

Acetonitrile Ion Suppression in Atmospheric Pressure Ionization Mass Spectrometry

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Abstract

Efforts to analyze trace levels of cyclic peroxides by liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry gave evidence that acetonitrile suppressed ion formation. Further investigations extended this discovery to ketones, linear peroxides, esters and possibly many other types of compounds including triazole and menadione. Direct ionization suppression caused by acetonitrile was observed for multiple adduct types in both electrospray ionization and atmospheric pressure chemical ionization. The addition of only 2% acetonitrile significantly decreased the sensitivity of analyte response. Efforts to identify the mechanism were made using various nitriles. The ion suppression was reduced by substitution of an acetonitrile hydrogen with an electron-withdrawing group, but was exacerbated by electron-donating or steric groups adjacent to the nitrile. While current theory does not explain this phenomenon, we propose that polar interactions between the various functionalities and the nitrile may be forming neutral aggregates that manifest as ionization suppression.

Introduction

Ionization suppression caused by undetected or unknown impurities, contaminants or solvents has been an ongoing issue for mass spectrometry (MS) users. Whether the issue is caused by one of the numerous possible suppression factors outlined in the literature¹⁻³ or from reaction (either gas or liquid phase) of the analyte with the matrix,⁴ these effects compromise the ability to detect the analyte.¹⁻³ Furthermore, these problems are frequently very difficult to recognize;⁵ ion suppression may easily be misinterpreted by the absence of an unknown component that significantly enhances ionization.⁶ Efforts to minimize these effects have been extensive for electrospray ionization (ESI) and atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI), although APCI typically experiences fewer of these issues.^{2,7} Usually co-eluting background interference from matrix components are the most significant problem and frequently can be addressed by changing the liquid chromatography (LC) conditions to separate undetected suppressors from the analyte.⁵ Solvent suppression, either from aqueous mobile phase modifiers, pH adjustment, or organic solvent selection is typically identified in the initial analysis for the compound of interest.

Addition of some degree of organic solvent is known to improve ionization in atmospheric pressure ionization (API) sources by improving the volatility of the solution. The organic modification can disrupt surface tension of droplets and generally assist in the droplet evaporation process.⁸⁻¹⁰ The two most abundantly used organic solvents in reverse-phase liquid chromatography (RPLC) are methanol (MeOH) and acetonitrile (ACN).^{2,8,11,12} They have low molecular mass, low reactivity, low UV cutoffs (<210 nm), similar dielectric constants, low surface tension, and good solvent strength for RPLC. The aprotic properties of ACN, its better chromatography solvent strength, and its ability to solvate many non-polar analytes make it a common first choice for LC/MS analysis, although methanol may be preferred if protic nature or solvent expense is an issue. However, if chromatographic conditions are not favorable in MeOH, better ionization may be compromised for better peak shape using ACN. In most cases, initial work will show which solvent provides a better MS signal or solvation, and LC development will focus on that solvent.

There are a few previous reports of ionization suppression by ACN. For example, Vieno et al., observing the phenomena with high levels of ACN in the mobile phase, contended that non-polar matrix constituents eluting at the end of the gradient were causing the suppression.⁵ Examining BAY 11-7082, Hewavaitharana

and Shaw accounted for the correlation between increased ACN concentration and decreased $[M+H]^+$ formation asserting that solvent polarity promoted the formation of the dimerized sodium adduct.¹³ Duderstadt showed some significant signal loss using ACN or acetone versus MeOH for polyalkene compounds of various size and functionality using APCI and atmospheric pressure photoionization (APPI) sources with a gradient chromatography system; the extent of this effect was not fully determined or quantified.¹¹ Efforts within our lab to analyze trace levels of cyclic peroxides led to the discovery that ACN appears to be suppressing the formation of H^+ , NH_4^+ and Na^+ adduct ions. Further investigation into this issue led to the discovery that this effect extended to ketones, linear peroxides, esters and possibly many other types of compounds including triazole and menadione. Acetonitrile, present at very low solvent concentrations, caused direct ion suppression for multiple adduct types in both ESI and APCI.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals and Reagents

Caution: The sensitive organic peroxides mentioned below are powerful explosives. Take all necessary precautions when working with these compounds.

General use water, acetonitrile, methanol (all Optima HPLC grade), ammonium acetate (NH_4OAc) (HPLC grade), methyl ethyl ketone and acetone (ACS grade) were from Fisher Chemical. Fluka Analytical LC/MS Ultra CHROMASOLV® acetonitrile and bromoacetonitrile were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. A 1 L solution of aqueous 10 mM NH_4OAc was prepared at neutral pH unless otherwise stated. Hexamethylenetetramine (hexamine), pivalonitrile (trimethylacetonitrile), cyanamide, tetrabutyl ammonium hydroxide (TBAH), cyclopentanone and cyclohexanone were purchased from Acros Organics. 4,4'-Bis(dimethylamino)benzophenone, commonly called Michler's ketone, was supplied by Alfa Aesar. Hydrogen peroxide (HP, 50%) was purchased from Univar. Menadione and diphenyl isophthalate were obtained from MP Biomedical. Hexamethylene triperoxide diamine (HMTD) was produced in house by standard methods reported in previous work.¹⁴ Triacetone triperoxide was synthesized according to the method previously published by our group.¹⁵ Methyl ethyl ketone (MEK) peroxides (MEKPs) and MEK/acetone peroxides (MEK/AP) were produced by the addition of equimolar parts of hydrogen peroxide (50% solution), MEK (or 50/50 MEK/acetone) and sulfuric acid. The non-aqueous layer was pipetted into a clean test tube and washed with water. The organic layer (mixture of various MEKPs or MEK/APs) was pipetted into a tared vial, weighed and immediately diluted to 50 mg/mL with MeOH. Further dilutions were made as needed.

Instrumentation

Using a Thermo Electron LTQ Orbitrap XL and Exactive mass spectrometer equipped with either APCI or ESI interface, ions were generated and introduced into the ion transfer tube set between 180 to 275 °C (depending on the thermal stability of the compound). Tune conditions for positive ion mode APCI infusion experiments (20 μ L/min flow) were as follows: discharge current, 5000 μ A; N_2 sheath gas, 20 arbitrary units (AU); N_2 auxiliary gas, 10 AU; vaporizer temperature 220-250 °C; ion transfer tube, 14 V; tube lens, 55 V; and skimmer offset, 0 V. ESI conditions were as follows: source voltage, 4200 V; N_2 sheath gas, 15 AU; N_2 auxiliary gas, 2 AU; ion transfer tube, 14 V; tube lens, 85 V; and skimmer offset, 0 V. Mass spectrometer source conditions for flow injection analysis (FIA) were optimized for an aqueous liquid flow of 300 μ L/min. This included increasing the sheath gas to 40 AU (ESI) or 35 AU (APCI) and auxiliary gas to 20 AU (ESI) or 16 AU (APCI) to provide better de-solvation. Minor voltage changes were made at times to improve signal intensity for some compounds. Orbitrap mass resolution was set to 15000 for FIA and 30000 for direct infusion with mass calibrations done as needed using Pierce LTQ ESI positive or negative ion calibration solutions provided by ThermoFisher Scientific. Solvent delivery was performed using a Thermo Electron Accela quaternary pump. Sample injections were performed by a CTC Analytics HTS PAL autosampler directly from either Agilent Technologies amber glass LC vials with PTFE septa or from

Analytical Sales and Service polypropylene 2 mL 96-well plates with pre-slit silicone plate covers. Sample preparation was done directly in the aforementioned vials or plates. Additional sample injections using identical solvent and sample delivery were performed on a Thermo Electron Quantiva triple quadrupole mass spectrometer equipped with a heated electrospray ionization (HESI) source. Conditions for HESI analysis were: positive ion spray voltage 4200 V; sheath gas 40 AU; auxiliary gas 12 AU; sweep gas 1 AU; ion transfer tube 220 °C; and vaporizer temperature was 200 °C. Ion transfer tube and vaporizer temperatures were 325 °C and 333 °C, respectively for 1, 2, 4-triazole analysis. Data collection and analysis was performed with Thermo Xcalibur software version 2.2, SP 1.48.

Methods

TATP analysis

Using the LC vials, 7 solutions of 1000 µL were made at concentrations of ACN/MeOH/aqueous 10 mM NH₄OAc of 50/0/50, 40/10/50, 30/20/50, 20/30/50, 10/40/50, 5/45/50 and 0/50/50. A solution of TATP (20 µL of 1 mg/mL in ACN) was placed into each vial (final concentration of 20 µg/mL, neglecting the addition of 2% ACN). Samples were individually infused onto the LTQ Orbitrap. Initial results suggested that the 2% ACN should not be neglected and a new 1 mg/mL standard solution was created using MeOH. An eighth vial was added to include a 2/48/50 solution ratio and 10 µL of standard was added to each vial (neglecting the 1% addition of MeOH). These samples were re-infused and used to develop the FIA system.

Flow Injection Analysis (FIA)

An adequate number of scans (>10) across the peak and minimal mixing with the flow were required for this system. The system was acquiring full scan data (spanning 350 m/z) at approximately 110 scans per minute for the LTQ Orbitrap (the slowest scanning of the 3 instruments used). Assuming the liquid was non-compressible, tubing length (from injector to detector) and particularly the inner diameter (ID) were minimized using Poiseuille's law to keep viscosity differences in the sample plug and mobile phase negligible.¹⁶ The system was optimized using a constant flow of 10 mM NH₄OAc in pump channel B at 300 µL/min flow to deliver sample volumes of 20 µL from a 20 µL injection loop to the LC/MS source. Wash solvent was exclusively 80/20 water/MeOH. Path length from injection port to source was approximately 0.5 meters using 0.005" ID red PEEK tubing. The auto-sampler was set for manual control, and peak to peak injection times were determined by needle, valve and port wash cycles. Contact closure triggered by the auto-sampler started sample acquisition. In order to avoid data loss from the slight delay of analysis start compared to the speed in which the first sample reached the source, the first injection of each run was blank water. Each analysis allowed triplicate injections for each solution with approximately 1.5 minutes between injections. Some solvents or analytes (e.g. diphenyl isophthalate) were not compatible with the 100% aqueous environment of the mobile phase, so conditions were modified to run with a binary mixture of 50/50 10 mM NH₄OAc/MeOH. Extracted ion chromatograms (XIC) were integrated using the Genesis peak detection algorithm in Thermo Xcalibur Qual Browser.

HMTD analysis

Since HMTD is poorly soluble in MeOH (but very soluble in ACN), to create an ACN-free solution, a dilute solution of HMTD (1 mg/mL) in MeOH was made. This solution was almost imperceptibly cloudy, indicative of a very fine suspension. Prior to removing any sample, the standard solution was quickly vortex-mixed. Injections were made with each final concentration of 10 µg/mL (HMTD was fully solvated at this concentration).

MEKP and MEK/AP analysis

Immediately following MEKP or MEK/AP synthesis, material was pipetted into a tared vial and dissolved in MeOH to a volume of 50 mg/mL and 10 mg/mL, respectively. Positive results for impact sensitivity confirmed the presence of the desired materials. Samples were produced at 10 and 1 µg/mL to assure that the observed results were not a concentration dependent effect.

Alternate nitrile solvents

Cyanamide (a white powder with aqueous solubility of 850 mg/mL) was dissolved in water to 786 mg/mL (comparable to the density of ACN). Samples were produced in a constant 20% MeOH while 10 mM NH₄OAc volume was altered to accommodate the increasing volume of cyanamide from 0-50%. Trimethylacetone and bromoacetonitrile were immiscible in water; therefore, the 10 mM NH₄OAc was replaced with MeOH for these experiments (nitrile/MeOH going from 0/100 to 50/50). This was duplicated with ACN to assure the effect was consistent in a 100% organic environment.

Other analysis

All other compounds analyzed were directly weighed into glass vials and dissolved in MeOH to produce concentrations of standard solutions necessary to add 10 μ L to produce the final concentrations in mixtures. Final sample concentrations were varied as needed for detection. MEK was run at 300 μ g/mL, menadione at 100 μ g/mL and hexamine required only 2 ng/mL. Diphenyl isophthalate was run at 1 μ g/mL and 1, 2, 4-triazole was analyzed at 5 μ g/mL. MEKP analysis was run at 10 and 1 μ g/mL, but the concentration of individual species was unknown since standards do not exist for these materials. Cyclohexanone analysis was performed at a concentration 100 μ g/mL for all experiments unless otherwise stated. For aqueous content analysis, MeOH was added to compensate for volume loss when 10 mM NH₄OAc was reduced from 50%; however, for the 80% aqueous run, the organic ratios were limited so the MeOH/ACN ratio was set at 0/20, 5/15, 10/10 (run 3 times to keep analyses consistent), 15/5, 18/2 and 20/0.

Calibration curves

A solid sample of diphenyl isophthalate was weighed into a glass vial and diluted to 400 μ g/mL in MeOH. From this solution, five, serial 2:1 dilutions were made in MeOH to the concentration of 12.5 μ g/mL. A sample of liquid cyclohexanone was weighed into a glass vial and diluted to 8 mg/mL in MeOH. From this solution, five, serial 2:1 dilutions were made in MeOH to the concentration of 250 μ g/mL. For each compound, these standards were used to prepare calibration curves using 500 μ L 10mM aqueous NH₄OAc, 100 μ L of standard solution, and 400 μ L MeOH. Three additional curves were prepared for each compound by replacing a portion of the MeOH with 20 μ L, 50 μ L, and 100 μ L of ACN (e.g. 20 μ L ACN with 380 μ L MeOH). All samples were analyzed using the FIA system on the TSQ Quantiva. Linear regression was performed using Microsoft Excel version 14.0.4760.1000 (32-bit).

Discussion

TATP is very soluble in ACN yet not solvated by MeOH at concentrations above 38 mg/mL,¹⁷ far above levels being examined in this work. Literature reports the LC/MS analysis of TATP yielding a significant signal for the ammonium adduct [M+NH₄]⁺ of m/z 240 using APCI.¹⁸ Using a solvent of 50/50 (v/v) aqueous 10 mM NH₄OAc and ACN, no signal of TATP or any related adduct could be observed in either APCI or ESI. Since previous work¹⁸ stated that analysis was performed using MeOH, the solvent was changed to 50/50 (v/v) 10 mM NH₄OAc/MeOH. Infusion of this solution into the APCI source immediately yielded a large signal at m/z 240.1442. This anomaly was initially believed to be caused by signal enhancement due to the protic nature of MeOH. Keeping the aqueous portion constant (50% 10 mM NH₄OAc), ACN and MeOH ratios were varied. Rather than a linear increase in signal response corresponding to the increase of MeOH, an exponential increase in response was observed for decreasing ACN levels. Even 2% ACN (the neglected standard volume added to 50/50 NH₄OAc/MeOH) suppressed ionization by as much as 50%. As observed by Annesley for MeOH, it was considered that some trace contamination in the ACN lot might be responsible for this effect.¹⁹ Several lots of Fisher ACN and one lot from Fluka were subsequently tested with identical results.

To determine if the suppression effect of ACN was occurring specifically under APCI conditions, the LC/MS system was switched to ESI. Subsequent infusion experiments showed that the effect persisted with nearly identical results. In order to effectively quantify these results, a FIA method was developed to measure peak areas of analytes in specific solvent ratios. The required system had to carry the sample to the

source interface with minimal mixing of the mobile phase. While this would require a high flow rate, enough scans across the peak had to be obtained for statistical significance. Sample injection volume and flow rate were optimized for this analysis and an example FIA of TATP in ESI on the LTQ Orbitrap can be seen in Figure 1.

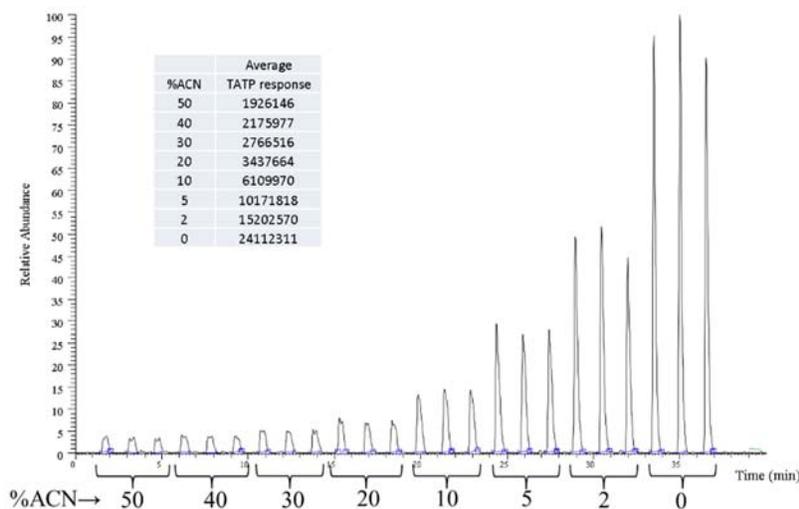


Figure 1. FIA XIC of TATP $[M+NH_4]^+$ response in ESI with decreasing ACN. Inset shows the average integrated area response of 3 injections at each concentration.

Previous work with the cyclic peroxide, HMTD showed very little response in ESI, so analysis was performed in APCI. Since MeOH showed reactivity toward HMTD in the APCI source, ACN had been chosen as the solvent for subsequent APCI analyses.⁴ With this work still being in an area of active investigation in our lab, HMTD was examined in the same fashion as described for TATP above. With APCI or ESI, the HMTD signal was significantly more intense when no ACN was present. Irrespective of the ion source, HMTD showed as much as 47% signal suppression with as little as 2% ACN present in the solvent (Figures 2 and 3). With the solubility of HMTD being much greater in ACN, this precludes any notion that the compounds analyzed were simply more soluble in MeOH compared to ACN. Hexamine, the starting material for HMTD synthesis, was also analyzed by this method with no suppression by ACN observed (Figure 3).

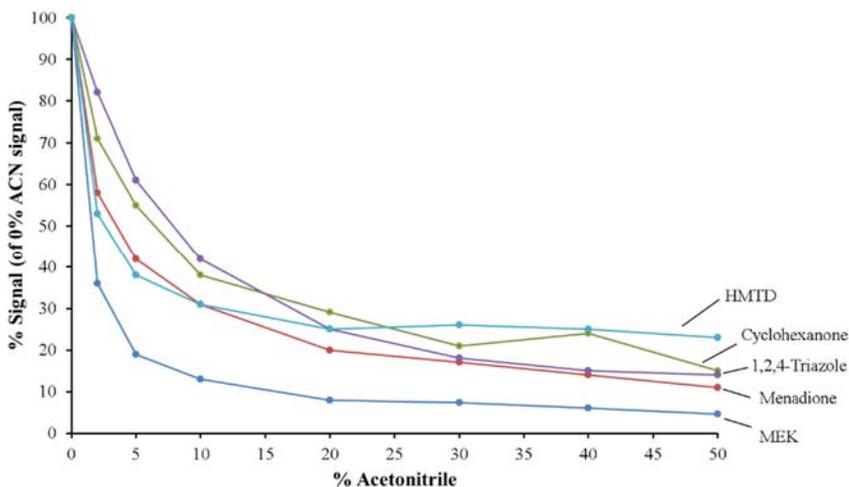


Figure 2. FIA results comparing $[M+H]^+$ relative signal intensity vs. %ACN for 5 compounds in APCI.

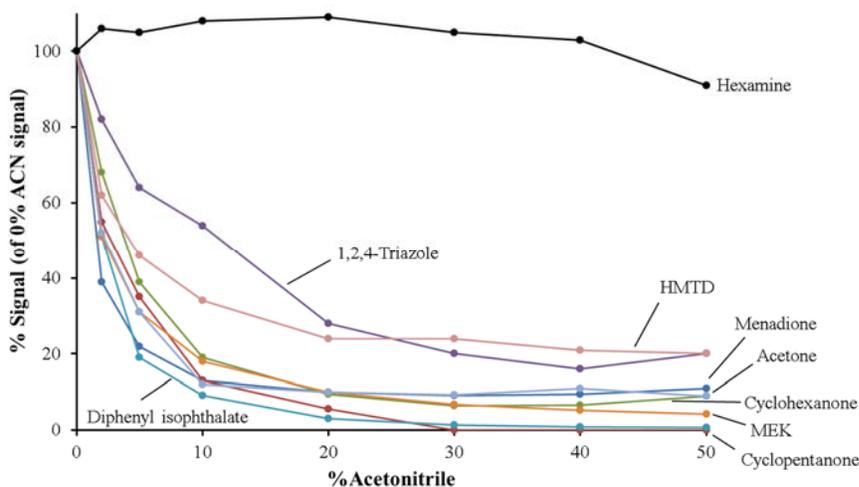


Figure 3. FIA results comparing $[M+H]^+$ relative signal intensity vs. %ACN for 9 compounds in ESI.

With two major cyclic peroxides exhibiting the suppression effect of ACN, we examined MEKPs in ACN. While TATP is the favored, aqueous-insoluble product of the reaction of acetone and HP, a similar synthetic route using MEK and HP produces a liquid mixture of linear dihydroperoxy peroxides (DHP), hydroxyhydroperoxy peroxides (HHP), dihydroxy peroxides (DH) and cyclic peroxides (CP) containing one, two, three and four MEK units. Dissolving freshly made MEKP product mixtures in MeOH for subsequent analysis provided a substantial amount of data in one run. While the moderately sized ($300 < MW < 400$ Da) MEKP products were only minimally affected by the presence of ACN, products over MW 400 Da (DHP4) showed no effect at all. However, some of the smaller ($< MW 300$ Da) MEKP products were significantly affected. Figure 4 illustrates the dramatic effect of ACN suppression on DHP2 (previously undetected in our lab) by comparing an injection with ACN present against one without ACN. Data for a 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ solution is presented since the signal was completely lost for some MEKPs in a 1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ solution with merely 10% ACN present. All peroxides were detected as adduct ions of either NH_4^+ or Na^+ ; with the exception of HMTD (only the $[M+H]^+$ observed). The starting materials, MEK and acetone, both showed the ACN suppression effect as well (Figures 3 and 5). Figure 5 shows the diminishing signal of $[M+H]^+$ and $[M+\text{NH}_4]^+$ ions in both ESI and APCI for MEK with increasing ACN concentration. Analysis of MEKP in

the presence of ACN using the TSQ Quantiva with the HESI source (vaporizer temperature at 200°C) exhibited an even greater suppression effect than had been observed for the ESI source. This was particularly true for the CP3 and DHP3 products that appeared minimally affected under ESI conditions. Figure 6 shows the relative loss for the $[M+NH_4]^+$ ions of the peroxide compounds in the ESI source.

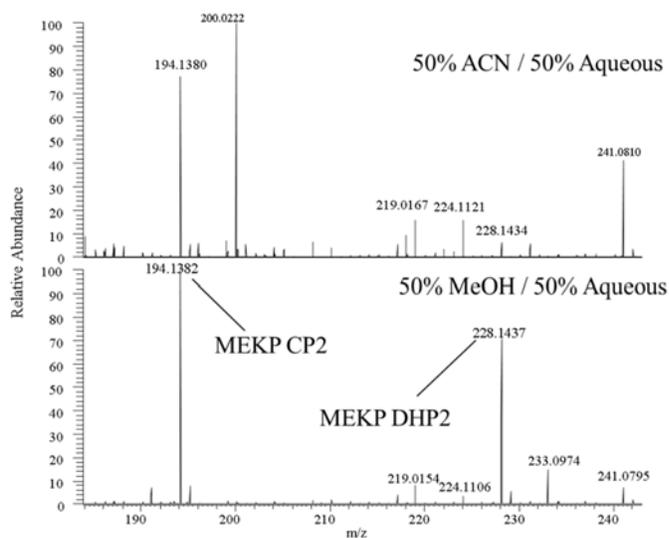


Figure 4. Spectrum for MEKP CP2 (m/z 194.1382, Δ ppm 2.58) and MEKP DHP2 (m/z 228.1437, Δ ppm 2.19) at the same concentration of MEKP (10 μ g/mL) with 50% ACN (top) vs 0% ACN (bottom).

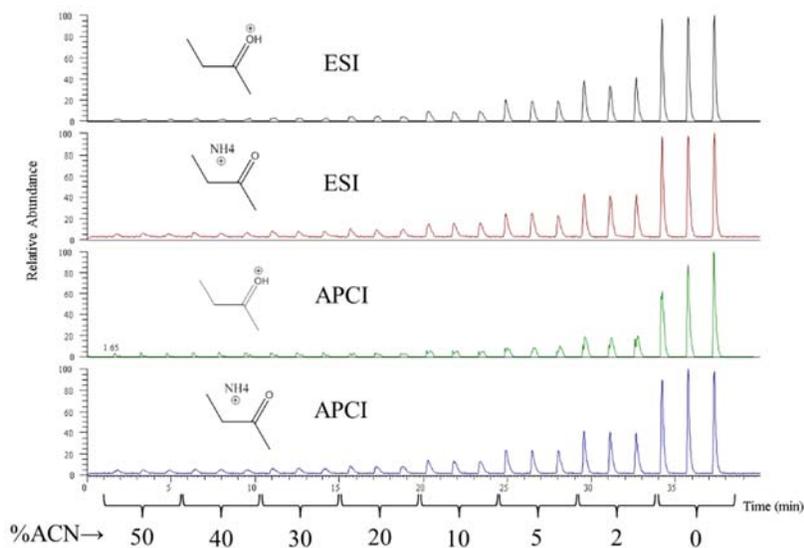


Figure 5. FIA XIC of MEK $[M+NH_4]^+$ and $[M+H]^+$ response in ESI and APCI with decreasing ACN.

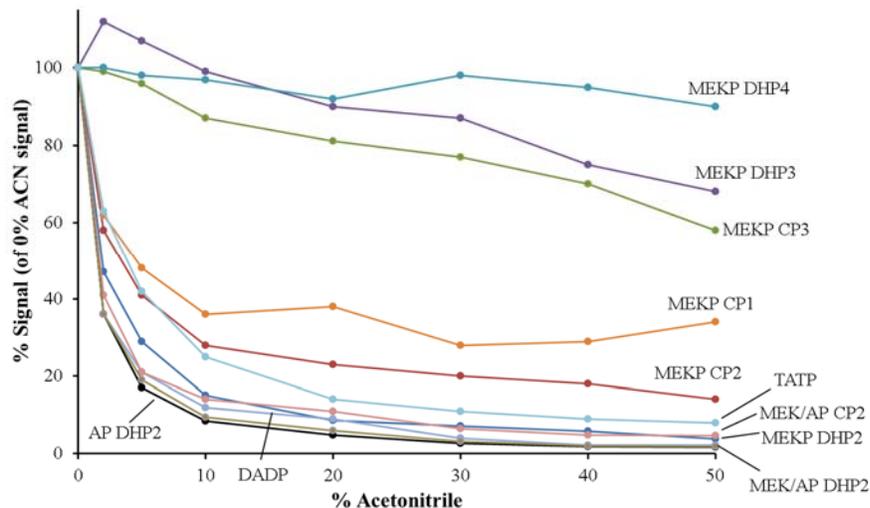


Figure 6. FIA analysis results comparing the $[M+NH_4]^+$ relative signal intensity vs. %ACN for 11 peroxide compounds in the ESI Source.

To investigate the generality of the ACN ionization suppression effect other ketones were examined. Significant ACN ion suppression was observed for acetone, cyclohexanone, cyclopentanone, and diphenyl isophthalate (Figure 3) but not for Michler's ketone. Menadione, a vitamin K analog with significant biological roles, has proven to be a difficult molecule to detect by LC/MS.²⁰⁻²² The FIA procedure showed that a 2% ACN contamination suppressed menadione ionization by as much as 40 to 60% for APCI and ESI, respectively. All the ketones, except Michler's, showed both $[M+NH_4]^+$ and $[M+H]^+$ responses affected by ACN with both ESI and APCI. Additional experiments using cyclohexanone and diphenyl isophthalate with no NH_4OAc added to either the mobile phase or the sample, showed consistent ACN-dependent signal reduction (no $[M+NH_4]^+$ ion was observed for cyclohexanone in APCI under these conditions).

Cyclohexanone was chosen for additional testing since it was readily available, showed a stronger response than the other ketones tested, was safer and more stable than the peroxides, and showed good response for both $[M+H]^+$ and $[M+NH_4]^+$ ions. The signal for cyclohexanone was considerably more intense by APCI, and the concentration had to be lowered from 100 to 1 $\mu g/mL$ or signal saturation occurred. Most additional experiments were conducted under ESI conditions unless otherwise stated. The standard 50% aqueous NH_4OAc portion was changed to 0%, 5%, 20% or 80%, and the remaining percentage was made up with varying ACN/methanol ratios. The signal response was relatively insensitive to the aqueous environment, but highly dependent on the ACN concentration (Figure 7). The instrument response at 0% aqueous is not shown in Figure 7. To further test the effects of the aqueous environment, an acidified aqueous NH_4OAc solution ($\sim pH$ 3 with 0.1% formic acid) was used in both the sample and the mobile phase, which showed ion suppression was still ACN dependent.

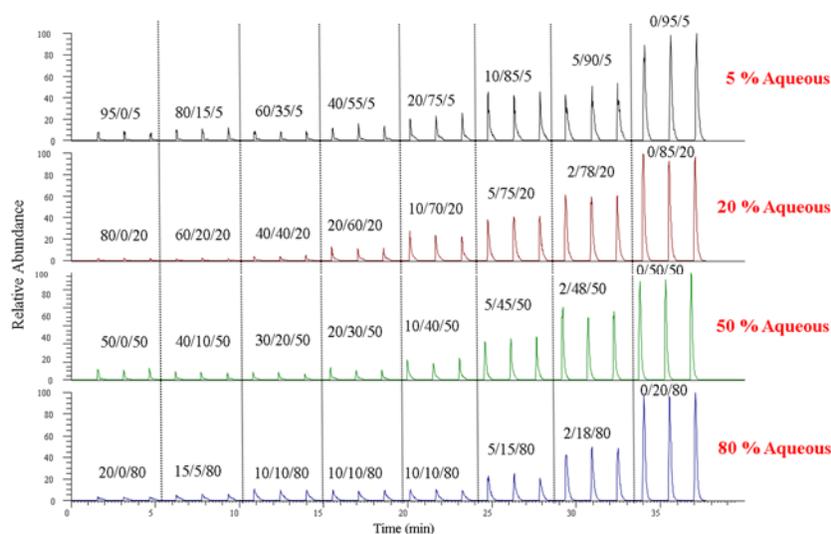


Figure 7. FIA XIC of cyclohexanone $[M+H]^+$ response in ESI with decreasing ACN while varying aqueous content. Concentrations are given as ACN/MeOH/10 mM NH_4OAc located above 3 injections made for each sample. (Note that for 80% aqueous at 10/10/80, three replicates were prepared and each injected 3 times.)

To evaluate the sensitivity effects of ACN ion suppression for the $[M+H]^+$ and $[M+NH_4]^+$ ions, calibration curves were produced and analyzed on the TSQ Quantiva for cyclohexanone and diphenyl isophthalate. Calibration curve slopes (sensitivity) were determined over each compound's dynamic range at four ACN concentrations (0%, 2%, 5% and 10%). The dynamic range with no acetonitrile present was between 25 and 400 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for cyclohexanone and between 1.25 and 20 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for diphenyl isophthalate. The reduction in sensitivity caused by the ACN addition was expressed as the ratio of the slope of each curve to the slope of the curve without ACN. Data for the calibration curves is shown in Table 1, and the curves for cyclohexanone $[M+H]^+$ can be seen in Figure 8 with correlation coefficients and slopes. Single concentration response data (Figure 3), which shows a consistent decrease in ion response as ACN concentration is increased, is mirrored over the entire calibration curve dynamic range from 0 to 10% ACN concentration.

Table 1. Relative (to 0% ACN) sensitivities of cyclohexanone and diphenyl isophthalate (Figure 8).

Compound	Ion	Source	%ACN			
			10	5	2	0
Diphenyl isophthalate	$[M+NH_4]^+$	HESI	19	30	58	100
Diphenyl isophthalate	$[M+H]^+$	HESI	22	37	63	100
Cyclohexanone	$[M+NH_4]^+$	HESI	41	52	69	100
Cyclohexanone	$[M+H]^+$	HESI	36	47	66	100

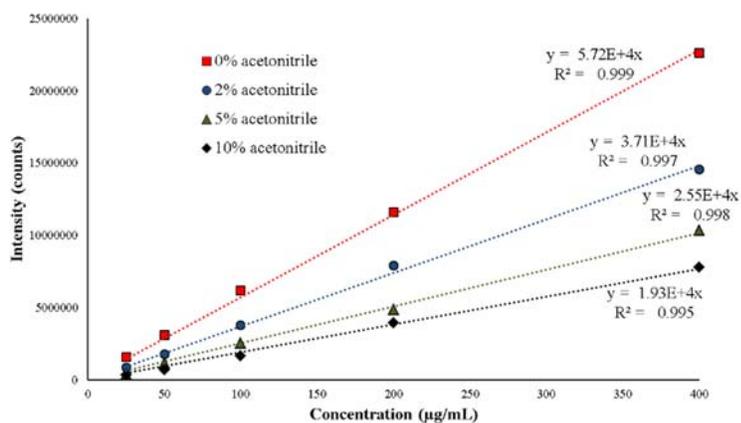


Figure 8. Calibration curves of cyclohexanone $[M+H]^+$ with 0, 2, 5 and 10 % ACN present.

With the small molecules being used for this study, we considered the ion evaporation model for ESI. Both ACN and MeOH have comparable surface tension and relative permittivity making them excellent solvents to overcome the Rayleigh charge condition for solution ions to escape into the gas phase.⁸ It may be that the ACN is preventing the neutral analyte molecules from forming ions prior to ejection from the charged droplets. However, considering that the ion suppression effect of ACN is observed in APCI as well as ESI, it appears that this phenomenon must be occurring in the gas phase. It may be that certain analytes are emitted from the charged droplets as neutral molecules which can then undergo gas phase reactions with other charged reagent molecules similar to APCI. This would suggest that, for some molecules, there is a convergence of theories for APCI and ESI, where ultimately, gas phase conditions prevail prior to charged ions being detected. If the cause is high volatility, it may explain the reason TATP was affected (since it is known to sublime).²³ However, this idea falls short when considering HMTD which has such low vapor pressure that it cannot be accurately measured and must be estimated.²⁴

To explain the source of ion suppression observed for some analytes with ACN, the theory applied in APCI was considered. For the volatilized analyte to be ionized, it must have a higher proton affinity than the reagent molecules.⁷ Table 2 lists the proton affinity (PA) and gas phase basicity (GPB) data for some of the solvents and analytes used.²⁵ Both values for ACN are considerably lower than those of the analytes presented. With PA being defined as the $-\Delta H^\circ(T)$ at temperature (T) for reaction (1), protonation of the tabulated analytes (MH^+) should be favorable over ACN protonation (m/z 42, $ACNH^+$).²⁵ Furthermore, with proton transfer from the analyte to ACN being an endothermic process;¹² it might be possible that the heat from the HESI source could allow this endothermic reaction to occur, but this has yet to be clearly demonstrated. Analytes may be within a temperature range that is thermodynamically insignificant since the perceived temperature of the ion/molecule under these conditions can only be estimated. The PA data for the ACN dimer (m/z 83, $(ACN)_2H^+$) is unknown, but analogous methyl-substituted imidazole and pyrazole compounds suggest this PA value may be considerably higher (900-960 kJ/mol) than the ACN monomer or the analytes.¹² Although minimal $(ACN)_2H^+$ ion was detected in the presence of NH_4OAc , we did detect high levels of m/z 59 ($ACN-NH_4^+$), which decreased in parallel with decreasing levels of ACN. This could explain the reason ammonium adduct levels were affected, but it is unclear why the proton adduct would also be suppressed. With no ammonium present, the levels of ACN dimer were significant. It may be that the dimer or the ammonium adduct of ACN scavenged the positive charge, reducing the formation of analyte ions. However, this does not explain the reason the ammonium adduct was reduced proportionally to the proton adduct. With the understanding that solvated molecules will increase the proton affinity for the analyte,¹² it may be that the analyte-solvent cluster for these compounds increased the proton affinity for

ACN and therefore did not form analyte ions (reaction 2 and 3). The charged, intermediate ACN adducts (in brackets) were not detected in any of the analyses, suggesting that this may not be the case.



Table 2. NIST Gas Phase Basicity (GPB) and Proton Affinity (PA) in kJ/mol.

Compound	GPB	PA
H ₂ O	660	691
MeOH	724.5	754.3
ACN	748	779.2 (787.4)
Acetic acid	752.8	783.7
Cyanamide	774.4	805.6
Pivalonitrile	780.2	810.9
Acetone	782.1	812
Cyclopentanone	794	823.7 (828)
MEK	795.5	827.3
Cyclohexanone	811.2	841
Ammonia	819	853.6
1,2,4-triazole	855.9	886

With PA/GPB failing to fully explain the suppression phenomenon, determining the mechanism of ACN ion suppression was attempted by substituting ACN with pivalonitrile (TMACN), cyanamide or bromoacetonitrile (BrACN). These nitriles were tested against cyclohexanone to determine if they would behave similarly to ACN with regards to ion suppression. Since TMACN and BrACN were immiscible in water, the aqueous portion was replaced with MeOH (also tested against ACN). The electron donating properties of cyanamide were expected to exacerbate the ion suppression, while the electron-withdrawing Br on ACN was expected to improve analyte signal. Both cyanamide and BrACN performed as expected as can be seen in Figure 9. However, it should be noted that cyanamide produced multiple, intense ion clusters up to 4 units with multiple adducts, but none were associated with cyclohexanone. TMACN extensively diminished the analyte signal, consistent with its higher PA compared to other nitriles tested. However, the TMACN proton affinity was still 30 kJ/mol lower than that of cyclohexanone.

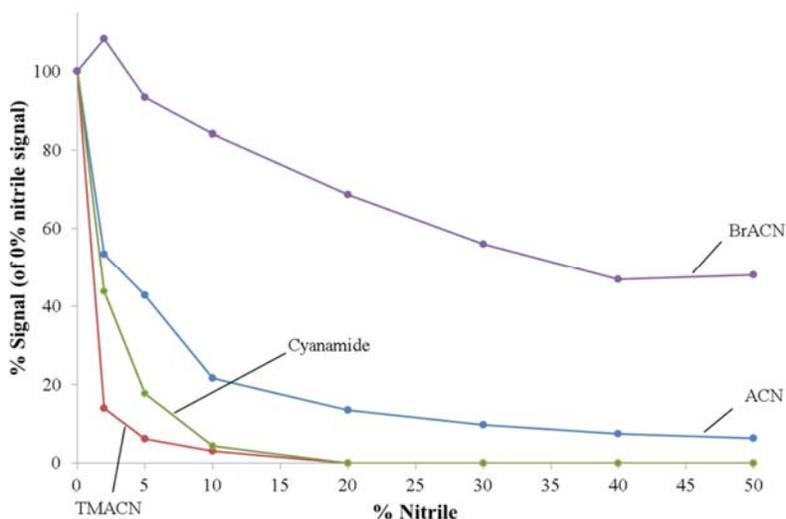


Figure 9. FIA analysis results comparing the cyclohexanone $[M+H]^+$ relative signal intensity vs. %nitrile for 4 different nitrile compounds tested in the ESI Source.

Since the majority of molecules in this study contained carbonyl or peroxide groups, 1, 2, 4-triazole was examined. Although it has a PA of about 100 kJ/mol higher than ACN, it was significantly affected by ACN in all three sources used (APCI, ESI, HESI). We initiated a study of other molecules frequently analyzed in our lab. Nitroarenes and nitrate esters examined in negative ion mode MS exhibited no ion suppression with ACN. However, initial indications for nitramines suggest ACN may be inhibiting ionization and further investigation into this continues. As noted previously, only hexamine, DHP4, and Michler's ketone were completely unaffected by ACN. TBAH, a quaternary ammonium, was tested to determine if ACN could affect a charged species. As expected, the signal for TBAH was not affected. Figure 10 summarizes the species tested, grouping by adducts formed (hydronium and/or ammonium) and the effect of ACN on their ionization.

Nitrile and carbonyl groups have large dipole moments²⁶ with the electron densities primarily around the nitrogen and oxygen. The electron configuration of nitrile can be arranged to mimic a carbonyl, i.e. they become isosteres.²⁷ When polarization occurs with a significant excess of nitrile present (compared to the analyte), a neutral clustering of molecules may form, as shown in Figure 11. Once clustering occurs, the site of analyte ionization is blocked by the functional group attached to the nitrile. Furthermore, the excess electrons of the nitrile are not accessible for charge formation while occupied with the carbonyl. With a neutral aggregate formed, the mass spectrometer has no ability to break these clusters as it would with a charged analyte. Formation of this type of aggregate could explain the occurrence of steric, electron-donating and electron-withdrawing nitriles. Peroxides have small dipole moments in the trans configuration but quite large in the cis configuration.²⁸ Cyclic peroxides are forced into a cis configuration; thus, making them susceptible to acetonitrile suppression. Linear peroxides are free to rotate, though energy input via heat may favor the cis configuration. Large linear peroxides would be forced into self-interaction, allowing some trans configuration, making them available for ionization. The cyclic MEKP CP3 may have been less affected by ACN than TATP due to the steric interaction of the additional methyl group. Heating may alter the molecular conformation of MEKP CP3 and DPH3 allowing nitrile interaction which could explain their increased suppression in the HESI source. All data results including comments on analysis can be found in the Supporting Information Table.

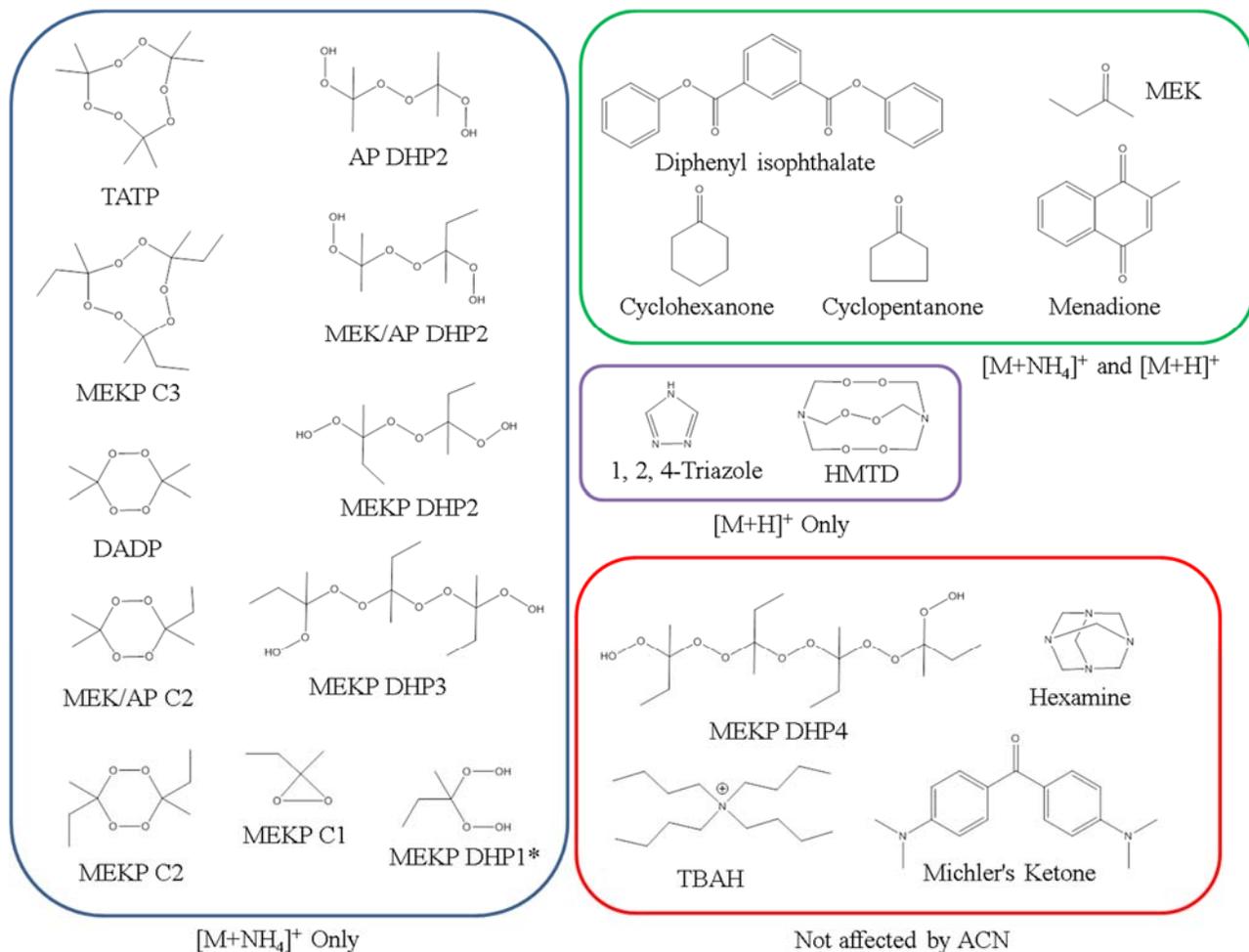


Figure 10: Structures tested for ACN ion suppression (*only one compound produced a sodium adduct).

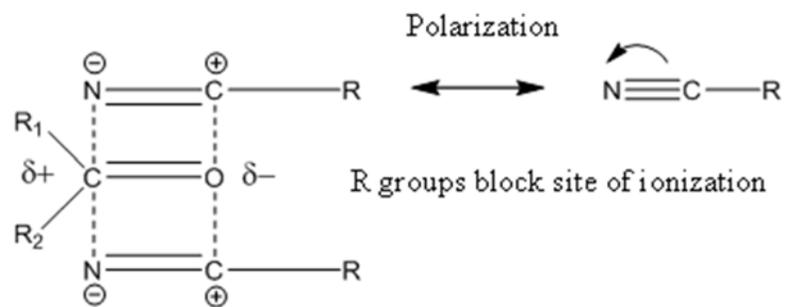


Figure 11. Possible mechanism for neutral aggregate formation with nitriles through polar interaction.

Conclusions

Analyses of organic peroxides, ketones, triazoles and possibly other organic moieties are significantly hindered by the addition of even small amounts of ACN. Thus, the presence of ACN decreases the sensitivity of the MS analysis toward certain compounds which could subsequently limit the dynamic range and limit of detection. With little success we attempted to correlate this effect to ion size and shape, functionality, gas phase energy and solvation. Volatility seems an unlikely suspect since TATP is known to sublime while HMTD has a very low vapor pressure. In the presence of ammonium, formation of ammonium adducts for all the nitriles except BrACN was significant, but the effect extended to proton and sodium adducts of the analytes. Without ammonium present, the ACN dimer was significant, but the effect continued to extend to the ammonium adduct present from trace amounts of NH₄OAc. This has been rigorously tested in multiple mass spectrometers with different ionization sources. Currently accepted mechanisms for ion formation fail to fully explain the phenomenon. At this time, the mechanism is still unclear as it is inconsistent with a proton affinity/gas phase basicity explanation of gas phase ion formation. We have tentatively proposed a polarity aggregation model involving nitriles and carbonyls, peroxides or other polar molecules that may inhibit ionization. An important objective to this work is alerting the LC/MS community to significant ion suppression due to ACN. Chemical analysis/trace detection of peroxides, ketones, and related compounds would be particularly impacted fields.

Associated Content:

Supporting Information

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