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## Review A critical review on photochemical conversions in flow analysis



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ABSTRACT

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#### HIGHLIGHTS

#### G R A P H I C A L A B S T R A C T

- Critical review of coupling photochemical processes to flow analysis.
- Discussion of flow approaches and design of flow-through photoreators.
- General overview of the applications with tables highlighting the main aspects.
- Quantitative and partial analyte conversions, fractionation and speciation analysis.
- Discussion on miniaturization, reagentless procedures, and in-line waste treatment.

#### A R T I C L E I N F O

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#### 1. Introduction

Sample preparation is one of the most important steps in analytical procedures [1]. Chemical and physical transformations of the sample aim at enhanced analyte detectability and elimination of matrix effects. Sample treatments vary from simple dilutions to time-consuming quantitative decompositions. Additionally, this step is highly susceptible to analyte losses and contamination, especially when carried out in open vessels during long time intervals. Ultraviolet (UV) irradiation allows sample decomposition under mild conditions, being an alternative to avoid the previously mentioned drawbacks and paving the way for greener sample preparation [2].

UV radiation comprises wavelengths within 100 and 400 nm [3,4] and it is classified as UV-A (400–315 nm). UV-B (315–280 nm) and UV-C (280-100 nm). In the UV-C spectral region, radiation presents enough energy to break chemical bonds. For example, the radiation at 250 nm is equivalent to *ca*. 544 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, which is enough to break chemical bonds such as C - C (*ca.* 450 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) [2,3]. Irradiation in the 200–100 nm range requires experiments under vacuum because of the strong radiation absorption by molecular species in the atmosphere, such as oxygen [3]. Therefore, applications involving UV vacuum [5] are not usual. UV radiation at wavelengths higher than 200 nm and, more scarcely, visible radiation are then used for sample treatment. Some limitations are due to the available radiation sources, as the most common ones emit a limited number of lines (e.g. low pressure Hg vapor lamp) or present low conversion efficiency of electric power into radiation (e.g. deuterium lamp).

UV irradiation promotes either oxidation or reduction of chemical species [3,6]. Photo-oxidation is most common for sample treatment either for organic matter elimination or analyte conversion to its inorganic form. The first analytical use of UV radiation was proposed in 1961 [7] for organic matter decomposition before determination of total dissolved carbon (TDC) in seawaters. Iron (III) was used to generate oxidizing radicals and quantitative decomposition was attained in 3 h. Since then, studies on photoconversion processes revealed that different species (*e.g.* H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub><sup>2-</sup>) can generate oxidizing radicals; improvements in sample irradiation (*e.g.* new designs of flow-through reactors, high power sources and combination of UV irradiation and temperature) have led to better efficiency, and novel applications have been proposed in different fields.

Photoconversion relies on the generation of radicals due to the homolytic breakdown of chemical bonds. Sample components (*e.g.* organic matter) yield radicals that promote chain reactions forming reactive species [3]. The process is favored in the presence of dissolved  $O_2$  because singlet oxygen is formed after UV irradiation and the energy is afterwards transferred to organic molecules. Risks related to heating are minimized because the process is often

carried out close to room temperature. In special situations, however, temperature may reach *ca*. 90 °C due to the heat emanated from the light source. As hours or even days may be required for quantitative organic matter decomposition, some chemicals are often added to accelerate the photochemical processes. For photooxidation,  $S_2O_8^{2-}$ ,  $H_2O_2$ , Fenton reagent and  $O_3$  are the most usual radical generators in homogenous systems [2,3]. Heterogeneous systems exploit semiconductors such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, which may restrict the detection approach as a suspension of small solid particles is often obtained at the end of the process. A more recent strategy for UV-assisted process involves quantum dots (QDs) [8], which are semiconductors of small particle size (1-12 nm). QDs show a wide applicability as fluorescence probes as well as emitters or catalysts in chemiluminometric reactions, as previously reviewed [9]. In addition, generation of reactive species from irradiation of the nanomaterials (usually with visible light) has been also exploited in indirect applications involving CL in flow systems [10].

Aiming at photoreduction, organic species with carbonyl or amino groups [6,11] are generally added to the medium. In spite of its potentiality, this process has been scarcely exploited for analytical purposes. Applications have been mainly focused on the reduction of species of Hg [12] and Se [13] prior to determinations by cold vapor or hydride generation atomic absorption spectrometry (CV-AAS or HG-AAS), respectively. Another representative application refers to nitrate determination after conversion to nitrite [11,14]. Recently, photoreduction of phosphomolybdic acid in ethanololic medium was demonstrated [15].

Flow analysis is characterized by highly reproducible sample processing conditions and timing, allowing exploitation of analytically useful reactions without attaining chemical equilibrium [16]. Analysis time is then minimized and kinetic aspects can be exploited. Additionally, flow systems can be built-up in a variety of configurations, allowing implementation of different tasks, including photochemical processes [17,18]. Analyte losses (by volatilization or during sample manipulation), risks of contamination, and to the analyst are minimized by flow-based sample preparation [3].

Fig. 1 shows the general characteristics and main potentialities of flow-based systems involving in-line photochemical processes. Advantages of the approach have been exploited in several procedures, especially for total determinations, fractionation and speciation analysis, and enhancement of detectability of organic analytes. Kinetic-based applications, reagent photogeneration, and in-line waste treatment have also been proposed in a lesser extent. These applications are discussed in section 4.

#### 2. Photochemical reactions pathways

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