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alpha-aminoalkyl radicals

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Abstract: The reaction of three chloronicotinoid insecticides, namely Imidacloprid (IMD), Thiacloprid (THIA) and Acetamiprid (ACT), with carbonate radicals (CO3*-) was investigated. The second order rate constants $(4 \pm 1) \times 106$, $(2.8 \pm 0.5) \times 105$, and $(1.5 \pm 1) \times 105$ M-1s-1 were determined for IMD, THIA and ACT, respectively. The absorption spectra of the organic intermediates formed after CO3*- attack to IMD is in line with those reported for \mathbb{Z} -aminoalkyl radicals. A reaction mechanism involving an initial charge transfer from the amidine nitrogen of the insecticides to CO3*- is proposed and further supported by the identified reaction products. The pyridine moiety of the insecticides remains unaffected until nicotinic acid is formed. CO3*- radical reactivity towards IMD, ACT, and THIA is low compared to that of HO* radicals, excited triplet states, and 102, and is therefore little effective in depleting neonicotinoid insecticides.

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Cover Letter, For Editor only

Dear Editor,

Please find enclosed the manuscript entitled: "Removal of neonicotinoid insecticides by carbonate radicals". The present manuscript gives an insight into the reaction mechanisms and kinetics of carbonate radicals with neonicotinoid insecticides, namely imidacloprid, thiacloprid and acetamiprid.

We thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

Highlights

Highlights:

Cloronicotinoid insecticides show low reactivity towards carbonate radicals.

The reaction involves an initial charge transfer from the insecticide to CO₃*.

After prolonged irradiation chloronicotinic acid is formed.

Hydroxyl and sulfate radicals are among the most effective in degrading the insecticides.

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Removal of neonicotinoid insecticides by carbonate radicals.

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16 Abstract

- 17 The reaction of three chloronicotinoid insecticides, namely Imidacloprid (IMD), Thiacloprid
- 18 (THIA) and Acetamiprid (ACT), with carbonate radicals (CO₃•) was investigated. The second
- order rate constants $(4 \pm 1) \times 10^6$, $(2.8 \pm 0.5) \times 10^5$, and $(1.5 \pm 1) \times 10^5$ M⁻¹s⁻¹ were determined
- for IMD, THIA and ACT, respectively. The absorption spectra of the organic intermediates
- formed after CO_3^{\bullet} attack to IMD is in line with those reported for α -aminoalkyl radicals. A
- reaction mechanism involving an initial charge transfer from the amidine nitrogen of the
- insecticides to CO₃ is proposed and further supported by the identified reaction products.
- 24 The pyridine moiety of the insecticides remains unaffected until nicotinic acid is formed.

- CO₃ radical reactivity towards IMD, ACT, and THIA is low compared to that of HO radicals, excited triplet states, and ¹O₂, and is therefore little effective in depleting neonicotinoid insecticides.
- Keywords: carbonate radicals, neonicotinoid insecticides, Imidacloprid, Thiacloprid,
 Acetamiprid, α-aminoalkyl radical.

Carbonate radical (CO₃*-) is a selective one-electron oxidant, E^0 (CO₃*-/CO₃²-) = 1.78 V vs.

1. Introduction

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NHE, capable of initiating the oxidation of many organic compounds. Carbonate radical reactivity is high for electron rich N-containing chemicals such as heterocycles, fenuron, carbendazim and phenylurea herbicides (Busset et al., 2007, Mazellier et al., 2007). It is also reactive with sulfur-containing compounds such as thioanisole, dibenzothiophene, fenthion, and S-triazine (Canonica et al., 2005; Mazellier et al., 2002; Huang and Mabury, 2000b) with reaction rate constants k ranging from 10^6 to 10^8 M⁻¹ s⁻¹. Aliphatic alcohols are among the least reactive with k in the range from 10^3 to 10^5 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Clifton and Huie, 1993; Neta et al., 1988). Carbonate radicals in natural waters are mainly formed by the reactions of carbonate /bicarbonate ions with either hydroxyl radicals or aromatic-ketones triplet excited states as those contained in dissolved organic matter, DOM (Canonica et al., 2005; Huang and Mabury, 2000; Lam et al., 2003; Vione 2009, Wu and Linden, 2010). The steady state concentration of 10⁻¹³-10⁻¹⁵ M found in natural waters supports the increasing evidence reported in the literature for their important role in the self-cleaning of the hydrosphere basins. Mazellier and coworkers suggested that the degradation of the fungicide carbendazim by CO3 in natural waters and carbonate-contaminated effluents cannot be neglected compared to that initiated by hydroxyl radicals [Mazellier et al., 2002]. Also, Huang and Mabury confirmed that CO₃ contribute to the photodegradation of sulfur-containing xenobiotics in natural and artificial waters [Huang and Mabury, 2000a]. Despite the long

regarded importance of CO₃ in the water environment, studies discussing its reaction mechanisms towards organic contaminants are scarce.

Neonicotinoid insecticides are among the most important commercial insecticides used worldwide owing to their high insecticidal activity, broad insecticidal spectra, good systemic properties, and suitable field stability [Zabar *et al.*, 2011]. Their photodegradation in aquatic media [Moza *et al.*, 1998; Redlich, *et al.*, 2007; Wamhoff and Schneider, 1999], and in advanced oxidation procedures technologies such as solar photo-Fenton and TiO₂ photocatalysis have been reported in the literature [Malato *et al.*, 2001, Cernigoj *et al.*, 2007]. In the last years, the reactivity, mechanisms, and primary degradation products of Imidacloprid (IMD), Thiacloprid (THIA) and Acetamiprid (ACT) (Scheme 1) with hydroxyl radical (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2009], singlet oxygen, and excited triplet states have been investigated (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2010]. Here, kinetic and mechanistic studies on CO₃⁻⁻ oxidation of the insecticides IMD, THIA and ACT are reported, and the importance of these reactions in the self cleansing of natural waters is discussed.

Scheme 1. Chemical structures of the insecticides (from left to right) Acetamiprid,
 Thiacloprid, and Imidacloprid.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals

Imidacloprid, Acetamiprid, and Thiacloprid were obtained from Aldrich and used as received.

Sodium peroxodisulphate, NaOH, and HCIO₄ from Merck, were used without further

purification. Distilled water was passed through a Millipore system (>18MΩ cm, < 20 ppb of
 organic carbon). The pH of the solutions was adjusted to 7.7 ± 0.5 with a HCO₃⁻/H₂CO₃
 buffer by addition of HClO₄ and measured with a Consort pH-meter model C832.

Carbonate radicals are generated *in situ* by reaction of bi/carbonate ions with sulphate radicals. Photolysis of aqueous solutions of $S_2O_8^{2^-}$ with excitation wavelengths $\lambda_{exc} < 300$ nm, reaction (1) in Table 1, is a clean source of sulphate radical ions, SO_4^{-} . The latter radicals are scavenged by excess Na_2CO_3 , reaction (2), with rate constant $k_2 = 3 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Huie, 1991]. Carbonate radicals are expected to be the main oxidizing species in solution if $[CO_3^{2^-}] \sim 1 \text{ M}$ and [insecticides] $< 10^{-4} \text{ M}$.

2.2. Time resolved experiments

Flash-photolysis experiments were carried out using a conventional flash apparatus, Xenon Co. model 720C with modified optics and electronics. Two collinear quartz Xenon high-intensity pulsed flash tubes, Xenon Corp. P/N 890-1128 (FWHM \leq 20 μs), with a continuous spectral distribution ranging from 200 to 600 nm and maximum around 450 nm were used. The analysis source was a high pressure mercury lamp (Osram HBO-100 W). The optical path length of the 1 cm internal diameter quartz sample cell was 10 cm. The monochromator collecting the analysis beam (Bausch & Lomb, high intensity) was directly coupled to a photomultiplier (RCA 1P28), which output was fed into a digital oscilloscope (HP 54600B). Digital data were stored in a personal computer. The emission of the flash lamps was filtered with an aqueous concentrated solution of the corresponding insecticide in order to avoid photolysis of the substrate. The temperature (25 \pm 3 $^{\circ}$ C) was measured inside the reaction cell with a calibrated Digital Celsius Pt-100 Ω thermometer. Freshly prepared solutions were used in order to avoid possible thermal reactions of peroxodisulphate with the substrates.

2.3. Chemical analyses

Samples for product detection were obtained from 254 nm -irradiated oxygen-saturated solutions containing 80 mg/L of the insecticides, 0.025 M of Na₂S₂O₈ and 1M of HNaCO₃. To that purpose, a 1 liter capacity cylindrical glass reactor continuously bubbled with O₂ was used. The reactor was equipped with an axial immersion lamp Heraeus TNN 15/35 (low pressure Hg covered with commercial quartz), which emits nearly monochromatic radiation at 254 nm. Periodically, samples were taken for analyses. Reaction products were analyzed by GC-MS (GCMS-QP2010S, Shimadzu, equipped with a quadrupole mass analyser). To that purpose, 100 mL of the samples were flown through a LiChrolut EN 200 mg cartridge (Merck). The organics were recovered with 3 mL of methanol and the extracts injected in the GC-MS chromatograph. The GC temperature program increased from 60°C to 250°C with a 5°C/min rate. A Meta X5 Teknokroma column was used. The injection volume was 10 μL. Under the experimental conditions used for the detection of products, photolysis of THIA, and ACT is of little significance (< 20 % of the insecticides may be photodegraded at 254 nm after 30 minutes irradiation). On the other hand, despite quantum depletion efficiencies of IMD due to 254 nm photolysis are nine fold times higher those of ACT and THIA, less than 35% of the 254 nm light is absorbed by IMD (S.I. Figure 1). Therefore, IMD photolysis is also expected to be of little significance, as supported by the experimental observation that the photolysis products 1-[(6-chloro-3-pyridi-nyl)methyl]-N-nitroso-2-imidazolidinimine and (1-(6chloro-3-pyridyl-methyl)imidazolidin-2-one) were not among the detected products

2.4 Bilinear regression analysis

(Dell'Arciprete et al., 2009).

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For each experimental condition, several absorbance decay profiles at different detection wavelengths were taken. Absorbance is thus a function of wavelength and time. Taking advantage of the linearity of the absorbance with both concentrations and absorption coefficients, a bilinear regression analysis was applied to the experimental absorption matrix

in order to retrieve information on the minimum number of species and on their relative concentration profiles and absorption spectra (San Román and Gonzalez, 1989].

2.5 Computer simulations: The kinetic model for computer simulation is based on component balances and equilibrium equations formulated in terms of a differential algebraic equations system which is solved by Gear's Stiff method and a least squares estimation criterion as described elsewhere (Alegre *et al.*,2000, Gear, 1971).

3. Results

3.1. Reactions of CO₃ radicals with chloronicotinoid insecticides

Photolysis of air-saturated solutions of pH 7.7 containing 0.025 M $S_2O_8^{2-}$ and 1 M HCO_3^- showed the formation of a transient species absorbing in the wavelength range from 400 to 670 nm whose spectrum taken immediately after the flash of light is in agreement with that reported for CO_3^{+-} (Behar *et al.*, 1970; Busset *et al.*, 2007). Photolysis of the latter solutions in the presence of [insecticides] < 1×10^{-4} M showed absorbance traces in the same wavelength range with decay rates increasing with the insecticide concentration, as shown in Figure 1. The spectrum of the observed transient also agrees with that for CO_3^{+-} . The decay of the absorbance traces, $A(\lambda, t)$, at a given detection wavelength could be well fitted to a mixed first- and second- order decay law given by equation 1.

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$$A(\lambda,t) = \frac{k_{app}}{b(\lambda) \times exp(a \times t) - c(\lambda)} + d(\lambda) \quad eq. (1)$$

Where k_{app} is the rate constant for the first order decay, $d(\lambda)$ corresponds to the absorbance of a long living species, $c(\lambda)$ is the second order decay rate constant, $b(\lambda) = (k_{app}/A_0) + c(\lambda)$, and A_0 is the absorbance change immediately after the flash of light.

The rate constant for the bimolecular recombination of CO_3 radicals, reaction 3 in Table 1, may be obtained from the relation $c(\lambda) = 2k_3/\epsilon l$. Taking $c(\lambda)$ values obtained from the fitting of the traces at 600 nm to eq. (1) and considering $\epsilon_{600}(CO_3) = 2000 \pm 100 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$, it results

that $2k_3 = (1.1 \pm 0.1) \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for a reactive mixture of 1.08 ionic strength. The obtained value agrees with that reported for k_3 in solution of ionic strength = 1.5 (Czapski 1994, Zuo and col., 1999). Values of k_{app} obtained from the fitting to eq. (1) are independent of the detection wavelength λ and linearly increase with the analytical concentration of the insecticide, [Ins]₀, as shown in Figure 1 *inset* for THIA and ACT. The slope of these straight lines yield the bimolecular rate constants k_4 for reaction (4), depicted in Table 1.

Figure 1 about here

Table 1 about here

The reaction rates obtained for the chloronicotinoid insecticides are on the same order of those reported for the herbicides atrazine (1-chloro-3-ethylamine-5-isopropylamine-2,4,6-tryacine) (Huang and Mabury, 2000b) and fenuron (1,1-dimetyl-3-phenylurea) (Mazellier et al; 2007), and the fungicide carbendazim (metylbenzimidazol-2-yl-carbamate) (Mazellier et al., 2002).

To evaluate the possible attack of CO_3 to the pyridine moiety, kinetic experiments were performed with 3-methylpyridine (3-MePy) and 3-chloropyridine (3-ClPy) as models for the estimation of the reactivity of the pyridine moiety in the insecticides. To these purposes, photolysis of air-saturated 0.025 M $S_2O_8^{2-}$ solutions of pH 7.7 containing 1 M HCO_3 and pyridine derivatives in concentrations $< 1 \times 10^{-4}$ M, were performed. The rate constants for the reactions of 3-MePy and 3-ClPy with CO_3 radicals are $k_{3-MePy} = (3.4 \pm 0.2) \times 10^5$ and $k_{3-ClPy} = (2.2 \pm 0.1) \times 10^4$, respectively. Therefore, a low reactivity of the pyridine moiety of the insecticides with CO_3 radicals is expected. However, as ACT and THIA also show a low reactivity towards CO_3 , an attack to the pyridine moiety of the pyridines may only be discarded upon an exhaustive product determination. On the other hand, CO_3 attack on the pyridine moiety of IMD is expected to be of little significance.

3.2 Stable products identification

Insecticide degradation products were identified after 15 and 30 minutes continuous UV irradiation (254 nm) of O_2 -saturated aqueous solutions of pH 7.7 containing 80 mg/L of the insecticides, 0.025 M of $Na_2S_2O_8$ and 1M of $HNaCO_3$. Table 2 shows the identified products and their mass spectrum (MS).

3.3. Computer simulation of the experiments.

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Since CO₃ radicals are formed from the reaction of the strong oxidizing SO₄ radicals with excess carbonate ions, there was concern on the possibility that the oxidation of the insecticides could also be initiated by SO₄, reaction (5), and that the organic radicals thus formed further contribute to the depletion of CO₃. To probe that such reactions were of little significance under the experimental conditions used for the determination of the rate constants, a computer program was built to simulate the experimental absorbance profiles of SO₄ and CO₃. To this purpose, reactions (1) to (5) along with the reactions of SO₄ with water and peroxodisulphate ions (reactions (6) and (7), respectively), and SO_4^- bimolecular recombination (reaction (8)), were taken into account. The reaction rate constants used are those depicted in Table 1. The flash emission was considered a delta function producing SO₄ radicals. Initial SO₄ radical concentration taken as an input parameter, was estimated from experiments under identical conditions but in the absence of carbonate ions, taking ϵ^{450} $(SO_4^-) = 1600 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ (McElroy, 1990)}$. Only for IMD, a 20 - 30% inner filter effect due to the insecticide absorption of the polychromatic light emitted by the flash lamps was taken into account (see S.I Figure 1). Simulated concentration profiles for these transients were converted into the corresponding absorbance curves and compared to the experimental data to fit the set of experiments. A good agreement between experimental and simulated profiles for CO₃ traces was observed in the absence and presence of the insecticides, as depicted for IMD by the dotted and dashed lines in Figure 1. Therefore, experimental CO₃ decay rates give confident information on the k_4 values depicted in Table 1.

Since high concentrations of the insecticides were used in the continuous irradiation experiments of section 3.2 to determine the products of reaction (4), the generation of detectable concentrations of products due to the reaction between the insecticides and SO₄. radicals cannot be neglected. In fact, under the experimental conditions used, the relations $k_{5.\text{THIA}} \times [\text{THIA}]/k_2 \times [\text{CO}_3^{2-1}] > 0.05 \text{ and } k_{5.\text{ACT}} \times [\text{ACT}]/k_2 \times [\text{CO}_3^{2-1}] > 0.05 \text{ apply, strongly suggesting}$ that the competition of THIA (and that of ACT) with CO₃²⁻ anions for SO₄^{*-} radicals is not negligible. To evaluate the magnitude of this contribution, computer simulations were also performed setting as initial parameters the reactant concentrations used in these experiments and considering continuous irradiation conditions. To this purpose, SO4* radicals were assumed to be formed at a rate of 5×10⁻⁶ M s⁻¹ as expected for the irradiation with a 15 W low-pressure Hg lamp (incident photonic flux at 254 nm = 6.1×10⁻⁶ E s⁻¹) of a $0.025 \text{ M S}_2\text{O}_8^{-2}$ solution ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{-2}$ photodissociation quantum yield in the range from 0.5 to 0.7, Criquet et al., 2009) contained in a 2.5 cm optical pathway reactor. The stacked bar plot in S. I. Figure 2, shows the percentage of products due to reactions (4) and (5) formed after the quantitative depletion of the insecticides, as retrieved from the computer simulations. From the comparison of the bars it results that the generation of products from reaction (5) is of little significance only for IMD. However, almost 60 and 70 % contribution of the products of reaction (5) is expected for ACT and THIA, respectively.

3.4. Organic radical intermediates.

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To obtain information on the nature of the organic transients formed after reaction (4), flash photolysis of argon- or air-saturated solutions of pH 7.7 containing $0.025 \text{ M S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$, 1 M HCO₃ and $2x10^{-4}$ M of the insecticides were performed. For each insecticide, several decay profiles were obtained at different wavelengths in the range from 300 to 650 nm. A bilinear regression analysis was applied to each absorbance matrix to gain information on the minimum number of transients formed.

IMD radical intermediates: For experiments with IMD, the bilinear analysis indicates that the data obtained may be described by two transient species with spectra and decay profiles

shown in Figure 2. The transient formed immediately after the flash of light shows absorption spectrum coincident with that of CO₃⁻⁻ (see grey lines in Figure 2, obtained from experiments in the absence of insecticide). The half life of 2 ms observed for this transient is on the order expected for the reaction of CO₃⁻⁻ with 2x10⁻⁴ M IMD under the experimental conditions used. The transient formed after the decay of CO₃⁻⁻ shows an absorption maximum at 300 – 330 nm (full circles in Figure 2) and is assigned to the organic transient formed after reaction (4).

Figure 2 about here

An electron transfer reaction from aminic nitrogen to carbonate radical was proposed for aliphatic amines (Elango *et al.*, 1985), anilines (Elango *et al.*, 1984) and guanine (Shafirovih *et al.*, 2001). Two different mechanisms were proposed for the attack of CO_3^{\bullet} radicals to aliphatic amines (Elango and co-workers). The electron transfer from the N atom to CO_3^{\bullet} yielding an amine radical cation followed by proton elimination and α -aminoalkyl radical formation seems to be the favored mechanism for tertiary amines. For primary amines, a direct α - hydrogen abstraction to yield an α -aminoalkyl radical seems to take place. Both mechanisms may be competitive in secondary amines. Considering that IMD has a tertiary amine group, the electron transfer mechanism might apply. The electron transfer Gibbs energy from insecticides to CO_3^{\bullet} , $\Delta_{ET}G^0$, can be calculated using equation (2).

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$$\Delta G_{ET}^{0} = -F \times [E^{0}(CO_{3}^{-}/CO_{3}^{2}) - E^{0}(Ins^{+}/Ins)] \qquad \text{eq.(2)}$$

Considering $E^0(Ins^{*+}/Ins) < 1.2 \text{ V}$ for the reduction potentials of the chloronicotinoid insecticides (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2010) and $E^0(CO_3^{*-}/CO_3^{2-}) = 1,78 \text{ V}$, the value $\Delta_{ET}G^0 < -56 \text{ kJ/mol}$ is estimated. Consequently, the electron transfer reactions are thermodynamically allowed and the observed organic transient is suspected to be either an amine radical cation or an α -aminoalkyl radical. As, discussed earlier, $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ radical addition to the pyridine moiety of IMD is of no significance, as also supported by the nature of the observed reaction products which maintain the pyridine ring even after prolonged irradiation.

To identify the organic radical formed after reaction (4), the transient spectrum is compared to those obtained by DFT calculations of the IMD radical cation (IMDRC) and α -aminoalkyl radicals published in the literature (Dell Arciprete et al., 2011). The theoretically obtained spectrum of IMDRC evidences an absorption maximum at 300 nm and a less intense band at 410 nm. The α-aminoalkyl radical in the heterocycle (IMDRH) presents an absorption maximum at 310 nm and a shoulder at 450 nm while that of the α -aminoalkyl radical at the methylene bridge (IMDRM) exhibits a maximum around 330 nm. The sum of the spectrum of the two α-aminoalkyl radicals in a 1:1.2 IMDRM: IMDRH ratio shows a good agreement with the organic radical of IMD (see dashed-grey line in Figure 2), and is therefore assigned to these species. THIA and ACT radical intermediates: Independent irradiation experiments performed with ACT and THIA show the formation of mainly one transient in the wavelength range from 400 to 750 nm with absorption maximum at 600 nm, as shown in Figures S.I.3 and S.I.4 for THIA and ACT, respectively. The transient spectrum is coincident with that of CO₃⁻⁻ and its ~ 20 ms half life is on the order expected for the reaction of CO₃* with ACT or THIA under the experiment conditions. Therefore, the transient absorbing at $\lambda > 400$ nm is assigned to CO₃* radicals. Due to the slow reaction between CO₃ and either ACT or THIA, it may be expected that the organic radical intermediates formed from these reactions are present in very low concentrations if their depletion rates are fast. In fact, considering an initial electron transfer from these insecticides to CO₃*, α-aminoalkyl radicals from THIA and ACT are expected to be formed which are reported to decay in the ms time range (Dell'Arciprete et al., 2011). The resolution of the differential mass equations for an intermediate species involved in pseudofirst order consecutive reactions shown in eq. (3), where IR stands for the α -aminoalkyl radicals of either THIA or ACT and k_d is the corresponding intermediate depletion rate constant, leads to equation (4). The subscript "o" indicates initial concentrations taken immediately after the flash of light.

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$$CO_3$$
 + Insecticide (excess) $\stackrel{k_4}{\rightarrow}$ IR $\stackrel{k_d}{\rightarrow}$ Products eq. (3)

$$[IR] = \left[CO_3^{-1} \right]_0 \frac{k_4 \times [Ins]}{k_d - k_4 \times [Ins]} \left[e^{-k_4 \times [Ins]} - e^{-k_d} \right]$$
 eq. (4)

Under the conditions $k_d > k_4 \times [Ins]$, the value of k_d is reflected in the short rising portion of the intermediate concentration profile; at longer times, [IR] depletion is dominated by the exponential term $\exp(-k_4 \times [Ins])$. In fact, the small absorbance traces obtained below 400 nm in experiments with THIA show ~ 1 ms rise time and a 20 ms decay, in agreement with the previous discussion (see Figure S.I.5). Traces obtained at $\lambda > 400$ nm due to CO_3^+ show rise times in the μ s time range, within the duration of the flash of light. Therefore, the absorption traces obtained in the 350 – 400 nm wavelength range in experiments with THIA may be due to α -aminoalkyl radicals, in coincidence with the reported absorption spectrum for these radicals (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2011).

3.5. Reaction pathways

Based on the detected intermediates and the observed reaction products, a pathway for the primary steps of the $CO_3^{\bullet -}$ oxidation of IMD may be proposed, as shown in Scheme 2. An electron transfer pathway from IMD to $CO_3^{\bullet -}$ yields CO_3^{2-} anions and the radical cation IMDRC (reaction path \boldsymbol{a}). Further H^+ elimination from IMDRC leads to the α -aminoalkyl radicals IMDRH, reaction path \boldsymbol{b} , and IMDRM, reaction path \boldsymbol{c} . The α -aminoalkylradicals are able to reduce O_2 to superoxide (Baciocchi et~al., 2004; Hiller and Asmus, 1983; Lalevée et~al., 2007) and upon further addition of water cleave to yield 6-chloronicotinaldehyde (reaction path et~al.). Molecular oxygen addition to IMDRH and the further disproportionation of the resulting peroxyl radical yields the hydroxyl and the keto-derivative of IMD (reaction path et~al.). The latter substances were not observed among the identified products; however, product et~al.

may only be formed from the sequential oxidation of these compounds by CO_3^{\bullet} , reaction path f.

Scheme 2. Reaction mechanism of IMD with carbonate radical. The species in brackets are proposed, but not detected.

Formation of THIA α -aminoalkyl radicals and of products **1** and **2** in experiments with THIA may be explained by an initial electron transfer pathway as also suggested for IMD. Briefly, an initial electron transfer from the aminic N of THIA to CO_3^+ yields the radical cation of the insecticide, THIARC and CO_3^{2-} anions (reaction path \boldsymbol{g} in Scheme 3). Further H⁺ elimination at vicinal C leads to the formation of α -aminoalkylradicals in the heterocycle ring, THIARH (reaction path \boldsymbol{h}) and from the methylene bridge, THIARM (reaction pathway \boldsymbol{i}). Reaction of

THIARH with O_2 and sequential oxidation initiated by CO_3 . leads to the formation of compound **2**, reaction pathway **j**. THIARM addition of O_2 , elimination of superoxide and water addition leads to the formation of 6-chloronicotinal dehyde, reaction pathway **k**.

Scheme 3. Mechanism for the reaction of THIA with carbonate radical anions. Sulphate radical attack to THIA is also shown. Transients and stable products in brackets are proposed, but not detected.

Formation of products **1** and **3** in experiments with ACT may also be explained by an initial electron transfer pathway from ACT to CO_3^- yielding the radical cation ACTRC and CO_3^{2-} anions (reaction path *I* in Scheme 4), as suggested for IMD and THIA. Further H⁺ elimination leads to the formation of α -aminoalkylradicals in the methylene bridge, ACTRM (pathway

m). ACTRM addition of O_2 and water leads to the formation of 6-chloronicotinic aldehyde and the imine product $\bf 3$, reaction path $\bf n$.

Scheme 4. Proposed reaction mechanism for the reaction of ACT with carbonate radical anions. Sulphate radical attack to ACT is also shown. Transients and stable compounds in brackets are proposed, but not detected.

The computer simulations shown in Figure 2 predict that only around 40% (30%) of the formed primary products are due to the reaction of ACT (THIA) with CO₃⁻; the remaining

percentage is due to the insecticides reaction with SO_4 radicals. The reported reaction pathway of SO_4 radical attack to the insecticides (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2011) is coincident with that proposed here for CO_3 ; therefore, the same primary products are formed from reactions (4) and (5), as is the case of products 1 and 3. Product 2 is formed from the primary products successive oxidation by CO_3 , as they were only observed in experiments in the presence of CO_3 anions. Therefore, Schemes 3 and 4, also include SO_4 radical attack to THIA and ACT, reaction paths g' and I', respectively.

4. Discussion

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Large amounts of the neonicotinoid insecticides reach the natural aqueous systems where they may be degraded by biotic and abiotic pathways. Natural reservoirs show low concentrations of oxidizing radicals (see Table 3), such as hydroxyl (HO*) and CO₃* radicals, singlet oxygen (¹O₂), and excited triplet states of dissolved organic matter, ³DOM, which are capable of initiating the oxidation of the pesticides. To evaluate the detoxifying capacity of natural water towards the different insecticides, a minimum reaction mechanism is considered which consists of the reactions of the insecticides with CO3 and HO radicals, ¹O₂, and ³DOM, reactions (4), (9), (10) and (11), respectively, in Table 4. The absorption of 355 nm light by DOM produces ³DOM of 160 kJ mol⁻¹ energy (Bruccoleri et al., 1990, Bruccoleri et al., 1990), of the order of Rose Bengal triplet. Therefore, k_{11} is assumed to be of the order of that reported for the reaction of the insecticides with Rose Bengal triplet (Dell'Arciprete et al., 2010). Table 3 shows the steady-state concentrations of reactive oxidants reported for natural waters, also containing dissolved O2, DOM, carbonates, etc. Scavenging of these oxidants by the natural water matrix components is already accounted for in the reported values. Therefore, the solution of the mass differential equations built for the latter set of reactions considering the steady-state concentrations of the reactive oxidants depicted in Table 3 yields information on the expected lifetime of the insecticides and on the amount of insecticide depleted due to the different reactive intermediates in natural waters. The obtained relations are shown in S.I.6.

357	Table 3 about here

Table 4 about here

An average half life ($t_{1/2}$), as obtained from eq. (5), of 16.0, 4.6 and 4.0 hs is expected for IMD, ACT, and THIA, respectively, under the experimental conditions of a "natural water" of the characteristics described before. Figure 3 shows the predicted depletion of 1×10^{-8} M concentration of each of the insecticides after 16 hours in the "natural water". Singlet molecular oxygen is the most effective species degrading the insecticides, as it is able to degrade 46 % IMD, 81 % THIA, and 86 % ACT. Despite HO* radicals show the smallest steady-state concentration, they are responsible for the depletion of almost 49 % IMD, 16 % THIA, and 13 % ACT. Despite its higher concentration, carbonate radicals is the least effective oxidant in depleting the insecticides.

$$t_{1/2} = In2 \ / \ (k(\text{CO}_3 - \text{Ins}) \times [\text{CO}_3 - \text{Ins}) \times [\text{CO}_3 - \text{Ins}) \times [\text{Ins}] \times [$$

370 eq. (5)

Figure 3 about here

5. Conclusions

The insecticides IMD, THIA, and ACT chemically react with CO_3^{-1} radical anions with rate constants of $(4 \pm 1) \times 10^6$, $(2.8 \pm 0.5) \times 10^5$, and $(1.5 \pm 1) \times 10^5$ M⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively. The amidine nitrogen of the molecule is the preferred site of attack of the insecticides, as also observed for SO_4^{-1} radical, singlet oxygen, and the triplet state of Rose Bengal (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2009, 2010 and 2011).

The low reactivity observed for CO_3^{-1} compared to HO⁺ radicals and 1O_2 indicates that it is little effective in depleting neonicotinoid insecticides. It would take around 6.6 months and 7.4 years to degrade IMD and ACT, respectively, in natural waters containing only CO_3^{-1} radicals as scavengers.

Adequate Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOP) for treatment of water and wastewaters contaminated with IMD, ACT, and THIA should be based on the generation of either HO* or SO₄* radicals as the main oxidizing species. The presence of CO₃²* / HCO₃* anions in the water matrix will considerably diminish the efficiency of the process.

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Figure Captions:

Fig.1- Absorbance traces at 600 nm obtained in experiments with solutions containing 0.025 M Na₂S₂O₈ and 1 M Na₂CO₃ in the presence (grey curve) and absence (black curve) of 1×10^{-5} M of IMD. The dotted grey line stands for the computer simulation obtained for CO₃. profiles under the experiment conditions in the absence of IMD (see text). The dashed black line stands for the computer simulation obtained for CO₃. profiles under the experiment conditions in the presence of 1×10^{-5} M IMD (see text). *Inset*: Apparent rate constant as a function of insecticide concentration for (\P) THIA and (\P) ACT. The dashed curves show the confidence interval at 95 %.

- **Fig. 2** Transient spectra retrieved by a bilinear analysis of the absorption matrix obtained from flash photolysis experiments of air saturated solutions containing 0.025M S₂O₈²⁻; 1 M HCO₃⁻ and 2x10⁻⁴ M IMD. The solid grey line stands for the spectrum of the CO₃⁻ radical obtained in experiments under identical conditions but in the absence of the insecticide. The dashed grey line stands for the 0.46×IMDRM + 0.54×IMDRH combination of the theoretical spectrum of IMDRM and IMDRH taken from Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2011. *Inset*: Contribution of CO₃⁻ radical (curve *a*) and the organic transient formed after reaction (4) (curve *b*) to the absorbance of the traces at 600 and 330 nm, respectively, for the experiments shown in the main figure.
- **Fig. 3** Expected IMD, THIA and ACT degradation after 16 hs in "artificial natural water" containing 1×10^{-8} M initial concentrations of the insecticide, and steady state concentrations [HO*]_{ss} = 1×10^{-16} M, $[^{1}O_{2}]_{ss}$ = 1×10^{-12} M, $[CO_{3}^{\bullet -}]_{ss}$ = $[^{3}DOM]_{ss}$ = 1×10^{-14} M. The consumption due to the different scavengers is depicted as: black: HO*, red: $CO_{3}^{\bullet -}$ (not visible in the scale), green: ^{3}DOM and yellow: $^{1}O_{2}$,

Table 1 - Manifold of reactions taking place upon UV-light activation of peroxodisulphate in the reaction mixture composed of $S_2O_8^{2-}$, CO_3^{2-} , and the insecticide. The corresponding reaction rate constants k at 25 °C are also shown.

(a) I_{abs} is the absorbed photonic flux and $\phi(SO_4^-)$ is the peroxodisulphate photodissociation quantum yield. (b) Data obtained from Ref. (Padmaja *et al.*, 1993). (c) This work, for ionic strength = 1.08, products from reference (Haygarth *et al.*, 2010). (d) k values from this work. (e) Data obtained from Ref. (Dell'Arciprete *et al.*, 2011) (f) Data obtained from Ref. (Herrmann *et al.*, 1995). (g) Data obtained from Ref. (Ross *et al.*, 1998)

Table 2 - Observed degradation products formed after the reaction of CO_3^{\bullet} radicals with the insecticides, see text. GC retention times, R_t , and MS mass to charge ratios m/z, are given, together with assigned products.

Insecticide	15 minutes irradiation	30 minutes irradiation	Product assignment	
u	m/z, R _t in min.	m/z , R_t in min		
IMD	140, 112, 85, 76 R _t = 11.5		6-chloronicotinic aldehyde, compound 1 in Sch. 2	
	264, 153, 126 R _t = 37.5		(N-(1,1-dihydroxy)methyl)-(N-(1-hydroxy,2,2-dihydroxy)ethyl)-2-chloro-5-pyridin-5-ylmethanamine compound 2 in Sch. 2	
THIA	140, 112, 85, 76	140, 112, 85, 76	6-chloronicotinic aldehyde, compound 1.	
	R _t = 11. 5	R _t = 11.5		
	264, 153, 126 R _t = 37.5	264, 153, 126 R _t = 37.5	(N-(1,1-dihydroxy)methyl)-(N-(1-hydroxy,2,2-dihydroxy)ethyl)-2-chloro-5-pyridin-5-ylmethanamine, compound 2.	
ACT	97, 82, 67 R _t = 18.5		N´-cyano-N-methyl acetamidine, compound 3 , Sch. 4.	
	140, 112, 85, 76 R _t = 11.5		6-chloronicotinic aldehyde, compound 1.	

Table 3 - Natural water abundance of reactive intermediates and corresponding reaction rate constants k at 25 $^{\circ}$ C for IMD, THIA, and ACT.

Reactive	CO ₃ •- radicals	¹ O ₂	DOM triplet	HO* radicals
Oxidant (RO)				
Natural water abundance / M	10 ⁻¹³ -10 ^{-15 (a)}	10 ⁻¹² - 10 ⁻¹³ (b)	10 ⁻¹³ - 10 ^{-15 (c)}	10 ⁻¹⁷ -10 ^{-15 (d)}
$k_{(IMD + RO)} / M^{-1} s^{-1}$	$(4\pm1)\times10^{6~(e)}$	$(5.5\pm0.5)\times10^{6}$ (f)	$(4.8 \pm 1) \times 10^{7}$ (g)	6×10 ^{10 (h)}
$k_{(THIA + RO)} / M^{-1} s^{-1}$	(2.8±0.5)×10 ^{5 (e)}	$(3.9 \pm 1) \times 10^{7 (f)}$	$(1.5 \pm 1) \times 10^{8}$ (g)	$7.5 \times 10^{10 \text{ (h)}}$
$k_{(ACT + RO)} / M^{-1} s^{-1}$	$(1.5 \pm 1) \times 10^{5 (e)}$	$(3.6 \pm 1) \times 10^{7 \text{ (f)}}$	$(3.6 \pm 1) \times 10^{7 (g)}$	$5.5 \times 10^{10 \text{ (h)}}$

(a) From ref. (Canonica *et al.*, 2005, Lower, 1999). (b) From ref. (Zepp 1997). (c) From ref. (Canonica *et al.*,1995). (d) From ref. (Vione *et al.*, 2006). (e) This work. (f) From ref. (Dell' Arciprete *et al.*, 2010). (g) From ref. (Dell' Arciprete *et al.*, 2010). (h) Taken from ref. (Dell' Arciprete *et al.*, 2009).

Table 4 - Manifold of reactions depleting the neonicotinoid insecticides in natural waters. The corresponding rate constants at 25 $^{\circ}$ C are shown in Table 3. P_i stands for the organic radical of reaction i.

Insecticide +
$$CO_3^{\bullet^-} \rightarrow CO_3^{2^-} + P_4$$
 (4)
Insecticide + $HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow SO_4^{2^-} + P_9$ (9)
Insecticide + $^1O_2 \rightarrow P_{10}$ (10)
Insecticide + $^3DOM \rightarrow P_{11}$ (11)

Figure 1

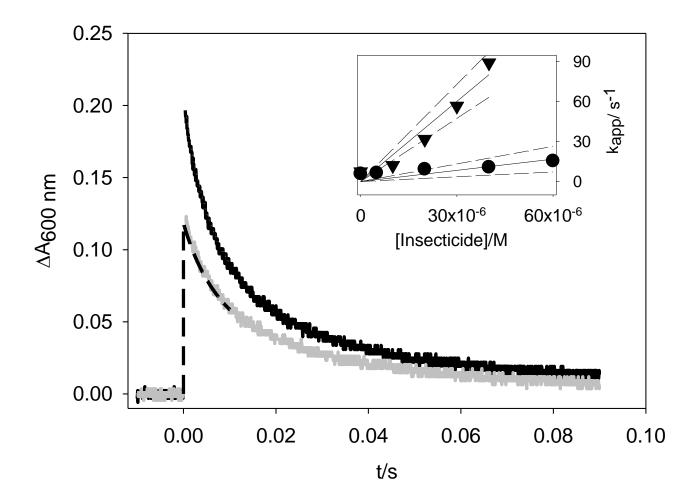


Figure 2

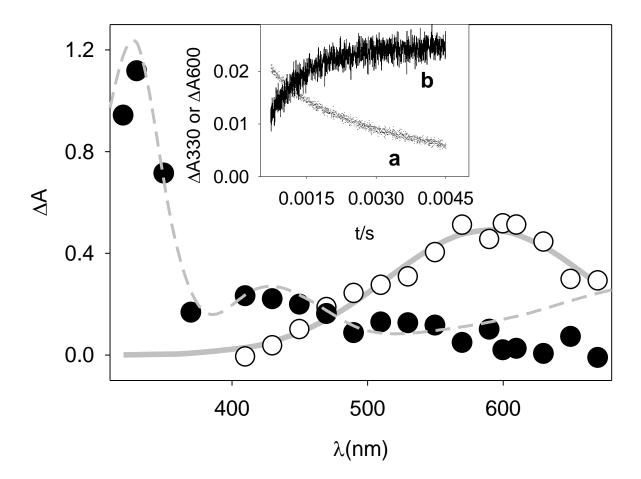


Figure 3

