Source identification of amphetamine-like stimulants in Spanish wastewater through enantiomeric profiling

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1 Abstract

2 Amphetamine (AMP), methamphetamine (MAMP) and 3.4methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) occur in wastewater not only as a result of 3 4 illicit consumption, but also, in some cases, from prescription drug use or by direct drug disposal into the sewage system. Enantiomeric profiling of these chiral drugs could give 5 more insight into the origin of their occurrence. In this manuscript, a new analytical 6 methodology for the enantiomeric analysis of amphetamine-like substances in wastewater 7 8 has been developed. The method consists of a solid-phase extraction (SPE) followed by liquid chromatography-triple quadrupole-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS), 9 which showed low quantification limits in the 2.4-5.5 ng L⁻¹ range. The LC-MS/MS 10 method was first applied to characterize a total of 38 solid street drug samples 11 12 anonymously provided by consumers. The results of these analysis showed that AMP and 13 MDMA trafficked into Spain are synthesized as racemate, while MAMP is exclusively produced as the S(+)-enantiomer. Then, the analytical method was employed to analyse 14 15 urban wastewater samples collected from the wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) of 16 five different cities in 2018 and 2019. Consumption estimated through normalized population loads in wastewater showed an increased pattern of AMP use in the Basque 17 18 Country. Furthermore, the enantiomeric profiling of wastewater samples was contrasted to lisdexamfetamine (LIS) and selegiline (SEL) prescription figures, two pharmaceuticals 19 which metabolize to S(+)-AMP, and to R(-)-AMP and R(-)-MAMP, respectively. From 20 this analysis, and considering uncertainties derived from metabolism and adherence to 21 22 treatment, it was concluded that LIS is a relevant source of AMP in those cases with low wastewater loads, i.e. up to a maximum of 60% of AMP detected in wastewater in some 23 24 samples could originate from LIS prescription, while SEL does not represent a significant source of AMP nor MAMP. Finally, removal efficiencies could be evaluated for the 25

26	WWTP (serving ca. 860,000 inhabitants) with higher AMP influent concentrations. The
27	removal of AMP was satisfactory with rates higher than 99%, whereas MDMA showed
28	an average removal of approximately 60%, accompanied by an enrichment of R(-)-
29	MDMA.
30	
31	Keywords:
32	Drug abuse, chiral drugs, enantiomers, sewage, wastewater-based epidemiology,
33	prescription.
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39 1. INTRODUCTION

40 Amphetamine (AMP), methamphetamine (MAMP) and 3.4methylendioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) synthetic 41 are derivatives of phenylethylamine that were used in the past to treat narcolepsy and spastic states of the 42 gastrointestinal tract (Myerson 1939). However, their stimulating effects have also been 43 associated to a high risk of addiction (Guttmann and Sargant 1942, Lemere 1967). 44 45 Therefore, actions were taken to restrict their clandestine consumption.

Besides classical population surveys, hospital-related admissions 46 and other 47 epidemiological indicators, efforts to detect illicit drugs' use in a fast and non-invasive 48 way led to the first study using wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE) in 2005 by Zuccato et al. (Zuccato et al. 2005). They estimated cocaine consumption in a specific 49 population through the analysis of wastewater, as an complementary tool to the 50 established epidemiological approaches. Nowadays, this methodology has been applied 51 in many countries to get a near real-time profiling of the community-wide use of illicit 52 53 drugs (Bijlsma et al. 2021, González-Mariño et al. 2020, Ort et al. 2014, Thomas et al. 2012), alcohol and tobacco (Castiglioni et al. 2015, Gao et al. 2020, López-García et al. 54 2020, Montes et al. 2020, Rodríguez-Álvarez et al. 2015, Rodríguez-Álvarez et al. 2014a, 55 Rodríguez-Álvarez et al. 2014b, Ryu et al. 2016, Tscharke et al. 2016). Additionally, 56 WBE has been extended to estimate (unwanted) exposure to chemicals (Senta et al. 2020), 57 such as pesticides (Rousis et al. 2016), flame retardants (Been et al. 2018, Castro et al. 58 2020), bisphenol A (Lopardo et al. 2019) and plasticizers (Estévez-Danta et al. 2021, 59 González-Mariño et al. 2021, González-Mariño et al. 2017), and more recently as a useful 60 61 tool to follow and predict the evolution of COVID-19 (Ahmed et al. 2020, Alygizakis et al. 2020, Medema et al. 2020). 62

A key factor in WBE studies is the selection of appropriate human biomarkers. However, 63 64 the estimation of AMP, MAMP and MDMA consumption is sometimes troublesome, because the biomarkers usually measured in wastewater are the parent compounds (i.e. 65 unchanged excreted fraction), which can occur in wastewater not only as a result of illicit 66 consumption, but also from prescription drug use or direct disposal from waste of illegal 67 drug production (Emke et al. 2014). Yet, these three drugs are chiral and contain one 68 asymmetric carbon atom that leads to two enantiomers (R-(-) and S-(+)). In the human 69 body, this chirality implies different biological activity, and consequently, different 70 distribution and metabolism (Kalant 2001, Kasprzyk-Hordern et al. 2010). 71

72 Illicit AMP and MDMA are usually synthetized by the Leuckart method to yield a racemic mixture (EMCDDA 2021a, b, Emke et al. 2018, Hauser et al. 2020, Kalant 2001, 73 King 2009), whereas MAMP is mainly produced as pure S-enantiomer across Europe, 74 with the only reported exception of Norway, where the synthesis facilities are different 75 than in Central Europe, and usually synthetize MAMP as a racemate (Castrignanò et al. 76 77 2018). AMP and MAMP are used in some countries as a prescribed medication to treat attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), narcolepsy, or as a dietary supplement 78 to lose weight (Cody 2002). In Spain, AMP is not prescribed itself, but as the prodrug 79 80 lisdexamfetamine (LIS, used to treat ADHD), which is metabolized to S-(+)-AMP in the human body (Comiran et al. 2021, Krishnan et al. 2008, Pennick 2013). MAMP and 81 MDMA do not currently have medical applications. However, selegiline (SEL), a 82 medication used in Parkinson treatment, metabolizes to produce the R(-)-enantiomer of 83 84 AMP and MAMP (Reynolds et al. 1978). Thus, both LIS and SEL could be potential 85 sources of AMP and MAMP in sewage, besides illicit consumption (Castrignanò et al. 2018, Lertxundi et al. 2021). 86

In the case of these three amphetamine-like substances, the S(+)-enantiomer is more 87 88 active and therefore metabolizes faster than the R(-)-enantiomer (Kasprzyk-Hordern 2010, Kasprzyk-Hordern and Baker 2012). This, consequently, results in a change of the 89 90 enantiomeric ratio towards the enrichment of the R(-)-enantiomer. Thus, mainly the Renantiomer is detected in untreated wastewater if the racemic drug is consumed. Hence, 91 92 enantiomeric analyses can complement traditional WBE estimates by applying analytical 93 methods that allow the determination of different chiral drug enantiomers, and therefore 94 differentiate between licit (prescription) or illicit use, or direct dumping in the sewage network (Castrignanò et al. 2018, Emke et al. 2014, Gao et al. 2018). 95

96 Enantiomeric profiling has been mainly performed by liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) in combination with a previous sample 97 concentration (usually a solid-phase extraction (SPE)). Kaspryzk-Horden and Baker 98 (Kasprzyk-Hordern and Baker 2012) were the first to address chiral analysis of these 99 substances. In that first study, Oasis MCX cartridges were used for SPE, due to the basic 100 101 nature of the illicit drugs studied. However, Oasis HLB cartridges have also been employed in some other studies (Archer et al. 2018, Castrignanò et al. 2016, Vazquez-102 Roig et al. 2014). 103

104 Although there are some WBE-derived studies targeting enantiomeric separation in different countries (Archer et al. 2018, Castrignanò et al. 2018, Emke et al. 2014, Gao et 105 106 al. 2018, Kasprzyk-Hordern and Baker 2012), in Spain, enantiomeric profiling has been applied only to two cities (Castellón and Valencia) of the Valencian Community region 107 108 (Castrignanò et al. 2018, Vazquez-Roig et al. 2014). Moreover, in a more recent study on 109 WBE of illicit drugs in Spain (Bijlsma et al. 2021) high levels of AMP were observed in the area of Bilbao. However, the origin of such substance could not be fully clarified 110 (Lertxundi et al. 2021), even when a preliminary version of the enantiomeric profiling 111

method presented here was used. Hence, the aim of this work was to delve into spatial 112 differences by including 5 mid-to-large cities (and their metropolitan areas), located in 113 114 five Spanish regions and covering around 2 million people overall. To that end, we have developed and validated a new enantiomeric analysis method and applied it to AMP, 115 116 MAMP and MDMA street drug samples obtained from different locations in Spain to evaluate their enantiomeric fractions and purity. Also, wastewater samples from the 117 above-mentioned regions were collected in 2018 and 2019 and analysed. Finally, a 118 119 detailed discussion on the contribution of the prescription drugs LIS and SEL to the amounts of AMP and MAMP detected in wastewater is presented for the first time. 120

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122 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

123 **2.1** Chemicals and reagents

124 Individual solutions of 1 mg mL⁻¹ of AMP, MAMP and MDMA, and of 0.1 mg mL⁻¹ of 125 their deuterated analogues (AMP-D₆, MAMP-D₅ and MDMA-D₅, used as internal 126 standards (ISs)), were supplied by Cerilliant (Round Rock, TX, USA) as racemic 127 mixtures. Individual solutions of 1 mg mL⁻¹ of the S-(+) enantiomer of AMP, MAMP and 128 MDMA were supplied by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

Ultrapure water was obtained with a Millipore Milli-Q Gradient A-10 system (Bedford,
MA, USA). LC-MS grade methanol (MeOH), formic acid (95-97%), ammonium
bicarbonate (≥ 99.5%) and ammonia (NH₃) solution in water (25%) were supplied by
Merck. Ammonia solution in MeOH (7N) was supplied by Across Organics (Thermo
Fischer Scientific, Geel, Belgium).

134 **2.2 Drug dose samples**

Street drug samples were supplied by Energy Control and Ai Laket!! as powder or crystal. 135 136 These two Spanish Organizations aim to reduce risks related to recreational drug use by 137 providing fast and anonymous information to users on the composition of the drugs they are going to consume. Hence, such drugs were submitted to the harm-reduction, drug-138 139 checking services in an anonymous way and were then shipped to Santiago de Compostela for analysis. These drug samples were diluted to a nominal concentration of 140 250 ng mL⁻¹ of powder in MeOH, spiked with the ISs (100 ng mL⁻¹ each) of and injected 141 into the LC-MS/MS system. 142

143 **2.3 Wastewater samples**

Composite 24 h raw wastewater samples were collected at five wastewater treatment
plants (WWTPs) located in Spain for 7 consecutive days in Spring 2018 and 2019, except

in the WWTP of Palma for which samples were only collected in 2018. Details on eachlocation, population served by each WWTP, and sampling are displayed in Table S1.

148 In addition, in 2019, treated wastewater samples from the WWTP of Galindo (Bilbao and 149 its large metropolitan area), in which high concentrations of AMP were detected, were collected with a delay of 24 h with respect to raw wastewater (June 12th-18th) in order to 150 151 assess (enantioselective-)removal efficiencies, on request of the WWTP managers. This 152 WWTP treats the wastewater from over 850,000 inhabitants, with an average flow of ca. 250,000 m^3 day⁻¹ (Table S1). The WWTP is equipped with a primary treatment 153 (flocculation and coagulation) and a secondary conventional activated sludge treatment, 154 155 including anoxic/anaerobic and aerobic treatments. The average hydraulic and sludge retention times are 24 h and 22.5 days, respectively. 156

157 2.4 Wastewater samples pretreatment

158 Sample preparation was performed by two different analytical methods to identify and159 quantify chiral drugs in wastewater.

160 *2.4.1 Method A*

All samples, except those from Castellón and Madrid (see 2.4.2) were processed in 161 Santiago de Compostela with method A, following the protocol described by González-162 163 Mariño et al. (González-Mariño et al. 2018) with some modifications (see discussion on 164 3.2). Briefly, 100 mL of samples were vacuum-filtered through 0.7 µm GF/A glass 165 microfiber filters (Whatman, Kent, UK) and 0.45 µm cellulose acetate filters (Millipore) and spiked with the ISs (100 ng L^{-1} each). SPE was performed by mixed-mode reversed-166 phase strong cation-exchange cartridges (Oasis MCX-150 mg, Waters, Milford, MA, 167 168 USA) previously rinsed with 5 mL of 5% NH₃ in MeOH followed by 5 mL of ultrapure water. After loading, sorbents were dried under a nitrogen stream during 30 min, washed 169 with 4 mL of MeOH as a clean-up solution, and analytes were then eluted with 3 mL of 170

171 5% NH₃ in MeOH. Eluates were evaporated to dryness under a nitrogen stream using a 172 Turbo-Vap II (Zymark, Hopkinton MA, USA) and a Mini-Vap (Supelco, Steinheim, 173 Germany) concentrators. Finally, extracts were redissolved in 100 μ L of MeOH, filtered 174 through 0.22 μ m PVDF syringe-driven filters (Merck) and injected into the LC-MS 175 system.

176 *2.4.2 Method B*

177 Samples from Castellón and Madrid were extracted in the laboratory of the University Jaume I, following the protocol described by Bijlsma et al. (Bijlsma et al. 2014a), 178 hereinafter, method B. In brief, 25 mL of sample were four-times diluted with ultrapure 179 water, spiked with 1 ng mL⁻¹ of ISs mixture and filtered through 0.45 μ m cellulose filters 180 (Millipore). Then, SPE was performed by Oasis HLB-60 mg reversed-phase cartridges 181 (Waters) previously rinsed with 4 mL of MeOH followed by 4 mL of ultrapure water. 182 After loading, sorbents were dried under a nitrogen stream during 30 min and analytes 183 eluted with 5 mL of MeOH. Eluates were evaporated to dryness under nitrogen using a 184 Turbo-Vap II and a Mini-Vap concentrators. Finally, extracts were redissolved in 1 mL 185 of 10% MeOH in ultrapure water. These extracts were shipped frozen to Santiago de 186 Compostela, where they were evaporated to dryness, redissolved in 100 µL of MeOH and 187 filtered through 0.22 µm PVDF syringe-driven filters, being then ready for LC-MS/MS 188 analysis. 189

190 2.5 Instrumental analysis

Instrumental analysis was performed with a Waters Acquity UPLC[®] H-class system equipped with a quaternary solvent pump, a thermostated LC column compartment, and a sample manager. The UPLC system was interfaced to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer Xevo TQD from Waters. The chromatographic separation was performed at 40 °C on a Lux AMP chiral column
(150×3 mm I.D., 3 µm particle size) from Phenomenex (Torrance, CA, USA). Under final
working conditions, a dual eluent system consisting of (A) ultrapure water with 50 mM
NH₃ and (B) MeOH was used at a flow rate of 0.4 mL min⁻¹. The linear gradient consisted
of the following stages: 0 min (60% B), 15 min (60% B), 20 min (95% B), 25 min (95%
B), 25.1 min (60% B) and 30 min (60% B). Injection volume was set at 10 µL.

The interface between the UPLC system and the Xevo TQD mass spectrometer was an 201 202 electrospray ionization (ESI) source operating in positive mode at a fixed capillary voltage of 3 kV and a temperature of 150 °C. Nitrogen, provided by a nitrogen generator 203 from Peak Scientific (Barcelona, Spain), was used as desolvation gas at 600 L h⁻¹ and 450 204 °C, and as cone gas at 10 L h⁻¹. Analyses were performed by MS/MS in Selected Reaction 205 206 Monitoring (SRM) mode acquiring one precursor/product ion transitions per IS and two 207 transitions per analyte (one of them used for quantification and the second one for confirmatory purposes). Argon was used as collision gas. Table S2 compiles chemical 208 formulae, retention times (RT), transitions (Q) and optimal cone voltages (CV) and 209 collision energies (CE) for every analyte. 210

211 **2.6** Method performance and quality assurance

212 Instrumental detection and quantification limits (IDLs and IQLs) were estimated from the lowest concentration level of the calibration curve providing a signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) 213 of 3 and 10, respectively. Calibration curves were prepared in MeOH and ranged from 214 the IQL to 2,500 ng mL⁻¹ for AMP enantiomers and from the IQL to 500 ng mL⁻¹ for the 215 enantiomers of the remaining compounds (spiked IS concentration, referred to the final 216 extract and each enantiomer: 100 ng mL⁻¹ for method A and 10 ng mL⁻¹ for method B). 217 218 Intra-day and inter-day instrumental precision were assessed by the relative standard deviation (RSD %) of seven injections of two calibration standards, containing 5 ng mL⁻ 219

¹ and 50 ng mL⁻¹ of all analytes and 100 ng mL⁻¹ of IS. Injections were performed within
the same day (intra-day precision) and in four different days within a month (inter-day
precision).

Trueness and precision of the whole SPE-LC-MS/MS method A were assessed by 223 recovery studies in ultrapure water and wastewater spiked with 12.5 ng L^{-1} and 125 ng L^{-1} 224 ¹, respectively, of all the analytes (100 ng L^{-1} of IS). Wastewater aliquots spiked only with 225 ISs were also analysed to account for analyte levels in this matrix. Matrix effects (MEs) 226 were calculated as the signal (analyte peak area) percentage in a 125 ng mL⁻¹ spiked 227 wastewater extract, after non-spiked sample signal subtraction and referred to the signal 228 of a 125 ng mL⁻¹ standard. Method detection limits (MDLs) and method quantification 229 limits (MQLs) were calculated from non-spiked wastewater samples for a signal-to-noise 230 ratio (S/N) of 3 and 10, respectively. 231

232 In the case of method B, quality of data was assured by analysing additional extracts provided by the University Jaume I, which had been previously already analysed in such 233 234 University and were used as quality controls (QC). Thus, four samples of wastewater samples were spiked at two concentration levels (two of them with 50 ng L⁻¹ and the 235 remaining two with 400 ng L⁻¹, referring to each enantiomer) were extracted at the 236 237 University Jaume I, following sample pretreatment method B. The resulting extracts were shipped to the University of Santiago de Compostela, where they were analysed to assess 238 method's trueness and precision, and to calculate the MDLs and MQLs (extrapolated 239 from the lowest level spiked sample). 240

241 2.7 Calculations of enantiomeric fractions

The elution order of enantiomers was confirmed by the analysis of S(+)-enantiomerically pure standards. The concentration of each enantiomer was calculated by the internal standard calibration method. Then, the concentration of each enantiomer (C_R for the R(-)-enantiomer and C_S for S(+)-enantiomer) was used to obtain the enantiomeric fraction (EF). In this work, EF is presented as EF_R, i.e. the ratio between the concentrations of the R(-)-enantiomer and the sum of both enantiomers, as shown in Eq. 1.

$$EF_R = \frac{C_R}{C_R + C_S} \qquad Eq. 1$$

249 2.7 Estimation of human illicit drugs consumption

Drug concentration (sum of both enantiomers) in 24 h composite influent samples were used to estimate population-normalized daily load levels (Eq. 2) of each drug and, eventually, consumption (Eq. 3):

253 Daily loads =
$$\frac{\text{Concentration} \times \text{Flow rate}}{\text{Population}} \times 1000 \ Eq. 2$$

254 Consumption = Daily loads \times CF Eq.3

The correction factor (CF) values, which consider the fraction of drug excreted after human metabolism, were: 2.77 (AMP), 2.3 (MAMP), and 4.4 (MDMA), as proposed in (Gracia-Lor et al. 2016).

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3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

260 **3.1 Liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry**

Separation was performed on a Lux AMP column. A dual eluent system consisting of (A) ultrapure water and (B) MeOH was used, with the addition of three different modifiers to the aqueous phase: 5 mM of ammonium bicarbonate at pH 11 (recommended by the column supplier), 50 mM of NH₃ at pH 11, and 5 mM of ammonium acetate at pH 9. An adequate separation of enantiomers was observed at pH 11, independently of the modifier

used (ammonium bicarbonate and NH₃). Conversely, ammonium acetate at pH 9 could 266 not resolve the chromatographic peaks of the enantiomers, likely due to the incomplete 267 neutralization of the target species at this pH (Figure S1). Finally, 50 mM of NH₃ at pH 268 269 11 was selected as aqueous mobile phase additive due to the higher signal intensity and 270 lower noise observed as compared to the addition of ammonium bicarbonate (Figure S1). 271 Instrumental parameters investigated include linearity, IDLs, IQLs, and intra- and inter-272 day precision (Table 1). The representation of the analyte area/IS area (response) versus spiked analyte concentration (IQL-2,500 ng mL⁻¹ range for each AMP enantiomer and 273 IQL-500 ng mL⁻¹ range for the remaining enantiomers) fitted a linear model with 274 determination coefficients (R²) higher than 0.997. IDL and IQL values varied between 275 0.2 ng mL⁻¹ and 0.4 ng mL⁻¹, and between 0.6 ng mL⁻¹ and 1.4 ng mL⁻¹, respectively. 276 RSD values from the intra-day precision varied between 0.7 % and 4.3 % for the 5 ng 277 mL⁻¹ standard and between 0.5 % and 3.3 % for the 50 ng mL⁻¹ level. RSD from the inter-278 day precision was < 8.6 % at 50 ng mL⁻¹, and < 4.8 % at 5 ng mL⁻¹ except for S(+)-279 MAMP, for which it was 12%. 280

281 **3.2 Solid-phase extraction**

The extraction protocol applied in method A was based on a previous study (González-282 283 Mariño et al., 2018) but modified in order to improve its selectivity, by including a cleanup step, and optimizing the elution solvent volume. First, absolute recoveries for samples 284 extracted with Oasis MCX (125 ng L^{-1} spike level) were compared to the sample 285 preparation recoveries obtained when introducing a clean-up step with 4 mL of MeOH 286 287 before the elution (performed with 5% NH₃ in MeOH in both cases) (Figure S2a). Both 288 protocols showed good and comparable recoveries; thus, no significant losses were observed due to the clean-up. Also, MEs were tested for both protocols, since previous 289 studies had reported improvements in this regard after the introduction of a clean-up step 290

(González-Mariño et al. 2012, González-Mariño et al. 2009, Senta et al. 2013).
Significantly lower matrix effects were observed (i.e. values of %ME close to 100%)
when the clean-up step was included (Figure S2b). Finally, the elution volume was
optimized by collecting three consecutive fractions of 3 mL of 5% NH₃ in MeOH, which
were analysed independently. More than 94 % of all analytes eluted in the first fraction
(data not shown), and, consequently, the elution volume was reduced from 10 mL in the
former method (González-Mariño et al., 2018), to only 3 mL.

298 **3.3 Method performance**

299 Method A was validated in terms of trueness, precision, MDLs and MQLs (Table 1). Percentages of recovery (%R) for triplicate analyses of ultrapure water samples, spiked 300 with 12.5 ng L^{-1} of all analytes and 100 ng L^{-1} of IS, varied between 90% and 105%, with 301 RSDs between 1% and 6%. In raw wastewater samples spiked with 125 ng L^{-1} of all 302 enantiomers and 100 ng L⁻¹ of IS, %R varied between 82% and 116 %, and RSD between 303 4% and 15%. MDLs ranged from 0.7 ng L^{-1} to 1.8 ng L^{-1} , and MQLs from 2.4 ng L^{-1} to 304 5.5 ng L⁻¹. Table S3 compares the performance of the proposed method versus other 305 306 analytical methods developed for the determination of chiral amphetamine-like substances in raw wastewater. IQLs and MQLs were at the same order of magnitude than 307 those reported in other methodologies (Archer et al. 2018, Castrignanò et al. 2016, 308 Castrignanò et al. 2018, Gao et al. 2018, Kasprzyk-Hordern et al. 2010). However, all 309 those methods rely on the application of reversed-phase Oasis HLB cartridges, which can 310 311 perform well in terms of trueness (see also below), but do not offer the same degree of selectivity as obtained by mixed-mode SPE. A further advantage of the method proposed 312 313 here is that the chromatographic separation is performed under gradient conditions, which 314 increases column lifetime when a complex matrix, as is the case of wastewater, is 315 analysed. Finally, the run time of the chromatographic method developed here is 30 min,

316 considerably lower than over 140 min required for other chiral separations (Kasprzyk317 Hordern 2010, Vazquez-Roig et al. 2014).

Since the samples from Castellón and Madrid had already been extracted by another SPE protocol based on Oasis HLB cartridges (method B) and the enrichment increased by further evaporation of the extracts (see 2.4.2), the performance of this protocol was evaluated through recovery studies with the QC samples. As it is displayed in Table S4, recoveries varied between 66 % and 125 % and RSD < 17 %; thus, this SPE protocol was acceptable in terms of trueness and precision. MQL values, estimated from the lowest concentration QC samples, ranged from 3.8 to 8.3 ng L⁻¹.

325 **3.4 Drug samples characterization**

326 Sample code, main drug, origin, purity and EF_R of each drug sample herein analysed are 327 listed in Table S5. The 38 drug dose samples were submitted to the two drug-checking services (Energy Control and Ai Laket!!) by anonymous drug consumers. Consumers 328 329 labelled them as the drugs they expected them to contain: 18 were labelled as AMP, 6 as 330 MAMP, and 14 as MDMA. Sample purity (evaluated as explained in 2.2) is summarized in Table 2 (details in Table S5). AMP samples presented a variable purity ranging from 331 2.7% to 103%. MAMP purity was more consistent and ranged between 54% and 76%, 332 333 while MDMA purity varied between 0% and 107%. No MDMA was found in the sample coded MDMA-4, collected in Andalucía (Table S5). The results as regards EF_R show a 334 335 concordance with the reported synthesis route of these drugs in Europe (Castrignanò et 336 al. 2018, King 2009). Thus, AMP and MDMA samples were all racemate mixtures, while MAMP samples were all the pure S(+)-enantiomer (Table 2 summarizes also the results 337 338 shown in Table S5). The limited number of samples does not allow us to address regional 339 patterns.

340 **3.5 Wastewater analysis**

EF_R of the amphetamine-like substances found in wastewater were calculated from the 341 concentrations measured in this matrix (see Eq. 1). Following WBE calculations, loads 342 (Eq. 2) and human consumption (Eq. 3) were subsequently estimated. The total 343 344 concentration (sum of the two enantiomers) measured is summarized in Table 3 (detailed results are provided in Table S6). Excretion loads and estimated consumption values per 345 city, substance and year are summarized in Table 3 (further details in Tables S7 and S8). 346 Weekend peaks in loads/consumption (Tables S7 and S8) were observed in most locations 347 348 for MDMA, while this was not so clear in the case of AMP or MAMP. A potential explanation is that these two last substances may originate either from daily abusers or 349 prescription patients, particularly in the case of AMP, as further discussed below. Similar 350 results have been observed in several other countries (Castrignanò et al. 2018, Thomas et 351 352 al. 2012).

353 *3.5.1 Amphetamine*

AMP was positively detected in all the wastewater samples. The high concentration levels 354 found in Bilbao and its metropolitan area in 2018 (mean 663 ng L⁻¹) (Bijlsma et al. 2021) 355 were confirmed in 2019 (mean: 1375 ng L⁻¹) (Table 3). Although considerably lower, the 356 second highest concentrations were detected in Palma (mean values: 106 ng L⁻¹, only 357 samples from 2018 available). The highest loads were observed in Bilbao in 2019 (mean 358 277 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹), even higher than the loads reported in 2018 (mean 203 359 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹). In the remaining cities, the estimated consumption of AMP 360 was lower than 45 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹ (Table 3). These results match former 361 observations in Spain and confirms the distinct pattern of consumption in the area of 362 363 Bilbao, which is closer to the patterns observed in other countries such as Belgium, Western Germany (Been et al. 2016) or some Nordic countries, where AMP is one of the 364 365 most prevalent drugs (González-Mariño et al. 2020).

The enantiomeric analysis showed a slight enrichment of R(-)-AMP in the wastewater of 366 most cities, with EF_R higher than 0.5 (Table 3, details in Table S9). This matches the data 367 obtained from the analysis of urine of 165 abusers with provided and average EF_R of 368 0.508 (George and Braithwaite 2000). This highlights the fact that enrichment of R(-)-369 AMP (due to faster metabolization of S(+)-AMP) in the human body is not as high as in 370 the case of MDMA (see 3.5.3), therefore making it difficult to differentiate illicit 371 consumption from dumping events (that would lead to racemic AMP) on the basis of 372 373 enantiomeric analysis only, as described by Emke et al. (Emke et al. 2014). Despites this fact, dumping it is unlikely to play a major role in our study since, even in the case of 374 375 Bilbao, where very high loads would point to direct disposal, no abnormal lead peak was detected on any singular day and associated to a change in the value of EF_R (Tables S6-376 S9), as already observed, for instance, for AMP and MDMA dumping events in The 377 378 Netherlands (Emke et al. 2014).

Yet, the EF_R obtained here are similar to those reported in other cities across Europe 379 380 (Castrignanò et al. 2018), including Valencia (Vazquez-Roig et al. 2014). In the case of Castellón, the EF_R laid between 0.49 ± 0.03 and 0.50 ± 0.02 (Table 3), which is equivalent 381 382 to a racemic mixture. Samples from Castellón were also measured in 2015 by Castrignanò 383 et al. (Castrignanò et al. 2018), yet AMP was not detected that study. Conversely, an enrichment of S(+)-AMP was detected in Madrid (Northern area) in 2018 with an average 384 EF_R of 0.41±0.03, while only the S(+) isomer was detected above the MQL in 2019 (Table 385 3). Such observation could be partly related to a high contribution of LIS prescription in 386 387 that area. In order to evaluate the potential contribution of medical prescription of LIS to 388 WBE-derived consumption estimations, these data were compared with the available LIS prescription data from four of the five studied regions (Galicia, Basque Country, Balearic 389 390 Islands and Community of Madrid; data from the Community of Valencia was not

available). These data (as defined daily doses (DDD) day-1000 inhabitants-1) were 391 392 obtained on a month basis for the province or municipality (see details in Table S10). Prescription data were converted into excretion loads of AMP, considering the DDD of 393 LIS (30 mg, https://www.whocc.no/atc_ddd_index/), the average excretion of S(+)-AMP 394 from LIS (44.75 %), and the molecular weights of both drugs. The excretion value of 395 44.75 % was derived as the average from two studies, performed with 7 individuals each, 396 where S(+)-AMP accounted for 48.5 % and 41 % of the LIS dose, respectively (Comiran 397 398 et al. 2021, Krishnan et al. 2008) (Table S11).

As it is displayed in Table 4, the expected loads of S(+)-AMP from LIS prescription range 399 from 1.0 to 7.0 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹. When compared to the loads of AMP (sum of 400 both enantiomers) actually found in wastewater, the prescription of LIS would account 401 402 for less than 1% of the AMP consumption estimated in Bilbao and its metropolitan area, 403 clearly pointing to illicit drug use. Conversely, in Madrid (Northern area) about 58% of 404 AMP consumption in 2018 could be explained by prescription, which, together with EF_R 405 results (< 0.50 in 2018, R(+)-AMP below MQL in 2019) could confirm a mixed origin 406 (illicit use and LIS prescription). In Santiago de Compostela, medical prescription contribution is expected to be relatively high (over 37-44%, Table 4), but the EF_R was 407 above 0.53 (Table S9) in all samples, which could then indicate that illicit consumption 408 would be more relevant than LIS prescription. This disagreement may be explained by 409 410 the fact that the external psychology consultations at the Santiago's hospital cover a larger 411 healthcare area, thus, many of the patients do not live in this area and thus do no contribute to the wastewater samples. Further factors contributing to the uncertainty of the 412 413 estimations made are non-adherence to prescription, which has been calculated to be a 30% in Spain (Siffel et al. 2020). Therefore, data presented in Table 4 would likely 414 415 represent an overestimating scenario (maximum contribution of prescription) and the real

416 contribution of LIS would be lower. Even with these data in mind some EF_R values would 417 be higher than 0.5 in locations where prescription should be a relevant source. This is 418 further limited by the fact that when pure (George and Braithwaite 2000) or enriched 419 enantiomer (Cody et al. 2003) medications are prescribed, a certain degree of 420 interconversion occurs over time, which would lead to excretion of some R(-)-AMP and 421 not only pure S(+)-AMP.

422 Considering these limitations, it seems still evident that the contribution of LIS
423 prescription should be taken into account in future studies, particularly in those areas
424 where the amount of AMP measured in wastewater is rather low.

As regards the contribution of SEL prescription to R(-)-AMP in wastewater, the 425 expectable loads would range from 0.0028 to 0.022 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹ (Table 426 427 S12). Those data were obtained from SEL prescription figures, considering a 15.4% excretion rate, as the weighted average of 4 different studies with a total of 21 individuals 428 429 (detailed in Table S13) (Elsworth et al. 1978, Heinonen et al. 1989, Liebowitz et al. 1985, 430 Reynolds et al. 1978) and the corresponding molecular weights. Such loads can be 431 considered as negligible as they are two orders of magnitude lower than those from LIS, therefore representing less than 0.2% of the total AMP in any of the WWTPs. Actually, 432 433 even in Palma, where the prescription of SEL was higher and with a dry precipitation regime (thus lower WWTP inflows) such loads will translate into ca. 0.2 ng L⁻¹ 434 435 concentrations of R(-)-AMP, i.e. below the MDL of the method.

436 *3.5.2 Methamphetamine*

437 Only S(+)-MAMP was detected in wastewater and the concentrations were low in all 438 cities, with average values below 45 ng L⁻¹ (Table 3) and maximum values up to 54 ng L⁻ 439 ¹ (Table S6). S(+)-MAMP average loads were lower than 13 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitants⁻¹ 440 (Tables 3 and S7), confirming previous observations in Spain, with Barcelona, not
441 analysed here, being the exception (Bijlsma et al. 2021, González-Mariño et al. 2020).

The prescription of SEL would be equivalent to loads in the 0.0090-0.072 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹ (Table S12), after considering an average excretion of R(-)-MAMP of 45.5% from SEL, according to the metabolism data compiled in Table S13 (Elsworth et al. 1978, Heinonen et al. 1989, Liebowitz et al. 1985, Reynolds et al. 1978). Again, as in the case of AMP, considering Palma as the place where the highest contribution of SEL prescription towards R(-)-MAMP is expected, this would result into concentrations of ca. 0.6 ng L⁻¹, which is below the MDL.

Thus, as regards the enantiomeric profiling of MAMP, EF_R was always 0, i.e. R(-)-MAMP was below MDL in all samples (Table S9). These data reinforces the results observed in *3.4* that indicated that MAMP consumed in Spain is synthesized as pure S(+)-MAMP, as in most parts of Europe, while the contribution of SEL is negligible. This would prevent from detecting any direct dumping event, but since no particularly high concentrations could be detected, this was not expected to have occurred in any of the WWTPs investigated during the sampling period.

456 *3.5.3 MDMA*

As for AMP, the two enantiomers of MDMA were detected in wastewater. The mean MDMA concentration (as sum of both isomers) ranged from <MQL up to 374 ng L⁻¹ (Table S6). The highest concentrations were found in the wastewater from Palma, but once corrected for population and flows, this does not translate into higher loads. Average loads varied between 2-38 mg day⁻¹ 1000 inhabitant⁻¹ (Table 3), which is in the range of the already estimated MDMA loads in Spain in former studies (González-Mariño et al. 2020).

The EF_R average for MDMA was 0.61 ± 0.05 , being above 0.5 in all samples (Table S9) 464 thus indicating the predominance of R(-)-MDMA in wastewater. These values match with 465 urinary data, where 6 volunteers administered 100 mg of racemic MDMA leaded to an 466 average EFR of 0.657 over 24 h (Pizarro et al. 2002). Furthermore, an autopsy study 467 revealed an EF_R of 0.57 (Moore et al. 1996). As MDMA is trafficked as racemate (see 468 3.4) and the S(+)-enantiomer is metabolized faster in the human body, the observed 469 enrichment of R(-)-MDMA corroborates illicit consumption as the main source of 470 471 MDMA in wastewater (Castrignanò et al. 2018). No event of drug disposal in the sewage network was detected. 472

473 *3.5.4 Treated wastewater*

Given the high concentrations of AMP detected in the WWTP of Bilbao and its 474 metropolitan area in both 2018 and 2019, treated wastewater samples were also collected 475 in 2019 and in the same way as raw wastewater, but with a delay of 24 h to account for 476 the hydraulic residence time in the plant. AMP and MAMP levels were below the MQL 477 in all treated wastewater samples, whereas MDMA was detected in all samples. As 478 detailed in Table S14. MDMA levels ranged from 31 to 99 ng L^{-1} (average 57 ng L^{-1}). 479 which is similar to the median value of 56 ng L^{-1} measured in the effluents of 42 WWTPs 480 from the region of Catalonia (Spain) collected during 2006 and 2007 (Huerta-Fontela et 481 al. 2008). Little is known about the ecotoxicological effects of MDMA, but the 482 anticipated value of predicted non-effect concentration for this substance is 220 ng L⁻¹ 483 (Fernández-Rubio et al. 2019), hence emissions from the WWTP are not expected to 484 generate ecotoxicological effects. Yet, there is a clear need for further experimental data, 485 486 particularly considering the co-occurrence of different enantiomers (Sanganyado et al. 2017). 487

These data imply that the removal of AMP in the WWTP, considering the MQL, was higher than 99%, while MDMA nominal removal was 61% when considering the average concentrations measured in the effluent and influent (MAMP was below the MQL in both types of wastewater). Similar good removal rates for AMP but a higher variability in the case of MDMA have been reported in the literature (Bijlsma et al. 2012, Bijlsma et al. 2014b, Huerta-Fontela et al. 2008, Yadav et al. 2017).

Furthermore, the EF_R of MDMA shifted from 0.68 ± 0.07 in the influent to 0.88 ± 0.04 in the effluent, which implies a further prevalence of the less biologically active enantiomer, R(-)-MDMA, after the wastewater treatment and a clear distinct elimination profile of both enantiomers, i.e.: average removals of 21% and 77%, for R(-)-MDMA and S(+)-MDMA, respectively. Such enantioselective elimination has already been observed in a WWTP in Valencia studied in 2012 (Vazquez-Roig et al. 2014) but, as mentioned, ecotoxicological implications remain unknown.

501

502 4. CONCLUSIONS

503 An analytical methodology based on SPE and LC-MS/MS has been successfully developed for the determination of three chiral amphetamine-like substances in urban 504 wastewater and street drug samples. The analyses of consumer-donated street drugs 505 506 clearly indicated that AMP and MDMA are produced as racemic mixtures for the Spanish 507 illicit market, while MAMP is produced as the pure active S(+)-enantiomer. The enantiomeric profiling from wastewater analyses indicated that much higher levels of 508 AMP occur in the metropolitan area of Bilbao compared to other Spanish cities, which, 509 510 combined with LIS and SEL prescription data indicate that its origin can be attributed 511 mainly to illicit consumption. Conversely, in the remaining Spanish cities investigated, 512 where AMP levels are low, the prescription of LIS may become a relevant source of AMP,

whereas the contribution of the prescription of the pharmaceutical SEL to AMP and
MAMP loads is negligible. Finally, the analysis of effluent samples in the area of Bilbao
showed that AMP is well removed in a WWTP equipped with conventional biological
water treatments, while the removal of MDMA is relatively high for the S(+)-enantiomer,
but much more limited for R(-)-MDMA.

518

519 CRediT authorship contribution statement

520 Andrea Estévez-Danta: Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Visualization,

521 Writing - original draft. Rosa Montes: Methodology, Supervision, Formal analysis,

522 Writing - original draft. Lubertus Bijlsma: Investigation, Resources, Methodology,

523 Writing - review & editing. Rafael Cela: Resources, Funding acquisition. Alberto

524 Celma: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing. Iria González-Mariño:

525 Methodology, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Manuel Miró: Resources,

526 Writing - review & editing. Vanessa Gutmann: Investigation, Methodology. Unai

527 Pérez de San Román-Landa: Resources. Ailette Prieto: Resources, Writing - review

528 & editing. Mireia Ventura: Resources, Writing - review & editing. Rosario Rodil:

529 Resources, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Writing - review &

530 editing. José Benito Quintana: Resources, Visualization, Supervision, Funding

531 acquisition, Writing - review & editing.

532

533 Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personalrelationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

536

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