Addressing the Challenges of Analyzing Trace Perfluorooctanoic Acid (PFOA) and Perfluorooctane Sulfonate (PFOS) Using LC/QQQ

Application

Food, Environmental

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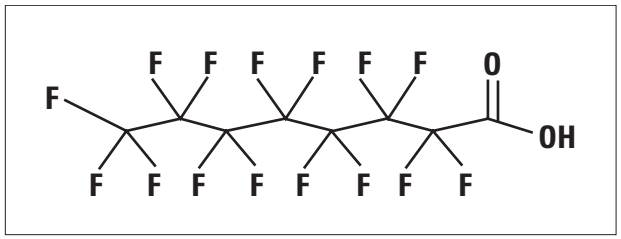
Abstract

An approach to the difficult task of quantifying trace quantities of perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) in complex matrix was developed using liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS). The technique uses isotopically labeled analytes for accurate quantitation (0.4 to 400 pg on column). It is important to recognize that if using the linear chain sample as standard for calibration, the quantitation results of real-world samples (branched and linear isomers mixed) will be off by as much as 40%.

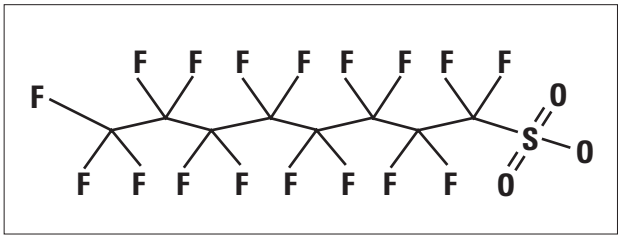
Introduction

Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) is an industrial surfactant and a necessary processing aid in the manufacture of fluoropolymers [1]. Fluoropolymers have many valuable properties, including fire resistance and the ability to repel oil, stains, grease and water. One of the most common uses of PFOA is for processing polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), most widely known as Teflon®. PFOA is also a by-product from direct and indirect contact with food packaging (for example, microwave-popcorn bags, bags for muffins or french fries, pizza box liners, boxes for hamburgers, and sandwich wrappers), and in the fabrication of water- and stain-resistant clothes.

Perfluorooctanesulfonic acid (PFOS) is usually used as the sodium or potassium salt and is referred to as perfluorooctane sulfonate. See Figure 1.



PFOA



PFOS

Figure 1. Chemical structures for PFOA and PFOS. Note that both have C8 chains.

Analytical Methodology for PFOA/PFOS

- LC/MS/MS is the preferred detection methodology due to its high sensitivity and specificity in complex matrices.
- Multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) is used to quantitate, using two or more product ions for confirmation.
- The detection limit is typically in the range 1 to 100 pg/mL (ppt), requiring high-sensitivity detection.
- On-column or off-line solid-phase extraction (SPE) and concentration are needed to achieve low-level detection (1 pg/mL).

Measuring PFOS and PFOA

Issue 1: ***What transitions should be used to give the best accuracy when quantifying with a linear standard?***

Quantification of PFOS and PFOA is usually based on a linear standard, but actual samples show a series of branched isomers together with the linear isomer. The ratio of these isomers varies based upon biodegradation and industrial processes in their formation; therefore, it is unlikely that a standard can be formulated to mimic the actual sample. The relative intensities of the MRM transitions will vary based upon branching, making some transitions better than others. Branching impacts ionization efficiency and CID energy; therefore, it affects the accuracy of analytical measurement [2].

Issue 2: ***Can isotopically labeled standards in matrix be used to measure nonlabeled PFOS and PFOA?***

Most biological and environmental matrices have background levels of PFOS and PFOA; although matrix-matched calibrations are providing good results, the accuracy can be enhanced. The method of standard additions is a protocol to address this issue, but it adds several additional injections to the analysis. Matrix may have varying amount of background. Standard addition is not practical in analyzing many different matrices. Solvent calibrations do not correct for matrix effects.

Experimental

Sample Prep

- All solvent standards were prepared in methanol.
- Plasma extracts were prepared by acetonitrile precipitation and centrifuging, with the upper layer taken and spiked with known concentrations of PFOA or PFOS.

LC

- Agilent 1200 Rapid Resolution LC system
- ZORBAX Eclipse Plus C18 Rapid Resolution HT column 2.1 cm × 50 mm, 1.8-µm particles (P/N 959741-902)
- 20-µL injection, 0.4 mL/min column flow
- 0 to 100% B in 10 min, A = water with 2 mM ammonium acetate; B = MeOH

MS/MS

- Agilent QQQ
- Negative-ion detection
- 3500 V_{cap}, drying gas 9.5 L/min at 350 °C, nebulizer 45 psi
- Fragmentor voltages, collision energy (CE), and ion transitions are experimentally determined

Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM)

Figure 2 displays a cross-section of the Agilent 6410 QQQ above a hypothetical sequence of spectra characteristic of ion transitions within the instrument.

The ions are generated in the source shown at the far left of the figure. The precursor ion of interest is then selected from this mixture and isolated through the Q1 quadrupole, which acts as a mass filter. This is similar to selected ion monitoring (SIM). After Q1, characteristic fragments that are specific to the structure of the precursor ion are generated in the collision cell (Q2, although not a quadrupole). By using the Q3 quadrupole, these fragments are then selected for measurement at the detector. This is a selective form of collision-induced dissociation (CID), known as tandem MS/MS. By setting Q3 to a specific fragment ion existing in the collision cell, the chemical or background noise is almost totally eliminated from the analyte signal, therefore, significantly increasing the signal-to-noise ratio. Ion 210 is called the precursor ion and ions 158 and 191 are product ions. Each transition (210→191 or 210→158) is a reaction for a particular target. Typically, the QQQ is used to monitor multiple analytes or mass transitions, therefore, the term MRM. The 158 could be considered the quantitation ion, because it is the

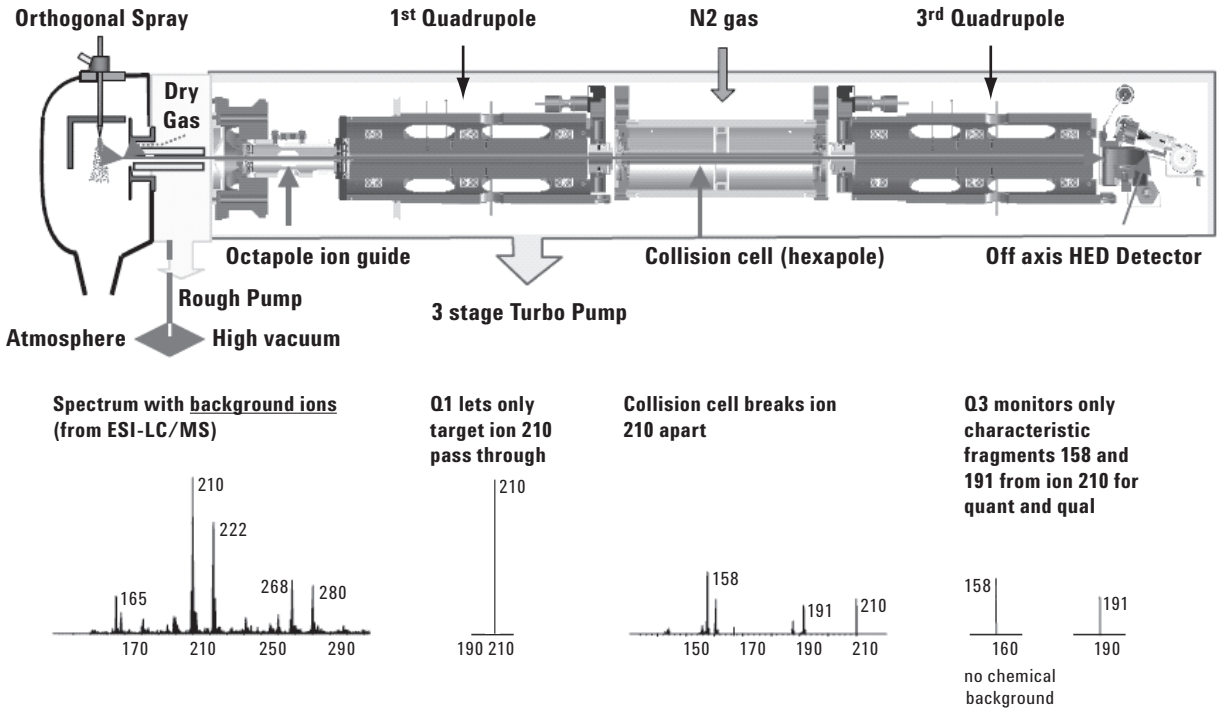


Figure 2. A cross-section of the Agilent 6410 QQQ above a sequence of spectra characteristic of ion transitions within the instrument for a hypothetical sample (*not* PFOA or PFOS). Note that the final spectrum is very clean, containing only the desired target ions. (HED = high-energy dynode electron multiplier)

most intense, and 191 could be used for confirmation by using the area ratio of the 191 qualifier to the 158 quantifier ion as a criterion for confirmation. With MRM, most chemical noise is eliminated in Q1, and again in Q3, allowing us to get ppt detection.

The fragmentor is the voltage at the exit end of the glass capillary where the pressure is about 1 mTorr. Fragmentor and collision energies need to be optimized. A fragmentor that is too small won't have enough force to push ions through the gas. A fragmentor that is too high can cause CID of precursor ions in the vacuum prior to mass analysis, thereby reducing sensitivity. The actual voltage used is compound-, mass-, and charge-dependent, and therefore needs to be optimized to get the best sensitivity. The CE in the collision cell needs to be optimized in order to generate the most intense product ions representative of each target compound. Collision cell voltage will depend on the bond strength, the molecular weight of the compound, and the path by which the ion is formed (directly from the precursor ion or through a series of sequential intermediates). Typically each product ion will exhibit a preferential collision energy that results in the best signal abundance.

The experimental operations required to arrive at optimal conditions are exemplified by the series of experiments shown in Figures 3 to 5.

Optimization of the fragmentor voltages for the $[M\text{-}H]^-$ ions of PFOA (*m/z* 413) and PFOS (*m/z* 499) are shown in Figure 3.

Note that there is little signal detected for PFOA at the optimal fragmentor voltage for PFOS (200 V). Ions 413 and 499 are called precursor ions. PFOA is relatively fragile; its precursor signal drops off at 160 V. PFOS shows that it is harder than PFOA to break apart; the best fragmentor voltage for PFOS is 200 V.

The appropriate collision energies for product ions *m/z* 369 $[M\text{-}CO_2H]^-$ and *m/z* 169 $[C_3F_7]^+$ are experimentally determined and used to quantify PFOA. See Figure 4.

In each case the collision energy producing the most intense peak for each ion is chosen for the analysis. PFOA takes little collision energy to break into ion *m/z* 369 (6 V for highest intensity).

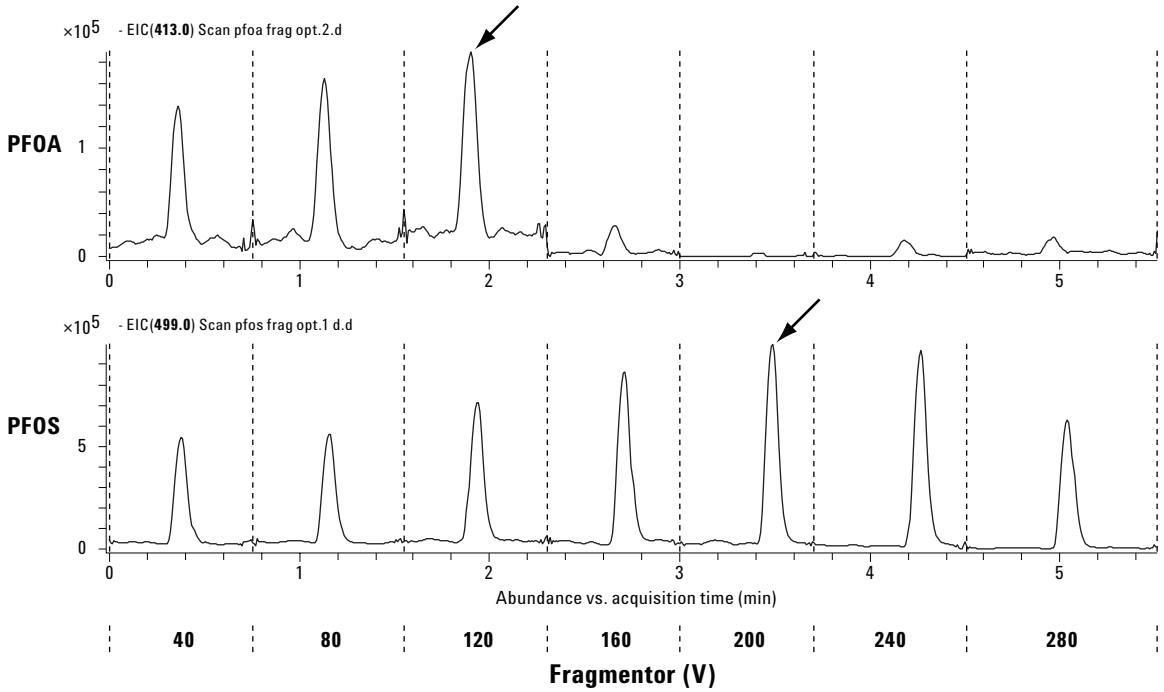


Figure 3. Determination of optimal fragmentor voltage using sequential plots of signal intensity versus applied voltage.

To maximize the intensity of the ion at *m/z* 169, the collision energy needs to go to 16 V.

The QQQ software can switch collision energies very rapidly. So in a method, the optimal collision voltage can be selected for each ion transition.

In the same manner, the appropriate collision energies for PFOS product ions at *m/z* 169, 99, and 80 are experimentally determined and used for its quantitation. The optimal collision energies for the three ion transitions are 45, 50, and 70 V. See Figure 5.

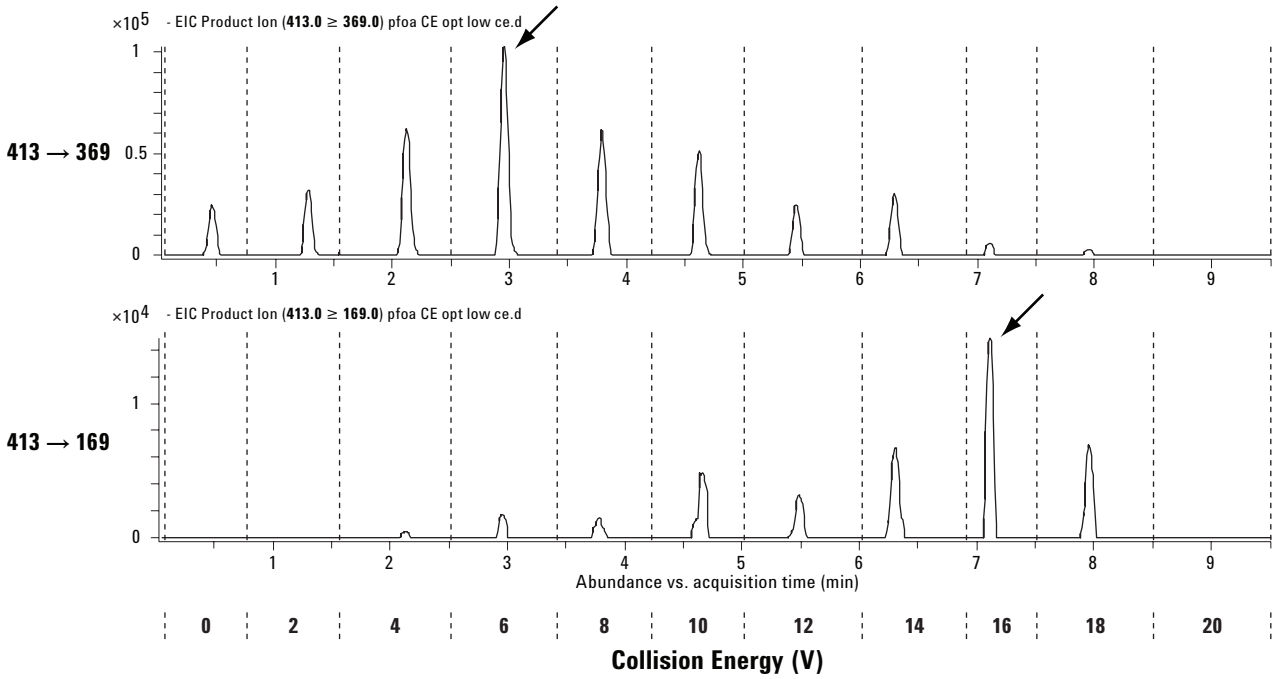


Figure 4. Signal intensity as a function of collision energy for PFOA product ions *m/z* 369 $[M\text{-}CO_2H]^-$ and *m/z* 169 $[C_3F_7]^+$.

Notice the big difference in collision energy between PFOA (6 to 16 V) and PFOS (45 to 70 V). We have seen from fragmentor optimization that PFOA is relatively fragile compared to PFOS, in which the optimum fragmentor voltages are 120 and 200 V for PFOA and PFOS, respectively. The CE reinforces that aspect.

Example calibration curves for the specified product ions used to quantitate PFOA and PFOS are shown in Figure 6. The analyst can also sum the intensities of these MRM transitions to get a calibration curve.

These five ion transitions exhibit linear correlation coefficients > 0.998, and are good for quantitation over three orders of magnitude. Notice that the lowest amount on column is 0.4 pg.

Regarding issue 1: ***What transitions should be used to give the best accuracy when quantifying with a linear standard?***

This is addressed using Figures 7 to 9.

Figure 7 exhibits chromatograms from these representative transitions for PFOA and PFOS for the linear standard and samples containing branches (10-min gradient).

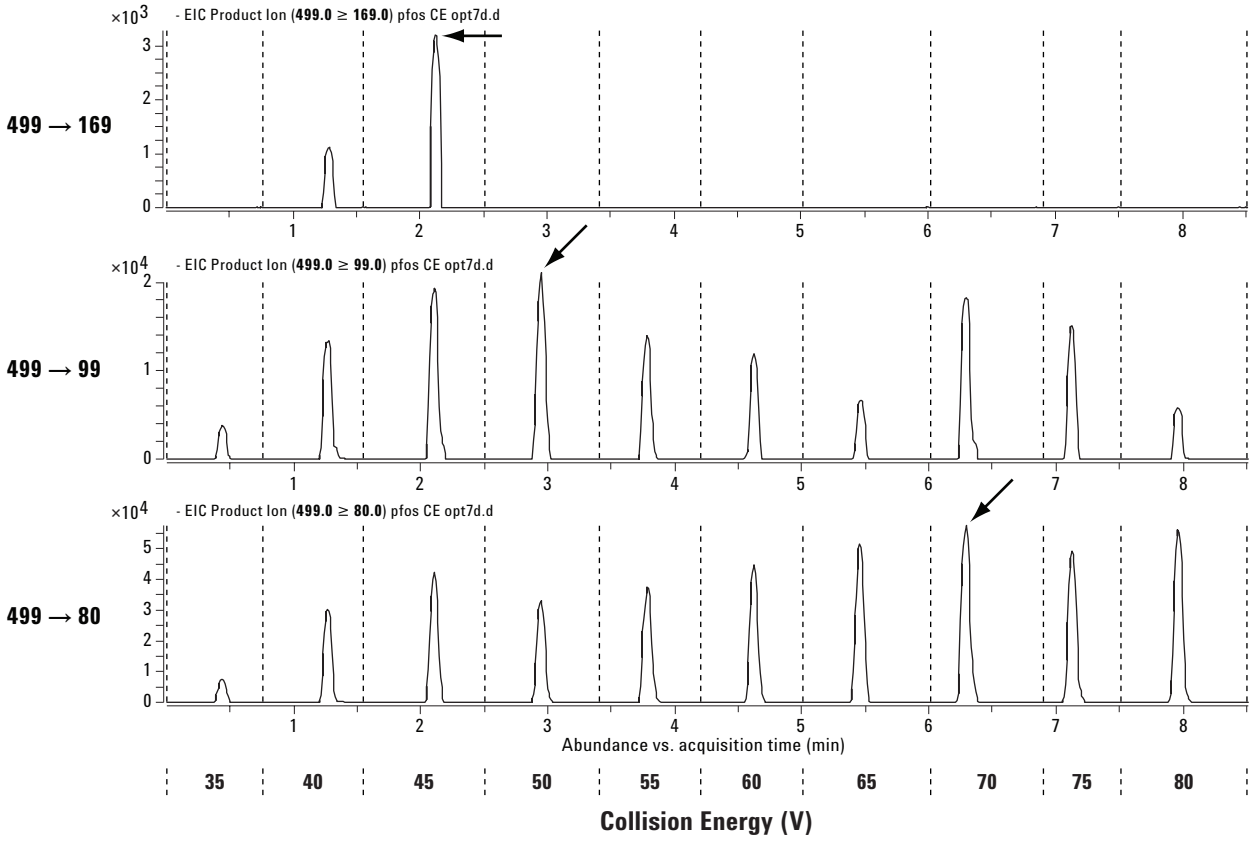
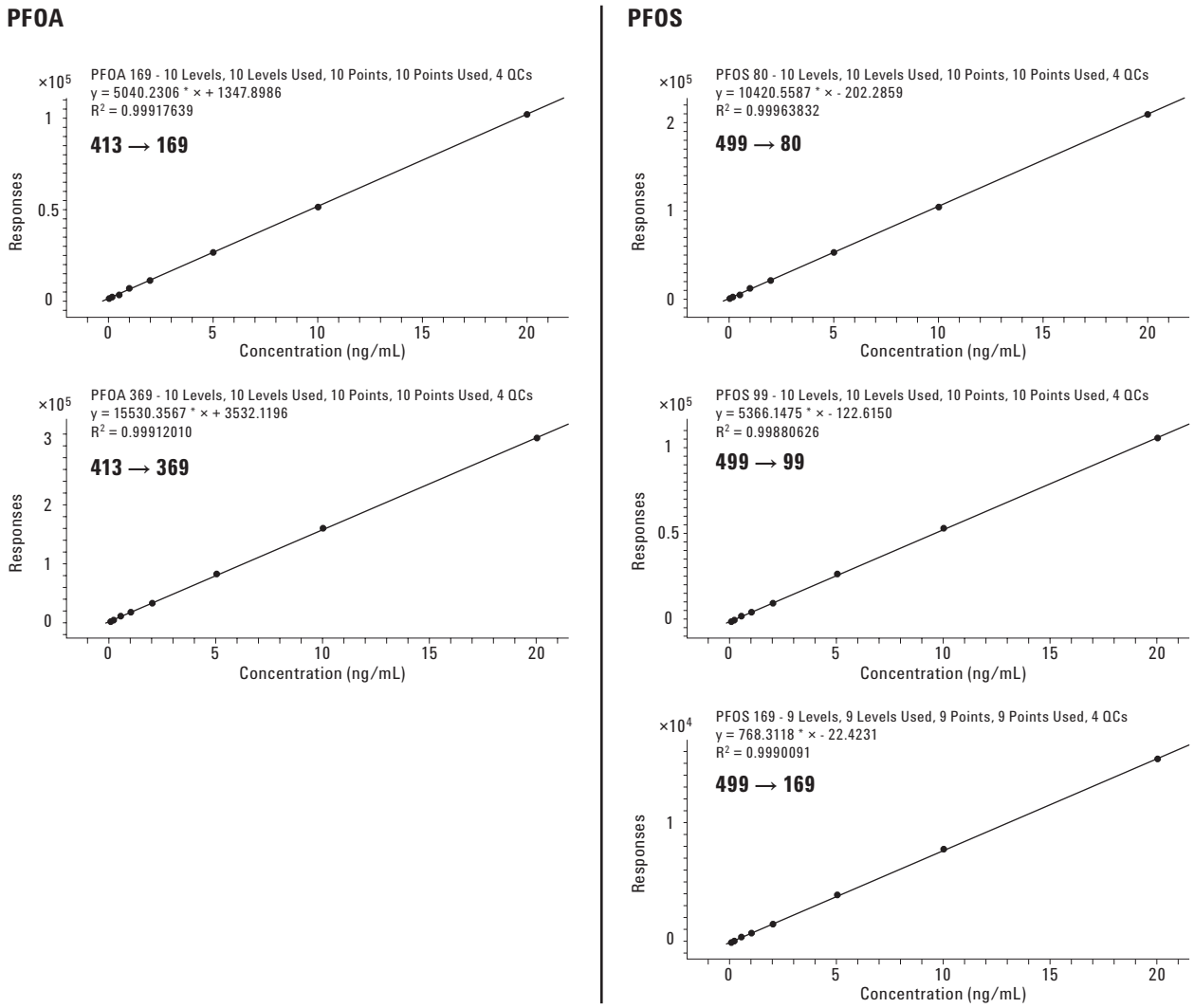


Figure 5. Signal intensity as a function of collision energy for PFOS product ions at *m/z* 169, 99, and 80.



Concentration range 0.02 to 20 ng/mL (0.4 to 400 pg injected on column)

Figure 6. Calibration curves for the product ions used to measure PFOA and PFOS.

Real-world samples have been detected with branched isomers due to manufacturing processes, metabolism, and degradation processes. The top chromatogram of Figure 7 shows only linear chain compounds from a standard. The bottom chromatogram is an actual sample from the environment. It shows additional peaks (shoulders) in the chromatogram resulting from branched isomers.

We examine those peaks in greater detail in Figure 8.

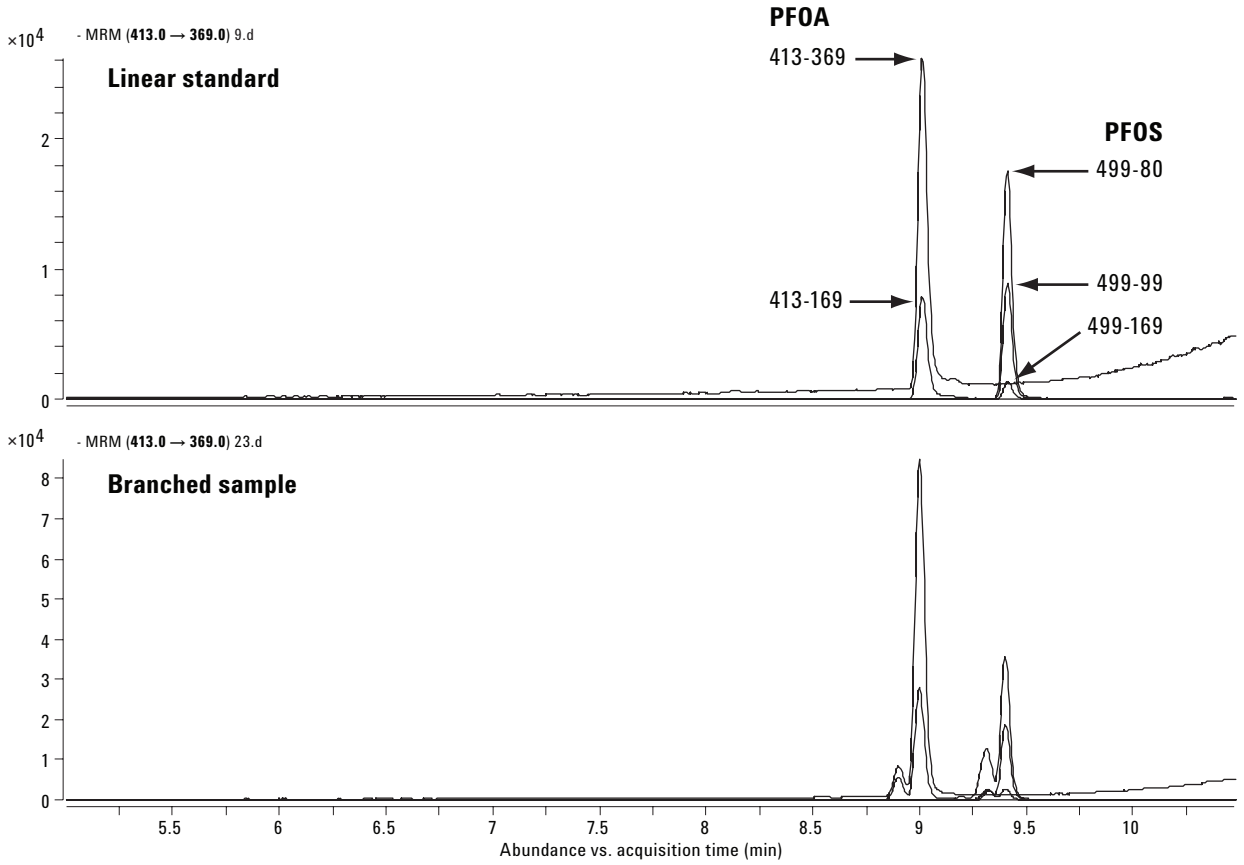


Figure 7. MRM chromatograms for PFOA and PFOS for both linear and branched samples.

The relative abundances for each MRM transition are dependent on the branching locations and the specific mass transitions. Figure 8 shows a 10-minute run. The chromatography can separate the linear from the branched isomers. The branched sample is typically a C7 chain with a methyl side group (isooctyl isomer). The most interesting part of the analysis is that the ion ratios for the branched compounds are very different from the linear chain compounds [3, 4, 5]. For linear PFOA, the ion at *m/z* 169 is about 30 to 40% of ion 369. The branched isomer shows that the ratio changed to 90 to 100%. For linear PFOS, the ion at *m/z* 99 is about 50% of ion 80 and is 500% of ion 169. The branched isomer shows that ion 99 is only 20 to 30% of ion 80, and 100% of ion 169. This is a cause of concern in terms of quantitation accuracy. This shows that CID stability is very different when the analyte is branched.

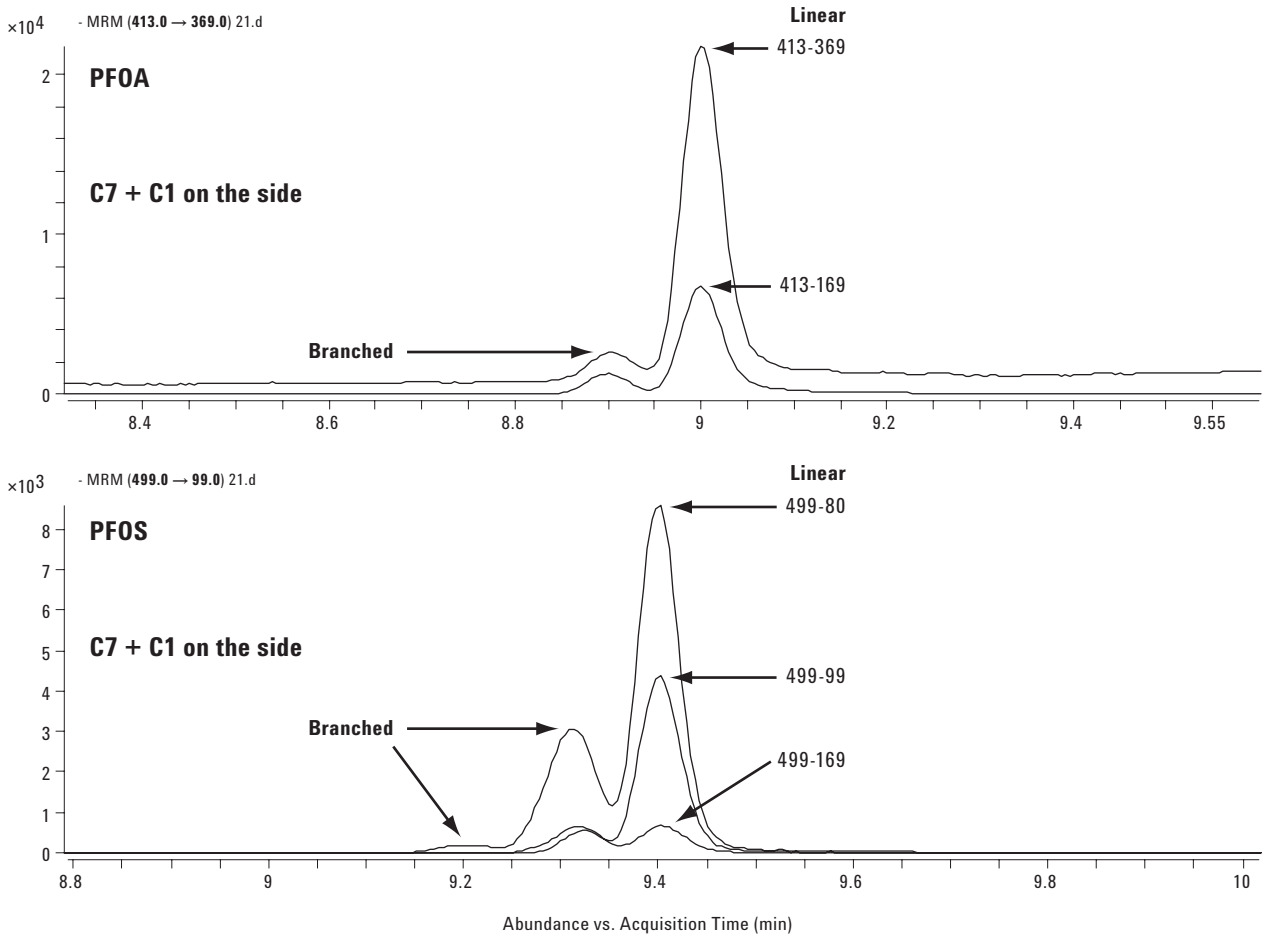


Figure 8. MRM chromatograms for PFOA and PFOS for both linear and branched samples.

Another variable in the analysis is the gradient time. Figure 9 compares the effect of a 3-min versus 10-min gradient.

In the fast gradient case (on the right), the branched isomers (dashed lines) are not resolved from the linear isomers (solid lines), resulting in a significant error in the measured value (most noticeable for PFOS).

The two chromatograms on the left are the same two that are shown in Figure 8. They are used here for comparison against the unresolved analytes shown on the right (3-min run). Although we would like to cut down on the analysis time, the branched and linear isomers need to be resolved in order to get accurate quantitation results.

Two samples of the same concentration. One sample is the pure linear isomer; the other sample has a mixture of branched isomers. If their MRM responses (ion ratios) are the same, they would show the same results as when the isomers are not resolved. This example shows that the responses are not the same when the isomers are not resolved. If you add the responses of the side chain analyte and the linear chain analyte of the same sample, the area of each ion transition is different from the pure linear chain analyte ion transition, as seen in the two chromatograms on the right, most apparent is for PFOS. If using the linear chain sample as standard for calibration, the results of real-world samples (branched and linear isomers mixed) will be off by as much as 40% (see Table 1). The quantitation falls apart.

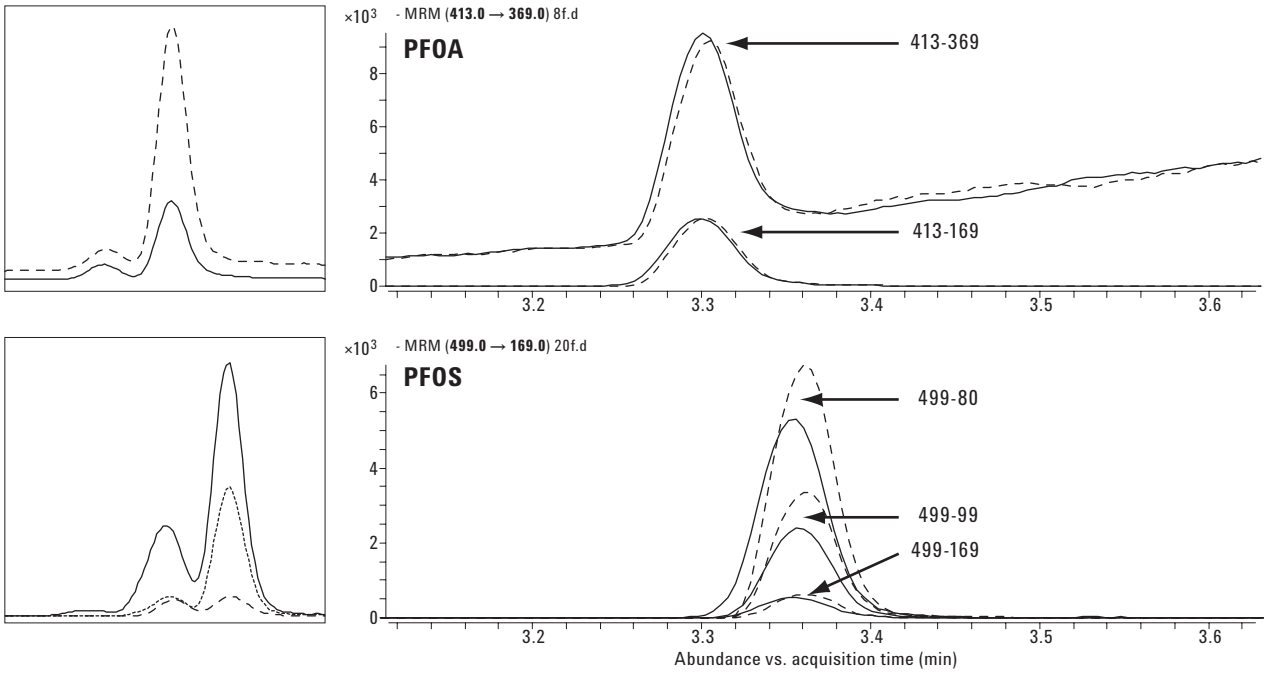


Figure 9. Comparison of PFOA and PFOS MRM chromatograms produced using both 10- and 3-minute gradients. The 3-minute gradient chromatograms are on the right.

The effect of measurement accuracy (*not* ion ratios) of total PFOA and PFOS in branched samples against *a linear standard for each MRM transition* is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Measurement Accuracy (Target Is 100%) as Function of Compound, Transition, and Run Time

Compound	MRM transition	Percent response (n = 8)	
		10-min run	3-min run
PFOA	**413→369**	**105.9**	**108.2**
	413→169	**96.4**	**89.4**
PFOS	**499→169**	**102.5**	**112.2**
	499→99	75.0	73.3
	499→80	59.3	61.1

The best MRM ions are in bold type. The best results for PFOA can be obtained by averaging the results for the two MRM ions together.

Ion ratios can cause quantitation failure. For PFOA, it does not matter if it's a 3-min run or a 10-min run: the ion 369 transition response is always higher and the ion 169 transition response is always lower. The errors are larger for the 3-min run. The variations are greater for PFOS. In literature, PFOS analysis monitors the ion 80 transition, but it exhibits a large variation. It can be as low as 60%, as seen in Table 1. 499 → 169 is a good transition for quantitation. It is much more accurate, but it is less sensitive compared to 499 → 80 transition.

Regarding issue 2: *Can isotopically labeled standards in matrix be used to measure non-labeled PFOS and PFOA?*

This is addressed using Figures 10 to 12.

Observations regarding the effect of different matrices on signal responses are shown in Figure 10. The taller trace represents the response of PFOA in methanol. The response is lower as the same amount of PFOA is added into a plasma extract.

The matrix effect (common using electrospray ionization) can lead to signal suppression or enhancement; therefore, matrix-matched calibrations are required for accurate quantitation. Due to varying background levels of PFOS and PFOA in matrix, it may not be feasible to use matrix-matched calibrations for quantitating PFOS or PFOA concentrations in study samples. Also, the method of standard additions is not a practical alternative for many matrices with varying levels of target analytes.

As a practical alternative, measuring PFOA using isotopically labeled matrix-matched standards was examined. Results are shown in Figures 11 and 12.

Figure 11 shows that isotopically labeled standards can provide a good linear calibration curve over the quantitation range of 0.02 to 20 ng/mL (0.4 to 400 pg on column). Excellent linear correlation coefficients (≥ 0.9994) were obtained.

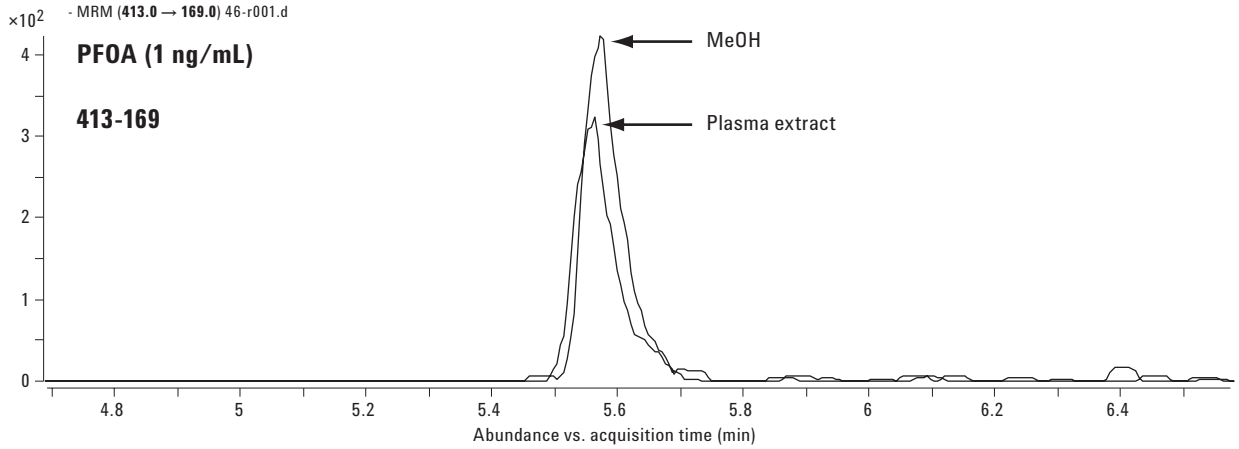
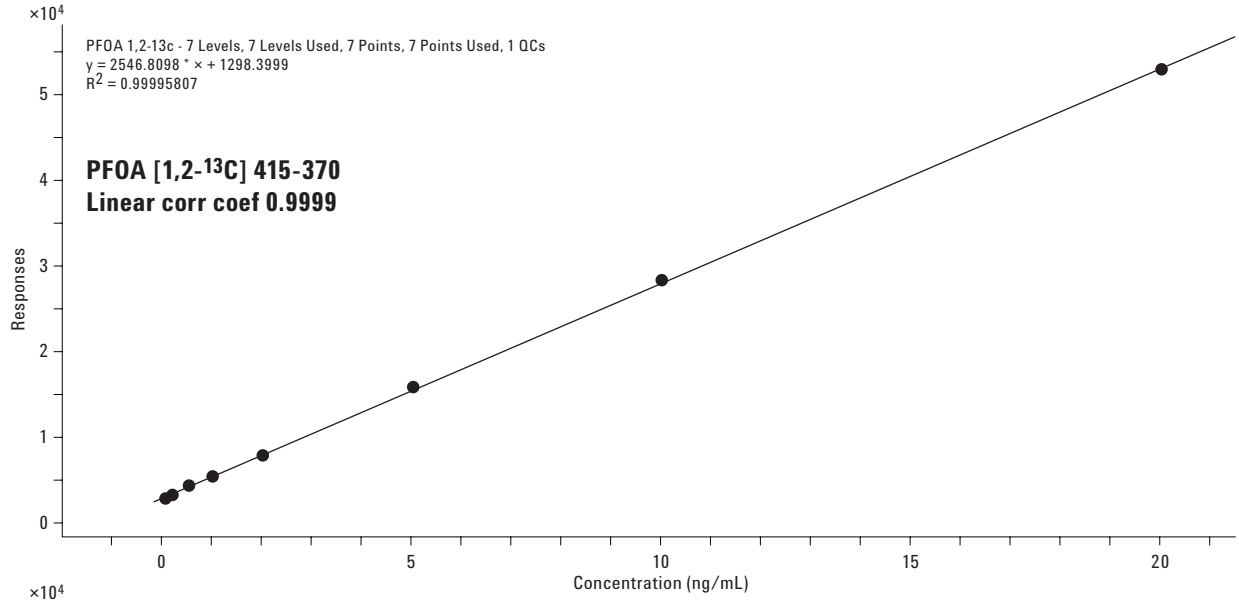
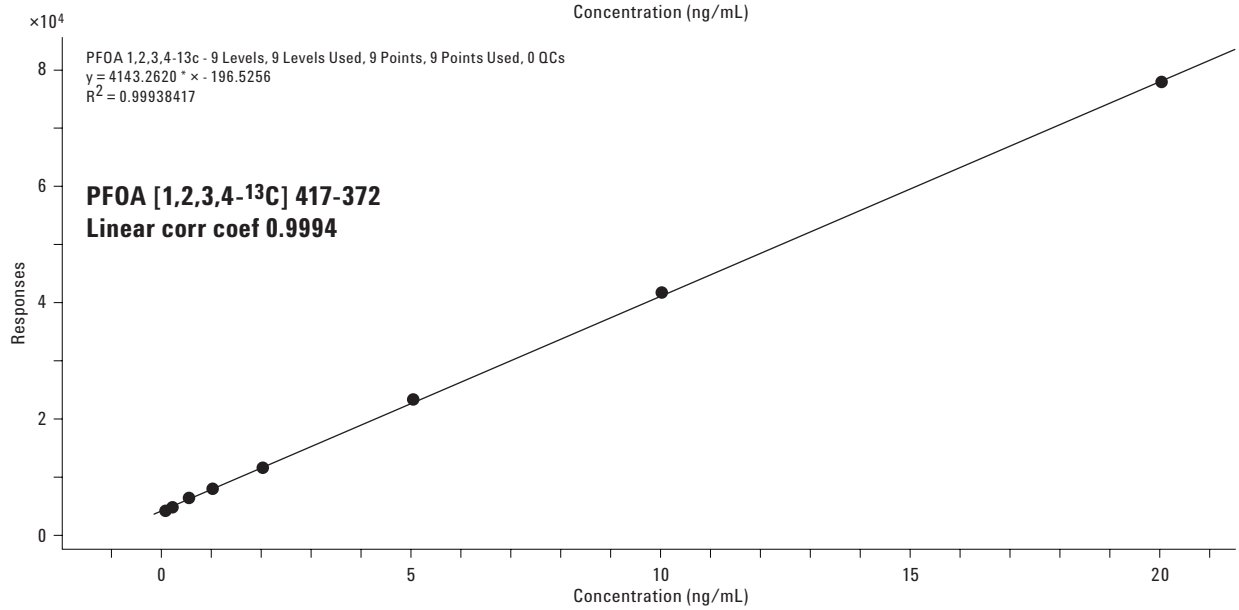


Figure 10. PFOA responses in MeOH and plasma extract at the same concentrations.





Calibration in plasma from 0.02 to 20 ng/mL

Figure 11. Linear correlations for PFOA using two different isotopically labeled calibration standards.

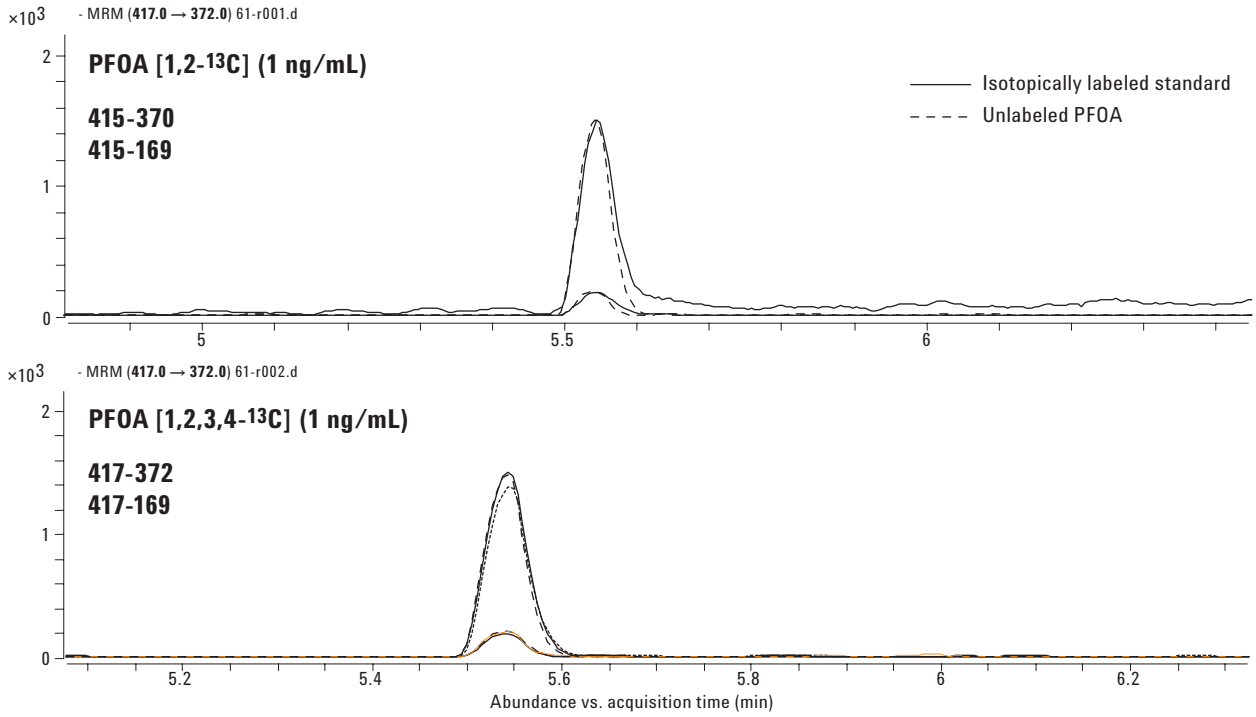


Figure 12. Both isotopically labeled PFOA compounds show good correlation to the unlabeled PFOA. The same transitions for the labeled and native forms of the PFOA were used.

Table 2. Comparison of Different Matrix-Matched Calibrations for Measuring PFOA in Plasma

	Calibration standard	Matrix for calibration	Plasma sample response (Std Dev)
1	PFOA	MeOH	71 (± 33 %)
2	PFOA [1,2-^{13}C]	Plasma	100.4 (± 3.1 %)
3	PFOA [1,2,3,4-^{13}C]	Plasma	97.3 (± 5.1 %)

Matrix-matched calibrations using isotopically labeled PFOA work well.

For row 1, the calibration standard used MeOH as the solvent, and the plasma sample exhibited a 71% response due to matrix suppression. Therefore, we cannot use a calibration standard in MeOH to quantitate samples in matrix; the variation can be as large as 30%. Rows 2 and 3 show that if the calibration is done using an isotopically labeled compound in matrix, the actual plasma sample yields accurate results: 100 and 97%.

Conclusions

- The Agilent LC/QQQ is an excellent instrument for quantifying trace target compounds in complex mixtures.
- The best ion transitions for analysis need to be determined experimentally.
- Fragmentor voltages and collision energies require experimental determination and optimization.
- Using MRM in the QQQ helps achieve the lowest detection limits in complex matrices.
- Branched PFOA/PFOS can affect quantitation accuracy as much as 40% unless it is corrected.
- Matrix suppression can cause the quantitation to be off by as much as 30%. Isotopically labeled analytes work well for accurate quantitation in spite of varying background levels of PFOA/PFOS in matrices.

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