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Rapid analysis of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in tap water and drinks by
 ionic liquid dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction coupled to ultra-high
 performance supercritical fluid chromatography

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7 Abstract:

A novel rapid analytical method for the determination of four non-steroidal anti-inflammatorys (NSAIDs)-nabumetone, ibuprofen, naproxen and diclofenac in tap water and drinks is presented. The method is based on ultrasound-assisted ionic liquid dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (US-IL-DLLME) followed by ultra-high performance supercritical fluid chromatography (UHPSFC) coupled to photo-diode array detector (PDA). The ionic liquid 1-octyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate ($[C_8MIM][PF_6]$) and methanol were used as the extraction and dispersion solvent for the DLLME procedure other than using toxic chlorinated solvent. Plackett-Burman and Box-Behnken designs were applied as the experimental design strategies to screen and optimize the experimental variables such as volume of ionic liquid, volume of disperser solvent, sample pH, ionic strength, ultrasonic time and centrifugation time which affected the extraction efficiency. Separation conditions of UHPSFC, such as columns screening, modifiers, column temperature, back pressure and flow rate were also optimized in this study. 4 NSAIDs were simultaneously separated and determined in 2.1 minutes. The optimized US-IL-DLLME-UHPSFC-PDA method showed good enrichment factors (126-132), recoveries (81.37-107.47%) for the rapid extraction of nabumetone, ibuprofen, naproxen and diclofenac in tap water and drinks. The method limits of detection for nabumetone, ibuprofen, naproxen and diclofenac were 1.56, 7.69, 0.62, 7.37 ng mL⁻¹ with excellent linearity (R>0.9957).

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Keywords: tap water and drinks; non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; ionic liquid dispersive
 liquid-liquid microextraction; Plackett-Burman design and Box Behnken design; ultra-high
 performance supercritical fluid chromatography.

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28	1.	Introduction
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29	In recent years more and more attention has been paid toward the discharge, presence and
30	potential effects of pharmaceuticals in the water. Thousands of tons of pharmaceuticals are
31	consumed yearly to treat or prevent illnesses, or to help people relieve the stresses of modern life.
32	The discharge of pharmaceuticals from pharmaceutical factory, hospitals and private household
33	effluent produce a big burden on the environment, especially for water resource since the
34	traditional wastewater treatment plants can not eliminate them [1]. Pharmaceuticals are released
35	into the environment either as the parent compound or as active/inactive metabolites. These
36	substances have several characteristics, such as bioaccumulation which can trigger changes in
37	biological sex ratio, biogeochemical cycle and long-time exposures to the active substances can
38	cause potential risks for human health [2-8]. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are
39	a group of pharmaceutical compounds which have analgesic, antipyretic and platelet-inhibitory
40	actions [9]. A wide range of NSAIDs has been detected in surface water, ground water, sewage
41	treatment plants all over the world [10-19]. In a previous study conducted in Greece, high
42	concentrations of naproxen in Veroia with mean levels of 1.58 ng mL^{-1} were presented [17].
43	Gracia-Lor et al. found that in the influents of three wastewater treatment plants of Castellon
44	province in Spain, the concentrations of naproxen, were ranged 0.270-3.58 ng mL ⁻¹ [18]. They
45	also conducted an analysis of around forty water samples (river waters and effluent wastewaters)
46	from the Spanish Mediterranean region. Almost all 47 pharmaceuticals selected in this work were
47	detected, such as ibuprofen with the mean level of 15.1 ng mL ⁻¹ [11]. Recently, a variety of
48	NSAIDs were investigated in typical aquatic environments in the vicinity of two municipal
49	landfills in a metropolitan area of South China and ibuprofen, salicylic acid, diclofenac and

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50	indomethacin were widely present [20]. Along the Yangtze River, higher total NSAIDs
51	concentrations were found downstream the large cities [21]. Evaluation and monitoring of traces
52	of NSAIDs in different environmental matrices are imperative for human health protection and
53	environmental control.

Most of the methods for analyzing trace level NSAIDs are chromatography coupled with a sensitive detection technique MS (GC-MS or LC-MS) [22-30]. Recently, the use of supercritical fluid chromatography (SFC) for analyze NSAIDs has attracted a renewed interest. Compared to liquid chromatography, there are several advantages offered by SFC, including : (a) low viscosity of mobile phase consisted of a mixture of CO₂ and co-solvent enhancing analyte diffusion and resulting in five times higher flow rate while the pressure drop remains always low; (b) the possibility to perform green separations by reducing the dosage of toxic solvents since CO_2 is non-poisonous, inexpensive and easy to control; (c) providing a large choice of stationary phases and better kinetic performance. Therefore, SFC is characterized as a high resolution, short retention time, and green separation technology, and offers a wide range of separation modes with variable modifiers [31]. With the above mentioned advantages, SFC can meet the demand of the high throughput analysis.

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To obtain more accurate, reliable and sensitive results, a sample preparation is required prior to detection. Extraction of NSAIDs from water samples has usually been performed by solid-phase extraction (SPE) [22]. In recent years, liquid-phase microextraction (LPME) has been developed and upgraded with a number of advantages: the minimum use of solvents, low cost, simplicity, effectiveness and the excellent sample clean-up ability [32-33]. LPME can be divided into single-drop microextraction (SDME), hollow-fiber liquid phase microextraction (HF-LPME)

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72	and dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME) [32]. Much shorter extraction time was
73	required to obtain good extraction efficiencies by DLLME [34-39]. Organic solvents denser than
74	water are most frequently used as extractants because they can carry out sample phase separation
75	by the use of simple centrifugation. However, the number of such solvents is limited and most of
76	them are toxic solvents. Ionic liquids (ILs), known as "green solvents", are a group of
77	non-molecular solvents that can be defined as organic salts that remain in a liquid state at room
78	temperature. These solvents possess several unique physicochemical properties, such as high
79	density, low volatility and high thermal stability [40-43]. The ultrasound treatment is also used to
80	aid the process of dispersion [44], which enhances the formation of the fine cloudy solution,
81	speeds up the mass transfer between sample and extraction phases, and reduces the equilibrium
82	time. Due to the advantages based on the above-mentioned extraction technique, some
83	applications of IL-US-DLLME (ultrasound-assisted ionic liquid dispersive liquid-liquid
84	microextraction) have been reported [45-46].
85	Several experimental designs have been very popular in the development and the
86	optimization of the process variables on sample preparations [47-51]. Among the experimental
87	design methodologies, Plackett-Burman design (PBD) employs a design which allows testing the
88	largest number of effective factors with the least number of observations [47-49] Quadratic

design methodologies, Plackett-Burman design (PBD) employs a design which allows testing the largest number of effective factors with the least number of observations [47-49]. Quadratic polynomial models have been considered as the most appropriate solution for building response surface to predict the optimized [50]. The prime advantage of response surface methodology is the ability to acquire useful information about the system by conducting a minimal number of experiments without prior knowledge of the composition or physicochemical properties of the tested sample. Box-Behnken design (BBD) is a second-order model correlating the response

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94 function with the independent factors with three replicates at the central points to estimate the pure 95 error. The response variable was fitted by a second-order model in the form of quadratic 96 polynomial equation:

$$y = b_o + \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_{ii} X_i + \sum_{i=1}^{i < j} \sum_{j} b_{ij} X_i X_j$$

Where k is the number of variables, b_o is the constant term, b_i , b_{ii} and b_{ij} represent the coefficient of the first order terms, quadratic terms and interaction terms, respectively. Box-Behnken design as a quadratic response surface was useful in modeling and optimizing the effective parameters on extraction procedure.

Much attention has been paid to NSAIDs studied in studying wastewater treatment plants and surface water which have already shown quite high concentration levels. In the previous work conducted by our lab [52], salicylic acid with the detection levels of 2.85 ng mL⁻¹ was detected in tap water and 61.22 ng mL⁻¹ in soda. So it is really necessary to investigate other NSAIDs in drinking water. The present study reports the use of IL 1-octyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluoro phosphate as the solvent to extract four NSAIDs (Naproxen, diclofenac, ibuprofen and nabumetone) by US-IL-DLLME in tap water and beverage. We have applied Plackett-Burman design (PBD) and Box-Behnken design (BBD) for optimizing different experimental conditions on extraction, such as volume of ionic liquid and dispersive solvent, sample pH, salt effect and extraction time. The ultimate aim of this new inspection was to verify the main factors and their interaction effects. Therefore, the effects of the major factors such as volume of ionic liquid, volume of disperser solvent, sample pH were investigated and optimized. Meanwhile, the ultra-high performance supercritical fluid chromatography (UHPSFC) system coupled with photo-diode array detector (PDA) was applied to the quantification of the four drugs. The

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116	chromatographic	conditions	of	UHPSFC	had	also	optimized.	Subsequently,	the	optimized
117	US-IL-DLLME-U	JHSFC-PDA	A me	ethod was a	pplie	d to d	etect the targ	gets in tap water	and	drinks.

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119 2. Experimental

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121 2.1. Materials and reagents

Naproxen and nabumetone were purchased from Dr. Ehrenstorfer GmbH (Augsburg,
Germany). Diclofenac sodium was obtained from The China drugs and Biological Products
Inspection Institute. Ibuprofen was from Xinhua Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. (Shandong, China).
Properties of the studied analytes are shown in Table 1.

Acetone was purchased from Beijing modern Oriental Fine Chemicals Co., Ltd. and 126 127 isopropanol was from Beijing Chemical Plant. HPLC grade acetonitrile and methanol were 128 purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fair Lawn, USA). HPLC-grade water was purified by a 129 Milli-Q-Plus ultra-pure water system from Millipore (Milford, MA. USA). 130 1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluoro phosphate $([C_4MIM][PF_6])$ (99%), 131 1-Octyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluoro phosphate [C₈MIM][PF₆] (99%) were obtained from 132 J&K Chemical Ltd. (Beijing, China). The structures of the evaluated ILs are shown in Fig. 1. 133 Potassium di-hydrogen phosphate was from Beijing Hongxin Chemical Plant.

Purified water, lemon juice, soda and green tea drink were purchased from supermarket inBeijing, China.

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137 2.2. Instrumentation

138	The Waters Acquity UPC ² system which stands for Ultra-Performance Convergence
139	Chromatography TM was equipped with a binary solvent delivery pump, an autosampler, a column
140	oven and a back pressure regulator, a UPC ² PDA detector set at 227 nm for Naproxen, 224 nm for
141	nabumetone, 220nm for ibuprofen, 275 nm for diclofenac. We have calculated the extinction
142	coefficients of 4 NSAIDs using Lambert-Beer law at each lambda max values (Nabumetone
143	9.16×10 ⁻³ , ibuprofen: 2.84×10^{-3} , napxen: 1.30×10^{-4} , diclofenac: 2.77×10^{-3}). Data acquisition and
144	control of the UHPSFC systems were performed using the Waters MassLynx 4.1 Software. The
145	sample was separated at 30°C by an Acquity UPC ² BEH 2-Ethylpyridine (2-EP) column (100
146	mm×3.0 mm, 1.7 μ m; Waters, Milford, MA, USA) with gradient elution using carbon dioxide (A)
147	and methanol (B) at the flow rate of 1.6 mL min ⁻¹ . The gradient program started with 1% of
148	component B, constant for 0.6 min, then, a linear gradient was programmed from 1% to 18% for
149	0.4 min, followed by a linear gradient up to 22% B in 2 min, finally it was held for 2.0 min which
150	allowed $ionic$ liquids to elute out the. The injection volume was 1 μ L and 1500 psi and the back
151	pressure was controlled with a back pressure regulator.
152	A 100 μ L Hamilton microsyringe (Bonaduz, Switzerland) was used for the injection of the
153	extraction solvent into the sample solution. The centrifuge instrument model TGL-16G (Anke

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- 154 China) was used for making centrifugation. A KH2200DB (He Chuang, China) ultrasonic water
- bath (100 W and 50 kHz) was applied to accelerate the extraction process.

157 2.3. Preparation and extraction procedure

Four individual pharmaceutical analytical standard solutions (1mg mL⁻¹) were prepared by exactly weighing and dissolving them in methanol. Furthermore, the standard solutions were

160	protected from light and stored at -20 °C in a freezer and kept stable for at least 3 months.
161	Working standard solutions of the analytes were prepared daily in methanol.
162	10 mL spiked water sample (adjusted to pH 1.53 with formic acid) was put into a 15 mL
163	centrifuge tube and then 165 μ L methanol(disperser solvent) mixed with 74 μ L [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆]
164	(extraction solvent) was rapidly injected into the sample solution by microsyringe. The injection
165	of the extraction mixture led to a cloudy sample solution which contains tiny drops of
166	$[C_8MIM][PF_6]$ distributed in the sample solution. Then the tube was subsequently put in the
167	ultrasonic bath system at the ambient temperature for 15 min to enhance the extraction of
168	pharmaceuticals from the sample solution into the tiny droplets of [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆]. After that, it
169	was subjected to centrifugation for 10 min at 8000 rpm. Finally, the sediment phase (60±2 μL)
170	was taken out by using a 100 μ L microsyringe and then injected into the chromatographic system.
171	
172	2.4. Preparation of real water samples
173	Soda sample was put in an ultrasonic bath for 20 min to remove air bubbles. Then tap water
174	purified water, treated soda, juice and tea drink samples were filtered with 0.22 μm PES filters
175	(MEMBRANA, Germany) to remove the suspended particles, and the filtered samples were
176	finally adjusted to pH 1.53 with formic acid.

177 2.5. Experimental design

Plackett-Burman design (PBD) was used to variable screening to define the significant experimental variables in DLLME for the extraction of drugs from the water samples. After determining the variables that mainly affect the extraction process, the Box-Behnken design (BBD) was performed to identify the optimum conditions in the separation process. The software package Design-Expert 8.0.5 (Minneapolis, USA) was employed to analyze the data and the experimental

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design.

3. Result and discussion

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186	3.1. The optimization of the instrument conditions
187	As a matter of fact, due to the uncertainties, the initial choice of a chromatographic system
188	(mobile phase and stationary phase) in SFC is pretty complex. Indeed, all stationary phases
189	available for HPLC, and any solvent that is miscible with carbon dioxide (and be not too soluble
190	for the stationary phase) could be used. Unfortunately, a large diversification has been found out
191	due to the lack of knowledge for the interactions established between the analytes and the
192	chromatographic system globally. As there are fewer clear guidelines for the choice of a stationary
193	phase for a particular analyte, it is often that more than one phase may need to be examined in
194	order to obtain a suitable resolution. In addition, modifiers, gradients, temperature and back
195	pressure are needed to be evaluated because these parameters also affect the resolution and the
196	sensitivity of analysis method.

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198 3.1.1 Column screening

199 Different chromatographic columns including Waters Acquity UPC² BEH (100 mm×3 mm, 200 1.7 μ m), Waters Acquity UPC² BEH 2-EP (100 mm×3 mm, 1.7 μ m) were tested for separating 201 nabumetone, ibuprofen, naproxen and diclofenac. A mixture of CO₂ and methanol was employed 202 as the mobile phase. The UPC² BEH 2-EP column resulted in a better resolution (Fig. 2(a), (b)). 203 For BEH and BEH 2-EP columns, the stationary phases are polar, hydrogen bonding exits for both 204 two stationary phases, and there are π - π inter-actions, dipole-induced dipole interactions on BEH

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205	2-EP. Compared with BEH 2-EP column, there is only one interaction of polar functional groups
206	with Si-OH on BEH column, which resulted in short retention time (Fig. 2 (a)). Meanwhile,
207	naproxen and diclofenac are co-eluting on BEH, while they are separated on BEH 2-EP by π - π
208	inter-actions (Fig. 2 (b)). So the BEH 2-EP column can show better selectivity for the targets than
209	BEH column. Hence, BEH 2-EP was selected as the column to perform the next optimization. We
210	can also conclude from the above phenomenon that if the analytes just own functional group
211	differences, BEH column is a good choice; if the analytes still own benzene Skeleton differences,
212	BEH 2-EP column could behave much better.
213	Chromatographic elution order on BEH 2-EP was nabumetone, ibuprofen, naproxen and
214	diclofenac (Fig. 2(a)). Considering the structure and properties of the target compounds (Table 1),
215	the order is reasonable. Nabumetone has no strong polar functional groups, so it eluted out firstly.
216	Compared with ibuprofen, naproxen showed much powerful π - π inter-actions with BEH 2-EP
217	column, thus, the retention time was longer. The imino group and hydroxyl in diclofenac can form
218	hydrogen bonding with BEH 2-EP which leads to much stronger interaction.
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220	3.1.2 Optimization of modifiers, column temperature, back pressure and flow rate
221	In order to improve separation of the four drugs, different modifiers including methanol,
222	acetonitrile, acetonitrile: methanol $(1:1, v/v)$ were evaluated. The best result was obtained by using
223	the solvent mixture CO_2 /methanol, with a linear gradient elution mode. Peak tailing (peak 2, 3, 4)
224	also can be viewed from Fig. 2(a). Lower value of pKa faced more serious peak tailing.
225	CO2/methanol containing 20 mM formic acid, CO2/methanol containing 20 mM Ammonium

acetate was also tested.

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227	Four different column temperatures (30°C, 40°C, 50°C, 60°C) were tested. Higher
228	temperature results in worse resolution and longer retention time. The reason for this phenomenon
229	was that with the increasing temperature the density of CO_2 decreased and the elution capacity of
230	the mobile phase dropped down. Selectivity was attenuated with increasing temperature for all
231	analytes (except nabumetone), which could be caused by the different molecular structure. So the
232	best choice is 30°C for the temperature.
233	It is well known that the setting of back pressure is an important factor on the density of the
234	supercritical CO ₂ . Four different pressures (1500psi, 1800psi, 2000psi, 2200psi) are tested. The
235	pressure obviously influences the eluotropic strength of the supercritical fluid. An optimal back
236	pressure of 1500 psi was selected for the UPC^2 analysis. The most suitable flow rate was chosen
237	as 1.6 mL min ⁻¹ , respectively. The chromatographic conditions were optimized to separate each
238	individual drugs compound with good resolution within a reasonable analysis time (Fig. 3).
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240	3.2. Optimization of experimental conditions for IL-DLLME
241	3.2.1 Preliminary experiments
242	In order to achieve high enrichment factors and recoveries for the four NSAIDs from water
243	and drinks, a stepwise optimization procedure was chosen by using the purified water spiked with
244	analytes (100 ng mL ⁻¹). The effects of extraction solvents, dispersive solvent, sample pH, ionic
245	strength, ultrasonication time and centrifugation time were investigated and each result was
246	obtained from the mean value of the triplicate extraction.
247	The selection of extraction solvent which plays a significant role in DLLME procedure tends
248	to satisfy some important condition: (A) density higher than water and low solubility in water; (B)

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249	favorable extraction ability for the target compounds; (C) good chromatographic behavior and no
250	interference with the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the target matter. In this work,
251	considering the upper factors, $[C_4MIM][PF_6]$ and $[C_8MIM][PF_6]$ were tested. $[C_4MIM][PF_6]$ and
252	$[C_8MIM][PF_6]$ are hydrophobic, and can form the sediment phase in the water sample. The results
253	indicated that [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] can achieve higher recoveries than [C ₄ MIM][PF ₆], illustrating the
254	length of the alkyl chain of the cation increase the hydrophobicity of the [PF ₆] ⁻ ionic liquid, See
255	Fig. 4(a). [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] was selected as extraction solvent for the following experiments.
256	The effect of different volumes of [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] (10, 30, 50,70 and 90µL) was investigated
257	when dispersive solvent methanol was 300 μ L. As shown in Fig.4(b), the area of drugs increased
258	for volumes from 10 to 70 μl and decreased sharply when the volume is increased to 90 $\mu L.$
259	Nevertheless the case of the 70 μL of the IL provided the best results. Higher amounts of the IL do
260	not improve the extraction efficiencywhile increase background signals.
260 261	not improve the extraction efficiencywhile increase background signals. Disperser solvent aids the IL to steadily disperse into the water samples and rapidly reach the
260 261 262	not improve the extraction efficiencywhile increase background signals. Disperser solvent aids the IL to steadily disperse into the water samples and rapidly reach the extraction equilibrium. It markedly increases the contact surface between the extraction phase and
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260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267	not improve the extraction efficiencywhile increase background signals. Disperser solvent aids the IL to steadily disperse into the water samples and rapidly reach the extraction equilibrium. It markedly increases the contact surface between the extraction phase and aqueous samples. So, it requires that the disperse solvent should have a good miscibility in both the extraction solvent and the aqueous phase. For this purpose, methanol, acetonitrile, acetone and isopropanol were evaluated as the disperser solvents. 300 μ L of each one was mixed with 70 μ L of [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] as an extraction solvent. The results (Fig.4(c)) show that naproxen, ibuprofen obtained better extraction efficiency in methanol, while nabumetone got a little better extraction in
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271 increasing volume, the areas of 4 drugs first increased then decreased (Fig.4(d)). The reason for 272 this is that methanol cannot disperse $[C_8MIM][PF_6]$ effectively at low volume, therefore the 273 cloudy solution is not completely formed; At high volumes, the solubility of the four NSAIDs in 274 water was increased, and led to the lower extraction efficiencies because of a diminution in the 275 distribution coefficient.

The pH value of the solution can affect the ionization status and solubility of the analytes. The pKa values of naproxen, diclofenac and ibuprofen are 4.15, 4.50, 5.20 respectively. The lower the pH value, the more inhibited the ionization of the drugs. Five pH values (ranges from 1.5 to 3.5) were investigated to study their influence on the extraction efficiency. Fig. 5(a) shows that the extraction efficiency is the highest when the pH value is 1.5. The results show that all drugs will be in the neutral form at low pH value, which facilitates the extraction from donor phase. Analytical Methods Accepted Manuscript

The salting-out effect on the extraction efficiency of drugs was examined by adding different amounts of KH₂PO₄ (0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 (w/v %)) to 10mL aqueous samples at pH 1.5. As shown in Fig.5(b), the extraction efficiency increase with enhancing the salt concentration up to 0.4 and then it decreases with further increase in salt concentration. At the beginning, the salting out process plays the predominant role, a higher ionic strength in the sample and decreases the solubility of four drugs in the aqueous solution. However, by increasing the salt concentration, electrostatic interaction will resist organic solvent extraction and decrease the extraction efficiencies.

The extraction time is an important factor which affects the extraction efficiency. When the extraction time is longer, the transferring of the analytes from aqueous into IL phase is more complete. The extraction time was evaluated in the range of 5-25 min. From results in Fig. 5(c),

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293 the extraction efficiencies increased rapidly by increasing the extraction time up to 15min and 294 longer extraction time does not significantly affect the extraction efficiency. It is possible that the 295 extraction equilibrium could be achieved at 15min. The mixture was centrifuged to break down 296 the cloudy solution and formed the phase separation. In order to investigate the effect of 297 centrifugation time, experiments were performed by centrifuging for 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 min 298 respectively at 5000 rpm after extraction (Fig. 5(d)). The extraction efficiency for the analytes was 299 lower when the centrifugation time was too short because the IL could not be completely collected 300 at the bottom of the glass test tube. However, longer centrifugation had no significant effect on the 301 extraction efficiency for IL-DLLME.

302 3.2.2 Experimental sceening using PBD

303 Plackett-Burman design was used to screen the main factors which affect the efficiency 304 during the extraction step rapidly among variables from a multivariate system. To evaluate the 305 main effects of the above six factors (volume of $[C_8MIM][PF_6]$, volume of methanol, pH, ionic 306 strength, ultrasound time, and centrifugation time), a matrix of the P-B design consist of 12 307 experiments was performed. Each factors were considered at 2 levels, i.e. low (-1) and high (+1). 308 And the experiments were carried out in three replicates in a random manner in order to reduce the 309 experimental error. The sum of the mean peak areas were treated as responses. Based on the single 310 factor experiment, the values corresponding to the each factor level are reported in Table 2. The 311 results obtained were evaluated by the analysis of variance (ANOVA) based on the t-test with 95% 312 probability for determining the main effects. The effects of the studied variables in the screening 313 experiment were expressed by Pareto-chart (Fig. 6). The red line on the plot judges the effects that 314 are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. According to the Pareto chart, pH was the

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most significant factor, subsequently volume of dispersive solvent and volume of extraction solvent were the next most significant factors. Ionic strength and extraction time were less significant in comparison to the above factors. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 6, Centrifugation time revealed no significant effect on extraction efficiency. Out of these, the first three significant factors, i.e., volume of disperser solvent, pH and volume of extraction solvent were chosen for further optimization using BBD. The ionic strength and extraction time, centrifugation time, 0.4% and 15, 10 min respectively were selected for further experiments. 3.2.3 The optimization of factors by BBD After these previous experiments, a Box Behnken design was selected to optimize the experimental factors (sample pH, volume of methanol and volume of ILs) since interactions between them may also occur. The BBD was applied with three design factors and three levels. The examined levels of these factors are given in Table 3. The resulting 17 experiments, in which 10 mL of water were spiked with the drugs and submitted to the DLLME procedure were randomly performed. Through ANOVA, the quadratic regression model demonstrated that the model is highly significant. Because responses of P-value were lower than 0.05, which are statistically significant. According to the Design Expert 8.0 analysis, in peak area, the model F-value of 9.59 implies that the model is significant. There is only a 0.35% chance that as laege as "Model F-Value" could occur due to the noise. The Lack of Fit expresses if the model is adequate to describe the observed data or if a more complicated model should be used. As the Lack of Fit of *P*-value (0.1258) was found to be non-significant, it suggests that the model equation was adequate to predict the peak areas under any sets of the variables combination. The

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337	explained variation R^2 is 0.83 which indicated a high significance of the model. Moreover, the
338	Adeq Precision value measures the signal due to noise ratio and a value greater than 4 is desirable.
339	The Peak area has 8.998 Adeq Precision, indicating an adequate signal. Therefore, according to
340	ANOVA results the model fitted the data and it was able to predict and optimize the responses.
341	The basic strategy for response surfaces methodology had the following four steps: the
342	procedures to move into the optimum region, the behavior of the response in the optimum region,
343	the estimation of the optimal condition and the verification. The visualization of the predicted
344	model equation can also be obtained by response surface plots. Response surfaces estimated for
345	the Box Behnken design are shown in Fig. 4 plotting Volume of methanol vs. Volume of
346	[C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] (Fig. 4a, Fig. 4b), Volume of [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆] vs. pH (Fig. 4c,Fig. 4d) and Volume
347	of methanol vs. pH (Fig. 4e, Fig. 4f). The 3D response surface plots are useful in learning about
348	the main and interaction effects of the independent variables, whereas 2D contour plots give a
349	visual representation of values of the response. In fact, the final optimum DLLME conditions
350	predicted were: 73.53 μ L of [C ₈ MIM][PF ₆], 164.98 μ L of MeOH and pH 1.53. Several
351	experiments were then developed under these optimum conditions, obtaining the highest peak
352	areas of all previous experiments.
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354 3.3. Method validation

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356 3.3.1. Selectivity

The specificity of the method was evaluated with respect to different water samples by extracting and analyzing the blank samples by using the optimized method. Blank sample has no

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359	interference in drugs detection (Fig. 8(a)). Fig. 8(b) is the chromatogram of a spiked sample (100
360	ng m L^{-1}).
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362	3.3.2. LOD, LOQ, linearity and enrichment factor (EF)
363	For the sake of validating the optimized US-IL-DLLME-UPC ² -PDA method to extract drugs
364	from the aqueous solutions, a number of performance parameters such as linearity, limit of
365	detection (LOD), limit of quantification (LOQ), enrichment factor (EF), repeatability,
366	reproducibility and extraction recoveries were evaluated.
367	LOD and LOQ are set up based on the minimum value and the detected concentration of an
368	analyte gives peak value with the signal to noise ratio of at least 3:1 and 10:1. The instrument
369	LODs and LOQs of drugs range from 0.05 to 0.5 ug mL ^{-1} and 0.1 to 1 ug mL ^{-1} . Method limits
370	(MLOD and MLOQ) are listed in Table 2. External calibration was applied to study the linearity
371	of the method response. Ultrapure water (analytes-free) was spiked with drugs to provide
372	standards with five concentration levels. A calibration curve was constructed and correlation
373	coefficients for all compounds were greater than 0.994 (Table4). EF of analytes during
374	US-IL-DLLME extraction procedure was calculated based on the following equation:
375	EF = Ce/Ca
376	Where Ce is the concentration of analyte in extraction solvent. Ca is the concentration of

analyte in aqueous sample. The developed conditions were used to investigate the enrichment
factors of drugs, EFs range from 126 to 132. The results are listed in Table 4.

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380 3.3.3. Recovery and precision

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381	Recoveries of the analytes were measured by spiking blank water samples with four drugs at
382	three different concentrations, nabumetone (2.0, 10.0, 50.0 ng mL ⁻¹), ibuprofen (10.0, 50.0, 200.0
383	ng mL ⁻¹), naproxen (2.0, 10.0, 50.0 ng mL ⁻¹), diclofenac (10.0, 50.0, 200.0 ng mL ⁻¹). Samples
384	were extracted by following the above method. After UHSFC-PDA analysis, recoveries were
385	obtained and the result can be seen in Table 5. The recoveries for nabumetone, ibuprofen,
386	naproxen, diclofenac are 87.43-96.14%, 81.37-104.29%, 81.69-104.29%, 96.05-107.47%,
387	respectively, with the relative standard deviation (RSD) lower than 12.39% based on the peak
388	areas for six replicate runs.
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390	3.4. Analysis of real samples
391	The developed procedure was applied to real water samples, tap water, soda, lemon juice and
392	green tea drink. A US-IL-DLLME procedure was followed to extract the target analytes. Results
393	are shown in Fig. 9. It showed that ibuprofen with the detection levels of 16.43 ng mL ⁻¹ (n=6,
394	RSD=3.09%) is detected in soda. Depending on the biological accumulation effect of ibuprofen in
395	long-term, it may produce toxic effects in both human body and environment.
396	
397	3 Conclusions
398	This study presents the use of a new US-IL-DLLME method combined with UHPSFC-PDA
399	technique for the accurate determination of pharmaceuticals in tap water and drinks. The

technique for the accurate determination of pharmaceuticals in tap water and drinks. The advantages over conventional extraction techniques of ionic liquid, ultrasound and DLLME were a simple, low-cost, fast, accurate, sensitive and efficient method for NSAIDs extraction. The proposed extraction procedure has a very low organic solvent consumption (few microliters), and

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403	attain the extraction equilibrium quickly. For the optimization of UHPSFC, NSAIDs were
404	separated by Acquity UPC ² BEH 2-EP column with a standard elution gradient of methanol ir
405	CO ₂ . The optimized separation program enables NSAIDs separated within 2.1 min. The sensitivity
406	of the proposed method has been successfully demonstrated to be reliable and cost-effective for
407	the determination of NSIADs in water samples. This studied method has a prospective future in
408	different areas.
409	

410 Acknowledgements

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421 Figure captions

- 422 Fig. 1. Structures of studied ILs. (a) 1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluoro phosphate;
- 423 (b) 1-Octyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluoro phosphate.
- 424 Fig. 2. Separation of four drugs on (a) BEH 2-EP and (b) BEH. 1: Nabumetone;
- 425 2 :Ibuprofen; 3: Naproxen; 4: Diclofenac.
- Fig. 3. Chromatogram of four drugs, 0.82: nabumetone; 1.63: ibuprofen; 1.85: naproxen;
 2.08: diclofenac.
- **Fig. 4.** (a) Effect of organic solvents on the extraction of drugs; (b) Effect of [C₈MIM][PF₆]
- 429 volume on the extraction of drugs; (c) Effect of disperser solvent on the extraction of drugs;
- 430 (d) Effect of methanol volume on the extraction of drugs.
- 431 Fig. 5. (a) Effect of pH values in sample solution on the extraction of drugs; (b)Effect of
- 432 salt concentration on the extraction of drugs; (c) Effect of extraction time of drugs; (d)
- 433 Effect of centrifugation time of drugs.

Fig. 6. Pareto chart.

- **Fig. 7.** Response surface plots of BBD. (a) and (b) Volume of extraction solvent-Volume of
- 436 dispersive solvent; (c) and (d) Volume of extraction solvent-pH; (e) and (f) Volume of
 - dispersive solvent-pH.
 - **Fig. 8.** (a) Chromatogram of blank sample; (b) Chromatogram of a spiked sample.
 - **Fig. 9.** The chromatogram of ibuprofen in soda.







Fig. 7.







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3333333334444444444555	1234567890123456789012
33333333344444444445555	12345678901234567890122
333333333444444444455555	12345678901234567890123
3333333334444444444555555	123456789012345678901234
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492	Structure and	properties	of the t	target	compounds
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		Relative			Chamical	
Compound	Formula	molecular	LogP	рКа	Chemical	
		weight			Structure	
Diclofenac	$C_{14}H_{11}CI_2NO_2$	278.13	4.26	4.50		
lbuprofen	$C_{13}H_{18}O_2$	206.28	3.84	5.20	HO	
Nabumetone	$C_{15}H_{16}O_2$	228.29	3.22	_		
Naproxen	C ₁₄ H ₁₄ O ₃	230.26	2.99	4.15	CH ₀ CH ₀	

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494 **Table 2**

495 Experimental variables and levels of the Plackett-Burman design.

Factor	Levels			
	Low(-1)	High(+1)		
Volume of $[C_8MIM][PF_6]$ (µL)	50.0	90.0		
Volume of methanol (μL)	100.0	300.0		
рН	1.0	3.0		
lonic strength (% w/v)	0.2	0.6		
Ultrasound time (min)	10.0	25.0		
Centrifugation time (min)	5.0	20.0		

496 **Table 3**

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	Expe	riment	Factor1 (Volunme of extraction solvent)	Factor2 (Volunme of dispersive solvent)	Factor3 (pH)	Response (Peak area)
	13	1	70.00	200.00	2.00	34499.4
	2	2	90.00	100.00	2.00	32778.9
	9	3	70.00	100.00	1.00	34272.4
	7	4	50.00	200.00	3.00	18218.5
	14	5	70.00	200.00	2.00	40654.8
	8	6	90.00	200.00	3.00	21914.7
	11	7	70.00	100.00	3.00	19243.6
	17	8	70.00	200.00	2.00	36032.9
	6	9	90.00	200.00	1.00	29314.3
	15	10	70.00	200.00	2.00	38024.6
	12	11	70.00	300.00	3.00	18547.5
	3	12	50.00	300.00	2.00	6768.1
	16	13	70.00	200.00	2.00	40389.1
	5	14	50.00	200.00	1.00	28531.3
	1	15	50.00	100.00	2.00	23873.2
	10	16	70.00	300.00	1.00	21914.7
	4	17	90.00	300.00	2.00	22838.4
499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506						
507 508	Table	e 4				

509 Method linearity, MLOD, MLOQ and enrichment factor (EF).

Compound	Calibration curve	R	Linear range	MLOD	MLOQ	FF
Compound	Galibration curve	IX.	(ng mL⁻¹)	(ng mL ⁻¹)	(ng mL ⁻¹)	LI
Nabumetone	Y=216.56 X + 983.651	0.9997	1.56-156.00	0.78	1.56	129
lbuprofen	Y=12.5776 X + 259.515	0.9985	7.69-192.25	2.56	7.69	130
Naproxen	Y=92.5356 X + 1986.49	0.9967	0.62-64.40	0.31	0.62	126
Diclofenac	Y=35.9567 X + 47.0005	0.9957	7.37-184.25	2.26	7.37	132

513 Table 5

514 Relative recoveries and precision of the compounds

Compound	Spiked level (ng mL ⁻¹)	Recovery ² (%)
	2.00	96.14±7.90
Nabumetone	10.00	93.72±5.28
	50.00	87.43±8.69
	10.00	104.64±4.87
Ibuprofen	50.00	85.61±9.52
	200.00	81.37±3.50
	2.00	104.29±6.91
Naproxen	10.00	86.33±9.76
	50.00	81.69±5.77
	10.00	107.47±12.39
Diclofenac	50.00	100.54±6.18
	200.00	96.05±8.79