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New polluting metals. Quantification in herbal medicines by voltammetric and spectroscopic analytical methods

This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

New polluting metals. Quantification in herbal medicines by voltammetric and spectroscopic analytical methods / Melucci D.; Locatelli M.; Casolari S.; Locatelli C.. - In: JOURNAL OF PHARMACEUTICAL AND BIOMEDICAL ANALYSIS. - ISSN 0731-7085. - STAMPA. - 211:(2022), pp. 114599.1-114599.7. [10.1016/j.jpba.2022.114599]

This version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/11585/879185 since: 2022-03-22

Published:

DOI: http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2022.114599

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This is the final peer-reviewed accepted manuscript of:

Melucci, D., Locatelli, M., Casolari, S., Locatelli, C., 2022. New polluting metals. Quantification in herbal medicines by voltammetric and spectroscopic analytical methods. Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis 211, 114599.

The final published version is available online at: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2022.114599.

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1	NEW POLLUTING METALS.
2	QUANTIFICATION IN HERBAL MEDICINES BY
3	VOLTAMMETRIC AND SPECTROSCOPIC ANALYTICAL METHODS
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Abstract

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A new application of voltammetric techniques in stripping mode to the quantitative determination of metals belonging to the platinum group (PGM) in herbal medicines, at the ultra-trace level, is reported. Pd (II), Pt (II) and Rh (III) are determined by means of square-wave adsorption voltammetry (SWAdSV); Os (VIII) and Ru (III) are determined through catalytic square-wave voltammetry (SWCV); Ir (III) is determined through the application of square-wave catalytic adsorption voltammetry (SWAdCSV). In all the applied methods, a conventional three-electrode voltammetric cell is employed, which sees the presence of a suspended mercury-drop electrode (HMDE) or a glassy carbon electrode (GCE) as working electrodes for the determination of Ir (III). The auxiliary electode was a platinum electrode, and an Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd}, electrode was employed as reference electrode. Validation of the analytical procedure here proposed has been achieved using reference standards: NIST-SRM 1570a (Spinach Leaves) and NIST-SRM 1573a (Tomato Leaves), both added with pure metal standards, obtaining more than good precision values and better than the limits set for the validation of quantitative methods. Following the verification of the validity of the procedure indicated here, commercially available herbal medicines, based on Eucalyptus globulus, Harpagophytum procumbens DC and Taraxacun officinale weber, were analyzed. Standard samples were also analyzed by atomic absorption spectroscopy in order to have a reference technique for validating the entire procedure.

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Keywords: PGMs, Voltammetry, Spectroscopy, Herbal Medicines.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the Scientific Community has paid increasing attention to metals belonging to the platinum group (PGM), especially in the environmental field and following the increase in their concentration in this type of matrices. This effect is attributable to the use of these metals in various anthropic sectors such as the production of industrial catalysts, anticancer drugs, jewelry, and use of autocatalytic converters. This last element, especially linked to the incorrect "stop and go" use of these converters, with consequent deterioration and abrasion, implies a significant release into the environment of airborne particulate matter characterized by high content of PGM and is currently the most relevant source of contamination by PGM. The increase has been all the greater since the transition from platinum, palladium and rhodium-based catalysts to the increasing use of iridium, ruthenium and, above all, osmium [1].

The main problem observed with PGMs is their persistence in the environment, with serious damage to food safety. This is above all linked to the fact that they have a tendency to bioaccumulation in all environmental matrices (plants, terrestrial and aquatic organisms) thus representing a way of entry into the food chain. Human beings, as the final element of this supply chain, therefore represent the subjects most exposed and at risk, especially in light of the toxicity of PGMs in their various bioavailable forms [2]. What has been observed so far certainly finds reason to exist in the normal food chain, but the growing use of food supplements entails the need to monitor these PGMs also in these products, even if currently the Scientific Community does not yet consider them in this sense.

Food supplements, encompassing a wide range of products ranging from vitamins and minerals to herbal agents (remedies and medicines based on herbs), various extracts and enzymes, require constant evaluation and quality control to ensure that toxic levels fall within acceptable limits. In this context, medicinal herbs are certainly a significant component of the market, if not the dominant one. Herbal medicines are currently referred to as "products of plant origin used for

medicinal and/or nutritional purposes", encompassing a large range of products, from herbal teas to products for nutritional-care and body-care.

Despite herbal medicines can be considered not dangerous to health, being derived from natural products, unfortunately there is currently not much scientific evidence to support this general belief. While synthetic products can be purified and stabilized in their formulations, with a defined dosage to obtain the therapeutic effect and minimizing the adverse effects, herbal medicines are difficult to standardize due to raw extracts containing different active ingredients (phytocomplex). This is above all linked to the fact that different pharmacologically active ingredients are present in the phytocomplex, often similar to synthetic compounds but potentially showing a greater number of adverse effects [1, 3-4].

Another element not to be overlooked is that, to date, there is no real regulation for the production of herbal medicines, combined with the fact that they can be purchased without a prescription. In light of these regulatory deficiencies, international organizations like WHO (World Health Organization and FDA (US Food and Drug Administration) simply recommend to check for the quantity of toxic heavy metals in medicinal plants, starting from raw materials. Only for some of these metals the upper-threshold admissible limits are defined: 1.0 ppm for mercury; 10.0 ppm for lead; 0.3 ppm for cadmium; 10.0 ppm for arsenic [5-6]. For all other metals, a real decision has not been evaluated and/or taken, yet; probably this happens because, in many cases, these metals are considered micronutrients and consequently their potential harmfulness is not adequately taken into account when they are assumed in large quantities.

In the analysis of metals, the most widely used instrumental technique is certainly the electrothermal atomic absorption spectroscopy (ET-AAS) [7-9], especially in the configuration that envisages the graphite furnace (GF-AAS) as an atomization device. In the literature there are some works [10, 11] in which the herbal medicine fingerprint is obtained using this technique, which can then be processed using chemometric approaches to investigate their origin [12], or the possible evaluation of fraud [13].

In recent years, a line of research has been expanded in our laboratories that includes investigating new approaches to quantitatively determine PGMs in environmental and food samples [14-30] through the application of such spectroscopic techniques, and only recently to quantify toxic metals in matrices characterizing such categories of samples [8 and bibliography, 31 and bibliography].

In this context, especially considering the lack of studies relating to the voltammetric determination of PGMs in herbal medicines, we wanted to develop a procedure to meet the needs related to the quality control and characterization of these matrices. This paper presents studies and results related to the following voltammetric techniques: square wave adsorbent stripping voltammetry (SWAdSV) [Pd (II), Pt (II), Rh (III)], square-wave catalytic voltammetry (SWCV) [Ru (III), Os (VIII)] and square-wave catalytic adsorbent stripping voltammetry with (SWAdCSV).

2. EXPERIMENTAL

2.1 Instrumentation

The acquisition of voltammograms was performed by a Multipolarograph AMEL Mod. 433 (Milan, Italy). The measuring cells (three-electrode set-up) is structured in the case of iridium with a working electrode consisting in a glassy-carbon electrode (GCE, AMEL, Milan; 7.065-mm²surface area). For all the other PGMs herein considered, a stationary HMDE was used. In all cases, Ag|AgCl|KCl_{satd} was the reference electrode and a platinum-wire electrode was the auxiliary electrode. The Teflon voltammetric cell was rinsed many times before carrying out measurements, in order to prevent contamination. This procedure was performed as follow: i) a first rinsing with suprapure HNO₃ 69%_{w/w}, diluted 1:1 with water obtained by a Milli-Q deionizing system (Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany); ii) the cell was rinsed many times using Milli-Q water.

Disposable plastic tips were used for the standard additions. The solutions were previously thermostated at 20.0±0.5°C and treated by pure N₂ for 5 min to remove oxygen. During the measurements, solutions were kept under nitrogen. The magnetic stirring (with Teflon-coated

magnetic stirring bar) was constantly maintained during the purge step. For the analyses here presented, the supporting electrolytes and the voltammetric parameters are reported in Table 1 and Table 2.

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- 121 **Table 1.** Instrumental details for Pd(II), Pt(II), Rh(III) by SWAdSV and Pb(II) by SWASV.
- Supporting electrolytes: HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ + dimethylglyoxime 1.9·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹ [Pd(II)] and HCl 0.15
- $123 \qquad mol \ L^{-1} + dimethylglyoxime \ 1.9 \cdot 10^{-4} \ mol \ L^{-1} + formaldehyde \ 0.65 \ mmol \ L^{-1} + hydrazine \ (formazone \ 1.9 \cdot 10^{-4} \ mol \ L^{-1} + hydrazine)$
- 124 complex) 1.25 mmol L⁻¹ in HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ [Pt(II) and Rh(III)].

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- **Table 2.** Instrumental parameters for Ru(III) and Os(VIII) by SWCV, and Ir(III) by SWAdCSV.
- Supporting electrolytes: acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ [Os(VIII),
- Ru(III)], and acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ + cetyltrimethylammonium
- 129 bromide 4.9·10⁻⁵ mol L⁻¹ + KCl 0.25 mol L⁻¹ [Ir (III)].

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- 131 An Atomic Absorption Spectrometer by Perkin-Elmer (Mod. A-Analyst 100 with deuterium
- background-corrector, Autosampler AS-72 and graphite furnace model HGA 800), was used for the
- acquisition of ET-AAS measurements. The light sources were Lumina hollow-cathode lamps for
- single-element measurements (Perkin-Elmer, USA), while the steps of ashing and atomization
- (different from element to element) were set up as reported in the literature [32]. Table 3 reports the
- instrumental parameters, optimized in the present work.

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- **Table 3**. Instrumental details for Pd(II), Pt(II), Ir(III), Os(VIII), Rh(III) and Ru(III) by GF-AAS.
- 139 Injected volume: 20 μL. Argon flow: 60 mL min⁻¹ only in the atomization step, 300 mL min⁻¹ in all
- other steps. For all the elements no matrix modifier is employed.

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- 142 2.2 Reagents and Reference Solutions
- 143 Chemicals at suprapure-grade (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) were used in this work, while a
- 144 Milli-Q system was use to obtain demineralized water. Reference standard solutions were obtained
- starting from acidic standard solutions: Ir(III), Pd(II), Pt(II), Rh(III), Ru(III) (1000 mg L⁻¹, Merck,
- Darmstadt, Germany). Osmium tetroxide solution in water (4%_{w/w}, Sigma-Aldrich, Darmstadt,
- Germany) was used as starting standard solution. In order to optimize the instrumental parameters,

two reference materials were used as standard: NIST-SRM 1570a (Spinach Leaves) and NIST-SRM 1573a (Tomato Leaves) (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, USA).

2.3 Sample Preparation

The standard reference materials (NIST-SRM 1570a and NIST-SRM 1573a) and the herbal medicines (*Eucalyptus globulus, Harpagophytum procumbens DC* and *Taraxacum officinale Weber*) were solubilized by an acidic attack using a mixture of HCl, HNO₃ and H₂SO₄.

The vegetables were accurately weighed (order of magnitude: 1 g), and put in a 25-mL Pyrextube for digestion, and a solution containing 4 mL HNO₃ 69%_{w/w}, 4 mL HCl 37%_{w/w} and 5 mL H₂SO₄ 96%_{w/w} was added. Then a Vigreux column condenser was connected to the tube, and the tube was inserted into a cold block digester (appositely homemade); finally, the temperature was progressively raised up to 150°C and maintained at this final temperature for 2 h to achieve the mineralization. After this step, the content was dried, cooled, and dissolved in Milli-Q water (25 mL) or in 25 mL of the supporting electrolyte.

2.4 Voltammetric procedure for Pd(II)-Pt(II)-Rh(III)

The voltammetric procedure for Pd(II)-Pt(II)-Rh(III) consists in two steps: i) 10-mL sample aliquot of HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ + dimethylglyoxime (DMG) 1.9·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹ aqueous reference solution or solutions obtained in the mineralization step were transferred into the voltammetric cell; deaeration was achieved by bubbling water-saturated pure N₂ for 5 min. The determination of Pd(II) was carried out by SWAdSV; ii) 0.5 mL of formaldehyde 1.37·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ + hydrazine (formazone complex) 2.63·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ in HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ solution (final concentration: formaldehyde = 0.65 mmol L⁻¹ and hydrazine = 1.25 mmol L⁻¹) were added. The determination of Pt(II) and Rh(III) was carried out by SWAdSV.

2.5 Possible interference from Pb(II) and Zn(II) in quantifying Pd(II) and Pt(II) by voltammetry

174 In the experimental conditions applied herein for the Pd(II), Pt(II) and Rh(III) determination, also Pb(II) and Zn(II) show voltammetric peaks (-0.485 and -0.877 V vs. Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd.}, 175 respectively). Hence, there is a possible interference with Pd (II) and Pt (II) (-0.343 and -1.027 V 176 vs. Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd}, respectively), involving in two possible interference cases: Pd(II)-Pb(II) and 177 178 Pt(II)-Zn(II). Figure 1 reports the voltammetric peak due to Pb (II), which shows very low 179 reversibility degree in the employed supporting electrolyte. However, it is worth pointing out that this element, when present at very high concentration ratios ($c_{Pb(II)}$: $c_{Pd(II)} > 650 \mu g g^{-1}$), certainly could 180 181 be a possible interfering species in the Pd(II) voltammetric determination.

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- Figure 1. Square-wave adsorptive stripping voltammogram: determination of Pd(II) in the presence of Pb(II) in *Taraxacun officinale weber*. Supporting electrolyte: HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ + DMG 1.9·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹. Peak 1 corresponds to Pd(II); peak 2 corresponds to Pb(II).
- 186 Experimental conditions: see Table 1

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Similarly, Zn(II) may interfere during Pt(II) quantification, showing a voltammetric peak at - 0.877 V vs. Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd.} (Figure 2). Again, the Zn(II) electrode process shows a low reversibility degree in the employed supporting electrolyte, and the interference can observed only in the case of very high concentrations ratios ($c_{Zn(II)}$: $c_{Pt(II)}$ > 750 µg g⁻¹).

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Figure 2. Square-wave adsorptive stripping voltammogram: determination of Pt(II) and Rh(III) in the presence of Zn(II) in *Taraxacun officinale weber*. Supporting electrolyte: HCl 0.15 mol L⁻¹ + DMG 1.9·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹ + formaldehyde 0.65 mmol L⁻¹ + hydrazine (formazone complex in 0.15 mol L⁻¹ HCl) 1.25 mmol L⁻¹. Peak 1 corresponds to Zn(II), peak 2 corresponds to Pt(II), peak 3 corresponds to Rh(III). Experimental conditions: Table 1.

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- 2.6 Voltammetric procedure for Ir(III), Os(VIII) and Ru(III)
- The voltammetric procedure for Ir(III)-Os(VIII)-Ru(III) is carried out two steps:
- *i*) 10-mL sample aliquots of acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ aqueous reference solution, or of solutions obtained in the mineralisation step containing acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃ 7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹, were transferred into the voltammetric cell; de-aeration

was kept for 5 min by bubbling water-saturated pure N₂. The determination of Os(VIII) and Ru(III)
was performed by SWCV with HMDE electrode
ii) HMDE electrode was replaced with GCE electrode, in the same voltammetric cell; then, 1 mL of

cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) 5.98·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹ (final CTAB concentration 4.9·10⁻⁵ mol

L-1) and 1 mL of KCl 3.0 mol L-1 (final KCl concentration 0.25 mol L-1) were added for the

quantification of Ir(III) by SWAdCSV.

2.7 Voltammetric interference from Cu(II) and Pb(II) in the Os(VIII) and Ru(III) determination

Cu(II) and Pb(II) (-0.169±0.015 and -0.327±0.010 V vs. Ag|AgCl|KCl_{satd}, respectively) in acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃ 7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ supporting electrolyte could interfere strongly with the determination of Os(VIII) and Ru(III) (-0.243 ±0.010 and -0.023 ±0.015 V vs. Ag|AgCl|KCl_{satd}, respectively). This phenomenon, reported in Figure 3a, is decidedly important also related to the fact that Cu(II) and Pb(II), in general, are always present in all real matrices, in particular the environmental ones, even if at low-concentration level. This drawback can be avoided using the well-known ability of Ethylene Diamine Tetraacetic Acid (EDTA) to shift peaks toward cathodic potentials if added to the voltammetric cell. In this work, Cu(II) and Pb(II) interfering peaks were shifted by adding EDTA di-sodium salt, specifically: 200 µL EDTA-Na₂ 9.6·10⁻³ mol L⁻¹ were added to a 10-mL sample aliquot, obtaining 1.88·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹ as final EDTA-Na₂ concentration. Indeed, the EDTA-Na₂ presence results in a shift of potential values in the cathodic direction, either for Os(VIII) and Ru(III) or Cu(II) and Pb(II) [Os(VIII): -0.096±0.015; Ru(III): -0.529±0.015; Cu(II): -0.301±0.015; Pb(II): -0.751±0.010 V vs. Ag|AgCl|KCl_{satd}]. Under these conditions, the final peak position of the four elements makes it possible to achieve complete resolution (see Figure 3b), and consequently the quantitative determination becomes possible.

Figure 3. Square-wave catalytic voltammogram: Os(VIII) and Ru(III) in presence of Cu(II) and Pb(II) in *Taraxacun officinale weber*. Supporting electrolyte: acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃7.3·10⁻² mol L⁻¹ in absence (a) and presence (b) of EDTA-Na₂. Peak 1 corresponds to

231 Os(VIII), peak 2 corresponds to Cu(II), peak 3 corresponds to Ru(III), peak 4 corresponds to Pb(II). 232

Experimental conditions: see Table 2.

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As for Ir(III) (see Figure 4), EDTA-Na₂ seems to slightly change the position [Ir(III) peak potential in presence of EDTA-Na₂1.88·10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹: +0.623±0.015 V vs. Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd.}; Ir(III) peak potential without EDTA-Na₂: +0.609±0.010 V vs. Ag | AgCl | KCl_{satd.}], keeping the peak height practically unchanged. Following these experimental observations, several elements can be smoothly determined by the procedure suggested here.

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- Figure 4. Square-wave adsorptive catalytic stripping voltammogram: determination of Ir(III) in 240
- Taraxacun officinale weber. Supporting electrolyte: acetate buffer 0.5 mol L⁻¹ pH 4.9 + NaBrO₃ 241
- $7.3 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ mol L}^{-1} + \text{CTAB } 4.9 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1} + \text{KCl } 0.25 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$. Experimental conditions: see Table 2. 242

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Aqueous Reference Solutions

The calculation of limits of detection (LOD) (Table 4) was performed according to IUPAC by the "3 σ approach", were σ is the observed standard deviation. LODs were calculated in the aqueous reference solution and in the digestates obtained from standard reference materials. LODs were calculated as $(K s_{\nu/x})/b$ [33-34] (K=3), where $s_{\nu/x}$ is the standard deviation of regression and b is the slope of the analytical calibration function. When voltammetry was used, LODs were obtained directly in the real matrices (Table 4); in fact, the standard addition method was applied to create the analytical calibration model. For each analyte, linearity was explored through regression models of voltammetric signal vs. metal concentration in aqueous reference solution with the instrumental details reported in Tables 1 and 2. The linearity of the model was demonstrated in the range from LOQs up to $10.0 \,\mu g \, L^{-1}$. Determination coefficients R^2 were always higher than 0.9989.

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- **Table 4.** Limits of detection of Ir(III), Os(VIII), Pd(II), Pt(II), Rh(III), Ru(III), in aqueous 257
- reference solutions and in solutions from reference materials. Experimental values are calculated as 258
- 259 the mean of 5 independent determinations. The confidence level was 95 %.

3.2 Quality control and quality assessment

Standard reference materials of Spinach Leaves and Tomato Leaves were analysed by means of voltammetric and spectroscopic method for validating the whole method through the evaluation of its accuracy (Table 5). Furthermore, the repeatability was evaluated as relative standard deviation $(s_r\%)$ [33-34], from 5 independent measurements, and always resulted better than 6%. Trueness was evaluated through the relative error (e%), and resulted to be on the order of 5-7%. These experimental

values observed for the method correspond to satisfactory accuracy.

Table 5. Accuracy of the analytical procedure. Experimental values are calculated as the mean of 5 independent determinations. The confidence level was 95%. The spiked-sample concentration was always 79.5 ng g⁻¹ (the addition to the Standard Reference Materials took place at the beginning of digestion).

3.3 Practical applications

Since the quantification of PGMs in reference materials gave good accuracy, the methods were applied to real samples: herbal medicines sold on the local market, and based on *Eucalyptus globulus*, *Harpagophytum procumbens DC* and *Taraxacun officinale weber*. The section "Sample Preparation" describes how samples were treated, after a preliminary step of powdering, by lyophilisation and dried at 80°C for 24 h. Table 6 reports the experimental results obtained from these commercial herbal medicines.

Table 6. Mean values of Ir(III), Os(VIII), Pd(II), Pt(II), Rh(III), Ru(III) (ng g⁻¹) for *Eucalyptus globulus*, *Harpagophytum procumbens DC* and *Taraxacun officinale weber* sold on the market (Portomaggiore, Italy). Experimental values are calculated as the mean of 5 independent determinations. The confidence level was 95%.

3.4 Comparison between spectroscopic and voltammetric measurements

The results shown in Tables 5 and 6, related to the accuracy (precision and trueness) and the real sample analyses, can be considered as an additional validation of the analytical method, based on voltammetry, herein developed. Such a validation can be deduced from the good agreement

between the spectroscopic and voltammetric results. Specifically, as regards precision, trueness and detection limits, no significant difference was observed between results obtained with the two different techniques, and analytical performance was good in all cases. Indeed, spectroscopy was taken as reference technique due to its analytical qualities: a well-established and tested robust procedure, suitable for this purpose [35]. However, voltammetry shows interesting advantages with respect to atomic absorption spectroscopy atomic: almost always, it allows the simultaneous determination of many metals (multi-analytes procedure) in a very easy, rapid and inexpensive way. In particular, the standard addition method, which may be easily applied in the herein proposed voltammetric procedures, makes these procedures very rapid, even for multi-element determinations in complex matrices, without renouncing to good selectivity and good sensitivity. For the sake of correctness, it must be highlighted that both Inductively Coupled Plasma (ICP) and Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) also allow for multi-element analyses, even if ICPbased spectroscopic techniques require time-consuming and expensive sample pre-treatments and enrichment steps, like solvent extraction. Moreover, the instrumentation itself and its maintenance are very expensive (e.g. up to 25-30 times with respect to voltammetry), especially when multielement spectroscopic determinations are performed.

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CONCLUSIONS

As highlighted in this work, the method herein developed and validated represents a valid procedure for the quantification of PGMs in samples of natural origin. Particularly important is its effective application to natural derived products such as herbal medicines (*Eucalyptus globulus*, *Harpagophytum procumbens DC* and *Taraxacun officinale weber*) for which there is currently no precise legislation regarding the maximum content of heavy metals, especially for those relating to the group of Platinum. The procedure described here can be a valid starting point for future applications aimed at standardizing and quality control of these products increasingly used today. This is all the more evident from the application of this procedure to certified reference materials,

through which it was possible to obtain important information about the potential of the method. The analytical performances show how a simple sample preparation can be used in order to avoid interferences and obtain reproducible and robust results through the application of voltammetric techniques well known and widespread in the various laboratories.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

324 Investigation supported by the University of Bologna (Funds for Selected Research Topics).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

327 The authors declare that the content of this article has no potential conflict of interest.

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