USE OF A MEMBRANELESS EXTRACTION MODULE FOR THE VOLTAMMETRIC DETERMINATION OF TOTAL SULFITES IN WINE

Luís Moreira Gonçalves^{1,*}, Miriam Franco Da Anunciação², Inês Maria Valente³, João Grosso Pacheco⁴, José António Rodrigues⁵ and Aquiles Araújo Barros⁶

Requimte, Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Faculty of Sciences, University of Porto, Rua do Campo Alegre No. 687, 4169-007 Porto, Portugal; e-mail: ¹ *luis.goncalves@fc.up.pt,* ² *miriamfranco@netcabo.pt,* ³ *inesmariavalente@sapo.pt,* ⁴ *joao.pacheco@fc.up.pt,* ⁵ *jarodrig@fc.up.pt,* ⁶ *ajbarros@fc.up.pt*

Received December 7, 2009 Accepted February 5, 2010 Published online July 8, 2010

A recently developed membraneless extraction module (MLEM) for sample preparation aiming the analysis of volatile and semi-volatile compounds is applied in the voltammetric analysis of total sulfites in wine. Square-wave voltammetry (SWV) is very advantageous in this case because sulfur dioxide (SO₂) is instrumentally directly detected. The developed method shows good repeatability (RSD lower than 5%) and linearity (between 20 to 220 mg l⁻¹) as well as suitable limits of detection (6 mg l⁻¹) and quantification (19 mg l⁻¹). The proposed method was also compared with the reference methodology (an iodimetry, the Ripper method) showing no significant differences in the obtained results.

Keywords: Square-wave voltammetry (SWV); Membraneless extraction module (MLEM); Wine; Sulfur dioxide (SO₂); Sulfites; Electroanalysis.

Sulfites are widely used as preservatives in the food industry. They are well established anti-oxidants of dual action – by direct reaction and by inhibiting some enzymes that promote oxidation. Hence sulfites minimize product degradation to air exposure and also avoid common food browning. Moreover sulfites have an important anti-microbial effect and also act as a flavor stabilizer since they react with and hinder some strong taste, texture and color off-flavors¹. Therefore, its use is important in several foodstuffs, including wine, to obtain a long high-standard shelf life. However at high levels an unpleasant aroma/taste is produced and may also become a health hazard.

Sulfites have been associated with allergic reactions and food intolerance symptoms such as difficult breathing, wheezing and hives, as well as gastro-intestinal distress². Studies show that consumers with asthma believe that

sulfites in wine trigger asthmatic responses³, however such effect appears to be overestimated by results obtained in human trials⁴. Most probably, cofactors and other components in wine also play an important role in induced asthma; nevertheless more studies have to be performed to confirm these assumptions⁵. On the other hand, sulfites appear not to have an influence in wine-caused migraines⁶ and may even help to explain the socalled "French paradox" since they may be anti-atherogenic⁷.

The Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) established an acceptable daily intake (ADI) of 0.7 mg kg⁻¹ bw (expressed in terms of SO₂), and, though without sufficient data to estimate the problem magnitude, such level of intake appears to be reached by a significant percentage of consumers⁸. Furthermore, studies consistently point to wine as a major source of sulfite consumption^{9–11}. In the European Union, the expression "contains sulfites" must be labeled for beverages containing above 10 mg l⁻¹ of sulfites¹². Considering all mentioned, and also that the current legal limits are not too far from the values usually found in wines, the large relevance of sulfite analysis is unquestionable.

Among a whole variety of methodologies proposed for the determination of free and total SO_2 in wine, the most widely used are based on the classical Monier–Williams procedure¹³, where sulfites are extracted with an inert gas, made react with H_2O_2 producing H_2SO_4 and then titrated with NaOH; and the classic Ripper method¹⁴ that consists on direct iodimetric titrations, a simple and commonly used method, although prone to interferences¹⁵. Nevertheless, voltammetric-based methodologies appear to be the most accurate ones^{16–21}; this is explained by a certain selectivity and by the direct detection, i.e., no derivatization or other side reaction is needed. Electrochemical techniques are also user-friendly and cheap¹. The major drawback when using voltammetry is the advisable previous analyte extraction that can be, among others, achieved by using a gas generating and purging device, pervaporation²² or gas diffusion^{21,23–32}.

In this work, we apply a recently developed membraneless extraction module (MLEM) (Fig. 1)³³. The extraction process is based on the same principles of gas diffusion and pervaporation, however, it does not require a membrane. This module has a lower chamber, where the sample lays while the volatile compounds diffuse to the headspace. Inside the module, there is a suspended small reactor, where a small volume of an acceptor solution is placed. After a defined period of time of extraction, the acceptor solution, now containing the analyte, is collected and taken to be instrumentally measured.

Voltammetric Determination of Total Sulfites in Wine

Research on the polarographic reduction of SO₂ in aqueous solution is archaic and filled with some disagreement³⁴. Relative concentrations of SO₂, bisulfite (HSO₃⁻) and sulfite (SO₃⁻) in solution are highly dependent on the pH: pK₁ (1) and pK₂ (2), at 298 K, are generally accepted to be 1.86 (ref.³⁵) and 7.20 (ref.³⁶), respectively.

$$SO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow HSO_3^- + H^+$$
 (1)

$$\mathrm{HSO}_{3}^{-} \to \mathrm{SO}_{3}^{2-} + \mathrm{H}^{+} \tag{2}$$

This means that SO_2 is dominant, with a sulfur species fraction above 0.9, only below pH 1 and HSO_3^- is dominant in the pH range from 3 to 6. However, according to Tolmachev and Scherson³⁷ even at such pH, HSO_3^- becomes SO_2 at the mercury drop surface previously to the electroanalytical determination and suggest the following reaction at the electrode:

$$SO_2 + e^- \rightarrow SO_2^-$$
 (3)

Other possible reactions at the electrode can be found in literature^{34,38,39}, nevertheless even if it is not clear which is the electrochemical mechanism, it is unquestionable that the hanging mercury drop electrode (HMDE) is very sensible, reproducible and accurate.

FIG. 1 MLEM drawing, exploded view



EXPERIMENTAL

Voltammetric measurements were performed on a Metrohm 663 VA voltammetric stand (Herisau, Switzerland) equipped with an HMDE, drop size of 0.024 mm³, with glassy carbon auxiliary electrode and reference AgCl|Ag (3 \times KCl) electrode, potential step of measurement was 2.5 mV and amplitude 25 mV. Measurements were conducted without any accumulation time and without stirring. The start and end measurement potentials, with the exception of the cyclic voltammetry (CV), were -400 and -850 mV, respectively. The system was connected to an Autolab PGSTAT 10 voltammetric system (Eco Chemie, Utrecht, The Netherlands). All measurements were made at room temperature.

All reagents used were of analytical grade and were used without further purification. Ultra-pure water from a Simplicity 185 water purification system (Millipore, Billerica, USA) was used. The supporting electrolyte consisted of 0.1 M acetate buffer pH 4.0, sodium acetate was purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). pH of the buffer was adjusted with 6 M HCl from Merck. Na₂SO₃ (Sigma–Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) was used as a source of SO₂. Wine samples were purchased in local supermarkets.

The extraction system is depicted in Fig. 2. The extraction time started to be counted in the moment when the lower chamber was filled with 5 ml (2.5 ml of sample and 2.5 ml of acid), since both flow rates were 2.5 ml min⁻¹, this occurred just after 1 min. The wine sample was acidified inside the module with 3.6 M H₂SO₄ (Merck) to pH < 1, in order to turn all sulfites into SO₂. The produced SO₂ fills the MLEM headspace, and then, a portion of this compound is collected and fixated by the acid-base reaction with the acetate buffer present in the reactor, hence SO₂ becomes HSO₃⁻. That is how the extraction, on a simplified manner, works.

A Minipulls II peristaltic pump was used (Gilson, Midleton, USA) for the sample flow. Tygon tubing from Gilson with different internal diameters was used in the pump head. Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tubing with 0.8 mm of i.d. was used for connections with the home-made Perspex MLEM (Fig. 1)³³. The MLEM temperature control was performed with a dry heating block Thermobloc TD 150 P3 from Falc Instruments (Lurano, Italy).



Fig. 2

Extraction scheme. The wine sample has previously endured an alkaline pre-treatment; the supporting electrolyte at the voltammetric cell was a 0.1 M acetate buffer pH 4

For the determination of total sulfites, an alkaline pre-treatment was essential to break the adducts (SO₂ bounded to several aldehydes and ketones) formed in wine. For that purpose, 10 g of NaOH (Merck) were added per 1 l of sample. The sample was homogenized and left to rest for about 20 min.

The Ripper method was performed according to the Portuguese regulation⁴⁰, described as follows: 50 ml of wine were placed in an Erlenmeyer flask, 8 ml of 4 \mbox{M} NaOH were added, and the sample was left to rest for about 5 min; 10 ml of 10% H₂SO₄ (v/v) were added (starch (Merck), 4 g l⁻¹, was used as an indicator) and the titration started immediately with 0.05 \mbox{M} iodine, which was prepared by mixing excess KI (Sigma–Aldrich) with KIO₃ (Merck) in acidic conditions. After reaching the endpoint, 20 ml of 4 \mbox{M} NaOH were added. After 5 min, 200 ml of cold water and then 30 ml of 10% H₂SO₄ (v/v) were added, and the sample was again immediately titrated.

RESULTS

Preliminary voltammetric studies were performed by CV (Fig. 3) confirming literature data^{16,26,38,39}. At the studied pH, the reaction was quasireversible (although I_p was proportional to $v^{1/2}$, E_p was independent of vand $I_{p,a}/I_{p,c}$ was equal to 1, the difference between $E_{p,a}$ and $E_{p,c}$ was not equal to 57.0/n mV), with oxidation and reduction peaks between –0.3 and –0.8 V (ref.³⁹). Then optimizing studies were performed to choose the best measurement frequency (Fig. 4), it ended up being 350 Hz, a compromise between peak intensity and peak definition. This frequency of analysis was used in all following experiments.



FIG. 3

Cyclic voltammetry of a SO_2 standard solution (70 mg l⁻¹) with scan rates of 10, 25 and 100 mV s⁻¹. Inset: Variation of reduction peak current with square root of scan rate

Since the extraction is based on the analyte volatilization, temperature is obviously a very important parameter to be controlled. Best results were obtained at 40 °C (data not shown). This temperature was a compromise between increased volatility with temperature and kinetically favoring of



FIG. 4 Voltammetric signal variation of a standard SO₂ solution (70 mg l^{-1}) with frequency



FIG. 5

Signal variation of a standard SO₂ solution (100 mg l^{-1}) with the time of extraction. A hyperbola is presented along with its 95% confidence and prediction bands

oxidative reactions and also to avoid, due to possible bad isolation, the escape of SO_2 at higher temperatures. The MLEM was kept termostated at 40 °C in all following experiments.

Then, extraction time was tested from 5 to 30 min (Fig. 5). A hyperbola, a typically used function for situations of saturation, could be used to represent the obtained results.

The method features were evaluated using a wine sample with standard additions of SO_2 . The figures of merit in terms of linearity and repeatability, and limits of detection and quantification are summarized in Table I. These results were obtained within 5 min of extraction.

TABLE I Method features, $I = f([SO_2])$, using an extraction time of 5 min (n = 5)

Linearity range	RSD	r ²	LOD	LOQ
20–220 mg l ⁻¹	4%	0.9987	5.7 mg l ⁻¹	19 mg l ⁻¹

The determination of sulfite concentration in the different wine samples by the developed methodology was compared with the reference Ripper method¹⁴. The Ripper method was performed according to the Portuguese regulation⁴⁰, based on a procedure from the Organisation Internationale de



FIG. 6

Voltammograms of extracts, obtained using the MLEM, of a wine sample with different standard additions of SO_2 , carried out by SWV with a HMDE; extraction time 5 min. Inset: A graph plotted with the voltammogram peak heights

la Vigne et du Vin⁴¹. At least 3 replicates were done in all samples by both methods. Due to the possible matrix effect, standard additions were used to quantify the content of SO_2 in the different wine samples, however, considering obtained linearity (Fig. 6), one single addition proved to be enough. According to results displayed in Fig. 7, no significant differences were found between both methodologies.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The analytical procedure developed was characterized by a good precision and a wide linear application range (Table I). Good agreement was also observed between the proposed new methodology and the one currently used in wine quality laboratory control (Fig. 7).

According to data given in Table I, LOD and LOQ were adequate to the analysis of total sulfites in wine. Still, Fig. 5 shows that longer periods of extraction lead to an increase in sensitivity to an expected saturation point. Therefore, results in Table I were obtained with only 5 min of extraction; if, e.g., 25 min were used instead, the LOD was noticeably lower. This is not needed at wine analysis, however this could be very useful for analysis of other matrices that have lower sulfite levels, like beer or juices.





FIG. 7

To conclude, in this article, a recently developed MLEM for volatiles and semi-volatiles³³ was applied in the voltammetric analysis of sulfites. The developed system shows some advantages when compared to other analytical methodologies, mainly because voltammetry measures directly SO_2 which means a more accurate result. It is especially advantageous for red wines when compared to all the iodimetric procedures since the titration endpoint is of a redish tone (starch as an indicator). It should also be mentioned that it has some potential to become automated, which may be of a great interest for a routine food laboratory control²¹.

L. M. Gonçalves (SFRH/BD/36791/2007) and J. G. Pacheco (SFRH/BD/30279/2006) wish to acknowledge Portuguese Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT) for their Ph.D. studentships.

REFERENCES

- 1. Isaac A., Davis J., Livingstone C., Wain A., Compton R.: Trends Anal. Chem. 2006, 25, 589.
- 2. Ruiz-Capillas C., Jiménez-Colmenero F.: Food Chem. 2009, 112, 487.
- 3. Vally H., Klerk N., Thompson P.: J. Allergy Clin. Immunol. 2000, 105, 462.
- 4. Vally H., Thompson P.: Thorax 2001, 56, 763.
- 5. Linneberg A., Berg N., Gonzalez-Quintela A., Vidal C., Elberling J.: *Clin. Exp. Allergy* **2008**, *38*, 145.
- 6. Panconesi A.: J. Headache Pain 2008, 9, 19.
- 7. Mitsuhashi H., Ikeuchi H., Nojima Y.: Clin. Chem. 2001, 47, 1872.
- 8. Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives, Evaluation of Certain Food Additives, 2009. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 952.
- 9. Suh H., Cho Y., Chung M., Kim B.: J. Food Comp. Anal. 2007, 20, 212.
- 10. Machado R., Toledo M., Vicente E.: Eur. Food Res. Technol. 2009, 229, 383.
- 11. Leclercq C., Molinaro M., Piccinelli R., Baldini M., Arcella D., Stacchini P.: Food Addit. Contam. A 2000, 17, 979.
- 12. Official Journal of the European Union: Directive 2003/89/EC, 2003, L 308/15.
- 13. Moinier-Williams G.: Analyst 1927, 52, 343.
- 14. Ripper M.: J. Prakt. Chem. 1892, 46, 428.
- 15. Maquieira A., Casamayor F., Puchades R., Sagrado S.: Anal. Chim. Acta 1993, 283, 401.
- 16. Bruno P., Caselli M., Fano A., Traini A.: Analyst 1979, 104, 1083.
- 17. Cardwell T., Cattrall R., Chen G., Scollary G., Hamilton I.: Analyst 1991, 116, 253.
- 18. Sarudi I., Kelemen J.: Talanta 1998, 45, 1281.
- 19. Scampicchio M., Lawrence N., Arecchi A., Mannino S.: Electroanalysis 2008, 20, 444.
- 20. Pournaghi-Azar M., Hydarpour M., Dastangoo H.: Anal. Chim. Acta 2003, 497, 133.
- Gonçalves L., Pacheco J., Magalhães P., Rodrigues J., Barros A.: Food Addit. Contam. A 2010, 27, 175.
- 22. Mataix E., Castro M.: Analyst 1998, 123, 1547.
- 23. Silva R., Silva C., Nóbrega J., Neves E.: Anal. Lett. 1998, 31, 2195.
- 24. Araújo C., Carvalho J., Mota D., Araújo C., Coelho N.: Food Chem 2005, 92, 765.

- 25. Chinvongamorn C., Pinwattana K., Praphairaksit N., Imato T., Chailapakul O.: Sensors **2008**, *8*, 1846.
- Almeida P., Rodrigues J., Guido L., Santos J., Barros A., Fogg A.: *Electroanalysis* 2003, 15, 587.
- 27. Decnop-Weever L., Kraak J.: Anal. Chim. Acta 1997, 337, 125.
- 28. Fäldt S., Karlberg B., Frenzel W.: Fresenius' J. Anal. Chem. 2001, 371, 425.
- 29. Melo D., Zagatto E., Mattos I., Maniasso N.: J. Braz. Chem. Soc. 2003, 14, 375.
- 30. Santos J., Korn M.: Microchim. Acta 2006, 153, 87.
- 31. Tzanavaras P., Thiakouli E., Themelis D.: Talanta 2009, 77, 1614.
- 32. Kubáň P., Janoš P., Kubáň V.: Collect. Czech. Chem. Commun. 1998, 63, 770.
- 33. Pacheco J., Gonçalves L., Magalhães P., Rodrigues J., Barros A.: Talanta 2010, 81, 372.
- 34. Streeter I., Wain A., Davis J., Compton R.: J. Phys. Chem. B 2005, 109, 18500.
- 35. Siddiqi M., Krissmann J., Peters-Gerth P., Luckas M., Lucas K.: J. Chem. Thermodyn. 1996, 28, 685.
- 36. Hayon E., Treinin A., Wilf J.: J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2002, 94, 47.
- 37. Tolmachev Y., Scherson D.: J. Phys. Chem. A 1999, 103, 1572.
- 38. Kolthoff I., Miller C.: J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1941, 63, 2818.
- 39. Reynolds W., Yuan Y.: Polyhedron 1986, 5, 1467.
- 40. Instituto Português de Qualidade: Alcoholic and Spirituous Beverages. Free, Combined and Total Sulfur Dioxide Content Determination, 1987.
- 41. Organisation Internationale de la Vigne et du Vin: Compendium of International Methods of Wine and Must Analysis, 2007.

730