

1      **Polymeric ionic liquid sorbent coatings in thin film microextraction: Insight into sorbent**  
2      **selectively for pesticides and cannabinoids**

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6      **Abstract**

7      Polymeric ionic liquid (PIL) sorbent coatings consisting of polymerizable cations and  
8      anions were employed as sorbent coatings in thin film microextraction (TFME) for the extraction  
9      of pesticides and cannabinoids. The blades consisted of a thin film of PIL sorbents chemically  
10     bonded to vinyltrimethoxysilane-functionalized nitinol sheets. The imidazolium- or ammonium-  
11     based PIL sorbents contained aromatic benzyl moieties as well as polar hydroxyl groups or  
12     aliphatic functional groups within the chemical structure of the IL monomer. The chemical  
13     structure of the IL crosslinkers of the PILs were kept constant across each sorbent, except for the  
14     anion, which consisted of either bis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl]imide ( $[NTf_2^-]$ ), p-styrenesulfonate  
15     ( $[SS^-]$ ), or 3-sulfopropyl acrylate ( $[SPA^-]$ ). Temperature, salt content, and methanol content were  
16     optimized as extraction conditions to maximize pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity using Doehlert  
17     design of experiments (DOE). Effects of these three factors on selectivity and extraction efficiency  
18     are discussed. The optimal extraction conditions consisting of sample temperature (31 °C), sodium  
19     chloride (30% w/v), and methanol content (0.25% v/v) are compared to initial sorbent screening  
20     conditions at a sample temperature of 40 °C, 15% (w/v) sodium chloride, and 2.5% (v/v) methanol  
21     content. PIL sorbent swelling behavior at different salt and methanol content conditions and its  
22     effect on extraction efficiency are hypothesized. Selectivity factors for the sorbents indicated that  
23     aromatic moieties within the IL monomer may enhance pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity under  
24     optimized conditions, but the extraction efficiency of pesticides that are known to coelute with  
25     cannabinoids in the chromatographic separation may be enhanced by employing sorbent coatings  
26     with  $[SPA^-]$  anions.

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37      Selectivity

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40 **1. Introduction**

41 Pesticides are often tested as part of quality control testing for consumer products. Acute and/or  
42 chronic exposure to pesticides can lead to serious health concerns, including cancer and organ  
43 failure. The health and environmental implications of pesticide exposure are explicitly detailed in  
44 a review by Sharma et al. [1]. To protect public health, pesticide usage is heavily regulated,  
45 requiring testing methods to reach down to low ppb levels [2]. A regularly used technique for  
46 pesticide analysis, known as QuEChERS (Quick, Easy, Cheap, Effective, Rugged, and Safe),  
47 employs an initial liquid-liquid extraction (LLE) step followed by a sample clean up step [3].  
48 Within the first step of this multi-step process, additional hydrophobic molecules are often  
49 extracted along with analytes of interest. If not removed within the second step, high-cost mass  
50 spectrometers are required to selectively detect the pesticides of interest [4]. Additionally, a  
51 reconcentration step may be necessary to reach desirable detectable limits, which can result in loss  
52 of analytes [5]. The application of this method for pesticide testing of cannabis/hemp products is  
53 bottlenecked by the high cannabinoid content compared to the trace levels of pesticides; therefore,  
54 a pesticide selective method capable of preconcentrating these analytes is preferred.

55 Alternative methods, such as solid-phase microextraction (SPME), have been explored to  
56 extract pesticides from a wide range of matrices, including blood plasma, food products, and soil  
57 composites [6–9]. SPME combines both an extraction step and preconcentration step into a single  
58 process and can be interfaced with different chromatographic systems [10]. The sorbent coatings  
59 used in SPME can also be tuned to better extract analytes of interest or to inhibit the extraction of  
60 interfering matrix components [11]. A similar methodology known as thin film microextraction  
61 (TFME) was recently developed [14] to increase the surface area-to-volume ratio of the sorbent  
62 coating. The thin films employed in this geometry allow for faster mass transfer kinetics compared

63 to SPME, providing faster extraction equilibration [15]. Previously, a TFME method to extract  
64 pesticides from environmental water samples was developed using polydimethylsiloxane/divinyl  
65 benzene (PDMS/DVB) and PDMS/DVB-carbon mesh supported membranes and was compared  
66 to a traditional LLE method for pesticide analysis [16]. Significantly more pesticides were detected  
67 using the TFME method with a similar level of accuracy.

68 Custom sorbent coatings have been applied in both SPME and TFME methodologies to  
69 extract a wide array of analytes ranging from nucleic acids to volatile organic compounds [17–20].  
70 Polymeric ionic liquid (PIL) sorbent coatings were first employed in SPME in 2008 [21]. PILs  
71 consist of reactive IL monomers, which result in polymers possessing IL motifs upon  
72 polymerization. The unique tunability of IL materials makes them ideal for designing analyte  
73 selective sorbent coatings. However, the multitude of possible interaction types between PILs and  
74 different analytes creates challenges in fully understanding their extraction behavior in an effort to  
75 predict and manipulate their selectivity.

76 A number of studies have demonstrated the influence that salt can have on various  
77 polyelectrolyte films [28–31]. Cationic polyelectrolytes, which are polymers containing a cationic  
78 backbone, are known to collapse in aqueous solutions with a high salt content and swell under salt-  
79 free conditions [28]. Zwitterionic polyelectrolytes contain both an anionic and cationic component  
80 within the chemical structure of the monomeric unit, and are known to ion pair with their  
81 counterpart in salt-free solutions, but swell in solutions with high salt content [29]. It has also been  
82 demonstrated that this swelling behavior can influence adsorption and mass transfer kinetics of  
83 analytes into these films [29,32–34]. A similar behavior was thought to influence the partitioning  
84 of analytes into PIL sorbent coatings [35]. The complex behavior of polyelectrolytes in various

85 salt solutions suggests that other sample conditions (i.e., temperature, pH, and organic modifier)  
86 may alter an ionic sorbent's ability to extract analytes.

87 This study aims to understand factors that influence pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity with PIL  
88 sorbent coatings for future use in extraction methodologies. Selectivity factors were determined  
89 for five sorbent coatings based on partition coefficients obtained under the same extraction  
90 conditions. Four out of the five PIL sorbent coatings applied in the TFME methodology consisted  
91 of polymerizable cations and anions in both the IL monomer and crosslinker chemical structures.  
92 The fifth PIL sorbent coating contained a combination of polymerizable and freely mobile anions  
93 to examine if freely mobile anions aid in pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity when compared under  
94 similar extraction conditions. The effects of various extraction conditions and the chemical  
95 composition of PIL sorbent coatings on pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity are assessed. It was  
96 observed that sorbents containing the highest amount of aromatic moieties in the IL monomer  
97 provided the highest pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity. This suggests that zwitterionic-like PIL  
98 sorbents containing IL monomers with multiple aromatic moieties should be used to achieve better  
99 pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity under high salt conditions. These results differ from previous  
100 observations, which suggested that aromatic moieties favored the extraction of neutral  
101 cannabinoids from salt-free samples; however, these results align with the notion that salt  
102 significantly influences the selectivity of ionic sorbent coatings.

103 **2. Materials and Methods**

104 **2.1 Reagents and Materials**

105 Imidazole ( $\geq 99\%$ ), acrylonitrile ( $\geq 99\%$ ), 4-vinylbenzyl chloride (90%), 1-vinylimidazole  
106 ( $\geq 99\%$ ), 1-benzylimidazole (99%), 1-bromooctane (99%), 3-sulfopropyl acrylate potassium salt,  
107 acetonitrile ( $\geq 99.9\%$ ), triethylene glycol monomethyl ether (m-PEG-3) ( $\geq 97.0\%$ ),

108 vinyltrimethoxysilane (VTMS) (98%), and 2-hydroxyl-2-methylpropiophenone (DAROCUR  
109 1173) (>96%) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Chloroform (99.8%),  
110 dichloromethane (DCM) (99.5%), methanol (99.9%), ethyl acetate (99.5%), sodium hydroxide  
111 (95-100.5%), dimethyl sulfoxide ( $\geq$ 99.7%), hydrogen peroxide (30% aqueous solution), and  
112 sodium chloride (NaCl) ( $\geq$ 99%) were obtained from Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA).  
113 Sodium 4-vinylbenzenesulfonate or sodium p-styrenesulfonate ([SS<sup>-</sup>]), 1H-benzo[d]imidazole  
114 (98%), and triethanolamine (99%) (90%) were purchased from Oakwood Chemical (Estill, SC,  
115 USA). Reagents including 1,12-dibromododecane (98%) from Alfa Aesar (Tewksbury, MA,  
116 USA), lithium bis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl]imide (LiNTf<sub>2</sub>)(>98%) from Tokyo Chemical  
117 Industry (TCI) (Tokyo, Japan), 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT) (99.8%) from Acros  
118 Organics (Pittsburgh, PA, USA), 1-octylimidazole (>98%) from Ionic Liquid Technologies  
119 (IoLiTEC) GmbH (Heilbronn, Germany), and methane sulfonyl chloride (98%) from  
120 ThermoScientific (Waltham, MA, USA) were also used. For the TFME blades, nitinol (NiTi) sheet  
121 metal (4 in x 0.3 mm x 8 in) was obtained from Nexmetal Corporation (Sheridan, WY, USA).  
122 Cannabinoid standards, including cannabidiol (CBD), cannabinol (CBN), cannabigerol (CBG),  
123 delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol ( $\Delta^9$ -THC), delta-8-tetrahydrocannabinol ( $\Delta^8$ -THC), and  
124 cannabichromene (CBC), as well as all six of the Oregon Pesticide Standards (59 pesticides) were  
125 provided by Restek Corporation (Bellefonte, PA, USA). A working solution for the cannabinoids  
126 in methanol and a separate working solution for the pesticides in acetonitrile were both made at an  
127 analyte concentration of 100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. The sample matrix consisted of Type I water (18.2 M $\Omega$ ·cm)  
128 from a MilliQ system (MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA, USA) since homogenization of dried  
129 cannabis plant material in water is required prior to extraction.

130 **2.2 Instrumentation**

131 To confirm the synthesis and purity of newly synthesized IL monomers and crosslinkers, <sup>1</sup>H  
132 NMR spectra were acquired using either a Varian MR-400 MHz nuclear magnetic resonance  
133 (NMR) spectrometer (Palo Alto, CA, USA) or an Avance NEO 400 MHz system with LN<sub>2</sub>-cooled  
134 broadband Prodigy Probe from Bruker Corporation (Billerica, MA, USA). The samples for NMR  
135 were prepared in either deuterated dimethyl sulfoxide or deuterium oxide, both from Acros  
136 Organics. To polymerize the sorbent coatings, a Rayonet photochemical reactor (RPR-100) from  
137 Southern New England Ultraviolet Company (Brandford, CT, USA) was operated at 350 nm.

138 Two Agilent Technologies (Santa Clara, CA, USA) 1260 Infinity HPLC systems with a 20  $\mu$ L  
139 manual injector were independently used to separate cannabinoids and pesticides. The  
140 cannabinoids were detected using a variable wavelength detector at 228 nm, while the pesticides  
141 were detected using a diode array detector at 215, 230, and 280 nm. A Restek Raptor ARC-18  
142 column (150 mm x 4.6 mm, 5  $\mu$ m) and a Restek Raptor biphenyl column (150 mm x 4.6 mm, 5  
143  $\mu$ m) were used for the separation of cannabinoids and pesticides, respectively, along with a guard  
144 cartridge (5 mm x 4.6 mm I.D.) with identical packing to the analytical column. These separations  
145 were carried out at 1.0 mL min<sup>-1</sup> in reverse phase mode using either water and acetonitrile (ARC-  
146 18) or water and methanol (Biphenyl), as described previously [36]. Chromatograms are shown in  
147 Figures S1-2 of the Supplemental Information (SI). Analyte information including abbreviations,  
148 retention times, and detection wavelengths are in Table S1.

149 **2.3 Synthesis of Ionic Liquid Monomers and Crosslinkers**

150 IL monomers and crosslinkers were synthesized according to the procedures described in the  
151 literature [35]. Final products were dissolved in a suitable organic solvent (i.e., dichloromethane,  
152 ethyl acetate, or acetonitrile) and stored at room temperature in a desiccator. An inhibitor, 2,6-di-  
153 tert-butyl-4-methylphenol, was added to all final products for long term stability. When required

154 for coating, an aliquot of IL solution was portioned off and the solvent removed using an air stream.  
155 Table 1 defines the sorbent coating composition for each blade with the names, chemical structures,  
156 and abbreviations for the IL monomers and crosslinkers used throughout the manuscript.

157 **2.4 Construction of TFME devices**

158 The NiTi sheet metal was cut into 3 cm by 0.5 cm strips for the TFME blades. The strips were  
159 manually etched with sandpaper and rinsed with acetone and water. The NiTi was placed into a  
160 30% aq. hydrogen peroxide solution and refluxed at 72 °C for 2 hours. The NiTi was removed,  
161 rinsed with water, and dried using acetone. The metal was covered with VTMS and heated to 85  
162 °C for 3 hours to impart reactive vinyl groups onto the metal surface. The NiTi was removed and  
163 cleaned with acetone followed by drying in a vacuum oven overnight. The metal supports were  
164 kept in a desiccator until needed.

165 The surface of the NiTi strips was cleaned with acetone prior to coating. The sorbent coating  
166 was weighed out in a 2:1 ratio of monomer-to-crosslinker by mass. DAROCUR 1173, a  
167 photoinitiator, was added as 3% by total mass of sorbent coating mixture. To homogenize the  
168 monomer and crosslinker and photoinitiator, dichloromethane or acetonitrile (depending on  
169 solubilities) was used and then subsequently removed. The sorbent coating mixture was applied to  
170 the blades using a glass capillary and polymerized at 350 nm in a photoreactor. Only 2.7 cm of the  
171 blade's height was coated to allow the blade to be inserted into the septa of the sample vial cap.  
172 The blades were conditioned in methanol prior to use.

173 **2.5 Creation of 3D printed desorption containers**

174 Desorption containers were designed to hold the smallest amount of desorption solvent in an  
175 effort to maximize detector response. The length and width of these containers were optimized so  
176 that TF blades could easily be inserted into the container without scraping against the sides of the

177 container. The containers were designed in the likeness of those used by Eitzmann et al. [18]. The  
178 containers were created using an UltiMaker S5 3D printer via fused deposition modeling with CPE  
179 (a co-polyester material). This material was found to be chemically-resistant to methanol and no  
180 background peaks associated with the 3D printed container were observed. The internal  
181 dimensions consisted of 2.7 W x 7.5 L x 27 H mm<sup>3</sup> with a 1.0 mm wall thickness. Photos of the  
182 desorption container can be found in Figure S3 of the SI.

## 183 **2.6 Optimization of Extraction Methodology**

184 A 3-factor Doehlert Design of Experiments (DOE) was used to optimize factors that influence  
185 analyte solubility in aqueous media – amount of organic solvent, salt content, and temperature of  
186 the sample. For percentage of organic solvent, the region of interest spanned from 0-5% (v/v) of  
187 methanol. For salt content, the region spanned from 0-30% (w/v) of sodium chloride, and the  
188 temperature ranged from 20-60 °C. Extractions of cannabinoids were conducted from a 10 mL  
189 aqueous sample containing an analyte concentration of 200 µg L<sup>-1</sup>; extractions of pesticides were  
190 conducted from a 10 mL aqueous sample containing an analyte concentration of 400 µg L<sup>-1</sup>. The  
191 stirring rate was held constant at 600 rpm. Analytes were desorbed into 400 µL of methanol across  
192 25 minutes after being rinsed in 400 µL of DI-water for 1 minute. A central point triplicate was  
193 evaluated at the following conditions: 15% (w/v) sodium chloride, 2.5% (v/v) methanol, and 40  
194 °C. Each blade was screened at the central point condition.

195 Blade **A1** had the highest selectivity values and was used as the model TF blade for  
196 optimization of sample conditions. For the DOE, Blade **A1** was used to extract pesticides and  
197 Blade **A2** was used to extract cannabinoids. Selectivity values, the response variable, were  
198 determined based on the ratio of total peak areas (TPA), or the sum of all peak areas for a class of  
199 analytes. The TPA for the pesticides was compared to the TPA of the cannabinoids since the

200 cannabinoids and pesticides were extracted with two different blades. Regression surfaces and  
201 contour plots were generated using R. The R code and statistical evaluation of the model used to  
202 construct the response surfaces and contour plots can be found in the SI. Optimal sample conditions  
203 consisted of 30 % (w/v) sodium chloride, 0.25% (v/v) methanol, and were equilibrated at a  
204 temperature of 31 °C. A 10-minute temperature equilibration time was used. These conditions  
205 were used to obtain sorption- and desorption-time profiles.

206 **2.7 Extraction conditions for selectivity determination**

207 The same optimal sample conditions described above were used to obtain the results for  
208 calculating selectivity factors. The pesticides and cannabinoids were extracted under the same  
209 conditions but from different samples each at an analyte concentration of 400 µg L<sup>-1</sup>. The TF blades  
210 were exposed to the sample for 15 minutes. The blades were then placed into 400 µL of water for  
211 1 minute to rinse off residual salt from the sorbent coatings prior to desorption of the analytes into  
212 400 µL of methanol for 20 minutes.

213 To accurately quantify the selectivity of each sorbent coating applied to TF blades, selectivity  
214 factors ( $\alpha$ ) were calculated using Eq. 1, considering the ratio of partition coefficients ( $K_p$  and  $K_c$ ):

$$215 \quad \alpha = \frac{K_p}{K_c} \quad (1)$$

216 In TFME, partition coefficients compare the concentration of analytes in the sorbent coating to the  
217 concentration of analytes remaining in the sample after extraction. Calibration curves were  
218 constructed for both sets of analytes to determine the mass extracted by the blades (see Table S4).  
219 The sample volume and volume of the sorbent phase were considered constant for both pesticide  
220 and cannabinoid extractions since no leaching or disruption of the coating was observed. This  
221 further simplifies Eq. 1 down to a ratio of masses (g), as represented by Eq. 2.

222

$$\alpha = \frac{\frac{g_{p,Blade}}{g_{p,sample}}}{\frac{g_{c,Blade}}{g_{c,sample}}} \quad (2)$$

223 **3. Results and Discussion**

224 **3.1 Choice of sorbent coatings**

225 The sorbent coatings employed in this study have been previously utilized to extract pesticides  
226 and cannabinoids [35]. These sorbents were designed to be completely polymerizable apart from  
227 Sorbent **A**, which contains mobile  $[\text{NTf}_2^-]$  anions (55% by mol imidazolium ion). The study  
228 suggested that sorbent coatings containing hydrogen bond donor moieties and polymerizable  
229 anions possess greater affinity for pesticides, meanwhile those containing  $[\text{NTf}_2^-]$  anions and  
230 aromatic moieties or hydrogen bond acceptor moieties have a greater affinity for cannabinoids.  
231 Additionally, a linear trend was observed between sorbent affinity and pesticide-cannabinoid  
232 selectivity, which suggests that these functionalities would also contribute to differences observed  
233 in their selectivity factors. Therefore, a select number of these sorbent coatings were chosen to  
234 assess their ability to selectively isolate pesticides from cannabinoids under the same extraction  
235 conditions. Sorbents **D** and **E** contain hydrogen bond donor hydroxy groups, aromatic moieties,  
236 and different polymerizable anions, and sorbents **G** and **H** contain multiple aromatic moieties  
237 along with polymerizable anions. Additionally, sorbent **A** contains aromatic moieties and a  
238 mixture of both polymerizable anions and freely mobile  $[\text{NTf}_2^-]$  anions. These sorbents were used  
239 to prepare Blades **D**, **E**, **G**, **H**, and **A**, respectively.

240 **3.2 Precision and batch-to-batch repeatability**

241 As mentioned in section 2.5, sorbent coating selectivity was screened using the central point  
242 conditions for the DOE. The selectivity values from these extractions are represented in Figure S4.  
243 Blade **A1** exhibited the highest selectivity value followed by **D** = **H** > **E** > **G**; therefore, Blade **A**

244 was chosen as the model blade for subsequent optimization studies. A 3-factor Doehlert DOE was  
245 carried out for both pesticides and cannabinoids, concurrently, using two different blades  
246 containing sorbent **A** (Blade **A1** and **A2**). These two blades were prepared at the same time using  
247 the same coating mixture, and thus, were made from the same batch of IL monomer and  
248 crosslinker. Inter-blade precision was assessed prior to optimization by comparing the extraction  
249 efficiency of each blade obtained for cannabinoids at the central point conditions. Extractions were  
250 also conducted using the same working solution. As shown in **Figure 1a**, both blades demonstrated  
251 similar extraction efficiencies towards the cannabinoids, indicating that these two blades behave  
252 similarly. Blade **A1** was used for extracting pesticides and Blade **A2** was used for extracting  
253 cannabinoids. Blade **A1** had relative standard deviation (RSD) values ranging from 3.5-7.5% for  
254 the cannabinoids and 7.5-19.8% for the pesticides, with 8 pesticides ranging from 7.5-11.8%.  
255 Blade **A2** had RSD values ranging from 11.2-14.9% for the cannabinoids. An RSD value equal to  
256 or below 15% is considered acceptable for SPME and TFME methodologies [37-39] and indicates  
257 good sorbent stability under the extraction and desorption conditions.

258 A third blade (Blade **A3**) was created containing sorbent **A** and was compared to Blade **A1** and  
259 **A2** at the central point extraction conditions. Blade **A3** was created about 6 months after Blade **A1**  
260 and **A2** were created using a different batch of the coating mixture. This coating mixture contained  
261 a different batch of the IL monomer but was prepared with the same batch of the IL crosslinker.  
262 Another <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum of the IL crosslinker was obtained to ensure that it had not auto-  
263 polymerized (see SI). The extractions were also conducted using a different working solution for  
264 pesticides and were conducted about 4 months after performing extractions with Blade **A1** and **A2**.  
265 The extraction efficiencies of Blade **A3** for both cannabinoids and pesticides are shown in **Figure**  
266 **1a** and **1b**, respectively. For most analytes, the three blades appeared to perform similarly apart

267 from CBD, for which Blade **A3** had a lower extraction efficiency compared to Blade **A1** and **A2**.  
268 This may be the result of batch-to-batch differences in creating the TF blades. For Blade **A3**, the  
269 RSD values ranged from 13.1-19.0% for the cannabinoids and 1.2-17.3% for the pesticides, with  
270 only one pesticide being above 15%. Batch-to-batch repeatability is generally accepted to be  
271 within 10% [40-43]; however, it is unclear if this value represents the difference between two  
272 fabricated devices from the same batch of synthesized material or two batches of synthesized  
273 materials. Since only two different batches were compared in this study and RSD values cannot  
274 be determined; the inter-blade precision ranged from 3.4-13.9% RSD (n=3) for the cannabinoids.  
275 This value represents within batch and between batch variation. Slightly higher peak areas were  
276 observed for the cannabinoids when extracted with Blade **A3**. It is plausible that Blade **A3** has a  
277 slightly thicker film than Blades **A1** and **A2**, leading to higher average peak areas for CBN,  $\Delta^9$ -  
278 THC,  $\Delta^8$ -THC, and CBC. Slightly higher average peak areas were also observed for the pesticides  
279 under optimized conditions.

280 **3.3 Effect of salt, temperature, and methanol on the extraction of pesticides and**  
281 **cannabinoids**

282 Several parameters were chosen for optimization based on the results of our previous studies  
283 [35,36], in which the salt content, methanol content, and sample temperature appeared to have the  
284 greatest effect on the extraction of pesticides and cannabinoids. These factors were thought to alter  
285 the solubility of analytes in the aqueous sample, and it was shown that these factors can influence  
286 pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity [35,36]. Extractions were conducted for each set of analytes with  
287 methanol content ranging from 0-5% (v/v), salt content ranging from 0-30% (w/v) sodium  
288 chloride, and sample temperature ranging from 20-60 °C. Since salt appeared to previously have  
289 the largest effect on pesticide affinity, it was assigned as Factor 2, having the most levels of inquiry

290 (seven). The percentage of organic solvent was assigned as Factor 1, having five levels of inquiry,  
291 and sample temperature as Factor 3, having three levels of inquiry. The experimental range for  
292 each factor is shown in Table S2 and the design matrix with the associated conditions and  
293 responses is shown in Table S3. A multiple linear regression model was generated in R using the  
294 rsm package. The code is listed in the SI as well as summary calculations pertaining to the model's  
295 suitability in predicting the response variable. The code has the propensity to determine the  
296 "optimal" value, known as stationary points. Stationary points exist where the first derivative of a  
297 curve equals zero, which can be either a minimum, maximum, or saddle point. The output of the  
298 code is based on the nearest stationary point – a local minimum – favoring cannabinoid extraction.  
299 The stationary points identified for this model also fall outside the region of interest. When this  
300 occurs, it is customarily acceptable to analyze the contour plots and response surfaces to  
301 understand where optimal conditions lie within the region of interest [44,45].

302 The response surfaces and 2D contour plots shown in **Figure 2** each depict the behavior of two  
303 sample conditions (x- and y- axes) on the selectivity values (z-axis) between pesticides and  
304 cannabinoids. **Figure 2a,d** shows the effect of increasing the amount of sodium chloride content  
305 in the sample as the sample temperature is adjusted. The selectivity value increased as the salt  
306 content was increased and decreased slightly at higher temperatures. The optimal value for the salt  
307 content was determined to be 30% (w/v) of sodium chloride. Based on the contour plot, a  
308 maximum appears to form at this high salt content when the temperature is just above 30 °C.  
309 **Figure 2b,e** shows the effect of increasing the methanol content as the sample temperature was  
310 adjusted. Pesticide selectivity is favored when the methanol content and sample temperatures are  
311 both low. Based on the contour plot, a maximum exists near 0.5% (v/v) methanol content and just  
312 above 30 °C. Based on this plot, the previous plot, and the effective temperature achievable from

313 the hotplate setup used in this work, the optimal temperature was determined to be 31 °C. Lastly,  
314 **Figure 2c,f** shows the effect of increasing the methanol content as the salt content is adjusted. At  
315 low salt content, the effect of methanol is minor with slightly higher selectivity values observed at  
316 higher methanol content. However, at high salt content, the effect of methanol is more pronounced  
317 with pesticide selectivity being favored when the methanol content is zero. This can also be  
318 observed in the contour plot. For this reason, the methanol content was chosen to be 0.25% (v/v)  
319 as a compromise between 0% and 0.5% (v/v).

320 Based on the nature of the DOE's design matrix, individual runs can be plotted, in which one  
321 or more factors are held constant, to provide further insight into how these parameters affect certain  
322 analytes. These graphs are shown in Figures S5 and S6. In Figure S5, the methanol content was  
323 varied as the salt and temperature conditions were kept constant at 15% (w/v) sodium chloride  
324 content and 40 °C, respectively. For most pesticides, the peak areas at 0% (v/v) methanol and 2.5%  
325 (v/v) methanol were similar, but the peak areas decreased for almost all pesticides at a methanol  
326 content of 5% (v/v). Interestingly, a larger relative decrease was observed for later eluting  
327 pesticides compared to earlier eluting pesticides. Alternatively, for the cannabinoids, an opposite  
328 trend was observed. In this case, as the percentage of methanol increased within the sample,  
329 increased peak areas for all cannabinoids were observed, and may possibly be due to the improved  
330 solubility of cannabinoids within the sample, resulting in a higher effective analyte concentration  
331 [35]. On the other hand, the presence of methanol in the sample may increase the affinity of  
332 pesticides for the aqueous phase, resulting in lower peak areas when extractions were performed  
333 at a methanol content of 5% (v/v). Therefore, it is clear that the presence of methanol in the sample  
334 mostly hinders pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity.

335 In Figure S6, the effect of salt on each pesticide and cannabinoid is shown at both high levels  
336 of methanol content (3.75% (v/v)) and low methanol content (1.25% (v/v)) when the temperature  
337 was held constant at 40 °C. Data obtained at low methanol content is represented by the dashed  
338 bars, whereas high methanol content is represented by the solid bars. Most pesticides responded  
339 better to higher salt content (27.99% (w/v)) except for pesticide 6, which preferred lower salt  
340 content (2.01% (w/v)), and pesticide 1, which exhibited no difference for the two. Under the high  
341 salt content condition, a more noticeable effect was observed for extractions conducted at high and  
342 low methanol content. The extraction efficiency of all pesticides was higher when extractions were  
343 performed from samples containing lower methanol content. The complete opposite was true for  
344 the cannabinoids, which favored low salt content and high methanol content. The effect of salt,  
345 however, appears to be much more significant than the effect of methanol on extraction efficiencies  
346 for both pesticides and cannabinoids. It is also clear that the presence of sodium chloride in the  
347 sample greatly aids pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity. The effect of temperature could not be  
348 assessed in such a way due to the nature of the experimental design.

349 **3.4 Evaluation of sorption and desorption-time profiles**

350 It has been previously demonstrated that the selectivity of SPME can be further enhanced by  
351 choosing an optimal extraction time based on the acquired sorption-time profiles [36]. Different  
352 sorption-time profiles may occur based on an analytes' partition coefficient; specifically, analytes  
353 with smaller partition coefficients are expected to reach equilibrium more quickly [46]. To observe  
354 the effect that analyte sorption kinetics may have on the selectivity of TFME, sorption-time  
355 profiles were generated using five time points ranging from 1 minute to 45 minutes and are shown  
356 in **Figure 3a**. For pesticides, the sorption-time profiles began to level off at around 15 minutes;  
357 however, the sorption-time profiles for the cannabinoids increased linearly up to approximately 45

358 minutes. By observing the ratio of the total pesticide peak areas to the total cannabinoid peak areas  
359 at each time point, greater selectivity values were achieved by choosing lower extraction times  
360 within the kinetic region of the sorption time profile. However, better repeatability can be achieved  
361 by choosing an extraction time within the equilibrium region of the profile. For these reasons, a  
362 15-minute extraction time was chosen for subsequent studies. Sorption-time profiles for each  
363 analyte are also shown in Figures S7-8. All pesticides exhibited a similar profile, and all  
364 cannabinoids exhibit a similar profile to themselves. With SPME, equilibration for the  
365 cannabinoids was not reached until 60 minutes under salt-free conditions [36]. Based on the  
366 sorption-time profiles, it appears that the cannabinoids may have greater affinity for the sorbent  
367 than the pesticides, resulting in longer equilibration times.

368 Multiple extraction conditions including stirring/convection, strength of salting-out effect, and  
369 sample temperature can also influence analyte sorption kinetics [47]. Fast stirring, higher  
370 temperatures, and strong salting-out effects often lead to more rapid sorption kinetics [46,47].  
371 When extractions of pesticides were conducted from samples containing a 30% (w/v) sodium  
372 chloride concentration using imidazolium-based PIL SPME fibers, no difference was observed  
373 between the 1 minute and 60 minute extractions [36]. This was thought to be due to the strong  
374 salting out effect that sodium chloride ions had on the pesticides and was further demonstrated by  
375 reducing the concentration of salt present in the sample. In SPME, the sorption time profile is  
376 influenced by the volume of the sorbent coating [47], resulting in equilibration times that are  
377 dependent upon the thickness of the coating. To prevent long extraction times, the TFME geometry  
378 was introduced by Wilcockson and coworker [14]. Where the high surface area-to-volume ratio  
379 allows for a higher sorbent volume to be used without sacrificing extraction time. Interestingly,  
380 faster sorption times were obtained with SPME rather than TFME. One difference, perhaps,

381 between the two extraction methodologies is the 10 °C difference in the sample temperature since  
382 higher sample temperatures are known to result in faster extraction times [48].

383 Desorption conditions generally optimized during TFME method development include the  
384 desorption solvent, the solvent volume, and the desorption time. The desorption solvent volume  
385 was optimized by optimizing the size of the desorption container to fit the blade without damaging  
386 the sorbent coating. This was accomplished at the beginning of the study prior to optimizing the  
387 extraction conditions. The optimized desorption container holds around 450 µL of methanol, so  
388 400 µL of methanol was chosen as the optimal solvent volume to account for the volume of the  
389 blade when inserted into the container. Desorption-time profiles were generated to ensure that all  
390 the pesticides are desorbed from the TF blades. Pesticide desorption profiles are shown in **Figure**  
391 **3b**. No significant difference in peak areas were observed in comparing 1 minute and 20 minute  
392 desorption times. This data is consistent with that observed in our previous SPME study, with  
393 complete desorption by methanol achieved within 1 minute [36]. This study also determined  
394 methanol to be the better desorption solvent over acetonitrile and acetone for PIL sorbent coatings,  
395 and so, methanol was kept as the desorption solvent. Carryover experiments were also performed  
396 by executing a second successive desorption step in 400 µL of methanol for 20 minute, regardless  
397 of the initial desorption time. A single carryover experiment was conducted for each time point  
398 and the resulting peak areas were compared to the initial desorption. As the desorption time was  
399 increased, the percentage of carryover decreased even though the peak areas from the initial  
400 desorption were similar for each desorption time. This may be explained by a loss of analyte to the  
401 walls of the desorption container over time, resulting in a shift of the sorbent-solvent equilibrium.  
402 Since carryover was lower for desorption steps performed for 20 minute, it was used as the  
403 desorption time for subsequent experiments to determine selectivity factors.

404 **3.5 Selectivity factors**

405 The final selectivity factors are shown in **Figure 4**. No significant differences were observed in  
406 the selectivity factors when different cannabinoids were compared for the same pesticide.  
407 Therefore, the average selectivity factor ( $\alpha_p$ ) for one pesticide is shown relative to all neutral  
408 cannabinoids ( $c = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) monitored in this study (see Eq. 3).

409

$$\alpha_p = \sum_{c=1}^n \alpha_{cp} \quad (3)$$

410 The results indicate that better selectivity can be achieved by using Blades **G** and **H**, which contain  
411 sorbent coatings featuring multiple aromatic moieties. Blade **D** provided the next best selectivity  
412 followed by the VTMS-NiTi, Blade **A**, and lastly Blade **E**.

413 Interestingly, the aforementioned results appear to contradict the conclusion previously drawn  
414 when SPME was used to compare selectivity values for these analytes [35]. Prior data suggested  
415 that sorbents with hydrogen bond donor groups and polymerizable anions (i.e., Sorbents **D** and **E**)  
416 provide greater selectivity over sorbents containing either aromatic moieties, hydrogen bond  
417 acceptor functional groups, and/or freely mobile anions (i.e., Sorbents **A**, **G**, **H**). However, data  
418 for the pesticides were collected from samples containing 30% (w/v) sodium chloride while the  
419 cannabinoid data were collected from samples containing no salt. It was explained that differences  
420 in selectivity could be due to polymer conformational changes between salt-free and concentrated  
421 salt solutions [35]. It is believed that zwitterionic sorbent coatings undergo swelling upon exposure  
422 to high salt containing aqueous solution and that cationic polymer sorbent coatings collapse under  
423 these same conditions [31]. However, the significance of these changes is unknown for PIL  
424 sorbents, and the high crosslinking density is expected to mitigate swelling behavior [49]. On the  
425 other hand, it may be reasonable to expect that different selectivity will be observed when  
426 comparing data obtained under the same high salt conditions than from that obtained from low salt

427 conditions [50,51]. Hydrogen bonding and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  type interactions, previously thought to influence  
428 selectivity, do not appear to be a dominant factor in extracting cannabinoids from high salt  
429 samples. Analysis of the selectivity factors show that IL monomers comprising 3 aromatic moieties  
430 (Sorbent **G** and **H**) extract pesticides better than cannabinoids. Blade **D**, containing the aromatic  
431 [SS<sup>-</sup>] anion, also appears better at selectively extracting pesticides compared to the structurally  
432 similar Blade **E** containing the non-aromatic [SPA<sup>-</sup>] anion. Blade **A3** containing half  
433 polymerizable [SS<sup>-</sup>] anions and half exchangeable [NTf<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>] anions offered similar selectivity factors  
434 to Blade **E** despite having different chemical structures for their IL monomers, which also have  
435 very different assumed polarities [35].

436 During the sorbent screening process, the following selectivity order was observed under the  
437 central point conditions: Blade **A1** > Blade **D** = **H** > Blade **E** > Blade **G**. This order is surprisingly  
438 different from that mentioned above but may be explained by looking at the effect different  
439 extraction conditions have on the sorbent coating. Firstly, the effect of different extraction  
440 conditions on the analytes' solubilities should remain constant from sample-to-sample as long as  
441 the extraction conditions remain constant. In this case, the ranking of blade selectivity factors  
442 should not be affected. A possible explanation for this change in selectivity order may be  
443 ascertained by examining the original data. Figure S9 shows the TPAs for all blades obtained using  
444 the initial central point conditions and the optimized conditions for both cannabinoids and  
445 pesticides. For cannabinoids, the blade ranking did not change between initial and optimal  
446 conditions, but the overall abundance extracted was reduced 10-fold. For the pesticides, however,  
447 significant changes in blade ranking were observed, especially for Blades **G** and **H**. When TPAs  
448 at the initial conditions were compared to the TPAs at the optimal conditions for each blade, a few  
449 interesting observations can be noticed. Blade **A** had similar TPAs for the pesticides under the

450 initial extraction conditions as the optimal extraction conditions. It is known that the addition of  
451 methanol to aqueous samples can result in desolvation and result in specific ion effects [52,53].  
452 Studies of polyelectrolytes have shown that these materials collapse or coil at lower salt  
453 concentration when methanol is added to the solution [54,55]. However, the partial cationic nature  
454 of this sorbent should already be in a collapsed state in both the 15% and 30% (w/v) sodium  
455 chloride solution [28]. Therefore, this effect on the sorbent coating of Blade **A** may not be  
456 significant. The TPA of pesticides extracted by Blade **G**, on the other hand, increased greatly when  
457 optimal extraction conditions were used. The sorbent of Blade **G** is considered to be of zwitterionic  
458 in nature, and at moderate to high salt content, is expected to swell. However, due to the  
459 desolvating effect of methanol in aqueous matrices, it is possible that the sorbent was desolvated  
460 enough to favor intra-polymer  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions, hindering the sorbent's ability to interact with the  
461 analytes [56]. This may also result in a partial collapse of the sorbent. The same may also be true  
462 for Blade **H**. Additionally, the desolvating effect may be more significant for hydrophobic sorbents  
463 (i.e., Blades **G** and **H**) than more polar/protic sorbents (i.e., Blades **D** and **E**) since more polar  
464 sorbents can be better solvated by water molecules via hydrogen bonding. This may account for  
465 the observed differences between the two types of sorbents. In further support of intra-polymer  $\pi$ -  
466  $\pi$  interactions, however, Blade **D** possessing an aromatic moiety in the anion component had a  
467 more significant increase in TPA compared to Blade **E** having no aromatic moiety in the anion.  
468 Therefore, it is evident that aromatic moieties play a significant role in extracting the monitored  
469 pesticides, and this observation was not apparent for the cannabinoids.

470 Relative selectivity factors were also compared by normalizing the calculated selectivity  
471 factors to the Z-score for each blade. Z-score normalization centers the data to zero and reduces  
472 the standard deviation to one. By normalizing to the Z-score, pesticides for which sorbents have a

473 greater affinity become more apparent and can be compared across the different sorbents without  
474 having to normalize based on the film thickness. **Figure 5** shows the relative selectivity factors of  
475 each pesticide for all blades. Pesticides with positive values were more favored by the sorbent  
476 whereas those with negative values were less favored. Later eluting pesticides (i.e., pesticides 5-  
477 10) appeared to be more favored by all sorbents, apart from pesticide 9. It has been shown  
478 previously that cannabinoids coelute with pesticides 5-8 in this separation method [36].  
479 Interestingly, all sorbents appear to have better selectivity for these pesticides, especially for the  
480 sorbent of Blade **G**. This superior relative selectivity is due to the sorbents having higher affinity  
481 for these pesticides compared to other pesticides. Pesticides 5 and 7 lack aromatic moieties, while  
482 pesticide 8 contains one aromatic moiety with an electron-withdrawing group, and pesticide 6  
483 consists of a conjugated  $\pi$ -system with aromatic moieties. Blade **A3** exhibited a surprisingly higher  
484 affinity for pesticides 5 and 7, which have less rigid structures due to the lack of aromatic moieties.  
485 This selectivity may be due to the collapsed state of the sorbent inhibiting bulkier analytes from  
486 partitioning into the sorbent. Additionally, all zwitterionic-PIL sorbents (i.e., Blades **D-E** and **G-H**) offered high affinity for pesticide 8, except for the sorbent of Blade **A3**, and a relatively higher  
487 affinity for pesticide 6 than Blade **A3**. Finally, sorbents containing the  $[\text{SPA}^-]$  anion appear to have  
488 a greater affinity for pesticide 6 than those containing  $[\text{SS}^-]$  anions (i.e., Blade **D** and **A3**), even  
489 though pesticide 6 contains more aromatic moieties. Blades **G, H** and **E** also have a greater affinity  
490 for pesticide 7 compared to Blade **D**. Therefore, selectivity of these few pesticides may be  
491 enhanced by using  $[\text{SPA}^-]$  anions even though more aromatic moieties resulted in better pesticide-  
492 cannabinoid selectivity overall.

494 **4. Conclusions**

495 Five PIL sorbent coatings were examined to determine factors affecting pesticide-cannabinoid  
496 selectivity when applied in the thin-film geometry. The percentage of methanol in the sample, the  
497 percentage of sodium chloride in the sample, and the sample temperature were optimized to attain  
498 the best pesticide selectivity. It was found that high salt content, low methanol content, and mild  
499 heating conditions favored pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity. The effect of salt and methanol on  
500 the selectivity is believed to be due to the solubility of analytes in the sample as well as the state  
501 of the PIL sorbent. Additionally, at high salt conditions, PIL sorbents are believed to behave  
502 similarly to polyelectrolytes due to their ionic nature. For cationic sorbents, the sorbents are  
503 expected to be in a collapsed state. For zwitterionic-like sorbents, the sorbents are expected to be  
504 in a swelled state, allowing for a higher available surface area and stronger sorbent-analyte  
505 interactions. However, at high methanol content, swelled sorbents are expected to become  
506 desolvated, which may favor intra-polymer interactions over sorbent-analyte interactions. It is  
507 believed that these different behaviors may account for the reversal of selectivity order between  
508 initial and optimized conditions. Final selectivity factors were calculated based on partition  
509 coefficients, and the results indicated that greater pesticide-cannabinoid selectivity may be due to  
510 the sorbents possessing more aromatic moieties within the IL monomer. Finally, the strength of  
511 pesticide affinity indicates that these sorbents offer greater preference for pesticides that coelute  
512 with cannabinoids during chromatographic separations and are ideal for use in a pesticide-selective  
513 extraction methodology. Enhanced extraction efficiencies for these pesticides may be obtained by  
514 using the  $[\text{SPA}^-]$  anion over  $[\text{SS}^-]$  and  $[\text{NTf}_2^-]$  anions.

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708 **Figure Legends**

709 **Figure 1.** Extraction efficiencies for cannabinoids (a) and pesticides (b) assessed at the central  
710 point (initial) conditions of the DOE using three different blades of the same sorbent coating.  
711 Blade **A1** and **A2** were prepared at the same time using the same coating mixture. Blade **A3** was  
712 made using a different coating mixture on a different day.

713 **Figure 2.** Response surfaces and contour plots generated for optimization of sample temperature,  
714 percentage of NaCl (w/v), and percentage of methanol (v/v) in solution. A Doehlert design  
715 matrix (see Table S3) was used as the independent variables for the model and the ratio of  
716 pesticide total peak area (P TPA) to cannabinoid total peak area (C TPA) was used for the  
717 response (dependent) variable (i.e., selectivity values). The data were collected using Blade **A1**  
718 for the pesticides and Blade **A2** for the cannabinoids. Plots (a) and (d) were sliced at 40 °C, plots  
719 (b) and (e) were sliced at 15 % (w/v) NaCl, and plots (c) and (f) were sliced at 2.5% (v/v)  
720 methanol content.

721 **Figure 3.** Sorption-time profile based on total peak area (TPA) for pesticides (red) and the  
722 cannabinoids (green) is shown on the left y-axis in plot (a). The ratio of TPAs on the right y-axis  
723 represents the selectivity at different extraction times. The peak areas obtained for each pesticide  
724 using different desorption times are shown in plot (b) and the percent carryover is shown in plot  
725 (c). Percent carryover for pesticide 10 at the 20-minute desorption time (\*) could not be  
726 calculated due to an interfering unknown peak for that separation.

727 **Figure 4.** Average selectivity factors for each blade comparing pesticide partition coefficient to  
728 the average cannabinoid coefficient. Data were collected under optimized conditions. Error bars  
729 represent the propagated error. NiTi is VTMS functionalized NiTi.

730 **Figure 5.** Relative selectivity values obtained after Z-score normalization of the average  
731 selectivity factors. The graph shows the preference a sorbent has towards one pesticide over  
732 another.

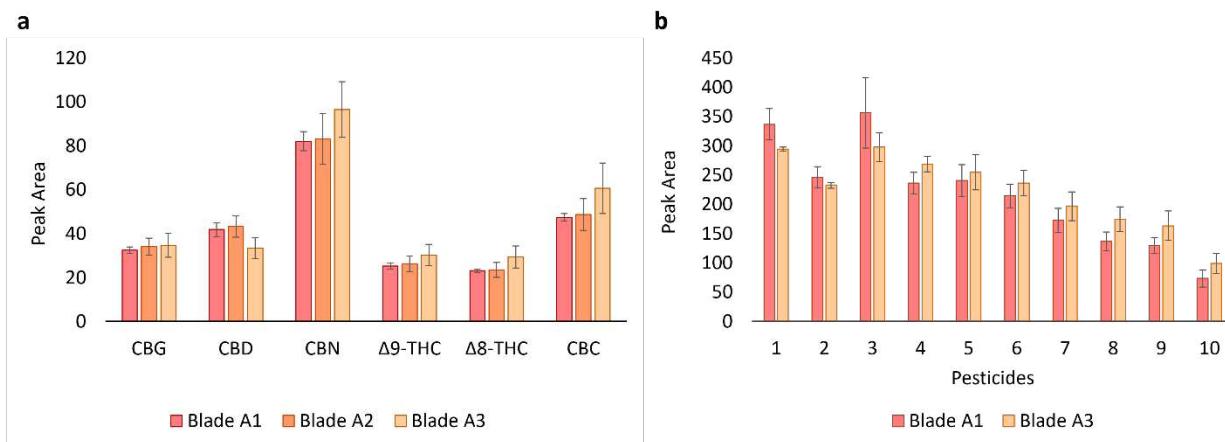
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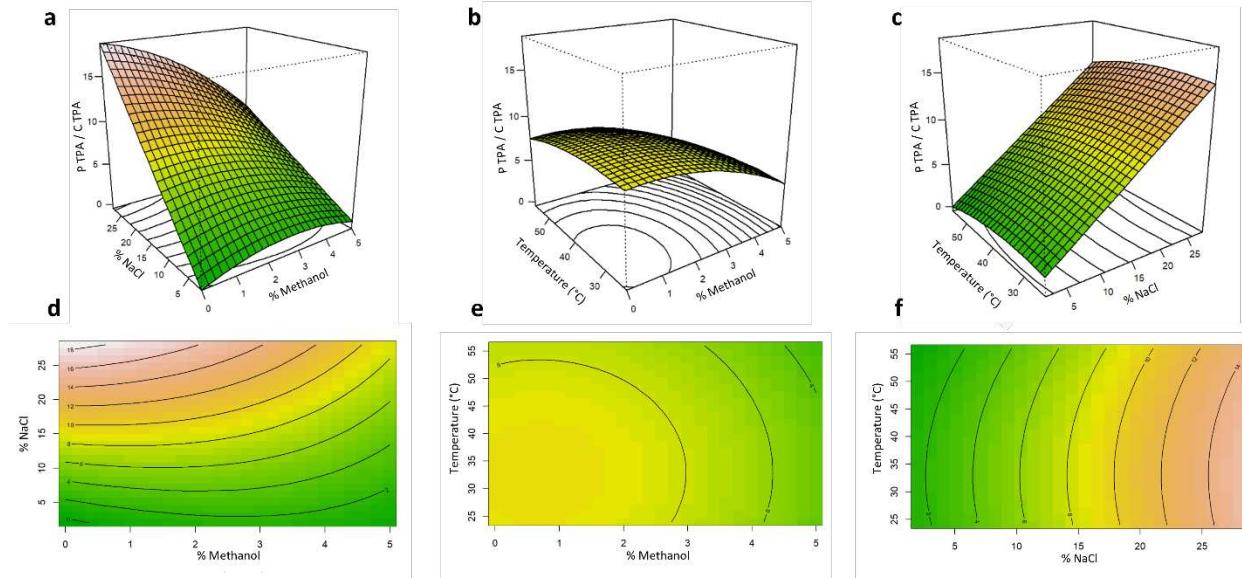
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736 **Table 1.** Chemical structures and names of IL monomers and crosslinkers used for each TF  
 737 blade sorbent coating.

Blade	IL Monomer	IL Crosslinker
A	1-octyl-3-(4-vinylbenzyl)imidazolium p-styrenesulfonate $[\text{VBImC}_8^+][\text{SS}^-]$	1,12-di(3-vinylbenzylimidazolium)dodecane dabis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl]imide $[(\text{VBIm})_2\text{C}_{12}^{+2}]2[\text{NTf}_2^-]$
D	N-(4-vinylbenzyl)triethanolammonium p-styrenesulfonate $[\text{VBTOA}^+][\text{SS}^-]$	1,12-di(3-vinylbenzylimidazolium)dodecane di[p-styrenesulfonate] $[(\text{VBIm})_2\text{C}_{12}^{+2}]2[\text{SS}^-]$
E	N-(4-vinylbenzyl)triethanolammonium 3-sulfopropyl acrylate $[\text{VBTOA}^+][\text{SPA}^-]$	1,12-di(3-vinylbenzylimidazolium)dodecane di[3-sulfopropyl acrylate] $[(\text{VBIm})_2\text{C}_{12}^{+2}]2[\text{SPA}^-]$
G	1-benzyl-3-(4-vinylbenzyl)imidazolium 3-sulfopropyl acrylate $[\text{VBImBz}^+][\text{SPA}^-]$	1,12-di(3-vinylbenzylimidazolium)dodecane di[3-sulfopropyl acrylate] $[(\text{VBIm})_2\text{C}_{12}^{+2}]2[\text{SPA}^-]$
H	1-octyl-3-(4-vinylbenzyl)benzo[d]imidazolium 3-sulfopropyl acrylate $[\text{VBBzImC}_8^+][\text{SPA}^-]$	1,12-di(3-vinylbenzylimidazolium)dodecane di[3-sulfopropyl acrylate] $[(\text{VBIm})_2\text{C}_{12}^{+2}]2[\text{SPA}^-]$
<p>VTMS- Vinyltrimethoxysilane (VTMS)    NiTi</p>		



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755 **Figure 2.** Response surfaces and contour plots generated for optimization of sample temperature,  
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 762 methanol content.

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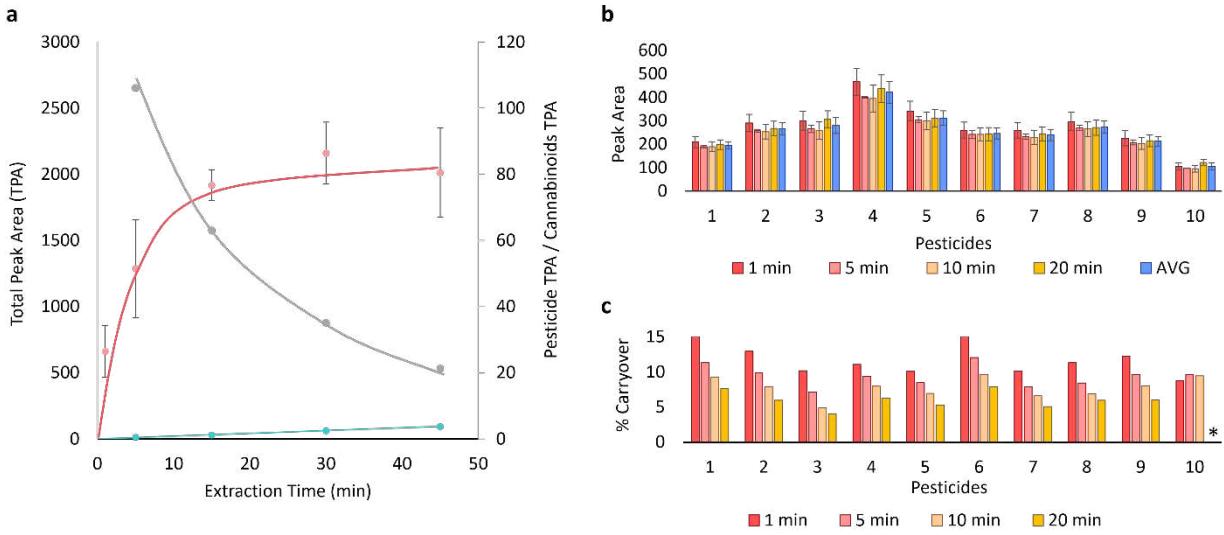
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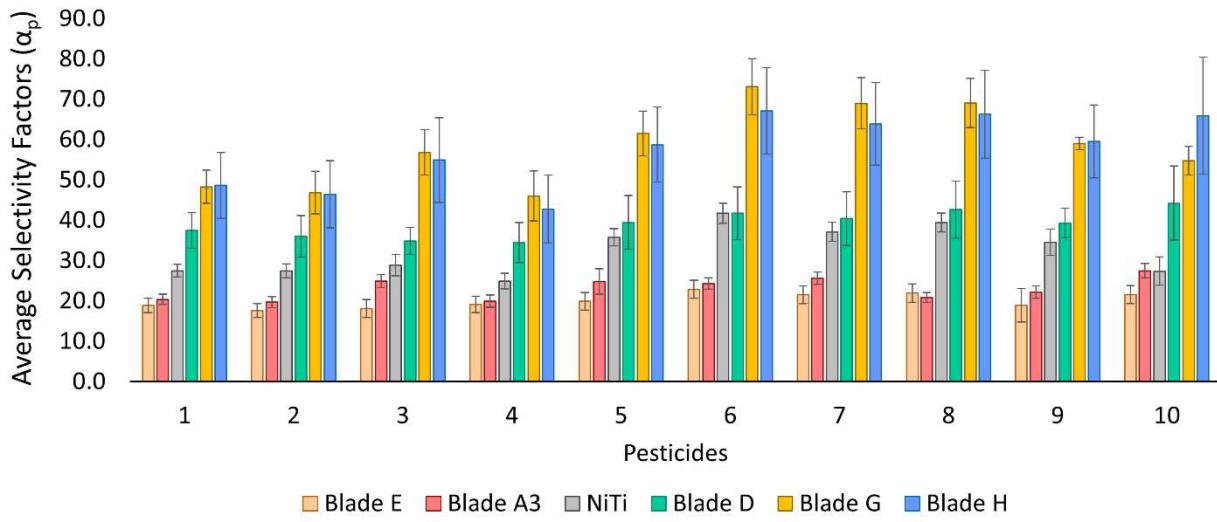
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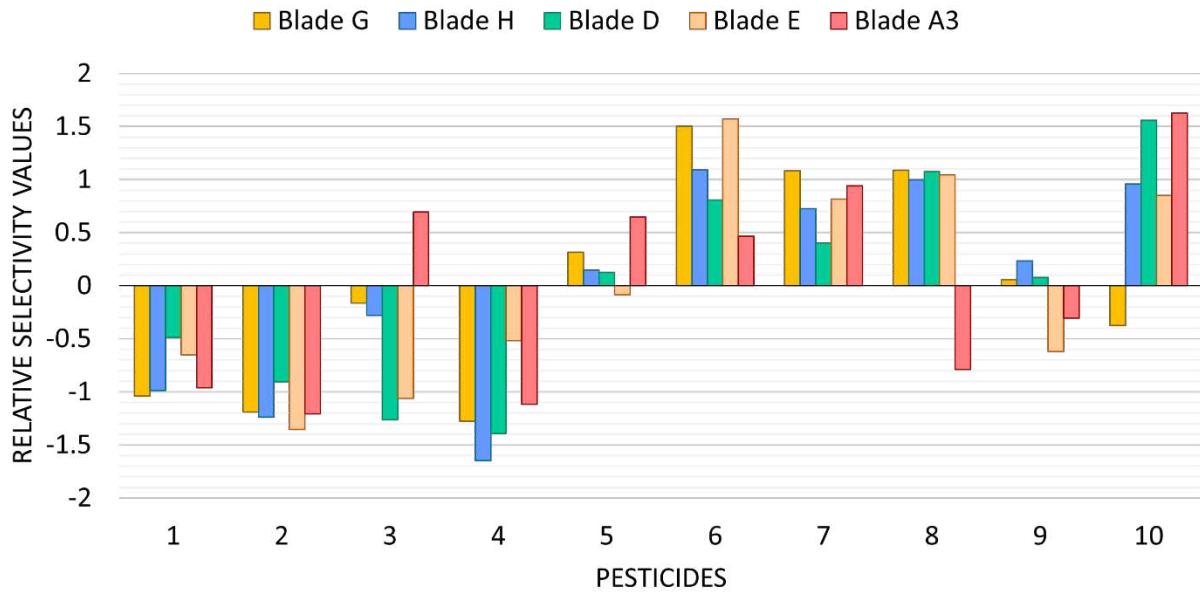
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