preparation (48).

240 Pharmaceuticals with a potential for recreational use or abuse (e.g., oxycodone, fentanyl, ketamine and
241 benzodiazepines) have also been the target of various WBE studies (49–51). Protocols using reversed-

242 phase SPE cartridges and LC-MS/MS or LC-HRMS were developed and levels ranging from < LOQ
243 (i.e., diazepam (49)) to 2.4 µg/L (i.e., tramadol (50)) have been measured, highlighting the widespread
244 use of some substances. The analysis of phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors (i.e., sildenafil, vardenafil,
245 and tadalafil) in wastewater and sludge has also been reported (52). Authors developed a method based
246 on SPE (i.e., reversed-phase hydrophilic-lipophilic balance) and pressurized liquid extraction (for
247 sludge samples) followed by LC-MS/MS analysis. Recoveries ranged from 45% to 103%, whilst
248 measured levels were between 10-50 ng/L and 3-10 ng/g in wastewater and sludge, respectively.
249 Following the results of this study, another group used measured levels of sildenafil and its metabolites
250 in wastewater to assess the extent of illicit consumption of erectile dysfunction medications in the
251 Netherlands (53).

252 Another field in which WBE has recently been implemented is the monitoring of human health, in
253 particular through the measurement of (endogenous) biomarkers of effect or disease and biomarkers of
254 exposure (54,55). Regarding the first group of biomarkers, the development of a method to measure
255 oxidative stress biomarker 8-iso-prostaglandin F₂α (8-iso-PGF_{2α}) was recently reported (56).
256 Instead of conventional sample preparation using SPE, the authors used an immunoaffinity clean-up
257 step. Whilst recoveries were lower compared to conventional SPE sorbents (i.e., anion exchange and
258 reversed-phase sorbents), almost no matrix effects were. Analyses were carried by LC-QTOF-MS and
259 method quantitation limits of 0.3 ng/L were reported.

260

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