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TOXINS: CHROMATOGRAPHY

See **III /MARINE TOXINS: CHROMATOGRAPHY; NEUROTOXINS: CHROMATOGRAPHY**

TRACE ELEMENTS BY COPRECIPITATION: EXTRACTION

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In separation by precipitation, contamination with other elements by coprecipitation is undesirable. However, since the publication by Bonner and Kahn of a summary on the separation of carrier-free radioactive tracers by coprecipitation in 1951, this technique has found wider application to the separation and preconcentration of trace elements in various kinds of samples, such as natural water, treated wastewater, high purity metals and geological and biological materials.

In modern textbooks, coprecipitation is recommended for separation and preconcentration of a single trace element or a group of trace elements when the concentration is too low to be directly precipitated or the amount is too small to be handled. In general, coprecipitation of trace elements is carried out with inorganic and organic precipitants attaining high degrees of concentration, so that subsequent determinations can be performed by using the precipitate itself.

Mechanism

Depending on the nature of the solid phase produced in a solution and the experimental conditions, coprecipitation occurs by different mechanisms. Although the various types of coprecipitation cannot be distinguished clearly, they may be classified according to the following mechanisms: (i) the formation of mixed crystals and mixed chemical compounds, (ii) surface adsorption and the occlusion and (iii) mechanical inclusion of trace components into the other compounds during crystal formation. However, these processes often proceed concurrently, making the precipitation process quite complicated.

Isomorphous Mixed-Crystal Formation

The processes of coprecipitation by isomorphous mixed-crystal formation have been well studied, and the distribution of trace elements is found to be governed by either the Berthelot-Nernst or the Doerner-Hoskins law.

Berthelot}**Nernst distribution law (homogeneous distribution).** If digestion is continued throughout the precipitation process, equilibrium will be established between the trace elements in the interior of the crystals and the solution, resulting in homogeneous distribution of the trace element in the precipitate. Then, the following equation applies:

$$
\frac{(\text{Trace element})_{\text{ppt}}}{(\text{Carrier})_{\text{ppt}}} = D \frac{(\text{Trace element})_{\text{soln}}}{(\text{Carrier})_{\text{soln}}}
$$

The higher the value of *D*, the higher the enrichment of trace elements.

Doerner}**Hoskins law (logarithmic distribution)** When the ions cannot reach the interior of the crystals, equilibrium will be established between the trace elements in the solution and those on an extremely thin surface layer of the crystals. This results in logarithmic distribution of the impurities, and the following equation is applicable:

$$
\log \frac{T_{\rm o}}{T_{\rm s}} = \lambda \cdot \log \frac{C_{\rm o}}{C_{\rm s}}
$$

where *T* and *C* represent trace element and carrier, subscript o and s denote the concentration in the solution before and after the precipitation, respectively.

In practice, coprecipitation of the trace elements may occur between the above two limiting distribution laws.

Surface Adsorption

The surface of a precipitate is particularly reactive. Ions at the surface of a crystal are incompletely coordinated and hence are free to attract other ions of opposite charge from the solution. The surface adsorption of ions on ionic precipitates has been described by the Paneth–Fajans–Hahn rule which demonstrates that adsorption generally increases with the growing surface area of the crystal and with the decrease in solubility of the compounds of the trace elements which the elements form with oppositely charged ions of the crystal. However, there are many exceptions to this rule. For example, in spite of the low solubility of $PbCl₂$ or $PbI₂$, they do not coprecipitate with $HgCl₂$ or $HgI₂$.

Two other factors, the dissociation constant of the adsorbed compounds and the deformation ability of the ions, are important for adsorption. The smaller the dissociation of the adsorbed electrolyte, the larger the adsorptivity. The adsorptivity also increases with increased deformability of the adsorbed electrolyte. The deformability usually increases with the size of the ion.

Another mechanism of adsorption presented by Pauling is an ion exchange process. When the radius of an ion in the solution is similar to an ion on the surface of the crystal, they are exchangeable with each other. This is more effective when an ion in the solution forms slightly soluble compounds with an ion of opposite charge in the crystals. Thus, lead (II) ions can be adsorbed on the surface of a barium sulfate precipitate even in the absence of excess sulfate ion in the solution, according to the following exchange reactions:

 $BaSO₄(surface) + Pb²⁺ \rightarrow PbSO₄(surface) + Ba²⁺$

Occlusion and Mechanical Inclusion

When an ion adsorbed on a crystal surface from the solution is trapped by subsequent crystal layers, the ion will be occluded in the interior of the precipitate. This situation can be prevented with colloidal precipitates rather than with crystal ones, especially in a rapid precipitation process. For example, freshly precipitated hydroxides or sulfides contain a certain amount of impurities, most of which are released upon ageing of the precipitates. Thus, coprecipitation by occlusion generally gives a poorly reporducible yield of the trace elements to be coprecipitated.

Coprecipitation with Inorganic Precipitants

Coprecipitation of trace elements with inorganic precipitants is usually carried out using colloidal precipitates with a large surface area such as metal hydroxides and sulfides. Among various hydrated oxides, coprecipitation with those of iron(III) and manganese(IV) have been commonly used and are the most studied, but many other hydroxides, such as Al(OH)_{3} , Be(OH)₂, La(OH)₃, Th(OH)₄ and Zr(OH)₄, and mixtures of metal hydroxides, such as $Fe(OH)_{3}$ and $Ti(OH)₄$, have also been employed.

Coprecipitation techniques are commonly used to separate and concentrate trace elements from very dilute solutions, such as natural water. Since the solubilities of the metal hydroxides or sulfides are mainly governed by the pH value of the solution,

Figure 1 Relation between co-precipitation recoveries of metals with iron(III) hydroxide and pH of the solution.

control of pH is essential for an effective coprecipitation of trace metals. **Figure 1** shows coprecipitation yields of some metal ions with iron(III) hydroxide. It can be seen that removal of many metal ions from a solution may be possible at $pH 9-10$. However, it should be noted that the coprecipitation yield is also affected by the amounts of precipitants used, the coexisting salts and the ageing time of precipitation. Since most metals form sparingly soluble hydroxides, coprecipitation by hydrated metal oxides is usually of low selectivity, so that different trace metals are likely to be coprecipitated simultaneously.

Three possible mechanisms relating to the adsorption of the trace metal ion on the hydrated metal oxide surface prior to coprecipitation have been suggested.

The first involves ion exchange between adsorbed hydrogen on the hydrated oxide surface and the trace metal ion *M* in solution according to the equation:

$$
n\overline{\text{SH}} + M^{\text{m} +} \stackrel{k_n}{\rightleftharpoons} \overline{S_n M^{(\text{m} - \text{n}) +}} + n\text{H}^+
$$

where *n* is the number of molecules of the hydrated metal oxide and the surface area per molecule is *S*. *M* represents the metal cation of charge *m*. Then the distribution coefficient D is given by:

$$
D = \frac{[M]_{\text{surface}} \text{(mol kg}^{-1})}{[M]_{\text{solution}} \text{(mol dm}^{-3})} = \frac{K_{\text{n}} S H^{\text{n}}}{(H^+)^{\text{n}}}
$$

By taking logarithms the equation becomes:

$$
log_{10}D = npH + log_{10}(K_n) + nlog_{10}(SH).
$$

The second postulated mechanism involves the chemical sorption of the trace metal ion M^{m+} on the surface of the hydrated metal oxide, followed by the adsorption of hydroxyl ions:

$$
\overline{S} + M^{m+} = SM^{m+}
$$

$$
SM^{m+} + OH^{-} = SMOH^{(m-1)+}
$$

$$
SMOH^{(m-1)+} + OH^{-} = SM(OH)_{2}^{(m-2)+}
$$

The third possible mechanism requires the adsorption of hydrolytic complexes of the trace metal ion, rather than the metal ion itself, on the surface of the hydrated metal oxide:

$$
M^{m+} + nH_2O = M(OH)_{n}^{(m-n)+} + nH^{+}
$$

$$
\overline{S} + M(OH)_{n}^{(m-n)+} = SM(OH)_{n}^{(m-n)+}
$$

Table 1 shows examples of preconcentration of trace elements by coprecipitation with inorganic precipitants.

Coprecipitation with Organic Collectors

Organic collectors are mainly complexing agents which are sparingly soluble in aqueous solution and form complex compounds with the desired metal ions. The mechanisms of coprecipitation of trace elements with organic collectors have been described by Minczewski *et al*. According to them:

Precipitants	Trace elements	Sample, experimental conditions, comments
Hydroxides		
AI(III)	Cr(HI), (VI), Mo, W	Natural waters. Quantitative precipitation: Cr(III) (pH 5-9), Mo (pH 4-5), W (pH 6-8), Cr (VI) (pH 5-6, but it is not quantitative)
	Tb, Th, Tm, Yb, U Th, U	Ce, Eu, La, Lu, Nd, Sm, Hot spring and crater waters. 10 mg AI to 2 dm ³ sample. AI precipitation is carried out at near boiling temperature with 14% NH ₃ solution to reach pH 6.5-7.5 Hot spring and crater lake waters. $Al_2(SO_4)_3$ (25 mg) is added to 1 dm ³ sample.
	Li	pH is adjusted to 7-8 with 14% $NH3$ solution Geothermal waters: pH should be high ($>12.5-13$) and a long mixing time is required. The recovery yield is increased by removal of Ca ions and polymerized silica
Be(II)	As	High purity iron steel. Sample (1 g) is digested with $HNO3$. 5 cm ³ BeSO ₄ (1 mg Be/cm ³) is added in the presence of EDTA (mask matrix elements). As coprecipitates as $BeNH_4AsO_4$ with $Be(OH)_2$. Perfect recovery is obtained be- tween 1.0 and 3.5 mol L^{-1} HCI with relative standard deviation (RSD) of c. 13% for 1.0 μ g g ⁻¹ As. Detection limit is 0.3 μ g g ⁻¹ of solid sample
	P	High purity iron steel. Same procedure as As. Coprecipitation recovery is 98.7%. Arsenic is removed from the solution as AsBr_3 for Mo-blue spectrophoto- metry of P
$Bi(III) + In(III)$	Co, Cu, Fe, Mg, Ni	High purity Ti metal. 0.5 g sample is dissolved in 6 mol L^{-1} HCl (20 cm ³) + HF (0.5 cm ³). Bi(III) and In(III) are added (10 mg and 20 mg, respectively). After addition of 4 cm ³ of H ₂ O ₂ , pH is adjusted to 9.5 with 7.5 mol L ⁻¹ NaOH (pH > 11 for Mg). Ageing time 30-60 min. Perfect recoveries are obtained for all metals. RSD: 0.22%. 0.28%, 2.8%, 0.05% and 0.84%. Detection limit: 0.10, 0.5, 1.8, 0.08, 0.36 μ g g ⁻¹ for Co, Cu, Fe, Mg, Ni, respectively
Fe(III)	Cd, Co, Eu	Seawater. Coprecipitation yield in the radionuclide levels: Cd (85% at pH 9.0, Fe 35 mg dm ⁻³), Co (95% at pH 9.0, Fe 35 mg dm ⁻³), Eu (c. 100% at pH 9.0 Fe 10 mg dm ⁻³ , at pH 6.0-9.0, Fe 35 mg dm ⁻³)
	Mo	Seawater. To 500 cm ³ sample, 9 mol L ⁻¹ H ₂ SO ₄ (1.0 cm ³) and 0.1 mol L ⁻¹ FeCl ₃ (3.0 cm ³) are added. c. 96.5% coprecipitation yield of Mo is obtained at pH 4.0; it decreases with increasing pH value
	Cr(III), (VI)	Urine. Cr(III) is found to be precipitated at pH 10, while Cr(VI) remains in the solution. Cr(VI) is only coprecipitated at 4-7
	Cr(III)	Seawater. 4 cm ³ of 2 mol L^{-1} HCl, 4 mg Fe(III) are added to 2 dm ³ sample, heat to 50–60°C, 60 cm ³ borate buffer (19.07 g borate $+$ 4 g NaOH in 1 dm ³) is added to solution to pH c. 7.5. Recovery for Cr $>$ 99% at concentration 0.4 μ g dm ⁻³ . Precision is \pm 0.02 µg dm ⁻³
	As, Cr, Ge, P, Sb, Se, Te, W	Water sample. Optimum pH ranges are 5-7 for Sb and Se, 5-8 for As and W, 5-10 for Cr, Ge and Te, 6-7 for P. Preconcentration factor is 50 for all except Se, where it is only 5
	Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb, Zn	Natural waters. 2 mg Fe(III) is added to 200 cm ³ sample; pH adjusted to 9 (NaOH). Detection limit is c . 1 μ g dm ⁻³ . ICP-AES is employed
	Se	Seawater, silicates, marine organisms. 20 mg Fe(III) is added to 5 dm ³ seawater, pH is adjusted to 5-6. After 2 h standing, another 20 mg Fe(III) is added to solution, pH to 4–6 with aq. NH ₃ . RSD is 6.0% for 0.5 μ g Se dm ⁻³
	V	Seawater, natural water, biological materials, sediments, rocks. 15 cm ³ 1.0 mol L^{-1} HCl and 30 mg Fe(III) are added to 3 dm ³ seawater; pH is adjusted to 5-6 with aq. NH ₃ . Precipitate is dissolved in 10-20 cm ³ 2 mol L ⁻¹ HCl. Coeffi- cients of variation are 2.8% for seawater, 1.3% for silicate rocks, 2.5% for marine plants. Quantitative recovery is attained for 1.8 μ g V dm ⁻³
	Ag, Cd, Ce, Cr, Cs, Er, Eu, Gd, La, Mn, Rb, Sr, Yb	Low level waste solution. Effect of pH was studied. Sorption of Cs^+ and Rb^+ is not strongly pH-dependent, but coprecipitation is low (20%)
	Zn	Quantitative recoveries are obtained for Ag (pH $>$ 8), Cd, Mn, Zn (pH \sim 10), Cr(III) (pH 9-10), Ce, Er, Eu, Gd, La, Yb (pH \sim 10). Sr (pH 11-11.5, 65%). Freshly precipitated $Fe(OH)_{3}$ can be used for the decontamination of radio- nuclides
	Тe	Hair. Sample $(2-4 g)$ is digested with a mixture of HCl + HClO ₄ , heated to evolving fumes, then boiled with 20% HCI to reduce Te to Te(IV). 5 mg Fe(III) is added, pH is adjusted to 9, and centrifuged. Precipitate is dissolved with 3.3 cm ³ conc. HCl, then diluted to 10 cm ³ . Recovery is $96.2 \pm 2.4\%$ for 0.2 µg Te

Table 1 Coprecipitation of trace elements with inorganic precipitants

Table 1 Continued

(Continued)

Table 1 Continued

- 1. The sparingly soluble organic compound, such as a bulky organic cation, forms an ion pair with the anionic complex.
- 2. An insoluble salt formed between the organic anion and the metal cation is coprecipitated together with the excess of the reagent, e.g. metal-8-quinolinate in excess of 8-hydroxyquinoline.
- 3. A soluble chelate compound of a trace metal can be coprecipitated with the precipitate formed between the excess of the reagent and a bulky different organic reagent cation.
- 4. An inner complex of the metal ion to be separated is coprecipitated with a large excess of the organic reagent such as 1-(2-pyridylazo)-2 naphthol.

Table 2 Coprecipitation of trace elements with organic collectors

Collectors	Trace elements	Samples, experimental conditions, comments
Organic carriers		
α -Benzildioxime (α -BD)	Ni	Seawater. 500 cm ³ samples, 1 mg α -BD, pH \sim 9.5. Ageing time can be minimal. Even 0.2 p.p.b. Ni can be determined
DDTCA (diethyldithio- carbamic acid)	As, Cd, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, Se, Zn	Water samples. Ni, Cu are completely precipitated between pH 1 and 11. Cd, Fe(III), Pb, Zn begin to precipitate at pH 1-2 but complete precipitation is only obtained above pH 4 (pH 5 was used). Complete recovery of As is only obtained at pH 5.0-5.5. For very pure water, metal carrier should be used. Citrate is a powerful masking agent for Fe
	Co, Eu, Mn, Zn	Natural water samples. To 250 cm ³ sample, 20 cm ³ 2% (w/v) NaDDTC solution and 5 cm ³ buffer solution (pH 5) are added. Coprecipitation capacity: 900 μmol L ⁻¹ . Recoveries: Co 97-98%, Eu 88-100%, Mn 85-98%, Zn 82-100%
	Cu, Fe, Hg, Zn	Saline water. To 250 cm ³ sample, 400 mg freshly prepared NaDDTC is added at pH 4.0
$DDTCA + dibenzylidene-$		As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Industrial wastewater, river water. Concentration range 1-50 µg. pH 5.0-5.5
D-sorbitol (DBS)	Pb, Sb, Zn	(acetate buffer). 100 mg NaDDTC, 17 mg DBS as flocculant. 94-100% recov- ery for Mn
Diethylammonium N , N' -DDTC	Cd, Cr, Cu, Hg, Ni, Pb	Drinking, wastewaters. To 500 cm ³ sample is adjusted pH to 5.0-5.5 (acetate buffer), then diethylammonium N, N' -DDTC is added to make 2% . Recovery ranges: Cd 84-94%, Cr 86-102%, Cu 94-106%, Hg 100-108%, Ni 99-110%, Pb 88-92%
DBDTCA (dibenzyldithio- carbamic acid)	As(III), (V), Cd, Fe, Zn	Fresh water. pH 2. 100 cm ³ samples, 10 mg of Na-salt of DBDTCA in methanol added. As(III) coprecipitates but not As(V) which precipitates after reduction to As(III) with KI + $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$. Recovery of As(III) 100% in pH range 1-3 but drops drastically for higher pH. 2-3 mg of DBDTCA is sufficient. High recoveries are obtained for Cd, Fe and quite high (87.5%) for Zn
$DBDTCA +$	Se(IV)	Fresh water and seawater. 500 cm ³ sample is adjusted to pH 2. 10 mg of
phenolphthalein		Na-salt of DBDTCA and 100 mg phenolphthalein in methanol are added. With- out phenolphthalein, recovery is 97% but decreases with ageing time. pH should be $<$ 4. In the presence of phenolphthalein ageing does not reduce the yield
Dithizone	Ag, Bi, Cd, Cu, Hg, Pb, Pd, Zn	Dilute HCI and HNO ₃ solutions. After adjusting acid concentration, 0.1 g ascor- bic acid added to reduce Fe(III), finally dithizone is added. Recoveries depend on the acid concentration. (HCI, M, recovery, %) Bi ($10^{-2} - 5 \times 10^{-2}$, 95), Cd $(<$ 0.002, 95), Cu (< 2, 95), Hg (< 1.5, 95), Pb (< 0.001, 95), Pd (< 1, 95), Zn $(3 \times 10^{-4}, \sim 40)$

(Continued)

Table 2 Continued

- 5. A chelate of the trace metal is adsorbed and coprecipitated with a water-insoluble organic compound. Several metal dithizonates can be coprecipitated with phenolphthalein.
- 6. The metal ions are coprecipitated by means of colloidal-chemical sorption on a mixture of insoluble organic reagents.

Typical examples of the coprecipitation of trace metals with organic collectors are listed in **Table 2**.

See also: **II/Extraction:** Analytical Extractions; Analytical Inorganic Extractions.

Further Reading

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TRIGLYCERIDES

Liquid Chromatography

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Synopsis

High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) has become a useful tool for the analysis of triglycerides from all sources. This article reviews developments for the analysis of molecular species of triglycerides, including stationary phases, mobile phases, sample solvents, detection and identification. It also points out the advantages of silver-ion HPLC and emphasizes the need for stereospecific analysis in the complete determination of triglyceride molecular species because currently this is not possible by reversed-phase HPLC. Finally, the application of HPLC to triglycerides from fats and oils is described.

Introduction

The goal of chromatographic analyses of lipids is the resolution of all classes and molecular species for the purpose of a complete identification and characterization of all the components of a fat or an oil. This characterization is not complete without the

determination of their triglyceride (TG) molecular species profile. Once the fatty acid composition of a determined fat or oil is clear, the knowledge of how these fatty acids are distributed within the glycerol molecule is of major interest.

Fractionation of TGs has been carried out by different chromatographic techniques. Argentation thinlayer chromatography (Ag-TLC) has been employed to separate TG fractions, with subsequent analysis of their fatty acid methyl esters. Direct gas chromatography, using fused-silica capillary columns coated with high-temperature polar stationary phases has also been used for this purpose with rather poor results.

The introduction of chemically bonded phases and high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) increased the usefulness of liquid chromatography for the separation of TGs. The first paper dealing with the HPLC of triacylglycerols (TGs) was published in 1975 by Pei *et al*. Simple TGs of medium-chain length were separated on a reversed-phase column. Other workers then began to use HPLC for the analysis of long-chain TGs, on silicic acid columns, reversedphase columns, or both. The first fractionation of natural TGs by HPLC on reversed-phase columns was performed independently in 1977 by Plattner *et al.* and Wada *et al.* The later authors were the first to establish a parameter, termed the partition number (PN; $PN = CN - 2ND$, where CN is the total number of carbons and ND is the number of double bonds in the fatty acids constituting the TG molecule) for