

Chapter 5

Occurrence, effects and methods for antibiotics and illicit drugs in the environment

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5.1 Introduction

From around the globe, a variety of emerging contaminants (ECs), specifically pharmaceuticals and illicit drugs, have been identified in multiple environmental compartments [i.e., soils, plants, fish, surface waters, source waters, drinking water, and influents and effluents from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs)]. Several insightful reviews covering general topic knowledge, analytical methods, and reports of occurrence of these ECs have been published (Jones-Lepp et al. 2009; Kümmerer 2009a; Kümmerer 2009b; Martinez 2009; Turkdogan et al. 2009; Kümmerer 2010; Deblonde et al. 2011; Pal et al. 2012; Richardson 2012).

There are a wide variety of antibiotics that are available for the treatment of bacterial diseases in humans and other animal species, see Table 1. Usually the antibiotics used in the treatment of human diseases are not identical to those used in treatment of animal diseases, but instead are isomers, or isobars, to prevent cross-reactivity of antibiotic resistant bacteria (ARB) between humans and other animal species. However, some antibiotic classes, i.e., macrolides, quinolones, sulfonamides, tetracyclines, and β -lactams, are used in the treatment of disease in both human and other animal species.

Methamphetamine, methylenedioxy-methamphetamine (MDMA, Ecstasy), heroin, and cocaine are considered illicit substances in the United States (US), as listed in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) Title 21 United States Code (USC) Controlled Substances Act (<http://www.deadiversion.usdoj.gov/21cfr/21usc/index.html>). While other narcotics, and habit-forming prescription drugs, such as, hydrocodone, oxycodone, morphine, and diazepam (valium), are not considered illicit substances, they are considered controlled substances. Controlled substances are compounds that the US Drug and Enforcement Agency (DEA) lists as

schedule III and IV drugs, substances that have a potential for abuse,

(<http://www.deadiversion.usdoj.gov/21cfr/21usc/index.html>).

This chapter is intended as an updated review focusing on the occurrence, effects, and methodologies encompassing antibiotics and illicit substances in the environment.

5.2 Environmental Occurrence – routes of exposure

There are several routes of possible exposure from human-use antibiotics and illicit drugs into the environment. Probably the most prevalent exposure route is through consumer consumption and subsequent excretion into the municipal sewer systems and transport through the WWTP process into surface waters (Batt et al. 2006a; Batt et al. 2006b; Choi et al. 2008; Feitosa-Felizzola et al. 2009; Kümmerer 2009b; Kümmerer 2009a; Loganathan et al. 2009; Le-Minh et al. 2010; Zuccato et al. 2010; Murata et al. 2011; de la Torre et al. 2012; Jones-Lepp et al. 2012; K'Oreja et al. 2012; Lupo et al. 2012; Zheng et al. 2012).

Other possible routes of exposure can be through leaking septic systems, non-seweraged systems (e.g., boat privies, outhouses), land-use of reclaimed wastewater (Jones-Lepp et al. 2010; Lapworth et al. 2012), and application of biosolids onto agricultural fields, (Jones-Lepp 2006; Kinney et al. 2006; Jones-Lepp et al. 2007; Sabourin et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2009; Tso et al. 2011; Lapworth et al. 2012; Rosi-Marshall et al. 2012; Kolpin et al. 2013; Li et al. 2013).

A unique route of environmental exposure to antibiotics is through the practice of aquaculture (fish farming). Many countries, particularly in Southeast Asia (Hoa et al. 2011; Zheng et al. 2012), use the intensive practice of aquaculture for food production, and this can lead to inadvertent introduction of antibiotics into surrounding surface waters. In Vietnam, they use an integrated farming practice – vegetable, aquaculture, caged animal (VAC), which can

directly lead to contamination of surface waters from antibiotics used in swine farming, as well as aquaculture, (Hoa et al. 2011). Here in the US, catfish and salmon aquaculture are practiced, whereby only sulfadimethoxine (a sulfonamide) combined with ormetoprim, is allowable for treating bacterial infections (APHIS 2003) in catfish and salmon aquaculture [US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) Green Book, last accessed 28-May-13]. Sulfadimethoxine is closely related to sulfamethoxazole, which is combined with trimetoprim, to treat bacterial infections in humans (Rxlist.com, last accessed 28-May-13). Ormetoprim and trimetoprim are isobaric antibiotic compounds ($C_{14}H_{18}N_4O_3$, MW 290.1379 Da), used for veterinary and human use, respectively. Other types of sulfonamides, and drug combinations, are permissible in swine farming in Southeast Asia and the US (Hoa et al. 2011; Apley et al. 2012), again increasing their likelihood of entering the environment through integrated farming practices. Having related antibiotics released together into the environment increases the chances of developing ARB in the environment that could cross over between species. The topic of ARB will be discussed later in this chapter.

In 2003, Khan and Ongerth (Khan et al. 2003) reported, for the first time, at the 2003 National Ground Water conference, the presence of an illicit substance, methamphetamine, in wastewater effluent from a large US city in California. Jones-Lepp et al. (2004) reported for the first time in the peer-reviewed literature, the detection of two illicit drugs, methamphetamine and MDMA, collected from wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) effluent streams in Nevada and South Carolina, US (Jones-Lepp et al. 2004). Since 2004, numerous articles have been published regarding the environmental occurrence of illicit drugs (Chiaia et al. 2008; Bartelt-Hunt et al. 2009; Petrovic et al. 2010; Jones-Lepp et al. 2012; Aguilar et al. 2013).

Besides release via WWTPs, smaller contributions of illicit drugs into the environment are from clandestine drug laboratories. For example, during the illegal manufacturing of methamphetamine well over 50 hazardous chemicals are either used, or produced, as methamphetamine by-products (USEPA 2008). All of those hazardous compounds, including methamphetamine, have the potential to enter the environment through improper disposal into the city sewer or individual septic systems, via shallow drainage ditches directly onto surrounding soils (commonly used in remote methamphetamine operations), or through burn or burial pits (USEPA 2008).

5.3 Ecotoxicological Effects

While there have been many papers regarding the finding of antibiotics and illicit drugs in the environment, there have been very few papers written with regards to ecotoxicological consequences. Santos et al. (2010) published a very good review of ecotoxicological effects from a wide variety of drugs, including antibiotics (Santos et al. 2010). In this review, they look at various toxicological endpoints such as, growth inhibition, adverse reproductive effects, histopathological changes, and other adverse effects. An article by Rosi-Marshall and Royer (2012) provides a brief review of sources of pharmaceuticals into aquatic ecosystems and ecological effects. They outline a broad-plan for future research efforts regarding the consequences of ecosystem-level exposure for those in the scientific community studying aquatic ecology (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2012).

5.3.1 Antibiotics. The introduction and use of antibiotics in the early 20th century has led to a decrease in mortality from common bacterial infections, but there are adverse

consequences due to their overuse and misuse. Unexpected ecotoxicological effects can come from indirect exposure to antibiotics that are essentially designed for one purpose - treatment of human and domestic livestock for illness and disease (Isidori et al. 2005). For example, it is now recognized that the increasing use of human antibiotics can lead to an increase in ARBs in the environment, which is an unintended negative consequence (Schwartz et al. 2003; Da Silva et al. 2006; Pruden et al. 2006; Schwartz et al. 2006; Auerbach et al. 2007; Felmingham et al. 2007; Kim et al. 2007a; Lindberg et al. 2007; Schlüter et al. 2007; Baquero et al. 2008; Martinez 2009; Rosenblatt-Farrell 2009; Szczepanowski et al. 2009; Turkdogan et al. 2009; Knapp et al. 2010; Hoa et al. 2011; Merlin et al. 2011; Munir et al. 2011; Gao et al. 2012; Lupo et al. 2012; Vignesh et al. 2012; Maal-Bared et al. 2013; Michael et al. 2013; Shi et al. 2013). Kümmerer gives two very good overviews of antibiotics in the aquatic environment that touch upon nearly every aspect of origin, fate and effects of antibiotics, as well as the rise of ARBs, in the aquatic environment (Kümmerer 2009a; Kümmerer 2009b).

Besides the development of ARB, other ecological toxic effects from exposure to antibiotics in the environment have been shown. For example, the sulfonamide, sulfamethoxazole, and the fluoroquinolone, levofloxacin, elicit strong phytotoxic responses in two aquatic plants, *Myriophyllum sibiricum* and *Lemna gibba* (Brain et al. 2004). Ciprofloxacin, a fluoroquinolone, has been shown to inhibit photosynthesis through interference in the photosynthetic pathway through inhibition of DNA gyrase (Aristilde et al. 2010). Garcia-Käufer et al. (2012) demonstrated that ciprofloxacin, and its photodegradation products, while not cytotoxic do elicit genotoxic effects upon human cell cultures (Garcia-Käufer et al. 2012). González-Pleiter et al. (2013) tested five different antibiotics individually, and as mixtures, for their toxicity towards two representative aquatic organisms; cyanobacterium *Anabaena*

CPB4337, and green alga *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* (González-Pleiter et al. 2013). Their study showed that the cyanobacterium were more sensitive to exposure than the green alga, and that erythromycin (a macrolide antibiotic widely used in Europe; the counterpart drug is azithromycin in the US) was shown to be highly toxic to both organisms. Macrolides, and the other classes of antibiotics tested (i.e., tetracycline, quinolones and amoxicillin), as well as other antibiotic classes, like the sulfonamides, have all been detected in US waters (e.g., source, well, drinking) (Yang et al. 2003; Alvarez et al. 2005; Batt et al. 2006a; Batt et al. 2006b; Jones-Lepp 2006; Barnes et al. 2008; Bhandari et al. 2008; Benotti et al. 2009; Loganathan et al. 2009; Jones-Lepp et al. 2012), and throughout the world (Nageswara Rao et al. 2008; Chang et al. 2010; García-Galán et al. 2010; Hoa et al. 2011; Murata et al. 2011; Al Aukidy et al. 2012). The Gonzalez-Pleiter (González-Pleiter et al. 2013) study supports earlier toxicity studies that had determined the toxicity of various antibiotics to aquatic organisms (Isidori et al. 2005; Kim et al. 2007b).

5.3.2 Illicit drugs. Illicit drugs have been detected in environmental waters from around the industrialized world (Castiglioni et al. 2011). However, there is very little in the literature regarding the impact of illicit drugs in the environment on aquatic organisms. Binelli et al. (2012) and Parolini et al. (2013) have both shown cytotoxicity in zebra mussels (*Dreissena polymorpha*) from exposure to cocaine (Binelli et al. 2012) and its metabolite benzoylecgonine (Parolini et al. 2013). What little is known regarding the ecotoxicology of illicit drugs has been reported in a review by Domingo et al. (Domingo et al. 2010). A recent article by Thomas and Klaper (2012) proposed that there is a possible pathway between unmetabolized psychoactive compounds that have been found in source waters, sewage effluent, and drinking waters and

consequent exposure of the unborn to these compounds and the development of autism (Thomas et al. 2012).

5.4 Analytical Methodologies

5.4.1 Extraction. The majority of the extraction techniques for antibiotics and illicit drugs in aqueous environmental matrices use solid phase extraction (SPE) cartridges. For solid environmental matrices, a variety of other techniques are employed like pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) and liquid-liquid extraction (LLE). Typical concentrations of antibiotics and illicit drugs found in the environment are in the nanogram per liter (ng L^{-1}) range, making pre-concentration, and cleanup, prior to detection an important step. Several methods of extracting and concentrating antibiotics and illicit drugs from environmental matrices in both aqueous and solid matrices are listed as follows:

- liquid-liquid micro-extraction (LLME) (Lin et al. 2008),
- solid phase extraction (SPE) (Batt et al. 2006a; Batt et al. 2006b; Jones-Lepp et al. 2012; Zhou et al. 2012a; Zhou et al. 2012b; Dorival-García et al. 2013)
- tandem-solid-phase extraction (where two, or more, SPE cartridges are used in tandem for separation and clean-up) (Zhou et al. 2012b)
- ultra-sonication (Yang et al. 2010; Zuccato et al. 2010; Hu et al. 2011)
- microwave assisted extraction (MAE) (Chen et al. 2009; Hu et al. 2010; Sanchez-Prado et al. 2010; Azzouz et al. 2012; Speltini et al. 2012)
- molecularly imprinted polymers (MIP) (Turiel et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2010)
- pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) (Jones-Lepp et al. 2007; Lillenberg et al. 2009; Vazquez-Roig et al. 2010)

- large volume injection (LVI) (Thompson et al. 2009; Backe et al. 2012)
- magnetic nanoparticles dispersive-SPE (dSPE) (Herrera-Herrera et al. 2011; Xu et al. 2012).

5.4.2 Detection. Most environmental matrices are complex, and only the mass accuracy and specificity given by mass spectrometry can overcome the large amounts of interferences found in environmental matrices. Although simpler detectors are sometimes used, such as ultra-violet/visible (UV/Vis), fluorescence, diode array (DAD), etc., the majority of the detection techniques used to identify the very low levels (ppb and lower) of antibiotics and illicit drugs in complex environmental matrices are mass spectrometry based (Petrovic et al. 2005; Hao et al. 2007; Richardson 2010; Richardson 2012).

5.4.2.1 *Gas Chromatography/mass spectrometry*

Initially, gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) was an analytical approach used for detecting non-polar pharmaceuticals, polar pharmaceuticals (with derivatization), and steroids and hormones in environmental matrices (Garrison et al. 1976; Moeder et al. 2000). In general, substances that vaporize < 300 °C (and; therefore, are stable up to that temperature) can be measured by GC/MS. Unlike non-specific detection techniques [e.g., ultra-violet/diode array detection (UV/DAD), or fluorescence], GC/MS offers the ability to produce multiple fragment ions from a given analyte, via electron impact ionization, giving an unequivocal mass spectral fingerprint.

5.4.2.2 *Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry.*

From almost the beginning of the finding of pharmaceuticals in the environment (Hirsch et al. 1999), there was also the realization that liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC-MS) would be the better analytical detection technique than GC/MS because most of the classes of pharmaceuticals (i.e., antibiotics and illicit drugs) are polar and have low volatility making them ideal candidates for LC/MS. The coupling of LC to MS has been utilized for over 30 years (Niessen 2006).

Briefly, the mobile phase of the LC is nebulized via electrospray ionization (ESI) into a MS source. LC/MS is a technique that usually only creates a single ion in the source, typically the molecular ion plus or minus a hydrogen; if in the positive ionization mode, $(M+H)^+$, or if in the negative ionization mode, $(M-H)^-$. However, the formation of a single ion is also a limitation of LC/MS, for without more than one ion for identification, misidentification of analytes in complex environmental matrices can occur. Therefore, when using LC/MS, tandem MS, or MS/MS, techniques must be used for more specific identification. Tandem MS is a MS technique whereby the precursor ion formed in the MS source [in the case of LC/MS this is typically the $(M+H)^+$ or $(M-H)^-$ ion] is energized and collided, either in a triple quadrupole, ion trap, or a magnetic sector, mass spectrometer; thereby, producing product ions. Product ions are typically the loss of various functional groups from the analytes, for example $(M+H-OH)^+$ or $(M+H-CH_3)^+$.

5.5 Conclusions

There are now numerous articles demonstrating methods for detecting and reporting on the occurrence and fate with regards to antibiotics and illicit drugs. However, continued research

efforts are still necessary for better understanding of the complexity of continual low-level environmental exposures to these chemicals either singly or as mixtures, and their subtle effects not only on aquatic organisms, but ultimately, the consequences to those higher up in the food chain, i.e., humans. The ability to understand the potential for adverse effects from environmental exposure from antibiotics and illicit drugs on human and ecological health is becoming more important due to the increasing multi-use character of wastewater effluent (e.g., snowmaking, golf course irrigation, landscape irrigation, crop irrigation, etc.), and in some cases where it is continuously recycled in a closed-loop, such as in Singapore, and Scottsdale, Arizona (US). This multi-use and recycling of wastewater effluent increases the potential for cumulative increases of antibiotics and illicit drugs into water supply sources. Water reuse is becoming especially important in densely populated arid areas where there is an increasing demand to supply water from limited sources. Human well-being in a future world will depend more heavily upon a sustainable source water resource and the characterization of antibiotics and illicit drugs will become important for ecological and human health risk assessments and commodities valuation of water resources (Young 2005). Through improved understanding of environmental exposures, and greater knowledge of their chemical fate, better models of risk assessment can be made. Ideally, the information gathered will provide better models could be developed for predicting occurrence, fate and effects; leading to proactive responses, instead of reactive responses to environmental exposures from new emerging contaminants (Kostich et al. 2008). Improvements in limits of detection and specificity are fundamental to advancing our understanding of the sources, transport, and the ultimate fate of these contaminants.

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Table 1. Classes of antibiotics and illicit drugs: Analytical methods, environmental matrix, country, reference.

Classes of antibiotics – illicit drugs	Analytical Methods Extraction - Detection	Environmental matrix	Country	Reference
Sulfonamides	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	Italy	(Al Aukidy et al. 2012)
	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Alvarez et al. 2005)
	SPE HPLC-LC-MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)
	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	surface water	US	(Bartelt-Hunt et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wellwater	US	(Batt et al. 2006b)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Batt et al. 2006a)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	drinking water	US	(Benotti et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-fluorescence and photodiode array	wastewater	US	(Bhandari et al. 2008)
	Tandem SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewaters and source waters	China	(Chang et al. 2010)
	MAE-SPE HPLC-MS/MS	soils	China	(Chen et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS PLE HPLC-MS/MS	surface water, sediments	France	(Feitosa-Felizzola et al. 2009)
	on-line SPE-HPLC-MS/MS	surface water, groundwater wastewater, influent	Spain	(García-Galán et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source waters	Vietnam	(Hoa et al. 2011)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	soils	China	(Hu et al. 2011)
	MAE HPLC-MS/MS	Manure	China	(Hu et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS	wastewater	Korea	(Choi et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	Kenya	(K'Oreje et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS	soils	US	(Kinney et al. 2006)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater lagoon	US	(Li et al. 2013)
	PLE HPLC-MS/MS	sewage sludge	Estonia	(Lillenberg et al. 2009)
	LLME HPLC/UV	waters	Taiwan	(Lin et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	Japan	(Murata et al. 2011)

	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	surface waters	India	(Nageswara Rao et al. 2008)
	SPE and PLE, HPLC-MS/MS	runoff waters and biosolids	Canada	(Sabourin et al. 2009)
	SPE and PLE, HPLC-MS/MS	runoff waters and biosolids	US	(Tso et al. 2011)
	SPE and PLE HPLC-MS/MS	soils and sediments	Spain	(Vazquez-Roig et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	China	(Xu et al. 2007)
	sonication-SPE rapid resolution (RR)LC-MS/MS	sediments	China	(Yang et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	seawater	China	(Zheng et al. 2012)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments, manure, sludge, surface water, lagoon wastewater, wastewater	China	(Zhou et al. 2012b)
Fluoroquinolones	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	Italy	(Al Aukidy et al. 2012)
	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Alvarez et al. 2005)
	SPE HPLC/MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Batt et al. 2006a)
	MIP HPLC-UV	soils		(Turiel et al. 2007)
	SPE HPLC-fluorescence and photodiode array	wastewater	US	(Bhandari et al. 2008)
	Tandem-SPE HPCL-MS/MS	wastewaters and source waters	China	(Chang et al. 2010)
	Magnetic-MIP HPLC-MS/MS	environmental waters	China	(Chen et al. 2010)
	SPE UPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	Spain	(Dorival-García et al. 2013)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS PLE HPLC-MS/MS	surface water, sediments	France	(Feitosa-Felizzola et al. 2009)
	magnetic nanoparticles dSPE capillary zone electrophoresis (CZE)-DAD	waters	Spain	(Herrera-Herrera et al. 2011)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	soils	China	(Hu et al. 2011)
	MAE HPLC-MS/MS	Manure	China	(Hu et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	Kenya	(K'Oreje et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS/MS	sewage sludge	Estonia	(Lillenberg et al. 2009)

	Ultrasonic L/S HPLC-MS/MS	Sewage sludge	Sweden	(Lindberg et al. 2007)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	surface waters	India	(Nageswara Rao et al. 2008)
	MAE HPLC-fluorescence	soils	Italy	(Speltini et al. 2012)
	SPE and PLE HPLC-MS/MS	soils and sediments	Spain	(Vazquez-Roig et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	China	(Xu et al. 2007)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments	China	(Yang et al. 2010)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments, manure, sludge, surface water, lagoon wastewater, wastewater	China	(Zhou et al. 2012b)
Macrolides	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	Italy	(Al Aukidy et al. 2012)
	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Alvarez et al. 2005)
	SPE HPLC/MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)
	POCIS LC-MS/MS	surface water	US	(Bartelt-Hunt et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Batt et al. 2006a)
	LLE HPLC-fluorescence and photodiode array	wastewater	US	(Bhandari et al. 2008)
	Tandem SPE HPCL-MS/MS	wastewaters and source waters	China	(Chang et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS PLE HPLC-MS/MS	surface water, sediments	France	(Feitosa-Felizzola et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source waters	Vietnam	(Hoa et al. 2011)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	US	(Jones-Lepp et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS/MS	vegetables, bermuda grass	US	(Jones-Lepp et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	Kenya	(K'Oreje et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS	soils	US	(Kinney et al. 2006)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater lagoon	US	(Li et al. 2013)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	Japan	(Murata et al. 2011)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	China	(Xu et al. 2007)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments	China	(Yang et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	seawater	China	(Zheng et al. 2012)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments, manure, sludge, surface	China	(Zhou et al. 2012b)

		water, lagoon wastewater, wastewater		
Tetracyclines	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Alvarez et al. 2005)
	SPE HPLC/MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Batt et al. 2006a)
	Tandem SPE HPCL-MS/MS	wastewaters and source waters	China	(Chang et al. 2010)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS PLE HPLC-MS/MS	surface water, sediments	France	(Feitosa-Felizzola et al. 2009)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	soils	China	(Hu et al. 2011)
	MAE HPLC-MS/MS	manure	China	(Hu et al. 2010)
	SPE and PLE, HPLC-MS/MS	runoff waters and biosolids	US	(Tso et al. 2011)
	SPE and PLE HPLC-MS/MS	soils and sediments	Spain	(Vazquez-Roig et al. 2010)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments	China	(Yang et al. 2010)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments, manure, sludge, surface water, lagoon wastewater, wastewater	China	(Zhou et al. 2012b)
Amphenicols	MAE-SPE GC-MS	sewage sludge	Spain	(Azzouz et al. 2012)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	China	(Xu et al. 2007)
	sonication SPE RRLC-MS/MS	sediments, manure, sludge, surface water, lagoon wastewater, wastewater	China	(Zhou et al. 2012b)
β -lactams	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	Kenya	(K'Oreje et al. 2012)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	surface waters	India	(Nageswara Rao et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	waters	China	(Xu et al. 2007)
Illicit drugs	SPE LC-MS/MS	wetland waters	Spain	(Aguilar et al. 2013)
	POCIS HPLC-MS/MS	surface water	US	(Bartelt-Hunt et al. 2009)
	LVI HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Chiaia et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	US	(Jones-Lepp et al. 2012)
Opiates	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wetland waters	Spain	(Aguilar et al. 2013)
	SPE HPLC/MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)

	LVI HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Chiaia et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	US	(Jones-Lepp et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS	soils	US	(Kinney et al. 2006)
Psychiatric drugs	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	Italy	(Al Aukidy et al. 2012)
	SPE HPLC/MS	groundwater	US	(Barnes et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	drinking water	US	(Benotti et al. 2009)
	LVI HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater	US	(Chiaia et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS	wastewater	Korea	(Choi et al. 2008)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	source water	Kenya	(K'Oreje et al. 2012)
	PLE HPLC-MS	soils	US	(Kinney et al. 2006)
	SPE HPLC-MS/MS	wastewater lagoon	US	(Li et al. 2013)
	SPE and PLE HPLC-MS/MS	runoff waters and biosolids	Canada	(Sabourin et al. 2009)
	SPE and PLE HPLC-MS/MS	soils and sediments	Spain	(Vazquez-Roig et al. 2010)

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