

REVIEW ARTICLE

A review of the analysis of tobacco-specific nitrosamines in biological matrices

Kumar A. Shah, and H. Thomas Karnes

Department of Pharmaceutics, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Pharmacy, Richmond, Virginia, USA

Abstract

Tobacco use constitutes a leading cause of mortality and morbidity worldwide. Tobacco-specific nitrosamines (TSNAs) are an important class of biomarkers for tobacco carcinogen uptake. The current review focuses on the issues and developments in analysis of these compounds in human biological matrices. The two most widely used techniques for TSNA bioanalysis are gas chromatography coupled with thermal energy analysis and liquid chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry, employing various sample preparation techniques. The review provides an overview of the tools and techniques currently available for TSNA bioanalysis that will help towards the ultimate goal of understanding the mechanisms of cancer caused by the use of tobacco products. A contrast and comparison of the important aspects of bioanalysis such as sample preparation, compound detection, and throughput is discussed for the thermal energy analysis- and mass spectrometry-based techniques. Complex sample extraction procedures, throughput, and the ability to validate are important issues of concern for the gas chromatography-thermal energy analysis-based methods. On the other hand, addressing ion suppression matrix effects remains an important challenge for hyphenated mass spectrometry-based methods. The review also provides an extensive summary of analytical procedures for various studies measuring tobacco-specific nitrosamines in different biological matrices.

Keywords: Bioanalysis; GC-TEA; LC/MS/MS; sample preparation; tobacco-specific nitrosamines analysis

Abbreviations: CSP, chiral stationary phase; ESI, electrospray ionization; ETS, environmental tobacco smoke; GC, gas chromatography; Gluc, glucuronide; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; iso-NNAC, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-4-(3-pyridyl)butanoic acid; iso-NNAL, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-4-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanol; LC, liquid chromatography; LLOQ, lower limit of quantitation; MIP, molecularly imprinted polymer; MS, mass spectrometry; NAB, N'-nitrosoanabasine; NAT, N'-nitrosoanatabine; NNAL, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanol; NNK, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone; NNN, N'-nitrosoanornicotine; PAH, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon; SD, standard deviation; SFE, supercritical fluid extraction; SPE, solid-phase extraction; TEA, thermal energy analysis; TMS, trimethylsilyl ether; TSNA, tobacco-specific nitrosamine.

Contents

Abstract	305
Introduction.....	306
Biomarkers for human uptake and metabolic activation of tobacco-specific nitrosamines	306
Analytical methodologies in the bioanalysis of tobacco-specific nitrosamines	318
LC/GC combined with thermal energy analysis detection.....	318
LC-ESI-MS/MS.....	321
Challenges and future directions.....	323
Summary and conclusion	323
Acknowledgments.....	324
Declaration of interest.....	324
References.....	324

Address for correspondence: Professor Howard Thomas Karnes, Department of Pharmaceutics, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Pharmacy, 410 N. 12th Street, PO Box 980533, Richmond, VA 23298, USA. Tel.: +1 804 828 3819; Fax: +1 804 828 8359; E-mail: ht Karnes@vcu.edu

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Introduction

Cancer Facts and Figures published by the [American Cancer Society \(2009\)](#) estimates that between the years 2000 to 2004, smoking accounted for loss of more than 5 million years of potential life in men and women combined. Different types of cancers such as cancers of the nasopharynx, nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses, lip, oral cavity, pharynx, larynx, lung, esophagus, pancreas, uterine cervix, kidney, bladder, stomach, along with acute myeloid leukemia have all been associated with smoking ([US Department of Health and Human Services, 2004](#)). Use of smokeless tobacco can also lead to a variety of health ill effects such as precancerous oral lesions, pancreatic and oral cancers, as well as cardiovascular diseases ([Hecht et al., 1986](#); [International Agency for Research on Cancer, 1985](#); [International Agency for Research on Cancer, 2007](#)).

Tobacco smoke contains more than 5000 different chemical compounds ([Rodgman and Perfietti, 2009](#)). Of these, there are more than 16 carcinogens in smokeless tobacco and more than 60 in tobacco smoke ([Hecht, 2003](#)). These carcinogenic compounds belong to a variety of chemical classes, including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), nitrosamines, aromatic amines, aldehydes, phenols, volatile hydrocarbons, nitro compounds, and other organic and inorganic compounds ([Hecht, 1998b](#); [Hofmann et al., 1987, 1995, 2001](#); [International Agency for Research on Cancer, 2002](#); [Swauger et al., 2002](#)). Tobacco and tobacco smoke contain three types of nitrosamine. These include volatile nitrosamines, nitrosamines derived from residues of agricultural chemicals on tobacco, and tobacco-specific nitrosamines (ThSNAs) ([Spiegelhalder and Bartsch, 1996](#)). ThSNAs have emerged as a leading class of carcinogens in tobacco products ([Hecht and Hofmann, 1988](#); [International Agency for Research on Cancer, 2007](#)). Extensive research has indicated the role of ThSNAs in cancer induction by tobacco products ([Hecht, 1998a, 1999](#)). Thus far, seven ThSNAs have been identified in cigarettes ([Djordjevic et al., 1991](#); [Fischer et al., 1989](#); [Hofmann et al., 1994](#); [Thricke et al., 1991, 1993](#)), as well as in smokeless tobacco products in even greater concentrations ([Hofmann et al., 1994, 1995](#); [International Agency for Research on Cancer, 1995](#); [Prokopczyk et al., 1995](#)). These include NNK, NNN, NAB, NAT, NNAL, iso-NNAL, and iso-NNAC. The study of ThSNA uptake will provide very useful insight into the mechanistic and epidemiologic role of these compounds in human cancer, especially because their origin is specific to tobacco. A major challenge in this area is the ability to quantitatively measure the amounts of these compounds and their metabolites in complex biological matrices, as a measure of exposure to these tobacco-specific carcinogens. A significant amount of research investigating in vivo disposition and excretion of ThSNAs in laboratory animals such as rats, hamsters, mice, monkeys, etc., as well as humans has been carried out. Most of these studies use some form of radioactivity measurement to study the extent of metabolite formation in radioactive samples. Radioactivity is usually measured by liquid scintillation counting, autoradiography,

or radioflow detection ([Brittebo and Thjälve, 1980, 1981](#); [Castonguay et al., 1983b, 1984, 1985](#); [Meger et al., 1999](#); [Richter et al., 2009](#)). The extent of ThSNA metabolite formation can vary greatly in animals and humans, as reviewed by [Hecht \(1998a\)](#). For this reason, in the current review, we will restrict our focus on progress and development in the bioanalysis of ThSNA compounds and their metabolites in human tissues.

Biomarkers for human uptake and metabolic activation of tobacco-specific nitrosamines

ThSNA-related biomarkers have been discussed extensively in the literature. An ideal biomarker would provide a measure of the carcinogen dose in people who use tobacco products as well as in nonsmokers exposed to secondhand smoke. Apart from this, it would potentially identify differences and patterns in the uptake, metabolic activation, and detoxification of tobacco carcinogens. These data might ultimately lead to the prediction of the cancer risk that a tobacco user might be susceptible to. Adducts of carcinogenic compounds with DNA might provide a direct relationship to cancer risk as suggested by [Phillips \(1996\)](#), [Bartsch \(1996\)](#), and [Poirier and Weston \(1996\)](#). [Foiles et al. \(1991\)](#) have successfully analyzed ThSNA-DNA adducts in smokers and non-smokers. However, challenges such as the limited availability of sample tissues as well as low levels of their occurrence (10^{-6} to 10^{-8} per normal human bases; [De Bont and van Larebeke, 2004](#)) can often make their quantification extremely difficult and/or impractical. Measuring protein-adducts of ThSNAs has also been proposed as an approach to understanding metabolic activation of these carcinogens. However, results from the studies by [Schafier et al. \(1993\)](#) and [Falter et al. \(1994\)](#) have revealed the absence of any group-specific differences in the concentrations of hemoglobin-ThSNA adducts determined in smokers and non-smokers. High levels of H₁BP (hydroxy-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone)-releasing adducts have been detected in lung, esophagus, and cardia, which are totally independent from the smoking status. It is speculated that these may have other sources in addition to ThSNAs. According to [Zwickenpflug \(2000\)](#) and [Thyroller et al. \(2002\)](#), one possible source could be the minor tobacco alkaloid myosmine, which also occurs in a wide variety of staple foods, vegetables, fruits, and dairy products.

Moreover, highly sensitive techniques such as ^{32}P -post-labeling and immunoassays used in most of the studies involving DNA- and protein-carcinogen adducts measurements can lack chemical specificity. For instance, methylation of DNA can be caused by different chemical reactions. α -Hydroxylation of methylene carbon adjacent to N-nitroso group or α -hydroxylation of the methyl group of NNAL can both form unstable intermediates that can decompose and react with the DNA ([Richter et al., 2009](#)). These differences in biochemical reactions may possibly compromise assay specificity. These difficulties are encountered particularly in the case of ^{32}P -postlabeling as discussed by [Poirier et al. \(2000\)](#), [Phillips \(1996\)](#), and [Wild and Pisani \(1998\)](#). A detailed

metabolic scheme discussing NNK metabolism and DNA adduct formation from NNK, NNN, and NNAL can be found in literature (Hecht, 2008; Hecht and Hofmann, 1988).

Considering the pitfalls that one might encounter in the measurement of DNA and protein adducts, measurement of urinary biomarkers of tobacco carcinogen uptake presents a more practical option (Hecht, 2002). Urine is very easy to obtain in sufficient quantities and this can allow for quantitation of even trace amounts of ThSNA compounds and their metabolites excreted in urine. Although measurement of urinary compounds may not provide the most direct link with the type and risk of a particular cancer, they can provide information on the carcinogen dose and as well as the ability of an individual to activate or detoxify these compounds. Moreover, Hecht et al. (2002) have shown that some of these ThSNA compounds have long terminal half-lives. This, along with the fact that tobacco products are habitually used, provides consistent concentrations of ThSNA compounds for measurement in urine.

Of all the ThSNAs identified, NNK and NNN are the most prevalent strong carcinogens in tobacco products, as documented by Hecht and Hofmann (1988), Spiegelhalder and Bartsch (1996), and Hofmann et al. (1995). Moreover, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (2007) classifies NNK and NNN as the only ThSNAs carcinogenic to humans. Figure 1 shows an overview of NNK and NNN metabolism. It may be argued that measurement of urinary keto and hydroxy acids is more appropriate because these are the end products of the DNA adduct-forming α -hydroxylation pathway of NNK and NNN metabolism. However, as suggested by Hecht (2002), these compounds cannot be used to measure the extent of α -hydroxylation because these are formed from nicotine as well, which is a primary constituent of tobacco products. Recently, nevertheless, Stepanov et al. (2008) have suggested the use of [pyridine- d_4]NNK as a biomarker to measure the deuterium-labeled keto and

hydroxyl acid specifically formed from NNK. Biomarker strategies using stable isotope-labeled compounds can however be challenging.

As depicted in Figure 1, conversion of NNK to NNAL is an important metabolic pathway in humans, with NNAL having similar carcinogenicity as NNK (Castonguay et al., 1983a; Hecht, 1998a). A characteristic feature of NNAL metabolism is the formation of NNAL-Gluc, which is the most important detoxification product of the NNK-NNAL metabolic pathway in humans and animals, as described by Hecht (1998a), Hecht et al. (1993b), and Morse et al. (1990). Additionally, NNAL and its glucuronide have a longer half-life (at least 10–15 days in smokers, and about 40–45 days in users of oral tobacco) when compared with most other urinary metabolites (Hecht, 2003; Hecht et al., 2002; Carmella et al., 2009). Considering all of this, urinary NNAL and NNAL-Gluc have evolved as the most prominently studied ThSNA biomarkers.

In addition to NNAL and NNAL-Gluc, other ThSNAs such as NNN, NAB, and NATh, along with their metabolites, have also been studied. These compounds have been detected and quantified in urine and saliva of tobacco users. More recently, ThSNAs have been quantified in plasma, which is one of the most commonly analyzed biological fluids in clinical studies. The concentration of these xenobiotics at the receptor sites may be often related to the intensity of their pharmacologic and carcinogenic effects. These receptor sites are usually located in the tissue of cells that are richly perfused by plasma. Thus, measurement of plasma levels is probably the most appropriate method to study the pharmacokinetics of these drugs (Shargel and Yu, 1999). To further study the prevalence, etiology, and mechanism of tobacco carcinogenesis, measurement of ThSNAs has been extended to amniotic fluid, cervical mucus, pancreatic juice, and toenails. Information regarding the analysis of ThSNAs along with appropriate references will be discussed further in this review and have been compiled in Tables 1 and 2.

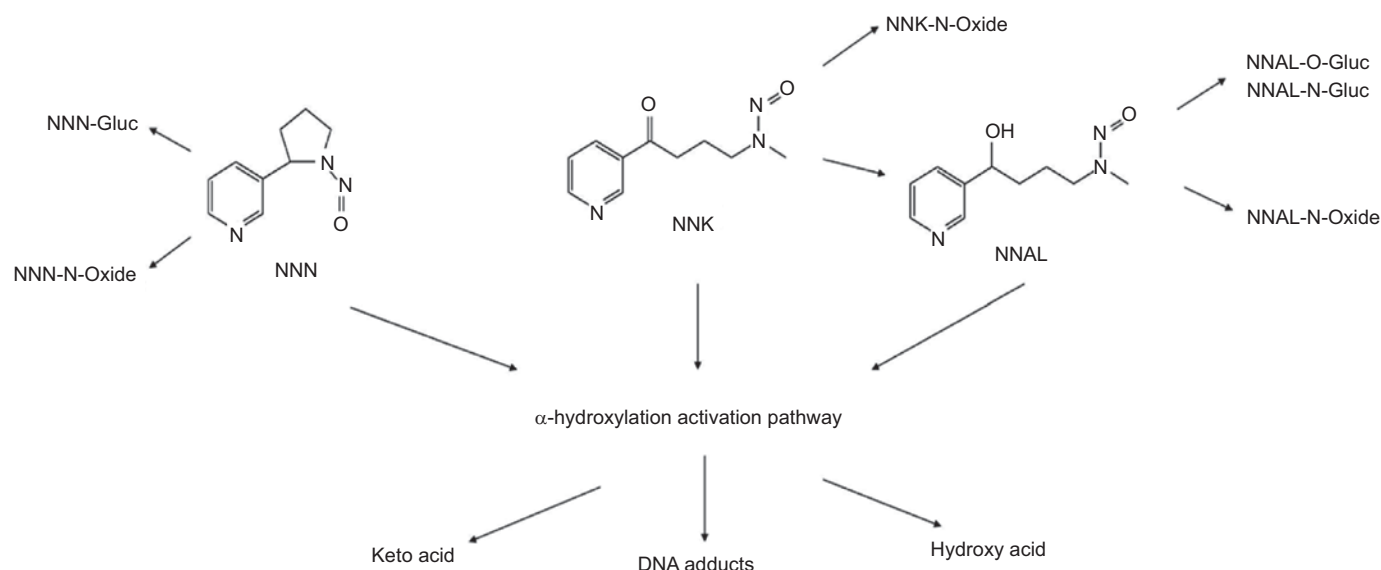


Figure 1. Metabolic scheme for NNN and NNK. (Adapted from Hecht, 2003.)

Table 1. Compilation of studies analyzing ThSNA compounds in biological matrices using nitrosamine-specific ThEA detection and quantification

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNN, NATH, NNK	Snufi dippers (4F)	Saliva	HPLC-ThEA	5.0–125.0 ng/g (NNN); 2.1–201.0 ng/g (NNK); 6.6–147.0 ng/g (NATH)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ~0.8 to 1.6 g saliva collected for analysis. No further assay description provided. 	Hofmann and Adams, 1981
NNN, NATH, NAB, NNK	Snufi dippers	Saliva	GC-ThEA	Levels of ThSNAs measured ranged from 20–890 µg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assay description not provided 	Hofmann et al., 1982
NNN, NATH, NNK	Betel quid chewers	Saliva	GC-ThEA	1.6–59.7 ng/g (NNN); 1.0–51.7 ng/g (NNK); 0.0–2.3 ng/g (NATH)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assay description not provided 	Nair et al., 1985
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	11 Smokers (9F) 7 Nonsmokers	Urine	GC-ThEA	0.23–1.0 µg/24 h (NNAL); 0.57–6.5 µg/24 h (NNAL-Gluc). NNAL not detected in nonsmokers. NNK not detected in urine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 100 ml aliquot size. Purification of extracts using two preparative HPLC steps, followed by derivatization of 2° OH group of NNAL to trimethylsilyl ether, followed by GC-ThEA analysis. Internal standard was [5-³H(NNAL)]. Conversion of NNAL-Gluc to the unconjugated form achieved by incubation with β-glucuronidase enzyme. 	Carmella et al., 1993a
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Nonsmokers exposed to sidestream cigarette smoke (5M)	Urine	GC-ThEA	33.9 ± 20.0 ng/24 h (NNAL + NNAL-Gluc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sample preparation was based on Carmella et al. (1993a) with a modified internal standard (iso-NNAL). 	Hecht et al., 1993a
NNK, NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Sudanese snufi-dippers (7M)	Urine	GC-ThEA	0.39 ± 0.14 nmol/ml NNAL; 0.88 ± 0.5 nmol/ml NNAL-Gluc	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1993a), with minor modifications. 	Murphy et al., 1994
NNAL, NNAL-O-Gluc	Smokers (30M, 31F). Study to investigate intra- and interindividual differences in metabolites of NNK	Urine	GC-ThEA	0.08–7.2 pmol/mg creatinine NNAL. 0.16–19.0 pmol/mg creatinine NNAL-Gluc	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1993a), with minor modifications. 50–100 ml aliquot size. Internal standard was iso-NNAL. Attempts to use normal and reverse-phase SPE instead of HPLC for sample cleanup were unsuccessful. Assay results demonstrated 6 month stability for NNAL and NNAL-Gluc stored at –20°C No significant difference was found in urine collection protocols (e.g. morning sample versus 24-h collection). Detection limit of assay was reported as 1 ng per urine sample. 	Carmella et al., 1995
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Smokers (5M, 6F). Study to investigate the effect of watercress consumption on metabolism of ThSNAs	Urine	GC-ThEA	Average baseline levels of NNAL + NNAL-Gluc were 3.28 ± 1.88 nmol/24 h. Average levels on the days of watercress consumption were 4.21 ± 2.58 nmol/24 h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1995), with minor modifications. 	Hecht et al., 1995

Table 1. continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Non-tobacco users (8M). Nonsmokers but smokeless tobacco users (39M). Study to investigate relations between urinary biomarkers and oral leukoplakia in smokeless tobacco users.	Urine	GC-ThEA	0.02–8.73 pmol/mg creatinine (NNAL); 0.14–30.3 pmol/mg creatinine (NNAL-Gluc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1995), with minor modifications. 	Kresty et al., 1996
NNK-N-Oxide, NNAL-N-Oxide	Smokers (18); Smokeless tobacco users (11)	Urine	i. GC-ThEA ii. LC/ESI-MS/MS for analysis of NNAL-N-Oxide directly in urine (for identity confirmation)	NNK-N-Oxide not detected in urine; Levels of NNAL-N-oxide were 0.06–1.41 pmol/mg creatinine in smokers and 0.02–1.20 pmol/mg creatinine in smokeless tobacco users.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. 20–45 ml aliquot size. Method involved solvent extraction and purification by HPLC to separate NNAL-N-oxide and NNK-N-oxide from endogenous NNAL and NNK. NNAL-N-oxide and NNK-N-oxide being thermally unstable were not amenable to direct GC-ThEA analysis. Thus, they were reduced to free NNAL and NNK respectively using <i>Proteus mirabilis</i>. NNAL and NNK were then analyzed by method suggested by Carmella et al. (1995). iso-NNAL-N-oxide was used as the internal standard ii. For LC-ESI-MS/MS, 500 ml urine aliquot size was used. Following solvent extraction and HPLC purification, the samples were concentrated and analyzed using reverse-phase LC-ESI-MS/MS. 	Carmella et al., 1997
NNK	Smokers (15F), Nonsmokers (10F). Study to identify NNK in cervical mucus.	Cervical mucus	Supercritical fluid extraction followed by: i. GC-ThEA ii. Capillary GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Mean levels of NNK in cervical mucus of smokers 46.9 ± 32.5 ng/g; Mean levels of NNK in cervical mucus of nonsmokers 13.0 ± 9.3 ng/g	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supercritical fluid extraction of cervical mucus (31–615 mg) with the use of carbon dioxide that contained 10% methanol. This was followed by analysis by GC-ThEA and GC-MS/MS. d₃-NNK was used as the internal standard. 	Prokopczyk et al., 1997
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Smokers (13F) Study to investigate levels of NNK metabolites before and after indole-3-carbinol (I3C) treatment.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean difference in NNAL + NNAL-Gluc levels before and after I3C treatment was -0.43 ± 0.16 pmol/mg creatinine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1995). 	Thaioli et al., 1997
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Smokers (34 black and 24 white). Study to investigate differences in NNK metabolites in black and white smokers.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Black smokers: 1.22 ± 1.44 pmol/mg creatinine (NNAL), 4.24 ± 4.56 pmol/mg creatinine (NNAL-Gluc); White smokers: 0.603 ± 0.345 pmol/mg creatinine (NNAL), 3.13 ± 2.44 pmol/mg creatinine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Carmella et al. (1995). 	Richie et al., 1997

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNAL-Gluc	Nonsmokers (5M, 4F). Study to analyze levels of urinary NNAL-Gluc in nonsmokers exposed to environmental tobacco smoke.	Urine	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation).	Mean NNAL-Gluc levels 0.059 ± 0.028 pmol/ml (23 pg/ml urine)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 50 ml aliquot size ■ GC-ThEA Method was based on Carmella et al. (1995) with minor modifications. ■ Use of capillary GC improved sensitivity 20-fold (LOD 4 fmol/ml). ■ iso-NNAL was used as internal standard. 	Parsons et al., 1998
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	27 Subjects (smokers) participating in a smok- ing cessation study	NNAL and NNAL-Gluc in urine, NNK and NNAL in plasma	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Urinary levels: Baseline lev- els— 0.6 ± 0.366 pmol/ml (NNAL), 1.35 ± 0.738 pmol/ml (NNAL-Gluc). 6 weeks after cessation, 7.6% of original NAL + NNAL-Gluc remained. Plasma levels: NNK was not detected in any of the samples. NNAL was detected in CH ₂ Cl ₂ extracts of unhydrolyzed plasma from three of the four smokers ana- lyzed. Levels of NNAL were 0.052, 0.086, and 0.114 pmol/ml plasma. NNAL was not detected in CH ₂ Cl ₂ extracts of RBCs, or in the base or acid hydrolysates of RBC or plasma.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method to determine urinary NNAL and NNAL-Gluc was based on minor modifications of Carmella et al. (1995) and Parsons et al. (1998). ■ For plasma analysis, 5–10-ml blood aliquots were drawn. ■ RBC and plasma were separated. The RBC pel- let was lysed with water, and extracted twice with hexane. The hexane extract was discarded and the aqueous phase was extracted thrice with CH₂Cl₂, and the combined extracts were analyzed for unconjugated NNAL and NNK as described for urine. ■ The plasma phase treated with 0.1 N NaOH, with sonication for 1h at room temperature. After neutralization, it was extracted three times with equal volumes of CH₂Cl₂ and then analyzed for NNAL and NNK as for the urine method. 	Hecht et al., 1999
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Newborns (31 from newborns whose moth- ers smoked and 17 from newborns whose moth- ers did not smoke)	Urine	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Mean levels of 0.14 pmol/ml (NNAL + NNAL-Gluc) in newborns whose moth- ers smoked. Not detected in newborns whose mothers did not smoke.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method was based on Carmella et al. (1993a) and Parsons et al. (1998), with minor modifications. 	Lackmann et al., 1999
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Pregnant moth- ers (21 smokers, 30 nonsmokers)	Amniotic fluid (AF)	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Mean levels in AF of mothers who smoked: 0.025 ± 0.029 pmol/ml (NNAL), 0.0032 ± 0.01 pmol/ml (NNAL-Gluc); Mean levels in AF of nonsmoker moth- ers: 0.0018 ± 0.0074 pmol/ml (NNAL), 0.0069 ± 0.03 pmol/ml (NNAL-Gluc);	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method was based on Lackmann et al. (1999), with certain modifications. Further assay details were not provided. 	Milunsky et al., 2000
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Heavy smokers (13F, 10M). Study to deter- mine effects of smoking cessation	Urine	GC-ThEA	Average 25% reduction in total NNAL levels observed at week 24 after smok- ing cessation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method was based on Carmella et al. (1993a) and Carmella et al. (1995). 	Hurt et al., 2000
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Nonsmoker (23F whose partners smoked, 22F whose partners did not smoke). Study to meas- ure environmental ThSNA in women exposed to EThS	Urine	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Geometric means in women whose husbands smoked: 0.013 pg/mg creatinine (NNAL), 0.027 pg/mg creatinine (NNAL-Gluc); Geometric means in women whose husbands did not smoked: 0.004 pg/mg creati- nine (NNAL), 0.004 pg/mg creatinine (NNAL-Gluc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method based on Carmella et al. (1993a); Hecht et al. (1993a), and Parsons et al. (1998), with some modifications. ■ 20-ml urine aliquots from nonsmokers and 5-ml aliquots from smokers were sufficient for analysis. 	Anderson et al., 2001

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Children (38—expo- sure to EThS reported, 35—no exposure to EThS reported)	Urine	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS for confirmation of NNAL-Gluc identity.	Mean levels in children who reported exposure: 0.04 pmol/ml (NNAL + NNAL-Gluc); Mean levels in children who did not report exposure: 0.008 pmol/ml (NNAL + NNAL-Gluc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method was based on Hecht et al. (1993a) and Parsons et al. (1998), with some modifications. 20 ml aliquot size was sufficient for analysis. Detection limit of NNAL + NNAL-Gluc was reported as 0.003 pmol/ml 	Hecht et al., 2001
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Nonsmokers, smokeless tobacco users (13M). Participating in smoke- less tobacco use cessa- tion study	Urine, Plasma	i. GC-ThEA ii. GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation) iii. CSP-GC-ThEA		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Method to measure NNAL and NNAL-Gluc in urine was based on Hecht et al. (1999). Enantiomers of NNAL and diastereomers of NNAL-Gluc were analyzed using CSP-GC-ThEA. For plasma analysis, 5 ml aliquot size was used. Plasma analysis was based on method suggested by Hecht et al. (1999). Detection limit in plasma was 0.01 pmol/ml. Chromatographic run time was 100 min. 	Hecht et al., 2002
NNAL, NNAL-O-Gluc, NNAL-N-Gluc	Smokers (6M, 4F); Snuff dippers (10M); Toombak users (4M)	Urine	i. GC-ThEA for analysis of smokers and snuff dippers urine ii. LC-ESI-MS/ MS (for identity confirmation of NNAL-N- Gluc in urine of toombak users)	Mean levels in smokers: 0.462 ± 0.214 pmol/ml (NNAL), 0.322 ± 0.161 pmol/ ml (NNAL-N-Gluc), 0.434 ± 0.343 pmol/ml (NNAL-O-Gluc) Mean levels in snuff dippers: 1.48 ± 1.13 pmol/ml (NNAL), 0.59 ± 0.60 pmol/ ml (NNAL-N-Gluc), 2.13 ± 2.55 pmol/ ml (NNAL-O-Gluc) Mean levels in toombak users: 354.8 ± 187.2 pmol/ ml (NNAL), 32.6 ± 17.4 pmol/ml (NNAL-N-Gluc), 231.8 ± 264.8 pmol/ ml (NNAL-O-Gluc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aliquot size was 10 ml. Extraction using C18 SPE. NNAL-O-Gluc and NNAL-N-Gluc were eluted using 10% methanol, followed by β-glucuronidase treatment (for hydrolysis of O- and N-Gluc) or base treatment (for specific hydrolysis of N-Gluc). NNAL was eluted using 50% methanol as two separate fractions. After solvent partition and HPLC purification, NNAL was quantified by GC-ThEA as described by Hecht et al. (2001). iso-NNAL used as internal standard was added to urine rather than ethyl acetate extracts as described in previous assay (Carmella et al., 1995) for better quantitation. NNAL-N-Gluc in toombak users was confirmed using C18 SPE followed by LC-ESI-MS/MS using graphite stationary phase for HPLC. 1-ml aliquots were used. 	Carmella et al., 2002
NNN, NNK, NNAL	smokers (18) and non- smokers (9)	Pancreatic juice	i. Supercritical fluid extraction followed by GC-MS/MS for quantitation of NNN and NNK ii. Supercritical fluid extrac- tion followed by GC-MS/ MS or GC-ThEA (for identity confirmation)	Smokers: 0–68.1 ng/ml (NNN), 0–604 ng/ml (NNK) was detected; Nonsmokers: NNN was not detected, 0–96.8 ng/ml (NNK); NNAL was iden- tified in 8 out of 15 smoker samples and 3 out of 9 nonsmoker samples.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aliquot size was ~300 μl. SFE with the use of carbon dioxide that contained 10% methanol. This was followed by analysis by GC-MS/MS. d₄-NNK was used as the internal standard. NNAL was not identified but not quantified. 	Prokopczyk et al., 2002

Table 1. continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
Thotal NNAL (i.e. sum of NNAL and NNAL-Gluc)	Smokers (41), Snufi dip-pers (55), Non smokers exposed to EThS (18)	Urine	GC-ThEA	Levels of total NNAL (pmol/mg creatinine) were 2.60 ± 1.30 in smokers, 3.25 ± 1.77 in snufi-dippers, and 0.042 ± 0.020 in nonsmokers exposed to EThS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ NNAL and NNAL-Gluc were not distinguished in this assay. ■ Urine treated with β-glucuronidase, followed by solvent partitioning and further purification on a liquid-liquid extraction cartridge and by high-performance liquid chromatography. ■ Total NNAL was silylated and finally quantified by GC-ThEA. ■ Acid partitioning step produced cleaner samples. ■ Internal standard iso-NNAL was added directly to urine to improve accuracy. ■ Detection limit for the assay was 0.1 pmol/ml starting with a 5-ml aliquot. 	Carmella et al., 2003
Thotal NNAL (i.e. sum of NNAL and NNAL-Gluc)	Nonsmokers exposed to EThS (13F, 3M)	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean levels of total NNAL prior to EThS exposure was 0.02 ± 0.02 pmol/mg creatinine. After EThS exposure, the mean Total NNAL levels increased by 0.018 pmol/mg creatinine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method based on Hecht et al. (1993a), Parsons et al., (1998), and Carmella et al. (1993a), with some modification 	Anderson et al., 2003
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Smokers (151). Study to determine effects of cigarette cessation.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Subjects who reduced smoking by 70% achieved approximately 50% reduction in total NNAL levels by weeks 8-12.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method based on Carmella et al. (1995) and Hecht et al. (1999) ■ Urine aliquots used for analysis were 4.5ml. 	Hecht et al., 2004b
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Cigarette smokers (74 M, 10 F). Study to investigate effect of cruciferous vegetable consumption on metabolism of NNK	Urine	GC-ThEA	Range of NNAL levels determined in urine was 0–3.62 pmol/mg creatinine while that of NNAL-Gluc was 0–5.07 pmol/mg creatinine. Association was shown between cruciferous vegetable intake and urinary NNAL, NNAL-Gluc and total NNAL levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Based on method described by Carmella et al. (1995) 	Hecht et al., 2004a
Thotal NNAL	Cigarette smokers (38), Smokeless tobacco users (41). Investigation to study effects of reduced-exposure tobacco products or medicinal nicotine on tobacco associated carcinogens	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean total NNAL levels of the “reduced risk” cigarette group was 1.9 pmol of NNAL/mg of creatinine, whereas the nicotine patch group had levels of 1.2 pmol of NNAL/mg of creatinine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Method as described by Carmella et al. (2003) 	Hatsukami et al., 2004
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	46 Cigarette smokers. This study investigated the relationships of Urinary biomarkers of Tobacco and Carcinogen exposure in smokers	Urine	GC-ThEA	The range of total NNAL measure was 0.9–54 pmol/ml with a mean value of 2.66 ± 1.22 pmol/ml of urine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Based on method described by Hecht et al. (1999) and Carmella et al. (1995) 	Murphy et al., 2004

Table 1. continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNN, NNN-Gluc, NATh, NATh-Gluc, NAB, NAB-Gluc,	14 Smokers and 11 smokeless tobacco users. First study to show presence of urinary NNN, NNN- Gluc, NATh, NATh-Gluc, NAB and NAB-Gluc in tobacco users.	Urine	GC-ThEA GC-MS/MS (for identity confirmation)	Mean levels of total NNN, NATh, and NAB in smokers were (pmol/mg creatinine) 0.18 ± 0.22 , 0.19 ± 0.20 , and 0.040 ± 0.039 , respectively, whereas the corresponding amounts in the urine of 11 smokeless tobacco users were 0.64 ± 0.44 , 1.43 ± 1.10 , and 0.23 ± 0.19 , respectively.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Total NNN (NNN plus NNN-N-Gluc) was assayed using 5-methyl-NNN as internal standard. ■ 36 ml aliquot size was used. ■ Urine was treated with β-glucuronidase. Following solvent partitioning and two SPE steps, total NNN was determined using GC-ThEA. ■ Total NATh and total NAB were quantified in the same samples using GC-ThEA. ■ Separate quantitation of NNN, NNN-N-Gluc, NATh, NATh-N-Gluc, NAB, and NAB-N-Gluc was accomplished by extraction of the urine with ethyl acetate before β-glucuronidase hydrolysis. NNN, NATh, and NAB was analyzed in the ethyl acetate extract. NNN, NAB, and NATh released from the glucuronide conjugate was quantified in the extracted urine after enzyme treatment. ■ The detection limits of the method were 0.032 pmol/ml urine for NNN, 0.014 pmol/ml urine for NATh, and 0.018 pmol/ml urine for NAB. 	Stepanov and Hecht, 2005
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc and total NNAL	69 Black and 93 White smokers. Study to investigate racial differ- ences in exposure and glucuronidation of the NNK.	Urine	GC-ThEA	The geometric mean levels of urinary NNAL, NNAL-Gluc and total NNAL (pmol/mg creatinine) detected were: 0.6, 1.9, and 2.6 in Black men and 0.45, 1.4 and 1.9 in White men, respectively 0.76, 1.9, and 2.7 in Black women and 0.7, 2.4 and 3.2 in White women, respectively	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Based on method described by Carmella et al. (1995) 	Muscat et al., 2005
Total NNAL	20 Nonsmokers (6M, 14F). Study to investi- gate levels of total-NNAL in nonsmokers exposed to smoke in restaurants and bars.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean difference (<i>SD</i>) in total NNAL levels before and after exposure to smoke was 0.033 (0.034) pmol/ml.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Based on method described by Carmella et al. (2003) ■ Total NNAL could not be determined in one subject recruited in the study because of co- eluting peaks, suggesting potential selectivity problems with the GC-ThEA method. Detection limit of the assay reported was 0.01–0.07 pmol/ ml based on recovery. 	Thulunay et al., 2005
Total NNAL	400 participants in study to investigate relation- ships between cigarette consumption and biomarkers of tobacco toxin exposure.	Urine	GC-ThEA	The range of total NNAL meas- urements was 0 to 23.9 pmol/mg creatinine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Based on method described by Hecht et al. (1999) and Carmella et al. (1995) 	Joseph et al., 2005

Table 1. continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
Thotal NNAL	144 infants between the ages of 3-12 months. Study to investigate lev- els of total NNAL in the urine of infants exposed to EThS.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean levels of total NNAL in the 144 infants were 0.083± 0.200 pmol/ml	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Thotal NNAL was analyzed as described in method by Carmella et al. (2003) except that HPLC purification step was replaced by puri- fication on a mixed-mode cation-exchange SPE cartridge as described by Carmella et al. (2005). ■ 5-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-penta- nol was used as internal standard. ■ Detection limits for NNAL were calculated for each sample based on urine volume and recovery and ranged from 0.09-0.36pmol/ml 	Hecht et al., 2006
Thotal NNAL	80 children ages 5 to 10 years from areas of Moldova. The study investigated uptake of NNAL by Moldovan children.	Urine	GC-ThEA	Mean ± SD level of total NNAL was 0.09 ± 0.077 pmol/ml	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Analysis was based on method described by Hecht et al. (2001) and Hecht et al. (1999), with some modifications. ■ C5-NNAL was used as the internal standard 	Stepanov et al., 2006b

^aArranged in the order of publication date. Reference to a previously published method is made wherever deemed necessary.^bValues in parentheses indicate number of subjects and/or gender (M = male, F = female).

Table 2. Compilation of studies analyzing ThSNA compounds in biological matrices using mass spectrometry for detection and quantification

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Smokers (5M, 2F)	Urine	LC-MS/MS	Mean levels in smokers ranged from 126–96 ng/24 h (NNAL), 320–2033 ng/24 h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First fully validated determination of NNAL in urine using LC/MS/MS and single step mixed-mode cation-exchange SPE. 10-ml urine aliquot used for free NNAL analysis and 5-ml urine aliquot used for NNAL-Gluc analysis. d_5-NNAL was used as internal standard. Method was linear over a range of 20–1000 pg/ml HPLC Column needed rinsing after every 10 injections as later reported by Pan et al. (2004). 	Byrd and Ogden, 2003
NNAL, NNAL-Gluc	Incurred plasma samples ($n = 9$)	Plasma	HILIC-MS/MS	Free NNAL levels in incurred samples ranged from 5.5 to 16.4 pg/ml, total NNAL level ranged from 6.02 to 21.5 pg/ml	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First LC-MS/MS method for analysis of NNAL in plasma. Method comprised of liquid/liquid extraction of NNAL from 1-ml plasma aliquots, followed by analysis by HILIC-MS/MS. d_5-NNAL was used as the internal standard LLOQ was reported as 5.0 pg/ml with a 1-min run time. 	Pan et al., 2004
Total NNAL	16 smokers and 5 nonsmokers.	Plasma	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Levels of total NNAL averaged 42 ± 22 (SD) and ranged 1.7 to 88 fmol/ml plasma in 16 smokers; NNAL was not detected in the plasma of five nonsmokers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aliquot size was 1 ml [Pyridine-d_5] NNAL was used as internal standard. Samples were incubated with β-glucuronidase enzyme and then subjected to mixed-mode cation-exchange solid-phase extraction. This was followed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. NNAL eluted at 16.3 min The limit of quantitation of the assay was reported as ~ 8 fmol total NNAL/ml plasma. The assay was evaluated for accuracy and precision. Average recovery was $28\% \pm 21\%$. 	Carmella et al., 2005
NNAL, Total NNAL	41 smokers exposed to sidestream smoke	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Following exposure to sidestream smoke, the mean concentration of total NNAL post-exposure was 24.1 pg/mg of creatinine, with a mean difference of 20.6 pg/mg of creatinine.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aliquot size was 5 ml. Analysis was done using LC-ESI-MS/MS combined with sample extraction using SPE on a MIP column. $^{13}C_6$-NNAL was used as the internal standard. The chromatographic run time was 3 minutes The limit of detection of the assay was about 1.7 pg/ml and the method was linear up to 2 ng/ml. The method was validated for accuracy, precision and stability. 	Xia et al., 2005
Total NNAL	16 Smokers. Assay was developed for combined analysis of r-1,t-2,3,c-4-tetrahydroxy-,2,3,4-Tetrahydrophenanthrene and 4-(Methylnitrosamin)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanol in smokers' plasma	Plasma	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Levels of NNAL in plasma averaged 36 ± 21 fmol/ml, which are $\sim 1\%$ to 2% of the amounts found in urine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> [d_{10}]PheTh and [pyridine-d_5] NNAL were used as internal standards. Plasma was treated with β-glucuronidase to release conjugated PheTh and NNAL. Analytes were enriched by SPE on a mixed-mode cation-exchange cartridge and the PheTh fraction was further purified by HPLC. The appropriate fractions were analyzed by GC-negative ion chemical ionization-MS for PheTh and LC-ESI-MS/MS for NNAL. Limits of quantitation for NNAL was 8 fmol/ml. The method was evaluated for accuracy and precision 	Carmella et al., 2006

Table 2. continued on next page

Table 2. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
NNAL	35 Smokers and six nonsmokers. Assay was developed to measure NNAL in human toenail.	Toenail	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Mean NNAL in smokers was 0.41 ± 0.67 pg/mg toenail. Samples collected from six nonsmokers were negative for NNAL.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 50–80 mg toenails were used. Toenails were washed with CH_2Cl_2, and digested overnight in NaOH. pH was adjusted to 6–8, the aqueous toenail digest was enriched by partitioning with CH_2Cl_2 on a ChemElut liquid-liquid extraction cartridge. Final enrichment was accomplished by a mixed-mode cation-exchange extraction on an Oasis MCX solid-phase extraction cartridge. The fraction containing NNAL was then directly analyzed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. $^{13}\text{C}_6$-NNAL was used as internal standard. The detection limit of the assay for NNAL in toenails from smokers was 0.02 pg/mg toenail. The assay was evaluated for accuracy and precision. 	Stepanov et al., 2006a
NNAL, Total NNAL	266 Smokers (99M, 167F) This study investigated relations between machine-derived smoke yields and biomarkers in cigarette smokers in Germany	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Mean levels of total NNAL found in smokers 1.53 ± 1.71 nmol/24 h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Free NNAL was determined after SPE on cation-exchange cartridges. [d₃-methyl]-NNAL was used as internal standard. Determination of total NNAL was carried out by hydrolysis with β-glucuronidase prior to SPE. 	Scherer et al., 2007
Total NNAL	420 smokers and 182 smokeless tobacco users. Study to compare relations between levels of urinary total NNAL in smokers versus smokeless tobacco users.	Urine	Study was conducted in six parts. GC-ThEA was used for studies 1 and 2 while LC-ESI-MS/MS for studies 4–6	Levels of total NNAL in smokers ranged from 2.03 to 2.35 pmol/ml, while in smokeless tobacco users, levels of total NNAL ranged from 3.40 to 4.21 pmol/ml	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Studies 1 and 2 were based on method described by Carmella et al. (1995). Studies 3–6 were based on method described by Carmella et al. (2003) and Carmella et al. (2005). 	Hecht et al., 2007
Total NNAL	212 smokeless tobacco users.	Urine	The study was conducted in three parts and analyses were either done by GC-ThEA and LC-ESI-MS/MS	Mean levels of total NNAL ranged from 2.47 to 5.21 pmol/ml as the duration of daily use of smokeless tobacco increased from 0 to more than 21 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The analysis was based on methods described by Carmella et al. (2005), Carmella et al. (2003) and Hecht et al. (1999). 	Hecht et al., 2008
NNN	17 Smokers. Assay was developed to measure NNN in human toenail.	Toenail	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Mean total NNN level in these samples was 4.63 ± 6.48 fmol/mg toenail.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 40–100 mg toenails were used. Toenails were washed with CH_2Cl_2, and digested overnight in NaOH. The aqueous toenail digest was enriched by partitioning with CH_2Cl_2 on a ChemElut liquid-liquid extraction cartridge. Further enrichment was accomplished by a mixed-mode cation-exchange extraction on an Oasis MCX SPE cartridge. Final enrichment was achieved using Bond-Elut silica SPE cartridges. The fraction containing NNAL was then directly analyzed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. $^{13}\text{C}_6$-NNAL was used as internal standard. The detection limit of the assay for NNN in toenails from smokers was 0.02 pg/mg toenail. The assay was evaluated for accuracy and precision. 	Stepanov and Hecht, 2008

Table 2. continued on next page

Table 2. Continued.

ThSNA analyzed	Study population ^b / Study type	Sample matrix	Analytical method	Levels measured	Sample preparation and remarks	Reference
Thotal NNAL	73 nonsmokers who suffered from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. The assay was developed subpico-gram/ml determination of NNAL in human urine using LC-MS/MS	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Nonsmokers who suffered from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease had mean NNAL levels of 5.5 pg/ml	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The method involves liquid-liquid extraction followed by conversion of NNAL to the hexanoate ester derivative. (derivatization facilitated separation from interfering urinary constituents). ■ LLOQ was 0.25 pg/ml for 5-ml urine samples. The method was evaluated for accuracy and precision. 	Jacob et al., 2008
NNAL, Thotal NNAL	Incurred urine samples from 10 smokers. Study investigated influence of ion suppression due to sample matrix effect on the LC-MS/MS determination of NNAL.	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Smokers had free NNAL levels ranging from below LOQ to 160.4 pg/ml, while total NNAL levels ranging from below LOQ to 392 pg/ml.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The method was a modification of the assay published by Xia et al. (2005) using SPE on a MIP column combined with ESI-MS/MS. ■ LC conditions were modified to resolve the elution of the peak of interest from the region of ionization suppression. ■ A 25-fold improvement in response was observed with the modified method. 	Shah et al., 2009c
Thotal NNAL, Thotal NNN, Thotal NAB, Thotal NATh	7 Smokers and 7 non-smokers. Assay was developed for simultaneous determination of four ThSNA's in human urine	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	Mean levels of NNAL, NNN, NAB and NATh in smokers were 152.5, 7.2, 47.0, and 161.1 pg/ml. NNAL was detected in 3 out of 7 non-smokers (mean level 2.68 pg/ml), while other ThSNAs were not detected.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Aliquot size was 6 ml. ■ The method involved simultaneous determination of four ThSNA in urine. Four corresponding deuterated internal standards were added to urine followed by treatment with β-glucuronidase. SPE was carried out on a ThSNA-specific MIP cartridge followed by further enrichment by SPE on a cation-exchange resin followed by LC-ESI-MS/MS ■ The limits of detection (LOD) were 2.0, 0.8, 1.1, and 0.7 pg/ml for NNAL, NNN, NAB, and NATh, respectively. 	Kavvadias et al., 2009
Thotal NNN	16 smokers. Assay was used for investigation of respiratory retention of NNN	Urine	LC-ESI-MS/MS	After smoking, average NNN levels were found to reach 4.0 pg/ml within 1 day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 20 ml aliquot size was used. ■ NNN-d₄ was used as internal standard. ■ After pH adjustment urine was treated with β-glucuronidase. ■ Sample enrichment was achieved by liquid extraction on an Extrelut diatomaceous earth cartridge followed by LLE and SPE on a mixed-mode cation-exchange cartridge. ■ LC-ESI-MS/MS analysis consisted of two reverse-phase analytical columns in series. Chromatographic run time was 15 min. ■ Method was validated. LLOQ was 2 pg/ml with calibration line linear up to 256 pg/ml. 	Urban et al., 2009

^aArranged in the order of publication date. Reference to a previously published method is made wherever deemed necessary.

^bValues in parentheses indicate number of subjects and/or gender (M = male, F = female).

Analytical methodologies in the bioanalysis of tobacco-specific nitrosamines

As described earlier, the study of ThSNA uptake can be related to the mechanistic and epidemiologic role of these compounds in human cancer. In fact, recently studies published by Yuan et al. (2009) and Church et al. (2009) have demonstrated the relationship of NNAL to lung cancer. It thus becomes essential to accurately and reproducibly quantify these compounds in biological samples. It is highly desirable to develop a sensitive and specific bioanalytical method to measure the levels of ThSNAs in clinical studies. Depending on the mode of exposure to tobacco products (direct user versus secondary exposure), human uptake of these compounds may vary significantly. Thus, different situations would demand different levels of assay sensitivity and different selectivity and validation. Three main aspects for consideration of a bioanalytical method include sample preparation, compound detection, and throughput (Evans, 2004; Venn, 2000). Sample preparation involves extraction of the compound from the biological matrices, usually involving a concentration step to enhance assay sensitivity. Detection of the compound usually follows chromatographic separation from other components of the biological extract. A nitrosamine-selective detector referred to as the thermal energy analyzer has been the detector of choice for some time (Brunnemann and Hofmann, 1991). However, recent developments in the area of tobacco-specific nitrosamine bioanalysis involve a trend towards the use of the more predominant mass spectrometric techniques. Tables 1 and 2 provide comprehensive summaries of studies that have been published that involve bioanalysis of the various tobacco-specific nitrosamines in human biological matrices. The tables provide key assay information from various studies measuring tobacco-specific biomarkers.

LC/GC combined with thermal energy analysis detection

Chemiluminescence detectors are one of the most selective of gas chromatography (GC) detectors available. One version of this detector, which was originally manufactured by Thermedics (Chelmsford, MA, USA), is referred to as the Thermal Energy Analyzer (ThEA), which is a registered trademark (Beveridge, 1998). The current owners are Advanced Chromatographic Systems (Johns Island, SC, USA). The Thermal Energy Analyzer detection technique for *N*-nitroso compounds was first reported more than three decades ago (Fine et al., 1973, 1974, 1975b). Subsequently, the technique was utilized for the analysis of seven ThSNA compounds in tobacco and tobacco smoke (Adams et al., 1983; Brunnemann et al., 1987; Brunnemann and Hofmann, 1981; Djordjevic et al., 1989; Hofmann et al., 1979). The principle of the ThEA detector has been discussed by Fine et al. (1975a). Briefly, the sample extract elutes from a GC column into a pyrolyzer in the ThEA, which ruptures the compounds containing nitro and nitroso group to release the nitrosyl (NO \cdot) radical. Other organic compounds, solvents, and fragmentation products are removed using a cold trap. Nitrosyl radicals are then oxidized with ozone in a reaction chamber to produce electronically

excited NO $_2^*$. The NO $_2^*$ decays back to the ground state, emitting light in the near-infrared region of the spectrum through the process of chemiluminescence. A photomultiplier then counts the corresponding photons, which are proportional to the amount of NO moieties present. Figure 2 shows a schematic diagram of the process.

Some of the first reports of the occurrence of ThSNAs in biological samples of humans utilized either GC or liquid chromatography (LC) hyphenated with ThEA for analysis (Hofmann and Adams, 1981; Nair et al., 1985). These methods measured the levels of NNN, NAB, NATH, and NNK in the saliva of betel quid chewers and snuff dippers. Pioneering work that demonstrated the presence of metabolites of ThSNAs in the urine of smokers also used GC coupled with ThEA (Carmella et al., 1993a). This study quantified the levels of NNAL (metabolite of NNK) and its glucuronide in 24-h urine samples of smokers. The levels of these metabolites were detected in quantities of 0.03–1.0 and 0.07–6.0 $\mu\text{g}/24\text{h}$, respectively. Subsequently, the first report of the presence of NNAL and its glucuronide in the urine of non-smokers exposed to sidestream cigarette smoke was published (Hecht et al., 1993a). Both these methods were based on a modification of a previously published method for the analysis of ThSNA in indoor air using GC coupled with ThEA (Brunnemann et al., 1992). An outline of the sample preparation procedure for quantitation of NNAL and NNAL-Gluc that was first developed (Carmella et al., 1993a) is depicted in Figure 3. Artificial nitrosamine formation was prevented by the addition of either ammonium sulfamate or sodium hydroxide to urine at the time of collection. The sample preparation was extensive, and required extraction of large volumes of urine (100 ml) with ethyl acetate. Fraction 1 contained unconjugated NNAL. The aqueous portion of urine was then subjected to incubation with β -glucuronidase for 16 h at 37°C to convert NNAL-Gluc to free NNAL. An important step in such enzyme hydrolysis is to ensure complete conversion of the conjugated form to the free form. A very convenient way to ensure complete conversion is to record a time-course enzyme hydrolysis profile. The NNAL released was further enriched by subsequent extraction step. The procedure involved two liquid chromatographic steps for purification of the extract. The secondary hydroxyl group

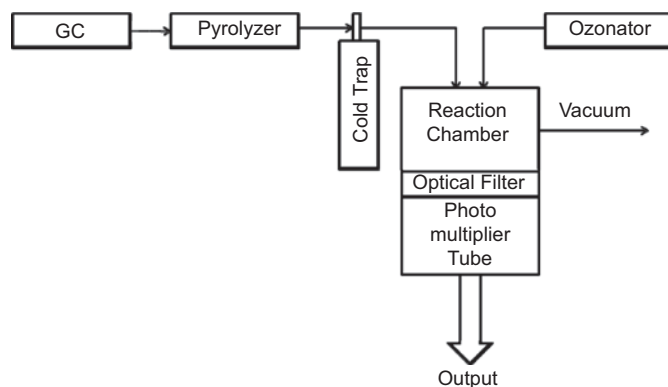


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of a GC-ThEA analyzer. (Adapted from Fine et al., 1975b.)

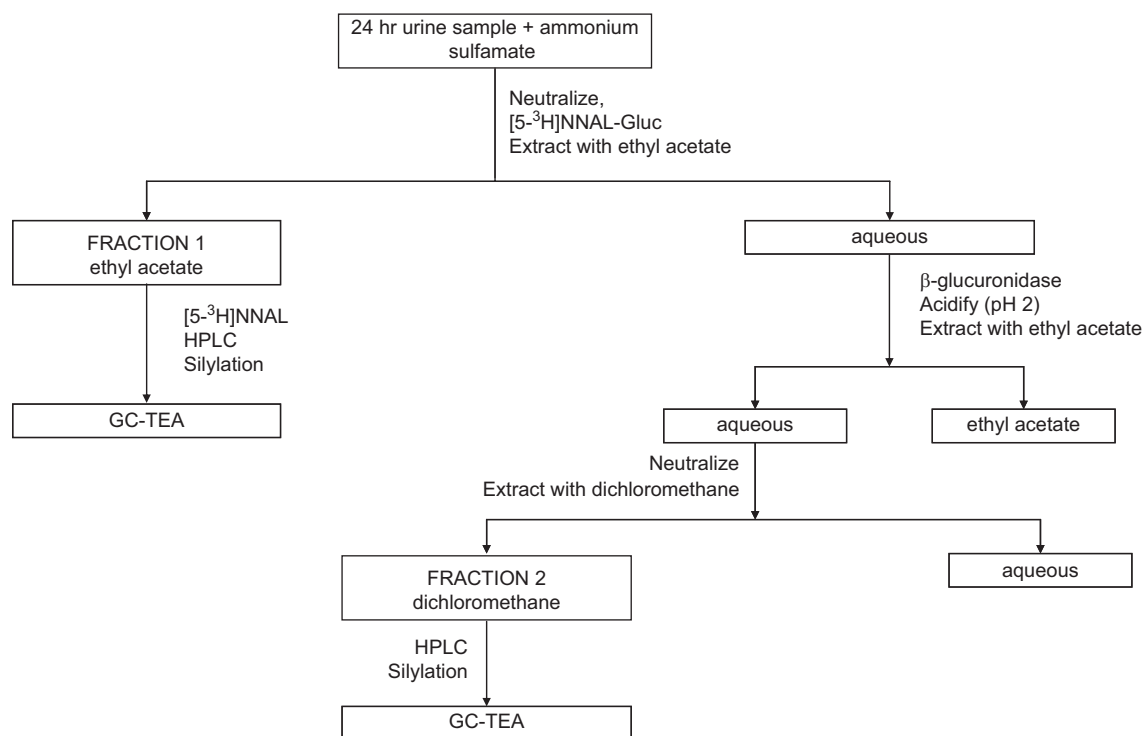


Figure 3. First developed extraction protocol for analysis of urinary NNAL and its glucuronide conjugate using GC-TEA. (From Carmella et al., 1993b)

was then transformed to a trimethylsilyl ether derivative. Silylation is commonly done to increase the volatility of the analytes and therefore improve their GC properties for more efficient separation (Blau and Halket, 1993). This derivative was finally subjected to GC analysis with TEA detection. For more than a decade following its publication, most studies quantifying urinary TSNAs, mainly metabolites of NNAL, NNAL and NNAL-Gluc, utilized this general method. Most of these studies were based on minor modifications of the method described above (Carmella et al., 1993a; Hecht et al., 1993a). Some of these changes include a modified internal standard, decreased volume of urine analyzed, morning versus 24-h urine samples, etc. The use of iso-NNAL instead of [5-3H]NNAL or [5-3H]NNAL-Gluc as the internal standard enabled the authors to quantify both analyte and internal standard in the same chromatogram and eliminate the need for scintillation counting. A list of these studies can be found in Table 1. Carmella et al. (1995) also attempted to use normal and reverse-phase solid-phase extraction cartridges to replace the high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) purification steps. However, their attempts were unsuccessful because the GC-TEA chromatograms obtained on these samples had an unacceptable background envelope. In a work published by Parsons et al. (1998), the sensitivity of the GC-TEA method was improved nearly 20 times through the use of capillary GC. Consequently, the urine aliquot size required for analysis was reduced to 50 µl. Anderson et al. (2001) were able to carry out the GC-TEA assay with an even reduced aliquot size of 20 µl for non-smokers and 5 µl for smokers for the analysis of urinary NNAL and NNAL-Gluc in non-smoking women exposed to ETh.

It should be noted that treatment with β-glucuronidase releases NNAL from both NNAL-N-glucuronide and NNAL-O-glucuronide. The traditional GC-TEA methods described above measured free NNAL and NNAL released from the glucuronide conjugate. However, these assays were not able to distinguish whether NNAL released from the conjugated form was from the N- or the O-glucuronide form. The issue of separately quantifying both NNAL-AGluc and NNAL-O-Gluc was addressed by separating the free and the conjugated form on a C₁₈ solid-phase extraction cartridge. This was followed by treatment with sodium hydroxide base of the glucuronide fraction for selective hydrolysis of NNAL-N-Gluc. Using this protocol, Carmella et al. (2002) were able to separately analyze NNAL-O-Gluc and NNAL-N-Gluc.

The extensive sample preparation procedure for analysis of NNAL using GC with TEA detection was finally simplified by Carmella et al. (2003). The method was streamlined by introducing an acid partitioning step and omission of one of the HPLC purification steps. The pyridine ring on NNAL was protonated by adjusting the pH to 2–3. This allowed it to remain in the aqueous phase whereas relatively non-polar neutral and acidic organic compounds were extracted into CH₂Cl₂ and discarded. The traditional method for analysis of NNAL using GC-TEA published by Carmella et al. (1995) typically analyzed 10 urine samples simultaneously. Considering the extensive sample preparation, 24-h enzyme hydrolysis and derivatization, followed by chromatographic run times of 20 min, meant that the entire assay followed by data analysis could take up to a week to complete. In the simplified procedure developed by Carmella et al. (2003) described above, the authors reported that the speed of

analysis was almost 2-fold faster than the traditional method. However, a disadvantage of the method was that NNAL and NNAL-Gluc were not distinguished in this assay. This was because the partition step using ethyl acetate to separate free and conjugated NNAL was omitted. Rather, the sample was directly hydrolyzed using β -glucuronidase. Free and conjugated NNAL can, however, be easily determined with this method by carrying out the analysis with and without the β -glucuronidase enzyme hydrolysis step, then determining NNAL-Gluc by the difference between total and free NNAL levels.

In order to study the tumorigenic contributions of the two enantiomers of NNAL, viz. (*R*)-NNAL and (*S*)-NNAL, Carmella et al. (1999) used chiral stationary-phase (CSP) GC-ThEA for analysis. The assay procedure was similar to the traditional assay for GC-ThEA analysis of NNAL, except that GC column was replaced by a β -cyclodextrin chiral selector GC column. Using CSP-GC-ThEA, baseline resolution of (*S*)- and (*R*)-NNAL-ThMS standards, as well as (*S*)- and (*R*)-iso-NNAL internal standard, was achieved. The chromatographic run time of the assay was a long 100 min, however. This procedure was successfully used by Hecht et al. (2002) to study the stereoselective receptor binding of NNAL. Campo et al. (2009) have discussed that the advantage of using cyclodextrin as a CSP lies in its truncated cone structure. The internal cavity is relatively hydrophobic, whereas the outer surface is hydrophilic with the primary hydroxyl groups, which can be easily derivatized to modify its enantioselective properties. Efficient chiral separation is achieved with steric compatibility between the cyclodextrin cavity and the analyte of interest, and if the affinity of the guest molecule for the cyclodextrin cavity is greater than for that of matrix components.

Apart from urine, NNAL and NNK have also been quantified in plasma using GC combined with ThEA analysis, as suggested by Hecht et al. (1999). Analysis was done starting with a large volume of blood (5–10 ml). After basifying plasma with 0.1 N NaOH, it was neutralized and extracted 3 times with CH_2Cl_2 . Further analysis of NNAL and NNK followed a similar procedure to the traditional urine method. A novel sample preparation technique using supercritical fluid extraction for determining NNK in cervical mucus and NNN, NNK, and NNAL in pancreatic juice was published by Prokopczyk et al. (1997) and Prokopczyk et al. (2002), respectively. The method involved extraction using carbon dioxide containing 10% methanol, followed by GC separation and nitrosamine-selective detection using ThEA. Supercritical fluids through their unique physical state possess low viscosities, allowing faster diffusion and more efficient extractions. Carbon dioxide is the solvent of choice for supercritical fluid extractions. However, a practical problem is that despite the immiscibility of carbon dioxide in aqueous solutions, it can dissolve water to a limited extent. Aqueous samples and samples containing high proportion of water present problems because of the difficulty that the slight amount of dissolved water may freeze in the supercritical extraction flow path, creating potential blockages. Moreover, the slightly dissolved water may act as a polar modifier and affect further

chromatographic analysis. Hence, extraction of liquids (particularly biological fluids such as urine, blood, and saliva) is often not possible. This is a possible reason that the method has not achieved widespread utility. Some of the other reasons for its scarce implementation in routine analytical laboratories include the absence of a universal method protocol, poor robustness of commercial equipment, extensive sample preparation, and difficulty of extracting polar and ionic compounds. Another commonly encountered problem is erratic flow characteristics due to plugged restrictors. Moreover, regulatory authorities have been slow in adopting supercritical fluid-based methods (Zougagh et al. 2004). Good descriptions of the practicality of supercritical fluid extraction have been presented by Smith (1999), Henry and Yonker (2006), and Chen et al. (2008).

Although NNAL (free and total) has been the most common ThSNA to be quantified as a measure of tobacco lung carcinogen uptake, other ThSNAs and their metabolic products have also been quantified in biological matrices using GC-ThEA. Carmella et al. (1997) developed a method for the analysis of N-oxides of NNK and NNAL. The key step in this procedure was the reduction of the N-oxide form to free NNAL and NNK, respectively, using *Proteus mirabilis* followed by analysis of urine samples. This conversion was necessary as the N-oxide form is thermally labile, and not amenable to high-temperature GC analysis. Stepanov and Hecht (2005) have analyzed total and free forms of urinary NNN, NAB, and NATh using nitrosamine selective detection. Information on these assays is given in Table 1.

Most of the studies conducted prior to 2003 used GC with ThEA detection to quantify ThSNAs. Although ThEA has been highly instrumental in advancing our knowledge in the ThSNA field, many laboratories cannot justify the use of such a highly specialized detector if they do not have a regular application. Secondly, the methods based on GC/ThEA can require very high sample volumes. This can be a limitation, especially if urine or plasma is designated for multiple types of assays, and the quantity available is limited. Also, the sample preparation is highly complex including multiple extraction and purification steps, followed by 24-h enzyme hydrolysis in the case of measuring conjugated compounds (note: this is a common step for LC/MS/MS-based methods discussed later) and finally there is a derivatization step. Moreover, for most cases, elution times are in excess of 15 min in order to get good separation of the target compounds. This significantly affects the throughput of the assays, which can typically take almost a week to complete sample preparation, chromatography, and data analysis. It should be noted that with advancement in technology and experience over the years, the current state of the art has substantially improved throughput of GC-ThEA-based methods. Currently, however, there are no publications that have described validation of GC-ThEA methods based on the FDA guidelines (US Food and Drug Administration, 2001). Ability to validate these compounds becomes all the more important and will continue to gain importance in future years with the recent legislation that gives the US FDA authority to regulate tobacco (Curfman et al. 2009). Another

major disadvantage of GC-TEA is its inability to distinguish co-eluted nitroso compounds even though it is nitroso specific, as reported by Wu et al (2008). Morcos and Wiklund (2001) and Meulemans and Delsenne (1994) have reported the presence of nitrates and nitrites in human urine, which can be a potential source of interference, as reported by Fine et al (1975b). In fact, in the study published by Thulunay et al (2005), total NNAL could not be determined in one subject recruited in the study because of co-eluting peak. This suggests potential selectivity problems with the GC-TEA method. Moreover, for thermally unstable compounds, GC-TEA might not be the best method of choice. Consequently, there has been a recent trend towards the use of more widely available analytical technique for the analysis of these compounds such as LC/MS/MS.

LC-ESI-MS/MS

The need for high-throughput approaches for quantitative determination of analytes in biological matrices such as blood, plasma, and urine has received a boost with the modern developments of liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry. Jemal (2000) has published a review of the most recent advances in sample preparation and mass spectrometry aspects of high-throughput bioanalysis by LC/MS/MS. It is now standard practice to validate bioanalytical methods according to the Bioanalytical Method Validation guidelines as prescribed by the US Food and Drug Administration (2001). Validation of the method ensures reliability and reproducibility of a particular method used to quantitatively measure analytes in a biological matrix. Validation involves documenting the performance characteristics of the method in terms of accuracy, precision, selectivity, sensitivity, reproducibility, and stability employing through laboratory investigations. Thus an increasing number of LC/MS/MS-based methods are being published for the bioanalysis of TSNAs. Table 2 shows a listing of these methods.

Byrd and Ogden (2003) have published the first validated assay as per FDA guidance (US Food and Drug Administration, 2001) for the determination of NNAL in urine using LC/MS/MS and a single-step solid-phase extraction (SPE). The SPE was performed on a mixed-mode cation-exchange cartridge. d_3 -NNAL was used as an internal standard for the assay. The assay was validated according to the FDA criteria, and was found to be accurate, precise, and selective. The limit of quantitation of the assay was 20 pg/ml, which was sufficient for analysis of free and total NNAL in smoker's urine using a 15-ml aliquot. However, in order to analyze NNAL levels in nonsmokers exposed to second hand smoke, more sensitive methods would be required.

LC-ESI-MS/MS methods possess high selectivity, sensitivity, and throughput; however, an important selectivity issue that may be neglected in method development is matrix effects. These are caused by alteration of ionization efficiency by the presence of co-eluting substances. These effects can often have a detrimental impact on the method accuracy and sensitivity. In fact, the recovery experiments

carried out by Byrd and Ogden (2003) revealed an almost 50% ion suppression of the signal by the co-eluting species from the sample matrix when compared with samples in a simple water matrix. Strategies to assess and solve matrix effects have been discussed extensively in reviews by Annesley (2003), Srinivas (2009), Thayer (2005) and Matuszewski et al (2003). The postcolumn infusion suggestion by Bonfiglio et al (1999) is a standard method to assess the presence of matrix effects for hyphenated MS techniques. It is carried out by monitoring the ionization response of a constant analyte infusion and observing for any changes in response with and without injecting a blank matrix extract. Upon identifying the presence of matrix effects, the two most important and common approaches to remove or minimize these effects are modification of the sample extraction methodology and improved chromatographic separation from co-eluting substances, as demonstrated by Avery (2003). An important approach of controlling the impact that matrix effect can have on the quantitation of methods during LC/MS/MS experiments is through the utilization of an internal standard (IS) in the form of a stable isotopically labeled (SIL) analog. The stable isotope-labeled analogs are chemically and structurally the same as their target drugs but differ in molecular mass. Thus they can be utilized to normalize the response of the target analyte to the response of its isotopic analog and thus adjust for variations in matrix effects (Fu et al 1998; Stokvis et al 2005; Avery, 2003). It is important to note that stable isotopically labeled internal standard may not always correct analyte response (Wang et al 2007). It has also been shown that ^{13}C labeling is preferred over deuterated internal standard because the latter may show unexpected behavior such as different retention times and recoveries (Stokvis et al 2005).

In this respect, Jacob et al (2008) modified the sample extraction protocol to develop a method for sub-picogram per milliliter determination of NNAL in human urine that avoided matrix effects. The method relied on the derivatization of the hydroxy group of NNAL to a relatively nonpolar hexanoate ester. This facilitated the chromatographic separation from potentially interfering polar urinary constituents. The separation from the co-eluting polar species of the sample matrix enhanced the detection using ESI-MS/MS, as proposed by Bonfiglio et al (1999). More efficient separation from other ionizable urinary species by extraction and chromatography would reduce the extent of ion suppression that commonly occurs in ESI. Further, the hexanoate ester derivative of NNAL would have a larger mass than the parent compound. Sterner et al (2000) have shown that larger masses are less susceptible to suppression when compared to smaller molecules. The authors reported a limit of quantitation of 25 pg/ml for a 5-ml sample aliquot. This is the lowest reported limit of quantitation (LOQ) for NNAL quantitation published to date. The authors state that a typical run consisting of 46 samples plus 26 standards and quality control samples required 3 days to carry out the enzyme incubation, extraction, and derivatization steps. Further LC-MS/MS analysis with long

chromatographic run times (20 min) means that a typical run can take a week to complete. This hinders sample throughput and ; faster turnaround times are required.

Recently, a novel category of solid-phase extraction phases involving very selective molecular recognition—molecularly imprinted polymers—are gaining interest for a wide range of applications, as described by Lasakova and Jandera (2009) and Pichon (2007). Molecularly imprinted polymers (MIPs) are synthetic polymeric sorbents possessing cavities for the retention of specific analytes and/or a class of analyte. The retention mechanism is based on molecular recognition imprinted in this cavity. A typical diagram describing the imprinting process is shown in Figure 4. The principle of selective extraction using MIPs is similar to that of immunosorbents, and involves a conditioning step, followed by sample loading, a washing step, and finally desorption of the target analyte. Synthesizing MIPs having high affinity and selectivity for target analytes is a challenge. Xia et al (2005) were successful in designing MIPs for selective extraction of NNAL in human urine followed by LC/ESI-MS/MS detection.

Despite the enhanced selectivity offered by MIPs in sample extraction, it has been reported that significant matrix components may be present after extraction, as shown in a study by van Hout et al (2003). This may pose a problem of ionization suppression and can adversely affect the quantitative performance of a mass spectrometer. Co-eluting compounds from the matrix as well as ion cross-talk can contribute to the phenomenon of ion suppression (Annesley, 2003). The main cause of ion suppression in experiments involving ESI of biological extracts was studied by King et al (2000). The authors hypothesized a change in the efficiency of droplet formation or evaporation due to the presence of nonvolatile materials such as salts, endogenous compounds, drugs, and metabolites, etc. This would have an effect on the amount of charged ion in the gas phase that reaches the detector. In a recent publication, Shah et al (2009c) have shown that despite the selective extraction of urine on a MIP column selective for NNAL, ion suppression was found to influence the response of NNAL. By changing the liquid

chromatographic conditions, the authors were able to avoid ion suppression by ensuring that the NNAL peak eluted in a region where ion suppression was not observed. The modified chromatographic conditions led to a 25-fold increase in the signal response.

Further advancement in the use of MIPs for ThSNA analysis came when Kavvadias et al (2009) developed a method for simultaneous determination of urinary NNN, NNK, NAB, and NATh using these artificial synthetic receptors. The sample preparation involved a two-step SPE procedure—selective extraction on a commercially available MIP cartridge specific for ThSNAs, followed by extraction on a mixed-mode cation-exchange cartridge. The compounds were then subjected to analysis by LC-ESI-MS/MS. The authors use four different isotope-labeled internal standards corresponding to the four different analytes measured. The use of multiple internal standards for multiple analytes has been recommended by Lagerwerf et al (2000) because it is extremely important to compensate for any changes in ionization for different analytes based on the analyte polarity and matrix effects.

NNAL and its glucuronide have been quantified using LC-ESI-MS/MS in plasma samples of smokers. Carmella et al (2005) used a single-step mixed-mode cation-exchange SPE, followed by separation on a reverse-phase C18 HPLC column and MS/MS detection. Considering the polar nature of NNAL, Pan et al (2004) developed a method based on a simple liquid/liquid extraction and hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (HILIC/MS/MS) analysis. Although reverse-phase chromatography is most widely used for analysis of polar analytes, it relies on separation by their degree of hydrophobic interaction with the stationary phase. In reverse-phase chromatography, a nonpolar stationary phase and a polar mobile phase are used. HILIC, on the other hand, is useful for separation of polar compounds by eluting with a strong organic mobile phase against a hydrophilic stationary phase where elution is driven by increasing the aqueous content in the mobile phase (Hsieh, 2008). The highly volatile organic mobile phases such as methanol and acetonitrile used in HILIC provide increased ionization efficiencies for MS/MS detection. Moreover, the lower viscosities of these solvents lead to lower column back pressure and possibly improved column life (Dejaegher et al 2008). The throughput of the method developed by Pan et al (2004) was substantially improved with chromatographic run times of just 1 min and no adverse matrix effects were observed for the assay. Both the reverse-phase chromatography-based method and the HILIC method described above used only 1 ml of plasma compared to 5–10 ml required in some previously published GC-ThEA-based methods (see Thabiel). More recently, mass spectrometry-based assays have been developed by Stepanov and Hecht (2008) and Stepanov et al (2006a) for analysis of NNAL and NNN in human toenail. Some of the advantages of biomarkers in the toenail include the potential for evaluation of long-term cumulative exposure to tobacco carcinogens, steady accumulation of biomarkers due to the slow growth rate of nails, and enhanced sample stability. Sample preparation along

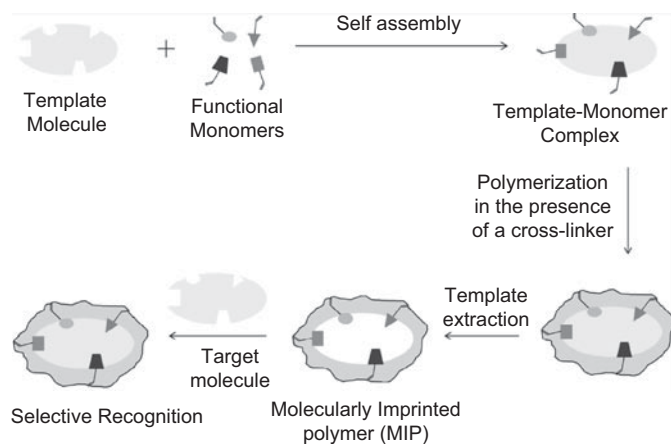


Figure 4. Schematic diagram of the molecular imprinting process.

with relevant assay information for these methods has been described in Table 1.

Challenges and future directions

Other challenges still exist apart from assay concerns for the analysis of ThSNAs in biological matrices. Sample collection and storage is a major challenge, especially if the analyte and/or its metabolite are unstable in biological samples (Jemal and Xia, 2006). Compound stability may be affected by enzymes, pH, anticoagulants, storage temperature, and freeze-thaw, which could potentially result in either under or overestimation of the analyte concentration. Most of the early work published pertaining to bioanalysis of ThSNA compounds lacks stability investigations.

Throughput of assays for the analysis of ThSNAs remains a challenge. The high volumes of urine samples required for analysis (approximately 5 ml) have hindered the use of sample preparation techniques in a 96-well format for high-throughput analysis. A balance between the cost of sample preparation and analysis speed is highly important. Online sample extraction techniques are gaining a lot of interest because of their speed of analysis, high sensitivity, the preconcentration factor, and low extraction cost per sample. These typically require the use of program-controlled switching valves, however. Because the entire extraction can be automated online, such techniques might find significant usefulness in the future. Shah et al. (2009a) have recently developed a fully automated method for direct injection of urine on a molecularly imprinted polymeric microcolumn coupled online with tandem MS for the analysis of NNAL. A column switching valve was used to divert the matrix components to waste during the wash step. With injection volumes as low as 200 μ l, the authors were able to achieve a LOQ of 20 pg/ml of NNAL in urine without any sample extraction steps on the bench (Shah et al. 2009b).

The introduction of ultra-performance liquid chromatography with sub-2- μ m particle separation offers potential advantages in resolution, speed, and sensitivity for analytical applications, particularly when coupled with MS as described by Mazzeo et al. (2005). This approach might become commonplace in the field of ThSNA bioanalysis, especially in cases where enhanced assay sensitivity is required when studying subjects exposed to sidestream smoke. Monolithic chromatography and hydrophilic interaction chromatography might also provide considerable advantages in the future as a means to analyze polar ThSNA compounds with enhanced throughput (Xu et al. 2007). In any future application, as described earlier, matrix effects should be thoroughly evaluated.

Apart from analytical challenges, an area that is often overlooked is the choice and selection of units when describing measured concentrations of ThSNAs in biological specimens. Some groups routinely express concentrations in pmols, whereas other authors have used pure weight concentration units such as pg/ml. Interchanging the two forms is relatively

trivial, but may be overlooked in some comparisons. It may be argued that a more appropriate way of representing the concentrations of analytes in body fluids is to report them in molar terms so that these may be better understood in relation to concentrations of other analytes. There have been efforts to standardize units in reporting clinical laboratory data, as discussed by Young (1987).

Another confounding issue that still needs through investigation is the correct use of ratios in expressing urinary ThSNA concentrations. Most often, results are expressed per mg of creatinine (for references, see Tables 1 and 2) to adjust for possible concentration differences among samples resulting from the variation in the hydration state of the subject. Other studies have shown that similar results were obtained whether NNAL and NNAL-Glc concentrations were expressed per ml of urine or per mg of creatinine (Hecht et al. 1999). In any case, the reliability of either approach has not yet been firmly established and is a common problem with urinary toxicant and metabolite assays.

Summary and conclusion

We have reviewed the issues and progress made in the area of ThSNA bioanalysis. Key points discussed included sample preparation, separation, and detection. The two most commonly used approaches for ThSNA analysis in biological matrices are based on GC-ThEA and LC-ESI-MS/MS. The advantages as well as the limitations for both methods have been discussed. Although sample throughput remains the biggest challenge of GC-ThEA based assays, addressing ion suppression matrix effects remains an important issue for mass spectrometry-based methods. Because of the variability in biological matrices, the chromatographic peaks obtained from both GC-ThEA- and LC-MS-based methods should be carefully examined for co-eluters, which may potentially cause loss of symmetry, interference, or ion suppression problems. On-going advancement and improving technology in the areas of automation, detection, novel sample extraction supports, and column switching will certainly be beneficial for high-throughput bioanalysis of ThSNAs. Bioanalytical laboratories generally prefer to employ the method validation protocol recommended by the FDA. This trend has also been observed in most of the recent publications on ThSNA bioanalysis. It is essential to employ well-characterized and validated methods to yield reliable results that can be interpreted with confidence. This will also provide the bioanalyst better means when comparing and selecting one method over another. Moreover, it will also allow more efficient means when comparing and/or transferring methods between laboratories. It is also important to emphasize that different analytical techniques have their own characteristics, which vary from analyte to analyte. Moreover, the ultimate objective of a study may govern the appropriateness of a technique. Improved tools and approaches in the bioanalysis of ThSNAs will certainly continue to provide understanding of the mechanisms by which tobacco carcinogens cause cancer and may enable

the prediction of cancer risk. This ultimately would lead to advances in chemoprevention strategies.

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Declaration of interest

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