UNIVERSITAT DE VALÈNCIA FACULTAD DE QUÍMICA DEPARTAMENTO DE QUÍMICA ANALÍTICA



DESARROLLO DE MÉTODOS ANALÍTICOS PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN DE FILTROS UV: DE LOS PRODUCTOS COSMÉTICOS AL CUERPO HUMANO Y AL MEDIO AMBIENTE

Memoria presentada por Isuha Tarazona Teruel para la obtención del título de Doctor

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Dña. Amparo Salvador Carreño, Catedrática de Universidad y D. Alberto Chisvert Sanía, Profesor Titular de Universidad, ambos del Departamento de Química Analítica de la Universitat de València, en calidad de Directores de la Tesis Doctoral presentada por Isuha Tarazona Teruel, con el título *"Desarrollo de métodos analíticos para la determinación de filtros UV: de los productos cosméticos al cuerpo humano y al medio ambiente".*

CERTIFICAN,

Que la citada Tesis Doctoral se ha realizado en los laboratorios del Departamento de Química Analítica de la Facultad de Química de la Universitat de València y que han dirigido y supervisado los distintos aspectos del presente trabajo así como su redacción.

Y para que así conste a los efectos oportunos, firman el presente certificado en Valencia, a 20 de Abril de 2015.

Prof. Dra. Amparo Salvador

Prof. Dr. Alberto Chisvert



"La educación no cambia el mundo, cambia a las personas que van a cambiar el mundo..."

Paulo Freire

A Alberto, por haber logrado que llegue hasta el final

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ÍNDICE GENERAL

MARCO DE REFERENCIA Y OBJETIVOS DE LA TESIS DOCTORAL	7
SECCIÓN I. INTRODUCCIÓN	11
Capítulo 1. Los filtros UV en productos cosméticos	13
1.1. La radiación solar. Efectos beneficiosos y perjudiciales	15
1.2. Los filtros UV en la Unión Europea	17
1.3. Clasificación de los filtros UV	20
1.3.1. Clasificación de los filtros UV orgánicos	22
1.4. Control analítico de los filtros UV en productos cosméticos. Necesidad de métodos oficiales	25
1.5. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de filtros UV en productos cosméticos	.25
Capítulo 2. Los filtros UV en el cuerpo humano	29
2.1. Compuestos xenobióticos. Disposición en el cuerpo humano	31
2.1.1. Reacciones de biotransformación	33
2.2. Disposición de los filtros UV en el cuerpo humano	34
2.2.1. Absorción percutánea	.34
2.2.2. Distribución	.43
2.2.3. Biotransformación	.43
2.2.4. Excreción	.46
2.3. Efectos adversos de la absorción percutánea y metabolismo de los filtros UV	.47
2.4. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de BZ3 y MBC, y sus metabolitos, en fluidos biológicos	.50
Capítulo 3. Los filtros UV en el medio ambiente	55
3.1. Los filtros UV: contaminantes emergentes	57
3.2. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de filtros UV en aguas y suelos de origen medioambiental	.59

3.2.1. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de
3.2.2. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de filtros UV en
muestras de suelo ambiental63
Capítulo 4. Técnicas de extracción65
4.1. Técnicas de extracción67
4.1.1. Extracción en fase sólida72
4.1.2. Microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva
Bibliografía77
SECCIÓN II. RESUMEN DE LOS RESULTADOS EXPERIMENTALES
Capítulo 5. Desarrollo de un método analítico para la determinación simultánea de filtros UV liposolubles en productos cosméticos
Anexo 5.1. Protocolos de elaboración de las formulaciones cosméticas elaboradas para el desarrollo de este estudio117
Capítulo 6. Determinación de benzofenona-3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano mediante microextracción dispersiva líquido-líquido seguida de cromatografía líquida con espectrometría de masas en tándem
Anexo 6.1. Protocolo de elaboración de la formulación cosmética elaborada para el desarrollo de este estudio147
Capítulo 7. Determinación de 3-(4'-metilbenciliden)canfor y su principal metabolito en semen humano mediante extracción en fase sólida seguida de cromatografía de líquida y espectrometría de masas en tándem
Anexo 7.1. Protocolo de elaboración de la formulación cosmética elaborada para el desarrollo de este estudio

Capítulo 8. Determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua de mar mediente microextracción dispersiva líquido-líquido seguida de cromatografía de gases y espectrometría de masas......**173**

Capítulo	9.	Desari	rollo	de	un	método	ana	lítico	basado	en	
cromatog	rafía	de	gase	es-esp	pectr	ometría	de	masa	s para	la	
determinación de filtros UV en arena de playa19							199				

CONCLUSIONES FINALES	7
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LISTA DE ACRÓNIMOS EMPLEADOS......235

ARTÍCULOS PUBLICADOS INCLUIDOS EN LA TESIS DOCTORAL......239

An overview of the analytical methods for the determination of organic ultraviolet filters in biological fluids and tissues

A reliable and environmentally-friendly liquid-chromatographic method for multi-class determination of fat-soluble UV filters in cosmetic products

Determination of benzophenone-3 and its main metabolites in human serum by dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

Determination of 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor and its main metabolite in human semen by solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

Determination of hydroxylated benzophenone UV filters in sea water samples by dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction followed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

Development of a gas chromatography-mass spectrometry method for the determination of ultraviolet filters in beach sand samples

MARCO DE REFERENCIA Y OBJETIVOS DE LA TESIS DOCTORAL

La presente Tesis Doctoral forma parte del Proyecto de Investigación CTQ 2009-12709 titulado "Desarrollo de métodos analíticos para la detección y cuantificación de trazas: de los productos cosméticos al cuerpo humano".

Todos los estudios realizados están relacionados con un grupo de ingredientes cosméticos denominados "filtros UV", de gran interés desde el punto de vista de la salud por el importante papel que ejercen en la protección de los usuarios frente a la radiación solar.

Se han desarrollado diversos métodos analíticos para la determinación de filtros UV con el fin de que puedan servir para contribuir a la realización de tres tipos de estudios que abarcan la cadena *producto cosmético* \rightarrow *cuerpo humano* \rightarrow *medio ambiente:*

1.- Control de calidad de la industria cosmética

Los filtros UV deben encontrarse en las concentraciones requeridas para asegurar el factor de protección solar del etiquetado y proteger así al usuario, sin sobrepasar los límites legales de concentración en el producto acabado establecidos en el Reglamento Europeo sobre productos cosméticos, por lo que se requiere el desarrollo y validación de métodos analíticos que garanticen su control.

2.- Estudios relacionados con la absorción/excreción en el cuerpo humano

Al aplicar el producto cosmético sobre la piel de los usuarios, los filtros UV son parcialmente absorbidos percutáneamente, posteriormente metabolizados en el cuerpo humano y finalmente excretados, por lo que se requieren métodos analíticos que permitan realizar este tipo de estudios en fluidos biológicos de los usuarios. Estos métodos son necesarios para sentar las bases científicas que apoyen las decisiones sobre la seguridad de los productos cosméticos que deben tomarse a nivel internacional y conllevarán el diseño y elaboración de formulaciones cosméticas cada vez más seguras para el usuario.

3.- Estudios medioambientales

Finalmente, indicar que también se requieren métodos analíticos para la determinación de los filtros UV en muestras medioambientales (tales como

agua de mar y arena de playa) debido a que se trata de contaminantes emergentes. Los filtros UV llegan al medio ambiente por diferentes vías (principalmente por vía directa desde la piel de los usuarios).

Se ha potenciado a lo largo de toda la Tesis, para los tres tipos de muestras, el diseño, puesta a punto y validación de métodos analíticos novedosos y, en la medida de lo posible, se ha intentado desarrollar métodos analíticos que cumplan con las directrices de la denominada Química Verde.

SECCIÓN I

INTRODUCCIÓN

CAPÍTULO 1

LOS FILTROS UV EN LOS PRODUCTOS COSMÉTICOS

1.1. LA RADIACIÓN SOLAR. EFECTOS BENEFICIOSOS Y PERJUDICIALES.

Debido a las tendencias actuales de la moda, el bronceado está considerado como un símbolo de bienestar, belleza y salud. Sin embargo, esta moda lleva íntimamente ligada una creciente preocupación acerca de los efectos perjudiciales que la radiación solar, y más concretamente la radiación ultravioleta, tiene sobre la salud. El 44.3 % de la radiación solar que llega a la Tierra corresponde a la radiación visible (Vis) (λ =400-760 nm), el 49.5 % a la radiación infrarroja (IR) (λ >760 nm) y un 6.2 % corresponde a la peligrosa radiación ultravioleta (UV) (λ =100-400 nm) (**Figura 1.1**).



Figura 1.1. Espectro electromagnético de la radiación solar

La radiación UV está compuesta, a su vez, por tres tipos de radiación: la UVA, la UVB y la UVC. La radiación UVA (λ =320-400 nm) es la menos nociva y llega en mayor cantidad a la Tierra (constituye el 98 % de la radiación UV total). La radiación UVB (λ =290-320 nm) es parcialmente absorbida por la capa de ozono, por lo que llega en mucho menor medida a la superficie terrestre (constituye sólo un 2 % de la radiación UV total). Por último, la radiación UVC $(\lambda = 100-290 \text{ nm})$ es la más energética de las tres y, por tanto la más nociva, aunque afortunadamente no llega a la superficie terrestre, ya que es absorbida por el oxígeno y el ozono de la estratosfera. Por tanto, el tipo de radiación UV más nociva que alcanza la Tierra es la radicación UVB, y, aunque su alcance sea bajo, este porcentaje podría incrementarse con el deterioro de la capa de ozono. Por otra parte, no hay que olvidar que la radiación UVA, aunque menos energética, es mucho más abundante, por lo que también puede resultar altamente perjudicial para la salud humana. De hecho, esta radiación penetra más profundamente en la piel, atravesando la dermis, mientras que la UVB sólo consigue atravesar la epidermis (ver Figura 1.2.).



Figura 1.2. Grado de penetración en la piel de las radiaciones que alcanzan la superficie terrestre

Las radiaciones Vis e IR presentan un poder de penetración mayor, llegando a la hipodermis. Afortunadamente, estas radiaciones son menos energéticas y, por tanto, mucho menos nocivas.

No obstante, la exposición moderada al sol proporciona muy diversos e importantes beneficios en el organismo. De hecho, se considera esencial para el desarrollo de la vida. Así pues, la radiación solar estimula la producción de vitamina D endógena, la cual favorece la absorción de calcio, previniendo enfermedades como el raquitismo y la osteoporosis (Chapuy *et al.*, 1997; Grant *et al.*, 2003). Además, se ha empleado para tratar algunas patologías dermatológicas como psoriasis, dermatitis atópica, dermatitis seborreica y acné (Parrish *et al.*, 1981; Osmancevic *et al.*, 2010). Asimismo, es fundamental para favorecer la circulación de la sangre (Barth *et al.*, 1994), así como la acción de algunos de los neurotransmisores del cerebro que son responsables del buen humor y de la sensación de bienestar (Grant *et al.*, 2003; Lowry *et al.*, 2009).

En relación a los efectos perjudiciales que puede causar la sobreexposición solar cabe mencionar los eritemas (quemaduras en la piel), la hiperqueratosis, el envejecimiento prematuro de la piel (arrugas y manchas) y la fotosensibilidad (ampollas, descamación, urticaria). También puede producir afecciones a nivel ocular, daños en el sistema inmunológico o incluso cáncer de piel (Longstreth *et al.*, 1988; Armstrong *et al.*, 1993; Autier *et al.*, 1994; Naylor y Farmer, 1997; Owens et al., 2003). Esto último se debe a que la

16

Capítulo 1

radiación UV es altamente mutagénica, provocando daños en el ADN al formar dímeros de pirimidinas (generalmente dímeros de timina) que acortan la distancia normal del enlace, generando una deformación de la cadena. Además, la luz UV tiene efectos inmunosupresores que pueden fomentar la persistencia de los tumores de piel. Cabe indicar que estos daños están agravados por el aumento de la expectativa de vida humana, que incrementa el tiempo de exposición a las radiaciones solares, y que son mayores en las zonas tropicales y en individuos de raza blanca y piel pálida.

Prevenir el contacto con la radiación solar es la mejor manera de evitar los posibles daños. Sin embargo, esto no es práctico ni tampoco aconsejable, ya que, como se ha indicado anteriormente, son muchos los beneficios que el sol produce en nuestro organismo. Por tanto, se recomienda evitar la exposición prolongada en las horas centrales del día, donde la radiación solar es más intensa. Además, con el fin de prevenir y/o minimizar los efectos nocivos de la radicación solar sobre el ser humano, se recomienda el empleo de productos cosméticos para la protección solar, los cuales contienen filtros UV en su formulación (Gasparro *et al.*, 1998; Nohynek *et al.*, 2011; Kullavanijaya *et al.*, 2005; Nash, 2006; Gaspar et al., 2007).

1.2. LOS FILTROS UV EN LA UNIÓN EUROPEA.

La legislación europea en materia de productos cosméticos (**Reglamento (CE) Nº 1223/2009**) define producto cosmético como *"toda sustancia o mezcla destinada a ser puesta en contacto con las partes superficiales del cuerpo humano (epidermis, sistema piloso y capilar, uñas, labios y órganos genitales externos) o con los dientes y las mucosas bucales, con el fin exclusivo o principal de limpiarlos, perfumarlos, modificar su aspecto, protegerlos, mantenerlos en buen estado o corregir los olores corporales". Cada uno de estos productos está formado por un gran número de compuestos químicos denominados ingredientes cosméticos, que se han incorporado al producto cosmético con distintas finalidades (conservantes, antioxidantes, colorantes, fragancias, etc).*

Los filtros UV se han empleado a lo largo de los años como ingredientes activos en la formulación de productos cosméticos para la protección solar,

con el fin de proteger la piel humana de los efectos perjudiciales de la radiación solar comentados anteriormente. El Reglamento Europeo define los filtros UV como *"las sustancias cuya finalidad exclusiva o principal sea proteger la piel contra determinadas radiaciones ultravioletas absorbiendo, reflejando o dispersando esta radiación"*. Concretamente, el *Anexo VI* de este reglamento consta de un listado de los compuestos químicos que pueden ser empleados como filtros UV, así como la concentración máxima autorizada para cada uno de ellos en el producto acabado. Los 26 filtros UV que constituyen actualmente el *Anexo VI*, junto con sus contenidos máximos autorizados, se muestran en la **Tabla 1.1.**

Tabla 1.1. Listado de los filtros UV admitidos en la actualidad (abril 2015) en los productos cosméticos y sus concentraciones máximas permitidas en el producto acabado (%, m/m), según el Reglamento (CE) № 1223/2009

Núm. de referencia ^a	Nombre Químico	Nomenclatura INCI ^b (Acrónimo)	Concentración máxima permitida
2	Metilsulfato de N,N,N-trimetil-4-(2- oxoborn-3-ilidinemetil) anilinio	Canfor benzalconio metosulfato (CBM)	6 %
3	Salicilato de 3,3,5-trimetil ciclohexilo (homosalato)	Homosalato (HS)	10 %
4	2-Hidroxi-4-metoxibenzofenona (oxibenzona)	Benzofenona-3 (BZ3)	10 %
6	Ácido 2-fenilbencimidazol-5-sulfónico y sus dales de potasio, sodio y trietanolamina/ <i>ensulizol</i>	Ácido fenilbencimidazol sulfónico (PBS)	8% (de ácido)
7	Ácido 3-3'-(1,4-fenilendimetileno) bis(7,7- dimetil-2-oxobiciclo-[2.2.1]hept-1-ilmetano sulfónico) y sus sales	Ácido tereftaliden dicanfor sulfónico (TDS)	10 % (de ácido)
8	4-Tert-butil-4'-metoxidibenzoilmetano	Butil metoxidibenzoil- metano (BDM)	5 %
9	Ácido α-(2-oxoborn-3-iliden)-toluen-4- sulfónico y sus sales	Ácido benciliden canfor sulfónico (BCS)	6 % (de ácido)
10	2-Ciano-3,3-difenilacrilato de 2-etilhexilo	Octocrileno (OCR)	10% (de ácido)
11	Polímero de N-{(2 y 4)-[(2-oxoborn-3- iliden)metil]bencil} acrilamida	Poliacrilamidometil benciliden canfor (PBC)	6 %
12	4-Metoxicinamato 2-etilhexilo	Etilhexil metoxicinamato (EMC)	10 %
13	4-Aminobenzoato de etilo etoxilado	PEG-25 PABA (P25)	10 %
14	4-Metoxicinamato de isoamilo (mezcla de isómeros)	Isoamil metoxicinamato (IMC)	10 %

Núm. de referenciaª	Nombre Químico	Nomenclatura INCI ^b (Acrónimo)	Concentración máxima permitida
15	2,4,6-Trianilina-(p-carbo-2'-etilhexil-1'-oxi)- 1,3,5-triazina	Etilhexil triazona (ET)	5 %
16	2-(2H-Benzotriazol-2-il)-4-metil-6-[2-metil- 3-(1,3,3,3-tetrametil-1- ((trimetilsilil)oxi)disiloxanil)propil] fenol	Drometizol trisiloxano (DRT)	15 %
17	[4,4'-[[6-[[[(1,1-dimetiletil)amino] carbonil] fenil]amino]1,3,5-triazina-2,4- diil]diimino]bis-bis(2-etilhexil) benzoato	Dietilhexil butamido triazona (DBT)	10 %
18	3-(4'-Metilbenciliden) canfor	4-Metilbenciliden canfor (MBC)	4 %
19	3-Benciliden canfor	3-Benciliden canfor (3BC)	2 %
20	Salicilato de 2-etilhexilo	Etilhexil salicilato (ES)	5 %
21	4-dimetilaminobenzoato de 2-etilhexilo	Etilhexil dimetil PABA (EDP)	8 %
22	Ácido 2-hidroxi-4-metoxibenzofenona-5- sulfónico y su sal de sodio	Benzofenona-4 (BZ4)	5 % (de ácido)
23	2,2'-Metilen-bis-[4-(1,1,3,3-tetrametil butil)-6-(2H-benzotriazol-2-il)fenol]	Metilen bisbenzotriazolil tetrametilbutilfenol (MBP)	10 %
24	Ácido 2,2'-(1,4-fenilen) bis-1H- bencimidazol-4,6-disulfónico (sal monosódica)	Ácido fenildibencimidazol tetrasulfónico (PDT)	10 % (de ácido)
25	2,2'-[6-(4-Metoxifenil)-1,3,5-triazina-2,4- diil]bis[5-[(2-etilhexil)oxil]fenol]	Bis-etilhexiloxifenol metoxifenil triazina (EMT)	10 %
26	Metil 3-[4-[2,2-bis(etoxicarbonil)etenil] fenoxi]propenil dimetil polisiloxano	Polisilicona-15 (P15)	10 %
27	Dióxido de titanio	Dióxido de titanio (TiO₂)	25 %
28	Hexilbenzoato de 2-[4-(dietilamino)-2- hidroxibenzoilo]	Dietilamino hidroxibenzoil hexil benzoato (DHHB)	10 %

Tabla 1.1. (Continuación)

^aOrden otorgado según el Reglamento Europeo

^b Nomenclatura internacional de ingredientes cosméticos. El acrónimo utilizado para cada compuesto se muestra entre paréntesis

Cabe mencionar que existen otras normativas reguladoras de productos cosméticos para la protección solar a nivel mundial, como la de Estados Unidos (FDA, *Food and Drug Administration*) o la de Japón. Sin embargo, lejos de la armonización, las tres normativas difieren entre sí tanto en los niveles máximos de concentración establecidos como en los filtros UV permitidos (Chisvert *et al.*, 2007).

Cabe señalar que en la actualidad, los filtros UV no sólo se incorporan en los productos cosméticos destinados específicamente a la protección solar, sino que también son adicionados en todo tipo de productos de uso diario como cremas hidratantes, productos para después del afeitado, champús, cremas anti-arrugas, productos de maquillaje, etc (Chisvert *et al.*, 2007).

1.3. CLASIFICACIÓN DE LOS FILTROS UV.

Según la definición de los filtros UV del Reglamento (CE) Nº 1223/2009 detallada anteriormente, estos compuestos pueden interaccionar de distinta manera con la radiación solar en función de su naturaleza química. Así pues, siguiendo este criterio de clasificación, los filtros UV se pueden dividir en dos grupos: filtros UV inorgánicos y orgánicos.

Filtros UV inorgánicos o físicos

Actúan generalmente reflejando y/o dispersando la radiación UV. En general son óxidos metálicos, aunque también se han utilizado con este fin talco y silicatos. Estos filtros UV proporcionan una mayor protección que los filtros UV orgánicos y son menos nocivos para el organismo por no penetrar en la piel. Sin embargo, los productos cosméticos que contienen estos filtros UV suelen tener una menor aceptación por parte de los usuarios debido a que, en ocasiones, forman una capa impermeable y blanquecina que tapa los poros de la piel, impidiendo su transpiración. A pesar de que se podrían utilizar con esta finalidad diversos compuestos, el único filtro UV inorgánico considerado en el *Anexo VI* del Reglamento Europeo es el dióxido de titanio (*Núm. Ref. UE 27*, **Tabla 1.1**).

Filtros UV orgánicos o químicos

Actúan absorbiendo la radiación UV (captan energía incidente y se emite nuevamente como radiación térmica, inocua para la piel). Se trata de moléculas orgánicas que generalmente presentan uno o varios anillos aromáticos conjugados con dobles enlaces carbono-carbono y/o grupos carbonilo, lo que les confiere un elevado coeficiente de absortividad molar en la zona UV. En general, las formulaciones que contienen estos filtros UV son mejor aceptadas por los usuarios ya que suelen ser más fluidas y, al ser absorbidas por la piel, permiten su transpiración. Sin embargo, requieren mayores consideraciones de seguridad, ya que se han descrito algunas reacciones alérgicas y además, debido a que pueden absorberse percutáneamente, podrían presentar efectos secundarios. Actualmente son 25 los filtros UV orgánicos autorizados por la legislación europea (*Núm. Ref. UE 2-4, 6-26 y 28, Tabla 1.1*), que pueden clasificarse en 9 grupos como se detalla a continuación (*sección 1.3.1*).

En concreto, de los 25 filtros UV orgánicos que permite la Unión Europea, 7 presentan carácter hidrofílico (CBM, PBS, TDS, BCS, P25, BZ4 y PDT), mientras que los 18 restantes presentan propiedades lipofílicas y son empleados más comúnmente en las formulaciones cosméticas debido a su resistencia al agua. No obstante, cabe señalar que la síntesis de BCS, PBC y 3BC está protegida por patentes de L'Oreal y actualmente no se fabrican ni utilizan en productos cosméticos.

Además, en función de la longitud de onda absorbida por los filtros UV, tanto inorgánicos como orgánicos, se distingue entre los filtros UVA y UVB. Para conseguir una protección solar efectiva, se pueden combinar los filtros UVA y UVB (los preparados llamados de amplio espectro). Además, se incorporan otros ingredientes a las formulaciones solares con el objetivo de lograr una mejor protección contra el daño indirecto causado principalmente por los rayos UVA, que penetran con mayor profundidad y pueden conducir a la generación de radicales libres (especies reactivas de oxígeno) implicadas tanto en el daño del ADN como en el daño del colágeno, que produce el envejecimiento de la piel. Por tanto, se suelen incorporar antioxidantes en los productos cosméticos para la protección solar con el fin de retrasar el proceso de envejecimiento y la reducción del daño en la piel inducido por la exposición excesiva a la radiación UVA. Además de los antioxidantes naturales, se han considerado numerosos antioxidantes sintéticos para mejorar la protección contra el daño solar, como los radicales nitróxido (Venditti et al., 2011).

1.3.1. Clasificación de los Filtros UV orgánicos.

Como se ha comentado anteriormente, los filtros UV orgánicos autorizados actualmente por la UE pueden clasificarse en 9 grupos ateniendo a su estructura:

Derivados de la benzofenona





Benzofenona-3 (**BZ3**) (Núm. Ref. UE 4)

Benzofenona-4 (**BZ4**) (Núm. Ref. UE 22)



Dietilamino hidroxibenzoil hexil benzoato (**DHHB**) (Núm. Ref. UE 28)

Ácido p-aminobenzoico y sus derivados

x+y+z=25

PEG-25 PABA (**P25**) (Núm. Ref. UE 13)



Etilhexil dimetil PABA (**EDP**) (Núm. Ref. UE 21)

Salicilatos



Homosalato (**HS**) (Núm. Ref. UE 3)

Metoxicinamatos

Etilhexil metoxicinamato (EMC) (Núm. Ref. UE 12)

Etilhexil salicilato (ES) (Núm. Ref. UE 20)

Isoamil metoxicinamato (IMC) (Núm. Ref. UE 14)

Derivados del canfor



Canfor benzalconio metosulfato (**CBM**) (Núm. Ref. UE 2)



Ácido tereftaliden dicanfor sulfónico (**TDS**) (Núm. Ref. UE 7)



Ácido benciliden canfor sulfónico (**BCS**) (Núm. Ref. UE 9)

4-Metilbenciliden canfor (**MBC**) (Núm. Ref. UE 18)

3-Benciliden canfor (MBC) (Núm. Ref. UE 19)

Derivados de la triazina

Poliacrilamidometil

benciliden canfor (PBC)

(Núm. Ref. UE 11)







Dietilhexil butamido triazona (**DBT**) (Núm. Ref. UE 17) Bis-etilhexiloxifenol metoxifenil triazina (EMT) (Núm. Ref. UE 25)

 $R_1 = R_2 = R_3$

Etilhexil triazona (ET) (Núm. Ref. UE 15)

Derivados del benzotriazol



Drometizol trisiloxano (**DRT**) (Núm. Ref. UE 16)



Metilen bisbenzotriazolil tetrametilbutilfenol (**MBP**) (Núm. Ref. UE 23)

Derivados del bencimidazol



Ácido fenilbencimidazol sulfónico (**PBS**) (Núm. Ref. UE 6)



Ácido fenildibencimidazol tetrasulfónico (**PDT**) (Núm. Ref. UE 24)

Otros



Butil metoxidibenzoilmetano (**BDM**) (Núm. Ref. UE 8)



Octocrileno (**OCR**) (Núm. Ref. UE 10)





Polisilicona-15 (**P15**) (Núm. Ref. UE 26)
1.4. CONTROL ANALÍTICO DE LOS FILTROS UV EN PRODUCTOS COSMÉTICOS. NECESIDAD DE MÉTODOS OFICIALES.

A pesar de las restricciones de uso establecidas para los filtros UV, en la actualidad no existen métodos analíticos oficiales con los que poder llevar a cabo la determinación de todos los filtros UV actualmente en uso en los productos cosméticos. No obstante, debe señalarse la recientemente aprobada norma EN 16344:2013, que si bien considera la identificación de un elevado número de filtros UV, tan sólo se determinan cuantitativamente 10 de estos compuestos. Por ello, es necesario desarrollar métodos analíticos eficientes y fiables para el control de estos compuestos para garantizar, tanto la eficacia protectora del producto acabado, como el cumplimiento del Europeo sin sobrepasar las concentraciones Reglamento máximas establecidas en el producto acabado, ya que se ha descrito la aparición de algunos efectos adversos, tales como fotoalergias, e incluso disrupción endocrina y carcinogénesis (Ricci et al., 1998; Kerr, 1998; Schlumpf et al. 2001; Ma et al., 2003; Schreurs et al., 2005).

1.5. MÉTODOS DE ANÁLISIS PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN DE FILTROS UV EN PRODUCTOS COSMÉTICOS.

Existen en la bibliografía científica diversos trabajos referentes a la determinación de filtros UV en productos cosméticos, así como revisiones detalladas y exhaustivas de los métodos analíticos publicados (Salvador *et al.*, 2005; Chisvert *et al.*, 2007). Habitualmente los productos cosméticos con filtros UV como ingredientes activos llevan incorporados mezclas de varios de ellos en su formulación, lo que dificulta la determinación directa de estos compuestos. Por ello, la técnica analítica más comúnmente empleada ha sido la cromatografía, y más concretamente la cromatografía de líquidos (LC, del inglés *Liquid Chromatography*). Debido a la elevada capacidad que presentan estos compuestos para absorber la radiación UV, el detector de espectrometría UV/Vis resulta el más adecuado para el análisis por LC. El modo de trabajo más habitual es en fase reversa, empleando principalmente C_{18} como fase estacionaria, aunque en algunos casos se han empleado columnas de otra naturaleza, como C_8 , cianopropil o columnas poliméricas

25

Capítulo 1

empaquetadas. Como fase móvil se emplean disolventes orgánicos, tales como acetonitrilo, metanol o tetrahidrofurano, en combinación con agua formando mezclas binarias, ternarias o cuaternarias. En algunos casos, se han añadido distintos reactivos a la fase móvil para mejorar la forma de los picos cromatográficos o para tamponar el medio, e incluso modificadores como ciclodextrinas con el fin de mejorar la resolución entre algunos filtros UV que coeluyen (Chisvert *et al.*, 2001 (a)). Debido a la toxicidad de estos disolventes y a la creciente preocupación por el medio ambiente, se propuso por primera vez por parte del grupo de investigación en el que se ha realizado la presente Tesis Doctoral, el empleo de mezclas de etanol-agua como fase móvil (Chisvert et al., 2001 (b)), contribuyendo de esta forma al desarrollo de métodos analíticos "verdes", respetuosos con el medio ambiente.

A pesar del elevado número de métodos analíticos de LC publicados, la mayoría de ellos sólo llevan a cabo la determinación de un número relativamente pequeño de los filtros UV liposolubles regulados en el marco de la UE (Salvador et al., 2005; Chisvert et al., 2007). Generalmente, los pares IMC-MBC, MBC-DHHB, BDM-HS y BDM-EMC presentan dificultades en su separación cromatográfica. De todos los métodos publicados, existe un número reducido de artículos donde se determinan simultáneamente un mayor número de filtros UV (Schneider et al., 1996; Rastogi et al., 1998; Rastogi et al., 2002; Hauri et al., 2003; Schakel et al., 2004; Salvador et al., 2005; Balaguer et al., 2009; Nyeborg et al., 2010; De Orsi et al.; 2006; Liu et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2012; Peruchi et al., 2012). Sin embargo, en algunos de ellos no se determinaron IMC (Schneider et al., 1996; De Orsi et al., 2006; Peruchi et al., 2012), MBC (Nyeborg et al., 2010), HS (De Orsi et al., 2006; Nyeborg et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2012) o BDM (Liu et al., 2011). Además, en la mayoría de ellos no se consideró el DHHB, bien porque no estaba permitido en la UE en ese momento (Schneider et al., 1996; Rastogi et al., 1998; Rastogi et al., 2002; Hauri et al., 2003; Schakel et al., 2004; Salvador et al., 2005; Balaguer et al., 2009), o porque el estudio se llevó a cabo fuera de la UE, donde este filtro UV no está permitido (Liu et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2012; Peruchi et al., 2012).

Además de la LC, se han empleado otras técnicas para la determinación de filtros UV en productos cosméticos, como por ejemplo la cromatografía de

Introducción

Capítulo 1

gases (GC, del inglés *Gas Chromatography*), acoplada normalmente a un espectrómetro de masas (MS). La baja volatilidad de los filtros UV ha limitado mucho el uso de esta técnica para su determinación. De hecho, en algunos casos se ha optado por la derivatización vía sililación para obtener compuestos más volátiles y mejorar de esta manera la sensibilidad del análisis (Cumpelik, 1982; Ro *et al.*, 1994). En otros casos, se ha llevado a cabo la determinación de distintos filtros UV en productos cosméticos sin el paso previo de derivatización (Ikeda *et al.*, 1990, Haunschmidt *et al.*, 2011).

La cromatografía de capa fina (TLC, del inglés *Thin Layer Chromatography*), también ha sido empleada para la determinación de estos compuestos en productos cosméticos, aunque únicamente con fines cualitativos (Hild, 1993).

Por último, cabe comentar que en menor medida se han empleado técnicas no cromatográficas para la determinación de estos compuestos en productos cosméticos, como la espectrometría UV/Vis con inyección en flujo (Chisvert *et al.*, 2001 (c); Chisvert *et al.*, 2002; Salvador *et al.*, 2003), la quimioluminiscencia (Townshend *et al.*, 2002), la resonancia magnética nuclear (RMN) (Mori *et al.*, 1996; Masse *et al.*, 2001;), la espectrometría (Chang y Chang, 2001; Wang, 2002; Júnior *et al.*, 2012) o la denominada técnica DART-MS (del inglés, *direct-analysis-in-real-time mass spectrometry*) que supone la inyección directa de la muestra (en el caso de productos cosméticos, previamente disuelta en etanol) en el espectrómetro de masas (Haunschmidt *et al.*, 2011).

Con el objetivo de desarrollar métodos analíticos fiables y de amplio espectro para mejorar y facilitar el control de calidad de la industria cosmética se han llevado a cabo los estudios recopilados en el **Capítulo 5** (Chisvert *et al.*, 2013) de la presente Tesis Doctoral. Así pues, se ha desarrollado un método analítico fácil, rápido y respetuoso con el medio ambiente que permite la determinación simultánea de 15 de los 16 filtros UV liposolubles actualmente empleados en formulaciones cosméticas y autorizados en el marco de la UE (P15 fue excluido del estudio ya que se trata de un compuesto polimérico cuya determinación requiere una consideración especial). Para lograr la completa resolución de los compuestos estudiados, se empleó 2-hidroxipropil-

27

β-ciclodextrina como modificador de la fase móvil. No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo donde se determinen simultáneamente estos 15 filtros UV liposolubles en productos cosméticos.

Este trabajo forma parte de la propuesta realizada por nuestro grupo de investigación al Comité Europeo de Normalización (CEN) como norma armonizada para la determinación de todos los filtros UV orgánicos autorizados y en uso en la actualidad (*NWIP Cosmetics - Analytical methods - HPLC/UV method for the identification and quantitative determination in cosmetic products of all the organic UV filters authorized and in use in the EU, CEN/TC 392/WG 1 N 205*).

CAPÍTULO 2

LOS FILTROS UV EN EL CUERPO HUMANO

Parte del contenido de este capítulo se ha basado en el artículo de revisión *An overview of the analytical methods for the determination of organic ultraviolet filters in biological fluids and tissues,* A. Chisvert, Z. León-González, I. Tarazona, A. Salvador, D. Giokas, **Analytica Chimica Acta** 752 (2012) 11-29.

2.1. COMPUESTOS XENOBIÓTICOS. DISPOSICIÓN EN EL CUERPO HUMANO.

Se denominan **xenobióticos** aquellos compuestos que son ajenos o extraños al cuerpo humano. Los xenobióticos que interaccionan con los seres humanos de forma involuntaria son, generalmente, contaminantes de naturaleza química que se encuentran en alimentos, productos para el cuidado personal o en el medio ambiente, y que suelen producir efectos tóxicos o alteraciones en el funcionamiento normal de las células vivas (Parkinson y Olgivie, 2008).

La mayoría de los xenobióticos presentan naturaleza lipofílica, lo cual les confiere tendencia a acumularse en los entornos lipofílicos del organismo. A diferencia de los compuestos volátiles (cuya eliminación se facilita mediante el intercambio gaseoso en los pulmones) o los hidrosolubles (que son eliminados vía renal), la eliminación de estos compuestos es más problemática, por lo que su acumulación en el organismo puede llegar a desencadenar fenómenos de toxicidad (Castell, 2004).

Para facilitar la eliminación de estos compuestos, el organismo humano los somete a reacciones de biotransformación. Se trata de reacciones enzimáticas cuya finalidad es modificar la estructura de estos compuestos para transformarlos en otros (metabolitos) más hidrosolubles y fáciles de eliminar por vía renal o biliar y, generalmente, menos tóxicos. En ocasiones, la biotransformación de un compuesto puede llevar a la formación de metabolitos activos que pueden presentar una toxicidad mayor que el propio compuesto original (Koda *et al.*, 2005; Jeon *et al.*, 2008). Aunque todas las células y tejidos son capaces de llevar a cabo la biotransformación de compuestos externos, este proceso ocurre principalmente en el hígado, los pulmones, los intestinos y la piel (Garattini *et al.*, 1994).

La biotransformación de los xenobióticos es competencia de un pequeño número de enzimas que tienen una especificidad de sustrato amplia. Algunas de estas enzimas se sintetizan en respuesta al xenobiótico a través de un proceso de inducción enzimática, pero en la mayoría de los casos se trata de enzimas constitutivas cuya síntesis se realiza en ausencia de un estímulo externo. Por otra parte, la estructura o secuencia de aminoácidos de una enzima biotransformadora puede mostrar variaciones interindividuales que

31

pueden originar diferencias en cuanto a la velocidad de biotransformación del xenobiótico (Parkinson y Olgivie, 2008).

En la **Figura 2.1.** se muestra de manera esquemática la disposición de los xenobióticos en el cuerpo humano tras su absorción percutánea.



Figura 2.1. Representación esquemática de la disposición de los xenobióticos en el cuerpo humano tras su absorción percutánea.

Es importante tener en cuenta que la velocidad en que se producen los distintos procesos indicados en la **Figura 2.1.** va a influenciar sobre la toxicidad de una sustancia. Así pues, si la cantidad absorbida de un compuesto o su velocidad de absorción es muy elevada, este compuesto podría alcanzar concentraciones elevadas en zonas concretas del cuerpo humano, lo cual podría causar toxicidad. Lo mismo ocurriría si la velocidad de excreción fuera demasiado baja. Por otro lado, la distribución de las sustancias puede disminuir la concentración de éstas en un tejido en concreto, disminuyendo su toxicidad en esa zona. Sin embargo, también hay que tener en cuenta que algunos compuestos presentan elevada toxicidad incluso a concentraciones bajas.

Concretamente, en el caso de los filtros UV, se trata de compuestos xenobióticos que pueden ser parcialmente absorbidos a través de la piel tras

la aplicación tópica del producto cosmético. Posteriormente son distribuidos por todo el organismo a través de la sangre. Algunos de ellos, los hidrosolubles, son más fácilmente excretables y no necesitan metabolizarse para ser eliminados. Sin embargo, los filtros UV liposolubles tienden a acumularse en el organismo y normalmente precisan de reacciones de biotransformación para su eliminación.

2.1.1. Reacciones de biotransformación.

Los procesos enzimáticos de biotransformación se agrupan en dos fases o etapas (Parkinson y Olgivie, 2008) (Figura 2.2.):

- Fase I: se trata generalmente de reacciones de hidrólisis y de oxidación-reducción mediante las cuales los xenobióticos con carácter lipofílico son transformados en especies más polares, y, por tanto, más fácilmente excretables. Las reacciones de oxidación son catalizadas principalmente por las isoformas de la familia de enzimas del citocromo P450, mientras que las de hidrólisis son catalizadas por esterasas.
- Fase II: se trata de reacciones de conjugación de los xenobióticos o de sus metabolitos de fase I con moléculas endógenas polares, tales como ácido glucurónico, glutatión, sulfato y aminoácidos como la glicina, la taurina y el ácido glutámico. Estas reacciones aumentan notablemente la hidrofilia de los compuestos favoreciendo enormemente su eliminación del organismo, además de disminuir su actividad toxicológica generalmente. Las reacciones de conjugación están catalizadas por una variedad de isoenzimas de Nacetiltransferasa (NAT), uridina difosfato-glucuronosiltransferasa (UGT), sulfotransferasa (ST) y glutatión S-transferasa (GST). Al menos enzimas principales 50 participan en los procesos de biotransformación.



Figura 2.2. Representación esquemática de las etapas en la biotranformación de xenobióticos.

2.2. DISPOSICIÓN DE LOS FILTROS UV EN EL CUERPO HUMANO.

Como ya se ha comentado anteriormente, los filtros UV presentes en los productos cosméticos pueden ser parcialmente absorbidos percutáneamente tras la aplicación tópica del producto cosmético. Así pues, una vez atravesadas las capas más profundas de la piel, son incorporados al torrente sanguíneo y por tanto distribuidos por todo el cuerpo humano. Posteriormente estos compuestos son metabolizados y finalmente bioacumulados y/o excretados (Giokas *et al.*, 2007).

2.2.1. Absorción percutánea.

La absorción percutánea es la transferencia de una sustancia (en este caso el filtro UV) desde la superficie de la piel a través de las diferentes capas de ésta (epidermis, dermis y tejidos subcutáneos) hasta llegar al torrente sanguíneo (**Figura 2.3**), bajo la influencia de un gradiente de concentración.





Por tanto la absorción del filtro UV dependerá, en primer lugar, de su capacidad para penetrar a través de la epidermis y, posteriormente de su capacidad de difundir a través del resto de capas de la piel. Por tanto, la morfología (el grosor) de la epidermis es un aspecto importante que va a determinar el grado de absorción del compuesto, como también el carácter lipofílico del filtro UV, que influirá en su capacidad para atravesar los lípidos epidérmicos. Por otro lado, se ha demostrado que la absorción percutánea de los filtros UV puede variar significativamente dependiendo de la naturaleza de la formulación cosmética (Jiang *et al.*, 1998). Así pues, se han llevado a cabo varios estudios para evaluar los efectos que el vehículo tiene en la absorción de los filtros UV, con el objetivo de desarrollar formulaciones cosméticas en las que se minimice la absorción percutánea de los ingredientes activos sin pérdida de eficacia.

Para estimar la absorción percutánea de los filtros UV se han llevado a cabo distintas metodologías *in vitro* basadas en el uso de celdas de difusión y en la denominada técnica *tape-stripping* (Huong *et al.*, 2009, Bashir *et al.*, 2001). El empleo de celdas de difusión (celdas de tipo Franz (Franz, 1975)) conlleva aplicar una formulación cosmética (u otro vehículo) conteniendo los filtros UV sobre la cara superior de una porción escindida de piel humana, animal o sintética. La cara interna de la piel está en contacto con un fluido receptor que se agita emulando el torrente sanguíneo. Una vez transcurrido el tiempo

Capítulo 2

establecido (la duración media de los experimentos oscila entre 24 y 48 horas), se realiza la determinación de los filtros UV en el líquido receptor. En cuanto a la técnica de tape-stripping, ésta también conlleva la aplicación del vehículo conteniendo los filtros UV sobre una porción escindida de piel humana, animal o sintética. Sin embargo, tras un período de tiempo definido, la formulación se elimina mecánicamente y se coloca una cinta adhesiva en el área de la piel tratada. A continuación, la cinta se retira de tal manera que arrastra la primera capa de estrato córneo (la capa más superficial de la epidermis), donde se determina el contenido de filtros UV mediante el tratamiento adecuado de la cinta. Así, la estimación de la absorción percutánea de los filtros UV se puede realizar tras repetir el proceso con nuevos trozos de cinta adhesiva, que eliminan las capas posteriores de estrato córneo (Lademann et al., 2009). Esta última técnica puede ser también aplicada in vivo mediante el uso de voluntarios humanos (el uso de animales de laboratorio está prohibido desde marzo de 2013 para ensavos en cosméticos).

Existen más de 50 publicaciones relacionadas con el uso de las técnicas *in vitro* anteriormente mencionadas para el estudio de la absorción percutánea de los filtros UV presentes en las formulaciones cosméticas. Concretamente, las celdas de difusión han sido empleadas en varias ocasiones por nuestro grupo de investigación para el estudio de la absorción percutánea del filtro UV hidrosoluble PDT individualmente (Balaguer *et al.*, 2006 (a)) o junto a PBS, BZ4 y TDS (León et al., 2008).

Por otra parte, la presencia de estos compuestos en fluidos biológicos y en diferentes tejidos del cuerpo humano evidencia la penetración de estos compuestos a través de la piel. Existen más de 50 publicaciones de estudios *in vivo* acerca de la determinación de filtros UV en distintos tipos de fluidos biológicos (tales como orina, heces, suero o plasma). Un resumen de éstas se muestra en las **Tablas 2.1.** (orina y heces), **2.2** (suero y plasma) y **2.3** (leche materna y semen). Cabe comentar que en muchos de los trabajos incluidos en las tablas se determinan metabolitos de fase I y/o fase II de distintos filtros UV (concretamente de PABA, BZ3, MBC y EDP). Las rutas metabólicas de estos compuestos se encuentran detalladas en la *Sección 2.2.3*.

Tabla	2.1.	Artículos	publicados	acerca	de	la	determinación	de	filtros	UV	en	orina	y
heces													

Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencia
PABA	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	UV/Vis	Se determinaron el PABA y su metabolito de fase II acetilado (PAcB) en orina	Arancibia <i>et al.,</i> 1981
BZ3	Aplicación oral, tópica e intravenosa en ratas		Se encontraron DHB y otro metabolito de fase I hidroxilado no definido. Los conjugados con glucurónico (metabolitos de fase II) también fueron identificados	El Dareer <i>et al.,</i> 1986
BZ3	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado). Los metabolitos de fase I no fueron considerados.	Abdel-Nabi et al., 1992
BZ3	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) y tópica (con vaselina) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se consideraron los metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) y los conjugados de fase II, tanto en orina como en heces	Okereke et al., 1993 Okereke et al., 1994 Kadry et al., 1995
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado) en orina. Los metabolitos de fase I no se consideraron	Hayden <i>et al.,</i> 1997
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en un voluntario humano	GC-MS	Se consideraron los metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB) en orina, pero THB fue excluído. Los conjugados de fase II no se consideraron	Felix <i>et al.,</i> 1998
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado) en orina. Los metabolitos de fase I no se consideraron	González <i>et al.,</i> 2002
PBS	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	FL	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	Vidal et al., 2003
TDS	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos		No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II	Benech-Kieffer et al., 2003
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + cojugado) en orina. Algunos metabolitos de fase I (DHB y THB) fueron detectados pero no cuantificados.	Sarveiya et al., 2004
BZ3 EMC MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos		No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II	Janjua <i>et al.,</i> 2004

Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó la forma libre y conjugada de BZ3 en orina	Ye et al., 2005 (a) Ye et al., 2005 (b) Wolff et al., 2007 Calafat et al., 2008
BZ3	Admisnitración tópica de una crema solar en lechones. Tras la eutanasia, la orina fue recogida de la vejiga	LC-UV/Vis	Se consideraron los metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en orina. Los conjugados de fase II no fueron considerados	Kasichayanula et al., 2005 Kasichayanula et al., 2007
PDT	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	FL	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	Balaguer <i>et al.,</i> 2006 (b)
MBC	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS ¹ H-RMN	Se determinaron los metabolitos de fase I (CBC and CBC-OH) y los conjugados de fase II, tanto en orina como en heces	Völkel et al., 2006
MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total (libre + conjugado) de MBC y de sus metabolitos de fase I (CBC y CBC-OH) en orina	Schauer et al., 2006
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó la forma libre y conjugada de BZ3 y de su metabolito de fase I DHB, en orina	González <i>et al.,</i> 2006 González <i>et al.,</i> 2008
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	Vidal <i>et al.,</i> 2007
PABA	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-EC	Se determinaron los metabolitos de fase II (PAH, PAcB and PAcH) en orina	Wang et al., 2007
P25	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-FL	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	Balaguer et al., 2008
BZ3 EMC MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/VIS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	Janjua <i>et al.,</i> 2008
BZ3	Orina procedente de usuarios de cremas solares	GC-MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado) en orina. No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I	Kawaguchi <i>et</i> <i>al.,</i> 2008 (b)
EDP	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	GC-MS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	March <i>et al.,</i> 2009 (a)

Tabla 2.1. (Continuación)

Tabla	2.1.	(Continuacio	ón)
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Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
EDP	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	GC-MS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	March <i>et al.,</i> 2009 (b)
BZ3	Orina procedente de usuarios de cremas solares	GC-MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado) en orina. No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I	Kawaguchi <i>et al.,</i> 2009
PABA	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-FL	Se determinaron los metabolitos de fase II (PAH, PAcB and PAcH) en orina	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 (libre + conjugado) en orina. El metabolito de fase I DHB también fue considerado	Kunisue <i>et al.,</i> 2010 Kunisue <i>et al.,</i> 2012
BZ3 BZ4	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de orina	León <i>et al.,</i> 2010 (a)
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-MS/MS	Se consideró el contenido libre y conjugado tanto de BZ3 como de sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en orina	León <i>et al.,</i> 2010 (c)
EDP	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-MS/MS	Se consideró el contenido libre y conjugado tanto de EDP como de sus metabolitos de fase I (DMP y MMP)	León-González et al., 2011
BZ3	Administración intravenosa y tópica (disolución alcohólica) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido libre de BZ3 y sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en orina y heces	Fediuk <i>et al.,</i> 2012
BZ3 MBC OCR BDM EMC ES HS	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido libre de los filtros UV en muestras de orina. No se consideró ningún metabolito	Vosough et al., 2012
MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-MS/MS	Se consideró el contenido libre y conjugado tanto de MBC como de su metabolito de fase I CBC en orina	León-González et al., 2013
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total (libre + conjugado) de BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB)	Zhang T <i>et al.</i> , 2013
BZ3	Orina procedente de un donante humano	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó BZ3 y uno de sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB), además de otras benzofenoas	Almeida et al., 2013
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó la forma libre y la total (libre+ conjugada) de BZ3 y de sus principales metanolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB)	Wang <i>et al.,</i> 2013

Tabla 2.1. (Continuación)

Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB), además de otras benzofenonas	Vela-Soria <i>et al.,</i> 2014 (a)
BZ3	Orina procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	GC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB), además de otras benzofenonas	Vela-Soria <i>et al.,</i> 2014 (b)
BZ3	Orina procedente de parejas donantes para un estudio de fertilidad	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total de BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB), además de otras benzofenonas	Buck Louis et al., 2014

^a EC= detector electroquímico; FL= fluorescencia; GC= cromatografía de gases; ¹H-RMN= resonancia magnética nuclear de protón; LC= cromatografía de líquidos; MS= espectrometría de masas; MS/MS= espectrometría de masasen tándem; UV/Vis= espectrometría ultravioleta/visible

^b PAH= ácido p-aminohipúrico; PAcB= ácido p-acetamidobenzoico; PAcH= ácido p-acetamidohipúrico; DHB= 2,4-dihidroxibenzofenona; DHMB= 2,2'-dihidroxi-4-metoxibenzofenona; THB= 2,3,4trihidroxibenzofenona; CBC= 3-(4-carboxibenziliden)canfor; CBC-OH= 3-(4-carboxibenziliden)hidroxicanfor; DMP= ácido N,N-dimetil-p-aminobenzoico; MMP= ácido N-monometil-p-aminobenzoico

 Tabla 2.2. Artículos publicados acerca de la determinación de filtros UV en plasma y suero

Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
BZ3	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó el contenido libre y conjugado de BZ3. Los metabolitos de fase I no fueron considerados	Abdel-Nabi <i>et al.,</i> 1992
BZ3	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) y tópica (con vaselina) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se consideraron tanto los metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) como los conjugados de fase II en muestras de plasma	Okereke et al., 1993 Okereke et al., 1994 Kadry et al., 1995
BDM BZ3 EDP EMC ES	Plasma fortificado	LC-UV/Vis	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en muestras de plasma	Jiang <i>et al.,</i> 1996
BZ3 EMC ES HS	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-UV/Vis	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en muestras de plasma	Sarveiya et al., 2004
BZ3 EMC MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos		No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en muestras de plasma	Janjua <i>et al.,</i> 2004

Tabla	2.2.	(Contin	uación)
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Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en lechones	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinaron los metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en plasma, pero no los conjugados de fase II	Kasichayanula et al., 2005 Kasichayanula et al., 2007
3BC	Aplicación tópica de una disolución alcohólica en ratas	LC-MS/MS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de plasma	Søeborg et al., 2006
MBC	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) en ratas. Aplicación tópica de crema solar en voluntarios humanos y en ratas	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS ¹ H-NMR	Se consideraron tanto los metabolitos de fase I (CBC y CBC-OH) como los conjugados de fase II en muestras de plasma	Völkel <i>et al.,</i> 2006 Schauer <i>et al.,</i> 2006
BZ3 EMC MBC	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC–UV/VIS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en muestras de plasma	Janjua <i>et al.,</i> 2008
BZ3	Administración oral (en aceite de maíz) en ratas	GC-MS	Se determinó el contenido total (libre + conjugado) de BZ3 y sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en muestras de plasma	Jeon <i>et al.,</i> 2008
BZ3	Muestras de suero procedentes de donantes humanos desconocidos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido libre y el conjugado de BZ3 en plasma. Los metabolitos de fase I no fueron considerados	Ye et al., 2008
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una disolución alcohólica en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II en las muestras de plasma	Fediuk <i>et al.,</i> 2010
BZ3	Administración intravenosa y tópica (disolución alcohólica) en ratas	LC-UV/Vis	Se determinó en el contenido libre de BZ3 y sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB) en muestras de plasma	Fediuk et al., 2012
BZ3	Sangre procedente de donantes humanos desconocidos	HPLC– ID/MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total (libre + conjugado) de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB)	Zhang T et al., 2013
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios humanos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido total (libre + conjugado) de BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB) en suero	Tarazona et al., 2013
BZ3	Muestras de suero procedentes de donantes humanos	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido libre y total (libre + conjugado) de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB) en suero	Vela-Soria <i>et al.,</i> 2014 (c)
HS	Aplicación tópica de un gel en ratas	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido libre de HS	Kim <i>et al.,</i> 2014

^{a, b} ver pie de Tabla 2.1

Filtro UV	Experimento	Técnica analítica ^a	Comentarios ^b	Referencias
BZ3 EMC	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	GC-MS	No se consideraron metabolitos de fase I ni de fase II	Hany et al., 1995
BZ3	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó la forma libre y conjugada de BZ3. Los metabolitos de fase I no fueron considerados	Ye et al., 2006
BZ3	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó la forma libre y conjugada de BZ3. Los metabolitos de fase I no fueron considerados	Ye <i>et al.,</i> 2008 (a)
BZ3	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar sobre voluntarios donantes de semen	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó la forma libre y conjugada tanto de BZ3 como de sus metabolitos de fase I (DHB, DHMB y THB)	León <i>et al.,</i> 2010 (c)
EDP	Aplicación tópica de una crema solar en voluntarios donantes de semen	LC-MS/MS	Se consideró el contenido total (libre + conjugado) tanto de EDP como de sus metabolitos de fase I (DMP y MMP)	León-González <i>et al.,</i> 2011 (b)
BZ3	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	GC-MS/MS LC-MS/MS	Se determinó BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos de fase l (DHB y DHMB), además de otras benzofenonas	Rodríguez- Gómez <i>et al.,</i> 2014 (a)
BZ3	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido libre de BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB)	Rodríguez- Gómez <i>et al.,</i> 2014 (b)
BZ3	Leche materna humana de voluntarias desconocidas	LC-MS/MS	Se determinó el contenido libre de BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos de fase I (DHB y DHMB)	Rodríguez- Gómez <i>et al.,</i> 2015

 Tabla 2.3. Artículos publicados acerca de la determinación de filtros UV en otros fluídos biológicos (leche materna y semen)

^{a, b} ver pie de Tabla 2.1

Así pues, con el fin de contribuir al estudio de la absorción percutánea de los filtros UV, se han desarrollado en la presente Tesis Doctoral diferentes métodos analíticos para la determinación de algunos de estos compuestos y sus metabolitos en fluidos biológicos. Concretamente, se ha desarrollado un método para la determinación de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano (**Capítulos 6**) y otro para la determinación de MBC y su principal metabolito en semen humano (**Capítulo 7**).

2.2.2. Distribución.

Como ya se ha comentado anteriormente, una vez en el torrente sanguíneo los filtros UV son desplazados por todo el cuerpo humano, siendo la distribución final función de la afinidad del filtro UV por los distintos tejidos. Así, para conocer el perfil metabólico de algunos de estos compuestos en el torrente sanguíneo se ha desarrollado en el **Capítulo 6** de la presente Tesis Doctoral un método analítico para la determinación del filtro UV BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano tras la aplicación tópica de un producto cosmético conteniendo BZ3.

2.2.3. Biotransformación.

Al igual que el resto de xenobióticos, los filtros UV sufren reacciones de biotransformación para aumentar su hidrosolubilidad y facilitar así su posterior excreción.

Aunque son escasos los estudios acerca de la ruta metabólica de los filtros UV, ésta se ha logrado establecer en algunos casos, concretamente para el ácido 4-aminobenzoico (PABA) (recientemente prohibido como filtro UV en Europa) y para BZ3, MBC y EDP, empleando metodologías *in vitro* e *in vivo*.

El **mecanismo de biotransformación del PABA** se conoce desde hace años, ya que este compuesto ha sido tradicionalmente incluido en suplementos nutricionales de vitamina B de ingestión oral. Sin embargo, en la actualidad, el uso de este filtro UV no está permitido en los productos cosméticos (ver *Tabla 1.1,* <u>Capítulo 1</u>). Según los estudios realizados, este compuesto no sufre transformación metabólica de fase I. Sin embargo, se acetila y conjuga con glicina mediante las correspondientes reacciones de fase II para formar ácido p-aminohipúrico (PAH), ácido p-acetamidobenzoico (PACB) y ácido pacetamidohipúrico (PACH). Existen muy pocos estudios sobre la aplicación tópica del PABA. Arancibia *et al.* (1981) y, más recientemente, Wang *et al.* (2007 y 2010) determinaron PABA y sus metabolitos en orina humana después de la aplicación tópica de productos cosméticos para la protección solar.

La **ruta metabólica para el filtro UV BZ3** fue propuesta por primera vez por Okereke *et al.* (1993). El estudio se llevó a cabo administrando este filtro UV a

ratas por vía oral. Posteriormente, los mismos autores confirmaron los resultados obtenidos administrando en este caso el filtro UV tópicamente sobre ratas (Okereke et al., 1994). El análisis de los fluidos biológicos de estos animales (sangre, orina y heces) así como de sus telidos (hígado, riñón, intestino, testículos, piel, bazo y otros) reveló la formación de tres metabolitos de fase I, esto es, 2,4-dihidroxibenzofenona (DHB), 2,2'-dihidroxi-4metoxibenzofenona (DHMB) y 2,3,4-trihidroxibenzofenona (THB), aunque este último en menor medida. Según estos autores, BZ3 sufre una O-dealquilación del grupo metoxi del anillo aromático para dar lugar a DHB, el cual es hidroxilado en el mismo anillo para formar THB. DHMB se obtiene por hidroxilación del otro anillo aromático de BZ3 (Figura 2.4.). Además, también se encontraron los conjugados glucurónicos de fase II de BZ3 y sus metabolitos. Por otro lado, cabe comentar que en un estudio reciente llevado a cabo en microsomas de hígado de rata y humano (Kamikyouden et al., 2013) identificó metabolito, se un nuevo esto es, 2,5-dihidroxi-4metoxibenzofenona, en cantidades similares a DHB, por lo que estos autores lo consideran uno de los metabolitos principales *in vitro*, mientras que DHMB y THB no se detectaron. Las discrepancias entre unos autores y otros no quedan aclaradas, y estos últimos autores sostienen que sus conclusiones son factibles debido a que la posición 5 del anillo aromático es relativamente rica en electrones y puede ser fácilmente atacada por el citocromo P450.



Figura 2.4. Biotransformación de fase I del filtro UV BZ3 según los estudios in vivo

El **patrón de biotransformación del filtro UV MBC** fue elucidado administrando este compuesto por vía oral en ratas (Völkel *et al*, 2006). El análisis de los fluidos biológicos (orina, heces y plasma) empleando la técnica

de resonancia magnética nuclear de protón (¹H RMN) y la cromatografía de líquidos con detector de espectrometría de masas en tándem (LC-MS/MS) mostró la presencia de varios metabolitos de fase I. Concretamente, se observó el 3-(4-carboxibenciliden)canfor (CBC) y cuatro isómeros de 3-(4carboxibenciliden)hidroxicanfor (CBC-OH), siendo 3-(4-carboxibenciliden)-6hidroxicanfor (CBC-6OH) el isómero mayoritario. También se observaron los conjugados glucurónicos de CBC y CBC-OH. Sin embargo, el 3-(4hidroxibenciliden)canfor, que se trata de un compuesto intermedio encontrado en experimentos in vitro llevados a cabo mediante la incubación de MBC en microsomas de hígado de rata y humano, no se observó. En una publicación posterior, los mismos autores confirmaron sus resultados mediante el análisis de la orina y el plasma procedente de ratas y humanos a los cuales se les administró MBC tópicamente (Schauer et al., 2006). Estos autores concluyeron que CBC se forma por oxidación del grupo metoxi del anillo aromático y, posteriormente, este metabolito sufre una oxidación adicional dando lugar a CBC-OH (principalmente al isómero CBC-6OH) (Figura **2.5.**).



Figura 2.5. Biotransformación de fase I del filtro UV MBC

Las **reacciones de biotransformación para el EDP** fueron establecidas recientemente por nuestro grupo de investigación (León *et al.*, 2010 (b)). En primer lugar se llevaron a cabo experimentos *in vitro* empleando microsomas de hígado de rata. El EDP se incubó en estos microsomas en presencia de varios cofactores. En esas condiciones se identificaron, mediante análisis por GC-MS y LC-MS, dos metabolitos de fase I: el ácido N,N-dimetil-p-aminobenzoico (DMP) y el ácido N-monometil-p-aminobenzoico (MMP). Los resultados mostraron que el grupo éster del EDP se hidroliza perdiendo la cadena de 2-etilhexilo, dando lugar al DMP, el cual sufre una N-demetilación

formando el MMP. Este último también podría formarse directamente a partir de EDP (Figura 2.6).



Figura 2.6. Biotransformación de fase I del filtro UV EDP

Los metabolitos de fase II fueron estudiados considerando la glucuronidación y la acetilación. Así, se llevó a cabo la incubación de EDP en citosol de hígado de rata y en microsomas de hígado de rata y humano, conteniendo los correspondientes cofactores. Los productos de reacción se analizaron por LC-MS. En ningún caso se observó ningún metabolito de fase II. Posteriormente se realizó un estudio *in vivo* con voluntarios que se aplicaron una formulación cosmética que contenía EDP. La orina de los voluntarios fue analizada mediante LC-TOF/MS y LC-MS/MS. En este caso, a diferencia del estudio *in vitro* realizado anteriormente, se observaron conjugados glucurónidos de DMP y MMP, formados en mayor medida que los no conjugados (León-González *et al.*, 2011 (a)). Las razones por las que únicamente se detectaron metabolitos de fase II en condiciones *in vivo* podrían deberse a las diferencias en la biodisponibilidad de los compuestos químicos entre los sistemas *in vivo* e *in vitro* (Deglmann *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.4. Excreción.

En el organismo humano, una vez llevadas a cabo las reacciones de biotransformación, los filtros UV más hidrosolubles son excretados principalmente por la vía urinaria (Okereke *et al.*, 1993). Sin embargo, todas las secreciones corporales parecen tener la capacidad de excretar las sustancias químicas administradas externamente al cuerpo humano. Así pues,

también se han encontrado filtros UV en heces (Völkel *et al.*, 2006), leche materna (Hany *et al.*, 1995; Ye *et al.*, 2006; Ye *et al.*, 2008 (a)) y semen (León et al., 2010 (c), León-González et al., 2011 (b)). Concretamente, para el caso de BZ3 y sus metabolitos, diferentes estudios llevados a cabo en ratas muestran que la orina es la principal ruta de excreción (Okereke *et al.*, 1993; Okereke *et al.*, 1994; Kadry *et al.*, 1995), mientras que las heces son la principal vía de excreción en el caso de MBC y sus metabolitos (Völkel *et al.*, 2006; Schauer *et al.* 2006).

Para tener más información acerca del metabolismo de un compuesto, resulta interesante estudiar los niveles de concentración presentes, no sólo en el fluido biológico que suponga la principal vía de excreción, sino también en las minoritarias tanto de excreción como de expulsión. Así pues, con el ánimo de contribuir en este campo, en el **Capítulo 7** de la presente Tesis Doctoral se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación de MBC y su principal metabolito, CBC, en semen humano. Este trabajo complementa el anteriormente desarrollado por nuestro grupo de investigación para la determinación de este controvertido filtro UV y sus metabolitos en orina humana (León-González *et al.*, 2013).

2.3. EFECTOS ADVERSOS DE LA ABSORCIÓN PERCUTÁNEA Y METABOLISMO DE LOS FILTROS UV.

Los filtros UV se consideran seguros cuando son aplicados tópicamente en las condiciones establecidas. Sin embargo, la absorción percutánea de algunos de estos compuestos puede generar distintos efectos adversos para la salud, tales como dermatitis alérgica de contacto o fotoalergia de contacto (Berne y Ros, 1998; Ricci *et al.*, 1998; Alanko *et al.*, 2001; Darvay *et al.*, 2001; Maier y Korting, 2005), en ocasiones relacionadas con la ingesta de fármacos no esteroideos (de Groot *et al.*, 2014), y otros más preocupantes como alteraciones endocrinas (Ma *et al.*, 2003; Schreurs *et al.*, 2005; Gomez *et al.*, 2005; Wielogórska *et al.*, 2015) o incluso carcinogénesis o mutagénesis (Kerr, 1998; Schlumpf *et al.*, 2001). Además, hay que tener en cuenta los efectos adversos producidos por los metabolitos que se producen tras la biotransformación de los filtros UV, ya que estos compuestos permanecen

Introducción

Capítulo 2

más tiempo en el cuerpo humano que el compuesto inicial, por lo que sus efectos perjudiciales pueden ser más importantes (Jeon *et al.*, 2008). Tal y como se ha comentado anteriormente, los capítulos 6 y 7 de la presente Tesis Doctoral se basan en la determinación de BZ3 y sus metabolitos en suero humano (<u>Capítulo 6</u>) y en la determinación de MBC y su principal metabolito en semen humano (<u>Capítulo 7</u>), por lo que los efectos adversos derivados de la absorción percutánea de estos compuestos se comentan más detalladamente a continuación.

En el caso de BZ3, este filtro UV puede ser considerado un potencial alérgeno y un fotoalérgeno de contacto (Ricci et al., 1998; Berne et al., 1998, Darvay et al., 2001). Además, diferentes estudios in vitro empleando líneas celulares humanas indican que la exposición diaria a formulaciones conteniendo BZ3 podría producir efectos estrogénicos y antiandrogénicos en humanos (Schlumpf et al., 2001, Ma et al., 2003; Henewer et al., 2005; Wielogórska et al., 2015). Con respecto a los metabolitos de BZ3, cabe destacar que el DHB presenta mayor actividad estrogénica que el propio BZ3 (Molina-Molina et al., 2008; Watanabe et al., 2015) y que ambos exhiben un comportamiento estrogénico del mismo orden que otros disruptores endocrinos bien conocidos, como son el bisfenol A, el metoxicloro, endosulfán o dibutilftalato (Molina-Molina et al., 2008). Además, se ha demostrado que la genotoxicidad de las benzofenonas aumenta con el número de sustituyentes hidroxilo, siendo esta toxicidad menor si los sustituyentes están repartidos entre ambos anillos, por lo que THB presenta mayor genotoxicidad que BZ3 y el resto de metabolitos (Zhao et al., 2013). Por otro lado, se ha observado que el carácter estrogénico depende de la posición sustituída, de manera que si el grupo hidroxilo se encuentra en la posición número 4 los efectos de disrupción endocrina son mayores, seguidos de las posiciones 3 y 2, respectivamente. Este resultado sugiere que el grupo hidroxilo interactúa con el grupo carbonilo haciendo el esqueleto de la benzofenona más fijo. Por tanto, dependiendo de la posición del grupo hidroxilo, la parte hidrofóbica de la molécula se ajusta mejor al receptor endocrino (Kawamura et al., 2003).

En cuanto al MBC, ensayos *in vitro* han mostrado que este filtro UV tiene propiedades estrogénicas, antiandrogénicas y antiprogestagénicas (Kerr, 1998; Jiménez-Díaza *et al.*, 2013; Schreurs *et al.*, 2005; Henewer *et al.*, 2005;

48

Wielogórska et al., 2015), mientras que otros estudios in vivo evidencian su comportamiento estrogénico, el cual puede interferir en el desarrollo de los órganos femeninos reproductivos (aumento de peso uterino en ratas inmaduras) y del cerebro en ratas. así como provocar un retraso en el desarrollo de la pubertad masculina en las ratas y perturbar el comportamiento sexual de las ratas macho adultas ((chlumpf et al., 2004; Schlumpf et al., 2008; Maerkel et al., 2007; Carou et al., 2009; Durrer et al., 2007). Aunque son muchos los autores que han demostrado el carácter estrogénico de este filtro UV, otros investigadores no han llegado a las mismas conclusiones con sus estudios. Así, Mueller et al. (2003) concluyen que es poco probable que MBC induzca efectos estrogénicos en humanos y animales debido a que los efectos estrogénicos producidos in vitro son muy débiles. En ese caso, al igual que para el resto de xenobióticos, no hay que obviar los posibles efectos adversos debidos a los metabolitos producidos tras la biotransformación de este compuesto. De hecho, en algunos casos la actividad estrogénica del MBC se ha relacionado directamente con su bioactivación en metabolitos con una mayor potencia estrogénica (Völkel et al., 2006). En cuando a los estudios alergénicos, el MBC, al igual que BZ3, puede ser considerado un fotoalergeno de contacto (Ricci et al., 1998).

La preocupación por los posibles efectos adversos de los filtros UV ha dado lugar a la elaboración de directrices con el fin de minimizar sus impactos negativos. Además de los esfuerzos para diseñar formulaciones preparadas con sustancias que presenten baja toxicidad, se han regulado las concentraciones máximas permitidas para estos compuestos, tratando de llegar a un compromiso entre la protección solar adecuada y los efectos secundarios mínimos para los usuarios. En la mayoría de los casos, las concentraciones permitidas para los filtros UV orgánicos no superan el 10 %, como se observó en la *Tabla 1.1* del **Capítulo 1**, aunque el valor concreto depende del compuesto específico y de la legislación en vigor.

2.4. MÉTODOS DE ANÁLISIS PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN DE BZ3 Y MBC, Y SUS METABOLITOS, EN FLUIDOS BIOLÓGICOS.

Los métodos analíticos desarrollados para determinar filtros UV y sus metabolitos en fluidos y tejidos biológicos han sido recientemente recopilados en un artículo de revisión de nuestro grupo de investigación (Chisvert *et al.*, 2012). De todos ellos, se comentan a continuación con mayor detalle aquellos enfocados a la determinación de BZ3 y MBC, ya que estos han sido, junto con sus metabolitos, los filtros UV estudiados en esta Tesis Doctoral en fluidos biológicos, tal y como se ha comentado anteriormente.

En el caso de BZ3, los estudios sobre su farmacocinética han mostrado su presencia en sangre, leche materna, semen y diferentes tejidos, siendo la orina la principal vía de excreción. En cuanto a la determinación de BZ3, individualmente o junto con sus metabolitos, en muestras de suero o plasma, se han publicado diferentes métodos analíticos, la mayoría de ellos basados en cromatografía de líquidos, ya sea con detector UV/Vis (Abdel-Nabi *et al.*, 1992; Okereke *et al.*, 1993; Okereke *et al.*, 1994; Kadry *et al.*, 1995; Jiang *et al.*, 1996; Sarveiya *et al.*, 2004; Kasichayanula *et al.*, 2005; Kasichayanula *et al.*, 2007; Janjua *et al.*, 2008; Fediuk *et al.*, 2010; Fediuk *et al.*, 2012) o con detección mediante espectrometría de masas en tándem (MS/MS) (Ye *et al.*, 2008 (b); Zhang T *et al.*, Tarazona *et al.*, 2013 (**Capítulo 6**); 2013; Vela-Soria *et al.*, 2014;). La cromatografía de gases ha sido menos empleada debido a la baja volatilidad de los analitos. En este caso, es aconsejable la derivatización de los compuestos previa a la inyección (Jeon *et al.*, 2008).

Por otro lado, los estudios farmacocinéticos de MBC muestran su presencia en el torrente sanguíneo, orina y heces, siendo esta última su principal vía de excreción (Völkel *et al.*, 2006). Aunque estos estudios proporcionan resultados interesantes acerca del metabolismo, los estudios relacionados con el metabolismo de MBC son muy escasos. De hecho, sólo se pueden encontrar tres trabajos en la bibliografía (Völkel *et al.*, 2006; Schauer *et al.*, 2006; y el desarrollado por nuestro grupo de investigación: León-González *et al.*, 2013) centrados en la determinación de MBC y sus metabolitos en fluidos biológicos, concretamente en orina y plasma. Así pues, la falta de métodos analíticos disponibles y correctamente validados (ya que únicamente León-González *et*

Introducción

al. Ilevan a cabo la validación del método analítico desarrollado), evidencia la necesidad de desarrollar nuevos métodos exactos y precisos. En este contexto, para elucidar de manera más correcta el comportamiento metabólico de este filtro UV, se recomienda extender el estudio de MBC y sus metabolitos a un mayor número de matrices biológicas que sean otras rutas potenciales de excreción o expulsión de este compuesto xenobiótico. Concretamente, el semen ha sido propuesto como una ruta alternativa de expulsión que ha sido escasamente estudiada para los filtros UV (León *et al.*, 2010 (b); León-González *et al.* 2011 (b)). Sin embargo, en trabajos recientes se ha sugerido que los filtros UV podrían afectar a la calidad del semen (Buck Louis *et al.*, 2014 (a)) y estar asociados con un descenso en la fecundidad, aumentando el tiempo necesario para que se produzca el embarazo (Buck Louis *et al.*, 2014 (b)), por lo que las investigaciones en este fluido biológico resultan actualmente muy interesantes.

Con el fin de llevar a cabo la determinación fiable de los compuestos estudiados, es necesario hidrolizar los conjugados de fase II (ver Sección 2.1.2.). En caso contrario, sólo se determinaría el contenido libre y la fracción conjugada no se consideraría. En cualquier caso, la diferencia entre el contenido total (con etapa de hidrólisis) y el contenido libre (sin etapa de hidrólisis) resulta en el contenido conjugado. Así pues, este paso de hidrólisis puede llevarse a cabo con ácido clorhídrico y a temperatura elevada (hidrólisis ácida) o con la enzima β -glucuronidasa/sulfatasa (hidrólisis enzimática). La hidrólisis ácida rompe los enlaces entre los compuestos estudiados con el ácido glucurónico y también provoca la desnaturalización de las proteínas, con su posterior precipitación. En la hidrólisis enzimática se añaden disolventes orgánicos, principalmente acetonitrilo puro o mezclado con etanol, con el fin de precipitar las proteínas que la muestra pueda contener.

Además, teniendo en cuenta que las muestras biológicas presentan matrices muy complejas donde los filtros UV se encuentran a nivel de trazas, la muestra hidrolizada y sin proteínas, generalmente, se somete a un proceso de extracción con el fin de eliminar los compuestos potencialmente interferentes y concentrar los analitos. En este sentido, para la determinación de BZ3 y sus metabolitos en suero se ha empleado la extracción líquido-líquido (LLE, del inglés *liquid-liquid extraction*) (Okereke *et al.*, 1993; Okereke *et al.*, 1994;

51

Capítulo 2

Kadry *et al.*, 1995; Jeon *et al.*, 2008), la extracción en fase sólida (SPE, del inglés *solid phase extraction*) (Ye *et al.*, 2008 (b); Fediuk *et al.*, 2010; Fediuk *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2013) y, más recientemente, la microextracción líquidolíquido dispersiva (DLLME, del inglés *dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction*) (Tarazona *et al.*, 2013 (<u>Capítulo 6</u>); Vela-Soria *et al.*, 2014). Para la determinación de MBC y sus metabolitos en plasma y orina se han empleado la LLE y la SPE (Völkel *et al.*, 2006; Schauer *et al.*, 2006; León-González *et al.*, 2013), mientras que para la determinación de estos compuestos en heces se ha empleado la extracción Soxhlet tras liofilizar las muestras (Völkel *et al.*, 2006).

Así, el objetivo del trabajo presentado en el **Capítulo 6** (Tarazona *et al.*, 2013) ha sido desarrollar un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (es decir, libre más conjugado) del filtro UV BZ3 y de sus principales metabolitos (DHB y DHMB) en suero humano. El método se basa en el uso de DLLME como técnica de microextracción previa a la determinación por LC-MS/MS. El metabolito minoritario, THB, fue excluido finalmente del estudio porque no se extraía eficientemente ni con una precisión adecuada, probablemente debido a su mayor polaridad. En cualquier caso, se ha demostrado que se forma en cantidades insignificantes en plasma en comparación con los otros dos metabolitos (Okereke *et al.*, 1994; Jeon *et al.*, 2008; Kasichayanula *et al.*, 2005; Kasichayanula *et al.*, 2007)

No hay evidencias anteriores al trabajo desarrollado en el **Capítulo 6** de la presente Tesis Doctoral acerca del uso de técnicas de microextracción de alto potencial, como la DLLME, desarrollada por Assadi y sus colaboradores en 2006 (Rezaee *et al.*, 2006) para la determinación de BZ3 y sus metabolitos en suero humano.

Por otro lado, el objetivo del **Capítulo 7** de la presente Tesis Doctoral ha sido desarrollar un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (es decir, libre más conjugado) del filtro UV MBC y de su principal metabolito (CBC) en semen humano. El método se basa en el uso de SPE como técnica de extracción y limpieza previa a la determinación por LC-MS/MS. El metabolito minonitario, CBC-OH, fue monitorizado en las muestras de semen pero no fue

validado debido a la falta de patrón comercialmente disponible. En cualquier caso, no se detectó en ninguna de las muestras.

Tampoco existe ningún antecedente acerca de la determinación de MBC y sus metabolitos en semen humano.

Las técnicas de extracción empleadas en los trabajos desarrollados se encuentran detalladas en el **Capítulo 4**.

CAPÍTULO 3

LOS FILTROS UV EN EL MEDIO AMBIENTE

3.1.LOS FILTROS UV: CONTAMINANTES EMERGENTES.

Debido a la creciente preocupación por los efectos perjudiciales derivados de la radiación UV procedente del sol (ver <u>Capítulo 1</u>) el uso de productos cosméticos para la protección solar ha aumentado considerablemente durante los últimos años. La innovación en productos cosméticos para la protección solar junto con una mayor concienciación frente a los peligros que puede acarrear la exposición indebida a la radiación solar, se ha traducido en un uso masivo de productos cosméticos que contienen filtros UV en su formulación.

Así pues, cada vez son más los productos cosméticos de uso diario que contienen filtros UV en su formulación, como cremas hidratantes, productos para después del afeitado, champús, cremas anti-arrugas, productos de maquillaje, etc (Chisvert *et al.*, 2007). Como consecuencia de ello, estos compuestos alcanzan el medio ambiente acuático por medio de diferentes vías, tanto directas como indirectas (Giokas *et al.*, 2007; Díaz-Cruz MS *et al.*, 2009). Así, pueden incorporarse directamente a partir de actividades de ocio, como nadar y tomar el sol al aire libre en las playas, ríos o lagos, o a través de vertidos de aguas residuales procedentes de la industria, mientras que de manera indirecta pueden llegar a través de las plantas de tratamiento de aguas residuales procedentes de vertidos industriales y también al lavar la ropa o ducharse, así como aguas fecales procedentes de la excreción de los usuarios de productos cosméticos conteniendo filtros UV (ver **Figura 3.1**)



Figura 3.1. Representación esquemática de las distintas formas en que los filtros UV pueden alcanzar el medio ambiente

Introducción

Capítulo 3

En este sentido, estos compuestos pueden encontrarse en aguas superficiales (río, lagos y mares u océanos), aguas residuales, suelos, lodos y biota. Además, se trata de compuestos con una fotoestabilidad elevada, muchos de ellos altamente lipofílicos (log K_{ow} 3-7) y relativamente estables en el medio ambiente acuático, lo que hace que sean susceptibles de bioacumularse en él (Poiger *et al.*, 2004; Balmer *et al.*, 2005).

Tal como se ha mencionado en el Capítulo 2, diferentes estudios in vitro e in vivo han puesto de manifiesto que algunos filtros UV (así como sus metabolitos) poseen cierta actividad de disrupción hormonal. En lo que al medio ambiente respecta, la exposición a largo plazo a estos compuestos podría afectar a la reproducción de los peces, incluso a bajas concentraciones, ya que los filtros UV pueden actuar de forma aditiva (Heneweer et al., 2005) y además bioacumularse en el organismo de los peces debido al carácter liposoluble de algunos de ellos (Gago-Ferrero et al., 2015). En varios estudios se ha observado que algunos filtros UV pueden inducir la formación de la vitelogenina (proteína responsable de producir los huevos en los peces hembras) en peces macho (Inui et al., 2003; Kunz et al., 2006; Weisbrod et al., 2007), así como la feminización de las características sexuales secundarias de los peces macho, la alteración de las gónadas de peces machos y hembras, y la disminución de la fertilidad (Fent et al, 2008; Díaz-Cruz et al., 2009; Weisbrod et al., 2007), en algunos casos relacionada con un descenso en la viabilidad de los huevos (Coronado et al., 2008). Además, la exposición de los peces a concentraciones relativamente elevadas de estos compuestos (700 ng L⁻¹ aproximadamente) puede incluso provocar la muerte de algunos de ellos (Kunz et al., 2006). Por otro lado, también se ha estudiado cómo algunos filtros UV (concretamente MBC y 3-BC) pueden interferir en el sistema tiroideo y en las hormonas sexuales durante la metamorfosis de las ranas (Kunz et al., 2004). En este caso, la tasa de metamorfosis no se vio afectada, y no se observaron diferencias evidentes en el cuerpo y en la longitud de la cola. Así pues, los resultados indican que ninguno de los filtros UV estudiados afectan negativamente al sistema tiroideo ni tampoco a la proporción de sexos de las ranas, en concentraciones ambientales. Sin embargo, los autores indican que no pueden descartarse otros efectos en el sistema hormonal sexual.

Capítulo 3

Por las razones anteriormente comentadas, los filtros UV han sido considerados recientemente como **contaminantes emergentes** y se incluyen desde 2005 en los prestigiosos artículos de revisión anuales de Richardson en la revista Analytical Chemistry acerca de la determinación de este tipo de contaminantes en muestras de agua ambientales (Richardson, 2005), el último de ellos publicado en 2014 (Richardson, 2014).

Aunque las concentraciones necesarias para causar estas alteraciones en peces son superiores a las encontradas en el medio ambiente, no se encuentran muy por debajo, siendo ambas del orden de ng L⁻¹. Además, las exposiciones a largo plazo y el hecho de que estos compuestos se bioacumulen, podrían causar efectos a largo plazo incluso a bajas concentraciones. También es necesario tener en cuenta que, una vez que estas sustancias alcanzan el medio ambiente, pueden interaccionar con otros xenoestrógenos, incrementándose así su toxicidad. Por otra parte, para una adecuada evaluación del riesgo ambiental parece esencial tener en cuenta no sólo que estos compuestos se presentan en forma de mezclas multicomponente, sino también que estos compuestos generan productos de degradación, entre ellos los posibles metabolitos, que están presentes simultáneamente en el medio ambiente.

Resulta por tanto interesante incluir estos compuestos en los controles medioambientales para detectar la presencia o ausencia de los mismos, así como determinar su concentración, con la finalidad última de poder estimar el nivel de toxicidad en dicho medio. En este sentido se han desarrollado los **Capítulos 8 y 9** de la presente Tesis Doctoral, con el objetivo de desarrollar métodos analíticos para la determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua de mar y de ocho filtros UV liposolubles en arena de playa. Los antecedentes acerca de la determinación de estos compuestos en este tipo de muestras ambientales se comentan a continuación.

3.2. MÉTODOS DE ANÁLISIS PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN DE FILTROS UV EN AGUAS Y SUELOS DE ORIGEN MEDIOAMBIENTAL

Los distintos métodos analíticos desarrollados para la determinación de filtros UV en aguas de origen medioambiental han sido recopilados en varios

Capítulo 3

artículos de revisión disponibles en la bibliografía (Giokas *et al.*, 2007; Díaz-Cruz *et al.*, 2008; Díaz-Cruz *et al.*, 2009; Gago-Ferrero *et al.*, 2013; Richardson, 2014). Las concentraciones encontradas varían de unos pocos a miles ng L⁻¹, dependiendo del filtro UV y del tipo de agua estudiada (ríos, lagos, mares, océanos, aguas subterráneas o aguas residuales tratadas o sin tratar), siendo las mayores las encontradas en aguas residuales sin tratar. Las concentraciones encontradas en agua de mar resultaron ser menores, probablemente debido a la dilución, mientras que las aguas subterráneas parecen ser preservadas ya que no se detectaron filtros UV en ellas (Gago-Ferrero *et al.*, 2013).

Aunque la mayoría de las publicaciones acerca del desarrollo de métodos de análisis para la determinación de filtros UV en muestras de origen medioambiental se centran en el análisis de muestras de agua ambientales, también se pueden encontrar distintos métodos analíticos enfocados a la determinación de estos compuestos en muestras de suelo medioambiental (Gago-Ferrero *et al.*, 2013). Así, se han desarrollado distintos métodos anaíticos para la determinación de estos compuestos en sedimentos de ríos y/o lagos (Ricking *et al.*, 2003; Jeon *et al.*, 2006; Rodil *et al.*, 2008; Gago-Ferrero *et al.*, 2011; Barón *et al.*, 2013), de bahías (Schwarzbauer *et al.*, 2000; Barón *et al.*, 2013) o marinos (*Tsui et al.*, 2015); en tierra procedente de zonas residenciales, parques, industriales o agrícolas (Jeon *et al.*, 2006; Sánchez-Brunete *et al.*, 2011), en lodos de depuradora (Plagellat *et al.*, 2006; Rodil *et al.*, 2006; Rodil *et al.*, 2009; Nieto *et al.*, 2010; Wick *et al.*, 2010; Wick *et al.*, 2011), en suelos fertilizados con estos lodos (Sánchez-Brunete *et al.*, 2011) e incluso en polvo de interiores (Negreira *et al.*, 2009 (c)).

Por tanto, se han desarrollado un gran número de métodos analíticos para la determinación de filtros UV en muestras ambientales. La mayoría de ellos se basan en técnicas cromatográficas acopladas a un espectrómetro de masas como detector, ya que permite alcanzar una buena sensibilidad y bajos límites de detección. Por otra parte, también se emplean técnicas de preconcentración y/o limpieza para mejorar la sensibilidad y los límites de detección y/o para eliminar los compuestos presentes en la matriz de la muestra que pueden ser potencialmente interferentes.

60
Capítulo 3

De todos los trabajos disponibles en la bibliografía científica, a continuación se comenta de forma más detallada aquellos centrados tanto en la determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua, como en la determinación de mezclas de filtros UV lipófilos en sedimentos, ya que estos han sido los compuestos determinados en los métodos analíticos desarrollados en la presente Tesis Doctoral, y resumidos en los **Capítulos 8 y 9**, respectivamente.

3.2.1. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en muestras de agua

La determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en muestras de agua se ha llevado a cabo principalmente mediante el empleo de la cromatografía de gases (GC) y el uso previo de técnicas de extracción, como se ha comentado anteriormente. Así pues, en los primeros trabajos publicados se empleó la extracción líquido-líquido (LLE) (Jeon et al., 2006). Posteriormente, se emplearon técnicas de extracción de mayor potencial que la LLE, como la SPE (Ho et al., 2012), la SBSE (del inglés, stir bar sorptive extraction) (Kawaguchi et al., 2006; Kawaguchi et al., 2008 (b)), la SDME (del inglés single drop microextraction) (Okanouchi et al., 2008), o la SPME (del inglés solid phase microextraction) (Negreira et al., 2009 (a); Li et al., 2013). En todos los casos, el extracto obtenido fue analizado por GC acoplada a espectrometría de masas simple (MS) o en tándem (MS/MS). Cabe comentar, que en algunos casos, con el fin de aumentar la sensibilidad del método, se ha llevado a cabo una etapa de derivatización de los filtros UV previa a la invección en el sistema cromatográfico de gases (Kawaguchi et al., 2008 (b), Ho et al., 2012). En algún trabajo se ha empleado la cromatografía de líquidos (LC) acoplada a MS/MS tras la extracción de los analitos mediante SPE (Negreira et al., 2009 (b); Jurado et al., 2014), o empleando un espectrómetro UV/Vis (Li et al., 2014) como detector tras llevar a cabo SPME.

Una buena alternativa a las técnicas de microextracción mencionadas anteriormente es la DLLME (Rezaee *et al.*, 2006). Debido a las varias ventajas que esta técnica de extracción presenta (como mayor rapidez y sencillez de operación, bajo coste, elevados factores de enriquecimiento y bajo consumo de disolvente orgánico) se ha convertido en una técnica de extracción muy

popular que se ha utilizado para la determinación de compuestos tanto orgánicos como inorgánicos en diferentes tipos de muestras (Rezaee *et al.*, 2010).

El objetivo del trabajo presentado en el <u>Capítulo 8</u> de la presente Tesis Doctoral (Tarazona *et al.*, 2010) ha sido el desarrollo de un método analítico respetuoso tanto con el usuario como con el medio ambiente, sensible, rápido y económico para la determinación de cuatro benzofenonas hidroxiladas (BZ3, DHB, DHMB y THB) en muestras de agua de mar a nivel de trazas. El método se basa en el empleo de DLLME como etapa de extracción, la cual permite llevar a cabo tanto la preconcentración de los analitos como la limpieza de la muestra, y la derivatización de los analitos previa al análisis mediante GC-MS.

Cabe destacar que previo al desarrollo del método analítico propuesto, sólo en uno de los trabajos presentes en la bibliografía científica (Jeon *et al.*, 2006) se determinaban las cuatro benzofenonas hidroxiladas propuestas para el estudio en muestras de agua. Sin embargo, la técnica de extracción empleada en este estudio fue la LLE clásica, la cual presenta diversos inconvenientes, por lo que ha sido superada con creces por las recientes técnicas de microextracción en fase líquida (entre ellas la DLLME).

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa al trabajo desarrollado en el **Capítulo 8** referente al empleo de la DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV ni en aguas ni en ningún otro tipo de matriz. Sin embargo, el empleo de esta técnica en la determinación de filtros UV en aguas ha ido aumentando notablemente con posterioridad a la publicación del trabajo comentado. Así, ha sido utilizada en varias ocasiones en diferentes modalidades para la determinación de filtros UV en muestras de agua (Negreira *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Celano *et al.*, 2012; Ge *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2012(a); Zhang *et al.*, 2012 (b); Wu *et al.*, 2013; Ku *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2015).

3.2.2. Métodos de análisis para la determinación de filtros UV en muestras de suelo ambiental

La determinación de filtros UV en sedimentos o lodos se he llevado a cabo extrayendo los componentes de la muestra sólida seca en diversos disolventes orgánicos, tales como metanol, acetona, acetato de etilo, o mezcla de ellos, generalmente en varias etapas consecutivas (Schwarzbauer et al., 2000; Ricking et al., 2003; Jeon et al., 2006; Plagellat et al., 2006). Como esta técnica de extracción tradicional requiere mucho tiempo y también requiere el empleo de grandes cantidades de disolventes orgánicos, se ha optado en ocasiones por el empleo de ultrasonidos para acelerar la extracción (Sánchez-Brunete et al., 2011). En otros casos, se han empleado técnicas de extracción más recientes y de mayor potencial, tales como la extracción con líguidos presurizados (PLE, del inglés pressurized liquid extraction) (Rodil et al., 2008; Gago-Ferrero et al., 2011; Rodil et al., 2009; Nieto et al., 2010; Wick et al., 2010; Wick et al., 2011; Barón et al., 2013; Tsui et al., 2015) o la dispersión de matriz en fase sólida (MSPD, del inglés matrix solid phase dispersion) (Negreira et al., 2009 (c)). Con el uso de estas técnicas, tanto el consumo de disolvente orgánico como el tiempo requerido para llevar a cabo la extracción se reducen considerablemente. Sin embargo, en PLE, los analitos a veces se diluyen, especialmente cuando se utiliza un elevado número de ciclos, y también pueden coextraerse muchos interferentes, por lo que se requiere una limpieza adicional y/o etapa de preconcentración en algunos casos (Rodil et al., 2009; Wick et al., 2010; Gago-Ferrero et al., 2011; Barón et al., 2013). Después de llevar a cabo el tratamiento de la muestra, el extracto obtenido se analizó en la mayoría de los casos por LC, acoplada principalmente con un detector de MS/MS (Rodil et al., 2009; Nieto et al., 2010; Wick et al., 2010; Wick et al., 2011; Gago-Ferrero et al., 2011; Barón et al., 2013; Tsui et al., 2015). El detector de espectrometría UV/Vis también ha sido empleado en ocasiones ya que los filtros UV presentan una alta capacidad para absorber la radiación UV (Plagellat et al., 2006). Sin embargo, debido a que estos compuestos se encuentran en nivel de trazas en las muestras ambientales, el empleo del detector de MS es aconsejable ya que éste es más sensible que el de espectrometría UV/Vis. La cromatografía de gases (GC) acoplada a un detector de MS o MS/MS también se ha empleado en algunos casos (Jeon et al., 2006;

Plagellat *et al.*, 2006; Rodil *et al.*, 2008; Negreira *et al.*, 2009; Sánchez-Brunete *et al.*, 2011). En varios de estos trabajos se ha llevado a cabo la derivatización previa de los analitos para aumentar su volatilidad y mejorar la sensibilidad del método (Jeon *et al.*, 2006; Rodil *et al.*, 2008; Sánchez-Brunete *et al.*, 2011).

Tal y como se ha comentado anteriormente, la DLLME resulta una buena alternativa a las técnicas de extracción comentadas. Sin embargo, no ha sido empleada para la determinación de filtros UV en muestras de sedimentos, muy probablemente debido a que se trata de muestras sólidas. Sin embargo, en este tipo de muestras, el lixiviado de los compuestos estudiados de la matriz de la muestra previa al procedimiento de extracción puede solventar este inconveniente.

En este sentido, el objetivo del trabajo descrito en el **Capítulo 9** de la presente Tesis Doctoral (Tarazona *et al.*, 2014) ha sido emplear el alto potencial de la DLLME para la determinación en muestras de arena procedente de la orilla de distintas playas de los ocho filtros UV orgánicos más utilizados en productos cosméticos. El método desarrollado, que se espera sea utilizado en estudios de control medioambiental, se basa en la lixiviación de los analitos de la muestra de sedimento previa a la DLLME y seguida del análisis por GC-MS.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa al trabajo desarrollado referente al empleo de la DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV en muestras de sedimento.

CAPÍTULO 4

TÉCNICAS DE EXTRACCIÓN

4.1. TÉCNICAS DE EXTRACCIÓN.

La determinación de compuestos a nivel de trazas normalmente requiere de un proceso de extracción que permita, además de separar el analito del resto de los componentes de la matriz, conseguir su preconcentración. Esta es una de las etapas más importantes y críticas del procedimiento analítico, debido a la elevada manipulación que sufre la muestra.

A continuación se van a comentar las técnicas de extracción más empleadas en los procedimientos analíticos, haciendo especial hincapié en las empleadas en la presente Tesis Doctoral: la extracción en fase sólida (<u>Capítulo 7</u>) y la microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva (<u>Capítulos 6, 8 y 9</u>).

La técnica de extracción tradicional más empleada ha sido la **extracción líquido-líquido** (LLE, del inglés *liquid-liquid extraction*), basada en la transferencia de los analitos desde un disolvente determinado a otro inmiscible y por el que los analitos presentan mayor afinidad. Sin embargo, su uso ha ido disminuyendo con el paso de los años, ya que es una técnica relativamente tediosa y que requiere el consumo de elevadas cantidades de disolventes orgánicos de elevada toxicidad, lo que además de suponer un coste elevado resulta perjudicial tanto para el usuario como para el medio ambiente debido al gran volumen de residuos generados. Asimismo, la LLE requiere varias extracciones sucesivas para alcanzar rendimientos elevados y, a menudo, ocasiona resultados inexactos debido a pérdidas de analitos. Otro inconveniente adicional de este tipo de extracción es la formación de emulsiones, cuya eliminación supone un incremento adicional en el tiempo de extracción.

En los últimos años se han realizado numerosas investigaciones para el desarrollo de nuevas técnicas de extracción con mejores rendimientos, más rápidas y reproducibles y que, además, permitan el empleo de volúmenes menores de disolventes y de muestra. En cuanto a las técnicas de extracción basadas en el empleo de un material sorbente, se desarrolló en primer lugar la denominada **extracción en fase sólida** (SPE, del inglés *solid-phase extraction*) que consiste en el empleo de cartuchos o discos de extracción que contienen un sorbente sólido que retiene al analito. Esta técnica de extracción requiere

Introducción

Capítulo 4

de cuatro etapas: acondicionamiento de los cartuchos o discos, carga de muestra, lavado y, finalmente, elución de los analitos en un pequeño volumen de disolvente por el que los analitos presenten mayor afinidad que por la fase estacionaria del cartucho o disco. Aunque se consigue disminuir el gran consumo de disolvente necesario en LLE, el tiempo necesario para llevar a cabo la extracción es considerable y, en ocasiones, se requiere un volumen más o menos grande de disolvente de elución que necesita ser evaporado para preconcentrar el extracto obtenido. Por otro lado, con un material adecuado se puede realizar un número de extracciones relativamente alto y además puede llevarse a cabo su automatización.

Con el fin de subsanar los inconvenientes mencionados, a principios de los años 90, Pawliszyn y sus colaboradores (Arthur et al., 1990) desarrollaron la que denominaron microextracción en fase sólida (SPME, del inglés solidphase microextraction), en la que los analitos presentes en la muestra se extraen en una fibra de sílice fundida, químicamente inerte, recubierta de un polímero adsorbente, y situada en el extremo de una aguja. La fibra puede sumergirse en una disolución, trabajando en modalidad de inmersión directa o bien se puede trabajar en modo de espacio de cabeza. Esta técnica presenta la ventaja de permitir la desorción directa en el puerto de inyección de un sistema de cromatografía de gases (GC), reduciendo el número de etapas en el proceso de extracción, pero, en cambio, requiere un equipo adicional para la desorción en el caso de utilizar un sistema de cromatografía de líquidos (LC), o bien disolverlo en un volumen más o menos grande de disolvente, lo cual provoca la dilución del extracto. Además, las fibras son frágiles y con un tiempo de vida limitado, ya que tienden a degradarse con el uso, y en ocasiones presentan diferencias entre lotes, lo que puede ocasionar resultados erróneos. Por otro lado, el tiempo necesario para llevar a cabo la extracción cuantitativa de los analitos es muy elevado, y generalmente no se consigue alcanzar el equilibrio en los tiempos de trabajo establecidos (se necesitarían tiempos extremadamente largos para alcanzar el equilibrio).

La **extracción por sorción sobre barra agitadora** (SBSE, del inglés *stir bar sorptive extraction*), se basa en el mismo principio que la SPME, pero el sorbente sólido recubre una barra agitadora en lugar de estar colocado sobre una fibra fina. De este modo se consigue una superficie mucho mayor que en

Introducción

Capítulo 4

el caso de la SPME. En esta técnica, la barra agitadora se introduce dentro de la muestra acuosa, y se agita la disolución durante un tiempo determinado para favorecer la extracción de los analitos. La desorción de los analitos se produce térmicamente en el caso de utilizar un equipo de GC, para lo cual se necesita un equipo adicional de desorción térmica, o bien sumergiendo la barra en un disolvente adecuado, lo que provoca la dilución del extracto. La principal limitación de esta técnica es la dificultad de automatización, el tiempo de vida limitado que poseen las barras, las diferencias entre lotes y que además no existe gran diversidad de sorbentes (Sarafraz-Yazdi *et al.*, 2010; Rezaee *et al.*, 2010). Por otro lado, al igual que en el caso de la SPME, el tiempo necesario para conseguir la extracción cuantitativa de los analitos es elevado, sin llegar a alcanzarse el equilibrio.

La **extracción en fase sólida dispersiva** (DSPE, del inglés *dispersive solid phase extraction*) fue presentada en 2003 por Anastassiades y colaboradores (Anastassiades *et al.*, 2003). En este caso, un sorbente particulado, generalmente sílice modificada superficialmente, se dispersa en la disolución a extraer, de modo que la superficie de contacto fase dadora-sorbente es muy elevada. Después de la extracción, el sorbente conteniendo los analitos se separa por centrifugación, y se procede a su elución mediante resuspensión en un disolvente adecuado. El método se conoce habitualmente como QuEChERS, que son las abreviaciones de *quick, easy, cheap, effective, rugged* and *safe* (rápido, fácil, barato, efectivo, robusto y seguro). Cabe comentar que se ha propuesto el uso de nanopartículas magnéticas modificadas superficie de contacto debido a su tamaño nanométrico, y por otra se puede recuperar el sorbente sometiendo la dispersión al campo magnético de un imán (Shen *et al.,* 2007).

A mediados de los años 90 comenzaron a desarrollarse técnicas de **microextracción en fase líquida** (LPME, del inglés *liquid phase microextraction*) como una alternativa a las técnicas de microextracción en fase sólida (SPE, SPME y SBSE). Las técnicas de LPME son una clara miniaturización de la LLE donde el volumen de disolvente empleado como fase aceptora se reduce drásticamente, llegando incluso a emplearse sólo unos pocos microlitos y alcanzándose mayores factores de preconcentración.

Capítulo 4

Existen tres modalidades principales de trabajo en LPME: la **microextracción en gota** (SDME, del inglés *single drop microextraction*), la **microextracción líquida con fibra hueca** (HF-LLME, del inglés *hollow fiber liquid-liquid microextraction*) y la **microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva** (DLLME, del inglés *dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction*).

En primer lugar se desarrolló la modalidad SDME en la que una gota de disolvente extractante de tan sólo 1-10 µL se suspende en el extremo de la punta de una jeringa, la cual se sumerge en una disolución o se mantiene en el espacio de cabeza (Psillakis et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2007). Después de un tiempo preestablecido, la gota se recoge en la jeringa y se invecta en el sistema cromatográfico, ya sea LC o GC. A pesar de ser una técnica que requiere un elevado consumo de tiempo y en la que no se alcanza el equilibrio, presenta las ventajas de su bajo coste económico y de un mínimo consumo de disolvente, ya que sólo consume entre 1-10 µL por extracción. Sin embargo presenta el problema adicional de inestabilidad de la gota, por lo que se trata de una técnica poco robusta que exige un trabajo muy cuidadoso ya que la gota puede desprenderse de la aguja durante la extracción (Rasmussen et al., 2004). Para solucionar este problema, en 1999 se propuso la modalidad HF-LLME, en la que el disolvente extractante se introduce en el interior de una fibra hueca porosa sujeta en la aguja de una jeringa, de manera que la fibra protege mecánicamente la "gota". De esta manera, el disolvente permanece en el lumen y en los poros de la fibra, formando la llamada membrana líquida soportada. Además, se puede trabajar en sistemas de tres fases, de forma que los compuestos se extraen de una disolución acuosa a través de un disolvente orgánico que forma la membrana líquida soportada y vuelven a extraerse a otra disolución acuosa con el pH convenientemente ajustado situado en el lumen de la fibra hueca (Pedersen-Bjergaard et al., 1999; Chisvert, 2012). Generalmente, la eficacia de la extracción es mayor que en SDME, ya que el empleo de la fibra permite realizar agitación vigorosa para acelerar la cinética de la extracción sin peligro de desprendimiento de la gota como en el caso de SDME. Sin embargo, en HF-LLME la reproducibilidad es baja, debido a que la preparación de la fibra se realiza de forma manual (Dietz et al., 2006). En este punto cabe comentar que se han desarrollado otros enfoques de LPME basados en el uso de

Capítulo 4

membranas, tales como la extracción líquido-líquido con membrana microporosa en vial asistida por agitación orbital (March *et al.*, 2009), la extracción sobre membrana agitada (SME, del *inglés stir membrane extraction*) (Alcudia-León *et al.*, 2009) y la microextracción líquido-líquido asistida por membrana agitada (SM-LLME, del inglés *stir membrane liquidliquid microextractioin*) (Alcudia-León *et al.*, 2011). Todas estas técnicas de extracción que hacen uso de membranas han sido agrupadas bajo el término microextracción líquido-liquido asistida por membranas (MALLME, del inglés *membrane assisted liquid-liquid microextraction*). Estas técnicas suelen requerir tiempos de extracción muy elevados, y con frecuencia el estado de equilibrio no se suele alcanzar, debido principalmente a la pequeña zona de contacto entre las fases dadora y aceptora.

En 2006, Assadi y colaboradores desarrollaron la DLLME (Rezaee et al., 2006), que se ha convertido, desde su aparición, en una técnica de extracción de uso muy extendido (Rezaee et al., 2010; Zgoła-Grześkowiak et al., 2011). La DLLME consiste en un sistema de disolventes ternario, en el que unos pocos microlitros del disolvente de extracción, generalmente más denso que el agua, se mezclan con el denominado disolvente dispersante. Posteriormente, esta mezcla se inyecta en el seno de la muestra acuosa, de modo que el disolvente dispersante provoca la dispersión del extractante en el seno de la fase dadora, formando múltiples gotas. Tras la extracción, la separación de fases se realiza por centrifugación. La fase sedimentada, conteniendo los analitos, se recoge y se puede invectar directamente en el sistema cromatográfico (Rezaee et al., 2006). Esta técnica ofrece varias ventajas importantes con respecto a las ya mencionadas técnicas de microextracción, tales como ser una técnica en la que se alcanza rápidamente el equilibrio debido a la gran superficie de contacto entre la fase dadora y el disolvente de extracción, de bajo coste y de fácil aplicación, con la que se alcanzan buenos factores de preconcentración y que requiere un consumo mínimo de disolvente orgánico (Rezaee et al., 2010).

4.1.1. Extracción en fase sólida.

Como se ha indicado anteriormente, SPE es una técnica de extracción que se basa en la retención sobre un adsorbente sólido de los compuestos deseados disueltos en una muestra líquida o sólida en disolución. La adición de un disolvente de lavado adecuado permite eliminar algunos componentes de la matriz que interfieren, para después eluir y concentrar los analitos de interés con el disolvente de elución apropiado.

Como se ha comentado anteriormente, esta técnica consta de cuatro etapas principales (**Figura 4.1**).

- Acondicionamiento. En esta etapa se lleva a cabo la activación de la fase sólida con un disolvente orgánico para solvatar la fase. Posteriormente, la fase estacionaria se acondiciona con el mismo disolvente de la matriz, por ejemplo, en el caso de matrices acuosas el disolvente empleado es agua.
- 2. Carga de la muestra. Las interacciones entre los constituyentes de la muestra y la fase estacionaria controlan la retención en el adsorbente de SPE. Para maximizar las interacciones la muestra debe pasar a través del cartucho de SPE a caudales bajos (por ejemplo 1 ml/min). Este caudal puede controlarse mediante una válvula en la estación de vacío. Los componentes de interés han de retenerse en el adsorbente de SPE mientras que la matriz y los contaminantes deben eluirse y descartarse.

Durante estas etapas el adsorbente SPE ha de mantenerse solvatado siempre para evitar que las cadenas de sílice se colapsen y que se creen caminos preferenciales, disminuyendo la interacción analito-adsorbente.

- **3. Lavado**. El lavado permite la eliminación de restos de compuestos que puedan interferir manteniendo los analitos en el lecho de adsorbente. El empleo de un disolvente adecuado puede hacer que algunos de estos interferentes sean eluídos en esta etapa. El secado es esencial si el eluyente de lavado no es miscible con el solvente de elución final.
- **4.** Elución. La elución de los analitos se efectúa mediante un eluyente adecuado para eliminar la interacción analito-adsorbente y eluir la mayor

cantidad posible de los compuestos de interés. El solvente adecuado ha de tener la máxima afinidad con el analito y una interacción mínima con las demás impurezas que puedan estar todavía retenidas, dejándolas en el lecho del adsorbente. El caudal de elución ha de ser muy bajo para amentar la efectividad y el volumen de elución ha de ser el menor posible para mantener alto el factor de concentración. Existe la posibilidad de evaporar el disolvente para aumentar el factor de concentración o para reconstituir en un disolvente compatible con la técnica analítica que se va a emplear para medir los compuestos de interés.



Figura 4.1. Esquema de la extracción en fase sólida (SPE)

4.1.2. Microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva.

Como ya se ha indicado, la DLLME es una técnica de extracción basada en el empleo de un sistema de disolventes ternario (muestra acuosa, disolvente de extracción y disolvente dispersante). El proceso se basa en dos etapas:

 La inyección de manera rápida y con ayuda de una jeringa de una mezcla apropiada de disolvente de extracción y disolvente dispersante en la muestra acuosa que contiene los analitos. En este paso, el disolvente de extracción (que se encuentra en cantidades de unos pocos microlitros) se dispersa en la muestra acuosa en forma de múltiples gotitas muy finas formando la denominada *cloudy solution*. Debido a la elevada superficie de contacto entre el disolvente de extracción y la muestra acuosa, el estado de equilibrio se consigue de forma rápida, prácticamente de manera instantánea.

 La separación de fases mediante centrifugación. Tras esto, los analitos, que se encuentran en la fase sedimentada, pueden determinarse mediante el correspondiente instrumento analítico.

Los distintos pasos de la DLLME se muestran en la Figura 4.2.



Figura 4.2. Esquema de la microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva (DLLME)

En la DLLME, los principales factores que afectan a la eficacia en la extracción son los siguientes:

 Naturaleza del disolvente dispersante y del disolvente de extracción. La combinación de disolvente dispersante y disolvente de extracción es un aspecto clave en el proceso de DLLME, y por tanto requiere un estudio exhaustivo antes de su selección final.

Por un lado, el disolvente de extracción debe cumplir los siguientes requisitos: baja solubilidad en agua, capacidad de extracción de los

analitos, preferiblemente densidad superior a la del agua para facilitar su recolección y punto de ebullición bajo en el caso de que se necesite evaporar tras la extracción o bien utilizar GC como técnica analítica. Por otro lado, el disolvente dispersante debe ser miscible tanto en agua como en el disolvente de extracción y además formar la dispersión del disolvente extractante en el seno de la fase dadora (*cloudy solution*).

- Volumen del disolvente de extracción. Cuando el volumen de disolvente de extracción se incrementa, cabe esperar que la cantidad de analito extraída también lo haga. Sin embargo, hay que tener en cuenta que también aumenta el efecto de dilución. Por ello, es necesario realizar un estudio exhaustivo que permita llegar a una situación de compromiso y así poder obtener los mejores resultados.
- Volumen del disolvente dispersante. El estudio del volumen de dispersante es importante ya que debe ser el adecuado para que el disolvente de extracción se disperse correctamente en la disolución acuosa (en forma de pequeñas gotas) dando lugar así a elevadas eficiencias de extracción.
- **pH de la fase dadora.** El pH de la fase dadora es una variable de interés en el caso de compuestos potencialmente ionizables, ya que cabe esperar que la forma neutra de una molécula se extraiga en el disolvente de extracción de manera más eficaz que la forma iónica.
- Fuerza iónica. En general, la adición de sal mejora la extracción como resultado del denominado efecto de salting-out (efecto salino), ya que la presencia de sal reduce la solubilidad de los compuestos orgánicos en agua, forzándolos a transferirse al disolvente de extracción.
- Tiempo de extracción. El tiempo de extracción es una de las variables más importantes involucrada en los procesos de extracción. En DLLME, el tiempo de extracción se define como el intervalo de tiempo transcurrido entre la inyección de la mezcla binaria de disolvente dispersantedisolvente de extracción en la muestra y el comienzo de la centrifugación. Como se ha comentado anteriormente, debido al hecho de que la superficie de área entre el disolvente de extracción y la fase dadora

Capítulo 4

acuosa es extremadamente grande, el estado de equilibrio se alcanza casi de manera instantánea. Por tanto la extracción es independiente del tiempo. Esta es una de las principales ventajas de la DLLME.

Cabe mencionar que desde el desarrollo de esta técnica de extracción, su uso ha sido ampliamente extendido a diversos campos y en distintas modalidades. Así, una variante de este tipo de técnica de extracción es la denominada **microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva basada en la solidificación de una gota orgánica flotante** (DLLME-SFO, del inglés *dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction with a solidification of a floating organic drop* (Khalili-Zanjani *et al.*, 2007). En esta técnica el disolvente orgánico que se emplea tiene densidad menor a la del agua, de manera que, tras la centrifugación, éste queda en la parte superior formando una película delgada. Debido a la dificultad que supone recoger esta fase, se opta por enfriar la disolución a una temperatura adecuada para que se produzca la congelación de la película en forma de gota. De manera sencilla se recoge el disolvente orgánico, se trasvasa a un vial y se deja fundir para posteriormente inyectarlo en el sistema cromatográfico (Leong *et al.*, 2008; Xua *et al.*, 2009).

Además de ésta, también se han realizado otras modificaciones de la DLLME original. Así, en algunos casos se han empleado líquidos iónicos como disolventes de extracción, en ocasiones empleando la técnica tradicional de DLLME (Liu *et al.*, 2009) y en otros adicionando cantidades pequeñas de disolvente dispersante y ayudando a alcanzar el estado de equilibrio mediante el empleo de ultrasonidos (Zhang *et al.*, 2012 (b)), o incluso sin la adición de disolvente dispersante, únicamente con el empleo de ultrasonidos (Zgoła-Grześkowiak *et al.*, 2011). En otros casos, en lugar de ser la muestra acuosa la que contiene los analitos, estos están contenidos en el disolvente dispersante, y se emplea agua como soporte para extraer los compuestos en unos pocos µL de otro disolvente, como ha sido el caso del trabajo desarrollado en el **Capítulo 9** de la presente Tesis Doctoral.

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SECCIÓN II

RESUMEN DE LOS RESULTADOS EXPERIMENTALES

CAPÍTULO 5

DESARROLLO DE UN MÉTODO ANALÍTICO PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN SIMULTÁNEA DE FILTROS UV LIPOSOLUBLES EN PRODUCTOS COSMÉTICOS MEDIANTE CROMATOGAFRÍA DE LÍQUIDOS CON DETECCIÓN ULTRAVIOLETA / VISIBLE

El contenido de este capítulo ha sido publicado en el artículo *A reliable and environmentally-friendly liquid-chromatographic method for multi-class determination of fat-soluble UV filters in cosmetic products,* A. Chisvert, I. Tarazona, A. Salvador, **Analytica Chimica Acta** 790 (2013) 61-67 y presentado como cartel en la *XVIII Reunión de la Sociedad Española de Química Analítica,* Úbeda (Jaén), 2013.
INTRODUCCIÓN

Objetivo	Desarrollar un método analítico para la determinación simultanea de los filtros UV liposolubles autorizados en la UE y actualmente en uso (excepto P15, ya que es un compuesto polimérico que requiere un estudio diferente) en productos cosméticos, que presente las características apropiadas para su empleo en el control de calidad
Método propuesto	 Preparación de las muestras: disolución en etanol Técnica de análisis: LC-UV/Vis
Interés del trabajo	 Las sustancias empleadas como filtros UV en productos cosméticos y sus concentraciones máximas permitidas están reguladas en la UE con el fin de garantizar la salud de los usuarios No existen métodos analíticos oficiales para la cuantificación de los filtros UV liposolubles autorizados en la UE y actualmente en uso en productos cosméticos El objetivo final de este trabajo es su implementación como método analítico oficial a nivel europeo, para mejorar y facilitar los controles de calidad del sector cosmético No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo donde se determinen simultáneamente todos los filtros UV estudiados en productos cosméticos

COMPUESTOS ESTUDIADOS



Filtro UV	Fórmula Molecular	Número CAS	pKaª
BZ3	$C_{14} H_{12} O_3$	131-57-7	7.56 ± 0.35
IMC	$C_{15}H_{20}O_{3}$	71617-10-2	-
MBC	C ₁₈ H ₂₂ O	36861-47-9	-
DHHB	$C_{24}H_{31}NO_4$	302776-68-7	$\textbf{7.57} \pm \textbf{0.35}$
OCR	C ₂₄ H ₂₇ NO ₂	6197-30-4	-
EDP	C ₁₇ H ₂₇ NO ₂	21245-02-3	$\textbf{2.39} \pm \textbf{0.12}$
BDM	$C_{20}H_{22}O_{3}$	70356-09-1	$\textbf{9.74}\pm\textbf{0.13}$
EMC	$C_{18}H_{26}O_{3}$	5466-77-3	-
ES	$C_{15}H_{22}O_{3}$	118-60-5	8.13 ± 0.30
HS	$C_{16}H_{22}O_{3}$	118-56-9	$\textbf{8.10} \pm \textbf{0.30}$
DBT	C44H59N7O5	154702-15-5	$15.31 \pm 0.46 / 1.20 \pm 0.10$
ET	$C_{48}H_{66}N_6O_6$	88122-99-0	$\textbf{1.22}\pm0.10$
DRT	$C_{24}H_{39}N_3O_3Si_3$	155633-54-8	$8.36 \pm 0.50 / 0.75 \pm .030$
MBP	$C_{41}H_{50}N_6O_2$	103597-45-1	$7.62 \pm 0.50 / 0.99 \pm 0.30$
EMT	C38H49N3O5	187393-00-6	$8.08 \pm 0.40 / \ 1.17 \pm 0.10$

Tabla 1. Datos de interés de los compuestos estudiados

^a Calculado empleando el software *Advanced Chemistry Development* (ACD/Labs) V8.14 de Solaris (©1994-2010 CD/Labs)

ESTUDIO DE LAS VARIABLES CROMATOGRÁFICAS

Variables estudiadas	 Tipo de columna Composición de la fase móvil Caudal de la fase móvil Temperatura de la columna
Longitud de onda	 pH de la fase móvil λ_{detección}: 360 nm para BDM y DHHB, y 313 nm
de detección Señal analítica	para el resto de los filtros UV y = A _i , donde <i>A</i> _i corresponde al área del pico
Disoluciones empleadas	cromatográfico del analito <i>i</i> Disolución etanólica de 1 μg mL ⁻¹ de los filtros UV
Procedimiento	estudiados

 Filtrar
 Condiciones

 Filtros de membrana de nylon de 0.45 μm
 LC-UV/Vis
 Condiciones

 1 μg mL⁻¹ de analitos en etanol
 englo de 0.45 μm
 LC-UV/Vis
 Condiciones

Estudio del tipo de columna

Columnas ensayadas:

- Zorbax SB-18 (50 x 2.1 mm, 1.8 μm)
- C18 Kinetex (150 x 3 mm, 2.6 μm)
- C18 Kinetex (150 x 2.1 mm d.i., 2.6 μm)
- PFP Kinetex (150 x 2.1 mm d.i., 2.6 μm)
- Purospher[®] STAR RP-18 endcapped (125 x 4 mm, 5 μm)
- Los pares MBC-DHHB y BDM-EMC no se resolvieron completamente en ningún caso
- Columna seleccionada: Purospher[®] STAR RP-18 endcapped (mejor resolución)
- Se establecen tres grupos de filtros UV en función de la polaridad (orden creciente)
 - Grupo 1: BZ3, IMC, MBC y DHHB
 - Grupo 2: OCR, EDP, BDM, EMC, ES y HS
 - Grupo 3: DBT, ET, DRT, MBP y EMT
- Se ensayan fases móviles constituídas por distintas proporciones de etanol:agua desionizada (v/v) para cada grupo
 - Grupo 1 → 55:45 (MBC-DHHB parcialmente solapados)
 - Grupo 2 → 60:40 y 70:30 (BDM-EMC completamente solapados)
 - Grupo 3 → 100:0

Estudio de la Composición de la FM

Estudio de la temperatura de la columna y del caudal de la fase móvil

Estudio del pH de la fase móvil

- Al aumentar la temperatura:
 - picos más estrechos
 - Disminuye la viscosidad de la fase móvil (menor presión en el sistema)
- Temperaturas estudiadas : 30-60 ºC
- Caudal de fase móvil estudiados: 0.5-1.5 mL min⁻¹
- Temperatura y flujo seleccionados: 60 °C y 1 mL min⁻¹ (mejor separación cromatográfica en el menor tiempo posible)
- MBC-DHHB completamente separados
- BDM-EMC completamente solapados
- BDM → potencialmente ionizable → es de esperar que el pH de la fase móvil cambie su tiempo de retención
- pH de la fase acuosa estudiados: 2-8
- En ningún caso se mejoró la resolución del par BDM-EMC
- pH seleccionado → pH 2 (1 % ácido fórmico), por obtenerse un pico cromatográfico más estrecho para BDM

Resolución del par BDM-EMC

- Aunque λ_{máx} BDM= 360 nm, también absorbe a 313 nm → interferencia para la determinación del EMC → necesario separar
- La adición de un modificador en la fase móvil que forme complejo con BDM cambiaría su tiempo de retención → se empleó la 2-hidroxipopil-β-ciclodextrina (HP-β-CD): presenta una cavidad hidrofóbica donde el BDM es capaz de penetrar y formar un complejo de inclusión
- Concentraciones de HP-β-CD ensayadas: 10-20 mmol L⁻¹ en agua desionizada
- La adición de HP-β-CD en la fase acuosa disminuye el tiempo de retención del BDM, consiguiendo la resolución del par BDM-EMC (ver cromatograma)
- Concentración de HP-β-CD seleccionada: 20 mmol L⁻¹ (completa resolución del BDM)



MÉTODO PROPUESTO



Condiciones LC-UV/Vis

- Columna: Purospher STAR RP-18 (125 x 4 mm, 5 μm)
- V_{invección} = 5 μL
- Temperatura de la columna: 60 ºC
- Composición de la fase móvil:
 - disolvente A : disolución acuosa de HP-β-CD 20 mM con 1% de ácido fórmico
 - disolvente B: etanol
- Caudal de la fase móvil: 1 mL min⁻¹
- Gradiente de elución:

Tiempo (min)	% Disolvente A	% Disolvente B
0	45	55
4	40	60
4.5	40	60
15	0	100
25	0	100
26	45	55
30	45	55

• $\lambda_{detección}$: 360 nm para BDM y DHHB, y 313 nm para el resto de los filtros UV







Patrón en etanol de 20 mg L^{-1} de los filtros UV estudiados

Observaciones

- En el proceso industrial de síntesis de HS se forman dos isómeros (HS₁ y HS₂) en una relación constante → el método propuesto permite la separación de ambos isómeros (para cuantificar se empleó el pico correspondiente a HS₂, por ser el más sensible)
- La separación completa de los 15 filtros UV liposolubles estudiados se consiguió en menos de 30 min

ESTUDIO DEL EFECTO MATRIZ

	 Se fortificaron por triplicado las disoluciones de once muestras comerciales con 20 µg mL⁻¹ de los analitos
Recuperación (Tabla 2)	• Coef. de recuperación (%)= $\frac{C_{M+P}-C_M}{C_P} \cdot 100$, donde C_M corresponde a la concentración de la
	muestra sin fortificar, C_{M+P} a la concentración de la muestra fortificada y C_P a la concentración del patrón añadido a la muestra (concentración fortificada)
	% Coeficiente de recuperación= 97-104%
	■ No se observó efecto matriz → calibración
	externa

Filtro	Coeficiente de recuperación (%)					
UV	Muestra A ^a	Muestra B ^a	Muestra C ^a	Muestra D ^a	Muestra E ^a	Muestra F ^a
BZ3	101.7 ± 1.8	99.9 ± 0.6	100.0 ± 0.9	100.8 ± 0.4	99.8 ± 0.7	101.4 ± 1.2
IMC	102.3 ± 1.9	102.0 ± 0.3	99.8 ± 0.7	100.5 ± 0.5	99.5 ± 0.9	100.1 ± 0.9
MBC	103 ± 5	102 ± 3	100.2 ± 0.6	100.9 ± 0.6	100 ± 1	100.9 ± 1.6
DHHB	101.0 ± 1.3	102 ± 3	98.9 ± 0.5	101.3 ± 0.6	101 ± 2	102 ± 4
OCR	101.6 ± 0.8	97 ± 6	100 ± 3	101 ± 2	102 ± 5	100.2 ± 1.6
EDP	99.3 ± 1.8	100 ± 4	101 ± 4	101.1 ± 0.6	104 ± 1	101.1 ± 0.9
BDM	101 ± 7	99.3 ± 0.1	100 ± 3	101 ± 3	103 ± 4	102.1 ± 1.5
EMC	101 ± 5	101.2 ± 1.6	101.2 ± 0.4	101 ± 2	101 ± 1	101 ± 2
ES	101 ± 2	101 ± 4	100.3 ± 0.4	102 ± 2	100 ± 1	100.7 ± 0.7
HS	103 ± 2	102.0 ± 0.8	100.4 ± 0.7	100.6 ± 0.6	99.9 ± 0.9	101 ± 1
DBT	102 ± 4	101 ± 4	101.2 ± 1.6	102.4 ± 0.2	101.4 ± 0.9	101.7 ± 1.9
ET	99 ± 3	101 ± 5	99 ± 3	100.6 ± 0.2	99.8 ± 0.7	99 ± 3
DRT	102.4 ± 1.5	98 ± 1	101 ± 3	99 ± 2	100 ± 2	101.1 ± 1.2
MBP	98.5 ± 0.9	100 ± 3	103 ± 3	99 ± 2	99 ± 2	99 ± 4
EMT	99 ± 3	103.0 ± 1.6	101 ± 3	104 ± 2	101 ± 3	103 ± 2

Tabla 2. Coeficientes de recuperación (%) obtenidos para el estudio del efecto matrizen productos cosméticos con distinta formulación (continúa)

^a Muestras: A: loción solar; B: spray solar infantil; C: crema solar; D:spray solar; E: crema solar; F: crema hidratante facial

Filtro	Coeficiente de recuperación (%)							
UV	Muestra G ^a	Muestra H ^a	Muestra l ^a	Muestra J ^a	Muestra K ^a			
BZ3	100.7 ± 0.4	99.7 ± 0.2	101 ± 1	100.3 ± 0.2	100.5 ± 0.7			
IMC	100.8 ± 0.3	99.5 ± 0.2	100 ± 1	99.9 ± 0.3	100 ± 1			
MBC	100.7 ± 0.3	99.7 ± 0.3	102 ± 4	100.2 ± 0.2	104 ± 3			
DHHB	99.7 ± 0.5	99.0 ± 0.1	101 ± 2	100 ± 2	101 ± 1			
OCR	103.6 ± 1.4	98.8 ± 0.4	100 ± 1	100.2 ± 0.3	103 ± 2			
EDP	101.1 ± 0.3	100.1 ± 0.4	101 ± 1	100.8 ± 0.3	101 ± 1			
BDM	104 ± 5	99 ± 3	102 ± 4	100.6 ± 0.5	100.0 ± 0.8			
EMC	104 ± 5	102 ± 2	101 ± 5	100 ± 4	101 ± 1			
ES	100.5 ± 0.3	100.0 ± 0.4	99 ± 2	100.4 ± 0.8	100.5 ± 0.8			
HS	100.5 ± 0.5	99.5 ± 0.6	99 ± 2	99.9 ± 0.3	101 ± 1			
DBT	101.5 ± 1.7	102 ± 2	102 ± 3	101.3 ± 0.8	101.7 ± 0.4			
ET	100.1 ± 0.6	99 ± 1	99 ± 2	98 ± 3	99.5 ± 0.8			
DRT	100.1 ± 0.7	100.8 ± 0.4	99 ± 2	100.8 ± 0.5	100 ± 1			
MBP	100.5 ± 1.4	99.5 ± 0.7	99 ± 4	99 ± 3	96 ± 2			
EMT	102 ± 3	101 ± 1	101 ± 4	102 ± 2	103 ± 1			

Tabla 2. (Continuación)

^a Muestras: G: crema facial reafirmante; H: crema para después del afeitado; I: bálsamo labial; J: bálsamo labial aromático; K: leche solar

MÉTODO DE CALIBRACIÓN

Método de calibración	Calibración	externa	→	los	patrones	de
seleccionado	calibración se	prepararo	on en	etanc	ol	
Señal analítica	y = A _i , dond cromatográfic	e <i>A_i corre</i> co del anal	spon ito <i>i</i>	de al	área del	pico

CARACTERÍSTICAS ANALÍTICAS DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Parámetros de calidad estudiados

(Tablas 3 y 4)

Linealidad

Límites de detección y cuantificación

- Linealidad
- Límites de detección (LDD) y límites de cuantificación (LDC)
 - Precisión intra-día e inter-día
- Exactitud
- Linealidad ≥ 500 mg L⁻¹ en todos los casos, excepto ET=400 mg L⁻¹ y MBP=50 mg L⁻¹ (muy poco soluble en etanol)

Intervalo de trabajo: 10-50 μg mL⁻¹

- 5 puntos de calibración
- elevado nivel de linealidad (coeficientes de regresión (R²) entre 0.9990 y 0.9998)
- LDD = $\frac{3s_{y/x}}{b}$ LDC = $\frac{10s_{y/x}}{b}$

donde $S_{y/x}$ corresponde a la desviación estándar residual y b a la pendiente de la curva de calibrado obtenida

- LDD comprendidos entre 0.02 y 0.6 mg L⁻¹ (se corresponde a 0.001 y 0.04 % en muestra)
- LDC comprendidos entre 0.07 y 2.1 mg L⁻¹ (se corresponde a 0.005 y 0.14 % en muestra)
- Valores muy inferiores a los necesarios para determinar filtros UV en formulaciones cosméticas, donde estos compuestos se añaden en cantidades de porcentajes mayores a 0.5 %

Precisión	 Expresada como desviación estándar relativa (% RSD)
	 Estudiada con disoluciones patrón a tres niveles de concentración (2, 10 y 50 μg mL⁻¹)
	 Las réplicas (cinco en cada caso) se analizaron durante la misma sesión de trabajo (precisión <i>intra-día)</i> y en distintas sesiones de trabajo (precisión <i>inter-día</i>)
	 Resultados comprendidos entre 0.2 y 6.1 % (<i>intra-día</i>) y 0.8 y 8.2 % (<i>inter-día</i>) → buena precisión

Tabla 3. Parámetros analíticos del método propuesto

					Precisión		Precisión Precisión			ón
Filtro	Pendiente ± s	D 2	LDD	LDC	intra	-día, R	SD(%)	inter	-día, R	SD(%)
UV	(mAU s mg⁻¹L)	N -	(mg L ⁻¹)	(mg L ⁻¹)	2 mg L- [:]	10 ¹ mg L ⁻¹	50 mg L ⁻¹	2 mg L ⁻¹	10 mg L ⁻	50 1 mg L ⁻¹
BZ3	13.99 ± 0.14	0.9997	0.09	0.31	1.6	0.3	0.4	4.4	4.9	1.9
IMC	30.37 ± 0.13	0.9998	0.04	0.14	0.6	0.3	0.3	3.4	4.7	1.8
MBC	27.8 ± 0.2	0.9998	0.07	0.23	0.5	0.4	0.2	3.1	4.6	2.1
DHHB	30.1 ± 0.3	0.9997	0.10	0.33	0.4	0.3	0.3	4.9	6.3	0.8
OCR	10.85 ± 0.11	0.9997	0.10	0.33	2.2	1.0	0.5	6.3	5.1	3.4
EDP	32.57 ± 0.11	0.9998	0.03	0.10	1.1	0.4	0.4	3.9	5.8	2.8
BDM	23.0 ± 0.1	0.9998	0.04	0.13	1.0	0.3	0.7	2.3	3.0	1.2
EMC	26.0 ± 0.4	0.9994	0.14	0.46	0.9	0.5	0.3	5.3	5.2	2.0
ES	4.60 ± 0.04	0.9998	0.35	1.2	6.1	2.5	1.1	4.8	4.5	2.0
HS	3.89 ± 0.06	0.9993	0.14	0.47	4.9	3.3	2.0	3.7	2.2	2.3
DBT	42.4 ± 0.4	0.9997	0.10	0.32	1.0	0.4	0.4	4.6	3.1	2.6
ET	47.07 ± 0.11	0.9998	0.02	0.07	0.7	0.3	0.3	5.5	4.3	1.6
DRT	9.49 ± 0.06	0.9998	0.06	0.20	1.0	0.5	0.4	2.0	3.4	1.0
MBP	14.69 ± 0.07	0.9999	0.6	2.1	0.8	0.4	3.3	8.2	6.6	3.7
EMT	24.20 ± 0.14	0.9998	0.06	0.19	0.9	0.4	0.3	5.8	4.2	1.9

109

- Se prepararon tres muestras de productos cosméticos en el laboratorio conteniendo cantidades conocidas de los analitos
- Las muestras (una crema solar, un bálsamo labial y una loción para después del afeitado) fueron preparadas empleando protocolos proporcionados por empresas del sector cosmético
- Se analizaron mediante el método propuesto
- Se calculó el error relativo (ε_r)en cada caso
- $\varepsilon_r = 0.1 8.8 \% \rightarrow \text{método exacto}$

 Tabla 4.1. Resultados obtenidos aplicando el método propuesto en el análisis de una crema solar fabricada en el laboratorio

Filtro UV	% real (m/m)	% encontrado ± s (m/m)	Error relativo (%)
BZ3	0.533	0.536 ± 0.008	0.5
IMC	0.534	$\textbf{0.518} \pm \textbf{0.007}$	-3.0
MBC	0.234	$\textbf{0.235} \pm \textbf{0.004}$	0.6
DHHB	0.565	$\textbf{0.58} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	2.8
OCR	0.502	$\textbf{0.50} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	-0.1
EDP	0.441	$\textbf{0.43} \pm \textbf{0.02}$	-2.9
BDM	0.251	$\textbf{0.250} \pm \textbf{0.009}$	-0.1
EMC	0.546	0.575 ± 0.008	5.4
ES	0.260	$\textbf{0.256} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	-1.6
HS	0.622	$\textbf{0.59} \pm \textbf{0.02}$	-4.6
DBT	0.520	$\textbf{0.49} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	-6.1
ET	0.252	$\textbf{0.238} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	-5.3
DRT	0.763	$\textbf{0.779} \pm \textbf{0.008}$	2.0
MBP	0.452	$\textbf{0.44} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	-2.4
EMT	0.508	$\textbf{0.51} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	1.0

Exactitud

(Tablas 4.1, 4.2 y 4.3)

Filtro UV	% real (m/m)	% encontrado ± s (m/m)	Error relativo (%)
BZ3	0.507	$\textbf{0.537} \pm \textbf{0.008}$	5.9
IMC	0.482	$\textbf{0.47} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	-2.3
MBC	0.229	$\textbf{0.24} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	6.9
DHHB	0.540	0.558 ± 0.001	3.5
OCR	0.536	$\textbf{0.54} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	0.5
EDP	0.698	$\textbf{0.72}\pm\textbf{0.01}$	3.5
BDM	0.244	$\textbf{0.27}\pm\textbf{0.03}$	6.0
EMC	0.479	$\textbf{0.52}\pm\textbf{0.03}$	8.0
ES	0.319	$\textbf{0.314} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	-1.5
HS	0.448	$\textbf{0.41}\pm\textbf{0.01}$	-8.0
DBT	0.482	$\textbf{0.47} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	-1.6
ET	0.268	$\textbf{0.283} \pm \textbf{0.002}$	5.5
DRT	0.728	$\textbf{0.71} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	-1.5
MBP	_ a	-	-
EMT	0.517	$\textbf{0.543} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	5.1

 Tabla 4.2. Resultados obtenidos aplicando el método propuesto en el análisis de un

 bálsamo labial fabricado en el laboratorio

^a MBP no se incluye porque es incompatible con la formulación

Tabla 4.3. Resultados obtenidos aplic	cando el método propuesto en el aná	lisis de una
loción para después del afeitado fabi	ricada en el laboratorio	

Filtro UV	% real (m/m)	% encontrado ± s (m/m)	Error relativo (%)
BZ3	0.486	$\textbf{0.518} \pm \textbf{0.001}$	6.5
IMC	0.540	0.542 ± 0.002	0.4
MBC	0.198	$\textbf{0.213} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	7.4
DHHB	0.542	$\textbf{0.58} \pm \textbf{0.03}$	6.9
OCR	0.544	$\textbf{0.574} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	5.4
EDP	0.410	$\textbf{0.428} \pm \textbf{0.004}$	4.5
BDM	0.242	$\textbf{0.25}\pm\textbf{0.02}$	3.5
EMC	0.501	$\textbf{0.55} \pm \textbf{0.02}$	8.8
ES	0.212	$\textbf{0.224} \pm \textbf{0.002}$	5.3
HS	0.533	$\textbf{0.492} \pm \textbf{0.002}$	-7.8
DBT	0.524	$\textbf{0.513} \pm \textbf{0.003}$	-2.1
ET	0.245	$\textbf{0.265} \pm \textbf{0.002}$	8.0
DRT	0.736	$\textbf{0.757} \pm \textbf{0.006}$	2.8
MBP	_ a	-	-
EMT	_ a	-	-

^a MBP y EMT no se incluyen porque son incompatibles con la formulación



A modo de ejemplo, se muestra el cromatograma obtenido en el análisis de la crema solar elaborada en el laboratorio

Cromatograma

Muestras analizadas

APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

- Once productos cosméticos comercialmente disponibles
- Analizadas por triplicado empleando el método propuesto y calibración externa
- Los cromatogramas de algunas de las muestras analizadas se muestran a continuación



Muestras: A: loción solar; B: spray solar infantil; E: crema solar; F: crema hidratante facial

Resultados

(Tabla 5)

- Los filtros UV encontrados se corresponden con los indicados en la etiqueta de los productos comerciales
- Los contenidos proporcionados por las empresas para las muestras I (2.5 % de MBC, 1.0 % de BDM y 7.5 % de EMC) y K (1.0 % de MBC, 6.5 % de OCR, 3.2 % de BDM, 2.0 % de MBP y 1.6 % de EMT) concordaron estadísticamente con los obtenidos aplicando el método propuesto

Tabla	5.	Concentración	de	filtros	UV	encontrada	en	productos	cosméticos
comer	ciale	es (continúa)							

Filtro		Concent	ntración de filtros UV ± s (%, m/m)			
UV	Muestra A ^a	Muestra B ^a	Muestra C ^a	Muestra D ^a	Muestra E ^a	Muestra F ^a
BZ3	-	-	-	-	-	0.55 ± 0.02
IMC	-	8.0 ± 0.1	-	-	-	-
MBC	4.5 ± 0.2	-	-	-	-	1.15 ± 0.05
DHHB	-	-	-	-	-	-
OCR	11.6 ± 0.4	8.3 ± 0.1	10.1 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.2	11.5 ± 0.6	1.02 ± 0.05
EDP	-	-	-	-	-	-
BDM	5.8 ± 0.2	4.41 ± 0.08	4.8 ± 0.1	2.08 ± 0.06	4.0 ± 0.2	-
EMC	-	-	-	-	-	2.5 ± 0.1
ES	5.1 ± 0.2	4.87 ± 0.09	-	2.83 ± 0.07	-	-
HS	8.8 ± 0.3	4.89 ± 0.08	-	-	-	-
DBT	-	2.79 ± 0.08	-	-	-	-
ET	-	-	-	-	-	-
DRT	-	-	-	-	-	-
MBP	-	-	1.33 ± 0.02	0.84 ± 0.01	4.2 ± 0.3	-
EMT	4.18 ± 0.07	-	2.1 ± 0.1	-	2.4 ± 0.1	-

^a Muestras: A: loción solar; B: spray solar infantil; C: crema solar; D:spray solar; E: crema solar; F: crema hidratante facial

Filtro		Concentració	n de filtros UV	± s (%, m/m)	
UV	Muestra G ^a	Muestra H ^a	Muestra l ^a	Muestra J ^a	Muestra K ^a
BZ3	-	-	-	-	-
IMC	-	-	-	-	-
MBC	-	-	2.4±0.1	-	1.05 ± 0.01
DHHB	-	-	-	-	-
OCR	0.51±0.01	-	-	-	6.7 ± 0.1
EDP	-	-	-	-	-
BDM	1.14±0.01	1.14±0.02	1.15±0.03	-	3.20 ± 0.05
EMC	5.92±0.09	4.35±0.09	7.8±0.5	2.13±0.04	-
ES	-	-	-	-	-
HS	-	-	-	-	-
DBT	-	0.30±0.02	-	-	-
ET	-	-	-	-	-
DRT	-	-	-	-	-
MBP	-	-	-	-	1.92 ± 0.04
EMT	-	-	-	-	1.67 ± 0.06

Tabla 5. (continuación)

^a Muestras: G: crema facial reafirmante; H: crema para después del afeitado; I: bálsamo labial; J: bálsamo labial aromático; K: leche solar

CONCLUSIONES

- El método propuesto, basado en la disolución de las muestras cosméticas en etanol y su análisis por LC-UV, permite la determinación simultánea de todos los filtros UV liposolubles actualmente autorizados por la UE y en uso en productos cosméticos.
- El análisis de tres muestras elaboradas en el laboratorio y los valores de recuperación obtenidos en el análisis de once muestras comerciales, muestran la exactitud del método. Además, la precisión inter- e intra-día a diferentes niveles de concentración muestran que el método es preciso.
- Las características analíticas del método, su sencillez de operación, rapidez y su respetuosidad con el medio ambiente, hacen del método propuesto un método adecuado, no solo para el análisis de rutina en empresas del sector cosmético, si no también como candidato para método oficial para la determinación de filtros UV en productos cosméticos.

ANEXO 5.1

PROTOCOLOS DE ELABORACIÓN DE LAS FORMULACIONES COSMÉTICAS ELABORADAS PARA EL DESARROLLO DE ESTE ESTUDIO

En el desarrollo de este capítulo se han elaborado distintas formulaciones cosméticas contendiendo los filtros UV estudiados, con el fin de estudiar la exactitud del método propuesto. Concretamente, se ha elaborado una crema de protección solar, un bálsamo labial y una loción para después del afeitado. A continuación se detallan los ingredientes empleados, así como la composición y el modo de preparación de cada una de las formulaciones elaboradas.

INGREDIENTES EMPLEADOS EN LAS FORMULACIONES COSMÉTICAS

Los ingredientes cosméticos utilizados para la elaboración de las formulaciones cosméticas detalladas anteriormente fueron proporcionados por Guinama S.L. (Valencia). A continuación se detallan sus funciones, así como la composición de alguno de ellos.

- Aceite de aguacate: mezcla natural de ácidos grasos saturados, oleico y linoleico, muy rica en vitaminas A, B₁, B₂, D y E. Actúa principalmente como emoliente.
- Aceite de coco: su función es servir de emoliente y disolvente.
- Aceite de ricino: confiere brillo y emoliencia.
- Base PFC o/w: crema base que permite la elaboración de emulsiones aceite/agua compuesta por una mezcla de miristato de miristilo, alcohol cetílico, laureato de monoglicerilo, octanoato de cetearilo, miristato de isopropilo y otros componentes de naturaleza lipófila.
- Butilhidroxitolueno (BHT): se utiliza como antioxidante.
- Cera de abejas: mezcla de colesterol y ésteres de ácidos grasos.
 Constituye el cuerpo céreo de la formulación cosmética y actúa además como emoliente.
- Dimeticona 350: mezcla de polímeros entre los que se encuentra la dimetilsilicona y dimetilsiloxano. Entre sus funciones destaca favorecer la formación de emulsiones, proporcionar una mayor

untuosidad y suavidad en la aplicación del producto y actuar como vehículo de los componentes activos.

- Etanol: se emplea principalmente para la disolución de compuestos poco hidrosolubles.
- Euxyl K-100: conservante cosmético.
- Extracto glicólico de centella: mezcla de extracto de centella (planta herbácea) y propilenglicol. Presenta propiedades regeneradora, hidratante y cicatrizante.
- **Glicerina**: presenta como funciones principales proteger la piel y aportar suavidad.
- Hidrovitón[®]: mezcla de aminoácidos, lactato sódico, urea, alantoina, alcoholes, cloruro sódico y de humectantes cuya función es hidratar la piel.
- Manteca de cacao: grasa vegetal compuesta por tres clases de triglicéridos (saturados, mono-insaturados y poli-insaturados). Se trata de un humectante natural y también presenta carácter antioxidante.
- Mentol: alcohol secundario saturado que se encuentra en los aceites de algunas especies de menta. Tiene acción refrescante.
- Miristrato de isopropilo: sirve como espesante, emoliente y disolvente de la esencia.
- Fenonip[®]: mezcla de parabenos y fenoxietanol que actúa como conservante.
- Polisorbato 80: tensioactivo no iónico que actúa como emulgente.
- Propilenglicol: agente emulgente que actúa también como humectante, impidiendo la desecación de la capa córnea de la piel.

PREPARACIÓN DE LA CREMA PARA LA PROTECCIÓN SOLAR

Composición

Fase A:	Base PFC o/w	18 %
	Aceite de aguacate	5 %
	Dimeticona 350	5 %
	BZ3	0.5 %
	IMC	0.5 %
	MBC	0.2 %
	DHHB	0.5 %
	OCR	0.5 %
	EDP	0.4 %
	BDM	0.25 %
	EMC	0.5 %
	ES	0.25 %
	HS	0.5 %
	DBT	0.5 %
	ET	0.25 %
	DRT	0.75 %
	MBP	0.5 %
	EMT	0.5 %
Fase B:	Propilenglicol	5 %
	Hidrovitón	4 %
	Agua	c.s.p 100 %
Fase C:	Fenonip	0.5 %

Modo de preparación

Se pesan los componentes de las fases A y B en sendos vasos de precipitados, se tapan con un vidrio de reloj y se sumergen en un baño de agua (aproximadamente a 70 °C) hasta que se funda la fase A y se disuelvan los principios activos. A continuación, se vierte muy lentamente y bajo agitación continua la fase B sobre la fase A. Finalmente, se saca el vaso de precipitados

del baño y, sin dejar de agitar, se deja enfriar hasta alcanzar una temperatura de 30-35 °C, adicionando entonces la fase C. Se mantiene la agitación hasta conseguir la completa homogenización. Finalmente, se deja enfriar hasta temperatura ambiente.

PREPARACIÓN DEL BÁLSAMO LABIAL

Composición

Cera de abejas	12 %
Manteca de cacao	26 %
Aceite de coco	15 %
Miristrato de isopropilo	10 %
ВНТ	0.5 %
BZ3	0.5 %
IMC	0.5 %
MBC	0.2 %
DHHB	0.5 %
OCR	0.5 %
EDP	0.4 %
BDM	0.25 %
EMC	0.5 %
ES	0.25 %
HS	0.5 %
DBT	0.5 %
ET	0.25 %
DRT	0.75 %
EMT	0.5 %
Aceite de ricino	c.s.p. 100 %

Modo de preparación

Se pesan todos los ingredientes en un vaso de precipitados, se tapa el vaso con un vidrio de reloj y se sumerge en un baño de agua a 85 °C, agitando continuamente. Una vez fundidos todos los ingredientes, se deja enfriar sin dejar de agitar hasta que se obtiene una apariencia consistente.

PREPARACIÓN DE LA LOCIÓN PARA DESPUÉS DEL AFEITADO

Composición

Fase A:	Polisorbato 80	4 %
	Etanol	20 %
	Mentol	0.5 %
	Propilenglicol	10 %
	BZ3	0.5 %
	IMC	0.5 %
	MBC	0.2 %
	DHHB	0.5 %
	OCR	0.5 %
	EDP	0.4 %
	BDM	0.25 %
	EMC	0.5 %
	ES	0.25 %
	HS	0.5 %
	DBT	0.5 %
	ET	0.25 %
	DRT	0.75 %
Fase B:	Glicerina	5 %
	Extracto glicólico de centella	3 %
	Euxyl K-100	0.1 %
	Agua	c.s.p 100 %

Modo de preparación

Se pesan los filtros UV en un vaso de precipitados junto con el etanol y se disuelven. Se añade a continuación el resto de componentes de la fase A y se pesan los componentes de la fase B en otro vaso de precipitados. Finalmente, se mezclan los componentes de las fases A y B y se agita para su homogeneización.

CAPÍTULO 6

DETERMINACIÓN DE BENZOFENONA-3 Y SUS PRINCIPALES METABOLITOS EN SUERO HUMANO MEDIANTE MICROEXTRACCIÓN LÍQUIDO-LÍQUIDO DISPERSIVA SEGUIDA DE CROMATOGRAFÍA DE LÍQUIDOS CON DETECCIÓN DE ESPECTROMETRÍA DE MASAS EN TÁNDEM

El contenido de este capítulo ha sido publicado en el artículo Determination of benzophenone-3 and its main metabolites in human serum by dispersive liquidliquid microextraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem masss pectrometry, I. Tarazona, A. Chisvert, A. Salvador, **Talanta** 116 (2013) 388-395 y presentado como cartel en la XVIII Reunión de la Sociedad Española de Química Analítica, Úbeda (Jaén), 2013

INTRODUCCIÓN

Objetivo	Desarrollar un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (libre + conjugado) del filtro UV benzofenona-3 (BZ3) y sus principales metabolitos (DHB y DHMB) en suero humano, con el fin de contribuir al estudio de la absorción percutánea de dicho filtro UV
Método propuesto	 Preparación de la muestra: hidrólisis ácida previa a DLLME Técnica de análisis: LC-MS/MS
Interés del trabajo	 Los filtros UV presentes en los cosméticos son absorbidos percutáneamente tras su aplicación y posteriormente metabolizados en el cuerpo humano Estos compuestos presentan importantes efectos adversos, como fotoalergia, disrupción endocrina o carcinogénesis La legislación europea prohíbe la experimentación con animales para evaluar la efectividad y seguridad de los cosméticos No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de DLLME en la determinación de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano

COMPUESTOS ESTUDIADOS

Metabolitos de fase I



Filtro UV	Fórmula Molecular	Número CAS	pKaª
BZ3	$C_{14}H_{12}O_{3}$	131-57-7	$\textbf{7.56} \pm \textbf{0.35}$
DHB	C ₁₃ H ₁₀ O ₃	131-56-6	$\textbf{7.53} \pm \textbf{0.35}$
DHMB	$C_{14}H_{12}O_4$	131-53-3	$\textbf{6.99} \pm \textbf{0.35}$

^a Calculado empleando el software *Advanced Chemistry Development* (ACD/Labs) V8.14 de Solaris (©1994-2010 CD/Labs).

OBTENCIÓN DEL SUERO SANGUÍNEO

Composición de la sangre

Suero sanguíneo

■ Fase sólida → elementos formes

- eritrocitos (glóbulos rojos)
- leucocitos (glóbulos blancos)
- trombocitos (plaquetas)
- Fase líquida → plasma sanguíneo
 - agua (90%),
 - proteínas (7%)
 - componentes minoritarios (3%)
- Equivalente al plasma sanguíneo pero sin las proteínas involucradas en la coagulación (fibrinógeno principalmente)
- Se obtiene dejando coagular la sangre y eliminando el coágulo resultante → las muestras se recogen en tubos sin anticoagulante
- Para acelerar la coagulación → centrifugación
- Las muestras de suero se almacenan a -20 ºC hasta su análisis

Procedimiento experimental



HIDRÓLISIS DE CONJUGADOS Y PRECIPITACIÓN DE PROTEÍNAS

Finalidad	 Hidrólisis de los conjugados glucurónicos y sulfatados (metabolitos de fase II) → determinar el contenido total de los analitos (libre + conjugado) Precipitación de las proteínas → reducir interferencias y evitar que la precipitación se produzca en el LC
Estrategias de hidrólisis	 Hidrólisis ácida → HCl + calor (100ºC) Manteniendo calor durante 1 h también se desnaturalizan las proteínas (precipitan) Hidrólisis enzimática → β-glucuronidasa/ sulfatasa (37ºC, 12h) Necesario añadir disolventes orgánicos que causen la precipitación de las proteínas
Estrategia seleccionada	 Hidrólisis ácida Ácidos ensayados: ácido acético, ácido fórmico, ácido tricloroacético, ácido sulfúrico y ácido clorhídrico Mejores resultados adicionando HCI 6M en proporción 1:1 al suero sanguíneo, seguido de agitación con vórtex
Procedimiento experimental	600 μL HCl 6 M $\frac{100 \text{ °C}}{1 \text{ h}} \xrightarrow{15000 \text{ rpm}}_{10 \text{ min}} \qquad \text{sobrenadante} \text{ DLLME}$ 600 μL suero

MICROEXTRACCIÓN LÍQUIDO-LÍQUIDO DISPERSIVA

Variables estudiadas	 Naturaleza del disolvente dispersante y del disolvente de extracción Volumen del disolvente de extracción Volumen del disolvente dispersante pH de la fase dadora Fuerza iónica de la fase dadora Tiempo de extracción
Señal analítica	y = A _i , donde A _i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito i
Disoluciones empleadas	Blanco de suero fortificado con 100 ng mL-1 de los analitos



Estudio del tipo de disolvente dispersante y de extracción

Características del disolvente de extracción	 Baja solubilidad en agua Capacidad de extracción de los analitos Densidad mayor que la del agua para facilitar su recogida Punto de ebullición bajo si se requiere evaporar tras la extracción o se va a inyectar en un equipo de GC
Características del disolvente dispersante	 Miscible en agua y en el disolvente de extracción Capacidad para formar la dispersión
Disolventes de extracción estudiados	 Diclorometano (CH₂Cl₂) Cloroformo (CHCl₃) Tetracloruro de carbono (CCl₄) Estudio
Disolventes dispersantes estudiados	AcetonaAcetonitriloEtanol
Resultados	 El estudio de la mezcla óptima de disolvente dispersante-disolvente de extracción para la extracción de estos analitos en muestras acuosas fue realizado en un trabajo publicado con anterioridad a éste (ver <u>Capítulo 8</u>, págs. 184 y 185) Disolvente dispersante seleccionado: acetona Disolvente de extracción seleccionado: cloroformo
Efecto del volumen de disolvente de extracción



133

Efecto del volumen de disolvente dispersante



134

Efecto del pH de la fase acuosa

Hipótesis inicial

Observaciones

- Las benzofenonas hidroxiladas son compuestos potencialmente ionizables
- La forma neutra de las moléculas se extrae de manera más eficaz en el disolvente de extracción de naturaleza orgánica que la forma ionizada
- La adición de un ácido o base a un volumen de muestra pequeño (800 µL en este caso) produce una dilución importante que disminuiría los LDDs
- La muestra sometida al proceso de DLLME presenta pH ácido debido al proceso previo de hidrólisis → compuestos en forma neutra y por tanto óptima para llevar a cabo la extracción (ver valores de pK_a en Tabla 1, pág. 128)
- El pH de la muestra no fue ajustado antes del proceso de DLLME

Efecto de la fuerza iónica de la fase acuosa



Efecto del tiempo de extracción



MÉTODO PROPUESTO

1. Obtención del suero sanguíneo



2. Hidrólisis de los conjugados y precipitación de las proteínas



3. DLLME e inyección en el sistema cromatográfico



Condiciones LC-MS/MS

- Columna: Waters Acquity UPLC BEHC18 (2.1 x 50 mm, 1.7 μm)
- V_{inyección} = 5 μL
- Composición de la fase móvil:
 - disolvente A : agua desionizada con 0.1% de ácido fórmico
 - disolvente B: metanol
- Caudal de la fase móvil: 0.35 mL min⁻¹
- Gradiente de elución:

Tiempo (min)	% Disolvente A	% Disolvente B
0	60	40
0.15	60	40
3	5	95
4.7	5	95
4.8	60	40

- T_{horno}= 30 ºC
- Ionización por electrospray en modo positivo (ESI⁺) mediante monitorización de reacciones múltiples (MRM)
- Voltaje del capilar= 3.5 kV
- T_{fuente} = 120 ºC
- T_{desolvatación} = 300 ºC
- Flujo del gas nebulizador= 25 L h⁻¹
- Flujo del gas de desolvatación= 600 L h⁻¹
- Espectros de MS/MS producidos por disociación inducida por colisión (CID) de los iones precursores seleccionados (ver Tabla 2)



Compuesto	Tiempo de retención (min)	Voltaje del primer cuadrupolo (V)	Energía de colisión (eV)	Transición de cuantificación ^a	Transición de confirmación ^a
DHB	2.46	25	15	215.3 → 136.8	215.3 → 104.8
DHMB	2.62	30	20	245.5 → 121.1	245.5 → 151.1
DHDMB (PI)	2.90	20	13	275.4 → 151.2	275.4 → 185.1
BZ3	3.03	25	20	229.4 → 151.0	229.4 → 104.9

Tabla 2. Datos de interés del método de LC-MS/MS para los compuestos estudiados y el patrón interno (PI)

^a Las transiciones corresponeden a: m/z del ión precursor \rightarrow m/z del ión producto



Blanco de suero fortificado con 200 ng L^{-1} de los analitos y del patrón interno (PI)

Cromatograma obtenido aplicando el método propuesto

ESTUDIO DE EFECTO MATRIZ

	 Matrices estudiadas → agua desionizada, suero sintético y suero humano Preparación suero sintético: disolución de NaCL (2.4 g), NaH₂PO₄·H₂O (1.2 g) y Na₂HPO₄ (4.3 g) en 1 L de agua desionizada Comparación de pendientes: Test t de Student
Comparación de matrices	→ diferencias significativas (5% de nivel de significación)
	■ Corrección → calibración por adición de
	patrón (un calibrado para cada muestra) o
	calibración mediante simulación de la matriz
	(un calibrado común para todas las muestras
	(un calibrado comun para todas las indestras)
	preparado con un poor de las indestrasj
	■ 4 voluntarios → 5 matrices (4 sueros
	individuales + 1 <i>pool</i> de sueros) → 5 curvas de calibrado
	 Los voluntarios no empleaban cosméticos
Calibración mediante	 Comparación de los 4 sueros conjuntamente:
simulación de la matriz	Test ANOVA → estadísticamente
	comparables (5% de nivel de significación)

• Comparación de cada suero individual con el pool de sueros \rightarrow Test t de Student \rightarrow estadísticamente comparables (5% de nivel de significación)

MÉTODO DE CALIBRACIÓN

Método de calibración seleccionado **Calibración mediante simulación de la matriz** (los estudios de comparación de pendientes muestran la posibilidad de trabajar con una única curva de calibrado construida con un *pool* de todas las muestras) adicionando **patrón interno** a la muestra para disminuir la variabilidad de los resultados debidas a todo el proceso

Señal analítica

Patrón interno seleccionado

 $\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}$, donde A_i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito *i* y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno

DHDMB fue seleccionado como patrón interno ya que:

- Pertenece a la misma familia que los analitos
- Se extrae correctamente en cloroformo mediante el método propuesto
- No se encuentra en las muestras de sangre (filtro UV prohibido en la UE)

CARACTERÍSTICAS ANALÍTICAS DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Parámetros de calidad estudiados (Tabla 3)	 Factor de preconcentración (FP) Linealidad Límites de detección (LDD) y límites de cuantificación (LDC) Precisión Recuperación 		
Factor de preconcentración	 FP = C_{sed}/C₀, donde C_{sed} corresponde a la concentración en la fase sedimentada y C₀ a la concentración inicial en la fase acuosa Valores de FP comprendidos entre 3.1 y 7.4 No se consigue una elevada preconcentración pero sí una limpieza eficiente 		
Linealidad	 Linealidad ≥ 5000 μg L⁻¹ en todos los casos Intervalo de trabajo: 50-250 μg L⁻¹ 6 puntos de calibración elevado nivel de linealidad (coeficientes de regresión (R²) entre 0.9990 y 0.9992) 		
Límites de detección y cuantificación	 LDD = 3sy/x/b LDC = 10sy/x/b donde Sy/x corresponde a la desviación estándar residual y b a la pendiente de la curva de calibrado obtenida LDD en las muestras comprendidos entre 7 y 8 μg L⁻¹ LDC en las muestras comprendidos entre 22 y 28 μg L⁻¹ El método propuesto permite la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de concentración bajos en una matriz compleja (suero sanguíneo) 		

	 Expresada como desviación estándar relativa (% RSD)
Precisión	 Estudiada fortificando un <i>pool</i> de blancos de suero a dos niveles de concentración (50 y 200 μg L⁻¹) → cinco réplicas en cada caso
	 Las réplicas se analizaron durante la misma sesión de trabajo (precisión intra-día)
	 Resultados comprendidos entre 4 y 9 % → buena precisión
	 Se fortificaron 4 blancos de suero de distintos voluntarios con 150 μg L⁻¹ de los analitos
	• Coef. de recuperación (%) = $\frac{C_{M+P}-C_M}{C_P} \cdot 100$,
Recuperación	donde C_M corresponde a la concentración de la muestra sin fortificar, C_{M+P} a la concentración de la muestra fortificada y C_P a la concentración del patrón añadido a la muestra (concentración fortificada)
	 Coeficientes de recuperación comprendidos
	entre 77 y 104 % → buena exactitud
	empleando calibración en matriz

Filtro	FD	Pendiente $\pm s \cdot 10^4$	P2 LDD	LDD LDC	Precisión, RSD(%)		
UV		(ng⁻¹ L)	N	(ngL⁻¹)	(ngL ⁻¹)	50 μgL ⁻¹	200 µgL ⁻¹
BZ3	3.1±0.2	82 ± 1	0.9991	8	28	9	8
DHB	7.4±0.6	352 ± 6	0.9990	8	27	8	6
DHMB	3.4±0.1	90 ± 1	0.9992	7	22	9	4

Tabla 3. Parámetros analíticos del método propuesto

Muestras analizadas

APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

- Sangre de dos voluntarios
- Se aplicaron en el cuerpo una crema de protección solar (20 g voluntario A (hombre) y 30 g voluntario B (mujer)) elaborada en el laboratorio conteniendo 5 % de BZ3



Perfil cinético

Resultados expresados como la media de tres réplicas

- El perfil cinético de BZ3 fue similar en ambos casos
- BZ3 presenta un máximo en las primeras horas. Tras 24 h todavía se detecta
- DHB se detecta a partir de la primera hora
- DHDMB se detecta en cantidades muy bajas

CONCLUSIONES

- El método propuesto, basado en la hidrólisis de las muestras de suero seguida de DLLME previa al análisis por LC-MS/MS, permite la determinación del contenido total (forma libre + conjugada) de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano.
- La hidrólisis ácida del suero permite tanto la precipitación de las proteínas como la deconjugación de los metabolitos de fase II.
- La DLLME se emplea tanto para preconcentrar como para limpiar las muestras de suero (matriz muy compleja).
- La calibración externa empleando patrones en agua desionizada o suero sintético no es posible debido a la presencia de efecto matriz. Sin embargo, la calibración mediante simulación de la matriz proporcionó buenos resultados.
- El método propuesto fue satisfactoriamente validado y aplicado al estudio del perfil cinético de BZ3 en dos voluntarios. En ambos casos el perfil obtenido fue similar.

ANEXO 6.1

PROTOCOLO DE ELABORACIÓN DE LA FORMULACIÓN COSMÉTICA ELABORADA PARA EL DESARROLLO DE ESTE ESTUDIO

En el desarrollo de este capítulo se ha elaborado una crema para la protección solar conteniendo BZ3 que se aplicaron los voluntarios humanos que participaron en este estudio. A continuación se detallan los ingredientes empleados, así como la composición y el modo de preparación de esta formulación cosmética.

INGREDIENTES EMPLEADOS EN LA FORMULACIÓN COSMÉTICA

Los ingredientes cosméticos utilizados para la elaboración de la crema para la protección solar detallada anteriormente fueron proporcionados por Guinama S.L. (Valencia). A continuación se detallan sus funciones, así como la composición de alguno de ellos.

- Aceite de aguacate: mezcla natural de ácidos grasos saturados, oleico y linoleico, muy rica en vitaminas A, B₁, B₂, D y E. Actúa principalmente como emoliente.
- Base PFC o/w: crema base que permite la elaboración de emulsiones aceite/agua compuesta por una mezcla de miristato de miristilo, alcohol cetílico, laureato de monoglicerilo, octanoato de cetearilo, miristato de isopropilo y otros componentes de naturaleza lipófila.
- Dimeticona 350: mezcla de polímeros entre los que se encuentra la dimetilsilicona y dimetilsiloxano. Entre sus funciones destaca favorecer la formación de emulsiones, proporcionar una mayor untuosidad y suavidad en la aplicación del producto y actuar como vehículo de los componentes activos.
- Hidrovitón[®]: mezcla de aminoácidos, lactato sódico, urea, alantoina, alcoholes, cloruro sódico y de humectantes cuya función es hidratar la piel.
- Fenonip[®]: mezcla de parabenos y fenoxietanol que actúa como conservante.
- Propilenglicol: agente emulgente que actúa también como humectante, impidiendo la desecación de la capa córnea de la piel.

PREPARACIÓN DE LA CREMA PARA LA PROTECCIÓN SOLAR

Composición

Fase A:	Base PFC o/w	18 %
	Aceite de aguacate	5 %
	Dimeticona 350	5 %
	BZ3	5 %
Fase B:	Propilenglicol	5 %
	Hidrovitón	4 %
	Agua	c.s.p. 100%
Fase C:	Fenonip	0.5 %

Modo de preparación

Se pesan los componentes de las fases A y B en sendos vasos de precipitados, se tapan con un vidrio de reloj y se sumergen en un baño de agua (aproximadamente a 70 °C) hasta que se funda la fase A y se disuelvan los principios activos. A continuación, se vierte muy lentamente y bajo agitación continua la fase B sobre la fase A. Finalmente, se saca el vaso de precipitados del baño y, sin dejar de agitar, se deja enfriar hasta alcanzar una temperatura de 30-35 °C, adicionando entonces la fase C. Se mantiene la agitación hasta conseguir la completa homogenización. Finalmente, se deja enfriar hasta temperatura ambiente.

CAPÍTULO 7

DETERMINACIÓN DE 3-(4'-METILBENCILIDEN)CANFOR Y SU PRINCIPAL METABOLITO EN SEMEN HUMANO MEDIANTE EXTRACCIÓN EN FASE SÓLIDA SEGUIDA DE CROMATOGRAFÍA DE LÍQUIDOS Y ESPECTROMETRÍA DE MASAS EN TÁNDEM

El contenido de este capítulo ha sido redactado en forma de artículo con el título Determination of 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor and its main metabolite in human semen by solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry, I. Tarazona, A. Chisvert, A. Salvador, y enviado a la revista Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis, estando actualmente en proceso de revisión.

INTRODUCCIÓN

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Objetivo	Desarrollar un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (libre + conjugado) del filtro UV 3-(4'-metilbenciliden) canfor (MBC) y su principal metabolito (CBC), en semen humano, con el fin de contribuir al estudio de la absorción percutánea de este filtro UV
Método propuesto	 Preparación de la muestra: hidrólisis ácida previa a SPE Técnica de análisis: LC-MS/MS
Interés del trabajo	 Los filtros UV presentes en los cosméticos son absorbidos percutáneamente tras su aplicación, posteriormente metabolizados en el cuerpo humano y finalmente excretados/expulsados Estos compuestos presentan importantes efectos adversos, como fotoalergia, disrupción endocrina o carcinogénesis En una publicación reciente se ha sugerido que los filtros UV podrían afectar en la calidad del semen, por lo que las investigaciones en este fluido biológico resultan actualmente muy interesantes No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente a la determinación de MBC y su principal metabolito en semen humano

COMPUESTOS ESTUDIADOS

Metabolitos de fase I



Tabla 1. Datos de interés de los compuestos estudiados

Filtro UV	Fórmula Molecular	Número CAS	pKaª
MBC	C ₁₈ H ₂₂ O	36861-47-9	-
CBC	C ₁₈ H ₂₀ O ₃	68801-01-4	$\textbf{4.2}\pm\textbf{0.1}$
CBC-OH	$C_{18}H_{21}O_4$	915796-58-6	$\textbf{4.16} \pm \textbf{0.10}$

^a Calculado empleando el software Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) V8.14 de Solaris (©1994-2010 CD/Labs)

HIDRÓLISIS DE CONJUGADOS Y PRECIPITACIÓN DE PROTEÍNAS

Finalidad	 Hidrólisis de los conjugados glucurónicos y sulfatados (metabolitos de fase II) → determinar el contenido total de los analitos (libre + conjugado) Precipitación de las proteínas → reducir interferencias y evitar que la precipitación se produzca en el LC
Estrategias de hidrólisis	 Hidrólisis ácida → HCl + calor (100°C) Manteniendo calor durante 1 h también se desnaturalizan las proteínas (precipitan) Hidrólisis enzimática → β-glucuronidasa/ sulfatasa (37° 12 h) Necesario añadir disolventes orgánicos que causen la precipitación de las proteínas
Estrategia seleccionada	 Hidrólisis ácida Ácidos ensayados: ácido fórmico, ácido fosfórico y ácido clorhídrico Mejores resultados adicionando HCl 12M (150 μL por mL de semen) seguido de agitación con vórtex
Procedimiento experimental	150 µL HCl 12 M/ mL semen 100 °C $6000 rpm1.5-2 mLsemenSPE$

c

EXTRACCIÓN EN FASE SÓLIDA

Variables estudiadas	 pH de la muestra Etapa de lavado Etapa de elución
Cartuchos de extracción	Se emplearon cartuchos con adsorbente de tipo C ₁₈ (100 mg, 1 mL) ya que presentaban una adecuada capacidad para retener a los analitos
Señal analítica	y = A _i , donde A _i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito i
Disoluciones empleadas	Disolución multicomponente acuosa de 100 ng mL ⁻¹

Procedimiento experimental general



Estudio del pH de la muestra

Selección del pH

- La forma neutra de los compuestos se extraerá de manera más efectiva en los cartuchos C₁₈ que la forma ionizada
- De acuerdo con las estructuras de MBC y CBC, sólo CBC es susceptible de ser ionizado. A valores de pH inferiores a 2 CBC permanece cuantitativamente en la forma neutra (ver Tabla 1, pág. 154)
- La hidrólisis ácida proporciona el pH adecuado para la óptima retención del CBC, por lo tanto no es necesario realizar ningún ajuste del pH

Etapa de lavado

Estudio de las etapas de lavado y de elución

- Finalidad: eliminar los compuestos más polares de la matriz
- Volumen empleado: 1200 µL de agua desionizada
- Inconveniente: al añadir volúmenes elevados los cartuchos se obturan
- Solución: realizar 3 lavados de 400 µL, eluir lentamente y dejar secar entre lavados
- Finalidad: emplear el menor volumen de disolvente orgánico posible (para reducir el tiempo de evaporación posterior y para contribuir a la química "verde")
- Disolvente empleado: acetona, ya que los analitos presentan elevada afinidad por este disolvente
- V_{acetona} = 250-1000 μL
- Resultados:



Volumen de eluyente seleccionado: 500 μL

Etapa de elución

MÉTODO PROPUESTO

1. Hidrólisis de los conjugados y precipitación de las proteínas



2. SPE e inyección en el sistema cromatográfico



Condiciones LC-MS/MS

- Columna: Gemini C18 110A (150 x 4.6 mm, 5 μm)
- V_{inyección} = 10 μL
- Composición de la fase móvil:
 - disolvente A : agua desionizada con 0.1% de ácido fórmico
 - disolvente B: metanol con 0.1% de ácido fórmico
- Flujo de la fase móvil: 1 mL min⁻¹
- Gradiente de elución:

Tiempo (min)	% Disolvente A	% Disolvente B
0	60	40
0.5	40	60
2	0	100
6	0	100
6.5	60	40
8.5	60	40

- T_{horno}= 40 ºC
- Ionización por electrospray en modo positivo (ESI⁺) para MBC y MBC-d₄ y en modo negativo (ESI⁻) para CBC y CBC-OH, mediante monitorización de reacciones múltiples (MRM)
- Voltaje del capilar= 5.5 kV (ESI⁺), -4.5 kV (ESI⁻)
- P_{gas cortina} = 20 psi
- P_{gas nebulizador} = 40 psi
- P_{turbo gas} = 70 psi
- T_{fuente}= 600 °C
- Tiempo de respuesta= 80 ms
- Las transiciones MRM de confirmación y cuantificación para cada compuesto se muestran en la Tabla 2.



Compuesto	Transición de cuantificación ^a	Transiciones de confirmación ^a	
MBC	255.00 → 105.00	255.00 → 171.00	255.00 → 212.00
CBC	282.98 → 238.80	282.98 → 257.00	282.98 → 255.00
CBC-OH	299.00 → 255.00	299.00 → 237.00	
$MBC-d_4$	259.00 → 216.00		

Tabla 2. Transiciones MRM para el análisis por LC-MS/MS de MBC, CBC, CBC-OH y el patrón interno (PI) en las muestras de semen

^a Las transiciones corresponeden a: m/z del ión precursor \rightarrow m/z del ión producto



Blanco de semen fortificado con 40 $\mu g~L^{\text{-1}}$ de los analitos y 120 $\mu g~L^{\text{-1}}$ del patrón interno (PI)

Cromatograma obtenido aplicando el método propuesto

ESTUDIO DE EFECTO MATRIZ

Matrices estudiadas → agua desionizada, semen humano

- Comparación de pendientes: Test *t de Student* → diferencias significativas (5% de nivel de
 significación)
- Corrección → calibración por adición de patrón (un calibrado para cada muestra) o calibración mediante simulación de la matriz (un calibrado común para todas las muestras preparado con un *pool* de las muestras)
- 3 voluntarios → 4 matrices (3 calibrados individuales + 1 calibrado *pool* de semen) → 4 curvas de calibrado
- Los voluntarios no empleaban cosméticos conteniendo MBC
- Comparación de cada semen individual con el pool de semen → Test t de Student → estadísticamente comparables (5% de nivel de significación)

Comparación de matrices

Calibración mediante simulación de la matriz

MÉTODO DE CALIBRACIÓN

Método de calibración seleccionado **Calibración mediante simulación de la matriz** (los estudios de comparación de pendientes muestran la posibilidad de trabajar con una única curva de calibrado construida con un *pool* de todas las muestras) adicionando **patrón interno** a la muestra para disminuir la variabilidad de los resultados debidas a los procesos de extracción, evaporación, reconstitución e inyección de la muestra.

Señal analítica

Patrón interno seleccionado

 $\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}$, donde A_i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito *i* y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno

 $\textbf{MBC-d}_4$ fue seleccionado como patrón interno ya que:

- Estructuralmente es muy similar a los compuestos estudiados
- Al ser un compuesto deuterado no se puede encontrar en las muestras de semen
- No tiene grupos ionizables, por lo que no se ve afectado por el pH de la muestra

CARACTERÍSTICAS ANALÍTICAS DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Parámetros de calidad estudiados

Rendimiento de la extracción

- Rendimiento de la extracción
- Linealidad
- Límites de detección (LDD) y límites de cuantificación (LDC)
- Precisión
- Recuperación
- Comparación de las señales obtenidas aplicando al método propuesto a un patrón extraído y un patrón sin extraer
- La cantidad de muestra cargada en SPE es 400 μL y tras realizar el proceso completo el residuo se reconstituye en 100 μL de fase móvil → factor de enriquecimiento máximo: 400/100= 4 (100% rendimiento)
- Patrones comparados: 200 μg L⁻¹ (extraído) y 800 μg L⁻¹ (sin extraer)
- Rendimientos obtenidos: 50 % (MBC) y 90% (CBC)
- No se consigue un rendimiento elevado para MBC pero sí una limpieza eficiente
- Linealidad ≥ 5000 µg L⁻¹ en todos los casos
- Intervalo de trabajo: 20-100 μg L⁻¹
 - 6 puntos de calibración
 - nivel de linealidad aceptable (coeficientes de regresión (R²): 0.9757 (MBC) y 0.9918 (CBC))

Linealidad

Límites de detección y cuantificación

Precisión

Recuperación

- Calculados para las muestras como el valor de concentración correspondiente a un valor de señal/ruido de 3 (LD) o de 10 (LC)
- LDD: 3 μg L⁻¹ (MBC) γ 6 μg L⁻¹ (CBC)
- LDC: 10 μg L⁻¹ (MBC) γ 20 μg L⁻¹ (CBC)
- El método propuesto permite la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de concentración bajos en una matriz compleja (semen)
- Expresada como desviación estándar relativa (% RSD)
- Estudiada fortificando un *pool* de blancos de semen a dos niveles de concentración (20 y 100 µg L⁻¹) → cinco réplicas en cada caso
- Las réplicas se analizaron durante la misma sesión de trabajo (precisión *intra-día*) y en diferentes sesiones (precisión *inter-día*)
- Resultados comprendidos entre 6 y 9 % (*intra-día*) y 7 y 14 % (*inter-día*) → buena precisión
- Se fortificaron 3 blancos de semen de distintos voluntarios con 60 μg L⁻¹ de los analitos
- Coef. de recuperación (%)= $\frac{C_{M+P}-C_M}{C_P} \cdot 100$, donde C_M corresponde a la concentración de la

muestra sin fortificar, C_{M+P} a la concentración de la muestra fortificada y C_P a la concentración del patrón añadido a la muestra (concentración fortificada)

 Coeficientes de recuperación comprendidos entre 92 y 114 % → buena exactitud empleando calibración en matriz común

APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Dos voluntarios

Muestras analizadas

 Se aplicaron en el cuerpo una crema de protección solar (28 g voluntario A y 16 g voluntario B) elaborada en el laboratorio conteniendo 4 % de MBC



Resultados de concentración de MBC expresados como la media de tres réplicas

- El perfil cinético de MBC fue similar en ambos casos, con un máximo de concentración en MBC tras las 48 h de la aplicación de la crema
- CBC se detectó desde las primeras 24 h tras la aplicación de la crema en ambos casos pero los valores de concentración encontrados estaban por debajo del límite de cuantificación.
- CBC-OH fue monitorizado en todos los casos pero no fue detectado en ninguna de las muestras

Perfil cinético

CONCLUSIONES

- El método propuesto, basado en la hidrólisis de las muestras de semen seguida de SPE previa al análisis por LC-MS/MS, permite la determinación del contenido total (forma libre + conjugada) de MBC y su principal metabolito en semen humano.
- La hidrólisis ácida del semen permite tanto la precipitación de las proteínas como la deconjugación de los metabolitos de fase II.
- La SPE se emplea principalmente para limpiar las muestras de semen, ya que se trata de una matriz muy compleja.
- La calibración externa empleando patrones en agua desionizada no es posible debido a la presencia de efecto matriz. Sin embargo, la calibración en matriz mediante simulación de la matriz proporcionó buenos resultados.
- El método propuesto se validó satisfactoriamente y se aplicó al estudio del perfil cinético de MBC en dos voluntarios. En ambos casos el perfil obtenido fue similar.
ANEXO 7.1

PROTOCOLO DE ELABORACIÓN DE LA FORMULACIÓN COSMÉTICA ELABORADA PARA EL DESARROLLO DE ESTE ESTUDIO

En el desarrollo de este capítulo se ha elaborado una crema para la protección solar conteniendo MBC que se aplicaron los voluntarios humanos que participaron en este estudio. A continuación se detallan los ingredientes empleados, así como la composición y el modo de preparación de esta formulación cosmética.

INGREDIENTES EMPLEADOS EN LA FORMULACIÓN COSMÉTICA

Los ingredientes cosméticos utilizados para la elaboración de la crema para la protección solar detallada anteriormente fueron proporcionados por Guinama S.L. (Valencia). A continuación se detallan sus funciones, así como la composición de alguno de ellos.

- Aceite de aguacate: mezcla natural de ácidos grasos saturados, oleico y linoleico, muy rica en vitaminas A, B₁, B₂, D y E. Actúa principalmente como emoliente.
- Base PFC o/w: crema base que permite la elaboración de emulsiones aceite/agua compuesta por una mezcla de miristato de miristilo, alcohol cetílico, laureato de monoglicerilo, octanoato de cetearilo, miristato de isopropilo y otros componentes de naturaleza lipófila.
- Dimeticona 350: mezcla de polímeros entre los que se encuentra la dimetilsilicona y dimetilsiloxano. Entre sus funciones destaca favorecer la formación de emulsiones, proporcionar una mayor untuosidad y suavidad en la aplicación del producto y actuar como vehículo de los componentes activos.
- Hidrovitón[®]: mezcla de aminoácidos, lactato sódico, urea, alantoina, alcoholes, cloruro sódico y de humectantes cuya función es hidratar la piel.
- Fenonip[®]: mezcla de parabenos y fenoxietanol que actúa como conservante.
- Propilenglicol: agente emulgente que actúa también como humectante, impidiendo la desecación de la capa córnea de la piel.

PREPARACIÓN DE LA CREMA PARA LA PROTECCIÓN SOLAR

Composición

Fase A:	Base PFC o/w	18 %
	Aceite de aguacate	5 %
	Dimeticona 350	5 %
	MBC	4 %
Fase B:	Propilenglicol	5 %
	Hidrovitón	4 %
	Agua	c.s.p. 100%
Fase C:	Fenonip	0.5 %

Modo de preparación

Se pesan los componentes de las fases A y B en sendos vasos de precipitados, se tapan con un vidrio de reloj y se sumergen en un baño de agua (aproximadamente a 70 °C) hasta que se funda la fase A y se disuelvan los principios activos. A continuación, se vierte muy lentamente y bajo agitación continua la fase B sobre la fase A. Finalmente, se saca el vaso de precipitados del baño y, sin dejar de agitar, se deja enfriar hasta alcanzar una temperatura de 30-35 °C, adicionando entonces la fase C. Se mantiene la agitación hasta conseguir la completa homogenización. Finalmente, se deja enfriar hasta temperatura ambiente.

CAPÍTULO 8

DETERMINACIÓN DE BENZOFENONAS HIDROXILADAS EN AGUA DE MAR MEDIANTE MICROEXTRACCIÓN LÍQUIDO-LÍQUIDO DISPERSIVA SEGUIDA DE CROMATOGRAFÍA DE GASES CON DETECTOR DE ESPECTROMETRÍA DE MASAS

El contenido de este capítulo ha sido publicado en el artículo Determination of hydroxylated benzophenone UV filters in sea water samples by dispersive liquidliquid microextraction followed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry, I. Tarazona, A. Chisvert, Z. León, A. Salvador, **Journal of Chromatography A**, 1217 (2010) 4771-4778 y presentado como cartel en la XI Reunión Científica de la Sociedad Española de Cromatografía y Técnicas Afines, San Sebastián, 2009

INTRODUCCIÓN

Objetivo

Desarrollar un método analítico que permita la determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua de mar a nivel de trazas

Método propuesto

Interés del trabajo

- Preparación de muestra: DLLME previa a la derivatización de los anallitos
- Técnica de análisis: GC-MS
- Los filtros UV, entre ellos las benzofenonas hidroxiladas, se acumulan en el medio ambiente acuático debido al uso de productos cosméticos
- Estos compuestos presentan actividad de disrupción endocrina incluso a nivel de trazas, y se consideran en la actualidad contaminantes emergentes
- No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV en aguas ni en ningún otro tipo de matriz

COMPUESTOS ESTUDIADOS



Tabla 1. Datos de interés de la	is benzofenonas	hidroxiladas	estudiadas
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Filtro UV	Fórmula Molecular	Número CAS	pKaª
BZ3	$C_{14}H_{12}O_3$	131-57-7	$\textbf{7.56} \pm \textbf{0.35}$
DHB	$C_{13}H_{10}O_{3}$	131-56-6	7.53 ± 0.35
DHMB	$C_{14}H_{12}O_4$	131-53-3	$\textbf{6.99} \pm \textbf{0.35}$
ТНВ	$C_{13}H_{10}O_4$	1143-72-2	$\textbf{7.51} \pm \textbf{0.40}$

^a Calculado empleando el software Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) V8.14 de Solaris ([©]1994-2010 CD/Labs)

ETAPA DE DERIVATIZACIÓN

Finalidad de la derivatización	Aumentar la volatilidad de los analitos para facilitar su determinación mediante GC
Estrategia de derivatización	 Estratregias posibles → sililación, alquilación, esterificación, acilación Estrategia seleccionada → sililación. Los analitos presentan hidrógenos lábiles, y el proceso de derivatización puede alcanzarse fácilmente
Reacción de sililación	
CH₃ P OH + H₃C-Si-O-R' ←→ CH₃	$ \left[\begin{array}{c} H_{8}C \\ R - O - \cdots - Si - \cdots - O - R' \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ CH_{8} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{CH_{8}} CH_{8} + HO - R' $
Variables estudiadas	 Reactivo derivatizante Tiempo y temperatura de la reacción Estabilidad de los compuestos derivatizados
Señal analítica	$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}$, donde A_i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito <i>i</i> y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno (DHDMB)
Disoluciones empleadas	 Disolución multicomponente de 1 μg mL⁻¹ de los analitos en hexano (P_{multi}) Disolución de 2 μg mL⁻¹ de PI en hexano

Estudio del reactivo derivatizante



Estudio del tiempo de reacción



179

Estudio de la temperatura de reacción



Estabilidad de los compuestos derivatizados



MICROEXTRACCIÓN LÍQUIDO-LÍQUIDO DISPERSIVA

- Naturaleza del disolvente dispersante y del disolvente de extracción
- Volumen del disolvente de extracción
- Volumen del disolvente dispersante
- pH de la fase dadora
- Fuerza iónica de la fase dadora
- Tiempo de extracción
- $\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}$, donde A_i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito *i* y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno (DHDMB). Se añade tras la extracción para minimizar las posibles desviaciones debidas al proceso de inyección en el GC
- El volumen de fase sedimentada presenta una gran variabilidad
- Recoger toda la fase sedimentada en cada caso puede suponer la inyección de pequeños volúmenes de agua en el GC-MS
- Corrección:
 - medir el volumen total de fase sedimentada (V_{sed}) en cada caso
 - tomar una alícuota de un volumen fijo (V_{ali}=15 μL) para su análisis
 - calcular la señal analítica corregida:

$$\mathbf{y}_{cor} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{A}_{i}}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}\right)_{cor} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{A}_{i}}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}\right) \left(\frac{\mathbf{V}_{sed}}{\mathbf{V}_{ali}}\right)$$

Variables estudiadas

Señal analítica

Corrección de la señal analítica

Capítulo 8

Disoluciones empleadas

- Disolución multicomponente de 100 ng mL⁻¹ de los analitos en agua
- Disolución de 2 μg mL⁻¹ de PI en hexano

Procedimiento experimental general



Estudio del tipo de disolvente dispersante y de extracción

Características del disolvente de extracción	 Baja solubilidad en agua Capacidad de extracción de los analitos Densidad mayor que la del agua para facilitar su recogida Punto de ebullición bajo si se requiere evaporar tras la extracción o se va a inyectar en un equipo de GC
Características del disolvente dispersante	 Miscible en agua y en el disolvente de extracción Capacidad para formar la dispersión
Disolventes de extracción estudiados	 Diclorometano (CH₂Cl₂) Cloroformo (CHCl₃) Tetracloruro de carbono (CCl₄) Estudio
Disolventes dispersantes estudiados	 Acetona Acetonitrilo Etanol
Procedimiento experimental	$\begin{array}{c} & & \\$

produce

separación de fases tras centrifugar 35 Acetona+CHCl₂ Acetona+CCl₄ 30 Acetonitrilo+CHCl₃ Acetonitrilo+CCl₄ 25 Etanol+CCl₄ (A_i/A_{PI}) 10 5 0 B73 DHB DHMB тнв Resultados expresados como la media de tres réplicas

Con

 Mejores resultados obtenidos para la mezcla acetona-cloroformo

Con diclorometano como disolvente de

no

se

extracción no se forma dispersión

etanol-cloroformo

- Disolvente dispersante seleccionado: acetona
- Disolvente de extracción seleccionado: cloroformo

Observaciones Iniciales

Resultados

Efecto del volumen de disolvente de extracción



Efecto del volumen de disolvente dispersante



Efecto del pH de la fase acuosa



Efecto de la fuerza iónica de la fase acuosa



Efecto del tiempo de extracción



MÉTODO PROPUESTO



Condiciones GC-MS

- Flujo He= 1 mL min⁻¹
- V_{invección} = 1 μL (sin división de flujo)
- T_{invector} = 280 °C
- T_{interfase} = 280 ºC
- Programa de temperatura del horno:
 - 130 ºC (1 min)
 - 20 °C min⁻¹ hasta 200 °C
 - 3 °C min⁻¹ hasta 250 °C
 - 20 °C min⁻¹ hasta 280 °C (3 min)
- Columna: Trace TR-5MS (95% dimetil-5% fenilpolisiloxano, 30 m, 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm)
- E_{ionización} = 70 eV
- T_{fuente} = 300 °C



Filtro UV	Tiempo de Retención (min)	lón seleccionado (m/z)	Intervalo de tiempo de adquisición (min)
BZ3	9.26	285	6.5-10.5
DHB	9.79	343	6.5-10.5
DHMB	11.03	373	10.5-13.5
ТНВ	11.15	431	10.5-13.5
DHDMB (PI)	14.36	403	13.5-20.0

 Tabla 2. Datos de interés del método de GC-MS para los compuestos objeto de estudio y el patrón interno (PI)



Patrón de 200 ng L⁻¹ de BZ3, DHB, DHMB y THB, y 1600 ng L⁻¹ de PI en agua desionizada

Cromatograma obtenido aplicando el método propuesto

ESTUDIO DE EFECTO MATRIZ

Recuperación (Tabla 3)	 Se fortificaron por triplicado tres muestras de agua de mar con los analitos a dos niveles de concentración (200 ng L⁻¹ y 400 ng L⁻¹) Coef. de recuperación (%) = CM+P-CM/CP · 100, donde CM corresponde a la concentración de la muestra sin fortificar, CM+P a la concentración de la muestra fortificada y CP a la concentración del patrón añadido a la muestra (concentración fortificada)
	 Los coeficientes de recuperación obtenidos muestran un acusado efecto matriz en el caso
	de DHB y THB ■ Corrección → calibración por adición de patrón

Tabla 3. Coeficientes de recuperación (%) obtenidos para el estudio del efecto matriz en el análisis de tres muestras de agua de mar

	Coeficiente de recuperación (%)							
Filtro	Muestra 1ª		Muestra 2 ^b		Muestra 3 ^c			
	200 ng L ⁻¹	400 ng L ⁻¹	200 ng L ⁻¹	400 ng L ⁻¹	200 ng L ⁻¹	400 ng L ⁻¹		
BZ3	93 ± 4	82 ± 5	82 ± 8	87 ± 8	111 ± 4	126 ± 3		
DHB	65 ± 5	73 ± 10	104 ± 12	123 ± 10	169 ± 9	151 ± 8		
DHMB	114 ± 9	120 ± 5	99 ± 4	117 ± 10	107 ± 3	100 ± 5		
тнв	90 ± 5	100 ± 4	82 ± 6	92 ± 3	222 ± 10	217 ± 11		

^a Muestra 1: Playa Los Narejos (Murcia, España)

^b Muestra 2: Playa de Poniente (Benidorm, España)

^c Muestra 3: Playa del Postiguet (Alicante, España)

MÉTODO DE CALIBRACIÓN

Método de calibración seleccionado **Calibración por adición de patrón** (los valores de coeficiente de recuperación revelan errores proporcionales debidos a la matriz para algunos analitos), adicionando **patrón interno** a la muestra para disminuir la variabilidad de los resultados debidas a todo el proceso

Señal analítica

Patrón interno seleccionado $\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{PI}}}, \text{ donde } A_i \text{ corresponde al área del pico}$ cromatográfico del analito *i* y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno

DHDMB fue seleccionado como patrón interno ya que:

- Es de la misma familia que los analitos
- Se extrae correctamente en cloroformo mediante el método propuesto
- Su presencia en las muestras de agua es poco probable (filtro UV prohibido en la UE)

CARACTERÍSTICAS ANALÍTICAS DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Parámetros de calidad estudiados (Tabla 4)	 Factor de preconcentración (FP) Linealidad Límites de detección (LDD) y límites de cuantificación (LDC) Precisión intra-día 				
Factor de preconcentración	 FP = C_{sed}/C₀, donde C_{sed} corresponde a la concentración en la fase sedimentada y C₀ a la concentración inicial en la fase acuosa Valores de FP comprendidos entre 75 y 107 				
Linealidad	 Linealidad ≥ 50 μg L⁻¹ en todos los casos Intervalo de trabajo: 200-1000 ng L⁻¹ 6 puntos de calibración elevado nivel de linealidad (coeficientes de regresión (R²) entre 0.9990 y 0.9994) 				
Límites de detección y cuantificación	 LDD = ^{3s}_{y/x}/_b LDC = ^{10s}_{y/x}/_b donde s_{y/x} corresponde a la desviación estándar residual y b a la pendiente de la curva de calibrado obtenida LDD en las muestras comprendidos entre 32 y 50 ng L⁻¹ LDC en las muestras comprendidos entre 108 y 168 ng L⁻¹ El método propuesto permite la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de (ultra)trazas 				

- Expresada como desviación estándar relativa (% RSD)
- El método propuesto se aplicó a cinco réplicas de una disolución patrón de 500 ng L⁻¹ en la misma sesión de trabajo (precisión *intra-día*)
- Resultados próximos al 6 % en todos los casos: buena precisión

Filtro UV	FP	Pendiente x 10 ⁵ (ng ⁻¹ L)	R ²	LDD (ng L ⁻¹)	LDC (ng L ⁻¹)	Precisión, RSD (%)
BZ3	77	119 ± 2	0.9993	33	110	5.6
DHB	75	114 ± 2	0.9994	32	108	6.2
DHMB	78	88 ± 2	0.9994	33	109	5.6
THB	107	10.9 ± 0.2	0.9990	50	168	5.8

Tabla 4. Parámetros analíticos del método propuesto

Precisión

APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Muestras analizadas	 Tres muestras de agua de mar de distinta procedencia recogidas durante la estación de verano Analizadas por triplicado empleando el método DLLME-GC-MS propuesto y la calibración por adición estándar
Resultados (Tabla 5)	 Todas las muestras contenían cantidades apreciables de BZ3 (1340-3300 ng L⁻¹) (filtro UV ampliamente utilizado) DHB sólo se cuantificó en una de las muestras DHMB y THB no se detectaron en ninguna muestra → concentraciones por debajo del límite de detección (<ldd)< li=""> </ldd)<>

Tabla 5. Concentraciones encontradas de las benzofenonas hidroxiladas objeto de estudio en muestras de agua de mar tras aplicar el método DLLME-GC-MS propuesto

Filtro UV 🛛 🗕	Concentración (ng L ⁻¹)				
	Muestra 1ª	Muestra 2 ^b	Muestra 3 ^c		
BZ3	1440 ± 130	1340 ± 60	3300 ± 200		
DHB	280 ± 30	<ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""></ldd<></td></ldd<>	<ldd< td=""></ldd<>		
DHMB	<ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""></ldd<></td></ldd<></td></ldd<>	<ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""></ldd<></td></ldd<>	<ldd< td=""></ldd<>		
ТНВ	<ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""></ldd<></td></ldd<></td></ldd<>	<ldd< td=""><td><ldd< td=""></ldd<></td></ldd<>	<ldd< td=""></ldd<>		

^a Muestra 1: Playa Los Narejos (Murcia, España)

^b Muestra 2: Playa de Poniente (Benidorm, España)

^c Muestra 3: Playa del Postiguet (Alicante, España)

CONCLUSIONES

- El método propuesto, basado en DLLME como técnica de extracción previa al análisis por GC-MS, permite la determinación de varias benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua de mar a nivel de trazas.
- Se han obtenido buenos parámetros analíticos, incluyendo factores de preconcentración, límites de detección y repetibilidad. Con el fin de corregir el efecto matriz, se ha propuesto la calibración por adición de patrón.
- Se trata de un método analítico simple, rápido, de bajo coste y respetuoso con el medio ambiente y con el operario, ya que se utilizan cantidades muy pequeñas de disolventes orgánicos.

CAPÍTULO 9

DESARROLLO DE UN MÉTODO ANALÍTICO BASADO EN CROMATOGRAFÍA DE GASES CON DETECTOR DE ESPECTROMETRÍA DE MASAS PARA LA DETERMINACIÓN DE FILTROS UV EN ARENA DE PLAYA

El contenido de este capítulo ha sido publicado en el artículo *Development of a gas* chromatography-mass spectrometry method for the determination of ultraviolet filters in beach sand samples, I. Tarazona, A. Chisvert, A. Salvador, **Analytical Methods**, 6 (2014) 7772-7780 y presentado como cartel en las 14as Jornadas de Análisis Instrumental, Barcelona, 2014.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Objetivo	Desarrollar un método para la determinación simultánea de los filtros UV orgánicos más comúnmente empleados en productos cosméticos, en sedimentos procedentes de la orilla de la playa
Método propuesto	 Preparación de las muestras: lixiviación de los analitos de las muestras previa a DLLME Técnica de análisis: GC-MS
Interés del trabajo	 Los filtros UV se acumulan en el medio ambiente acuático debido al uso de productos cosméticos La naturaleza lipofílica de algunos filtros UV provoca su acumulación en las partículas en suspensión, sedimentos, lodos o incluso en la biota Estos compuestos presentan actividad de disrupción endocrina incluso a nivel de trazas, y se consideran en la actualidad contaminantes emergentes No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de la DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV en sedimentos de playa

COMPUESTOS ESTUDIADOS



Tabla 1. Datos de interés de los compuestos estudiados

Filtro UV	Fórmula Molecular	Número CAS	pKaª
ES	$C_{15}H_{22}O_{3}$	118-60-5	8.13
HS	$C_{16}H_{22}O_{3}$	118-56-9	8.09
IMC	$C_{15}H_{20}O_{3}$	71617-10-2	-
MBC	C ₁₈ H ₂₂ O	36861-47-9	-
BZ3	$C_{14} H_{12} O_3$	131-57-7	7.56
EMC	$C_{18}H_{26}O_{3}$	5466-77-3	-
EDP	C ₁₇ H ₂₇ NO ₂	21245-02-3	2.39
OCR	C ₂₄ H ₂₇ NO ₂	6197-30-4	-

^a Calculado empleando el software Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) V8.14 de Solaris ([©]1994-2010 CD/Labs).

MICROEXTRACCIÓN LÍQUIDO-LÍQUIDO DISPERSIVA

Variables estudiadas	 Naturaleza del disolvente dispersante y del disolvente de extracción Volumen del disolvente de extracción Volumen del disolvente dispersante pH de la fase acuosa Fuerza iónica de la fase acuosa
Señal analítica	y = A _i , donde A _i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito i
Modificaciones con respecto a la DLLME convencional	 DLLME se lleva a cabo tras la lixiviación de los analitos → es necesario hacer compatibles ambos procesos El disolvente empleado para la lixiviación corresponde al dispersante en DLLME El disolvente dispersante es, por tanto, el lixiviado de la muestra de arena, conteniendo los filtros UV La fase acuosa actúa como soporte para poder llevar a cabo la DLLME
Disoluciones empleadas	Disolución multicomponente de 100 ng mL ⁻¹ de los analitos como disolvente dispersante
Procedimiento	

experimental general



5 mL agua desionizada

Estudio del tipo de disolvente dispersante y de extracción

Características del disolvente de extracción	 Baja solubilidad en agua Capacidad de extracción de los analitos Densidad mayor que la del agua para facilitar su recogida Punto de ebullición bajo si se requiere evaporar tras la extracción o se va a inyectar en un equipo de GC
Características del disolvente dispersante	 Miscible en agua y en el disolvente de extracción Capacidad para formar la dispersión
Disolventes de extracción estudiados	 Diclorometano (CH₂Cl₂) Cloroformo (CHCl₃)
Disolventes dispersantes estudiados	 Acetona Acetonitrilo Etanol
Procedimiento experimental	$ \begin{array}{c} & \begin{array}{c} & \begin{array}{c} \text{disolvente dispersante} \\ \text{conteniendo los analitos (940 μL)} \\ & \begin{array}{c} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & $
Observaciones iniciales
 extracción no se forma dispersión

 Con etanol-cloroformo no se produce separación de fases tras centrifugar

 1.5E+8

 ①
 ①
 1.2E+8
 ①
 ①
 1.2E+8
]
 Acetonitrilo + CHCl₃
 Acetonitrilo + CHCl₃



Con diclorometano como disolvente de

- Mejores resultados obtenidos para la mezcla acetona-cloroformo
- Disolvente dispersante seleccionado: acetona
- Disolvente de extracción seleccionado: cloroformo

Resultados

Efecto del volumen de disolvente dispersante



Efecto del volumen de disolvente de extracción



Efecto del pH de la fase acuosa



Efecto de la fuerza iónica de la fase acuosa



% NaCl seleccionado: 0 % (no se ajustó)

209

ESTUDIO DE LA ETAPA DE LIXIVIACIÓN

Finalidad	Lixiviar los analitos de la muestra de arena para poder llevar a cabo posteriormente la DLLME				
Variables estudiadas	 Naturaleza del disolvente de lixiviación Volumen del disolvente de lixiviación Tiempo de agitación con vórtex 				
Señal analítica	y = A _i , donde A _i corresponde al área del pico cromatográfico del analito i				
Patrón empleado	Blanco de arena fortificado con 100 ng g ⁻¹ de los analitos estudiados				

Procedimiento experimental general



Estudio de la naturaleza del disolvente de lixiviación

Características del disolvente de lixiviación	 Capacidad para lixiviar cuantitativamente los compuestos estudiados de las muestras de arena Buen disolvente dispersante en el proceso de DLLME
Resultados	 El disolvente dispersante seleccionado para llevar a cabo la DLLME fue acetona (ver págs. 204 y 205) Para hacer compatibles ambos procesos, se seleccionó como disolvente lixiviante el mismo que se empleó como dispersante en DLLME Disolvente de lixiviación seleccionado: acetona

211

Estudio del volumen de disolvente de lixiviación



212

Estudio del tiempo de agitación con vórtex



ESTUDIO DE LA TEMPERATURA DE SECADO

Finalidad	 Eliminar el agua presente en las muestras de arena de playa, ya que podría afectar a los proceso de lixiviación y DLLME Temperaturas de secado muy elevadas podrían producir la pérdida de analitos por volatilización o degradación
Variable estudiada	Temperatura de secado
Señal analítica	$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}, \text{ donde } A_i \text{ corresponde al área del pico}$ cromatográfico del analito <i>i</i> y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno (benzofenona deuterada, bz-d ₁₀)
Patrones empleados	 Blanco de arena fortificado con 100 ng g⁻¹ de los analitos estudiados Disolución de 2 μg mL⁻¹ de patrón interno en etanol (se adiciona a la muestra una vez secada a una concentración de 50 ng g⁻¹)
Procedimiento	





- La señal analítica es menor a una temperatura de secado de 100 ºC → se producen pérdidas de los analitos
- A 60 ºC las pérdidas producidas son despreciables
- Temperatura de secado seleccionada: 60 ºC



ESTUDIO DE EFECTO MATRIZ



Tabla 3.	Valores de	recuperación	obtenidos (%)) para el	estudio del	efecto matriz
10010 0.	valores ac	recuperación	001011005 (70)	, puru ci	cottaulo aci	ciccio matriz

Filtro UV	Coeficiente de recuperación (%)	Filtro UV	Coeficiente de recuperación (%)
ES	80 ± 12	BZ3	106 ± 15
HS	94 ± 7	EMC	82 ± 9
IMC	86 ± 11	EDP	84 ± 12
MBC	92 ± 6	OCR	95 ± 12

ESTUDIO DE LA EFICACIA DE LA LIXIVIACIÓN



Equivalente

a 100%

lixiviación

se



Lixiviación

10 g blanco arena

DLLME

5 ml

Extractos

GC-MS $(A_i/A_{PI})_A$

Tabla 4. Valores de eficacia de extracción (%) en el proceso de lixiviación

Filtro UV	Eficacia extracción (%)	Filtro UV	Eficacia extracción (%)
ES	105 ± 14	BZ3	87 ± 4
HS	96 ± 9	EMC	96 ± 14
IMC	104 ± 10	EDP	100 ± 14
MBC	84 ± 9	OCR	104 ± 14

Resultados

(Tabla 4)

MÉTODO DE CALIBRACIÓN

	 Calibración interna → adición del patrón interno a la muestra:
Método de calibración seleccionado	 para disminuir la variabilidad de los resultados debidas a todo el proceso (lixiviación, DLLME e inyección) para corregir las pérdidas producidas en la etapa de lixiviación de la muestra de arena Los patrones de calibración, conteniendo el PI, son sometidos al proceso de DLLME, pero no requieren la lixiviación previa
Señal analítica	$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i}{\mathbf{A}_{PI}}$, donde A_i corresponde al área del pico romatográfico del analito <i>i</i> y A_{PI} al área del pico cromatográfico del patrón interno (benzofenona deuterada, bz-d ₁₀)
Patrón interno seleccionado	 Bz-d₁₀ fue seleccionado como patrón interno ya que: Se lixivia y se extrae en cloroformo correctamente mediante el método propuesto Su volatilidad es adecuada para ser medido mediante GC-MS No puede encontrarse en las muestras de arena ya que es un compuesto deuterado No presenta grupos ionizables, por lo que el pH no afecta a su extracción

1 mL acetona

MÉTODO PROPUESTO

1. Secado de las muestras de arena



2. Lixiviación



3. DLLME e inyección en el sistema cromatográfico



Condiciones GC-MS

- Flujo He= 1 mL min⁻¹
- V_{invección} = 2 μL (sin división de flujo)
- T_{inyector}= 280 ºC
- T_{interfase}= 280 ºC
- Programa de temperatura del horno:
 - 70 °C (1 min)
 - 10 °C min⁻¹ hasta 170 °C
 - 2 °C min⁻¹ hasta 200 °C
 - 10 °C min⁻¹ hasta 280 °C (6 min)
- Columna: HP-5MS Ultra Inert (95% dimetil-5% difenilpolisiloxano, 30 m, 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm)
- E_{ionización} = 70 eV
- T_{fuente} = 250 °C

Filtro UV	Tiempo de Retención (min)	Iones seleccionados (m/z) ª	Intervalo de tiempo de adquisición (min)
BZ-d ₁₀ (PI)	14.44	82, 110 , 192	10.0-17.0
ES	18.45	120 , 138, 250	17.0-22.0
HS	20.04 (HS ₁), 20.75 (HS ₂)	120, 138 , 262	17.0-22.0
IMC	21.20 (Z), 25.54 (E)	161, 178 , 248	20.0-27.2
MBC	24.50 (Z), 26.23 (E)	128, 211, 254	22.0-27.2
BZ3	25.33	151, 227 , 228	22.0-27.2
EMC	29.78 (Z), 31.22 (E)	161, 178 , 290	27.2-30.0 31.0-33.7
EDP	30.62	148, 165 , 277	30.0-31.0
OCR	35.04	204 , 232, 360	33.7-40.0

Tabla 5. Algunos datos de interés del método de GC-MS para los compuestos objeto de estudio y el patrón interno (PI)

^a Los valores de m/z utilizados para la cuantificación se muestran en negrita





Blanco de arena fortificado con 20 ng g⁻¹ de los compuestos objeto de estudio y del patrón interno

Cromatograma obtenido aplicando el método propuesto

CARACTERÍSTICAS ANALÍTICAS DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Parámetros de calidad estudiados (Tabla 6)	 Factor de preconcentración (FP) Linealidad Límites de detección (LDD) y límites de cuantificación (LDC) Precisión
Factor de preconcentración	 FP = C_{sed}/C₀, donde C_{sed} corresponde a la concentración en la fase sedimentada y C₀ a la concentración inicial en la fase acuosa Evaluado para la DLLME Valores de FP comprendidos entre 8.2 y 50
Linealidad	 Linealidad ≥ 1000 ng mL⁻¹ en todos los casos Intervalo de trabajo: 10-50 ng mL⁻¹ 6 puntos de calibración elevado nivel de linealidad (coeficientes de regresión (R²) entre 0.995 y 0.9991)
Límites de detección y cuantificación	 Calculados como 3 y 10 veces la relación señal/ruido (LDD y LDC, respectivamente) LDD en las muestras comprendidos entre 18 y 53 pg g⁻¹ LDC en las muestras comprendidos entre 61 y 180 pg g⁻¹ El método propuesto permite la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de (ultra)trazas

	· ·
	(% RSD)
Precisión	 El método propuesto se aplicó a un blanco de arena fortificado a tres niveles de concentración (5, 20 y 50 ng g⁻¹) Las réplicas (cinco en cada caso) se analizaron durante la misma sesión de trabajo (precisión <i>intra-día</i>) y en distintas sesiones de trabajo (precisión <i>inter-día</i>)
	 Resultados comprendidos entre 4 y 14 % (<i>intra-día</i>) y 6 y 16 % (<i>inter-día</i>) → buena precisión

Tabla 6. Parámetros analíticos	del método propuesto
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Filtro	Pendiente/10 ⁵ ± s (ng ⁻¹ mL) R ²	LDD LDC	Precisión intra-día, RSD(%)		Precisión inter-día, RSD(%)					
UV		К-	(pg g ⁻¹)	⁻¹) (pg g ⁻¹)	5 ng g ⁻¹	10 ng g ⁻¹	50 ng g ⁻¹	2 ng n ⁻¹	10 ng g ⁻¹	50 ng g ⁻¹
ES	4900±200	0.995	38±5	130±20	14	8	6	16	8	7
HS	4000±100	0.997	53±6	180±20	13	9	5	15	9	8
IMC	6100±200	0.998	41±5	140±20	11	6	4	14	7	6
MBC	1140±70	0.997	29±2	96±8	10	8	5	13	8	7
BZ3	2000±100	0.997	41±5	140±20	11	5	4	11	10	7
EMC	9200±500	0.9991	18±1	61±5	9	7	8	12	9	9
EDP	8100±500	0.998	46±9	150±30	7	7	5	15	12	8
OCR	1700±100	0.997	35±3	117±9	7	7	7	13	11	10

APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO PROPUESTO

Muestras analizadas	 Cuatro muestras de arena de playa de distinta procedencia recogidas durante la estación de verano Analizadas por triplicado empleando el método DLLME-GC-MS
Resultados (Tabla 7)	 Todas las muestras contenían cantidades apreciables de varios de los filtros UV estudiados Las muestras 1 y 4 contenían mayor cantidad de filtros UV →se trata de playas más concurridas ES y OCR fueron los filtros UV más abundantes en las muestras analizadas → se trata de filtros UV ampliamente utilizados en productos cosméticos en la actualidad

 Tabla 7. Concentraciones de los filtros UV estudiados encontradas en muestras de arena de playa tras aplicar el método DLLME-GC-MS propuesto

Filtro	Concentración (ng L ⁻¹)				
UV	Muestra 1ª	Muestra 2 ^b	Muestra 3 ^c	Muestra 4 ^c	
ES	5.3 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.5	12 ± 1	
HS	1.8 ± 0.2	1.06 ± 0.04	< LDD	4.9 ± 0.7	
IMC	1.3 ± 0.3	< LDD	< LDD	1.2 ± 0.3	
MBC	0.9 ± 0.1	< LDD	< LDD	2.0 ± 0.4	
BZ3	1.0 ± 0.1	< LDD	< LDD	< LDD	
EMC	2.1 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 0.2	< LDD	10 ± 1	
EDP	< LDD	< LDD	< LDD	< LDD	
OCR	8 ± 1	1.7 ± 0.4	5.2 ± 0.9	25 ± 3	

^a Muestra 1: Playa Malvarrosa (Valencia, España)

^b Muestra 2: Playa Pinedo (Valencia, España)

^c Muestra 3: Playa Patacona (Valencia, España)

^d Muestra 4: Playa de los ingleses (Gran Canaria, España)

CONCLUSIONES

- El método propuesto, basado en la lixiviación asistida con vórtex seguida de DLLME como técnica de extracción y del análisis por GC-MS, permite la determinación de ocho filtros UV liposolubles en arena de playa a nivel de trazas.
- Los estudios deL efecto matriz y eficacia de lixiviación muestran que se puede emplear la calibración interna con patrones de calibración en acetona, sometidos únicamente al proceso de DLLME.
- Las muestras deben ser fortificadas con el patrón interno y posteriormente sometidas al método propuesto (lixiviado y DLLME).
- Se han obtenido buenos parámetros analíticos, incluyendo límites de detección, sensibilidad y precisión intra- e inter-día. Además, se trata de un método respetuoso con el medio ambiente y con el operario, ya que las cantidades de disolventes orgánicos necesarias para la extracción se reducen considerablemente con el uso de la DLLME.
- El método propuesto se ha aplicado al análisis de cuatro muestras de arena de playa de diferente origen. En todos los casos, ES y OCR fueron los filtros UV encontrados en mayor concentración.

CONCLUSIONES FINALES

En la presente Tesis Doctoral se han desarrollado métodos analíticos para la determinación de filtros UV en diferentes tipos de matrices que abarcan la cadena producto cosmético \rightarrow cuerpo humano \rightarrow medio ambiente. Así, se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación de algunos de estos compuestos en productos cosméticos con el fin de establecer un método oficial para su control analítico en el producto acabado, para así asegurar tanto la eficacia del producto como la seguridad de los usuarios. Tras la aplicación tópica de los productos cosméticos, algunos filtros UV pueden ser absorbidos percutáneamente y posteriormente metabolizados en el cuerpo humano. Además, se ha demostrado que algunos de estos compuestos presentan importantes efectos adversos, como fotoalergia, disrupción endocrina o incluso carcinogénesis, y la legislación europea prohíbe la experimentación con animales para evaluar la efectividad y seguridad de los productos cosméticos. En este sentido, algunos de estos compuestos han sido determinados en fluidos biológicos de naturaleza humana, tales como suero sanguíneo y semen, con el fin de contribuir en la obtención de información acerca de la absorción percutánea y el metabolismo de estos compuestos. Finalmente, los filtros UV pueden alcanzar el medio ambiente por diferentes vías, tanto directas como indirectas, causando un gran impacto ambiental en la flora y fauna del ecosistema acuático. De hecho, se trata de compuestos catalogados recientemente como contaminantes emergentes. En este sentido, se han desarrollado métodos analíticos para la determinación de algunos de estos compuestos en agua de mar y en arena de playa, con el ánimo de que sean empleados en la vigilancia medioambiental.

Se ha intentado, en la medida de lo posible, desarrollar métodos analíticos que cumplan con las directrices de la denominada Química Verde, ya que se ha disminuido el empleo de disolventes orgánicos de elevada toxicidad a cantidades de unos pocos microlitros, así como propuesto el empleo de disolventes más inocuos (por ejemplo, el empleo de etanol en lugar de metanol como fase móvil en cromatografía de líquidos), en los casos en los que ha sido posible.

Las aportaciones de los métodos analíticos desarrollados se indican a continuación.

229

En relación al control de calidad en las industrias del sector cosmético

Se ha desarrollado un método para la determinación simultánea de los filtros UV liposolubles autorizados en la UE y actualmente en uso, en productos cosméticos, que presenta las características apropiadas para su empleo en el control de calidad. El método analítico propuesto se encuentra actualmente en periodo de aprobación por el Comité Europeo de Normalización para su empleo como método analítico de referencia, con el fin de mejorar y facilitar los controles de calidad del sector cosmético.

La preparación de la muestra es muy sencilla ya que solo supone pesar las muestras y disolverlas en etanol, aplicando unos segundos de ultrasonidos si es necesario.

Como técnica analítica se ha empleado la LC-UV/Vis. Los límites de detección obtenidos (entre 0.02 y 0.6 μ g mL⁻¹, que se corresponde a 0.001 y 0.04 % en muestra) son muy inferiores a los necesarios para determinar filtros UV en formulaciones cosméticas, donde estos compuestos se añaden en cantidades de porcentajes mayores a 0.5 %. Además se trata de un equipamiento económico, fácil de adquirir por las empresas del sector cosmético.

El método fue correctamente validado y aplicado al análisis de 3 muestras fabricadas en el laboratorio y 11 muestras comerciales.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo donde se determinen simultáneamente todos los filtros UV aquí considerados en productos cosméticos.

En relación a los estudios relacionados con la absorción/excreción de los filtros UV en el cuerpo humano

 Por un lado, se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (libre + conjugado) del filtro UV benzofenona-3 y sus principales metabolitos en suero humano. La preparación de la muestra consiste en la hidrólisis ácida de los conjugados de fase II (para poder determinar el contenido total) y la precipitación de las proteínas, de manera simultánea. Posteriormente se procede a la concentración de los analitos y la limpieza de la muestra mediante DLLME.

La técnica analítica empleada ha sido la LC-MS/MS, que permite determinar estos compuestos a nivel de trazas, obteniéndose límites de detección bajos (comprendidos entre 7 y 8 μ g L⁻¹).

El método desarrollado fue satisfactoriamente validado y aplicado al estudio de perfil cinético de BZ3 en dos voluntarios. En ambos casos el perfil obtenido fue similar.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de DLLME para la determinación de BZ3 y sus principales metabolitos, ni de ningún otro filtro UV, en suero humano.

 Por otro lado, se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación del contenido total (libre + conjugado) del filtro UV del filtro UV 3-(4'-metilbenciliden)canfor (MBC) y su principal metabolito en semen humano.

La preparación de la muestra consiste en la hidrólisis ácida de los conjugados de fase II y la precipitación de las proteínas en un solo paso, de manera similar al caso de las muestras de suero sanguíneo. Posteriormente se procede a la concentración de los analitos y la limpieza de la muestra mediante el empleo de la extracción en fase sólida (SPE).

La técnica analítica empleada ha sido la LC-MS/MS, que permite alcanzar límites de detección bajos (comprendidos entre 3 y 6 μ g L⁻¹) que permiten la determinación de estos compuestos a nivel de trazas.

El método propuesto fue satisfactoriamente validado y aplicado al estudio del perfil cinético de MBC en dos voluntarios. En ambos casos el perfil obtenido fue similar.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente a la determinación de MBC y su principal metabolito en semen humano.

En relación a los estudios medioambientales

 Por un lado, se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación de benzofenonas hidroxiladas en agua de mar a nivel de trazas.

La preparación de la muestra consiste en la concentración de los analitos y limpieza de las muestras mediante DLLME. Posteriormente se lleva a cabo la derivatización de los analitos por sililación para facilitar su determinación por GC.

La técnica analítica empleada ha sido GC-MS. Los límites de detección alcanzados están comprendidos entre 32 y 50 ng L^{-1} , lo que hace que el método propuesto sea apropiado para la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de (ultra)trazas.

El método analítico ha sido satisfactoriamente validado y aplicado al análisis de tres muestras de agua de mar de distinta procedencia.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV en aguas ni en ningún otro tipo de matriz.

 Por otro lado, se ha desarrollado un método analítico para la determinación simultánea de los filtros UV orgánicos más comúnmente empleados en productos cosméticos, en sedimentos procedentes de la orilla de la playa.

La preparación de la muestra se ha llevado a cabo mediante la lixiviación de los analitos desde la muestra sólida a un disolvente

orgánico, mediante agitación vigorosa. Posteriormente, el disolvente, conteniendo los analitos, ha sido empleado como disolvente dispersante en DLLME.

La técnica analítica empleada ha sido GC-MS. Los límites de detección obtenidos están comprendidos entre 18 y 53 pg g⁻¹, lo que hace que el método propuesto sea apropiado para la determinación de los compuestos estudiados a niveles de (ultra)trazas.

El método propuesto ha sido correctamente validado y se ha aplicado al análisis de cuatro muestras de arena de playa de diferente origen.

No existe en la bibliografía consultada ninguna publicación previa a este trabajo referente al empleo de la DLLME en la determinación de trazas de filtros UV en sedimentos de playa.

LISTA DE ACRÓNIMOS EMPLEADOS

3BC	3-Benciliden canfor
BCS	Ácido benciliden canfor sulfónico
BDM	Butil metoxidibenzoilmetano
ВНТ	Butilhidroxitolueno
BZ3	Benzofenona-3
BZ4	Benzofenona-4
СВС	3-(4-carboxibenciliden)canfor
CBC-6OH	3-(4-carboxibenciliden)-6-hidroxicanfor
СВС-ОН	3-(4-carboxibenciliden)hidroxicanfor
СВМ	Canfor benzalconio metosulfato
CEN	Comité Europeo de Normalización
DBT	Dietilhexil butamido triazona
DHB	2,4-dihidroxibenzofenona
DHHB	Dietilamino hidroxibenzoil hexil benzoato
DHMB	2,2'-dihidroxi-4-metoxibenzofenona
DLLME	Microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva
DLLME-SFO	Microextracción líquido-líquido dispersiva basada en la solidificación de una gota orgánica flotante
DMP	N,N-dimetil-p-aminobenzóico
DRT	Drometizol trisiloxano
DSPE	Extracción en fase sólida dispersiva
EDP	Etilhexil dimetil PABA
EMC	Etilhexil metoxicinamato
EMT	Bis-etilhexiloxifenol metoxifenil triazina
ES	Etilhexil salicilato
ET	Etilhexil triazona
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FP	Factor de preconcentración
FPS	Factor de protección solar
GC	Cromatografía de gases
HF-LLME	Microextracción líquida con fibra hueca
HP-β-CD	2-hidroxipopil-β-ciclodextrina
HS	Homosalato
IMC	Isoamil metoxicinamato
LC	Cromatografía de líquidos
LDC	Límite de cuantificación
LDD	Límite de detección
LLE	Extracción líquido-líquido
LPME	Microextracción en fase líquida

MALPME	Microextracción en fase líquida asistida con membrana
MBC	4-Metilbenciliden canfor
MBP	Metilen bisbenzotriazolil tetrametilbutilfenol
MEKC	Cromatografía electrocinética micelar
ММР	Ácido N-monometil-p-aminobenzoico
MS	Espectrometría de masas
MS/MS	Espectrometría de masas en tándem
OCR	Octocrileno
P15	Polisilicona-15
P25	Polietinelglicol-25 PABA
РАВА	Ácido 4-aminobenzoico
РАсВ	Ácido p-acetamidobenzoico
РАсН	Ácido p-acetamidohipúrico
РАН	Ácido p-aminohipúrico
РВС	Poliacrilamidometil benciliden canfor
PBS	Ácido fenilbencimidazol sulfónico
PDT	Disodio fenil dibencimidazol tetrasulfonato
PLE	Extracción líquida presurizada
RMN	Resonancia magnética nuclear
RSD	Desviación estándar relativa
SBSE	Extracción por sorción sobre barra agitadora
SDME	Microextracción en gota
SPE	Extracción en fase sólida
SPME	Microextracción en fase sólida
TDS	Ácido tereftaliden dicanfor sulfónico
ТНВ	2,3,4-trihidroxibenzofenona
TLC	Cromatografía en capa fina
TOF	Tiempo de vuelo
UE	Unión Europea
UV	Ultravioleta

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An overview of the analytical methods for the determination of organic ultraviolet filters in biological fluids and tissues

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Review

An overview of the analytical methods for the determination of organic ultraviolet filters in biological fluids and tissues

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HIGHLIGHTS

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

- Papers describing the determination of UV filters in fluids and tissues are reviewed.
- Matrix complexity and low amounts of analytes require effective sample treatments.
- The published papers do not cover the study of all the substances allowed as UV filters.
- New analytical methods for UV filters determination in these matrices are encouraged.

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ABSTRACT

Organic UV filters are chemical compounds added to cosmetic sunscreen products in order to protect users from UV solar radiation. The need of broad-spectrum protection to avoid the deleterious effects of solar radiation has triggered a trend in the cosmetic market of including these compounds not only in those exclusively designed for sun protection but also in all types of cosmetic products.

Different studies have shown that organic UV filters can be absorbed through the skin after topical application, further metabolized in the body and eventually excreted or bioaccumulated. These percutaneous absorption processes may result in various adverse health effects, such as genotoxicity caused by the generation of free radicals, which can even lead to mutagenic or carcinogenic effects, and estrogenicity, which is associated with the endocrine disruption activity caused by some of these compounds.

Due to the absence of official monitoring protocols, there is a demand for analytical methods that enable the determination of UV filters in biological fluids and tissues in order to retrieve more information regarding their behavior in the human body and thus encourage the development of safer cosmetic formulations. In view of this demand, there has recently been a noticeable increase in the development of sensitive and selective analytical methods for the determination of UV filters and their metabolites in biological fluids (i.e., urine, plasma, breast milk and semen) and tissues. The complexity of the biological matrix and the low concentration levels of these compounds inevitably impose sample treatment processes that afford both sample clean-up to remove potentially interfering matrix components as well as the enrichment of analytes in order to achieve their determination at very low concentration levels.

The aim of this review is to provide a comprehensive overview of the recent developments in the determination of UV filters in biological fluids and tissues, with special emphasis on the elucidation of new metabolites, sample preparation and analytical techniques as well as occurrence levels.

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A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11-29

Contents

1.	Introd	luction		12
2.	Metal	olic proc	resses related to organic UV filters	13
3.	Analy	tical met	hods for UV filters determination in biological fluids and tissues	17
	3.1.	Biologic	al matrices studied	17
		3.1.1.	Urine and faeces	17
		3.1.2.	Plasma and serum	17
		3.1.3.	Other biological matrices	17
	3.2.	Sample	preparation	17
	3.3.	Analytic	cal techniques	21
	3.4.	Accurac	ry and sensitivity	24
4.	Occur	rence lev	rels of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues	24
5.	Concl	usions an	nd future trends	28
	Ackn	owledger	nents	28
	Refer	ences		28



Alberto Chisvert received his B.Sc. from University of Valencia in 1999 and received his Ph.D. in Department of Analytical Chemistry from University of Valencia in 2003. He was assistant professor at the Department of Food Sciences of the University of Valencia (2005), assistant professor at the Department of Analytical Chemistry of University of Alicante (2006–2008), and lecturer in Department of Analytical Chemistry of University of Valencia (2008–2011). Nowadays, he is associate professor in this last department since 2011. He has acted as co-editor of the book Analysis of *Cosmetic Products* (Elsevier, 2007), and he is editorial board member of Advances in Analytical Chemistry,

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Products (Elsevier, 2007) in which she is the Editor and also author of several chapters. She has been appointed member of various committees in the field of cosmetic products, such as the Spanish Working Group of Analytical Methods from the Subcommittee SC2 of Cosmetic Products (AEN/CTN), for developing and reviewing EU rules on cosmetics.



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and more recently nanomaterials in analytical science.

1. Introduction

Moderate exposure to solar radiation has both physical and psychological beneficial effects, such as the stimulation of vitamin D synthesis [1], the promotion of blood circulation [2] and the sense of wellness produced by the action of the brain neurotransmitters [3]. However, excessive sun exposure can cause erythema at shortterm and the development of skin carcinomas, among other fatal consequences [4]. This fact is related to the increase, over the years, of the deleterious UV radiation reaching the Earth, as a result of the progressive and continuous damage of the stratospheric ozone layer.

The use of sunscreen cosmetic products could help to prevent or minimize the harmful effects associated with the excessive sun exposure [5], since they contain substances commonly known as UV filters, either organic or inorganic [6], which are able to absorb and/or reflect, respectively, the incident UV radiation, thus protecting human skin. Although they were initially designed to be used in sunscreen cosmetic formulations, they are nowadays added to other daily cosmetic products, such as moisturizing creams, lipsticks, makeup formulations, after-shave lotions or hair-care products, in order to prevent from the harmful effects not only when sunbathing but also in our daily life.

However, despite UV filters are designed for external application on the outermost layers of the skin, different studies have shown that some organic UV filters can be absorbed through the skin, further metabolized and eventually bioaccumulated and/or excreted [7]. These percutaneous absorption processes may result in various adverse health effects (i.e., allergic contact dermatitis [8]) and other more serious systemic effects, such as mutagenic or carcinogenic [9,10] and estrogenic [11–13] activity. Thereby, to achieve an optimum compromise between adequate protection and minimal side effects to cosmetic users, the compounds that can be used as UV filters in cosmetics as well as their maximum allowed concentrations have been regulated by the legislation in force in each country [14]. The molecular structures of some organic UV filters are listed in Fig. 1. For a more expanded list, readers are referred to [14].

In this sense, the body disposition of organic UV filters associated to the percutaneous absorption processes has become an interesting field of research aiming to retrieve more information about the behavior of these chemicals in the human body and thus encourage the development of safer cosmetic formulations. Moreover, it has been shown that the skin penetration of sunscreen agents can differ significantly depending on the nature of the cosmetic formulation [15]. Several studies have been carried out to evaluate the vehicle effects, being the final aim to optimize the cosmetic formulation in order to minimize the percutaneous absorption of the active ingredients.

In vitro methodologies based on the use of diffusion cells and tape-stripping techniques [16,17] have been employed to estimate the percutaneous absorption of these UV filters. Regarding the use of diffusion cells (i.e., Franz type cells [18]), a cosmetic formulation (or other vehicle) containing the target UV filters is applied on the upper face of a piece of excised human, animal or synthetic skin, which inner face is in contact with a stirred receptor fluid emulating the bloodstream. Once the percutaneous absorption process is accomplished, UV filters are determined in the receptor fluid. Regarding the tape-stripping technique, it also involves the application of the vehicle containing the target UV filters on a piece of excised human, animal or synthetic skin. However, after a defined period of time, the formulation is mechanically removed and an adhesive tape is pasted on the treated skin area. Then, the tape is taken off in such a way that it removes the first layer of stratum corneum, where the content of the target UV filters is determined after proper treatment of the tape. Then, the estimation of UV filters percutaneous absorption can be performed after repetition of the process with new pieces of adhesive tape, which remove the subsequent layers of stratum corneum [19]. This latter technique can also be applied in vivo, by using human volunteers or laboratory animals.

On the other hand, taking into account that the body disposition of the organic UV filters not only considers the percutaneous absorption but also the distribution, metabolism and excretion processes, in vivo methodologies based on the analysis of biological fluids and/or tissues collected after the application of cosmetic products containing UV filters are of great interest.

For all this, analytical methods are required to determine the target UV filters in both the receptor fluids from diffusion cells and the adhesive tapes from the tape-stripping technique and also to determine not only the parent organic UV filters but also their possible metabolites in biological fluids and/or tissues. However, no

official analytical methods are available. In view of this demand, there has been a noticeable increase of analytical methods concerning the determination of UV filters and their metabolites in biological fluids (i.e., urine, plasma, and even breast milk and semen) and tissues in the last years. The evolution of the number of publications related to this subject over the time is shown in Fig. 2. The increment of published articles in the last 5 years is an unequivocal reflection of the social concern about the use of safe cosmetic products containing organic UV filters in their composition.

From these publications, around 71% are based on the application of a vehicle containing the target UV filters (mainly a sunscreen cosmetic product) over human volunteers. The residual percentage corresponds to studies with rats (24%) and piglets (5%). This trend agrees with the fact that methodologies based on in vivo assays of cosmetic ingredients with animals are being successively forbidden by the European Union legislation, which set March of 2013 as deadline for complete prohibition of animal testing [20,21].

Concerning experimental issues, the complexity of the biological matrix and the low concentration levels of the target compounds (i.e., $ng mL^{-1}$, $ng g^{-1}$ or below) [7] certainly impose the need of sample treatment processes. In that way, a sample clean-up to remove matrix components that may interfere in the analysis, and a target compounds enrichment step, are both required to achieve the selective and sensitive determination of UV filters as well as their metabolites.

Taking all the above into consideration, the aim of this review is to provide a comprehensive overview of the recent developments related to the determination of organic UV filters in both biological fluids and tissues, with special emphasis on the elucidation of new metabolites and the employed sample preparation and analytical techniques. Moreover, the reported amounts of UV filters in biological human samples have been compiled in order to show the occurrence levels of these compounds. Finally, it should be said that due to the excessive use of UV filters, they have reached the aquatic environment by direct and indirect sources and are being accumulated in it [7]. However, the analysis of tissues of aquatic animals from an environmental point of view is outside the scope of this review, and therefore has been excluded.

2. Metabolic processes related to organic UV filters

Although the determination of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues does not provide precise information about the level of percutaneous absorption of these compounds, it does the evidence of penetration across the skin, as a part of the overall process that constitutes the body disposition of the UV filters. Additionally, this in vivo methodology allows the research on the systemic biotransformation processes of the UV filters.

Biotransformation can be defined as the process whereby a foreign compound (i.e., a xenobiotic) is chemically transformed in the body to form a metabolite. This is the process that most influences the transport of a xenobiotic into the body, its toxicity and its route of elimination. In spite the fact that all cells and tissues are capable of carrying out biotransformation of external compounds, it is primarily carried out in liver, lung, intestine and skin [22].

Biotransformation is usually divided into two main phases, commonly known as phase I and phase II. Phase I is usually an oxidative and/or hydrolytic process whereby lipophilic xenobiotics are turned into more polar species, and thus, more easily excretables. Next, in phase II, if these phase I metabolites or even the parent compound have not yet been excreted, they can react with highly polar species such as glucuronic acid, sulfate, methionine, cysteine or glutathione, resulting in the so-called conjugates. While phase I oxidative reactions are mainly catalyzed by the isoforms of the haemethiolate cytochrome P450 family



Fig. 1. Some examples of organic UV filters used in cosmetic products, grouped according to their chemical structure and named according to INCI (International Nomenclature for Cosmetic Ingredients).

of enzymes, the hydrolytic reactions are catalyzed by estearases. The phase II conjugation is catalyzed by a variety of isozymes of N-acetyltransferase (NAT), uridinediphosphoglucuronosyltransferase (UGT), sulfotransferase (ST), and glutathione S-transferase (GST). At least 50 major enzymes participate in the biotransformation process [23].

Although scarce studies can be found regarding the metabolic pathway of organic UV filters, it has been elucidated in the case of BZ3, MBC and EDP by means of in vitro and in vivo methodologies. Moreover, it should be said that the biotransformation pattern of PABA, which is a controversial UV filter currently prohibited in the European Union but still allowed in other countries [14], is known for many years, since this compound has been traditionally included in nutritional supplements of vitamin B for oral intake. According to these studies, this compound seems not to exhibit phase I metabolic transformation, but it is acetylated and conjugated with glycine throughout the corresponding phase II reactions to form p-aminohippuric acid (PAH), p-acetamidobenzoic acid (PACB) and p-acetamidohippuric acid (PACH). However, there are very few studies regarding the topical application of PABA. Arancibia et al. [24] and more recently Wang et al. [25,26] determined PABA and its metabolites in human urine after topical application of sunscreen cosmetic.

Regarding BZ3, although some data concerning the formation of non-defined hydroxylated metabolites were available [27], its biotransformation pattern was first proposed by Okereke et al.



Fig. 1. (Continued).



Fig. 2. Evolution of number of publications concerning the determination of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues since 1981 (black-individual; white=accumulated).

[28] after oral administration of this UV filter to rats. Later, it was also confirmed by the same authors after dermal administration to rats [29]. Analysis of blood, urine, faeces and tissues (liver, kidney, intestine, testes, skin, spleen and others) revealed the formation of three phase I metabolites (2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB), 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHB) and 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone (THB)). According to these authors, BZ3 undergoes O-dealkylation of the methoxy moiety on the ring A to form DHB, which is hydroxylated in the same ring to form THB, whereas DHMB is formed by hydroxylation of ring B of BZ3 (see Fig. 3). In addition, the phase II glucuronide conjugates of BZ3 and its metabolites were also found.

In the case of MBC, its biotransformation pattern was elucidated by means of proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR) and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis of urine, faeces and plasma from orally MBC administered rats [30]. The formation of its phase I metabolites (i.e., 3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)camphor (CBC) and four isomers



Fig. 3. Phase I biotransformation pattern of BZ3.



Fig. 4. Phase I biotransformation pattern of MBC.

of 3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)hydroxycamphor (CBC-OH), being 3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)-6-hydroxycamphor (CBC-6OH) the major isomer) and the glucuronide forms of CBC and CBC-OH are described. However, 3-(4-hydroxybenzylidene)camphor, which is an intermediate encountered by in vitro experiments carried out by incubating MBC with rat or human liver microsomes, was not found. In a subsequent publication, the same authors confirmed their findings by analyzing urine and plasma from human and rats after dermal application of MBC [31]. These authors concluded that CBC is formed by oxidation of the aromatic methyl moiety of MBC, and later, CBC undergoes further oxidation to CBC-OH. Fig. 4 shows the phase I biotransformation pattern for this UV filter.

Regarding EDP, its biotransformation pattern was recently established. Firstly, in vitro experiments were carried out with rat liver microsomes by incubating EDP in presence of various cofactors. Under these conditions, two phase I metabolites (i.e., N,N-dimethyl-p-aminobenzoic acid (DMP) and N-monomethyl-p-aminobenzoic acid (MMP)) were identified by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) [32]. The results showed that the ester group of EDP is hydrolyzed, losing the 2-ethylhexyl chain, thus forming DMP, which undergoes Ndemethylation to form MMP, although this last seems to be also directly formed from EDP (see Fig. 5). Phase II metabolism was also investigated via glucuronidation and acetylation by means of incubations of EDP with human and rat liver microsomes and cytosols containing various cofactors, but no in vitro phase II metabolites were found. Nevertheless, LC-MS/MS analysis of urine from human volunteers after topical application of a cosmetic formulation containing EDP showed the presence of glucuronide conjugates of DMP and MMP to a greater extent in comparison to the non-conjugated forms [33]. The reason why phase II metabolites of EDP were only detected under in vivo conditions might arise from the inherent differences on the bioavailability of chemicals between in vivo and in vitro systems [34].

Taking into account the high number of organic UV filters available, and that the biotransformation pattern has been only studied for four of them, new studies in this field are encouraged.



Fig. 5. Phase I biotransformation pattern of EDP.

3. Analytical methods for UV filters determination in biological fluids and tissues

When published papers dealing with the determination of UV filters in biological matrices are classified according to the studied matrix (see Tables 1–3), it can be observed that the most studied biological matrix is urine (57%), followed by plasma or serum (23%). Other matrices, such as faeces (3%), breast milk(3%) and semen (3%), have only been analyzed occasionally. The analysis of biological tissues (liver, kidney, intestine, spleen, brain, heart, testes, placental, skin or adipose tissue), has been considered scarcely, and comprises 10% of the overall publications.

To date, most of the publications are focused on the study of BZ3 and its metabolites, which have been widely determined in all types of biological matrices (i.e., urine and faeces, plasma or serum, breast milk, semen and tissues). Other UV filters that have been studied, although scarcely, are BDM, BZ4, EDP, EMC, ES, HS, MBC, PABA, PDT, P25, TDS and 3BC, but are still far away from the total number of compounds considered as UV filters [14].

Moreover, it should be emphasized, that some of these published papers are incomplete from an analytical point of view, since they deal with pharmacokinetic studies, but non-validated analytical methods are used. On the other hand, there are also some of them that only deal with the parent compound, but not with its metabolites. All this shows a real need to develop efficient and reliable analytical methods that allow studying the percutaneous absorption, biotransformation, bioaccumulation and excretion of all the substances used as UV filters.

3.1. Biological matrices studied

3.1.1. Urine and faeces

A chronological summary of the published papers dealing with the determination of UV filters in urine is listed in Table 1. The analysis of faeces has also been included here, since in both cases they are routes of excretion. Different studies carried out in rats show that urine is the main route of excretion for BZ3 and its metabolites [28,29,36], whereas faeces is the main excretion pathway in the case of MBC and its metabolites [30,31]. No data are reported for other UV filters.

The target UV filter, the aim of the study, the type of experiment (e.g., oral administration or topical application, type subject, etc.), the sample preparation, the employed analytical technique, as well as some comments regarding the analytical performance (calibration mode used, limit of detection in the sample (SLD) and recovery (R)), are detailed in Table 1.

Regarding the aim of the study, publications have been classified depending on their interest in (a) elucidating the biotransformation pattern of the UV filter (BP), (b) showing evidences of the percutaneous absorption (PA), (c) studying the changes of the concentration with time (i.e., kinetic profiles) (KP), (d) developing analytical methods for subsequent applications (AM) and (e) biomonitoring studies (BM). Moreover, some relevant comments concerning the consideration (or not) of both phase I and phase II metabolites are also presented.

3.1.2. Plasma and serum

Table 2 shows a chronological summary of the published papers dealing with the determination of UV filters in plasma and serum. The described concepts are analogue to those explained in Table 1. It can be concluded that plasma has been largely analyzed in comparison to serum [68].

3.1.3. Other biological matrices

A chronological summary of the published papers dealing with the determination of UV filters in biological matrices different from urine, faeces, plasma or serum is listed in Table 3, including the aforementioned concepts. As can be seen, UV filters have been determined in less common biological matrices, such as human breast milk [70–72], semen [63,73], and placental tissues [74,75]. Additionally, rat tissues have also been scanned for UV filters [28,29,36,66,69].

3.2. Sample preparation

In order to determine the conjugated fraction of the parent compound and/or of the phase I metabolites (i.e., bounded compounds to glucuronic acid, mainly, or sulfate) in urine, a hydrolysis step is usually carried out to determine the total content (i.e., free plus conjugated content). On the other hand, without the hydrolysis step, only the free content is determined. The difference between both contents results in the conjugated content. In that sense, in the first studies, it was usual to boil the urine sample with 6 M hydrochloric acid to hydrolyze the bounded compounds [28,29,36,39]. However, nowadays, it is usual to resort to enzymatic hydrolysis by incubating the urine sample with β -glucuronidase (mainly from Helix pomatia, since it has also sulfatase activity), and then hydrolysis of the compounds bounded to glucuronic acid and sulfate is achieved. The enzymatic hydrolysis is carried out under controlled conditions of pH, temperature and time [28,29,31,33,36,37,42,44-47,51,52,56,59-61,63,68,71,72]. After enzymatic hydrolysis, the enzyme is denatured by the addition of acetonitrile, cold methanol or formic acid, thus stopping the reaction and precipitating the enzyme, which is separated by centrifugation. Then, the supernatant is submitted to the subsequent sample preparation step. It should be emphasized, however, that some of the published papers do not carry out this hydrolysis step, but they only consider the phase I metabolites. This might cause an error from a pharmacokinetic standpoint, since a fraction (i.e., the conjugated fraction) would not be determined. However, the aim of most of these papers is the development of an analytical method to determine the free content of both the parent compound and phase I metabolites by proper validation of the analytical methodology. Obviously, it should be taken into account that a hydrolysis step (i.e., a treatment with hydrochloric acid or with β -glucuronidase) should be performed before in case the determination of the total content is of concern from a toxicokinetic point of view. Another recent approach, that enables the determination of the conjugate forms without the need to perform the hydrolysis step, is the measurement by LC-MS/MS by means of the so-called 'constant neutral loss' mode [30,31,33]. This allows the detection of any compound that loses a fragment of given mass after MS/MS process (in this case a fragment of 176.0 m/z which corresponds to the glucuronide moiety [76]).

On the other hand, due to complexity of the matrix, the usual approach followed in the analysis of urine is the use of extraction techniques in order to isolate the target compounds from the rest of the matrix, thus avoiding interferences in the subsequent measurement. Moreover, taking into account that UV filters are in the trace level or below [7], these extraction methodologies have also been used with the aim to concentrate the target analytes. As can be seen in Table 1, the most popular techniques are liquid-liquid extraction (LLE) [26,28,29,36,60,61] or solid-phase extraction (SPE) either in manual mode [26,39,51,52,54,63,64] or in an on-line configuration by means of sequential injection manifolds [40,50,62], switching chromatography [44–47,68,71,72] or commercially available automated workstations [33,73]. Membrane assisted liquid-liquid extraction (MALLE) has also been employed [57]. In order to reduce the amount of solvents used and also to increase the enrichment factors, the so-called microextraction techniques, either in the solid- or liquid-phase, have also been employed. Thus, solid-phase microextraction (SPME) [38],

Table 1 Published	papers	on UV filters determination in urine and fa	eces (chronological order).				
UV filter ^a	Aim ^b	Experiment	Sample preparation ^c	Analytical technique ^d	Analytical performance ^e	Comments ^a	Ref.
PABA	PA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is treated or not with 4 M HCI for hydrolysis, and then it is derivatized with nitrite and N-naphthyl ethylendiamine	UV/Vis		PABA and its acetylated phase II metabolite (PACB) are considered	[24]
BZ3	BP	Oral, topical and intravenous administration on rats				DHB and other hydroxylated undefined phase I metabolites are found. Phase II glucuronide forms are also identified	[27]
BZ3	AM	Oral administration (in corn oil) on rats		LC-UV/Vis		The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[35]
BZ3	BP KP	Oral (in corn oil) or topical (in petroleum jelly) administration on rats	Urine is subjected to LLE, the extract is evaporated, redissolved in MeOH and injected. Faces are mechanically bomogenized with water and then subjected to LLE like urine for bounded compounds, a treatment with B-gluctronidase (pH 6, 37°C, 24 h) or with 6 M HCl is performed before LLE	LC-UV/Vis		Phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) and phase II conjugated forms are also considered	[28,29,36]
BZ3	KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is treated with β-glucuronidase	LC-UV/Vis		The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[37]
BZ3	AM	Topical sunscreen application on a human volunteer	SPME is performed by direct immersion on urine (10–15 min), and then injected	GC-MS (EI*)	Standard addition calibration SLD=5 ng mL ⁻¹	Phase I metabolites (DHB and DHMB) are also considered, but THB is excluded. No phase II conjugated forms are considered	[38]
BZ3	KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is boiled with 6 M HCl (30 min), then neutralized, subjected to SPE and injected	LC-UV/Vis		The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[39]
PBS	AM PA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is filtered and pH adjusted (5–7). Then, it is subjected to on-line SPE	H	Standard addition calibration R = 78-109% SLD = 12 ± 5 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[40]
TDS	ΡA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers				Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[41]
BZ3	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is treated with β -glucuronidase (pH 6.8, 37° , C.4)). Then, it is mixed with MeCN and centrifuged. The supernatant is evaporated and redissolved in MeOH, and finally injected	LC-UV/Vis	External calibration R = 90-95%	The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. Phase I metabolites (DHB and THB) are detected but not determined	[42]
BZ3 EMC MBC	ΡA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers				Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[43]
BZ3	AM BM	Urine coming from unknown human donors	Urine is treated with β -glucuronidase/sulfatase or buffer (pH 50. 37 \cdot C. 12 b) for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, formic acid is added and centrifuged, and the supernatant submitted to on-line SPE-LC	LC-MS/MS (APCI ⁻)	External calibration R = 97-105% SLD = 0.3-0.5 ng mL ⁻¹	Free and conjugated forms of BZ3 are determined	[44-47]

18

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11–29

BZ3	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on piglets. After euthanasia, urine is collected from the bladder	Urine is mixed with MeOH:MeCN, centrifuged and injected	LC-UV/Vis	Matrix-matched calibration R = 83-99% SLD = 50-70 ng mL ⁻¹	Phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) are also considered. No phase II conjugated forms are considered	[48,49]
PDT	AM PA KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is filtered and pH adjusted (4-7). Then, it is subjected to on-line SPE	FL	Standard addition calibration R = 94-110% SLD = 10 ± 4 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[20]
MBC	BP KP	Oral administration (in corn oil) on rats	Urine is mixed with MeOH:water, centrifuged and injected in LC-MS/MS for LC-MS/MS Faces are lyophilized and extracted by Soxhlet extraction with MeOH mOH $_{\rm D}$ for fractions are isolated, evaporated and redissolved in D ₂ O for NMR	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS (APP1 ⁺ /ESI ⁻) ¹ H-NMR	Matrix-matched calibration	Phase I metabolites (CBC and CBC-OH) and phase II conjugated forms are determined	[30]
MBC	BP PA KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is treated with B-glucuronidase (pH 4.7, 37°C, 18h), then mixed with cold MeOH, centrifuged and injected	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS (APPI ⁺ /ESI ⁻)	Matrix-matched calibration	Total (free + conjugated) content of MBC, CBC and CBC-OH are determined	[31]
BZ3	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Unine sample (pH 6.5) is centrifuged and subjected to SPE. The extract is dried, redissolved in MeOH and injected. For conjugated content, it is treated with β-glucuronidase (37°C, 16 h) before SPE	LC-UV/Vis	External calibration	Both free and conjugated content of BZ3 and DHB is determined	[51,52]
823	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and pH adjusted (2.0), then extracted by SDME (25 min) and injected	LC-UV/Vis	Standard addition calibration R = 80-93% SLD = 1.3 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[53]
PABA	AM PA KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Unine is centrifuged, mixed with EtOH, and subjected to LLE. The ethyl acetate extract is dried, reconstituted with MeOH:water and subjected to SPE. The CH ₂ Cl ₂ extract is dried, redissolved in MeOH and injected	LC-EC	External calibration R = 96-99%	Phase II metabolites (PAH, PAcB and PAcH) are determined	[25]
P25	AM PA KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and subjected to SPE. The DMF extract is injected	LC-FL	External calibration R = 91-100% SLD = 2.6 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[54]
BZ3 EMC MBC	KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is lyophilized, suspended in MeOH:water, centrifuged and injected	LC – UV/VIS		Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[55]
BZ3	AM	Urine coming from sunscreen users	Unine is treated with β-glucuronidase/sulfatase (pH 6.8, 37°C, 3h). Then, water is added, subjected to SBSE (60 min) and thermally desorbed to GC	GC-MS (EI ⁺)	External calibration R = 100-101% SLD = 0.1 ng mL ⁻¹	The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[56]
EDP	AM PA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is pH adjusted (7.2), extracted by dynamic MALLE (2 h) and injected	GC-MS (EI ⁺)	Standard addition calibration SLD = 0.3 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[57]
EDP	AM PA	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine sample is pH adjusted (7.2) extracted by in vial MALLME with orbital agitation $(3 h)$ and injected	GC-MS (EI ⁺)	Standard addition calibration SLD = 0.03 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[58]

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11-29

Table 1 (Co	mtinued	6					
UV filter ^a	Aim ^b	Experiment	Sample preparation ^c	Analytical technique ^d	Analytical performance ^e	Comments ^a	Ref.
BZ3	AM	Urine coming from sunscreen users	Urine is treated with β-glucuronidase/sulfatase (pH 6.8, 37°C 3 h), and then subjected to direct immersion HF-LPME (15 min) and injected	GC-MS (EI ⁺)	External calibration R = 99% SLD = 0.005 ng mL ⁻¹	The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[59]
PABA	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is centrifuged and injected	LC-FL	External calibration R = 99-101%	Phase II metabolites (PAH, PAcB and PAcH) are determined	[26]
BZ3	AM BM	Urine coming from unknown human donors	Urine is treated with β -glucuronidase/sulfatase (37°C, 12 h), and then subjected to LLE. The organic extract is dried, redissolved in MeOH, centrifuged and injected	LC-MS/MS (APCI ⁻)	External calibration R = 85-99% SLD = 0.08-0.28 ng mL ⁻¹	The BZ3 total content (free + conjugated) is determined. DHB (phase I metabolite) is also considered	[60,61]
BZ3 BZ4	AM KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and pH adjusted (6.0). Then, it is subjected to on-line SPE and transferred to LC	LC-UV/Vis	Standard addition calibration R = 92-109% SLD = 30-60 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[62]
BZ3	AM	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and treated with β-glucuronidase(sulfitates or varer (pH 5-6, 37°C, 12h) for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, formic acid is added (pH 3) and subjected to SFF. The acetone extract is dried, reconstituted with MeOH:water and injected	LC-MS/MS (ESI*)	Standard addition calibration R = 98-115% SLD = 0.03-0.10 ng mL ⁻¹	Both free and conjugated content of B23 and phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) are considered	[63]
EDP	BP AM	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and treated with β -glucuronidase/sulfatase or water (pH 5, 37°C, 50 min with ultrasounds) for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, it is subjected to on-line SPE and transferred to LC	LC-MS/MS (ESI ⁺)	Standard addition calibration R = 91-107%	Both free and conjugated content of EDP and phase I metabolites (DMP and MMP) are considered	[33]
MBC	AM	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Urine is filtered and treated with B-glucuronidase/sulfatase or water (pH 5-6, 37°C, 12h) for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, fornic acid is added (pH 3) and subjected to SF. The acenon extract is dried, reconstituted with water:MeOH:MeCN and injected	LC-MS/MS (ESI*/ESI ⁻)	Standard addition calibration R = 97-112% SLD = 6±2 ngmL ⁻¹	Both free and conjugated content of MBC and its phase I metabolite CBC are considered	[64]
^a See Fig THB=2,3,4	g. 1 for -trihydr	key abbreviation. PAH = p-aminohippuric :oxybenzophenone; CBC = 3-(4-carboxyben	acid; PACB = p-acetamidobenzoic acid; PACH = p-acetamidoh zvlidene \camphor; CBC-OH = 3-(4-carboxybenzvlidene)hydrov	ippuric acid; DHB vycamphor; DMP=	= 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone; DI V.N-dimethyl-p-aminobenzoic aci	HMB = 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenz 1; MMP = N-monomethyl-p-aminober	zophenone; nzoic acid.

^b BP=elucidation of the biotransformation pattern, AM = development of the analytical method; PA = showing evidences of the percutaneous absorption; KP = study of kinetic profiles; BM = biomonitoring. 4.0.2

^c APCI = atmosphere pressure chemical ionization; APII = atmospheric pressure photoionization; HF = Imethylformamide; EI = electronic impact; ESI = electrospray ionization; LE = liquid-liquid extraction; HF = Phollow-fiber liquid-liquid - phase microextraction; MeLLE = membrane assisted liquid - liquid extraction; MeLLE = membrane assisted liquid extraction; MeCN = acetonitrile; MeOH = methanol; SBSE = stir-bar sorptive extraction; SDME = single-drop microextraction; SPE = solid-phase extraction; SPME = solid-phase microextraction.

^d EC=electrochemical detector; FL=fluorescence; GC=gas chromatography; ¹H-NMR=proton nuclear magnetic resonance; LC=liquid chromatography; MS=mass spectrometry; MS/MS=tandem mass spectrometry; UV/Vis = ultraviolet/visible spectrometry. ^e R = recovery; SLD = limit of detection in the sample.

stir-bar sorptive extraction (SBSE) [56], single-drop microextraction (SDME) [53], hollow-fiber liquid-phase microextraction (HF-LPME) [59] and in vial membrane assisted liquid-liquid microextraction (MALLME) [58] have been proposed for the determination of UV filters in urine. Finally, lyophilization and subsequent redissolution in a little amount of solvent has also been considered with urine samples [55].

In the case of faeces, they have also been subjected to LLE [28,29,36], or to Soxhlet extraction [30].

Regarding sample treatment in the case of plasma or serum analysis, blood has to be treated in order to isolate the plasma or serum. Thus, in case of plasma, it is necessary to remove the cellular components of the blood, such as red and white corpuscles, but avoiding the precipitation of the proteins that are involved in the coagulation process (i.e., fibrinogen and fibrin). This is achieved by centrifuging blood in heparinized tubes. In the case of serum, blood is normally centrifuged in non-heparinized tubes, which allows the removing of both the blood cellular components and fibrinogen and fibrin. Once the plasma or serum is obtained, a hydrolysis step is needed in order to determine the conjugate content, either with acidic [28,29,35,36,67] or enzymatic [68] treatment, as mentioned above for urine. Moreover, it should be emphasized, that there could be target compounds bounded to proteins, which could be released by acidic hydrolysis [28]. On the other hand, despite few exceptions, it is very common to precipitate the proteins when analyzing plasma and serum, in order to reduce matrix interferences. This is achieved by mixing plasma or serum with organic solvents, such as acetonitrile [42,55,65,67], acetonitrile/methanol mixtures [48,49,69], cold methanol followed by cold acetonitrile [30,31], mineral acids such as hydrochloric acid [28,29,35], or organic acids like formic acid [68], thus achieving protein denaturation and precipitation, which are then separated by centrifugation. In some cases, purification is also carried out by LLE [28,29,36,66] and by manual [69] or on-line [68] SPE.

Like in the analysis of plasma or serum, the analysis of breast milk, semen and tissues also requires the separation of proteins. The addition of isopropanol [71] or methanol [72] followed by on-line SPE, or the use of gel permeation chromatography (GPC) [70] has been reported in the case of breast milk. For semen, the acidification with hydrochloric acid [63] or phosphoric acid [73] facilitates protein precipitation, and afterwards SPE is used to improve clean-up and to achieve a concentration [63,73]. In the case of tissues, they are homogenized with water and subjected to LLE [28,29,36,66,74,75] or homogenized in acetonitrile and subjected to SPE [69]. On the other hand, as above-mentioned for urine, plasma or serum, also in case of the analysis of breast milk, semen or tissues, it is mandatory to carry out a hydrolysis step if the total amount of the target UV filters is required. Enzymatic hydrolysis has been used in case of breast milk [71,72] and semen [63,73], whereas both acidic and enzymatic hydrolysis have been used in tissues [28,29,36].

3.3. Analytical techniques

Despite an exhaustive sample treatment is performed to eliminate potential interfering compounds from the matrix, the complexity of the sample encourages to select a proper analytical separation technique to enhance the determination of the target compounds, since some interfering compounds can still be present in the matrix. Therefore, separation techniques are required to carry out the selective determination of UV filters, and their possible metabolites, in biological matrices.

As can be seen in Tables 1–3, LC is the technique of choice to determine UV filters in all the studied biological matrices. The most usual detector coupled to LC is based on the ultraviolet/visible

spectroscopy (UV/vis), since with only a few exceptions, UV filters do not exhibit neither fluorescence nor electrochemical properties, but they do exhibit a high absorbance in the UV range of the electromagnetic spectrum. Thus, LC with fluorimetric (FL) detector was just used for sensitive and selective determination of P25 [54] and PABA [26] in urine, and also in just one report, LC with electrochemical (EC) detector was employed for the sensitive and selective determination of PABA in this same matrix [25]. Nevertheless, when high selectivity and sensitivity are required to analyze these complex matrices, LC coupled to mass spectrometry (MS) detectors in tandem (MS/MS) is the best option. In particular, BZ3 has been determined in human urine [44-47,60,61,63], serum [68], breast milk [71,72], semen [63] and placental tissue [74,75]; 3BC in rat plasma and tissues [66]; MBC in human [31,64] and rat [30] urine; and EDP in human urine [33] and semen [73] by LC-MS/MS employing different ionization sources. In the case of BZ3, atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI) is the most commonly used [44-47,60,61,71,74,75], although atmospheric pressure photoionization (APPI) [68,72] and electrospray ionization (ESI) [63] have also been used in some cases. Regarding APCI, it is usual to employ negative mode (APCI-), but Vela-Soria and co-workers [74] reported that a better sensitivity is obtained in the positive mode (APCI⁺). Ye and co-workers [68] also stated that APPI⁻ slightly improved BZ3 ionization with respect to APCI-. However, in the ESI mode, León et al. stated that ESI⁺ has better efficiency than ESI⁻ [63]. In case of 3BC, ESI⁺ is used in the only article published so far [66]. With regard to MBC, APPI⁺ [30,31] and ESI⁺ [64] have been used for the parent compound, but ESI- is preferred for its metabolites [30,31,64]. Finally, in case of EDP, ESI⁺ is used for its better efficiency with respect to ESI- [33,73]. In all these cases, determination was conducted by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode of the most intense transition, but using another one for confirmation.

UV/vis spectrometry without previous chromatographic separation has just been used in one case, allowing the determination of PABA in a selective way, with the use of a previous derivatization with Bratton–Marshall reaction [24]. FL has also been used without previous chromatographic separation, but including on-line SPE before the measurement [40,50]. For identification purposes, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) has also been employed, after isolating sample fractions by LC [30].

Gas chromatography (GC) has been used less frequently, but in any case coupled to MS. In particular, GC–MS allowed the determination of BZ3 and EDP in urine [38,56–59], BZ3 in plasma [67] and BZ3 and EMC in breast milk [70]. In all cases, ionization was conducted by positive electronic impact (EI⁺), and the measurement was performed by selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode although employing one or two other ions as qualifiers.

Finally, despite the exhaustive sample treatment and the use of selective analytical techniques, results are sometimes affected by the presence of the so-called 'matrix effect'. This effect causes that no quantitative recoveries are obtained when employing external calibration. This could be due to a difference in the behavior of the target compound with the presence of matrix compounds that can enhance or mitigate the signal (i.e., quenching phenomenon in FL, ion suppression in MS) or affect the extraction efficiency when an extraction technique is employed. This phenomenon has been observed and reported by different authors in the determination of UV filters (see Tables 1-3) in urine [30,31,33,38,40,48-50,53,57,58,62-64], plasma [30,31,48,49,67], semen [63,73], adipose tissue [66] and placental tissue [74,75]. The correction of this deleterious effect has been sometimes achieved by matrix-matched calibration, i.e., the use of the same matrix (but free of analytes) to prepare the standard calibration solutions, such as in urine analysis [30,31,48,49], plasma analysis [30,31,48,49,67] and placental tissue analysis [74,75]. In other cases, this approach was not enough to correct the matrix effect

Table 2 Publishe	d papers (on UV filters determination in plasma and sei	rum (chronological order).				
UV filter ^a	Aim ^b	Experiment	Sample preparation ^c	Analytical technique ^d	Analytical performance ^e	Comments ^a	Ref.
BZ3	AM	Oral administration (in corn oil) on rats	Acidic hydrolysis with HCl	LC-UV/Vis		Both free and conjugated forms of BZ3 are determined. Phase I metabolites are not considered	[35]
BZ3	BP KP	Oral ((in corn oil) an topical (in petrolatum jelly) administration on rats	Plasma is subjected to LLE. The extract is evaporated, redisorbed in MeOH and injected For bounded compounds, acidic hydrolysis with 6 M HCl is performed before LLE	LC-UV/Vis		Phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) and phase II conjugated forms are also considered	[28,29,36]
BDM BZ3 EDP EMC ES	AM	Spiked plasma	Plasma is mixed with MeCN, centrifuged and injected	LC-UV/Vis	External calibration R=89-10/%	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[65]
BZ3 EMC ES HS	AM	Topical sunscreen applications on human volunteers	Plasma is pH adjusted (7.4) and then mixed with MeCN, centrifuged and injected	LC-UV/Vis	External calibration R=91-104%	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[42]
BZ3 EMC MBC	PA	Topical sunscreen applications on human volunteers	Plasma is isolated from blood and analyzed			Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[43]
BZ3	AM KP	Topical sunscreen applications on piglets	Plasma is mixed with MeOH:MeCN, centrifuged and injected	LC-UV/Vis	Matrix-matched calibration R = 79-99% SLD = 50-70 ng mL ⁻¹	BZ3 phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) are also considered. No phase II conjugated forms are considered	[48,49]
3BC	AM PA	Topical alcoholic solution application on rats	Plasma is subjected to LLE with heptane, dried, redissolved in MeOH:water and injected	LC-MS/MS (ESI ⁺)	External calibration R = 87-96% SLD = 12.5 ng mL ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[66]
MBC	BP PA KP	Oral administration (in corn oil) on rats Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers and rats	Plasma is mixed with cold MeOH, centrifuged, mixed with cold MeOH, centrifuged again and then injected into LC-MS/MS LC-MS/MS LC fractions are isolated, evaporated and dissolved in D ₂ O for NMR	LC-UV/Vis LC-MS/MS (APPI ^{+/} ESI ⁻) 1H-NMR	Matrix-matched calibration	Phase I metabolites (CBC and CBC-OH) and phase II conjugated forms are considered	[30,31]
BZ3 EMC MBC	KP	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Plasma is mixed with MeCN, centrifuged and injected	LC – UV/VIS		Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[55]
BZ3	BP AM KP	Oral administration (in corn oil) on rats	Plasma is mixed with MeCN and centrifuged. The supernature is typolyzed (6 M HCI, 100 °C, 11h), pH adjusted (8.5) and subjected to LLE. The extract is evaporated and derivatized with MSTFA	GC-MS (El ⁺)	Matrix-matched calibration R=86-104% SLD=10 ngmL ⁻¹	Total (free + bounded form) contents of BZ3 and its phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB, THB) is considered	[67]
BZ3	MM	Serum samples coming from unknown human donors	Serum is mixed with formic acid, centrifuged and transferred to on-line SPE and LC. For bounded compounds, serum is treated with β-glucuronidase/sulfatase (pH 5, 37°C, 4 h) before	LC-MS/MS (APPI ⁻)	External calibration R=87-106% SLD=0.5 ng mL ⁻¹	Both free and conjugated forms of BZ3 are determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[68]
BZ3	KP	Topical alcoholic solution application on rats	Plasma is mixed with MeOH:MeCN, centrifuged, and subjected to SPE. The MeOH extract is injected	LC-UV/Vis		Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[69]
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^a See Fig. 1 for key abbreviation. DHB = 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone; DHMB = 2,2-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone; THB = 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone; CBC = 3-(4-carboxybenzyhidrene)camphor; CBC = 3-(4-carbo

^b BP=elucidation of the biotransformation pattern, AM = development of the analytical method; PA = showing evidences of the percutaneous absorption; KP = study of kinetic profiles; BM = biomonitoring.

c APPI = atmospheric pressure photoionization; El = electronic impact; ESI = electrospray ionization; LE = liquid-liquid extraction; MeCN = acetonitrile; MeOH = methanol; MSTFA = N-methy-N-(trimethylsily) trifluoroacetamide. d GC = gas chromatography; ¹H-NMR = proton nuclear magnetic resonance; LC = liquid chromatography; MS = mass spectrometry; MS/MS = tandem mass spectrometry; UV/Vis = ultraviolet/visible spectrometry.

^e R = recovery; SLD = limit of detection in the sample.

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11-29

Table 3 Published _F	apers on	UV filters determination in other biologica	l matrices (chronological order).				
UV filter ^a	Aim ^b	Experiment	Sample preparation ^c	Analytical technique ^d	Analytical performance ^e	Comments ^a	Ref.
BZ3	BP	Oral (in com oil) and topical (in petrolatum jelly) administration on rats. After euthanasia, liver, kidney, intestine, testes, skin, spleen and heart are collected	Tissue is washed, mechanically homogenized with water, and then subjected to LLE. The extract is evaporated, redissolved in MeOH and rinjected For bounded compounds, a treatment with β -glucuronidase (pH 6, 37 °C, 24h) or with 6 M HCl is performed before LLE	LC-UV/Vis		Phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) are determined. Phase II conjugated forms are also considered	[28,29,36]
BZ3 EMC	PA	Human breast milk from unknown female donors	Milk is cleaned-up by GPC, and the extract is injected	GC-MS (EI ⁺)	R=87-116%	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[70]
3BC	AM PA	Topical alcoholic solution application on rats. After euthanasia adipose tissue, brain, liver, muscle and testes are collected	Tissue is mixed and mortared with anhydrous Na ₂ SO ₄ , and extracted with MeOH (adipose) or heptane (rest), dried, redissolved in MeOH:water, centrifuged and injected.	LC-MS/MS (ESI ⁺)	External calibration R = 78-107%, except for adipose tissue (40%) SLD = 5 ngg ⁻¹	Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[66]
BZ3	AM	Human breast milk from unknown female donors	Milk is mixed with i-PrOH, centrifuged, mixed with formic acid and transferred to on-line SPE-LC For bounded compounds, milk is treated with B-glucuronidase/sulfatase (37 °C, 12 h) before	LC-MS/MS (APCI ⁻)	External calibration R = 95-112% SLD = 0.5 ng mL ⁻¹	Both free and conjugated forms of BZ3 are determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[71]
BZ3	AM	Human breast milk from unknown female donors	Milk is mixed with MeOH, centrifuged, mixed with formic acid and transferred to on-line SPE-LC For bounded compounds, milk is treated with B-glucuronidase/sulfatase (PH 5, 37°C, 4 h) before	LC-MS/MS (APPI-)	External calibration R = 98-107% SLD = 0.4 ng mL ⁻¹	Both free and conjugated forms of BZ3 are determined. No phase I metabolites are considered	[72]
BZ3	AM	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Semen is mixed with 1M HCl and centrifuged. The supermatant is treated with β_{-g} fucturonidase(shtfatase (pH 65, 37 ⁻ C, 12h) or water for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, formic acid is added and subjected to SPE. The extract is dried, redissolved in MeOH:water and injected	LC-MS/MS (ESI ⁺)	Standard addition calibration R = 86-111% SLD = 1-3 ng mL ⁻¹	The free and conjugated forms of both BZ3 and phase I metabolites (DHB, DHMB and THB) are considered	[63]
BZ3	AM	Topical hydroethanolic solution application on rats. Afther euthanasia, liver and brain are collected	Tissue is mechanically homogenized with MeCN, subjected to SPE and the MeOH extract injected	LC-UV/Vis		Neither phase I nor phase II metabolites are considered	[69]
EDP	AM	Topical sunscreen application on human volunteers	Semen is mixed with 1 M H ₂ PQ ₄ and centrifuged. The supernatant is treated with β -guounoidase/gultase or water (pH 5, 37 °C, 50 min with ultrasounds) for enzymatic hydrolysis or not. Then, it is pH adjusted (3.0) and subjected to on-line SPE-LC	LC-MS/MS (ESI ⁺)	Standard addition calibration R = 95 - 109%	Total (free + conjugated) content of both EDP and phase I metabolites (DMP and MMP) is considered	[73]
BZ3	AM BM	Human placental coming from unknown female donors, collected at the time of delivery	Tissue is mechanically homogenized with water and subjected to LLE. After centrifugation, the supernatant is evaporated and redissolved in MeOH:ammonia buffer. Then, it is centrifuged and injected	LC-MS/MS (APCI ⁺)	Matrix-matched calibration R = 98-104% SLD = 0.07.0.3 ng g ⁻¹	Phase I metabolites (DHB and DHMB) are also considered. Phase Il glucuronide forms are not considered	[74]

UV filter ^a	Aim ^b	Experiment	Sample preparation ^c	Analytical technique ^d	Analytical performance ^e	Comments ^a	Ref.
BZ3	AM BM	Human placental coming from unknown female donors, collected at the time of delivery	The placental tissue is mechanically homogenized with water and subjected to LLI. Ther centrifugation, the supernatant is evaporated and redissolved in MeOH:ammonia buffer. Then, it is centrifuged and injected	LC-MS/MS (APCI ⁻)	Matrix-matched calibration R = 99-104% SLD = 0.10.2 ng g ⁻¹	Phase I metabolites (DHB and DHMB) are also considered. Phase Il glucuronide forms are not considered	[75]
^a See Fig.	1 for k	ey abbreviation. DHB = 2,4-dihydroxybenz benzoic acid	pphenone; DHMB=2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone; THI	(B = 2, 3, 4-trihydro	xybenzophenone; DMP=N	I,N-dimethyl-p-aminobenzoic acid; MI	MP = N-

Table 3 (Continued)

^b BP=elucidation of the biotransformation pattern, AM = development of the analytical method; PA = showing evidences of the percutaneous absorption; KP= study of kinetic profiles; BM = biomonitoring.

^c APCI = atmosphere pressure chemical ionization; APPI = atmospheric pressure photoionization; EI = electronic impact; ESI = electrospray ionization; LLE = liquid-liquid extraction; MeCN = acetonitrile; MeOH = methanol; SPE = solid-phase extraction.

GC = gas chromatography: GPC = gel permeation chromatography: LC = liquid chromatography: MS = mass spectrometry: MS/MS = tandem mass spectrometry. UV/Vis = ultraviolet/visible spectrometry R = recovery; SLD = limit of detection in the sample.

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A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11-29

because it was sample-dependent, and thus the standard addition calibration method [77] was employed, as it is the case of urine [33,38,40,50,53,57,58,62–64], semen [63,73] and adipose tissue [66]. Other strategies, as the use of isotopic internal standards of the target compounds are barely employed [68,72] because standards are not available.

3.4. Accuracy and sensitivity

As can be seen in Tables 1–3, there are not many articles reporting information regarding recovery studies. The analytical methods described there achieve, achieve recoveries that enable accurate quantification of the target UV filters and their metabolites in the different matrices, either with external or with matrixmatched or with standard addition calibration approaches. It is especially worthy to consider the high difficulty of the considered matrices.

Regarding sensitivity, except a few exceptions, the published methods (see Tables 1–3) allows the determinations of UV filters and their metabolites in the low ng mL⁻¹ range, which allows determining them in biological fluids and tissues [7] (as it will be shown in Table 4). On one hand, and as said before, the use of sensitive analytical techniques, such as FL and MS, and on the other hand, and as was above-mentioned, the use of enrichment techniques, such as LLE, SPE, MALLE, SPME, SBSE, SDME, HF-LPME, MALLME allow reaching the low levels in which they are encountered.

4. Occurrence levels of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues

The content of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues is a matter of controversy, since it depends on the exposition of the subject to the target UV filter, which is very variable, and moreover it is uncontrollable even under normal conditions of use, due to the motives exposed below. Thus, in order to reach the protection level indicated by the 'Sun Protection Factor' marked in the label, sunscreen products have to be applied in similar quantities to the ones used for testing, i.e. 2 mg cm^{-2} of skin [78] but people unconsciously tend to apply a lower amount. This is due to various reasons; on one hand, there is a lack of information about the recommended amount (it is not usually indicated in the label), and on the other hand, if this data was know, taking into account the body of an average adult person as a model, the recommended amount would equate to 6 teaspoons of sunscreen cosmetic (ca. 36 g), that is usually quite a higher amount than the common dose people apply themselves. Moreover, the individual application dose of the target compound (i.e., any given organic UV filter) is completely unknown, as it obviously depends on the concentration of the UV filter contained in the sunscreen cosmetic, the number of daily sunscreen applications (i.e., single versus repeated) and the assiduity in which the sunscreen cosmetic is applied (i.e., summer versus winter seasons). Apart from this, and as stated before, the percutaneous absorption may significantly differ depending on the nature of the cosmetic vehicle, but also on the physiological aspects of each subject. As an example of all this, it is worthy to mention the biomonitoring study carried out by Calafat and co-workers [47], who determined the total BZ3 content in 2517 urine samples collected between 2000 and 2004. Their findings revealed a great intersubject variability (ranging from 0.4 to 21700 ng mL⁻¹, with a mean value of 22.9 ng mL⁻¹). Moreover, these authors found differences by sex and race, which was attributed to differences in the use of personal care products containing BZ3. Later, Kunisue and co-workers [61] determined total BZ3 in urine from 625 women, and found values ranging from undetectable (<0.28 ng mL⁻¹) to 5900 ng mL⁻¹, and found significant regional and seasonal

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Table 4 Occurrence levels of UV filters in human biological fluids and tissues (chronological order).

UV filter ^a	Number of subjects ^b	Exposure data ^a	Individual levels found ^{a.c}	Remarks ^{a,c}	Ref.
Urine PABA	6 (M)	Single application (20 g) over the whole body of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% PABA	Not reported	Great intersubject variability PABA total amount excreted for 48 h was 15.8-96.3 mg, which corresponds to 1.6-9.6.% of the applied dose PACB is the major metabolite	[24]
BZ3	6	Single application (13 g) in the forearms (1051 cm ²) (ca. 12.4 mg/cm ²) of a commercial sunscreen containing 6% BZ3 for 12 h	Not reported	Between 1-2% of the total applied amount was excreted in form of BZ3, over a 10-h period after topical application	[37]
BZ3	1	Single application (8 mL) of a commercial sunscreen with non-specified BZ3 content	$BZ3_{f} = 260 \text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ at } 4 \text{ h}$		[38]
BZ3	11 (7 M/4 F)	Single application (40 g) over the whole body (2 m^2) (ca. 2 mg/cm²) of a commercial sunscreen containing 4% B23 for 12 h	Not reported	BZ3, average total amount excreted for 48 h was 11 mg, which is ca. 0.4% of the applied dose Great intersubject variation	[39]
PBS	3 (2 M/1 F)	Single application (10 mL) of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% PBS	$PBS_f = 18 - 141 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$	PBS, total amount excreted for 12 h was 11.2-32.3 μg, which comprises 0.0022-0.0065% of the applied amount Great intersubject variation	[40]
BZ3	3 (F)	Single application (1.7 g) to the arms and back (860 cm ²) (ca. 2 mg/cm ²) of a commercial sunscreen containing 6% BZ3 for 8 h	Not reported	1% of the total applied amount was excreted in form of BZ3t, DHBt (major metabolite), DHMBt, and THBt, (minor metabolite)	[42]
BZ3 EMC MBC	32 (15 M/17 F)	Repeated applications (40g per day during 7 days) over the whole body ($2m^2$) (ca. 2 mg/cm ²) of a sunscreen containing 10% of BZ3, MBC and EMC	BZ3; max. values of 140 ng mL ⁻¹ EMC, max. values of 8 ng mL ⁻¹ MBC, max. values of 7 ng mL ⁻¹		[43]
BZ3	30	Unknown	$BZ3_{t} = 437 \text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ (mean)}$		[44]
BZ3	30	Unknown	$BZ3_{f} = < 0.5 - 50.1 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ $BZ3_{c} = < 0.5 - 2961 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ $BZ3_{t} = < 0.5 - 3000 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$	BZ3 is mainly excreted as its conjugated form	[45]
PDT	ũ	Single application (10 mL) over the whole body of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% PDT	Not reported	PDTt average total amount excreted was 77 μg which is ca. 0.015% of the applied dose Great intersubject variation	[50]
MBC	6 (3 M/3 F)	Single application (ca. 2 mg/cm²) of a home-made sunscreen containing 4% MBC	MBC, not found CBC, max values of ca. 425 ng mL ⁻¹ CBC-OH, max. values of ca. 1500 ng mL ⁻¹	MBC not found, whereas CBC and CBC-OH were excreted mainly as glucuronide and free forms, respectively	[31]
BZ3	90 (F)	Unknown	$BZ3_t = < 0.5 - 26700 \text{ng}\text{mL}^{-1}$	Differences by season are observed	[46]
BZ3	2517 (1229 M/1288 F)	Unknown	$BZ3_t = < 0.5 - 21700 \mathrm{ng}\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$	Differences by sex and race/ethnicity are observed	[47]
	25 (9 M/16 F)	Repeated applications (2 applications/dayx5days) over the whole body (ca. 2 mg/cm^2) of a commercially available sunscreen containing 4% BZ3	Not reported	Great intersubject variability in the excretion pattern BZ3 and DHB extensively conjugated: BZ3, = 94, 1% versus BZ3,=5,9% DHB,= 9,12% versus DHB,= 8,8% DHB,= 9,12% versus DHB,= 8,8% DHB,= 8,12% of the total applied amount was excreted in form of BZ3.	[51,52]
BZ3	1 (M)	Single application (15 g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% BZ3 for 12 h	$BZ3_{f} = < 1.3 - 48 ng mL^{-1}$	BZ3r total amount excreted for 12h was 42.6 μg , which is below 0.01% of the applied dose	[53]

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11–29

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Table 4 (Con	tinued)				
UV filter ^a	Number of subjects ^b	Exposure data ^a	Individual levels found ^{a.c}	Remarks ^{a,c}	Ref.
PABA	6(3 M/3 F)	Single application of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% PABA	PAH = <2 - 1360 ng mL ⁻¹ PAH PACB = <2 - 31200 ng mL ⁻¹ PaCB PacH = <2 - 503 ng mL ⁻¹ PacH	Different excretion patterns	[25]
P25	3 (1 M/2 F)	Single application (ca. 2 mg/cm ²) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% P25	$P25_f = < 2.6 - 210 \text{ng}\text{mL}^{-1}$	P25f total amount excreted was 80-300 μg which represents 0.011-0.019% of the applied dose	[54]
BZ3 EMC MBC	32 (15 M/17 F)	Repeated applications (40 g per day during 4 days) over the whole body (2 m ²) (a. 2 mg/cm ²) of a sunscreen containing 10% of BZ3, EMC and MBC	$BZ3_{f} = <4 - 519 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ EMC _f = <4 - 207 ng mL ⁻¹ MBC _f = <3 - 189 ng mL ⁻¹	Great intersubject variability	[55]
BZ3	9	No data	$BZ3t = < 0.1 - 1.2 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$		[26]
EDP	2	Single application (20 g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% EDP	EDPf= 1.2 - 16 ng mL ⁻¹		[57]
EDP	9	Single application (7 g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% EDP	$EDP_{f} = 0.4 - 5.8 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$		[58]
BZ3	10	No data	$BZ3_t = 0.43 - 5.17 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$		[59]
PABA	6(3 M/3 F)	Single application of a home-made sunscreen containing 5% PABA for 16 h	PAH = 1.97 - 6.59 μg mL ⁻¹ PAcH = 0.91 - 8.92 μg mL ⁻¹ PAcB = 10.17 - 88.75 μg mL ⁻¹	Essential oils increased PABA percutaneous absorption	[26]
BZ3	55 (35 M/20 F)	Unknown	BZ3 _t = <0.28 - 330 ng mL ⁻¹ DHB _t = <0.082 - 250 ng mL ⁻¹ DHMB _t = <0.13 ng mL ⁻¹	Differences by location and by the use of sunscreen are observed	[09]
BZ3 BZ4	3(2 M/ 1 F)	Single application (12.5g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% BZ3 and 4% BZ4	Not reported	Great intersubject variability BZ ₃ ₁ and BZ ₄ r total amounts excreted were 55-180 μg and 190-540 μg, which are 0.006-0.018% and 0.04-0.1%, respectively, of the total applied dose	[62]
BZ3	1 (M)	Single application (13 g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 10% BZ3	Not reported	BZ3 and DHB are predominant: BZ7 ₁ =0.4-1.5 μg; BZ3, = 0.5-1.4 μg DHBs = 0.2-0.8 μg; DHB = 0.4-3.6 μg DHMB = 0.004-0.010 μg; DHMB = 0.004-0.006 μg THB ₁ = 0.001-0.059 μg; THB ₂ = 0.002-0.170 μg	[63]
EDP	4(2 M/2 F)	Single application (13 g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% EDP	Not reported	EDPr, not found DMPr = 46 µg: DMPr = 3231 µg MMPr, not found: MMPr = 968 µg The total excreted amount corresponds to 0.4-0.5% of the applied dose	[33]
BZ3	625 (F)	Unknown	BZ3t = < 0.28 - 5900 ng mL ⁻¹ DHBt = < 0.082 - 3200 ng mL ⁻¹ DHMBt = < 0.13 ng mL ⁻¹	Differences by season are observed	[61]

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11–29

Table 4 (Cc	ontinued)				
UV filter ^a	Number of subjects ^b	Exposure data ^a	Individual levels found ^{a, c}	Remarks ^{a.c}	Ref.
MBC	1 (M)	Repeated applications (2 applications/dayx3days) (13 g, 0.69 mg/cm²) of a home-made sunscreen containing 4% EDP	Not reported	CBC is predominant: MBC = 19 µ.g. MBC = not found CBC = 100-205 µ.g. CBC = 10-785 µ.g	[64]
Plasma a BZ3 HS EMC ES	nd serum 3 (F)	Single application (1.7 g) to the arms and back (860 cm²) (ca. 2 mg/cm²) of a commercial sunscreen containing 6% BZ3 for 8 h	B27, max values of 130 ng mL ⁻¹ H5, < 200 ng mL ⁻¹ EMC, < 300 ng mL ⁻¹ E5, < 200 ng mL ⁻¹	HS, EMC _f and ES, were not found	[42]
BZ3 EMC MBC	32 (15 M/17 F)	Repeated applications (40 g per day during 7 days) over the whole body (2 m ²) (ca. 2 mg/cm ²) of a sunscreen containing 10% of B23, MBC and EMC	BZ3r max values of 300 ng mL ⁻¹ EMC, max values of 2 Ng mL ⁻¹ MBC, max values of 20 ng mL ⁻¹		[43]
MBC	6 (3 M/3 F)	Single application (ca. 2 mg/cm²) of a home-made sunscreen containing 4% MBC	MBC, max, values of 50 ng mL ⁻¹ 50 ng mL ⁻¹ 50 ng mL ⁻¹ 6BC-DH, max, values of 24 ng mL ⁻¹	Great intersubject variability	[31]
BZ3 EMC MBC	32 (15 M/17 F)	Repeated applications (40g per day during 4 days) over the whole body (2 m²) (ca. 2 mg/cm²) of a sunscreen containing 10% of B23, EMC and MBC	BZ3 _f = <4 - 802 ngmL ⁻¹ EMC _f = <4 - 96 ng mL ⁻¹ MBC _f = <3 - 112 ng mL ⁻¹	Great intersubject variability	[55]
BZ3 Human h	15 (4 M/11 F) meast milk	Unknown	$BZ3_t < 0.5 \mathrm{ngmL}^{-1}$	BZ3 was not detected in any of the samples	[68]
BZ3 EMC	No available data	No available data	BZ3 _f = 16 – 417 ng g ⁻¹ of fat EMC _f = 28 – 47 ng g ⁻¹ of fat		[70]
BZ3	20 (F)	Unknown	$BZ3f = < 0.5 - 1.5 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ $BZ3t = < 0.5 - 3.2 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$	BZ3 free specie was prevalent in breast milk compared to the conjugated specie	[71]
BZ3	4 (F)	Unknown	$BZ3f = < 0.4 - 1.24 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ $BZ3t = < 0.4 - 1.28 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$	BZ3 free specie was prevalent in breast milk compared to the conjugated specie	[72]
BZ3	1 (M)	Single application (13g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 10% BZ3	Not reported	THB content is higher than the other metabolites: BZ3 ₁ = 0.060 μg: BZ3 ₄ = 0.050 μg DHBs=0.013 μg: DHAB=0.055 μg DHAB==0.010, μg: DHAB=0.055 μg THBs=0.150 μg: THB=0.030 μg	[63]
EDP	No data	Single application or repeated application (2 applications/dayx4days) (13g) of a home-made sunscreen containing 8% EDP	Not reported	EDP, not found DMP, = 260 ng The total excreted amount is negligible with respect to the applied dose	[73]
Placenta BZ3	16 (F)	Unknown	BZ3 ₁ = < 0.07 ng g ⁻¹ DHB ₁ = < 0.07 - 9.8 ng g ⁻¹ DHMB ₁ = < 0.07 ng g ⁻¹	BZ3 and DHMB were not detected in any of the samples	[74]
BZ3	50 (F)	Unknown	$BZ3_{f} = <0.1 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ DHB _f = <0.2 ng g ⁻¹ DHMB _f = <0.1 ng g ⁻¹	BZ3 and its metabolites were not detected in any of the samples	[75]
0					

A. Chisvert et al. / Analytica Chimica Acta 752 (2012) 11-29

^a See Fig. 1 for key abbreviation. PAH=p-aminohippuric acid; PAGB=p-acetamidobenzoic acid; PACH=p-acetamidohippuric acid; DHB=24-dihydroxybenzophenone; DHMB=22-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone; THB=2,34-trihydroxybenzophenone; CBC=3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)zoH=3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)hydroxycamphor; DMP=N,-dimethyl-p-aminobenzoic acid; MMP=N-monomethyl-p-aminobenzoic acid. ^b M = male; F=female.

^c Subscripts: f=free; c = conjugated; t= total (i.e., free plus conjugated).

differences. Significant differences by season were also found by Wolff and co-workers [46] when determining BZ3 in urine from 90 girls aged 6–9 years.

On the other hand, it should also be taken into account that as the UV filters could experiment phase I and/or phase II metabolic reactions, all the species should be determined in order to estimate a real occurrence of the target UV filters. Additionally, in the case of UV filters determination in urine, other factors such as measurement of urinary creatinine should be used to correct the effects of urine volume on total urinary concentration [79,80]. However, this normalization data has been only barely considered [46,47].

A detailed revision of the literature dealing with the determination of UV filters in biological matrices reveal great differences regarding the exposure of the subjects to the UV filters (amount, single/repeated doses) and this information is sometimes even missing. Moreover, there are also great differences regarding how the quantification is performed. Thus, quite often, only the parent compound is considered, and thus there is a fraction (i.e., phase I and phase II metabolites) that is ignored. Other times, the reported values are obtained just in an instant of time after the application of the cosmetic product, whereas in others a kinetic profile is obtained. Sometimes, and in particular in case of urine analysis, the values are expressed as total excreted amounts. In view of all this, the reported values regarding the found contents of organic UV filters in biological matrices should be considered with care.

Table 4 shows the reported values for the contents of organic UV filters and their metabolites in human biological fluids and tissues. Studies dealing with laboratory animals have been excluded, since the UV filters are often orally administered by force [27,28,30,35,36,67], intravenously [27] or topically under special conditions that do not recreate the normal usage of the UV filters [27,29,31,48,49,66,69]. Nevertheless, these studies are undoubtedly very interesting from the toxicokinetic and biotransformation points of view.

As can be seen, the values are generally in the ng mL⁻¹ (or ng g⁻¹) range, and the total amounts found are in the μ g range, which suppose a very low % of the total dose applied.

5. Conclusions and future trends

UV filters contained in cosmetic products can be percutaneously absorbed, and then, they can be metabolized, excreted and/or bioaccumulated. Thus, both the parent UV filters and their metabolites can be found in both biological fluids and tissues at trace levels. In order to retrieve more information about these processes analytical methods are required. Taking into account the complexity of the matrices, and the low concentration levels of the compounds, the main efforts are focused in the sample preparation step, with the aim of achieving an effective sample clean-up as well as an efficient enrichment of the target analytes. In this sense, classical extraction techniques, such as liquid–liquid extraction or solid-phase extraction, and also more modern microextraction techniques have been employed.

However, despite an exhaustive sample treatment being performed, the presence of potentially interfering compounds make it necessary to employ chromatographic techniques, even coupled to selective detectors like mass spectrometry detectors.

This review highlights the need to develop and validate new analytical methods to carry out studies on the content of organic UV filters in biological fluids and tissues, since so far the published articles do not cover all the organic UV filters currently used in cosmetic products. These analytical methods should also allow the study of the metabolic processes of these organic UV filters in the human body with enough sensitivity, thus allowing the determination of their metabolites. Moreover special care should be taken to carry out a rigorous validation of the analytical methods before their application to pharmacokinetc studies.

Moreover, major efforts should be also conducted in order to elucidate the biotransformation pattern of other UV filters, since only four of them have been studied.

Finally, with the already developed and validated analytical methods, exhaustive biomonitoring studies should be carried out to achieve valuable risk assessment data.

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A reliable and environmentally-friendly liquidchromatographic method for multi-class determination of fat-soluble UV filters in cosmetic products

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A reliable and environmentally-friendly liquid-chromatographic method for multi-class determination of fat-soluble UV filters in cosmetic products





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HIGHLIGHTS

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- A reliable LC-UV method to determine fat-soluble UV filters in cosmetics is presented.
- Commercial samples are analyzed with excellent recoveries.
- Excellent accordance is also obtained in the analysis of different home-made samples.
- The environmentally-friendly characteristics make it suitable for routine analysis.
- The good analytical features make it also suitable for candidate reference method.

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ABSTRACT

An environmentally-friendly analytical method for the simultaneous determination of 15 fat-soluble ultraviolet (UV) filters currently authorized by the European Union regulation on cosmetic products has been developed. The determination was performed by liquid chromatography with UV spectrophotometric detection. Different parameters, such as type of column, oven temperature, mobile phase composition and flow rate were studied. The best chromatographic separation was obtained under the following conditions: C18 column set at 60 °C and gradient ethanol:water (containing 1% formic acid and 20 mM of 2-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin) as mobile phase pumped at 1 mL min⁻¹. 2-Hydroxypropylβ-cyclodextrin was added as mobile phase modifier to achieve the complete resolution of some of the chromatographic peaks. The 15 target compounds were separated in less than 30 min. The method was satisfactorily validated by analyzing three laboratory-made cosmetic samples besides of eleven commercially available cosmetic products containing different combination of the target UV filters. Good accordance of the found levels compared with those of the laboratory-made samples and those of the commercial samples (when available) was achieved. Moreover, excellent recoveries (97-104%) and good intra-day and inter-day precision values at different concentration levels, besides limits of detection values below the $\mu g m L^{-1}$ level, were obtained. These good analytical features, as well as their environmentally-friendly characteristics, make the presented method suitable not only for routine analysis in cosmetics industries, but also as candidate reference method for sunscreen analysis.

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1. Introduction

It is well-know that in the last decades there has been a progressive increase in the UV radiation reaching the Earth's surface due to the damage in the stratospheric ozone layer. Consequently, there has been an increase in the number of diseases caused by this deleterious radiation, such as skin cancer, cutaneous photoaging and damage to the skin's immunological system. Therefore, in order to protect human skin from this deleterious radiation of sunlight, the so-called UV filters have been used as active ingredients in the formulation of sunscreen cosmetic products. These active compounds are of organic or inorganic nature, and have the capacity to absorb and/or reflect, respectively, this UV radiation. Nowadays, they are not only added to those cosmetics intended specifically for sun protection but also in all type of daily products such as moisturizes, after shave products, shampoos, anti-aging creams, make-up products, etc. [1].

In order to guarantee consumers' health, the compounds that can be used as UV filters in cosmetics and their maximum allowed concentrations are regulated in each country [1]. Specifically, the European Union (EU) 1223/2009 regulation [2] permits the use of 26 compounds as UV filters in cosmetics (Table 1), the chemical structure of which can be found elsewhere [1,3,4].

Among them, only titanium dioxide is of inorganic nature, whereas the other 25 are organic UV filters. 7 of them (i.e., CBM, PBS, TDS, BCS, P25, BZ4 and PDT) have a hydrophilic character, whereas the remaining 18 present lipophilic properties and are the most commonly employed due to their water resistance. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the manufacture of PBC and 3BC are protected under L'Oreal patents and are currently no longer manufactured neither used in cosmetic products.

In spite of the restrictions of use established for UV filters, there are no official analytical methods for the determination of these compounds in cosmetic products. Therefore, is necessary to develop efficient and reliable analytical methods to ensure product safety and efficacy, i.e., by controlling the UV filters contents. In this sense, different analytical methods can be found in the literature dealing with the determination of UV filters in cosmetic products. Detailed and exhaustive revisions of all these methods have been published previously [1,3], to which more interested readers are referred to. It should be said that by far the most commonly employed technique has been liquid chromatography (LC). The high capability of these compounds to absorb UV radiation makes the UV/Vis spectrometry detector the most suitable for LC analysis. Reverse-phase is usually employed, mainly with C₁₈ stationary phase, whereas organic solvents, such as acetonitrile, methanol or tetrahydrofuran in combination with water as binary, ternary or quaternary mixtures have been used in most cases as mobile phases [3]. Due to the toxicity of these solvents, ethanol-water mixtures were first proposed by our research group [5], contributing to the development of environmentally green analytical methods.

Although different LC-UV methods have been published, many of them just achieve the determination of a relatively small number of the fat-soluble UV filters regulated in the EU framework [1,3]. It should be said that generally the pairs IMC-MBC, MBC-DHHB, BDM-HS and BDM-EMC present difficulties in their separation. Nevertheless, a reduced number of articles dealing with the determination of a relative high number of these compounds [6–16] can be found. However, in some of them, IMC [6,14], MBC [13], HS [13,14,16] or BDM [15] were not considered. Moreover, in most of them DHHB was not determined, since it was not allowed in the EU on that time [6–12], or the study was done outside the EU, where this UV filters is not allowed [15,16]. Moreover, in some of these articles, different sample treatments are proposed for the dissolution and quantification of the target UV filters, and separately chromatographic runs are needed [9,14].

With the final purpose of implementing reliable and broadspectrum analytical methods to improve and facilitate the quality control of the cosmetic industry, the aim of this work is to develop and validate an easy, environmentally-friendly and rapid analytical

Table 1

List of the UV filters permitted in cosmetic products under the EU regulation.

EU Reference number ^a	INCI name ^b	Acronym ^c	Maximum authorized concentration (%, w/w)	Nature ^d
2	Camphor benzalkonium methosulfate	CBM	6	WS
3	Homosalate	HS	10	FS
4	Benzophenone-3	BZ3	10	FS
6	Phenylbenzimidazole sulfonic acid	PBS	8 (as acid)	WS
7	Terephthalydene dicamphor sulfonic acid	TDS	10 (as acid)	WS
8	Butyl methoxydibenzoyl methane	BDM	5	FS
9	Benzylidene camphor sulfonic acid	BCS	6 (as acid)	WS
10	Octocrylene	OCR	10 (as acid)	FS
11	Polyacrylamidomethyl benzylidene camphor	PBC	6	FS
12	Ethylhexyl methoxycinnamate	EMC	10	FS
13	PEG-25 PABA	P25	10	WS
14	Isoamyl p-methoxycinnamate	IMC	10	FS
15	Ethylhexyl triazone	ET	5	FS
16	Drometrizole trisiloxane	DRT	15	FS
17	Diethylhexyl butamido triazone	DBT	10	FS
18	4-Methylbenzylidene camphor	MBC	4	FS
19	3-Benzylidene camphor	3BC	2	FS
20	Ethylhexyl salicylate	ES	5	FS
21	Ethylhexyl dimethyl PABA	EDP	8	FS
22	Benzophenone-4	BZ4	5 (as acid)	WS
23	Methylene bis-benzotriazolyl tetramethylbutylphenol	MBP	10	FS
24	Disodium Phenyl Dibenzimidazole Tetrasulfonate	PDT	10 (as acid)	WS
25	Bis-ehtylhexyloxyphenol methoxyphenyl triazine	EMT	10	FS
26	Polysilicone 15	P15	10	FS
27	Titanium dioxide	TiO ₂	25	Ι
28	Diethylamino hydroxybenzoyl hexyl benzoate	DHHB	10	FS

^a Order number given according to the EU 1223/2009 Regulation.

^b INCI: International Nomenclature for Cosmetic Ingredients.

^c Acronyms used in this article.

^d WS: water-soluble; FS: fat-soluble; I: inorganic.

method for the simultaneous determination of 15 of the 16 fatsoluble UV filters currently authorized and used in cosmetic products under the EU framework. P15 is excluded from this study since it is a polymeric compound and its determination requires a special consideration. To achieve the complete resolution of the target analytes, 2-hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin has been used as mobile phase modifier, as was previously proposed by our research group [17]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first proposed method where all these 15 fat-soluble UV filters are determined simultaneously.

2. Experimental

2.1. Apparatus

An Agilent 1220 Infinity LC system comprised of a degasser, a quaternary pump, an autosampler with up to 100 μ L injection volume, a thermostated column oven and a variable wavelength UV/Vis detector was employed. The column used was a Purospher[®] STAR RP-18 endcapped (12.5 cm length, 4 mm I.D., 5 μ m particle size) from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

An ultrasonic water bath from Torrecilla (Valencia, Spain) was used to ease sample dissolution.

2.2. Reagents and samples

Benzophenone-3 (BZ3) 98% and ethylhexyl salicylate (ES) 99% from Aldrich (Barcelona, Spain), isoamyl p-methoxycinnamate (IMC) 99.3% from Haarmann and Reimer (Parets del Vallés, Spain), 4-methylbenzylidene camphor (MBC) 99.7% from Guinama S.L. (Valencia, Spain), octocrylene (OCR) >98% from F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd. (Basel, Switterland), ethylhexyl dimethyl PABA (EDP) $100 \pm 2\%$, ethylhexyl methoxycinnamate (EMC) 99.8%, butyl methoxydibenzoylmethane (BDM) 98% and homosalate (HS) >98% from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), diethylhexyl butamido triazone (DBT) 99% from 3V Iberia S.A. (Barcelona, Spain), ethylhexyltriazone (ET) $100 \pm 1\%$ from BASF (Barcelona, Spain), drometizole trisiloxane (DRT) 99.9% from L'Oréal (Paris, France), methylene bis-benzotriazolyl tetramethylbutylphenol (MBP) 49.8%, bis-ethylhexyloxyphenol methoxyphenyl triazine (EMT) 99% and diethylamino hydroxybenzoyl hexyl benzoate (DHHB) 99.8% from BASF (Barcelona, Spain) were used as standards.

LC-grade absolute ethanol (EtOH) from Scharlab Chemie (Barcelona, Spain) was used as solvent to prepare the standard and sample solutions besides of the mobile phase. De-ionized water obtained using a NANOpure II ultrapure water system from Barnstead (Boston, USA) was also used in the mobile phase. 2-Hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin (HP- β -CD, molecular weight: 1309 g mol⁻¹) 97% from Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium) was used as mobile phase modifier.

Formic acid from Fluka Chemika (Steinheim, Germany), ammonium hydroxide solution 25% reagent grade and glacial acetic acid, from Scharlab Chemie, were used to adjust the pH of the mobile phase.

Eleven commercial cosmetic samples, of different cosmetic formulation (i.e., sunscreens, facial creams, lip balms, after shave creams) from several national and international laboratories containing different combinations of the 15 target compounds were purchased in local shops. For reasons of confidentiality, the names will not be shown.

Different laboratory-made cosmetic samples (a cream, a lip balm and a spray lotion) containing the target compounds were fabricated at laboratory scale using common cosmetic-grade ingredients from Guinama S.L. (Valencia, Spain) such as emollients, hydrating agents, surfactants, preservatives, etc.

Table 2

Elution gradient proposed for UV filters determination.

t (min)	EtOH (%)	1% formic acid containing 20 mM HP-β-CD (%)
0	55	45
8	55	45
8.5	60	40
13	60	40
23	100	0
30	100	0
31	55	45
40	55	45

Experimental conditions: injection volume = 5 μ L; flow rate = 1 mL min⁻¹; oven temperature = 60 °C; λ = 313 nm (except for BDM and DHHB, λ = 360 nm).

2.3. Proposed method

2.3.1. Preparation of standards and sample solutions

A 500 μ g mL⁻¹ multicomponent stock solution of the 15 fatsoluble UV filters under study were prepared in EtOH and stored at 4 °C until use. From this solution, multi-component working solutions were daily prepared in EtOH from 10 to 50 μ g mL⁻¹, and they were placed in 1.5 mL injection vials.

Regarding the sample, it was homogenized depending on its nature (i.e., creams, milks and lotions were manually shaken, whereas lip balms were cut in tiny pieces and then mixed and kneaded again). Then, 0.01-0.02 g were weighed into a 10 mL volumetric flask, dissolved and diluted with EtOH. In order to facilitate the dissolution of the sample, it was placed, when necessary, in an ultrasonic water bath in order to achieve the complete dissolution (generally less than 2 min). After this, it was filtered (if necessary) through a $0.45 \,\mu$ m nylon membrane filter and ca. 1 mL of this solution was placed into 1.5 mL injection vial.

2.3.2. Chromatographic analysis

 $5\,\mu\text{L}$ of the standard or sample solutions were injected into the chromatographic system with the column set at 60 °C. The elution was performed at 1 mL min⁻¹ flow rate, following the elution gradient program shown in Table 2. Monitoring was carried out at 313 nm except DHHB and BDM that were monitored at 360 nm.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Study of the chromatographic variables

Different variables may affect the analytical process, such as the type of column, the mobile phase composition, the flow rate, the column temperature and the UV detection wavelength.

Initially, the optimum conditions obtained in a previous work where most of the UV filters under study were determined, were tested [11]. However, at these conditions (i.e., Lichrospher[®] 100 RP-18 (12.5 cm length, 4 mm I.D., 5 µm particle size) column set at 45 °C, ethanol:1% acetic acid as mobile phase) MBC-DHHB peaks were not well resolved. For this reason, other reverse phase columns from different suppliers were tested. In particular, a Zorbax SB-18 (5 cm length, 2.1 mm I.D., 1.8 µm particle size) column from Agilent Technologies, two C18 Kinetex (15 cm length, 3 mm I.D., 2.6 µm particle size and 15 cm length, 2.1 mm I.D., 2.6 µm particle size) and a PFP Kinetex (15 cm length, 2.1 mm I.D., 2.6 µm particle size) columns from Phenomenex, and finally a Purospher® STAR RP-18 endcapped (12.5 cm length, 4 mm I.D., 5 µm particle size) column from Merck were tested. Although the pair MBC-DHHB was not completely separated, the best results were obtained employing the Purospher® STAR RP-18 column. Moreover, BDM was completely overlapped with EMC. Although BDM presents an absorbance maximum at 360 nm, it could be determined without interference caused by EMC, but it also slightly absorbs at the rest of UV spectrum where EMC do, thereby interfering in the determination of EMC. Thus, it was necessary to achieve the chromatographic separation of these compounds for the correct quantification of EMC.

To optimize the elution gradient, the different UV filters polarities were taken into account. BZ3, IMC, MBC and DHHB are the least hydrophobic, followed by OCR, EDP, BDM, EMC, ES and HS and finally by DBT, ET, DRT, MBP and EMT. Hence, three groups can be differentiated when studying the mobile phase composition. The best separation was achieved with an ethanol:deionized water 55:45 (v/v) mixture for the first group, although the pair MBC-DHHB was still partly overlapped. The second one needed higher proportion of ethanol to elute, thus 60:40 (v/v) and 70:30 (v/v) mixtures were tested. Finally, the most hydrophobic UV filters composing the third group needed a mobile phase with only ethanol to elute them from the column.

Regarding the column temperature and the flow rate, it was observed that increasing the oven temperature made peaks narrower. Moreover, the mobile phase viscosity and thus the chromatographic system pressure, decreased. Hence, working at higher oven temperatures enables working at higher flows, thus decreasing the run time analysis. Oven temperatures between 30 and 60 °C were tested, obtaining the best results at 60 °C. Higher temperatures were not tested due to technical limitations. Flow rates between 0.5 and 1.5 mL min⁻¹ were tested, and the best chromatographic separation in the less possible time was obtained at 1 mLmin⁻¹ flow rate. Based on this, the elution gradient was adjusted to achieve the best resolution. The pair MBC-DHHB was completely separated under these conditions. However, BDM was still overlapped with EMC. Then, in order to separate this pair, and taking into account the potentially ionizable structure of BDM, different mobile phase pHs were tested, in order to change its retention time and avoid the overlapping with EMC. Thus, different buffer solutions as aqueous mobile phase were tested: 1% formic acid (pH 2), 1% acetic acid (pH 3), 1% acetic acid with ammonium hydroxide (pH 6) and 1% ammonium hydroxide (pH 8). Satisfactory results were not obtained as separation of BDM and EMC was not achieved. Nevertheless, formic acid 1% (pH 2) was selected as mobile phase as chromatographic peak shapes were slightly better.



Fig. 1. Chromatograms of the target analytes obtained applying the proposed LC-UV method to an ethanolic standard solution containing the target analytes at $20 \,\mu g m L^{-1}$ without (a) and with (b) HP- β -CD as mobile phase modifier (see text for experimental details).

According to Scalia et al. [18], BDM forms non-covalent inclusion complexes with 2-hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin (HP- β -CD). This cyclic oligosaccharide presents a highly hydrophilic surface and a hydrophobic internal cavity where BDM can be embedded. This results in an increase of the aqueous solubility of this UV filter. Therefore, this behavior can be used to change its chromatographic features and then separate it from EMC or other UV filters, as was previously carried out by some of the present authors by using HP- β -CD as mobile phase modifier [17]. Nevertheless, according to Scalia et al., EDP [19], EMC [20] and MBC [21] may also embed into the HP- β -CD cavity, by means of the aliphatic chain, the aromatic ring and the camphor moiety, respectively. Moreover, according to Sarveiya et al. [22], BZ3 may also penetrate into the HP-β-CD throughout its non-substituted aromatic ring. However, it should be emphasized that these interactions depend strongly on the HP- β -CD concentration and the solvents employed [18]. Therefore, in order to achieve a complete separation of all the target compounds, the addition of different HP-β-CD concentrations to the aqueous

Table 3

Analytical features of the proposed method for the determination of UV filters in cosmetic products.

				r · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·								
UV filter	Rt (min) ^a	$\begin{array}{l} Slope{\pm}s^{b} \\ (mAUs\mu g^{-1}mL) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} Intercept \pm s \ ^{b} \\ (mAU \ s) \end{array}$	<i>R</i> ^{2 b}	$\frac{ILOD^{\ c}}{(\mu gmL^{-1})}$	$\frac{ILOQ^{c}}{(\mu gmL^{-1})}$	Intra-day precision ^d , RSD (%)			Inter-day precision ^d , RSD (%)		
							$2\mu gmL^{-1}$	$10\mu gmL^{-1}$	$50\mu gmL^{-1}$	$2\mu gmL^{-1}$	$10\mu gmL^{-1}$	$50\mu gmL^{-1}$
BZ3	3.88	13.99 ± 0.14	0.4 ± 0.5	0.9997	0.09	0.31	1.6	0.3	0.4	4.4	4.9	1.9
IMC	7.52	30.37 ± 0.13	0.5 ± 0.5	0.9998	0.04	0.14	0.6	0.3	0.3	3.4	4.7	1.8
MBC	8.35	27.8 ± 0.2	-0.4 ± 0.7	0.9998	0.07	0.23	0.5	0.4	0.2	3.1	4.6	2.1
DHHB	8.92	30.1 ± 0.3	0.4 ± 1.2	0.9997	0.10	0.33	0.4	0.3	0.3	4.9	6.3	0.8
OCR	12.85	10.85 ± 0.11	0.9 ± 0.4	0.9997	0.10	0.33	2.2	1.0	0.5	6.3	5.1	3.4
EDP	13.77	32.57 ± 0.11	0.6 ± 0.4	0.9998	0.03	0.10	1.1	0.4	0.4	3.9	5.8	2.8
BDM	15.11	23.0 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.3	0.9998	0.04	0.13	1.0	0.3	0.7	2.3	3.0	1.2
EMC	16.00	26.0 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 1.4	0.9994	0.14	0.46	0.9	0.5	0.3	5.3	5.2	2.0
ES	18.73	4.94 ± 0.12	-0.5 ± 0.4	0.9990	0.22	0.74	6.1	2.5	1.1	4.8	4.5	2.0
HS	19.53	3.89 ± 0.06	-0.1 ± 0.2	0.9993	0.14	0.47	4.9	3.3	2.0	3.7	2.2	2.3
DBT	23.13	42.4 ± 0.4	2.9 ± 1.4	0.9997	0.10	0.32	1.0	0.4	0.4	4.6	3.1	2.6
ET	25.26	47.07 ± 0.11	1.3 ± 0.4	0.9998	0.02	0.07	0.7	0.3	0.3	5.5	4.3	1.6
DRT	26.07	9.49 ± 0.06	-0.1 ± 0.2	0.9998	0.06	0.20	1.0	0.5	0.4	2.0	3.4	1.0
MBP	27.25	18.4 ± 0.4	9.0 ± 0.6	0.9990	0.18	0.60	0.8	0.4	3.3	8.2	6.6	3.7
EMT	28.26	24.20 ± 0.14	0.2 ± 0.5	0.9998	0.06	0.19	0.9	0.4	0.3	5.8	4.2	1.9

^a Rt: retention time.

 $^{b}\,$ s: standard deviation. Working range: 10–50 $\mu g\,m L^{-1}.$ Number of calibration points: 5.

^c ILOD: instrumental limit of detection; ILOQ: instrumental limit of quantification. Calculated as $3S_{y|x}/b$ criteria, where $S_{y|x}$ is the residual standard deviation and b is the slope of the calibration curve.

^d Relative standard deviation (RSD); five replicate analysis of a standard solution containing different concentrations of the target analytes.

Table 4
Results obtained in the analysis of laboratory-made samples.

UV filter	Sunscreen	cream ^a		Lip balm ^b			Spray lotion ^c			
	Real content (%, w/w)	Found content $\pm s^{d}$ (%, w/w)	Relative error ^e (%)	Real content (%, w/w)	Found content $\pm s^{d}$ (%, w/w)	Relative error ^e (%)	Real content (%, w/w)	Found content $\pm s^{d}$ (%, w/w)	Relative error ^e (%)	
BZ3	0.533	0.536 ± 0.008	0.5	0.507	0.537 ± 0.008	5.9	0.486	0.518 ± 0.001	6.5	
IMC	0.534	0.518 ± 0.007	-3.0	0.482	0.47 ± 0.04	-2.3	0.540	0.542 ± 0.002	0.4	
MBC	0.234	0.235 ± 0.004	0.6	0.229	0.24 ± 0.01	6.9	0.198	0.213 ± 0.006	7.4	
DHHB	0.565	0.58 ± 0.04	2.8	0.540	0.558 ± 0.001	3.5	0.542	0.58 ± 0.03	6.9	
OCR	0.502	0.50 ± 0.01	-0.1	0.536	0.54 ± 0.04	0.5	0.544	0.574 ± 0.006	5.4	
EDP	0.441	0.43 ± 0.02	-2.9	0.698	0.72 ± 0.01	3.5	0.410	0.428 ± 0.004	4.5	
BDM	0.251	0.250 ± 0.009	-0.1	0.244	0.27 ± 0.03	6.0	0.242	0.25 ± 0.02	3.5	
EMC	0.546	0.575 ± 0.008	5.4	0.479	0.52 ± 0.03	8.0	0.501	0.55 ± 0.02	8.8	
ES	0.260	0.256 ± 0.006	-1.6	0.319	0.314 ± 0.006	-1.5	0.212	0.224 ± 0.002	5.3	
HS	0.622	0.59 ± 0.02	-4.6	0.448	0.41 ± 0.01	-8.0	0.533	0.492 ± 0.002	-7.8	
DBT	0.520	0.49 ± 0.01	-6.1	0.482	0.47 ± 0.01	-1.6	0.524	0.513 ± 0.003	-2.1	
ET	0.252	0.238 ± 0.006	-5.3	0.268	0.283 ± 0.002	5.5	0.245	0.265 ± 0.002	8.0	
DRT	0.763	0.779 ± 0.008	2.0	0.728	0.71 ± 0.01	-1.5	0.736	0.757 ± 0.006	2.8	
MBP	0.452	0.44 ± 0.01	-2.4	_f	-	-	_f	-	-	
EMT	0.508	0.51 ± 0.01	1.0	0.517	0.543 ± 0.006	5.1	_f	-	-	

^a Composition (besides UV filters): aqua, myristil myristate, cetyl alcohol, monoglyceril laurate, ceteareth-20, DEA-cetyl phosphate, cetearyl octanoate, isopropyl myristate, dimethicone, Persea Gratissima (Avocado) oil, propylenglycol, glycerin, sodium lactate, lactic acid, serine, urea, sorbitol, sodium chloride, allantoin, BHT, phenoxyethanol, methylparaben, ethylparaben, butylparaben, propylparaben, isobutylparaben.

^b Composition (besides UV filters): Castor oil, Theobroma Cacao butter, Cocos Nucifera oil, cera alba, isopropyl myristate, BHT.

^c Composition (besides UV filters): alcohol denat, propylenglycol, isopropyl myristate, glycerin, polysorbate 80, Centella Asiatica extract, menthol, benzyl alcohol, methylchloroisothiazolinone, methylisothiazolinone.

 $^{\rm d}\,$ The values are expressed as mean of three replicates $\pm\,$ standard deviation.

e Relative Error = [(Found content – Real content)/Real content] × 100.

^f These compounds were excluded from the formulation, since non-homogeneous formulations were obtained when they were added.

phase (10, 15 and 20 mmol L⁻¹) was tested. The best resolution was obtained when 20 mmol L⁻¹ of HP- β -CD was employed as aqueous mobile phase. Under these conditions, the retention time of most of the target compounds, including some of which no studies have been reported, decreased in different extent allowing the complete separation of BDM and EMC (see Fig. 1).

Once at this point, it should be said that, in the case of HS, two isomers (HS₁ and HS₂) are formed in the synthesis process at a constant ratio. Separation of the two isomers was successfully achieved with the proposed method, but the peak corresponding to HS₂ was the one used to quantify, since it is the most sensitive.

As can be seen in Fig. 1, the complete separation of the 15 fat-soluble UV filters under study, including the HS isomers, was achieved in less than 30 min.

3.2. Analytical figures of merit of the proposed method

Quality parameters of the proposed method were evaluated under final optimized conditions.

The linearity studied reached at least $500 \,\mu g \,m L^{-1}$ in all cases, except for ET that reached $400 \,\mu g \,m L^{-1}$, and for MBP, which linearity (up to $50 \,\mu g \,m L^{-1}$) is limited due to its lower solubility in ethanol. The working range was set from 10 to $50 \,\mu g \,m L^{-1}$ in all cases. The equations of the calibration curves are shown in Table 3, where a high level of linearity is obtained.

The instrumental limits of detection (ILOD) and quantification (ILOQ) of the target analytes are also shown in Table 3. As can be seen, the ILODs and ILOQs values were below the μ g mL⁻¹ level, ranging from 0.02 to 0.60 μ g mL⁻¹ and from 0.07 to 2.10 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively. These concentrations, in the trace levels, are far below the ILOD needed when determining UV filters in cosmetic formulations, where amounts of the order of percentage of these compounds are added, and just a simple dissolution is needed without the need to carry out an additional concentration step.

The intra-day and inter-day precision, expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD), was evaluated by applying the proposed method to five replicate standard solutions containing the target analytes at three levels of concentration: 2 (low), 10 (medium) and 50 (high) μ g mL⁻¹. Results, also shown in Table 3, reveal that good precision was achieved for all the target analytes.

In order to evaluate the accuracy of the proposed method, different laboratory-made samples (i.e., a cream, a lip balm and a spray lotion) containing know amount of the target analytes (specifically the 5% of the maximum amount authorized by the UE for each UV



Fig. 2. Chromatograms of some of the commercial sample analyzed: (a) sample A (sunscreen lotion), (b) Sample E (sunscreen cream) and (c) Sample F (facial moisturizer).

Table 5

UV filters concentrations found in commercial cosmetic products.

UV filter	er UV filters content $\pm s (\mathfrak{X}, w)w)^{a,b}$										
	Sample ^c										
	A	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н	Ι	J	К
BZ3						0.55 ± 0.02					
IMC		8.0 ± 0.1									
MBC	4.5 ± 0.2					1.15 ± 0.05			2.4 ± 0.1		1.05 ± 0.01
DHHB											
OCR	11.6 ± 0.4	8.3 ± 0.1	10.1 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.2	11.5 ± 0.6	1.02 ± 0.05	0.51 ± 0.01				6.7 ± 0.1
EDP											
BDM	5.8 ± 0.2	4.41 ± 0.08	4.8 ± 0.1	2.08 ± 0.06	4.0 ± 0.2	25.04	1.14 ± 0.01	1.14 ± 0.02	1.15 ± 0.03	242 . 0.04	3.20 ± 0.05
EMC						2.5 ± 0.1	5.92 ± 0.09	4.35 ± 0.09	7.8 ± 0.5	2.13 ± 0.04	
ES	5.1 ± 0.2	4.87 ± 0.09		2.83 ± 0.07							
HS	8.8 ± 0.3	4.89 ± 0.08									
DBT		2.79 ± 0.08						0.30 ± 0.02			
ET											
DRT											
MBP			1.33 ± 0.02	0.84 ± 0.01	4.2 ± 0.3						1.92 ± 0.04
EMT	4.18 ± 0.07		2.1 ± 0.1		2.4 ± 0.1						1.67 ± 0.06

 $^{a}\,$ The values are expressed as mean of three replicates $\pm\,$ standard deviation (s).

^b Empty cell means not detected (i.e., below the limit of detection).

^c Sample A: sunscreen lotion; Sample B: children sunscreen spray; Sample C: sunscreen cream; Sample D: sunscreen spray; Sample E: sunscreen cream; Sample F: facial moisturizer; Sample G: firming facial cream; Sample H: after shave cream; Sample I: lip balm; Sample J: lip aromatic balm; Sample K: sunscreen milk.

Table 6

Recovery values obtained by applying the proposed method to eleven commercial cosmetic products spiked with $20 \,\mu g \,m L^{-1}$ of each analyte.

UV filter	Recoveries ± s (%) ^a										
	Sample ^b										
	A	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н	I	J	К
BZ3	101.7 ± 1.8	99.9 ± 0.6	100.0 ± 0.9	100.8 ± 0.4	99.8 ± 0.7	101.4 ± 1.2	100.7 ± 0.4	99.7 ± 0.2	101 ± 1	100.3 ± 0.2	100.5 ± 0.7
IMC	102.3 ± 1.9	102.0 ± 0.3	99.8 ± 0.7	100.5 ± 0.5	99.5 ± 0.9	100.1 ± 0.9	100.8 ± 0.3	99.5 ± 0.2	100 ± 1	99.9 ± 0.3	100 ± 1
MBC	103 ± 5	102 ± 3	100.2 ± 0.6	100.9 ± 0.6	100 ± 1	100.9 ± 1.6	100.7 ± 0.3	99.7 ± 0.3	102 ± 4	100.2 ± 0.2	104 ± 3
DHHB	101.0 ± 1.3	102 ± 3	98.9 ± 0.5	101.3 ± 0.6	101 ± 2	102 ± 4	99.7 ± 0.5	99.0 ± 0.1	101 ± 2	100 ± 2	101 ± 1
OCR	101.6 ± 0.8	97 ± 6	100 ± 3	101 ± 2	102 ± 5	100.2 ± 1.6	103.6 ± 1.4	98.8 ± 0.4	100 ± 1	100.2 ± 0.3	103 ± 2
EDP	99.3 ± 1.8	100 ± 4	101 ± 4	101.1 ± 0.6	104 ± 1	101.1 ± 0.9	101.1 ± 0.3	100.1 ± 0.4	101 ± 1	100.8 ± 0.3	101 ± 1
BDM	101 ± 7	99.3 ± 0.1	100 ± 3	101 ± 3	103 ± 4	102.1 ± 1.5	104 ± 5	99 ± 3	102 ± 4	100.6 ± 0.5	100.0 ± 0.8
EMC	101 ± 5	101.2 ± 1.6	101.2 ± 0.4	101 ± 2	101 ± 1	101 ± 2	104 ± 5	102 ± 2	101 ± 5	100 ± 4	101 ± 1
ES	101 ± 2	101 ± 4	100.3 ± 0.4	102 ± 2	100 ± 1	100.7 ± 0.7	100.5 ± 0.3	100.0 ± 0.4	99 ± 2	100.4 ± 0.8	100.5 ± 0.8
HS	103 ± 2	102.0 ± 0.8	100.4 ± 0.7	100.6 ± 0.6	99.9 ± 0.9	101 ± 1	100.5 ± 0.5	99.5 ± 0.6	99 ± 2	99.9 ± 0.3	101 ± 1
DBT	102 ± 4	101 ± 4	101.2 ± 1.6	102.4 ± 0.2	101.4 ± 0.9	101.7 ± 1.9	101.5 ± 1.7	102 ± 2	102 ± 3	101.3 ± 0.8	101.7 ± 0.4
ET	99 ± 3	101 ± 5	99 ± 3	100.6 ± 0.2	99.8 ± 0.7	99 ± 3	100.1 ± 0.6	99 ± 1	99 ± 2	98 ± 3	99.5 ± 0.8
DRT	102.4 ± 1.5	98 ± 1	101 ± 3	99 ± 2	100 ± 2	101.1 ± 1.2	100.1 ± 0.7	100.8 ± 0.4	99 ± 2	100.8 ± 0.5	100 ± 1
MBP	98.5 ± 0.9	100 ± 3	103 ± 3	99 ± 2	99 ± 2	99 ± 4	100.5 ± 1.4	99.5 ± 0.7	99 ± 4	99 ± 3	96 ± 2
EMT	99 ± 3	103.0 ± 1.6	101 ± 3	104 ± 2	101 ± 3	103 ± 2	102 ± 3	101 ± 1	101 ± 4	102 ± 2	103 ± 1

^a The values are expressed as mean of three replicates \pm standard deviation (s).

^b Sample A: sunscreen lotion; Sample B: children sunscreen spray; Sample C: sunscreen cream; Sample D: sunscreen spray; Sample E: sunscreen cream; Sample F: facial moisturizer; Sample G: firming facial cream; Sample H: after shave cream; Sample I: lip balm; Sample J: lip aromatic balm; Sample K: sunscreen milk.

filter) were prepared according to usual manufacturing protocols of the cosmetic industry, and then, they were analyzed employing the present method. The results are shown in Table 4. The low relative errors obtained show the method is accurate. Moreover, the RSD values ranged from 0.3 to 8.0%, thus showing good method precision.

3.3. Analysis of commercial cosmetic samples

Eleven commercially-available samples were prepared by triplicate as specified in the proposed method (see Section 2.4) and injected into the chromatographic system under the optimized conditions. Fig. 2 shows, as an example, the chromatograms obtained for three of the commercial samples analyzed. The results obtained are shown in Table 5. The RSD values ranged from 0.9 to 7.1%, thus showing one more time that good method precision is achieved in the analysis of real samples.

The UV filters found were those indicated on the label of the cosmetic products analyzed. Moreover, the contents provided by the manufacturers for sample I (2.5% for MBC, 1.0% for BDM and 7.5% for EMC) and sample K (1.0% for MBC, 6.5% for OCR, 3.2% for BDM, 2.0% for MBP and 1.6% for EMT) match perfectly with those found (see Table 5). Nevertheless, since no labeled values were available for the rest of the analyzed samples, a study of the matrix effects were carried out for all of them. In this sense, solutions of the eleven commercial samples were prepared by triplicate according to the proposed method, and then they were spiked with the target analytes at $20 \,\mu g \, m L^{-1}$. The recoveries were evaluated by determining the UV filters concentrations of both, spiked and non-spiked samples, applying the proposed method. The obtained results (Table 6) ranged from 97 to 104%, thus showing that there was no matrix effect and that external calibration can be used. These results also confirm the study of the accuracy previously commented.

4. Conclusions

With the final purpose of implementing reliable and broadspectrum analytical methods to improve and facilitate the quality control of the cosmetic industry, the aim of this work has been to develop and validate an easy, environmentally-friendly and rapid analytical method for the determination of 15 fat-soluble UV filters currently authorized and used in cosmetic products under the EU framework. The method is based on liquid chromatography with UV detection. To our knowledge, this is the first proposed method where all these 15 fat-soluble UV filters are determined simultaneously in different cosmetic formulations.

The proposed method provides advantages from an environmental standpoint, as it employs non-toxic solvents in both sample preparation and mobile phase, and from an application one, as its simplicity would allow its use in the routine quality control of cosmetics industries, as no tedious sample pretreatment is needed, since only dissolution with the aid of ultrasounds is performed.

The analysis of three laboratory-made samples of different formulation, and the recoveries obtained (97–104%) in the analysis of eleven commercially available cosmetic samples, show the good accuracy of the method.

The intra-day and inter-day precision using standard solutions at different concentration levels, and the RSD values obtained in the analysis of laboratory-made and commercial cosmetic samples show the good precision of the method.

All this, i.e., the good analytical features, the simplicity in operation compared to other previously published methods, as well as their environmentally-friendly characteristics, make the presented method suitable not only for routine analysis in cosmetics industries, but also as candidate as a reference method for cosmetic analysis.

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Determination of benzophenone-3 and its main metabolites in human serum by dispersive liquid–liquid microextraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

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Determination of benzophenone-3 and its main metabolites in human serum by dispersive liquid–liquid microextraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry



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ABSTRACT

A new analytical method for the determination of benzophenone-3 (2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone), and its main metabolites (2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone and 2,2-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone) in human serum is presented. The method is based on dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME) as preconcentration and clean-up technique, followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Acidic hydrolysis and protein precipitation with HCl 6 M (1:1) (100 °C, 1 h) were carried out before extraction. The variables involved in the DLLME process were studied. Under the optimized conditions, 70 μ L of acetone (disperser solvent) and 30 μ L of chloroform (extraction solvent) were mixed and rapidly injected into 800 μ L of hydrolyzed serum sample. Sample pH or ionic strength adjustment were not necessary. The method was validated by analyzing spiked human serum samples. No satisfactory recoveries were obtained when aqueous standards or standards prepared in synthetic serum were used, but excellent recoveries were achieved by using matrix-matched calibration standards. Moreover, limits of detection in the low μ g L^{-1} level and good repeatability were obtained. In order to show the applicability of the proposed method in the study of percutaneous absorption processes, it was applied to the analysis of serum samples from two volunteers after topical application of a sunscreen cosmetic product containing 2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone.

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1. Introduction

2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (HMB), also known as benzophenone-3, has been used for many years as an UV filter in sunscreen cosmetic products, mainly due to its large molar absorptivity in both UVA and UVB ranges. Its use is allowed in the three main regulatory legislations on cosmetic products over the world [1], i.e. the European Union Cosmetics Directive (currently recast as the new Regulation on Cosmetic Products [2]), the United States Food and Drug Administration and the Japanese Pharmaceutical Affairs Law. However, the concentration of the UV filters in the final product is restricted by these legislations. Specifically, the use of HMB in the final product is allowed up to 10%, 6% and 5% (w/w), respectively [1].

UV filters are considered safe for topical application on human skin when employed in the established conditions. However, there are some studies that reveal that after dermal application of sunscreen cosmetic products, UV filters are absorbed through the skin, metabolized in the human body and finally excreted [3]. The percutaneous absorption of these compounds may result in different adverse health effects, such as photoallergy, endocrine disruption or carcinogenicity [4–8]. Specifically, HMB can be considered a potential allergen and contact photoallergen [4,9,10]. Moreover, different *in vitro* studies using human cell lines show that daily exposure to formulations containing HMB might have antiandrogenic and estrogenic activity in humans [5,7,11].

Regarding HMB metabolism, it was first proposed by Okereke et al. after oral [12] and dermal [13] administration to rats. Analysis of biological fluids and tissues revealed the formation of two phase I metabolites mainly, 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB) and 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB), and a third one in a much lesser extent named 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone (THB). These authors also found their corresponding phase II glucuronide conjugates.

It should be mentioned that metabolites remain in the human body longer than their parent compound, thus its adverse effects may be more important [14]. In fact, it has been shown that DHB has higher antiandrogenic activity than HMB [15] and both have similar estrogenic behavior than other well-established endocrine disruptors, such as bisphenol A, methoxychlor, endosulfan or dibutylphthalate. Moreover, they also shows synergistic effects when several UV filters are



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applied concurrently [11]. Furthermore, it has been shown that DHMB also displays estrogenic activity [16].

Studies about the pharmacokinetics of HMB showed its presence in blood stream, breast milk, semen and different tissues, being urine the major route of excretion. The literature concerning the analytical methods developed to determine this compound and its metabolites in biological fluids and tissues has been recently compiled in a review article written by some of the authors of the present work [3], to which more interested readers are referred to.

Regarding the determination of HMB, individually or together with its metabolites, in serum samples, different methods have been published, mostly based in liquid chromatography (LC), either with UV/Vis [12,13,17–25] or mass spectrometry (MS) detection [26]. Gas chromatography (GC) has been less employed due to the low volatility of these compounds. Derivatization by sylilation previous to the injection was required in this case [14].

It should be emphasized that, from a pharmacokinetic standpoint, in order to carry out a reliable determination of the target compounds, it is mandatory to hydrolyze the phase II glucuronide conjugates although only the free form of these compounds presents estrogenic activity. If not, only the free content would be determined and the conjugated fraction would be obviated. In any case, the difference between the total content (with hydrolysis step) and the free content (without hydrolysis step) results in the conjugated content. This step can be performed with HCl and heating (acidic hydrolysis) [12–14,19,20] or with β-glucuronidase/ sulfatase (enzymatic hydrolysis) [26]. The acidic hydrolysis breaks the bound of the target compounds with glucuronic acid and also causes the protein denaturation, with its subsequent precipitation. In enzymatic hydrolysis, organic solvents, mainly pure acetonitrile or mixed with ethanol, need to be added to serum with the purpose of protein and enzyme precipitation [26].

Taking into account that serum is a complex matrix where the target compounds are at trace levels, the hydrolyzed serum without proteins is usually subjected to an extraction step to eliminate potentially interfering compounds and to preconcentrate the target compounds. In this sense, liquid–liquid extraction (LLE) [12–14,18] and solid phase extraction (SPE) [24–26] have been employed in some cases. However, no evidences of the use of the highly-potential microextraction techniques have been found. Among them, it should be emphasized the so-called dispersive liquid–liquid microextraction (DLLME), developed by Assadi and coworkers in 2006 [27]. The fundament of the DLLME has been explained elsewhere, as well as the advantages over the traditional extraction techniques and other microextraction techniques [27,28].

Finally, it is important to note that the *in vivo* experiments performed to determine phase I metabolites of HMB in plasma or serum has been carried out only by means of experimental animals (rats or piglets) [12–14,18,21,22]. *In vivo* studies in humans have only been carried out for the determination of the parent compound [20,23,26,29]. Taking into account that the European legislation forbids the use of experimental animals to evaluate the effectiveness or safety of cosmetic products, it is necessary to advance in the development of new analytical methods to study the processes of absorption and/or excretion of the UV filters without the use of experimental animals.

In order to contribute with the study of the percutaneous absorption of HMB, the aim of this work is to develop an analytical method to determine the total (i.e., free plus conjugated) content of HMB and its main metabolites (DHB and DHMB) in human serum, based on DLLME as microextraction technique before LC-MS/MS determination. The minor metabolite, i.e., THB, was finally excluded from this study because it was not efficiently nor repeatably extracted from serum by DLLME, probably due to its higher polarity. In any case, it has been shown that it is formed in

negligible amounts in animal plasma compared to the other two main metabolites [13,14,21,22].

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents and samples

2-Hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (HMB) 98%, 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB) 99% and 2,2-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB) 98% from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany) were used as standards. dihydroxy-4,4-dimethoxybenzophenone (DHDMB) 98% also from Sigma-Aldrich was used as surrogate.

LC-grade absolute ethanol from Scharlab (Barcelona, Spain) was used as solvent to prepare the standard stock and working solutions. De-ionized water, obtained by means of a NANOpure II water purification system from Barnstead (Boston, USA), LC-grade methanol (MeOH) also from Scharlab and formic acid from Fluka (Steinheim, Germany) were used for the mobile phase.

Analytical reagent-grade chloroform and analytical reagentgrade acetone, both from Scharlab, were used as extraction and disperser solvent, respectively.

Analytical reagent-grade sodium chloride (NaCl) 99.5% from Scharlab was used in the study of the ionic strength.

Formic acid from Fluka and acetic acid, trichloroacetic acid, sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid and acetonitrile, all from Scharlab, were tested to protein precipitation.

Sodium chloride, sodium di-hydrogen phosphate monohydrate from Panreac (Barcelona, Spain) and di-sodium hydrogen phosphate dodecahydrate from Scharlab were used to prepare synthetic serum.

Typical cosmetic-grade ingredients from Guinama S.L. (Valencia, Spain) such as emollients, hydrating agents, preservatives, etc. were used to prepare a laboratory-made cream, according to an adapted procedure [30].

Nitrogen (99.9%), used as nebulizing and desolvation gas in the ESI source, was provided by a high-purity generator (CLAN Tecnológica, Sevilla, Spain). Argon (99.9992%) (Carburos Metálicos, Paterna, Spain) was used as collision gas in the MS system.

Blank serum samples used for the method development and validation were obtained from different healthy volunteers who were known not to use cosmetic products containing HMB. Moreover, serum samples from other healthy volunteers who topically applied a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing 5% of HMB were employed for method application. Each volunteer gave written informed consent to participate in this study, which was conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki, and was approved by the Ethical Committee of the University of Valencia (Spain).

2.2. Preparation of synthetic serum

Synthetic serum was prepared by diluting NaCl $(2.4\,g),$ NaH_2PO4 $^{\bullet}H_2O$ $(1.2\,g)$ and Na_2HPO4 $(4.3\,g)$ in 1 L of deionized water.

2.3. Serum samples obtention

Blood extractions were carried out into non heparinized tubes. After extraction, the tubes were centrifuged at 5000 rpm during 15 min to obtain serum. All the serum samples were stored at -20 °C in the freezer until the analysis.
2.4. Proposed method

2.4.1. Preparation of standard solutions and external calibration

Multi-component (HMB, DHB and DHMB) and surrogate (DHDMB) stock solutions were prepared separately at 200 mg L⁻¹ in ethanol. From these solutions, working solutions were prepared daily at 10 mg L⁻¹ in the same solvent. Both solutions were kept at 4 °C in the refrigerator.

Matrix-matched calibration was prepared by transferring six aliquots of $600 \ \mu\text{L}$ of a blank serum to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes, which were respectively spiked to achieve concentrations of the target analytes from 0 to $200 \ \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (note: in order to have a representative blank serum, it is recommended to pool different blank serum samples, thus minimizing the small differences that could exist between different serums). The surrogate (DHDMB) was added at $200 \ \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in all the calibration solutions.

2.4.2. Acidic hydrolysis and protein precipitation

Both matrix-matched calibration and sample solutions (600 μ L) were treated with 600 μ L of HCl 6 M to carry out the acidic hydrolysis and protein precipitation. After vortex shaking, the hydrolysis was performed keeping the solutions at 100 °C during 1 h in the oven (note: if only the free content would like to be determined, no heating should be performed). After that, centrifugation during 10 min at 15,000 rpm, to ensure the complete separation of the proteins, was performed. Then, the supernatant was subjected to the DLLME step.

2.4.3. DLLME procedure

After centrifugation, 800 μ L of the supernatant obtained were placed into a 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube and subjected to the DLLME process. Thus, a mixture of 70 μ L of acetone (disperser solvent) and 30 μ L of chloroform (extraction solvent) was rapidly injected into the standard/sample solution employing a 250 μ L Hamilton (Bonaduz, Switzerland) 825 RNW syringe. The formed cloudy solution was vigorously shaken with vortex mixer during 3 s. Finally, it was centrifuged during 5 min at 6000 rpm. After phase separation, all the sedimented phase (15–20 μ L) was collected and transferred into a 1.5 mL LC injection vial. The extract was dried under a gentle air stream, and then redissolved in 60 μ L of MeOH: 0.1% formic acid (50:50) mixture. The vial was closed and vigorously shaken.

2.4.4. LC-MS/MS analysis

An Acquity UPLC H Class with TQ Detector from Waters (Milford MA, USA) was used for the analysis.

The column used was a Waters Acquity UPLC BEHC18 (2.1 \times 50 mm, 1.7 μ m). Mobile phase consisted of solvent A (water with 0.1% of formic acid) and solvent B (MeOH). The pumps supplied the following gradient at 0.35 mL min^{-1} and 30 °C: 0–0.15 min, 40% solvent B; 0.15–3 min linear gradient to 95% solvent B, held for 1.7 min; 4.7–4.8 return to 40% solvent B and held for 1.2 min. The injection volume was 5 μ L.

The MS detector operated in positive electrospray ionization mode (ESI+) by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM). The ESI probe and ion source in positive ion mode were operated at 3.5 kV of capillary voltage. Source temperature was set at 120 °C, desolvation temperature was 300 °C, nebulizer gas flow rate was 25 L h⁻¹ and desolvation gas flow rate was 600 L h⁻¹.

The MS/MS spectra were produced by collision-induced dissociation (CID) of the selected precursor ions. The m/z precursor \rightarrow product ion transitions for quantification were 229.4 \rightarrow 151.0 for HMB, 215.3 \rightarrow 136.8 for DHB, 245.5 \rightarrow 121.1 for DHMB and 275.4 \rightarrow 151.2 for DHDMB; whereas 229.4 \rightarrow 104.9 for HMB, 215.3 \rightarrow 104.8



Fig. 1. A typical chromatogram obtained applying the proposed DLLME-LC-MS/MS method to a blank serum spiked with 200 μ g L⁻¹ of the target analytes and the surrogate (DHDMB) (see text for experimental details). Transitions correspond to: m/2 precursor ion \rightarrow m/2 product ion.

for DHB, $245.5 \rightarrow 151.1$ for DHMB and $275.4 \rightarrow 185.1$ for DHDMB were used as qualifier transitions.

Fig. 1 shows a chromatogram of a blank serum standard solution containing the target analytes $(200 \ \mu g \ L^{-1})$ and the surrogate $(200 \ \mu g \ L^{-1})$ subjected to the described DLLME-LC-MS/MS procedure.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Study of the acidic hydrolysis and protein precipitation

Proteins precipitation before sample injection is necessary to reduce matrix interferences and to avoid precipitation in the chromatographic column, caused by the presence of organic solvents in the mobile phase, clogging the chromatographic column.

Formic acid, acetic acid, trichloroacetic acid, sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid and cold acetonitrile were tested for this purpose. When acetonitrile was used, no cloudy solution was observed when the mixture of disperser and extraction solvents was injected into the solution to carry out the DLLME process. Regarding the acids tested, in most of the cases a small amount of proteins still precipitated when the DLLME process was carried out, as not all the proteins had been previously removed. Only the use of HCI 6M (1:1, acid:sample) allowed the complete proteins precipitation.

Moreover, the addition of HCl enables the determination of the total content of the target compounds (free and bounded form) since acidic hydrolysis occurs if solution is kept at 100 $^{\circ}$ C during 1 h.

3.2. Study of the experimental variables involved in the DLLME procedure

The different variables that may affect the DLLME process, such as the type and volume of both extraction and disperser solvents, the ionic strength and the pH of the sample, as well as the extraction time, were studied.

In this sense, a blank serum solution spiked with $100 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ of the target analytes was used to carry out the DLLME optimization. The influence of the variables involved in the process was evaluated in terms of the analytical signal, corresponding to the peak area obtained for each of the target analytes.

3.2.1. Considerations on the extraction solvent and disperser solvent

The selection of the extraction solvent and disperser solvent is a key issue in the DLLME process. On one hand, the extraction solvent should extract the target analytes efficiently and have low solubility in the aqueous phase. Moreover, as only a few microliters of extraction solvent are employed, a solvent with a higher density than water is recommended in order to remain in the bottom of the extraction tube and ease its collection. On the other hand, the disperser solvent should be miscible in both, aqueous sample and organic extraction solvent, and should also form the so-called cloudy solution. Moreover, after centrifugation, phase separation has to be achieved.

The optimum disperser–extraction solvent mixture for the extraction of the target analytes in aqueous samples was previously studied by some of the authors of the present work [28]. A binary study considering acetone, ethanol and acetonitrile as disperser solvents, and chloroform, dichloromethane and carbon tetrachloride as extraction ones, was carried out. The best results were obtained employing the acetone-chloroform combination, thus this solvents were employed in the present work.

3.2.2. Effect of the extraction solvent volume

It is assumed that increasing the extraction solvent volume will increase the amount of the analytes extracted. However, the dilution effect should be taken into account. Thus, a careful study was carried out in order to reach the best results.

In this sense, 200 μ L of an acetone–chloroform mixture containing different volumes of chloroform, ranging from 5 to 30 μ L, were tested. As the extraction solvent volume increased, the volume of the sedimented phase also increased, ranging from 5 to 15 μ L approximately. When 5 μ L of chloroform were employed, the cloudy solution was not observed. Moreover, no phase separation occurred after centrifugation. In the case of 10 μ L of chloroform, a pale cloudy solution was formed but phase separation did not occur. In all the other cases, an adequate phase separation was obtained. As can be seen in Fig. 2, the use of 15 μ L of chloroform provides the worst results. No significant differences were observed when 20, 25 and 30 μ L of this extraction solvent were employed. With the purpose to ease the sedimented phase collection, a volume of 30 μ L of chloroform was selected.

3.2.3. Effect of the disperser solvent volume

In order to study the effect of the disperser solvent volume, different volumes of acetone as disperser solvent, ranging from 60 to 220 μ L, were tested. When 60 μ L of acetone was used, no cloudy solution was formed. As can be seen in Fig. 3, small differences were observed when the disperser solvent volume ranged between 70 and 220 μ L. A volume of 70 μ L of acetone was finally chosen, thus reducing the amounts of organic solvent employed.



Fig. 2. Effect of the extraction solvent volume on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: $800 \,\mu L$ of sample solution, $200 \,\mu L$ of acetone-chloroform mixtures containing different volumes of chloroform as extraction solvent).



Fig. 3. Effect of the disperser solvent volume on the DLIME process (extraction conditions: $800 \ \mu$ L of sample solution, different volumes of acetone as disperser solvent volumes mixed with 30 μ L of chloroform as extraction solvent).



Fig. 4. Effect of the ionic strength of the donor phase on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: $800 \ \mu L$ of sample at different ionic strength values, $70 \ \mu L$ of acetone as disperser solvent mixed with $30 \ \mu L$ of chloroform as extraction solvent).

3.2.4. Effect of the ionic strength

In general terms, the addition of salt to the aqueous sample reduces the solubility of the organic compounds in water and forces them to pass to the extraction solvent (*salting-out* effect). Hence, the effect of the sample ionic strength in the analytical signal was studied.

Taking into account the serum salt content (0.9%), NaCl was added to the donor phase at the adequate amounts to reach final concentration values up to 12.5% (m/v). 15% of NaCl was tested but the salt was not completely dissolved in the hydrolyzed serum at this concentration. Contrary to the expected, the best results were

Table 1

Structure and some relevant data of the target compounds.

Analyte	Chemical structure	Molecular formula	CAS number	pKa ^a
2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (HMB)	OH O	$C_{14}H_{12}O_3$	131-57-7	7.56 ± 0.35
2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB)	OH O	$C_{13}H_{10}O_3$	131-56-6	7.53 ± 0.35
2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB)		$C_{14}H_{12}O_4$	131-53-3	6.99 ± 0.35

^a Calculated using Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) Software V8.14 for Solaris ([©]1994–2010 CD/Labs).

obtained without salt addition (Fig. 4). This is probably due to the fact that the salt addition decreases the chloroform solubility in the aqueous phase, which causes an increase in the sedimented phase volume. Thus, the concentration of the target analytes in this phase decreases due to the dilution effect. Moreover, vigorously vortex agitation was necessary to dissolve NaCl in the serum sample, causing bubbles which were then difficult to remove and can decrease the extraction efficiency. Therefore, no salt adjust was necessary in this process.

3.2.5. Effect of the pH

The pH of the donor phase is a variable of interest in case of potentially ionizable compounds, since the neutral form of a molecule is expected to be extracted in the organic extraction solvent more efficiently than the ionic form. The addition of an acidic or basic compound in a small sample volume (800 μ L in this case) will involve a high sample dilution and thus an increase of the limits of detection (LODs) of the method. As HCl 6 M is added to the blood samples to enable protein precipitation (see Section 2.4.2), the sample subjected to the DLLME process presents an acidic pH, so the analytes are in the neutral form, the proper to be extracted (see pK_a values in Table 1). Thus, the sample pH was not adjusted before de DLLME process.

3.2.6. Effect of the extraction time

The extraction time is one of the most important variables involved in the extraction procedures. In DLLME, the extraction time is defined as the interval time between the injection of the binary mixture of disperser and extraction solvents and just before starting to centrifuge [27]. In this modality of extraction, the surface area between the extraction solvent and the aqueous donor phase is extremely large, thus the transfer of the target analytes from the aqueous donor phase to the extraction solvent phase is fast, achieving the equilibrium state quickly. For this reason, it is expected that the extraction time does not influence the extraction efficacy. A study from 0 to 15 min was carried out to confirm it. Results (not shown) revealed that the extraction time had no effect on the response for any of the target analytes.

3.3. Study of matrix effects

In order to evaluate matrix effects, a comparison study between deionized water, synthetic serum and human serum was performed. For this, a set of calibration solutions was made in each Table 2

Matrix effect study	on the determination o	of the target	compounds
---------------------	------------------------	---------------	-----------

Analyte	Matrix type	Slope \pm deviation	Student's t-test ^b		
		(counts min µg · L) "	t _{exp}	Equality	
HMB	Deionized water Synthetic serum serum	$\begin{array}{c} 110 \pm 10 \\ 22.0 \pm 0.8 \\ 25 \pm 2 \end{array}$	9.73 23.65 -	No No	
DHB	Deionized water Synthetic serum Serum	$\begin{array}{c} 620 \pm 30 \\ 300 \pm 20 \\ 99 \pm 3 \end{array}$	19.72 11.93 -	No No	
DHMB	Deionized water Synthetic serum Serum	$\begin{array}{c} 300 \pm 10 \\ 63 \pm 4 \\ 25 \pm 2 \end{array}$	22.77 9.84 -	No No –	

^a Working range: 0–250 µg L⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 6.

^b t_{exp} : Student's *t*-test for slopes comparison with real serum ($t_{crit(0.05,4)}=2.77$).

case and then the solutions were subjected to the DLLME method and finally measured. The obtained slopes were compared with a Student's *t*-test [31]. As can be seen in Table 2, significant differences were observed for a 5% significance level between the slopes in water (or synthetic serum) and real serum. Thus, external calibration using deionized water or synthetic serum should not be used for quantification purposes since a severe and negative matrix effect is observed. Taking into account that an extraction (i.e., DLLME) is performed, this negative matrix effect could be attributed to the differences in the extraction efficiency when the target analytes are extracted from water, synthetic serum or real serum, instead of the well-known ion suppression effect that might be encountered in LC-MS/MS analysis. Thus, in order to correct this matrix effect, standard addition calibration should be conducted.

However, standard addition calibration requires the preparation of a different set of calibration solutions for each sample that widely increases the preparation time when a high number of samples have to be analyzed. With the aim to avoid this calibration methodology, matrix-matched calibration, i.e, spiked blank serum samples as calibration standards, was assayed. In this sense, four serum samples coming from four volunteers who were known not to use cosmetics containing HMB were used to construct different calibration sets. For each target analyte, the obtained slopes in each one of the calibration sets were compared. As can be seen in Table 3, the slopes obtained with the four blank serums are statistically comparable for a 5% significance level by applying an ANOVA test [31]. With the aim to obtain a representative serum blank, the four serum blank samples were pooled, and the resultant was used to construct a calibration set. The individual calibration sets were compared with the pool. Table 3 shows the Student's *t*-test values obtained by comparison of the slope of each individual serum and the one obtained employing a pool of all serums. As expected, results indicate that they were statistically comparable at a 5% significance level. Therefore, it can be concluded that matrix-matched calibration could be used for the determination of HMB and metabolites in human serum. Once at this point, it should be said that the more individual serum samples are taken to form the pool, the more representative it is.

3.4. Use of surrogate

Under optimized conditions, the volume of the sedimented phase ranges between 15 and 20 μL , which causes inadmissible signal variations around 25%. Moreover, the handling of low volumes by the operator could increase this variability even more. In order to reduce this variability, the use of a surrogate was considered, which was included in the serum samples before sample treatment. DHDMB was selected as surrogate for various reasons: (1) it belongs to the same family of the target

Table 3

Comparison of each individual serum with a pool of all serums.

Analyte	Serum sample	Slope \pm deviation (counts min μg^{-1} L) ^a	ANOVA test ^b		Student's t- test ^c	
			Fexp	Equality	t _{exp}	Equality
HMB	1	25 ± 2	1.94	Yes	0.01	Yes
	2	27 ± 2			0.71	Yes
	3	25 ± 2			0.01	Yes
	4	25 ± 2			0.01	Yes
	Pool	25 ± 2	-	-	-	-
DHB	1	94 ± 3	3.33	Yes	0.26	Yes
	2	101 ± 6			0.54	Yes
	3	103 ± 2			0.96	Yes
	4	101 ± 6			0.54	Yes
	Pool	96 ± 7	-	-	-	-
DHMB	1	24 ± 2	2.01	Yes	0.35	Yes
	2	25 ± 2			0.01	Yes
	3	26 ± 2			0.35	Yes
	4	24 ± 2			0.35	Yes
	Pool	25 ± 2	-	-	-	-

^a Concentration range: 0–250 μg L⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 6.

 $^{\rm b}$ ANOVA test for comparison between the four individual serum samples ($F_{\rm crit}$ ($_{0.05,6,16)}$ = 3.34).

^c Student's *t*-test for slopes comparison between each individually serum and the serum pool ($t_{\text{crit}(0.05,4)}$ =2.77).

compounds; (2) it is extractable in chloroform by the DLLME proposed method; and (3) it is not expected to be in the serum samples.

In this sense, A_i/A_s (where A_i is the peak area of the target analyte and A_s that of the surrogate) was used as response function for quantification purposes instead of A_i , decreasing the variability below 10%.

3.5. Analytical figures of merit of the proposed DLLME-LC-MS/MS method

Quality parameters of the proposed method were evaluated under final optimized conditions.

The achieved enrichment factors (EF), defined as $EF = C_{sed}/C_0$, where C_{sed} is the concentration of the target compound in the organic sedimented phase and C_0 is the initial concentration of this compound in the aqueous phase, were 3.1 ± 0.2 for HMB, 7.4 ± 0.6 for DHB and 3.4 ± 0.1 for DHMB. The maximum EF value that could be obtained, corresponding to a total transfer of the target analytes from the aqueous donor phase to the extraction solvent phase, is calculated as V_0/V_{sed} , where V_0 is the sample volume and V_{sed} the sedimented phase volume. In the present work the collected V_{sed} was evaporated and the residue obtained was redissolved in 60 µL of MeOH: 0.1% formic acid (50:50) mixture, so this volume corresponds to V_{sed} in the above relation. Thus, the maximum EF value that could be obtained in the present method corresponds to a value of approximately 13. Although these are relatively low values, they are useful to achieve the determination of the target analytes in real samples (see Section 3.6). Nevertheless, it should not be forgotten that also an efficient clean-up is achieved.

The calibration parameters, obtained employing a blank serum pool (from 0 to 250 μ g L⁻¹) from four volunteers, and plotting the ratio of the peak area of each target analyte to the surrogate (DHDMB) (A_i/A_s) versus the analyte concentration, are shown in Table 4. As can be seen, a high level of linearity was obtained in all cases. The linearity studied reached at least 5000 μ g L⁻¹ in all cases.

The limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) of the target analytes in the serum samples are also shown in Table 4 and were found to be in the low μ g L⁻¹ level, ranging from 7 to 8 μ g L⁻¹ and from 22 to 28 μ g L⁻¹, respectively. These values are lower that those reported by Kasichayanula et al. by using LC-UV [21], in the low mg L⁻¹ range; whereas are of the same order of those reported by Jeon et al. by using LLE-GC-MS [14], showing the capacity of the present method to achieve the determination of low levels of the target analytes in this complex matrix.

The repeatability, expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD), was studied at two concentration levels. The proposed method was applied to five replicates of serum blanks spiked at $50 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ (low concentration level) and at $200 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ (high concentration level). The obtained repeatability values ranged

Table 4

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Main parameters of the proposed DLLME-LC-MS/MS method for the determination of HMB and its main metabolites in human serum.
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Analyte	Slope \pm deviation a (µg^{-1} L)/10^{4}	$\textbf{Intercept} \pm \textbf{deviation}^{a}$	Regression coefficient $(R^2)^a$	$LOD^{\rm b}$ (µg L^{-1})	$LOQ^{\rm b}$ (µg L^{-1})	Repeteability ^c RSD (%)	
						Low conc	High conc
HMB DHB DHMB	$\begin{array}{c} 82 \pm 1 \\ 352 \pm 6 \\ 90 \pm 1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} -0.03 \pm 0.02 \\ 0.13 \pm 0.09 \\ 0.02 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$	0.9991 0.9990 0.9992	8 8 7	28 27 22	9 8 9	8 6 4

^a Concentration range: 0-250 µg L⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 6.

^b LOD: limit of detection; LOQ: limit of quantification; calculated as 3S_a/b and 10S_a/b criteria, respectively, where S_a is the intercept standard deviation and b is the slope of the calibration curve [32].

^c Relative standard deviation (RSD); five replicate analysis of spiked blank serum solution (50 µg L⁻¹ (low concentration) and 200 µg L⁻¹ (high concentration)).

Table J		
Recovery values obtained by applyi	ig the proposed DLLME-LC-MS/MS m	ethod
with matrix-matched calibration to f	our serum samples.	

Sample ^a	Analyte	Added ($\mu g L^{-1}$)	Found ($\mu g L^{-1}$)	Recovery (%)
A	HMB	178.5	186.0	104
	DHB	156.0	133.0	85
	DHMB	153.0	138.8	91
В	HMB	178.5	166.1	93
	DHB	156.0	140.0	90
	DHMB	153.0	157.3	103
С	HMB	178.5	145.0	81
	DHB	156.0	134.4	86
	DHMB	153.0	137.3	90
D	HMB	178.5	137.0	77
	DHB	156.0	150.7	97
	DHMB	153.0	128.4	84

^a The initial found amounts are below the LOD.

between 4 and 9%, which are similar values to those reported by other authors at higher concentrations [14,21], showing that a good precision was achieved for all the target analytes at these low levels of concentration.

Recovery studies were conducted by spiking (at 150 μ g L⁻¹) four serum samples from four volunteers who were known not to use cosmetics containing HMB. Results (Table 5), as expected, reveal no matrix effects when using matrix-matched calibration.

3.6. Application of the proposed DLLME-LC-MS/MS method to the analysis of real samples

Specific amounts of a laboratory-made sun cream containing 5% of HMB were topically applied to the body of two volunteers after informed consent. 20 and 30 g were applied to Volunteer A (VA, male) and Volunteer B (VB, female) respectively. Each volunteer applied the cream all over the body in the same way as if they were sunbathing on the beach. This dose is included in the usual range of thickness application for sunscreens (0.5–1 mg of cream per cm² of skin), which is usually below the recommended dose for a maximum sun protection (2 mg/cm²) [33]. Blood samples were collected both before and after the application at different time intervals for a period of 24 h. Then, they were centrifuged, and serum samples were kept at –20 °C in the freezer until analyzed according to the DLLME-LC-MS/MS proposed method.

As can be seen in Fig. 5, both volunteers present detectable amounts of HMB in serum before cream application (time=0). This is a reasonable fact since there are many commercially available cosmetic products that contain HMB in its formulation. Regarding the HMB metabolism, both volunteers present a similar profile. Thus, the amounts of HMB significantly increases during the first hours to reach a maximum concentration level ranging between 6 (VA, 200 $\mu g\,L^{-1})$ and 9 h (VB, 304 $\mu g\,L^{-1})$ after the cream application. From this point, the HMB signal slowly decreases. After 24 h of the cream application, high amounts of HMB are still present in the serum of the volunteers (84 μ g L⁻¹ for VA and 206 μ g L⁻¹ for VB). Regarding metabolites, DHMB is formed at a very small extent, while DHB is detectable from the first hour after the cream application. Concentrations of this metabolite increase among all the study, being this increase slightly more pronounced in the first six hours and reaching concentrations of 34 (VA) and 102 μ g L⁻¹(VB) after 24 h of application.

It should be commented that the analysis of a higher number of samples from different people and during a longer time should be carried out using the proposed method to get a more reliable idea



Fig. 5. Metabolic profile of HMB and its main metabolites in the serum of two volunteers ((volunteer A, female (a) and volunteer B, male (b)) after the topical application of a laboratory-made sun cream containing 5% of HMB.

of the metabolism of HMB and to carry out toxicokinetics studies. Nevertheless, this is not the aim of this study, which is to develop an analytical method and to show its applicability to carry out reliable toxicokinetic studies.

4. Conclusions

A new analytical method to determine HMB and its two main metabolites in human serum has been presented. The method is based on the use of LC-MS/MS with a previous protein precipitation and DLLME. The use of DLLME is needed to clean-up and preconcentrate, since serum samples have a complex matrix which contain many compounds that can interfere and the target compounds are in low levels of concentration in this biological fluid.

The analysis of serum samples employing aqueous external calibration with deionized water or synthetic serum presented severe matrix effects. However, the use of matrix-matched calibration provided excellent results.

When a sunscreen cream containing 5% of HMB was applied to two volunteers, similar metabolism profiles were observed for both of them. After 24 h of the cream application, the HMB concentrations in serum were still appreciable. The main metabolite formed in serum was DHB, which concentrations in serum continue to rise after 24 h of cream application. Regarding DHMB, after cream application, the concentration of this compound increases until it reaches a maximum concentration, after which the analytical signal falls slowly. Thus, after a single application of

394 Tabla 5 a sun cream the complete metabolism or excretion of HMB requires more than one day.

Finally, as commented above, in order to have a reliable idea about the metabolism of this UV filter in humans it would be necessary, not only to extend the study to a larger number of volunteers and during a longer time, but also to extend the study to other biological fluids which are routes of excretion of these compounds, as urine or semen [34].

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Determination of 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor and its main metabolite in human semen by solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

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Abstract: An analytical method for the determination of the UV filter 3-(4'-

methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC) and its main metabolite 3-(4'-carboxybenzylidene)camphor (CBC) in human semen has been developed for the first time. The method is based on the simultaneous hydrolysis of the phase II conjugates and protein precipitation, followed by solid-phase extraction (SPE) and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) detection. The proposed method was validated by analyzing spiked analyte-free human semen samples. Matrix-matched calibration using an analyte-free semen pool was employed. Satisfactory recoveries (92-114%) were obtained using this methodology, thus showing the accuracy of the proposed method. The limits of detection were in the low μ g L–1 level (1 and 2 μ g L–1 for MBC and CBC, respectively) and the intra-and inter-day precision, expressed as relative standard deviation, were in the range of 6-9% and 7-14%, respectively, depending on the analyte and the concentration level. The method was finally applied to the analysis of semen samples from two volunteers who topically applied a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing MBC. Similar kinetic profiles performed during 72 hours were obtained for both volunteers. From this study it can be assumed that is necessary more than three days to completely metabolize or eject this UV filter.



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Graphical abstract



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Highlights

► A LC-MS/MS method to determine MBC and its metabolite in human semen is presented

- ▶ SPE is employed as sample preparation technique for cleaning-up purposes
- Matrix-matched calibration is successfully employed to avoid matrix effects
- ► The method has been successfully validated obtaining good analytical features

► The MBC kinetic profile is obtained for two volunteers after sun cream application

Determination of 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor and its main metabolite in human semen by solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

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Abstract

An analytical method the determination the UV filter 3-(4'for of methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC) and its main metabolite 3-(4'carboxybenzylidene)camphor (CBC) in human semen has been developed for the first time. The method is based on the simultaneous hydrolysis of the phase II conjugates and protein precipitation, followed by solid-phase extraction (SPE) and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) detection. The proposed method was validated by analyzing spiked analyte-free human semen samples. Matrixmatched calibration using an analyte-free semen pool was employed. Satisfactory recoveries (92-114%) were obtained using this methodology, thus showing the accuracy of the proposed method. The limits of detection were in the low $\mu q L^{-1}$ level (1 and 2 μ g L⁻¹ for MBC and CBC, respectively) and the intra- and inter-day precision, expressed as relative standard deviation, were in the range of 6-9% and 7-14%, respectively, depending on the analyte and the concentration level. The method was finally applied to the analysis of semen samples from two volunteers who topically applied a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing MBC. Similar kinetic profiles performed during 72 hours were obtained for both volunteers. From this study it can be assumed that is necessary more than three days to completely metabolize or eject this UV filter.

Keywords: human semen; 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor; solid phase extraction; liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry; metabolites; UV filters

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1. Introduction

3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC) has been used for many years as an UV filter in sunscreen cosmetic products alone or in combination with other UV filters to protect the cosmetic users from the UV solar radiation. The European Union legislation allows concentration levels of this UV filter up to 4 % (w/w) in the final product [1,2].

UV filters are considered safe for topical application on human skin if they are employed under the established conditions. However, some studies reveal that after dermal application of sunscreen cosmetic products, UV filters are absorbed through the skin, metabolized in the human body and finally excreted [3]. The percutaneous absorption of these compounds may result in different adverse health effects, such as photoallergy [4,5], endocrine disruption [6-10] or carcinogenicity [11]. It should be mentioned that in some cases the UV filter by-products or metabolites remain in the human body longer than their parent compounds and then, the adverse effects from these by-products might be even more important than those from the UV filters. Different in vitro and in vivo studies showed that frequent exposures to UV formulations may cause estrogenic activity in similar way as other known xenoestrogens, thus enabling possible long-term effects in humans and wildlife [6]. Furthermore, the estrogenic character is additive when mixtures of several UV filters are employed [10]. On the other hand, the interaction and binding affinity of some UV filters, including MBC, towards albumin in blood has been recently investigated, showing that each targeted UV filter had an effect on BSA (bovine serum albumin) conformation. This may be of concern from the point of view of transport, distribution and toxic effects of organic UV filters in the human body, especially for sensitive groups, such as infants and pregnant women [12].

Specifically for MBC, different studies have shown percutaneous absorption processes after topical application of cosmetic formulations containing this UV filter [13-16]. Regarding the adverse effects arisen as consequence of this skin penetration process, there are some studies related to hormonal disruption activity. *In vitro* assays considered this UV filter as both antiandrogenic [17] and antiprogestagenic [11] whereas other *in vivo* studies showed its estrogenic behavior, which could interfere with the development of female reproductive organs and brain of both sexes in rats and also in male sexual development [18-20]. Although there are many authors that have evidenced the estrogenic character of this UV filter [6,7,9,10,17-20], some researchers do not reach the same conclusion with their studies. Thus, Mueller et al. concluded that MBC is unlikely to induce adverse estrogenic effects in humans or wildlife as it elicits weak estrogenic effects *in vitro* [21]. In other cases, authors suggest that MBC may

exert its estrogenic effects after bioactivation to one of its metabolites (3-(4carboxybenzylidene)-6-hydroxycamphor) [15]. Regarding allergens studies, MBC can be considered as contact photoallergen [4].

The biotransformation pattern of MBC was elucidated by means of proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H-NMR) and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis of urine, feces and plasma from orally MBC administered rats [15]. Later, its metabolic pathway was confirmed by analyzing urine and plasma from human and rats after dermal application of MBC [16]. In this way, 3-(4carboxybenzylidene)camphor of 3-(4-(CBC) and four isomers carboxybenzylidene)hydroxycamphor (CBC-OH), being 3-(4-carboxybenzylidene)-6hydroxycamphor (CBC-6OH) the major isomer, were characterized as phase I metabolites, whereas the glucuronide forms of CBC and CBC-OH isomers correspond to the main phase II metabolites. These authors concluded that CBC is formed by oxidation of the aromatic methyl moiety of MBC, and later, CBC undergoes further oxidation to CBC-OH.

Pharmacokinetics studies of MBC showed its presence in blood stream, urine and feces, being the latter the major route of excretion [15]. The literature concerning the analytical methods developed to determine this compound and its metabolites in biological fluids has been recently compiled in a review article written by the authors of the present work [3], to which more interested readers are referred. It should be said that although pharmacokinetic studies provide generally interesting results about the metabolism of a target compound, the studies related to the metabolism of MBC are very scarce. In fact, there are only three articles [15,16,22] focused on the determination of MBC and its metabolites in biological fluids, specifically in urine and plasma. Thus, the lack of available or correctly validated analytical methods evidences the need to develop accurate and reliable analytical methods. In this context, to better elucidate the metabolic behavior of this UV filter, it is recommended to extend the study of MBC and its metabolites to a larger number of biological matrices, which are other potential routes of excretion or ejection of this xenobiotic compound. Specifically, semen has been proposed as an alternative route of ejection that has been scarcely studied for UV filters [23,24]. However, it has been suggested in a recent work that UV filters may affect semen quality [25], as well as that male exposure to UV filters may diminish couples' fecundity, thus resulting in a longer time to pregnancy [26], so the research of this biological fluid becomes more interesting.

In order to carry out a reliable determination of the target compounds, it is necessary to hydrolyze the phase II glucuronide conjugates, since on the contrary only

the free content would be determined and the conjugated fraction would be obviated. In any case, the difference between the total content (after hydrolysis step) and the free content (without hydrolysis step) results in the conjugated content. Hydrolysis step can be performed by applying HCl and heat (acidic hydrolysis) or using a specific enzyme (enzymatic hydrolysis). In the case of glucuronide conjugation, the acidic hydrolysis breaks the bound of the target compounds with glucuronic acid and also causes the protein denaturation, with its subsequent precipitation. In enzymatic hydrolysis, organic solvents, mainly pure acetonitrile or mixtures of acetonitrile and ethanol, are added to the sample with the purpose of protein precipitation.

In order to provide further insights into the study of the percutaneous absorption of MBC, the aim of this work is to develop an analytical method based on solid-phase extraction (SPE) as extraction and clean-up technique and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) detection to determine the total (i.e., free plus conjugated) content of MBC and its main metabolite (CBC) in human semen. The minor phase I metabolite (i.e., CBC-OH) was also monitored in semen samples, but its determination was not validated due to the lack of an available standard. Structure and some relevant data of the target compounds are shown in Table 1.

<Table 1>

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents and samples

3-(4'-Methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC) 99.7% from Guinama SL (Valencia, Spain) and 3-(4'-carboxybenzylidene)camphor (CBC) > 95%, which was previously synthesized in our laboratory by using a three-step reaction route [22], were used as analytical standards. 3-(4'-Methylbenzylidene)camphor- d_4 (MBC- d_4) 98% from CDN INC Isotopes (Pointe-Claire, Quebec, Canada) was used as surrogate.

LC-grade absolute ethanol from Scharlab (Barcelona, Spain) and deionized water, obtained by means of a NANOpure II water purification system from Barnstead (Boston, USA) were used as solvents to prepare the stock and intermediate standard solutions, respectively. LC-grade methanol (MeOH), reagent grade hydrochloric acid ca. 37% from Scharlab, analytical reagent-grade acetone and formic acid from Fluka (Steinheim, Germany) were also used.

Nitrogen (99.9%), used as curtain, nebulizing and turbo gas in the ESI source, was provided by a high-purity generator from CLAN Tecnológica (Sevilla, Spain).

Argon (99.9992%) from Carburos Metálicos (Paterna, Spain) was used as collision gas in the MS system.

Typical cosmetic-grade ingredients from Guinama S.L. (Valencia, Spain) such as emollients, hydrating agents, preservatives, etc. were used to prepare a laboratory-made cream containing 4 % of MBC, according to an adapted procedure [27].

Analyte-free semen samples used for the method development and validation were obtained from different healthy volunteers who were known not to use cosmetic products containing MBC. Moreover, semen samples from other healthy volunteers who topically applied the laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing 4 % of MBC were employed for method application. Each volunteer gave written informed consent to participate in this study, which was conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki, and was approved by the Ethical Committee of the University of Valencia (Spain). All the semen samples were stored at -20 °C in the freezer until analysis.

2.2. Proposed method

2.2.1. Acidic hydrolysis and protein precipitation

Semen samples were acidified in a 15-mL conical tube by adding HCl 12 M (150 μ L per 1 mL of semen). Then, the solutions were vortex mixed and kept at 100 °C during 1 h in the oven. (Note: if only the free content would like to be determined, no heating should be performed). After that, centrifugation at 6000 rpm for 10 min at room temperature was carried out and the supernatant (i.e., hydrolyzed semen) was collected.

2.2.2. Preparation of matrix-matched calibration and samples

Multicomponent (MBC and CBC) and surrogate (MBC-d₄) stock solutions were prepared in ethanol separately at 200 mg L⁻¹ and 1000 mg L⁻¹ respectively and kept at 4 °C into the refrigerator. From these solutions, intermediate standard solutions in deionized water were prepared daily at 10 mg L⁻¹ for MBC and CBC and at 5 mg L⁻¹ for the surrogate. From these, multicomponent and surrogate standard working solutions were also prepared daily at 500 μ g L⁻¹ and 2500 μ g L⁻¹, respectively, in hydrolyzed semen obtained by mixing analyte-free semen samples from different volunteers in order to have a representative semen pool. Matrix-matched calibration solutions were prepared transferring six aliquots (from 400 to 300 μ L) of the hydrolyzed pooled semen to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes, which were respectively spiked with volumes from 0 to 100 μ L of the multicomponent standard working solutions, thus achieving concentrations of the target analytes from 0 to 100 μ g L⁻¹. 20 μ L of the surrogate working solution (MBC-d₄) was added in all the calibration solutions, achieving a final concentration of 120 μ g L⁻¹ in all cases (final volume=420 μ L).

Semen samples were prepared transferring by triplicate three aliquots of 400 μ L of the hydrolyzed semen to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and spiking with 20 μ L of the surrogate working solution achieving a concentration of 120 μ g L⁻¹ in all cases.

2.2.3. SPE procedure

The hydrolyzed semen solutions (i.e., matrix-matched calibration standards and samples) were subjected to the SPE process. In this sense, Bond Elut C_{18} SPE cartridges (100 mg, 1 mL) from Agilent Technologies (Palo Alto, CA, USA) were conditioned with 2 mL of ethanol followed by 2 mL of deionized water. Next, cartridges were loaded with the hydrolyzed semen solutions at a flow rate of about 0.5 mL min⁻¹. After that, the cartridges were washed with 3 x 0.5 mL of deionized water. In order to prevent the cartridges clogging is recommended to dry the cartridges after loading and between each wash for a few minutes. Then, the cartridges were dried under full vacuum during 10 min and finally the analytes were eluted with 500 µL of acetone. The extracts were evaporated to dryness at 55 °C (30 min), reconstituted in 100 µL of deionized water:MeOH (60:40, v/v) mixture, vigorously shaken and injected into the LC-MS/MS system.

2.2.4. LC-MS/MS analysis

The LC-MS/MS system consisted of an Agilent 1200 LC coupled to a 3200 QTRAP[®] ABSCIEX triple quadrupole mass spectrometer detector equipped with a Turbo V ion source.

The analytical column used was a Gemini C18 110A (5 μ m, 150 x 4.6 mm) and was kept at 40 °C. Mobile phase consisted of solvent A (deionized water with 0.1% of formic acid) and solvent B (MeOH with 0.1% of formic acid). The pumps supplied the following gradient at 1 mL min⁻¹: 0–0.50 min, linear gradient from 40% to 60% solvent B; 0.50–2.00 min linear gradient to 100% solvent B, held for 4.00 min. The analytical column was equilibrated with a post-run time of 2 min. The injection volume was 10 μ L.

The triple quadrupole MS detector operated in positive or negative electrospray ionization (ESI) mode, depending on the analyte, by selected reaction monitoring (SRM). Specifically, positive polarity (ESI⁺, operating at 5.5 kV) was used to measure MBC and the surrogate, whereas negative polarity (ESI-, operating at -4.5 kV) was used to measure both CBC and CBC-OH. The spray chamber conditions were: curtain gas, 20 psi; source temperature, 600 °C; nebulizer gas, 40 psi; and turbo gas, 70 psi. The dwell time was established at 80 ms. The selected quantification and qualification SRM transitions for each target compound are shown in Table 2.

<Table 2>

Figure 1 shows the chromatogram of MBC and CBC obtained for a matrixmatched calibration standard at 40 μ g L⁻¹ employing the described SPE and LC-MS/MS procedures. The surrogate is added at 120 μ g L⁻¹.

<Fig 1>

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Hydrolysis and protein precipitation

In order to determine the total content of the analytes (i.e., both free and phase II conjugated forms) is necessary to carry out the hydrolysis of the phase II metabolites. Moreover, proteins separation before sample injection is necessary to reduce matrix interferences and to avoid clogging in the chromatographic column caused by precipitation.

For these purposes, enzymatic and acidic hydrolysis can be used. On one hand, enzymatic hydrolysis requires the addition of the β -glucuronidase enzyme to semen solutions and the incubation of these solutions at 37 °C overnight [22]. The pH of the solutions is adjusted to 6.5 to correctly perform the hydrolysis and then adjusted to 2.0 to ensure that CBC is present as non-ionized form before the SPE procedure (see table 1, pKa values). Protein precipitation is carried out by adding organic solvents to semen solutions and centrifuging. On the other hand, in the case of acidic hydrolysis, concentrate HCl is added to semen samples, and then the solutions are kept at 100 °C during 1 hour. After that, sample solutions are centrifuged at room temperature.

Due to the fact that acidic conditions are faster than those enzymatic (e.g., conjugates hydrolysis and protein precipitation are achieved in only 1 hour in a single step, hence requiring less sample manipulation), the hydrolysis of the phase II conjugates with concentrate HCI was selected in the analysis of semen samples.

3.2. Study of the SPE variables

SPE C_{18} cartridges were selected as they showed an adequate capacity to retain the target compounds. According to the molecular structures of MBC and CBC, only CBC is susceptible to be ionized depending on the pH of the solution. In fact, as can be assumed considering the pKa value (see Table 1), CBC remains quantitatively in the non-ionised form at pH values lower than 2. Hence, CBC retention would be more efficient in the selected SPE C_{18} cartridges under these conditions that are directly provided by the acidic hydrolysis employed prior the SPE procedure without further pH adjustments.

To establish suitable SPE conditions for the analytes and surrogate, different washing and elution steps were tested. In all cases, cartridges were conditioned with 2 mL of ethanol followed by 2 mL of deionized water and then loaded with an aqueous multicomponent standard of 100 μ g L⁻¹ at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min⁻¹.

Washing step was performed by adding 1200 μ L of deionized water. Although water may cause the cartridge clogging, this event can be avoided by adding deionized water in separate aliquots (3 x 400 μ L), eluting at a low flow rate, and allowing cartridges dryness between aliquots.

In the case of elution, different volumes of acetone were evaluated with the aim to use the minimum volume of solvent. In this way, the analytical method becomes faster as less time would be required in the subsequent evaporation to dryness and additionally, the methodology contributes to the green analytical chemistry. Thus, volumes from 250 to 1000 μ L were studied. Obtained results (not shown) indicated that 500 μ L of acetone was enough to quantitatively elute the target analytes and surrogate. After that, the eluted fraction was evaporated keeping the vial into the oven at 55 °C during 30 min and then reconstituted in 100 μ L of a mixture of deionized water: MeOH (60:40, *v:v*).

The yield of the SPE procedure was estimated by comparing the obtained signal from extracted standards to external standards. The amount of sample loaded in the SPE procedure was established as 400 μ L and, after carrying out the whole process, the obtained residue was reconstituted into 100 μ L of a water:methanol (60:40, v/v) mixture. Therefore, the maximum enrichment factor corresponds to 400/100=4, which

corresponds to a 100% of extraction yield. In this sense, the signal obtained for an extracted standard of 200 μ g L⁻¹ was compared with the obtained with an external standard of 800 μ g L⁻¹. The obtained yield values were around 50% and 90% for MBC and CBC, respectively. It should be noted that accurate results can be obtained without achieving a quantitative extraction (i.e., 100%) but achieving reproducible extraction yield values for standards and samples.

3.3. Study of matrix effects

In order to evaluate the matrix effects, a comparison study between the results obtained using deionized water and human semen was performed. In this sense, the analytical responses of a calibration set prepared in pooled analyte-free semen from three volunteers were compared with those obtained from a set of aqueous calibration solutions. Thus, the calibration solutions were prepared in each case and subjected to the SPE method prior injection into the LC-MS/MS system. For each target analyte, the obtained slopes were compared with a Student's t-test [28] (see Table 3). Significant differences were observed at a 5 % significance level between the slopes obtained by analyzing both aqueous and pooled analyte-free semen calibrates. Thus, calibration using deionized water should not be used for quantification purposes since a severe and negative matrix effect was observed.

<Table 3>

In order to avoid the time-consuming standard addition calibration methodology to determine correctly the targeted analytes, matrix-matched calibration was assayed. In this sense, a comparison study between the analytical responses of individual matrix-matched calibration sets prepared in analyte-free semen from three volunteers (three single analyte-free semen calibrates) with those of a matrix-matched calibration set prepared in pooled analyte-free semen from the three volunteers (one pooled analyte-free semen calibrate) was performed.

Results shown in Table 3 indicate that single calibrations were statistically comparable at a 5% significance level with the calibration obtained when employing a pool of all the semen samples for MBC and CBC. Therefore, it can be concluded that matrix-matched calibration employing a semen pool could be used for the determination of MBC and its main metabolite in human semen.

3.4. Use of surrogate

In order to correct possible variations during the SPE procedure, reconstitution in suitable solvent and injection processes, the use of a surrogate was considered and included in the semen samples after acidic hydrolysis treatment. MBC-d₄ was selected as surrogate for several reasons: the compound (1) is structurally very similar to the target compounds; (2) it is a deuterated compound that cannot be found in real semen samples; and (3) it has no ionisable groups, being unaffected by pH changes.

In this sense, A_i/A_s (where A_i is the peak area of the target analyte and A_s that of the surrogate) was used as response function for quantification purposes.

3.5. Analytical figures of merit of the proposed SPE and LC-MS/MS analytical method

Quality parameters of the proposed method were evaluated under final optimized conditions.

The linearity was studied employing an analyte-free semen pool from three volunteers, and plotting the ratio of the peak area of MBC and CBC to the surrogate (MBC-d₄) (A_i/A_s) *versus* the analyte concentration (from 0 to 5000 μ g L⁻¹). A high level of linearity was obtained in all cases. The employed working range was set from 0 to 100 μ g L⁻¹.

The limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) of the target analytes in the semen samples were calculated as the concentration value corresponding to a value of signal to noise of 3 to 10, respectively. They were found to be in the low μ g L⁻¹ level, i.e., 1.0 and 3.3 μ g L⁻¹ for MBC and 2.0 and 6.6 μ g L⁻¹ for CBC, respectively.

The repeatability, expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD, %), was evaluated applying the proposed SPE-LC-MS/MS method to five replicates of analytefree semen pool containing the target analytes at two different concentration levels (20 and 100 μ g L⁻¹) in the same working session (intra-day precision) and in different working sessions (inter-day precision). The obtained repeatability values ranged between 6 and 9 % for the intra-day precision and between 7 and 14 % for the inter-day precision, showing the good precision of the method.

Recovery studies were obtained by spiking (ca. 60 μ g L⁻¹) three semen samples from three volunteers who were known not to use cosmetics containing MBC. Results (Table 4), as expected, reveal no matrix effects when using matrix-matched calibration.

3.6. Application of the proposed SPE and LC-MS/MS analytical method to the analysis of semen samples

In order to apply the developed analytical method to determine MBC and its main metabolite in semen of cosmetic users, specific amounts of a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing 4% of MBC were once topically applied over the body of two volunteers. Each volunteer applied the cream all over the body in the same way as if they were sunbathing on the beach (i.e., 28 and 16 g were applied to Volunteer A and Volunteer B, respectively). This dose is included in the usual range of thickness application for sunscreens (0.5–1 mg of cream per cm² of skin), which is usually below the recommended dose for a maximum sun protection (2 mg/cm²) [29]. Semen samples were collected before sunscreen cream application and after application at time intervals of 24 hours up to 72 hours.

The kinetic profiles of the two volunteers were obtained. As can be seen in Figure 2, the kinetic results obtained in both cases were similar. Thus, detectable amounts of MBC in semen were found after 24 hours of sunscreen cream application ($3.9 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ and $3.4 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ for volunteer A and B, respectively). MBC concentration increased in both cases reaching its maximum concentration value after 48 hours ($6.6 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ and 5.7 $\mu g \ L^{-1}$ for volunteer A and B, respectively). After this time, MBC concentration decreased although considerable amounts of MBC were still present in the semen of the volunteers ($5.8 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ and $3.3 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ for volunteer A and B, respectively) after 72 hours of the cream application.

Regarding the MBC metabolite, CBC, it was also detected from the 24 h after cream application for both volunteers. In this case, as expected, the concentration value was lower than MBC. In fact, although CBC was present it was below the limit of quantification (i.e., $20 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$).

<Figure 2>

A minor metabolite of MBC, CBC-OH, was also monitored in all the samples but it was not detected in any case.

According to the obtained results, it can be concluded that MBC needs more than three days to be completely metabolized or ejected after a single application. It should be commented that the analysis of a higher number of samples from different people and during a longer time should be carried out using the proposed method to get a more reliable idea of the metabolism of MBC and to carry out more exhaustive toxicokinetics studies. Nevertheless, this was not the aim of this study, which was the development of the analytical method and to show its applicability to carry out reliable toxicokinetic studies.

4. Conclusions

A new analytical method to determine MBC and its main metabolite in human semen has been presented. The method is based on the simultaneous protein precipitation and hydrolysis of the phase II glucuronide conjugates, followed by SPE and LC-MS/MS. The use of SPE is performed mainly to clean-up the samples, since biological fluids have a complex matrix which contains many compounds that can interfere in the analysis of the target compounds.

The proposed calibration method is matrix-matched calibration employing an analyte-free semen pool. In this way, satisfactory recoveries were obtained when spiked analytes-free semen samples were analyzed.

The methodology was applied to the analysis of semen samples from two volunteers who topically applied a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing 4 % of MBC. Similar kinetic profiles were observed for both of them. At 24 hours after the cream application, MBC was determined in semen, being the highest concentration value obtained at 48 hours after the cosmetic application. After that, the concentration decreased. CBC, the main metabolite of MBC, was detectable from the first 24 hours for both volunteers but the concentration was below the limit of quantification. Thus, after a single application of the sunscreen cream, the complete metabolism or ejection of MBC requires more than three days.

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Figure captions.

Figure 1. A typical chromatogram obtained applying the proposed SPE and LC-MS/MS procedures to a matrix-matched calibration standard of 40 μ g L⁻¹ of the target analytes and the surrogate (MBC-d₄) at 120 μ g L⁻¹ (see text for experimental details). Transitions correspond to: m/z precursor ion \rightarrow m/z product ion.

Figure 2. Kinetic profile of MBC in semen samples from two volunteers after topical application of a laboratory-made sunscreen cream containing 4% of MBC.

Analyte	Chemical Structure	Molecular Formula	CAS Number	log P	pKaª
3-(4'-Methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC)	H ₃ C, CH ₃ H ₃ C, CH ₃ CH ₃	C ₁₈ H ₂₂ O	36861-47-9	4.95	-
3-(4'-carboxybenzylidene)camphor (CBC)	H ₃ C OH ₃	C ₁₈ H ₂₀ O ₃	68801-01-4	2.2	4.2±0.1

Table 1. Structure and some relevant data of the target compounds.

 $^{\rm a}$ Calculated using Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) Software V8.14 for Solaris ($^{\textcircled{\mbox{\scriptsize $^{\odot}$}}}$ 1994-2010 CD/Labs).

Compound	SRM quantification transition ^a	¹ SRM confirmation transitions ^a	
MBC	255.00 → 105.00	255.00 → 171.00	255.00 → 212.00
CBC	282.98 → 238.80	282.98 → 257.00	282.98 → 255.00
CBC-OH ^b	299.00 → 255.00	299.00 → 237.00	
MBC-d ₄ ^c	259.00 → 216.00		

Table 2. SRM transitions for the LC-MS/MS analysis of MBC, CBC, CBC-OH and the surrogate in semen samples.

^a Transitions corresponds to m/z precursor ion \rightarrow m/z product ion.

^b CBC-OH was monitored in all the semen samples although it was not validated due to the lack of an available standard.

^c MBC-d₄ was employed as surrogate.

Table 3. Comparison of aqueous and individual semen calibrations with the calibration obtained employing a pool of semen of three volunteers.

Analuta		Slope ± deviation	Student's t-test ^b		
Analyte	Standard matrix	(counts min µg⁻¹ L)/10 ^{4 a}	t _{exp}	Equality	
	semen pool	26 ± 1	-	-	
	water	38 ± 3	3.63	No	
MBC	volunteer A semen	23 ± 1	1.44	Yes	
	volunteer B semen	28 ± 2	1.39	Yes	
	volunteer C semen	30 ± 2	2.17	Yes	
	semen pool	42 ± 2	-	-	
	water	77 ± 2	9.86	No	
CBC	volunteer A semen	43 ± 2	0.55	Yes	
	volunteer B semen	44 ± 2	0.90	Yes	
	volunteer C semen	44 ± 3	0.64	Yes	

^a Concentration range: 0-100 μ g L⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 6.

 $^{\rm b}$ Student's t-test for slopes comparison between aqueous and each individual semen calibrations with the semen pool calibration (t_{crit(0.05,4)}= 2.77).

Sample ^a	Analyte	Added (µg L ⁻¹)	Found (µg L ⁻¹)	Recovery (%)
^	MBC	61.2	57.3	94
A	CBC	60	64.7	108
D	MBC	61.2	68.9	112
Б	CBC	60	68.4	114
	MBC	61.2	70	114
C	CBC	60	55	92

Table 4. Recovery values obtained by applying the proposed SPE–LC–MS/MS method with matrixmatched calibration to three semen samples.

^a The original found amounts are below the LOD.









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Determination of hydroxylated benzophenone UV filters in sea water samples by dispersive liquid–liquid microextraction followed by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry

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ABSTRACT

A new analytical method for the determination of four hydroxylated benzophenone UV filters (i.e. 2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (HMB), 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB), 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB) and 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone (THB)) in sea water samples is presented. The method is based on dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME) followed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) determination. The variables involved in the DLLME process were studied. Under optimized conditions, 1000 µL of acetone (disperser solvent) containing 60 µL of chloroform (extraction solvent) were injected into 5 mL of aqueous sample adjusted to pH 4 and containing 10% NaCl. Before injecting into the GC-MS system, the DLLME extracts were evaporated under an air stream and then reconstituted with N,O-bis-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA), thus allowing the target analytes to be converted into their trimethylsilyl derivatives. The best conditions for the derivatization reaction were 75 °C and 30 min. High enrichment factors for all the target analytes (ranging from 58 to 64) and good repeatability (RSD around 6%) were obtained. The limits of detection were in the range of 32–50 ng L⁻¹, depending on the analyte. The recoveries obtained by using the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method evidenced the presence of matrix effects for some of the target analytes, and thereby the standard addition calibration method was employed. Finally, the validated method was applied to the analysis of sea water samples.

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1. Introduction

Hydroxylated benzophenones, especially 2-hydroxy-4methoxybenzophenone (HMB) (also called benzophenone-3), have been used for many years as UV absorbing agents, mainly due to their large molar extinction coefficients in both UVA and UVB ranges. In fact, HMB is one of the most commonly used UV filters in sunscreen cosmetic products, and its use is allowed in the three main regulatory legislations on cosmetic products all over the world, i.e. the European Union Cosmetics Directive (currently recast as the new Regulation on Cosmetic Products), the United States Food and Drug Administration and the Japanese Pharmaceutical Affairs Law [1,2]. However, some studies reveal that, after dermal application of sunscreen cosmetic products, UV filters are absorbed percutaneously, metabolized in the human body and finally excreted [3]. With regard to HMB, the major metabolism pathway is through the o-dealkylation of the methoxy moiety, yielding the most abundant metabolite, i.e. 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB). Aromatic hydroxylation can also occur throughout a secondary pathway and thereby 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB) and 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone (THB) are formed [4].

On the other hand, DHB can also be used in Japan as an UV filter and DHMB in the United States, being known as benzophenone-1 and benzophenone-8, respectively.

Moreover, it should be pointed out that some hydroxylated benzophenones have also been used as light stabilizers in different materials (e.g., textiles or plastics) or to protect the substrate from the photo-oxidation produced by sunlight in paints [5].

Due to the excessive use of hydroxylated benzophenones in the last years, these compounds have reached the aquatic environment by direct and indirect sources and are being accumulated in it [3,6]. Direct inputs can come from recreational activities (e.g., swimming and sunbathing) or industrial wastewater discharges, whereas indirect inputs can come via wastewater-treatment plants from different activities as showering, washing clothes, industrial wastewater discharges, human excretion, etc. Furthermore, different *in vitro* and/or *in vivo* studies show that some hydroxylated benzophenones cause certain kind of endocrine disrupting activity, which might even affect the reproduction of fish [7,8]. For this

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reason, UV filters have been recently labeled as emerging contaminants and have been included in the prestigious annual reviews of Richardson dealing with water analysis [9] since 2005. The amounts found in environmental water samples are in the ng L^{-1} range, which are not far below the doses that cause toxic effects in animals [10].

As recently reviewed [3,4,6,10], different analytical methods can be found in the literature dealing with the determination of UV filters in environmental water samples. Among them, those focused on the determination of hydroxylated benzophenones should be commented. Thus, Jeon and co-workers proposed a liquid-liquid extraction (LLE) procedure before gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis for the determination of seven benzophenone derivatives in river and lake water samples [11]. Kawaguchi and co-workers determined three benzophenones in river water samples by GC-MS after stir-bar sorptive extraction (SBSE) [12]. Later, these authors improved their method by carrying out a derivatization step with acetic acid anhydride for the determination of seven hydroxylated benzophenones [13]. In a subsequent paper the same authors proposed a single-drop microextraction (SDME) step prior to GC-MS analysis [14]. On the other hand, Negreira and co-workers used solid-phase microextraction (SPME) before GC coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) to determine three benzophenones in river water and wastewater samples [15]. Later, these authors extended their work up to six benzophenones by using solid-phase extraction (SPE) previous to liquid chromatography (LC) coupled to MS/MS [16].

As described above, it can be seen that researchers use MS as detector for chromatographic techniques, in order to achieve good sensitivity and low limits of detection. On the other hand, preconcentration and/or clean-up techniques are employed in order to improve their sensitivity and limits of detection and/or to eliminate some potentially interfering compounds. However, it should be pointed out that LLE is a time-consuming technique, and it also requires large amounts of sample and hazardous (and usually expensive) organic solvents, what produces large amounts of organic solvents are reduced when SPE is used, but both are still significant.

Solid-phase based microextraction techniques like SPME and SBSE are good alternatives to the previously commented traditional techniques, despite being time-consuming techniques. However, SPME coated fibers and SBSE coated bars are generally expensive and commercial source-dependant, having limited lifetimes. Moreover, fibers are easily breakable [17,18].

Liquid-phase microextraction (LPME) was born in the mid-tolate 90s as an alternative to solid-phase based microextraction techniques. This technique is based on the miniaturization of the traditional LLE, where the acceptor phase volume has been extremely reduced to only a few microlitres. Although in the beginning LPME was accomplished by designing more or less complicated strategies, SDME modality has become the most extended approach in the last years. SDME is based on a droplet of a few microlitres of a sample-immiscible solvent hanging from the tip of a syringe needle [19,20]. Despite being a relatively time-consuming technique, SDME is inexpensive, easy to operate and virtually solventless. However, the main drawback of this technique lies in the instability of the drop. Hollow-fiber liquid-phase microextraction (HF-LPME), which confines the low volume of the extraction solvent inside of a hollow-fiber, avoids some of the above-mentioned disadvantages [21,22]. Recently, a new modality of LPME named dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME), developed by Assadi and co-workers [23], has become a very popular sample preconcentration and clean-up technique [18]. DLLME is based on a ternary component solvent system, where a few microlitres of the extraction organic solvent, which is denser than water, are mixed with the disperser solvent, which is miscible in both extraction solvent and aqueous sample. Subsequently, this disperser–extraction solvent mixture is injected into the sample rapidly, forming a cloudy solution. In this cloudy solution, the extraction solvent forms thousands of fine droplets, in which the contact area between the extraction solvent and the sample is extremely large. Under these conditions, the equilibrium state is quickly achieved. After extraction, phase separation is performed by centrifugation and the analytes remain in the organic sedimented phase [23]. DLLME offers several important advantages over the above-mentioned (micro)extraction techniques (i.e. faster operation, inexpensive, easy to operate, high enrichment factors and low consumption of organic solvent) [18]. Since DLLME was presented, a relatively high number of papers have been published, dealing with environmental, biological and foodstuff samples and have been recently compiled in two very interesting reviews [18,24].

The aim of this paper is to develop a both user and environmentally friendly, inexpensive and sensitive analytical method than enables to determine four hydroxylated benzophenones, such as HMB, DHB, DHMB and THB (Table 1), in sea water samples at trace levels. The method is based on DLLME, which allows carrying out both preconcentration and clean-up steps, before GC–MS analysis.

To our knowledge, there are no published methods based on DLLME that focus on the determination of any UV filter in water samples, despite its preconcentrating and cleaning-up potential.

2. Experimental

2.1. Apparatus

A Focus GC gas chromatograph, equipped with an AI 3000 autosampler and coupled to a DSQ II mass spectrometric detector (operated in positive electron ionisation mode at ionisation energy of 70 eV, with a multiplier voltage set at 1400 V), from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Austin, TX, USA) was employed.

A Hettich (Tuttlingem, Germany) EBA 21 centrifuge was used to separate the extraction solvent from the sample.

A Selecta (Barcelona, Spain) Incudigit oven was used to keep the temperature during the derivatization reaction.

A Crison (Alella, Spain) micro-pH 2000 pH meter was used for the pH adjustments.

2.2. Reagents and samples

2-Hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (HMB) 98%, 2,4-dihydroxybenzophenone (DHB) 99%, 2,2'-dihydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (DHMB) and 2,3,4-trihydroxybenzophenone (THB) 99% from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany) were used as standards. 2,2'-Dihydroxy-4,4'-dimethoxybenzophenone (98%) also from Sigma-Aldrich was used as internal standard to minimize possible deviations occurred during the extraction and GC injection processes.

LC-grade absolute ethanol (EtOH) from Scharlau Chemie (Barcelona, Spain) was used as solvent to prepare the standard stock solutions. De-ionised water, obtained by means of a NANOpure II water purification system from Barnstead (Boston, USA), was used to prepare the working standard solutions.

Analytical reagent-grade chloroform, dichloromethane and carbon tetrachloride all from Scharlau Chemie were tested as extraction solvents. LC-grade EtOH, analytical reagent-grade acetone and acetonitrile, also from Scharlau Chemie, were tested as disperser solvents.

Analytical reagent-grade sodium chloride (NaCl) 99.5% from Scharlau Chemie was used to adjust the ionic force. Glacial acetic acid (AcOH) and sodium hydroxide, both also from Scharlau Chemie, were used for adjusting the pH.

Table 1

Structure and some relevant data of the target compounds.



^a Calculated using Advanced Chemistry Development (ACD/Labs) Software V8.14 for Solaris (©1994-2010 CD/Labs).

N,O-bis-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide containing 1% trimethylchlorosylane (BSTFA) from Sigma–Aldrich and N-methyl-N-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) were tested as derivatization reagents for GC analysis.

High-purity helium (99.9999%) from Carburos Metálicos S.A. (Paterna, Spain) was used as carrier gas in the GC-MS system.

Surface water samples were all collected from different beaches located in the Mediterranean coast of Spain: Los Narejos beach (Murcia), Poniente beach (Benidorm) and Postiguet beach (Alicante) during the summer season. All samples were collected in 1 L Pyrex borosilicate amber glass containers with caps. They were stored in the dark at 4° C and filtered through 0.45 μ m nylon membrane filters before the analysis.

2.3. Proposed method

2.3.1. Sample and standard addition calibration preparation

Multi-component (HMB, DHB, DHMB and THB) and internal standard stock solutions were prepared separately in EtOH at $4 \,\mu g \, m L^{-1}$. From these solutions, a multi-component and an internal standard working solutions were freshly prepared daily in de-ionised water at 40 ng mL⁻¹.

Three aliquots of 5 mL of each water sample (previously adjusted to pH 4) were placed in 15 mL screw cap polyethylene centrifuge tube with conic bottom, containing 0.5 g of NaCl. Afterwards, they were spiked with 0, 25 and 50 μ L of the multi-component working standard solution, and then with 200 μ L of the internal standard working solution.

2.3.2. DLLME procedure

1 mL of acetone (containing 60 μ L of chloroform) was rapidly injected into each one of the aforementioned solutions, and the formed cloudy solutions were vigorously shaken with vortex mixer during 3 s. Finally, they were centrifuged during 3 min at 3500 rpm. After phase separation, 50 μ L of each sedimented phase were collected by using a 50 μ L Hamilton (Bonaduz, Switzerland) 1705 RNR syringe and transferred into 1.5 mL GC injection vials.

2.3.3. Derivatization step

The extracts from the DLLME procedure were dried under a gentle air stream, and then redissolved in 60 μ L of BSTFA. The vials were sealed and shaken vigorously and left to react during 30 min at 75 °C. After that, they were left for 5 min in a water bath to reach room temperature before GC–MS analysis.

2.3.4. GC–MS analysis

 $1\,\mu\text{L}$ of each one of the aforementioned derivatized solutions was injected into the GC injection port set at 280 °C in splitless mode, and run at $1\,\text{mL}\,\text{min}^{-1}$ helium constant flow rate by using a TR-5MS (95% dimethyl-5% diphenylpolysiloxane, 30 m, 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 μm film thickness) analytical fused-silica capillary column from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Austin, TX, USA). The oven temperature program was: from 130 °C (1 min) at 20 °C min^{-1} to 200 °C (0 min), then at 3 °C min^{-1} to 250 °C, and finally at 20 °C min^{-1} to 280 °C (3 min). The transfer line and ion source temperatures were set at 280 and 225 °C, respectively. The chromatograms were recorded in selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode at the following mass/charge (m/z) ratios: m/z 285 and m/z 343 from minute 6.5



Fig. 1. A typical chromatogram obtained applying the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method to an aqueous standard solution containing the four target analytes at 200 ngL^{-1} and the internal standard at 1600 ngL^{-1} (see text for experimental details; IS=internal standard).

to 10.5 for HMB and DHB, respectively, m/z 373 and m/z 431 from minute 10.5 to 13.5 for DHMB and THB, respectively, and m/z 403 from minute 13.5 to 20.0 for the internal standard.

Standard addition calibration (using 2,2'-dihydroxy-4,4'-dimethoxybenzophenone as internal standard) was used. For this purpose, the ratio of the peak area of each target analyte to the internal standard (A_i/A_{IS}) was plotted *versus* the analyte-spiked concentration.

Fig. 1 shows a chromatogram of an aqueous standard solution containing the four target analytes at 200 ng L^{-1} and the internal standard at 1600 ng L^{-1} subjected to the described DLLME–GC–MS procedure.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Studies on the derivatization reaction

Due to the low volatility of the target analytes for GC analysis, a derivatization step was necessary to convert them into more volatile derivatives. Among the different derivatization strategies (e.g., silylation, alkylation, esterification, acylation, etc.), silylation is by far the most used derivatization method for compounds containing labile hydrogens, since the derivatization process can be easily achieved and moreover there are a large number of silylation reagents available. As it is well-known, when a silylation reagent is used, the labile hydrogens of the compound are replaced by alkylsilyl moieties, usually trimethylsilyl. Thus, the OH moieties are turned into their trimethylsilyl ethers, which are more volatile than their parent compounds.

BSTFA and MSTFA were tested as silylation reagents. The effect of the temperature and the reaction time were also optimized. Finally, the stability of the derivatives was evaluated.

3.1.1. Study of silylation reagent

In duplicate, $40 \,\mu\text{L}$ of a standard solution of the four target analytes at $1 \,\mu\text{g}\,\text{m}\text{L}^{-1}$ in hexane and $50 \,\mu\text{L}$ of an internal standard solution at $2 \,\mu\text{g}\,\text{m}\text{L}^{-1}$ in hexane were placed into a 1.5 mL GC injection vial. After evaporation to dryness under a gentle air stream, the residue was reconstituted by adding the minimum volume of silylation reagent necessary to guarantee the injection by the autosampler (i.e. 60 μ L). Then, the vial was immediately sealed and introduced into the oven at 75 °C during 30 min. After that, the vial was removed and immersed in a water bath for 5 min to reach room temperature. Finally, the vial was injected into the GC system under the conditions above-commented (see Section 2.3.4). The results (not shown) obtained for the four target analytes (A_i/A_{IS} , where A_i is the peak area of the analyte *i* and A_{IS} is the peak area of the internal standard) were slightly higher with BSTFA than with MSTFA, and thus, BSTFA was selected as silylation reagent for further experiments.

3.1.2. Effect of reaction time and temperature

Similarly, the effect of the reaction time was studied at 0, 5, 10, 20, 30 and 50 min with the temperature kept at 75 °C. Results (A_i/A_{IS}) showed that reaction time had no effect in the case of HMB, DHB and DHMB, but the signal of THB increased with the reaction time. As the increase in the signal at 50 min (13%) is not worth the time-consuming, a reaction time of 30 min was selected for further experiments.

The effect of temperature was also studied by maintaining the reaction vial at 25, 45, 55, 65 and 75 °C for 30 min. Results (A_i/A_{LS}) showed that temperature had no effect in the case of HMB, DHB and DHMB. In the case of THB, the signal remained constant from 25 to 55 °C, and then increased with temperature (31 and 40% at 65 and 75 °C, respectively). Higher temperatures than 75 °C were not tested due to technical limitations. Thus, 75 °C was selected for further experiments

3.1.3. Stability of the derivatized analytes

Once the conditions of the derivatization reaction were studied, the stability of the derivatized analytes was evaluated. In this sense, two reaction vials were prepared under the aforementioned reaction conditions. One of them was kept in the fridge at 4 °C and the other one was kept at room temperature until injection, in order to be sure if the reaction vials might be prepared and left in the autosampler before injection. Thus, they were prepared and injected from the minimum time possible (ca. 1 min) to 6 h. Results showed that no variation was observed in the area of the target analytes in both 4 °C and room temperature conditions at any time. Thus, it can be concluded that the derivatives are at least 6 h stable, being this enough time to be injected after preparation.

3.2. Study of the experimental variables involved in the DLLME procedure

Different variables may affect the DLLME process, such as the type and volume of both extraction and disperser solvents, the extraction time and the ionic strength [22,23]. In the case of potentially ionisable compounds, the pH of the sample also plays a crucial role in the extraction process. Thus, based on the literature, the influence of all these variables was evaluated in terms of the analytical signal (i.e. ratio of the peak area of each target analyte to that of the internal standard (A_i/A_{IS})).

In this sense, an aqueous standard solution containing the four target analytes at 100 ng mL⁻¹ was used to carry out the different DLLME optimization experiments. It should be taken into account that the volume of the sedimented phase depends on the extraction conditions, and especially on the volume of the extraction solvent. In order to correct these variations, the total volume of the sedimented phase was measured but only an aliquot of a fixed volume (15 µL) was taken. Then, the obtained value for the analytical signal was corrected as $(A_i/A_{LS})_{\rm corr} = (A_i/A_{IS}) \times (V_{sed}/V_{aliq})$, where V_{sed} is the total volume of the sedimented phase and V_{aliq} is the volume of the aliquot taken (i.e. 15 µL).



Fig. 2. Effect of disperser solvent and extraction solvent on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL sample volume, 1 mL of disperser solvent containing 60 µL of the extraction solvent).

Thus, 15 μ L of the sedimented phase were transferred to a 1.5 mL GC injection vial, to which 15 μ L of an internal standard solution at 2 μ g mL⁻¹ in hexane were added. Subsequently, it was evaporated, reconstituted with 60 μ L of BSTFA and finally injected into the GC–MS (as previously described in Sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4, respectively) to obtain the (A_i/A_{IS})cor values for all the target analytes.

3.2.1. Study of the extraction solvent and disperser solvent

The combination of the extraction solvent and the disperser solvent is a key issue in the DLLME process, and thus requires an exhaustive study prior to the final selection. On one hand, the extraction solvent should meet two basic properties, which are to extract the target analytes efficiently and to have low solubility in the aqueous phase. Moreover, it should have preferably higher density than water in order to remain in the bottom of the extraction tube after centrifugation. Finally, in the case that evaporation is needed, it should have a low boiling point (b.p.). On the other hand, the disperser solvent should be miscible in both aqueous sample and organic extraction solvent, and has also to form the so-called cloudy solution. Moreover, after centrifugation, a phase separation has to be achieved. In this sense, dichloromethane (density 1.25 g mL⁻¹, b.p. 40 °C), chloroform (density 1.48 g mL⁻¹, b.p. 62 °C) and carbon tetrachloride (density 1.59 g mL⁻¹, b.p. 76.5 °C) were studied as extraction solvents, and acetone, acetonitrile and ethanol were studied as disperser solvents.

Therefore, a bivariant study considering all the possible combinations was performed by injecting 1 mL of each disperser solvent containing $60 \,\mu$ L of each extraction solvent to a 5 mL of an aqueous standard solution containing the four target analytes at 100 ng mL⁻¹. When using dichloromethane as extraction solvent, no cloudy solution was formed. Furthermore, when the combination ethanol–chloroform was tested, no phase separation occurred after centrifugation. Results showing the rest of the combinations are depicted in Fig. 2, where it can be concluded that the best results were accomplished when acetone was used as disperser solvent and chloroform was used as extraction solvent. Therefore, the mixture acetone–chloroform was selected for further experiments.

3.2.2. Effect of the extraction solvent volume

When the extraction solvent volume is increased, the amount of extracted analyte is expected to increase too, but it should be



Fig. 3. Effect of the extraction solvent volume on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL sample volume, 1 mL of disperser solvent containing different volumes of chloroform as extraction solvent).

taken into account that the dilution effect is also increased. Thus, a careful study is needed in order to achieve the best results, since a compromise situation needs to be reached.

In this sense, 1 mL of acetone as disperser solvent containing different volumes of chloroform, ranging from 40 to 80 μ L, were tested. As the extraction volume increased, the volume of sedimented phase also increased, ranging from 19 to 50 μ L. 40 μ L of chloroform was disregarded due to the low volume of the sedimented phase formed. The rest of the results are summarized in Fig. 3, which shows that the best results were obtained when the extraction solvent volume was 60 μ L, and thus, this value was chosen for further experiments.

3.2.3. Effect of the disperser solvent volume

In order to study the effect of the disperser solvent volume, different volumes of acetone as disperser solvent, ranging from 250 to 1000 μL , were tested. As can be seen in Fig. 4, lower responses where achieved when 250 μL of acetone were tested, whereas



Fig. 4. Effect of the disperser solvent volume on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL sample volume, different disperser solvent volumes containing 60 μ L of chloroform as extraction solvent).

4776



Fig. 5. Effect of the pH of the donor phase on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL sample volume adjusted to different pH values, 1 mL of acetone (disperser solvent) containing 60 µL of chloroform (extraction solvent)).

small differences were observed from 500 to 1000 μ L. This could be attributed to the fact that low volumes of disperser solvent do not produce well-formed cloudy solutions and the extraction solvent could not be correctly dispersed in the aqueous solution (in the form of little droplets), resulting in poor extraction efficiencies. A volume of 1000 μ L for the disperser solvent was finally chosen due to the slightly better responses.

3.2.4. Effect of the pH

As mentioned before, the pH of the donor phase is a variable of interest in case of potentially ionisable compounds, since the neutral form of a molecule is expected to be extracted in the organic extraction solvent more efficiently than the ionic form. Taking into account that hydroxylated benzophenones are potentially ionisable compounds, pH values ranging from 2 to 8 were tested. As can be seen in Fig. 5, lower $(A_i/A_{IS})_{cor}$ values were obtained at pH 8, especially for THB, for which a negligible signal was obtained at this pH. The best responses were accomplished at pH values between 2 and 4, which is in accordance to the pK_a values of the target analytes (see Table 1). A pH value of 4 was selected for further experiments.

3.2.5. Effect of the ionic strength

In general terms, the addition of salt improves the extraction as a result of the so-called salting-out effect, because the presence of salt reduces the solubility of the organic compounds in water and forces them to pass to the extraction solvent. Thus, in order to study this effect, NaCl was added to the donor phase at concentration values up to 15% (m/v). When higher NaCl contents were used the extraction solvent floated on the aqueous phase as an extremely thin layer, with the subsequent difficulty to collect it. For this reason, NaCl contents higher that 15% were discarded. Fig. 6, shows that for contents below 10% (m/v) of NaCl the higher was the ionic strength the higher were the responses. No significant differences were observed for any of the target analytes within 10 and 15% (m/v). Thus, donor solutions were adjusted to 10-15% NaCl (m/v) for further experiments.

3.2.6. Effect of the extraction time

The extraction time is one of the most important variables involved in extraction procedures. In DLLME, the extraction time is defined as the interval time between the injection of the binary mixture of disperser and extraction solvents and just before start-



Fig. 6. Effect of the ionic strength of the donor phase on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL sample volume adjusted to pH 4 and to different ionic strength values, 1 mL of acetone (disperser solvent) containing 60 μL of chloroform (extraction solvent)).

ing to centrifuge [23]. In this work, the effect of the extraction time was studied from the minimum possible (ca. 5 s) to 45 min. Results (not shown) revealed that the extraction time had no effect on the response for any of the target analytes. This could be explained by the fact that the surface area between the extraction solvent and the aqueous donor phase in DLLME is extremely large, thus the transfer of the target analytes from the aqueous donor phase is fast, achieving the equilibrium state quickly [23].

3.2.7. Final considerations

In order to assure the rapid achievement of the equilibrium state, the cloudy solution was vigorously shaken by vortex for 3 s before the centrifugation step.

On the other hand, under optimized conditions, the obtained volume of the sedimented phase was around 60 μ L. Taking into account that before the injection into the GC–MS system it is necessary to perform an evaporation to carry out the derivatization step with BSTFA, when more sedimented phase is taken to evaporate more sensitivity is obtained. Thus, in order to improve the sensitivity of the method, 50 μ L of the sedimented phase, instead of the 15 μ L used in the optimization step, were finally taken to the evaporation and derivatization processes prior to the GC–MS analysis. It should be noted that the total volume of the sedimented phase (ca. 60 μ L) was not collected in order to avoid the collection of aqueous phase, which could increase the evaporation time considerably or react with BSTFA in the derivatization step.

3.3. Analytical figures of merit of the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method

Quality parameters of the proposed method were evaluated under final optimized conditions.

The achieved enrichment factors (EF), defined as $EF = C_{sed}/C_0$, where C_{sed} is the concentration of the compound of interest in the organic sedimented phase (obtained by external calibration) and C_0 is the initial concentration of this compound in the aqueous phase [23], ranged between 58 and 65 (Table 2) depending on the analyte.

The linearity studied reached at least $50 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ in all cases, and the employed working range was set from 200 to $1000 \ ng \ L^{-1}$. The equations of the calibration curves obtained by using standard

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Main parameters of the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method for the determination of hydroxylated benzophenones in water sam	ıples
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Analyte	EF ^a	$Slope^{b} (ng L^{-1})$	Intercept ^b	Regression coefficient (R ²) ^b	LOD^{c} (ng L^{-1})	LOQ^d (ng L^{-1})	Repeatability ^e RSD (%)
HMB	64 ± 4	$(119 \pm 2) \times 10^{-5}$	-0.030 ± 0.014	0.9993	33	110	5.6
DHB	58 ± 4	$(114 \pm 2) \times 10^{-5}$	-0.032 ± 0.013	0.9994	32	108	6.2
DHMB	65 ± 3	$(88 \pm 2) \times 10^{-5}$	-0.004 ± 0.010	0.9994	33	109	5.6
THB	64 ± 4	$(10.9\pm 0.2)\times 10^{-5}$	-0.003 ± 0.002	0.9990	50	168	5.8

^a EF: Enrichment factor, as the mean of three replicates.

^b Working range: 200–1000 ng L⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 5.

^c LOD: limit of detection, calculated as $3S_{y|x}/b$ criteria, where $S_{y|x}$ is the residual standard deviation and b is the slope of the calibration curve [25].

^d LOQ: limit of quantification, calculated as 10S_{y/x}/b criteria, where S_{y/x} is the residual standard deviation and b is the slope of the calibration curve [25].

^e Relative standard deviation (RSD); five replicate analysis of a standard solution containing 500 ng L⁻¹.

Table 3

Recovery values obtained by applying the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method with external calibration to three sea water samples.

Analyte	Recoveries (%)	Recoveries (%)								
Sample 1 ^a		Sample 2 ^b		Sample 3 ^c						
	200 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level	400 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level	200 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level	400 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level	200 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level	400 ng L ⁻¹ spiking level				
HMB	93	82	82	87	111	126				
DHB	65	73	104	123	169	151				
DHMB	114	120	99	117	107	100				
THB	90	100	82	92	222	217				

^a Sample 1: Los Narejos beach (Murcia, Spain).

^b Sample 2: Poniente beach (Benidorm, Spain).

^c Sample 3: Postiguet beach (Alicante, Spain).

aqueous solution of all the target analytes are shown in Table 2, where a high level of linearity can be seen (regression coefficients (R^2) ranged from 0.9990 to 0.9994 (number of calibration points, n = 5)).

The calibration parameters and limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) of the target analytes are also shown in Table 2. As can be seen, the LODs and LOQs values were found to be in the low ng L⁻¹ level ranging from 32 to 50 ng L^{-1} and from 108 to 168 ng L^{-1} , respectively, which shows that the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method is suitable to determine these compounds at ultratrace levels.

The repeatability, expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD), was evaluated by applying the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method to five replicate standard aqueous solutions containing the target analytes at 500 ng L⁻¹. Results, also shown in Table 2, reveal that good precision was achieved for all the target analytes.

In order to perform recovery studies, and thus evaluate matrix effects, three sea water samples were spiked with the target analytes at two different levels (200 and 400 ng L⁻¹). Their contents were determined applying the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method and using an external calibration curve obtained with standard aqueous solutions previously subjected to the same procedure. The recoveries obtained using external calibration (Table 3) were 82–126% for HMB, 65–169% for DHB, 99–120% for DHMB and 82–222% for THB, thus showing strong matrix effects in case of DHB and THB. For this reason, standard addition calibration was proposed for the analysis of sea water samples in order to correct the matrix effects.

3.4. Application of the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method to the analysis of real sea water samples

Three different surface water samples, collected in the summer of 2009, were analysed using the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method, by means of standard addition calibration. Results are shown in Table 4, where it can be seen that all the three samples analyzed contained appreciable amounts of HMB (1340–3300 ng L⁻¹). This might be expected taking into account that HMB is one of the most

Table 4

Hydroxylated benzophenone contents found in sea water samples after applying the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method with standard addition calibration.

Analyte	Concentration (ng L ⁻¹)					
	Sample 1 ^a	Sample 2 ^b	Sample 3 ^c			
HMB DHB DHMB THB	$\begin{array}{c} 1440 \pm 130 \\ 280 \pm 30 \\ nd^{d} \\ nd^{d} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 1340\pm 60\\ nd^{d}\\ nd^{d}\\ nd^{d} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3300\pm200\\ nd^d\\ nd^d\\ nd^d \end{array}$			

^a Sample 1: Los Narejos beach (Murcia, Spain).

^b Sample 2: Poniente beach (Benidorm, Spain).

^c Sample 3: Postiguet beach (Alicante, Spain).

^d nd: not detected.

commonly used UV filters in sunscreen cosmetic products. DHB was also present in one of the analyzed samples, whereas DHMB and THB were not found in any of the three analyzed samples.

4. Conclusions

A sensitive analytical method based on GC–MS analysis after DLLME is proposed to determine four hydroxylated benzophenones in sea water samples in the low ng L^{-1} range.

Good analytical features, including enrichment factors, limits of detection, sensitivity and repeatability are obtained by means of the proposed DLLME–GC–MS method. In order to correct matrix effects, standard addition calibration is proposed.

The proposed method can be considered both user and environmentally friendly since little amounts of solvents are used.

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4778

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Development of a gas chromatography-mass spectrometry method for the determination of ultraviolet filters in beach sand samples

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1. Introduction

It is well-known that sun exposure provides many health benefits to humans, such as an improvement in the endogenous production of vitamin D or prevention of some diseases such as rickets or osteoporosis. However, sun overexposure causes adverse effects, such as skin cancer, cutaneous photoaging and damage to the skin's immunological system.¹

The concern about the health risks commented above has led to an increase in the use of cosmetics containing the socalled UV filters as active ingredients to prevent or minimize the harmful effects of UV radiation. These active compounds have an organic or inorganic nature, and they act as absorbers and/or reflectors, respectively, of UV radiation. The compounds that can be used as UV filters in cosmetic products, and their maximum allowed concentrations are regulated by the legislations in force in each country.¹⁻³

The excessive use of cosmetics containing these compounds (not only those cosmetics intended specifically for sun protection but also all types of daily products such as moisturizes, after shave products, shampoos, *etc.*) had led to an appearance

Development of a gas chromatography-mass spectrometry method for the determination of ultraviolet filters in beach sand samples

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An analytical method for the determination of eight fat-soluble ultraviolet (UV) filters in beach sand samples is presented for the first time. The method is based on a leaching process of the target compounds from sand samples using vortex mixer agitation and further centrifugation, followed by dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME) of the supernatant and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis of the DLLME extract. The variables involved in the leaching and in the DLLME processes were studied to provide the best enrichment factors. In the first case, the leaching solvent type and volume, and the vortex mixer agitation time were studied. In the case of the DLLME, the type and volume of both disperser and extraction solvent and the influence of the pH and the ionic strength of the supporting aqueous solution were studied. Under the selected conditions, the method was successfully validated showing good linearity (R^2 > 0.995), method limits of detection at the pg g⁻¹ level, enrichment factors in the range of 8 to 50 (depending on the analyte) and good intra- and inter-day precision. No significant matrix effects were found, thus external calibration can be used. However, internal calibration was recommended to improve the repeatability in both the DLLME and the GC-injection. Moreover, in order to correct losses during the leaching process, the surrogate was added to the samples before the leaching step. The validated method was successfully applied to the analysis of several beach sand samples of different origin.

> of UV filters in the aquatic environment, through direct and indirect sources, where they are being accumulated.^{4,5} The high lipophilic characteristics of some of them make them susceptible to be accumulated in the suspended particles contained in water, sediments, sludge or even biota.⁴ Furthermore, different *in vitro* and/or *in vivo* studies show that some UV filters, even at trace levels, present endocrine disrupting activity that might affect the reproduction of fish.^{5–8} For this reason, UV filters are currently considered as emerging contaminants and it is interesting to develop analytical methods that allow their determination in the environment at trace levels.

> Most publications about the development of analytical methods to determine UV filters in environmental samples are focused on the analysis of environmental water samples.^{4,5,9,10} However, different analytical methods can be found in the literature dealing with the determination of UV filters in environmental soil samples, such as river and/or lake sediments,¹¹⁻¹⁷ coastal sediments,¹⁶ bight sediments,¹⁸ ground soil,¹² sewage sludge^{10,15,19-23} or even indoor dust.²⁴

In order to improve the method sensitivity and/or to eliminate some potentially interfering compounds, preconcentration and/or clean-up techniques have been employed. Thus, the determination of UV filters in this type of sample was carried out by extracting (usually in consecutive steps) the analytes from the solid sample into various organic solvents, such as methanol or



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Paper

acetone, by solid–liquid partitioning.^{11,12,15,18,19} This traditional extraction technique is time-consuming, poorly selective (*i.e.*, many interferents may be co-extracted) and it often requires large amounts of organic solvents, which causes dilution of the target analytes in the extract. So, an additional clean-up and/or preconcentration step is needed in some cases.^{12,13} Newer extraction techniques, such as microwave-assisted extraction (MAE),¹⁶ pressurized liquid extraction (PLE)^{13,14,17,20-23} or matrix solid-phase dispersion (MSPD),²⁴ were employed in subsequent studies. In these techniques, both the organic solvent consumption and the time required to carry out the extraction are considerably decreased, but PLE often requires additional clean-up and/or preconcentration steps.^{13,14,20,22,23}

A good alternative to the above mentioned extraction techniques is the so-called dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME).25 Due to the several advantages of this extraction technique (i.e., fast, inexpensive, ease of operation and low consumption of organic solvent) it has become a very popular extraction technique that has been used for the determination of organic and inorganic compounds in different types of samples.²⁶ Specifically, this microextraction technique has already been used before for the determination of UV filters in water samples,27-35 but it has not ever been employed for the determination of UV filters in sediment samples, especially in the case of beach sand samples, most probably due to the fact that these are solid samples. Nevertheless, in this type of sample, a leaching process of the target compounds from the matrix sample prior to the DLLME procedure could overcome this drawback.

In this sense, the aim of this paper is to draw on the high potential of the DLLME to develop a rapid, selective and sensitive method for the determination of eight typical organic UV filters in beach sand samples (Table 1). The developed method, which is expected to be used in environmental surveillance studies, is based on the leaching of the analytes from the sand sample prior to DLLME and followed by GC-MS analysis.

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents and samples

2-Ethylhexyl salicylate (ES) 99%, 2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzophenone (benzophenone-3(BZ3)) 98%, 2-ethylhexyl 4methoxycinnamate (EMC) 99.8% and 2-ethylhexyl-4-(dimethylamino)benzoate (ethylhexyl dimethyl PABA (EDP)) 98% from Sigma-Aldrich, 3,3,5-trimethylcyclohexyl salicylate (homosalate (HS)) >98% from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), isoamyl-4methoxycinnamate (IMC) 99.3% from Haarmann and Reimer (Parets del Vallés, Spain), 3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)camphor (MBC) 99.7% from Guinama S.L. (Valencia, Spain) and 2-ethylhexyl 2-cyano-3,3-diphenylacrylate (octocrylene (OCR)) >98% from F. Hoffman-La Roche Ltd. (Basel, Switzerland) were used as standards. Deuterated benzophenone (benzophenone-d₁₀ (BZ-d₁₀)) 99% from Isotec (Miamisburg, Ohio, USA) was used as a surrogate to minimize possible deviations that occur during the DLLME and GC injection processes. LC-grade absolute ethanol from Scharlau Chemie (Barcelona, Spain) was used as solvent to prepare the multicomponent and surrogate standard stock solutions. Analytical reagentgrade acetone also from Scharlau Chemie was used as solvent to prepare the working standard solutions and as leaching/ disperser solvent. Analytical reagent-grade chloroform from Scharlau Chemie was used as extraction solvent. De-ionized water, obtained by means of a NANOpure II water purification system from Barnstead (Boston, USA), was used as supporting solvent in the DLLME process.

Analytical reagent-grade sodium chloride (NaCl) 99.5% from Scharlau Chemie was used to adjust the ionic strength of the DLLME aqueous supporting solutions. Sodium dihydrogen phosphate (NaH₂PO₄) and phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄), both also from Scharlau Chemie, were used to adjust the pH of these solutions.

High-purity helium (99.9999%) from Carburos Metálicos S.A. (Paterna, Spain) was used as carrier gas in the GC-MS system.

Sand samples were all collected from the shores of different Spanish beaches located in Valencia (Sample 1: Malvarrosa beach (June 2013); Sample 2: Pinedo beach (June 2013); Sample 3: Patacona beach (July 2013)) and Gran Canaria Island (Sample 4: Los ingleses beach, (August 2011)). An additional sand sample from Malvarrosa beach collected away from the shore and out of beach season (February 2013) was used as blank. All of them were stored in the dark and dried at 60 °C in porcelain capsules overnight before sample analysis.

2.2. Apparatus

A Focus GC gas chromatograph, equipped with an AS 3000 autosampler and coupled to a DSQ II mass spectrometric detector (operated in positive electron ionization mode at an ionization energy of 70 eV, with a multiplier voltage set at 1300 V), from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Austin, TX, USA) was employed.

A Hettich (Tuttlingem, Germany) EBA 21 centrifuge and a Crison (Alella, Spain) Basic 20 pH meter were used in sample treatment. An ultrasound bath (50 Hz, 360 W) from J.P. Selecta S.A. (Barcelona, Spain) was also used in the leaching optimization.

2.3. Proposed method

Multicomponent and surrogate standard stock solutions were prepared separately in ethanol at 500 and 1000 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively. From these solutions, multicomponent and surrogate solutions were prepared daily in acetone at 2 and 10 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively. Calibration standard solutions (10–50 ng mL⁻¹) in acetone, containing 40 ng mL⁻¹ of surrogate, were also prepared daily. An additional 40 ng mL⁻¹ surrogate solution in acetone was prepared as blank. These solutions were subjected to the DLLME procedure.

Besides, by triplicate, 10 g of dry sand sample were weighed and placed into 50 mL screw cap glass centrifuge tubes with a conical bottom. Then, 20 μ L of the surrogate solution were added in all cases (*i.e.*, at 20 ng g⁻¹). The mixture was homogenized and left to solvent evaporation. A volume of 5 mL of acetone was added and the tube was vigorously shaken with a

Analytical Methods

Paper

Table 1 Chemical structure and some data of the target compounds

UV filter	Chemical structure	Molecular formula	CAS number
2-Ethylhexyl salicylate (ES)		$C_{15}H_{22}O_3$	118-60-5
Homosalate (HS) ^a		$C_{16}H_{22}O_3$	118-56-9
Isoamyl 4-methoxycinnamate $(IMC)^b$	~ Local	$C_{15}H_{20}O_3$	71617-10-2
3-(4-Methylbenzylidene)camphor $(4-MBC)^b$	L'U	$C_{18}H_{22}O$	36861-47-9
Benzophenone-3(BZ3)		$C_{14}H_{12}O_3$	131-57-7
2-Ethylhexyl 4-methoxycinnamate $(EMC)^b$, Contraction of the second se	$C_{18}H_{26}O_3$	5466-77-3
Ethylhexyl dimethyl PABA (EDP)		C ₁₇ H ₂₇ NO ₂	21245-02-3
Octocrylene (OCR)		C ₂₄ H ₂₇ NO ₂	6197-30-4

^a There are two isomers (HS₁ and HS₂). ^b There are two geometrical isomers (Z and E) when exposed to light.

vortex mixer during 20 s and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant (*ca.* 2 mL) was separated, and this operation was repeated twice with 1 mL of acetone. Then, the supernatants of each sample were merged in a 5 mL volumetric flask and acetone was added up to the mark. After that, an aliquot was filtered through 0.45 μ m nylon membrane filters and subjected to the DLLME procedure.

2.3.1. DLLME procedure. Different aliquots of 5 mL of deionized water, used as supporting solvent, were adjusted to pH 4 and placed into 7.5 mL screw cap glass centrifuge tubes. Then, 2 mL of the acetone standard solutions (or sample

extracts) containing 60 μ L of chloroform, were rapidly injected into the water. The formed cloudy solutions were vigorously shaken with a vortex mixer for 5 s. Finally, they were centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 3 min for phase separation. The sedimented phases were collected and transferred into 1.5 mL GC injection vials.

2.3.2. GC-MS analysis. Two μ L of each one of the aforementioned sedimented phases were injected into the GC injection port set at 280 °C in splitless mode, and run at 1 mL min⁻¹ helium constant flow rate by using a HP-5MS Ultra Inert (95% dimethyl-5% diphenylpolysiloxane, 30 m length, 0.25 mm

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i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness) column from Agilent Technologies (Palo Alto, CA, USA). The oven temperature program was: from 70 °C (1 min) to 170 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹, then to 200 °C at 2 °C min⁻¹ and finally to 280 °C (6 min) at 10 °C min⁻¹. The transfer line and ion source temperatures were set at 280 °C and 250 °C, respectively. The chromatograms were recorded in selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode at the mass/charge (*m/z*) ratios shown in Table 2.

Fig. 1 shows, as an example, the obtained chromatogram for a sand blank spiked with the target compounds at 20 ng g^{-1} and subjected to the described DLLME-GC-MS procedure.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Study of the experimental variables involved in the DLLME procedure

Different variables may affect the DLLME process, such as the type and volume of both extraction and disperser solvents, and the pH and ionic strength of the aqueous phase.²⁵ The influence of all these variables was evaluated in terms of the analytical signal (*i.e.* chromatographic peak area of each target analyte).

As the DLLME is carried out after the analyte leaching, the leaching solvent was also employed as disperser solvent in DLLME in order to make both techniques compatible. Thus, unlike conventional DLLME, in this case the disperser solvent, instead of the aqueous phase, contains the target compounds. The aqueous phase is not used as donor phase but as supporting solvent to make the DLLME possible (*i.e.*, to form a cloudy solution and to transfer the analytes to the extraction solvent). Hence, a multicomponent solution of 100 ng mL⁻¹ of the target analytes was employed as disperser solvent in different DLLME studies. Later, the mixture of disperser and extraction solvent was injected into 5 mL of deionized water.

The extraction time was not studied in this work because it is well known that in this extraction technique the surface area between the extraction solvent and the aqueous phase is infinitely large so the transfer of the analytes is fast. The equilibrium state is achieved quickly and the extraction time is very short. This is the most important advantage of the DLLME technique.²⁵



Fig. 1 A chromatogram obtained applying the proposed DLLME-GC/MS method to a sand blank spiked with 20 ng g⁻¹ of the target analytes and the surrogate (BZ-d₁₀) (see text for Experimental details).

The surrogate $(BZ-d_{10})$ was not used to perform the DLLME optimization since it could be affected in the same or different way as analytes and could provide wrong conclusions.

3.1.1. Study of the extraction solvent and disperser solvent. The combination of the extraction solvent and the disperser solvent is an important issue in the DLLME process that requires an exhaustive study prior to the final selection. The extraction solvent should extract the target analytes efficiently

UV filter	Retention time (min)	m/z^a	Acquisition time window (min)
BZ-d ₁₀ (surrogate)	14.44	82, 110 , 192	10.0-17.0
ES	18.45	120 , 138, 250	17.0-22.0
HS	20.04 (HS ₁), 20.75 (HS ₂)	120, 138, 262	17.0-22.0
IMC	21.20(Z), 25.54(E)	161, 178, 248	20.0-27.2
MBC	24.50 (Z), 26.23 (E)	128, 211, 254	22.0-27.2
BZ3	25.33	151, 227, 228	22.0-27.2
EMC	29.78 (Z), 31.22 (E)	161, 178, 290	27.2-30.0, 31.0-33.7
EDP	30.62	148, 165, 277	30.0-31.0
OCR	35.04	204, 232, 360	33.7-40.0

^{*a*} The m/z values used as quantifiers are shown in bold.

Table 2 GC-MS features of the target compounds

Analytical Methods

and have low solubility in the aqueous phase. Moreover, as only a few microliters of extraction solvent are employed, a solvent with a higher density than water is recommended in order to remain in the bottom of the extraction tube and ease its collection. On the other hand, the disperser solvent should be miscible in both the supporting aqueous solution and the organic extraction solvent, and has also to form the so-called cloudy solution. Moreover, after centrifugation, a phase separation has to be achieved. In this sense, dichloromethane and chloroform were studied as extraction solvents, and acetone, acetonitrile and ethanol were studied as disperser solvents.

Therefore, a bivariant study considering all the possible combinations was performed. For this purpose, mixtures of 1 mL of each disperser solvent (940 μ L) with each extraction solvent (60 μ L) were injected into 5 mL of deionized water. When dichloromethane was used as extraction solvent, no cloudy solution was formed. Furthermore, when the ethanol-chloroform combination was tested, no phase separation occurred after centrifugation. The best results were accomplished when the acetone–chloroform mixture was used. Thus, acetone and chloroform were selected as disperser and extraction solvents, respectively, for further studies.

3.1.2. Effect of the disperser solvent volume. As the disperser solvent contains the target analytes, the higher the volume of acetone injected the higher will be the amount of analyte extracted. Thus, mixtures of different volumes of the acetone standard solution and $60 \,\mu\text{L}$ of chloroform, with a total mixture volume ranging from 0.5 to 5 mL, were tested. Volumes above 2 mL resulted in no phase separation. Therefore, a total volume mixture of 2 mL (1940 μL of disperser solvent in this case) was finally chosen.

3.1.3. Effect of the extraction solvent volume. When the extraction solvent volume is increased, the amount of extracted analyte is expected to increase too, but it should be taken into account that the dilution effect is also increased. Thus, a careful study is needed in order to achieve the best results.

In this sense, mixtures of chloroform (ranging from 40 to 120 μL) and the disperser solvent, with a total volume of 2 mL were tested. 40 μL of chloroform was disregarded because there was no phase separation. The rest of the results are plotted in Fig. 2, which shows that the higher analytical signals were obtained when the smaller extraction solvent volume was employed, probably due to the dilution effect. Thus, 60 μL of extraction solvent was employed in the subsequent experiments.

3.1.4. Effect of the pH of the supporting aqueous solution. The influence of the pH of the supporting aqueous solution on the extraction efficiency was studied. Different aqueous solutions were adjusted to pH values ranging from 2 to 8. For nonionisable compounds (*i.e.*, IMC, 4-MBC, EMC and OCR) no significant changes were observed. Phenolic compounds such as ES, HS and BZ3 are better extracted at acidic pH rather than alkaline pH, since at acidic pH their phenolic moieties are not ionized and the extraction is favoured. However, the extraction of EDP is not favoured at very low pH since its amine moiety is protonated (and thus charged). In summary, the best responses were obtained at mild acidic pHs rather than high pHs. Hence, the aqueous solutions employed as supporting solvents were



Fig. 2 Effect of the extraction solvent volume on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL of deionized water solution, mixtures of 2 mL of acetone containing 100 μ g L⁻¹ of the target analytes as disperser solvent and chloroform as extraction solvent, with different volumes of chloroform).

adjusted to pH 4 before the injection of the disperser–extraction solvent mixture.

3.1.5. Effect of the ionic strength of the supporting aqueous solution. In general terms, the addition of salt reduces the solubility of the organic compounds in water and forces them to pass to the extraction solvent improving the extraction efficiency (salting-out effect). Thus, in order to study this effect, NaCl was added to the supporting aqueous solution at concentration values up to 15% (m/v). For saline contents of 10 to 15% the extraction solvent floated on the aqueous phase as an extremely thin layer, with the subsequent difficulty to collect it. For this reason NaCl contents higher that 7.5% were discarded. Fig. 3 shows that the higher was the ionic strength the lower were the responses. This could be explained by the fact that increasing the saline content of the aqueous phase



Fig. 3 Effect of the ionic strength of the aqueous phase on the DLLME process (extraction conditions: 5 mL of deionized water adjusted at pH 4 and at different ionic strength values, 1940 μ L of acetone containing 100 μ g L $^{-1}$ of the target analytes as disperser solvent mixed with 60 μ L of chloroform as extraction solvent).

significantly increases the volume of the sedimented phase obtained (from 20 to 70 μ L). The obtained results indicate that the dilution becomes more important than the salting-out effect for this case. Therefore, the ionic strength of the supporting aqueous solution was not adjusted in further experiments.

3.2. Study of the experimental variables involved in the leaching procedure

For the determination of the UV filters in sand samples by DLLME, first, it is necessary to leach them from the solid matrix. The leaching solvent volume and vortex mixer time were studied to achieve higher analytical responses. A sand blank sample spiked with 100 ng g^{-1} of the target analytes was employed to carry out this study.

As in the case of DLLME study, the surrogate was not employed in the leaching study since it could be affected in the same or different way as analytes and could lead to wrong conclusions.

3.2.1. Effect of the leaching solvent type. The selection of the leaching solvent is a critical variable since the leaching and the DLLME processes must be compatible. On one hand, it should effectively leach the target analytes to the samples and, on the other hand, behave as a good disperser solvent in the DLLME. For the last reason, acetone was selected as leaching solvent because of the results obtained in 3.1.1.

3.2.2. Effect of the leaching solvent volume. The influence of the leaching solvent volume on the analytical signal was studied. For this purpose, different volumes ranging from 5 to 20 mL of acetone were added to the spiked sand blanks placed into the 50 mL screw cap glass centrifuge tubes. After that, the tubes were vigorously shaken with a vortex mixer for 5 s and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant acetone was collected with a syringe and filtered through 0.45 μ m nylon membrane filters. Then, the acetone–chloroform mixture was prepared and subjected to the DLLME process (see Section 2.3.1). As can be seen in Fig. 4 the analytical signal decreases

5 mL
 10 mL
 15 mL

20 mL

when the volume of acetone is increased. This is due to the dilution of the target analytes in the leached phase. Volumes below 5 mL did not provide satisfactory results, since a high amount of acetone remained soaking the sand sample. Then, the volume of acetone employed in the leaching process in further experiments was 5 mL. Nevertheless, two additional consecutive extractions with 1 mL of acetone each were carried out in order to increase the extraction efficiency (see Section 3.4).

3.2.3. Effect of the vortex mixer agitation time. The vortex mixer agitation time was studied up to 60 s. The results are shown in Fig. 5. As can be seen, shaking times longer than 20 s did not provide better responses. Therefore, 20 s was selected for further experiments.

Besides, it is worth remarking that direct evaporation of the leaching solvent after the leaching of the analytes from the sand sample instead of carrying out the DLLME process was tested. The residue obtained after the evaporation was redissolved in a low volume of chloroform ($50 \ \mu$ L) and injected into the GC-MS system. Although this methodology is simpler, worse results were achieved since the analytical signals observed for the analytes were considerably lower than those obtained when the DLLME process was carried out. It could be attributed to losses during the evaporation or to the adsorption into the walls of the evaporation tube. Moreover, it should be emphasized that an additional clean-up is achieved by DLLME.

3.3. Use of surrogate

1.0 E+9

8.0 E+8

6.0 E+8

4.0 E+8

2.0 E+8

0.0 E+0

ES HS

Area (counts*min/105)

In order to reduce the variability of the measurements, especially caused by the GC injection and the handling of low volumes in the DLLME process, the use of deuterated benzophenone, *i.e.*, benzophenone- d_{10} (BZ- d_{10}), as surrogate was considered. Thus, A_i/A_{sur} (where A_i is the peak area of the target analyte and A_{sur} that of the surrogate) was used as a response function for quantification purposes. BZ- d_{10} was selected for various reasons: (1) it is extractable in chloroform by the DLLME



Fig. 5 Effect of the vortex mixer agitation time on the analytical signal (leaching conditions: 10 g of sand blank spiked with the target analytes r at 100 μg L⁻¹, 5 mL of acetone and different times of vortex mixer agitation).

IMC MBC BZ3 EMC EDP

1.0E+9

8.0E+8

6.0E+8

4.0E+8

2.0E+8

Area (counts*min/105)

Paper

□ 0 s □ 5 s □ 20 s

■ 40 s

■ 60 s

proposed method; (2) its volatility is suitable to be measured by GC; (3) as it is a deuterated compound, its possible presence in the environmental samples is nil, in contrast to its non-deuterated homologous; and (4) it does not present ionisable functional groups in its structure, and thus, its extraction is not influenced by pH. Thus internal calibration was used instead of external calibration.

3.4. Study of matrix effects and leaching efficiency

In order to evaluate matrix effects, the following experiments were performed by triplicate: on one hand, a dried sand blank was subjected to the leaching process. After centrifugation, 2 mL of the supernatant were spiked with the target analytes at 200 ng mL⁻¹ and the surrogate at 100 ng mL⁻¹; on the other hand, 2 mL of an acetone standard solution containing the analytes and surrogate at the same concentration as the abovementioned solution was also prepared. Both solutions were subjected to the DLLME and measured in the GC-MS system. The obtained recoveries were 80 ± 12 , 94 ± 7 , 86 ± 11 , 92 ± 6 , 106 ± 15 , 82 ± 9 , 84 ± 12 and $95 \pm 12\%$ for ES, HS, IMC, MBC, BZ3, EMC, EDP and OCR, respectively. These results show that matrix effects caused by the sand sample are negligible.

In order to evaluate the leaching efficiency, the following experiments were performed in triplicate: on one hand, a dried sand blank was spiked with the target analytes at 100 ng g^{-1} , and subjected to the leaching process. After centrifugation, 2 mL of the supernatant were collected and spiked with the surrogate at 100 ng mL⁻¹. On the other hand, the same dried sand blank was subjected to the leaching process, and after centrifugation, 2 mL of the supernatant were spiked with the target analytes at 200 ng mL⁻¹, in order to simulate 100% leaching efficiency, and then with the surrogate at 100 ng mL⁻¹. All these solutions were subjected to the DLLME and measured in the GC-MS system. The leaching efficiencies obtained were below 70%. The experiments were repeated by performing two additional consecutive extractions with 1 mL of acetone each. The results showed that the extraction efficiency increased, but not quantitatively, since the target analytes partially remained in the acetone soaking the sand sample. Then, an additional experiment was carried out in the same way on a dried sand blank spiked with the target analytes at 100 ng g^{-1} but also with the surrogate at 50 ng g^{-1} , and then subjected to the leaching process. After centrifugation, 2 mL of the supernatant were collected and subjected to the DLLME process. The results revealed quantitative apparent extraction efficiencies for all the target compounds (i.e., 105 \pm 14, 96 \pm 9, 104 \pm 10, 84 \pm 9, 87 \pm 4, 96 \pm 14, 100 \pm 14 and 104 \pm 14% for ES, HS, IMC, MBC, BZ3, EMC, EDP and OCR, respectively) if the surrogate was added before the leaching process. These results show that the losses during the leaching process, presumably due to the volume of acetone cannot be totally recovered, are corrected with the use of the surrogate.

Based on these both experiments, it can be concluded that internal calibration, using standard solutions of the target compounds and surrogate in acetone can be used. In the case of samples, they need to be spiked with the surrogate before the leaching and DLLME processes.

3.5. Study of the drying temperature

In order to remove the water in the beach sand samples, which could affect the leaching and/or the DLLME processes, they must be dried. However, this could result in analyte losses due to their volatilization and/or degradation. In this sense, the drying temperature was studied. Preliminary studies showed that several hours at around 100 °C were needed to dry the samples. Therefore, in duplicate, a dried sand blank sample was spiked with 100 ng g^{-1} of the target analytes using an acetone standard solution. It was homogenized and left to evaporate at room temperature. Then, it was divided into three portions; one of them was left overnight at room temperature whereas the other two were left at 60 °C and 100 °C, respectively. Later, they were subjected to the proposed method. The results (Fig. 6) show that losses were significant at 100 °C, whereas they were negligible at 60 °C. Thus, the samples were dried at this temperature.

3.6. Analytical figures of merit of the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method

The quality parameters of the proposed method, such as enrichment factor, linearity, method limits of detection (MLOD) and quantification (MLOQ), and intra- and inter-day precision, were evaluated under the final optimized conditions. The results are summarized in Table 3.

The enrichment factors (EF) obtained for the DLLME process (defined as $\text{EF} = C_{\text{sed}}/C_0$, where C_{sed} is the concentration of the target compound in the organic sedimented phase and C_0 is the initial concentration of this compound, in this case, in the disperser solvent) ranged from 8.2 ± 0.7 (OCR) to 50 ± 4 (BZ3) (Table 3). The maximum EF value that could be obtained, corresponding to total transfer of the target analytes from the disperser solvent to the extraction solvent, is calculated as V_0/V_{sed} , where V_0 is the disperser solvent volume and V_{sed} the sedimented phase volume. In the present work, V_0 corresponds to 2 mL and the V_{sed} obtained was around 25 µL. Thus, the



						Precision, RSD^{e} (%)					
						Intra-da	Intra-day		Inter-day		
UV filter	EF^{a}	$Slope^b \pm deviation (ng^{-1} mL)/10^5$	Regression coefficient ^b (r^2)	$MLOD^{c}$ (pg g ⁻¹)	$MLOQ^d$ (pg g ⁻¹)	5 ng g ⁻¹	$\begin{array}{c} 20 \\ ng \ g^{-1} \end{array}$	$50 \\ ng g^{-1}$	5 ng g ⁻¹	$\begin{array}{c} 20 \\ ng g^{-1} \end{array}$	$50 \\ \mathrm{ng}\mathrm{g}^{-1}$
ES	25 ± 2	4900 ± 200	0.995	38 ± 5	130 ± 20	14	8	6	16	8	7
HS	19 ± 1	4000 ± 100	0.997	53 ± 6	180 ± 20	13	9	5	15	9	8
IMC	38 ± 3	6100 ± 200	0.998	41 ± 5	140 ± 20	11	6	4	14	7	6
MBC	42 ± 2	1140 ± 70	0.997	29 ± 2	96 ± 8	10	8	5	13	8	7
BZ3	50 ± 4	2000 ± 100	0.997	41 ± 5	140 ± 20	11	5	4	11	10	7
EMC	21 ± 2	9200 ± 500	0.9991	18 ± 1	61 ± 5	9	7	8	12	9	9
EDP	31 ± 3	8100 ± 500	0.998	46 ± 9	150 ± 30	7	7	5	15	12	8
OCR	$\textbf{8.2}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	1700 ± 100	0.997	35 ± 3	117 ± 9	7	7	7	13	11	10

Table 3 Main analytical parameters of the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method

^{*a*} EF: enrichment factor, as the mean of three replicates. ^{*b*} Working range: 10–50 ng mL⁻¹. Number of calibration points: 6. ^{*c*} MLOD: method limit of detection, calculated as 3 times the signal-to-noise ratio. ^{*d*} MLOQ: method limit of quantification, calculated as 10 times the signal-to-noise ratio. ^{*e*} Relative standard deviation (RSD); five replicate analysis of spiked sand blank at different concentrations of the target analyses during the same working session (intra-day precision) or in different working session (intra-day precision).

maximum EF value that could be obtained in the present method corresponds to values around 80. Although the values obtained for some of the target compounds are relatively low, especially for OCR, it should not be forgotten that also an additional clean-up is achieved when the DLLME is performed.

The linearity was studied by measuring standard solutions in acetone containing the surrogate at 40 ng mL⁻¹, which were subjected to the DLLME process. A solution of the surrogate in acetone at 40 ng mL⁻¹ was also analyzed as blank. Calibration curves were plotted using the ratio of the peak area of each target analyte to the surrogate (A_i/A_S) *versus* the analyte concentration. The results indicated that the linearity reached at least 1000 ng mL⁻¹ for all the target compounds. However, due to the low concentration levels expected for the target analytes, the calibration range was set from 10 to 50 ng mL⁻¹. The calibration parameters are shown in Table 3 and reveal a high level of linearity in all cases.

The method limits of detection (MLOD) and quantification (MLOQ) of the target analytes are also shown in Table 3. As can be seen, the MLOD and MLOQ values were found to be at the pg g⁻¹ level ranging from 18 ± 1 to 53 ± 6 pg g⁻¹ and from 61 ± 5 to 180 ± 20 pg g⁻¹, respectively, which shows that the proposed method is suitable to determine these compounds at trace levels.

The precision of the method was evaluated applying the proposed method to a sand blank spiked at three concentration levels of the target analytes (5, 20 and 50 ng g^{-1}) and the surrogate at 20 ng g^{-1} , during the same working session (intraday precision) or in different working sessions (inter-day precision). The results, expressed as the relative standard deviation (RSD) of five measurements, are shown in Table 3 and reveal that good precision was achieved for all the target analytes.

3.7. Application of the proposed method to the analysis of real samples

Four beach sand samples collected in the summer season were analyzed using the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method.

The results are shown in Table 4. As can be seen, all the samples analyzed contained appreciable amounts of several of the UV filters under study. Specifically, the samples with higher content of UV filters (concentration and type) were Sample 1 (Malvarrosa beach) and Sample 4 (Los ingleses beach) in accordance with the fact that these beaches are more crowded than the other two. Moreover, ES and OCR are the most abundant UV filters in beach sediment samples since these compounds are widely employed in sunscreen cream formulations nowadays.

However, it should be noted that the concentration of UV filters found in these environmental samples could be highly variable as it depends on the people concourse, the number of users of sunscreen products, the water tide and the sampling date, among other factors.

Nevertheless, the data obtained by this method, jointly to those obtained by those methods focused in the analysis of water samples, could aid to evaluate the impact of the UV filters on the marine ecosystem,³⁶ thus obtaining important conclusions from an environmental standpoint.

 Table 4
 UV filters content found in beach sand samples after applying the proposed DLLME-GC-MS method

	Concentration (ng g ⁻¹)						
UV filter	Sample 1 ^{<i>a</i>}	Sample 2 ^b	Sample 3 ^c	Sample 4 ^d			
ES	5.3 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.5	12 ± 1			
HS	1.8 ± 0.2	1.06 ± 0.04	<loq< td=""><td>4.9 ± 0.7</td></loq<>	4.9 ± 0.7			
IMC	1.3 ± 0.3	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td>1.2 ± 0.3</td></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""><td>1.2 ± 0.3</td></loq<>	1.2 ± 0.3			
MBC	0.9 ± 0.1	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td>2.0 ± 0.4</td></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""><td>2.0 ± 0.4</td></loq<>	2.0 ± 0.4			
BZ3	1.0 ± 0.1	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""></loq<></td></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""></loq<>			
EMC	2.1 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 0.2	<loq< td=""><td>10 ± 1</td></loq<>	10 ± 1			
EDP	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""></loq<></td></loq<></td></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""></loq<></td></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""><td><loq< td=""></loq<></td></loq<>	<loq< td=""></loq<>			
OCR	8 ± 1	1.7 ± 0.4	5.2 ± 0.9	25 ± 3			

^a Sample 1: Malvarrosa beach (Valencia, Spain). ^b Sample 2: Pinedo beach (Valencia, Spain). ^c Sample 3: Patacona beach (Valencia, Spain). ^d Sample 4: Los ingleses beach (Gran Canaria Island, Spain).

Paper

4. Conclusions

A sensitive analytical method based on vortex-assisted leaching followed by DLLME and GC-MS determination is proposed to determine eight fat-soluble UV filters at trace levels in beach sand samples.

The study of the matrix effects and the leaching efficiency reveals that internal calibration using standard solutions of the target compounds and surrogate in acetone can be used. The beach sediment samples were spiked with the surrogate and subjected to both the leaching and DLLME processes.

Good analytical features, including limits of detection, sensitivity and intra- and inter-day precision are obtained.

The proposed method can be considered both user and environmentally friendly since although organic solvents are necessary to carry out the extraction process, their amounts have been minimized by the use of the DLLME procedure.

The proposed method was successfully applied to the analysis of four samples of different origin. In all cases, ES and OCR are the UV filters found at higher concentration. This is a reasonable fact taking into account that these are two of the most commonly used UV filters in cosmetic formulations today.

Finally, it should be said that the proposed method can be used from an environmental surveillance standpoint to evaluate the fate of these emerging pollutants.

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