



A carboxyl-functionalized covalent organic polymer for the efficient adsorption of saxitoxin

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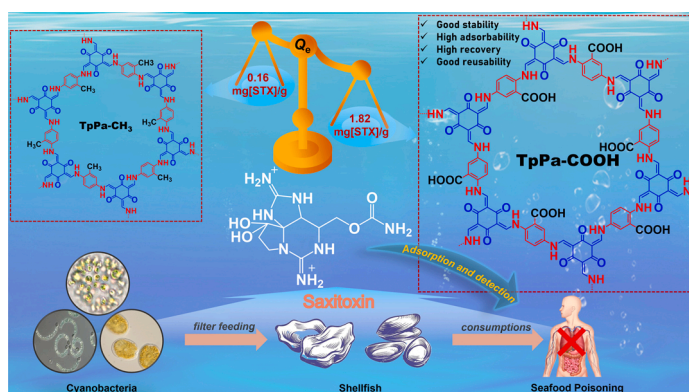
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Covalent organic polymer TpPa-COOH for the efficient adsorption of saxitoxin (STX).
- Fast adsorption of STX with equilibrium reached within 1 h.
- Calculated maximum adsorption capacity of 5.69 mg g⁻¹ outperforms reported materials.
- Good reusability and high recovery rates for STX in natural freshwater.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Saxitoxin (STX), the most widely distributed neurotoxin in marine waters and emerging cyanotoxin of concern in freshwaters, causes paralytic shellfish poisoning in humans upon consumption of contaminated shellfish. To allow for the efficient monitoring of this biotoxin, it is of high importance to find high-affinity materials for its adsorption. Herein, we report the design and synthesis of a covalent organic polymer for the efficient adsorption of STX. Two β -keto-enamine-based materials were prepared by self-assembly of 2,4,6-triformylphloroglucinol (Tp) with 2,5-diaminobenzoic acid (Pa-COOH) to give TpPa-COOH and with 2,5-diaminotoluene (Pa-CH₃) to give TpPa-CH₃. The carboxylic acid functionalized TpPa-COOH outperformed the methyl-bearing counterpart TpPa-CH₃ by an order of magnitude despite the higher long-range order and surface area of the latter. The

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adsorption of STX by TpPa-COOH was fast with equilibrium reached within 1 h, and the Langmuir adsorption model gave a calculated maximum adsorption capacity, Q_m , of 5.69 mg g⁻¹, making this material the best reported adsorbent for this toxin. More importantly, the prepared TpPa-COOH also showed good reusability and high recovery rates for STX in natural freshwater, thereby highlighting the material as a good candidate for the extraction and pre-concentration of STX from aquatic environments.

1. Introduction

Saxitoxin (STX) is one of the most lethal biotoxins known with an oral LD₅₀ value of 5.7 µg kg⁻¹ for humans [27]. It is produced by cyanobacteria and dinoflagellates during (cyanobacterial) harmful algal blooms ((cyano)HABs), massive proliferation of dinoflagellates or cyanobacteria occurring with increasing frequency [17,24] in many fresh and marine waters due to climate change, water hypertrophication, and other effects stemming from human activity. STX and its documented 58 congeners, also known as paralytic shellfish toxins (PSTs), typically accumulate in filter-feeding bivalves and fishes [13,32,48], potentially leading to seafood poisoning outbreaks through the marine food chain [9,28]. In freshwaters, 15 STX-producing species of freshwater cyanobacteria have been identified and many surveillance studies indicate that STX-producing species are very commonly present in stagnant surface freshwater for drinking water or recreational uses [6]. Therefore, to prevent the occurrence of toxic outbreaks, it is of high importance to develop materials that allow for the efficient monitoring of these toxins [30,31].

For trace or ultra-trace analysis of organic contaminants from water samples, pretreatment and pre-concentration are often required prior to the quantification [56], and extraction techniques such as solid-phase extraction (SPE) [25], magnetic solid-phase extraction (MSPE) [11, 18], and solid-phase microextraction (SPME)[4] have been developed for the concentration of STX. On the other hand, for saxitoxin removal, the most common method is based on adsorption using granular activated carbon (GAC) [34], although other adsorbent materials have also been reported, such as polymeric resins [36], mineral residues [3,12], oyster shell powder [26], and algal polysaccharide gels [29]. However, complicated implementation procedures, low specificity and adsorption capacity, and poor reusability of the reported adsorbents prompt the development of novel highly efficient and recyclable materials for STX adsorption [21,25,36].

Covalent organic polymers (COPs) are a class of porous organic nanomaterials constructed from organic units via covalent bonding [54, 57]. Given their interesting characteristics such as light density, facile preparation, and high structural stability [1,40,50], COPs represent a promising class of adsorbent materials for water contaminants, and they have been reported to efficiently capture rare-earth elements [35,41], radioactive elements [54], organic dyes [15,22], and pesticides [14,20]. In addition, their chemical selectivity and adsorption capacity can be tailored through the incorporation of functionalities into the COP building units [49].

Herein, we report the synthesis of novel COP materials for the adsorption of STX from water. Two β-keto-enamine-based materials were obtained by reaction of 2,4,6-triformylphloroglucinol (Tp) with 2,5-diaminobenzoic acid (Pa-COOH) yielding TpPa-COOH and with 2,5-diaminotoluene (Pa-CH₃) yielding TpPa-CH₃. Carboxyl-functionalized TpPa-COOH was found to be > 10 times more efficient than the methylated control COP TpPa-CH₃. Further insight into the adsorption capacity of TpPa-COOH was gained through kinetics, adsorption isotherm, and equilibrium studies, and the material was found to feature adsorption capacity of over seven times higher than the best-performing reported adsorbents for STX. This, added to the reusability of the material and its high adsorption capacity for STX from natural water samples, establishes TpPa-COOH as a potential adsorbent for the monitoring of STX.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Synthesis of TpPa-COOH

TpPa-COOH was synthesized modifying a previously reported procedure [7]. Briefly, triformylphloroglucinol (Tp) (63 mg, 0.3 mmol, 1.0 equiv.), 2,5-diaminobenzoic acid (Pa-COOH) (136.9 mg, 0.9 mmol, 3.0 equiv.), and a mixture of dimethylacetamide (DMAc) and 1,4-dioxane (9:1, 3 mL) were added to a 10 mL ampoule, and the mixture was homogenized by ultrasonication at r.t. for 5 min. Then, aq. 6 M acetic acid (AcOH) (0.5 mL, 6.0 mmol, 10.0 equiv.) was added and the suspension was sonicated at r.t. for 5 min to obtain a homogenous dispersion. The reaction mixture was flash frozen in a liquid N₂ bath, the ampoule was sealed under vacuum, and heated in the oven at 120 °C for 3 d. After cooling to r.t., the solid was collected by filtration and washed sequentially with tetrahydrofuran (THF), *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF), ultrapure water, and acetone until a colorless filtrate was observed. The resulting solid was dried at 90 °C under nitrogen for 24 h to yield TpPa-COOH (89 mg, 77%) as dark-red-colored powder.

2.2. Synthesis of TpPa-CH₃

In a 10 mL ampoule, Tp (31.5 mg, 0.15 mmol, 1.0 equiv.) and 2,5-diaminotoluene (Pa-CH₃) (27.5 mg, 0.23 mmol, 1.5 equiv.) were dispersed in a mixture of mesitylene and 1,4-dioxane (1:1, 1.8 mL), and the mixture was homogenized by ultrasonication at r.t. for 10 min. Then, aq. 6 M acetic acid (0.25 mL, 1.5 mmol, 10.0 equiv.) was added and the suspension was sonicated at r.t. for 5 min to obtain a homogenous dispersion. The reaction mixture was flash frozen in a liquid N₂ bath, the ampoule was sealed under vacuum, and heated in the oven at 120 °C for 3 d. After cooling to r.t., the solid was collected by filtration and washed sequentially with THF, ultrapure water, and dichloromethane until a colorless filtrate was observed. The resulting solid was dried at 90 °C under nitrogen for 24 h to yield TpPa-CH₃ (41 mg, 81%) as red-brown powder.

2.3. Saxitoxin and decarbamoylsaxitoxin quantification

STX and decarbamoylsaxitoxin (dcSTX) quantification assays were conducted at a final volume of 200 µL in wells of flat-bottom opaque 96-well microplates following a literature-known procedure [52]. First, 50 µL of sample were added to the wells containing 12 µL of 10% aq. hydrogen peroxide and 126 µL aq. 1 M NaOH. The microplate was incubated for 2 min at 20 °C under constant shaking at 500 rpm. Then, 10.2 µL of glacial acetic acid were added to stop the oxidation reaction followed by a 5 min shaking (500 rpm) at 20 °C. The fluorescence intensity of each well was measured using a multifunctional microplate reader at 340 nm excitation/395 nm emission, with the gain of 100 and 150.

2.4. Calibration curves for STX or dcSTX quantification

For the preparation of the calibration curve, STX or dcSTX stock solution was serially diluted to 5, 4, 3, 2, 1.5, 1, 0.5 µmol L⁻¹ with ultrapure water, river water, lake water, or 0.1% aq. formic acid (Fig. S16–20). The calibration curves in the corresponding solvents were prepared using the software Origin 8.5, plotting the known concentration points of serial dilutions against the corresponding

fluorescence. Then, a non-linear pharmacology dose-response or linear fitting was applied.

2.5. Adsorption kinetics

A sample of 110 μL of a TpPa-COOH dispersion of 1 mg mL^{-1} in ultrapure water was spiked with a STX to give a final concentration of $10 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Mixture was incubated ($19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 1400 rpm) using Thermomixer Comfort Eppendorf MTP with a 1.5 mL block. After incubation of 1, 5, 10, 30 s, and 1, 5, 10, 30, 60, and 120 min, the collection of the supernatant was performed by filtration (Millex®-GN, hydrophilic Nylon membrane, $0.22 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$). Two-fold dilutions of the collected supernatants were quantified using the microplate method. Each time interval was performed in duplicate. The experimental kinetics were fitted with the pseudo-first-order and the pseudo-second-order kinetic models.

2.6. Adsorption isotherms at $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

Samples of 110 μL of a 1 mg mL^{-1} TpPa-COOH dispersion in ultrapure water were spiked with a STX concentration of 7, 10, 12, 15 and 30 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. For low STX concentrations, the volume of samples was increased to 1000 μL at 1 and 3 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, and 700 μL at 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, keeping the COP concentration constant. Mixtures were incubated at $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 45 min under constant shaking at 1400 rpm. The supernatant of the samples was collected by centrifugation (15,000 rpm, $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 15 min). The collected supernatants were subjected to dilution or concentration by evaporation and then quantified for STX using the microplate method. Each sample was performed in duplicate.

Freundlich and Langmuir models were employed to analyze the equilibrium adsorption isotherm. Freundlich equation is as follows [51]:

$$\ln Q_e = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \ln C_e + \log K_F \quad (1)$$

where Q_e is the amount of adsorbate adsorbed onto the adsorbent in equilibrium (mg g^{-1}), C_e is the concentration of adsorbate in the equilibrium state (mg L^{-1}), and n and K_F are characteristic constants. K_F is an indicator of the adsorption capacity in the Freundlich theory. This constant is a parameter used to evaluate the strength of the adsorption process.

The maximum adsorption capacity (Q_m) can be calculated from the following equation:

$$Q_m = K_F C_0^{1/n} \quad (2)$$

where C_0 is the initial and highest concentration of the adsorbate in solution (mg L^{-1}).

The Langmuir equation is expressed as [16]:

$$\frac{C_e}{Q_e} = \left(\frac{1}{Q_m}\right) C_e + 1 / (Q_m K_L) \quad (3)$$

where K_L is the characteristic Langmuir model constant.

The main characteristics of the Langmuir isotherm can be expressed by a dimensionless constant described as the separation factor R_L , which is an important equilibrium parameter.

$$R_L = 1 / (1 + K_L C_0) \quad (4)$$

where $R_L > 1$ indicates the adsorption to be unfavorable, $R_L = 1$ is linear, $0 < R_L < 1$ is favorable, and $R_L = 0$ is irreversible.

2.7. Adsorption and desorption assays

For adsorption, two replicates of 110 μL of a TpPa-COOH dispersion of 1 mg mL^{-1} in ultrapure water or river water were spiked with STX or dcSTX to give a final concentration of $10 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Mixtures were incubated at $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ under constant shaking at 1400 rpm for 1 h. Then,

the supernatants were collected by centrifugation (15,000 rpm, $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 15 min) for STX quantification. For desorption, the precipitates from the adsorption assays were suspended in 150 μL of aqueous 0.1% formic acid, sonicated at r.t. for 10 min, and incubated for 12 h at $40 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ under constant shaking of 14,000 rpm. The samples were then centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 15 min at $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and the supernatants were analyzed for STX quantification.

2.8. COP recycling

The pellets obtained from the desorption assays were washed with ultrapure water (1 mL) under constant shaking at 1400 rpm for 30 min and collected by centrifugation (15,000 rpm, $19 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 60 min). Then, the pellets were subjected to two adsorption–desorption–washing cycles, maintaining the COP and STX concentration. The recovery of STX for cycles 1–3 was compared and evaluated for the reusability of TpPa-COOH.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Design, synthesis, and characterizations of COPs

STX is a tetrahydropurine compound containing two guanidinium groups with pK_a values of 11.5 and 8.24, respectively (Fig. 1A) [38]. At physiological pH, both moieties are positively charged [46]. In order to design an efficient adsorbent for STX, we considered the binding of the toxin to its natural targets. Saxiphilin, a high-affinity STX-binding protein found in bullfrogs, was found to bind STX through several carboxylic groups and cation– π interaction [23,55]. Interestingly, such STX recognition pattern is similar to that found in voltage-gated sodium (Na_v) channels [2,43], where the binding mechanism is mediated by electrostatic interactions between the five- and six-membered guanidinium rings of STX and carboxyl groups on the Na_v channels [8,44]. Therefore, we hypothesized that introduction of carboxylic acid moieties into the adsorbent material would allow for favorable interactions with STX through hydrogen bonds, whereas the aromatic moieties could engage in cation– π interactions.

To gain access to carboxylic-acid-bearing COP, we envisioned the synthesis of TpPa-COOH from Tp [5] and commercially available 2,5-diaminobenzoic acid (Fig. 1B). After optimization of the conditions, the best results in terms of adsorption efficiency (vide infra) were obtained with the material synthesized in a mixture of DMAc/1,4-dioxane 9:1 (v/v) with 10.0 equiv. of 6 M AcOH as catalyst at $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 72 h. As a control material without the presence of carboxylic acid moieties, we prepared TpPa-CH₃ by reaction of Tp and 2,5-diaminotoluene in mesitylene/1,4-dioxane 1:1 (v/v) with 10.0 equiv. of 6 M AcOH as catalyst at $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 72 h. Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy featured strong bands at 1614, 1552, and 1230 cm^{-1} for TpPa-COOH (Fig. 2A), which were assigned to the stretching vibrations of C=O, C=C, and C–N of the keto form of Tp, indicating the formation of the β -keto-enamine linkage [42]. The bands at 993 and 1691 cm^{-1} stem from O–H and C=O of the carboxylic group, respectively [19]. For TpPa-CH₃, the strong peaks at 1577 and 1228 cm^{-1} were attributed to the stretching of C=C and C–N in the keto form (Fig. 2B). Meanwhile, the attenuation of the C=O band (1635 cm^{-1}) and C–H band (2923 cm^{-1}) of Tp as well as the N–H stretching bands of diamine building block (3288 and 3377 cm^{-1} for TpPa-COOH; 3315 and 3396 cm^{-1} for TpPa-CH₃) indicates the complete consumption of the starting materials.

Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) was employed to verify if the prepared materials present long-range order. Although TpPa-COOH was found to exhibit some crystalline character, with reflections at scattering vector $q = 3.4$ and 6.8 nm^{-1} , corresponding to distances $d = 1.85$, and 0.93 nm , as reported previously [7], disorder in the material is evident from the pattern (Fig. S1). Higher order, typical of covalent organic framework (COF) materials [33], was found in the case of TpPa-CH₃

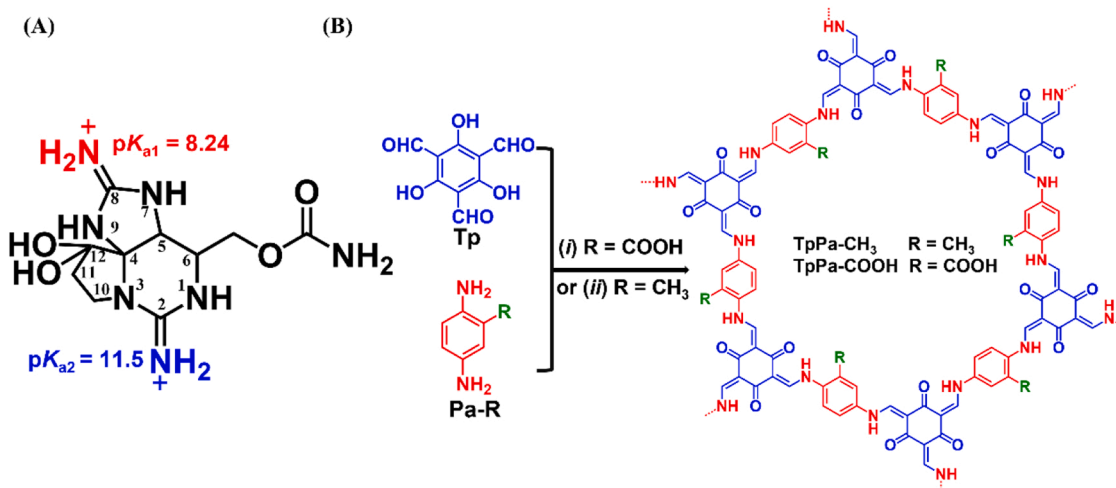


Fig. 1. Chemical structure of STX (A). Schematic illustration of the syntheses of TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ (B). (i) DMAC/1,4-dioxane 9:1, aq. 6 M AcOH; (ii) mesitylene/1,4-dioxane 1:1, aq. 6 M AcOH.

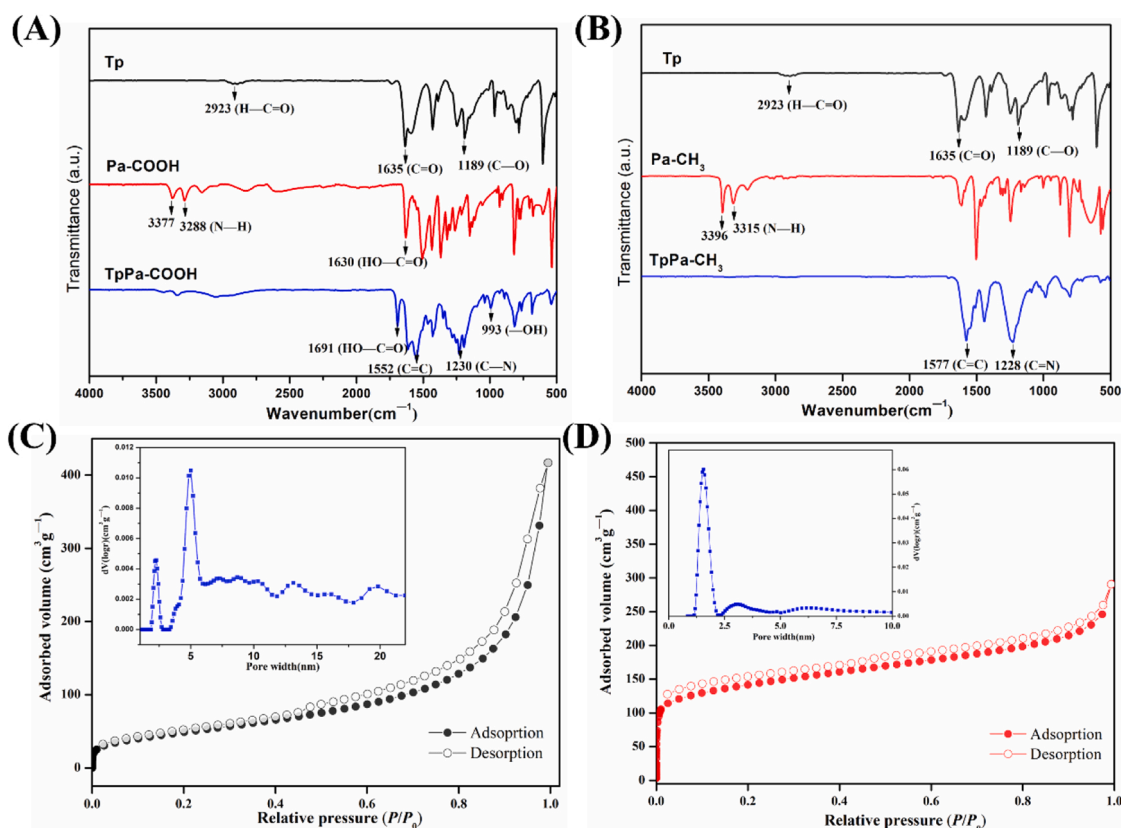


Fig. 2. FT-IR spectra of TpPa-COOH (A) and TpPa-CH₃ (B) overlaid with the corresponding monomers Tp, Pa-COOH, and Pa-CH₃. N₂ adsorption (filled spheres) and desorption (hollow spheres) isotherm profiles measured at 77 K of TpPa-COOH (C) and TpPa-CH₃ (D). (Insert) Pore size distribution calculated from quenched-solid density function theory (QSDFT).

(Fig. S2), with three main reflections at scattering vector $q = 3.25, 5.50,$ and 18.9 nm^{-1} , corresponding to $d = 1.91, 1.14,$ and 0.34 nm .

Nitrogen sorption measurements at 77 K showed type I sorption isotherms for both materials, indicating microporosity (Fig. 2C and D and Figs. S3 and 4), as revealed by the sharp increase in N₂ uptake at low pressures ($P/P_0 < 0.01$) [10]. Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas of 177 and $531 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ were calculated for TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃, respectively, the former in good agreement with the previous report [7]. The pore size distribution calculated using quenched-solid

density functional theory (QSDFT) showed maxima at 2.3 and 5.0 nm as well as contributions from a mixture of larger pores for TpPa-COOH, further evidencing the lack of long-range order in the material. On the other hand, TpPa-CH₃ showed a more defined pore size at 1.6 nm.

Under nitrogen atmosphere (Fig. S9–12), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) data exhibited the onset of weight losses for TpPa-COOH at 200 and 400 °C, attributed to decarboxylation and decomposition of the material, respectively [58]. Accordingly, TpPa-CH₃ only showed one weight loss starting at 315 °C. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

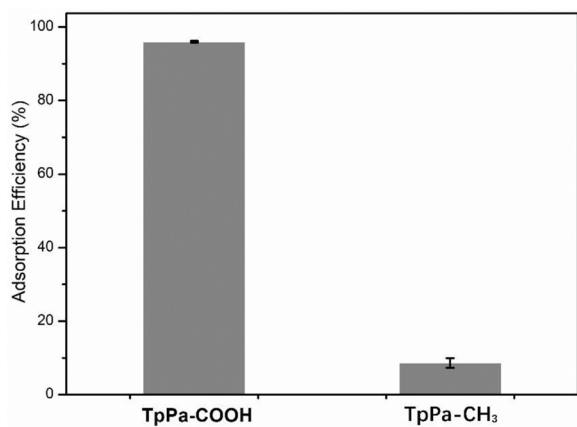


Fig. 3. Adsorption efficiency (%) of saxitoxin by TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ at an initial concentration of 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ at $C_0(\text{COP}) = 1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$. Experiment performed in duplicate at 19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in ultrapure water at pH 6–7. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the mean ($n = 2$).

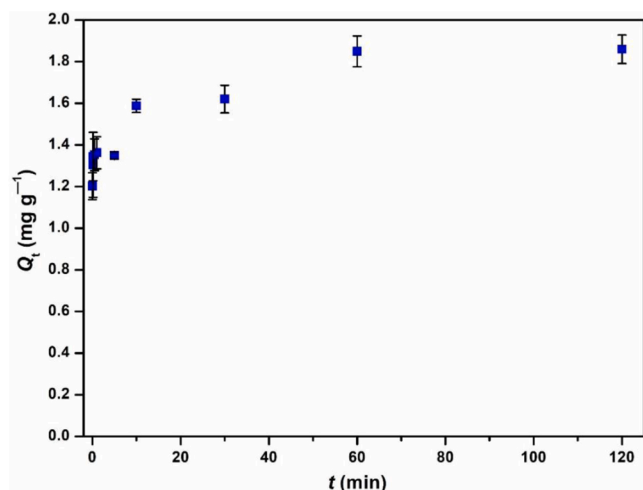


Fig. 4. STX adsorption kinetics at 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ expressed as quantity adsorbed, Q_t (mg g^{-1}) as function of time, 1, 5, 10, 30 s, and 1, 5, 10, 30, 60, 120 min, performed in duplicate, at 19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in ultrapure water [$C_0(\text{COP}) = 1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$]. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the mean ($n = 2$).

images showed TpPa-COOH as micron-sized particles and aggregates (Fig. S13), in agreement with the literature [7]. TpPa-CH₃ showed similar aggregations of numerous micrometer-ranged particles (Fig. S14).

3.2. Saxitoxin adsorption

To determine the adsorption efficiencies of TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ towards saxitoxin, adsorption tests were performed using COP dispersions of 1 mg mL^{-1} in ultrapure water spiked with a STX concentration of 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. After 4 h of incubation at 19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ under constant shaking at 1400 rpm to ensure that equilibrium was reached, the supernatant of each sample was analyzed for STX quantification. As shown in Fig. 3, the adsorption efficiencies of saxitoxin by TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ were 96 \pm 0.23% and 8.6 \pm 1.31%, respectively, with TpPa-COOH outperforming TpPa-CH₃ by an order of magnitude despite having a smaller BET surface area and lower long-range order.

We postulate that the difference in adsorption efficiency between TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ could stem from the carboxylic acid moieties in TpPa-COOH, which may undergo favorable hydrogen-bonding interactions with the five- and six-membered guanidinium rings in STX, as

seen in the binding of STX to saxiphilin and Na_v channels [8,55]. At the studied pH of 6–7, the guanidinium moieties of STX, with pK_a values of 8.24 and 11.5 [37], are protonated, thus able to participate in such interactions. Of course, STX is highly polar in nature ($\log D[\text{pH } 7.4] = -5.49$) [53], so the difference in the polarity of the materials could also play a role. However, both TpPa-COOH and TpPa-CH₃ exhibit similar water contact angle of 0 $^{\circ}$ (Fig. S15).

3.3. Adsorption kinetics and test with analog dcSTX

As TpPa-COOH showed high adsorption efficiency to STX, we next carried out kinetic studies in ultrapure water at different contact times up to 2 h with a STX concentration of 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. This concentration was chosen since with 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ the measured fluorescence value of the collected supernatants was below the linear range of the sigmoidal STX calibration curve for contact times over 10 min. As shown in Fig. 4, the equilibrium of adsorption was reached at 60 min, showing the adsorbed quantity q_t of 1.86 mg g^{-1} ($t = 120 \text{ min}$, $c(\text{TpPa-COOH}) = 1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$, $c(\text{STX}) = 10 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). The experimental kinetic data were fitted with the pseudo-first-order and the pseudo-second-order kinetic models (Fig. S21–22), and the good fit of the latter indicated that this model is appropriate to describe the adsorption behavior of TpPa-COOH (Table S1), with the calculated Q_e of 1.82 mg g^{-1} identical to the experimental value. Additionally, we investigated the adsorption of a STX analog commonly found in natural waters, dcSTX. Very interestingly, TpPa-COOH was able to adsorb this analog with an even higher efficiency of 91%, reaching 4.1 mg g^{-1} of adsorption capacity experimentally.

3.4. Adsorption isotherm

The adsorption isotherm of STX with TpPa-COOH at 19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ was obtained by plotting the amount adsorbed in equilibrium, Q_e , against the remaining concentration of STX at equilibrium, C_e (Fig. 5). With increasing C_e , the equilibrium adsorption capacities rose linearly until reaching a transient saturation, and then continuing to rise. Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models were employed to fit the experimental data (Fig. S23–24) and the isotherm parameters obtained by linear regression of the experimental values are listed in Table S2. The best fit of the data points was obtained with the Langmuir isotherm equation describing a monolayer adsorption process, with correlation coefficients

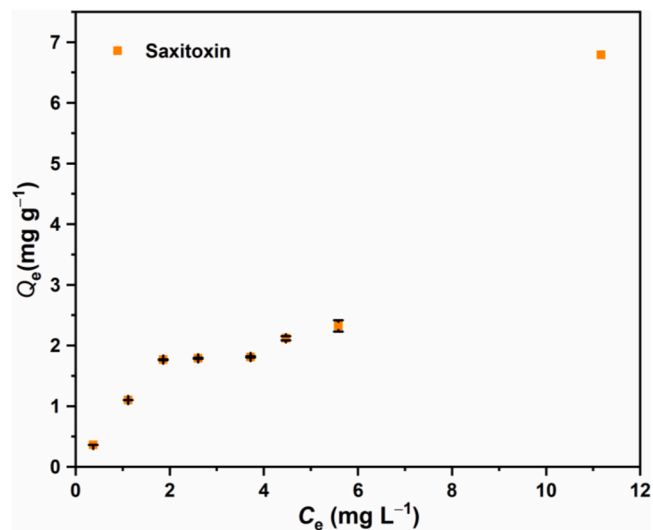


Fig. 5. Amount of STX adsorbed in equilibrium (60 min), Q_e (mg g^{-1}), as a function of STX concentration in equilibrium, C_e (mg L^{-1}), at 19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in ultrapure water [$C_0(\text{COP}) = 1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$]. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the mean ($n = 2$).

close to 1. The values of constant K_L and separation factor R_L are 0.1852 and 0.3259, respectively, suggesting a favorable adsorption process of STX on TpPa-COOH ($0 < R_L < 1$). Therefore, the Langmuir isotherm model can more accurately describe the adsorption of STX by TpPa-COOH. The maximum adsorption capacity, Q_m , calculated from the adsorption isotherm was 5.69 mg g^{-1} , which matches very well the adsorption observed experimentally using $30 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$ STX (6.79 mg g^{-1}). Importantly, with this value TpPa-COOH outperforms all reported adsorbents for the removal of STX from water (Table 1). In comparison, the STX adsorption capacity of TpPa-COOH is at least twice as high as those of previously reported materials, making it a potential candidate to be used as an efficient adsorbent for STX in the water.

3.5. Saxitoxin desorption and COP recycling

Regeneration of used adsorbents is crucial to reduce the costs of toxin removal and waste disposal, as well as for the adsorbent to be used as pre-concentration materials of STX for further analysis. To investigate the reusability of TpPa-COOH for the capture of STX, three consecutive adsorption–desorption cycles were performed with a STX concentration of $10 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Prior to STX desorption measurements, we verified the elution ability of the alternative desorption solutions including a mixture (pH 9–10) of methanol and ammonia in water, methanol/ H_2O (1:1, v/v), and aqueous 0.1% formic acid (FA) solution. The 0.1% FA solution gave a much higher desorption efficiency than other candidates, suggesting that the enhanced polarity and acidity of the desorption solution is favorable for the elution of STX from TpPa-COOH, which could be due to protonation of the carboxylic groups of the COP. As shown in Fig. 6A, the adsorbed amount in equilibrium decreased merely from 1.85 to 1.81 mg g^{-1} in the first two cycles, and to 1.60 mg g^{-1} after three cycles. These results indicate that TpPa-COOH can maintain an acceptable performance for practical application at minimum of three consecutive uses. For desorption, recovery of adsorbed STX by TpPa-COOH for each individual cycle was determined as 86%, 83%, and 78%, respectively (Fig. 6B), providing a reliable toxin recovery. Furthermore, SAXS, FTIR, and N_2 sorption measurements of TpPa-COOH after three consecutive adsorption–desorption cycles confirmed that the adsorbent maintains its chemical and structural stability (Fig. S1 and Fig. S5–8), highlighting the durability of the material for this application.

Table 1
Comparison of the adsorption capacity of TpPa-COOH with reported adsorbents for STX adsorption.

Sorbent	Q_m (mg g^{-1})	Q_e (mg g^{-1})	T_{eq} (h)	Sorbent reuse	Ref.
SP700	0.000016	-	-	yes	[36]
CDP resins	0.0003	-	-	yes	[36]
m- Fe_3O_4 @Carbon	0.061	-	1	-	[11]
Oyster shell powder	-	0.0004	72	-	[26]
Alginate gels	0.0007	0.00047	3	no	[29]
Semi-refined κ -carrageenan gels	0.0010	0.00048	3	no	[29]
Chitin	-	0.0005	72	-	[26]
Refined κ -carrageenan gel	0.0013	0.00067	3	no	[29]
CBI-MW-PAC	-	0.081	0.75	no	[39]
	-	0.076	1.25	no	[39]
WPH-PAC	-	2.43	24	no	[45]
GAC-DD	0.154 (exp.)	0.143	48	-	[47]
GAC-CB	0.415 (exp.)	0.203	48	-	[47]
GAC-AP	0.418 (exp.)	0.239	48	-	[47]
GAC-C8	2.095 (exp.)	0.252	48	-	[47]
TpPa-COOH	5.69 (6.8 exp.)	1.82	1	yes	This work

3.6. Extraction of saxitoxin by TpPa-COOH from natural waters

In order to probe the applicability of TpPa-COOH to adsorb STX from natural water, we collected a water sample from Cávado River, in Braga municipality, Portugal and a sample of water from Castiñeiras Lake, in Marin, Pontevedra, Spain. The pH of the river water sample was determined to be 6.89, very similar to the one from the lake, 6.86. Prior to adsorption experiments, the natural water samples were spiked with STX at concentrations of 5, 10, and $15 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Although these concentrations far exceed actual contamination levels found in natural water, with the reported values generally being in the range of ng L^{-1} to $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, these experiments were carried out to allow for the comparison of the adsorption capacity of TpPa-COOH towards STX in natural water and ultrapure water. As shown in Fig. 7, the adsorption efficiency of STX by TpPa-COOH reached 99.7% (Test-1 river), 99.4% (Test-2 river) and 95% (Test-3 lake), all higher than the obtained value (94.9%) in ultrapure water. With increasing STX concentration, the adsorption efficiency showed a similar downward tendency in all water types, remaining below 50% at the highest concentration of $15 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The adsorption capacities, Q_e , of TpPa-COOH for STX at $5 \text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ was found to be 1.86 (Test-1 river), 1.85 (Test-2 river), 1.77 (Test-3 lake), and 1.77 mg g^{-1} (ultrapure water), respectively (Table S3).

In order to test the recovery of STX from the material after adsorption from natural water samples, the collected adsorbents obtained from the adsorption assay were re-suspended in $150 \text{ }\mu\text{L}$ of aqueous 0.1% formic acid and incubated for 12 h under constant shaking of 1400 rpm. STX was recovered with good efficiency from the natural waters, presenting an adsorption recovery efficiency of 79% (Test-1 river), 73% (Test-2 river), and 59% (Test-3 lake), respectively, corresponding to 79%, 72%, and 56% recovery of the spiked amount (Table S4). In all cases, STX was efficiently recovered from TpPa-COOH (>59%), suggesting great applicability of TpPa-COOH for the extraction of STX from natural water for further analysis.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we have prepared carboxyl-functionalized TpPa-COOH COP with high adsorption efficiency towards STX and its analog, dcSTX. The material outperformed its methyl-bearing counterpart despite the higher long-range order and surface area of the latter, highlighting the importance of the carboxylic acid moieties in the adsorption. Adsorption experiments with TpPa-COOH revealed that adsorption equilibrium was reached within 60 min and calculated maximum adsorption capacity of the prepared material was 5.69 mg g^{-1} , outperforming all previously reported adsorbents for this toxin. Good reusability and high recovery efficiency of STX also from freshwater samples are further evidence of the great potential TpPa-COOH displays for saxitoxin extraction and pre-concentration for analytical applications.

Environmental Implications

Saxitoxin (STX), the most widely distributed neurotoxin in marine waters and emerging cyanotoxin of concern in freshwaters, causes paralytic shellfish poisoning in humans upon consumption of contaminated shellfish. In order to be able to detect low concentrations of STX in waters for analysis or early warning systems, efficient materials for its adsorption are needed. Here we report an adsorbent for STX based on a covalent organic polymer that, to the best of our knowledge, outperforms all the previously described ones, being able to reach high recoveries from natural waters and presenting a good reusability.

Supporting Information

Materials and methods, COP synthesis and characterization, details of the adsorption and desorption experiments, comparison of results with the literature (PDF).

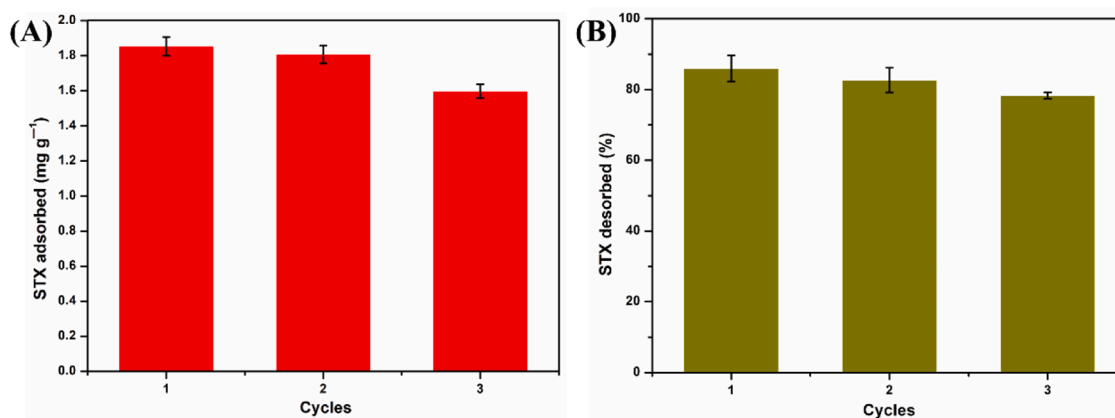


Fig. 6. Reusability of TpPa-COOH in consecutive cycles of STX adsorption/desorption at the initial concentration of $10 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (A). Quantification of the STX desorption efficiency (%) from TpPa-COOH using aqueous 0.1% formic acid after each adsorption/desorption cycle (B). Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the mean ($n = 2$).

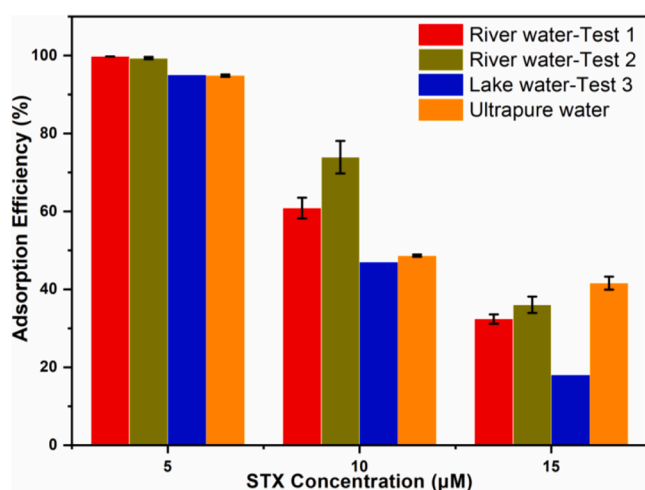


Fig. 7. Adsorption efficiency (%) of STX at concentrations of 5, 10, and 15 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ by TpPa-COOH [$C_0(\text{COP}) = 1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$] in river and lake water as well as ultrapure water. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the mean ($n = 2$).

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

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Tianxing Wang: Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Soraia P.S.**

Fernandes: Investigation. **Joana Araújo:** Investigation. **Xiaoxi Li:** Supervision, Writing – reviewing. **Laura M. Salonen:** Data curation, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Begoña Espiña:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2023.131247](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2023.131247).

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