

Review

# Determination of benzanthrone in environmental samples

Torsten Spitzer\*, Toyohide Takeuchi<sup>1</sup>

*Environmental, Industrial and Food Analysis, Leipziger Str. 68, 38350 Helmstedt, Germany*

## Abstract

This paper summarizes advances in the determination of benzanthrone and other polycyclic aromatic ketones in environmental samples in the last 20 years. Data on toxicity and mutagenicity are also reviewed. Methods of determination include liquid chromatography, high-performance liquid chromatography, gas chromatography and gas chromatography–mass spectrometry.

## Contents

1. Introduction	109
2. Liquid chromatography	110
3. Gas chromatography and gas chromatography–mass spectrometry	111
4. Mutagenicity	112
5. Toxicity	112
6. Environmental occurrence	112
7. Conclusion	114
8. References	115

## 1. Introduction

7*H*-Benz[*de*]anthracen-7-one (benzanthrone) (Fig. 1) is a precursor of dyestuffs in industry [1] and its toxic effects have been recognized for a long time [2]. Its determination in airborne particulate matter became feasible only recently after the development of efficient chromatographic methods of analysis.

Fluoranthene (Fig. 1), a major component of

polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) emitted from combustion engines, can be obtained from benzanthrone by elimination of CO, since the elimination of CO is a well known reaction in the pyrolysis of some ketones [3]. Hence, it is

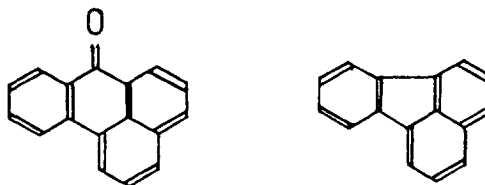


Fig. 1. Structural formulae of (left) benzanthrone (m.p. 170°C) and (right) fluoranthene (m.p. 110°C).

\* Corresponding author.

<sup>1</sup> Present address: Faculty of Engineering, Gifu University, 1-1 Yanagido, Gifu 501-11, Japan.

not surprising that benzanthrone and other polycyclic aromatic ketones always accompany PAHs in particulate emissions of combustion sources.

Sublimation of polycyclic aromatic compounds at 300°C reveals that both PAHs and polycyclic aromatic ketones are not decomposed, whereas diketones are less stable [4]. These data prove considerable stability of polycyclic aromatic ketones at increased temperature.

Benzanthrone is almost completely adsorbed on particulate matter in the atmosphere. Only 3% of total benzanthrone was found in the gas phase when high-volume sampling was done in Portland, OR, USA, in 1984 [5]. In the same sampling experiment, 28% of total chrysene and 94% of total fluoranthene were found in the gas phase. These data indicate a lower volatility of benzanthrone compared with these PAHs.

It is well known that the concentration of benzo[*a*]pyrene shows a large short-term variation in the atmosphere. The average concentration of benzo[*a*]pyrene in Essen (Germany) during 50 weeks varied between 6 and 40 ng/m<sup>3</sup>, whereas short-term concentrations ranged from 0.2 to 299 ng/m<sup>3</sup> [6]. A similar concentration range of three orders of magnitude can be expected for benzanthrone, although it decays slightly faster than benzo[*a*]pyrene in the atmosphere. It is normally lost during clean-up of samples for PAHs [6].

Benzanthrone, the industrial precursor of dyestuffs, which is also among the major polycyclic aromatic ketones found in emissions from all combustion sources, is the subject of this review. Owing to the close structural relationship between benzanthrone and other polycyclic aromatic ketones and PAHs, the purpose of this review is to provide a literature survey on the determination, properties and environmental occurrence of benzanthrone and its relationship to other polycyclic aromatic compounds during analytical procedures.

## 2. Liquid chromatography

Liquid chromatography routinely is used for sample clean-up prior to the determination of

benzanthrone. Although compound separation can also be done by HPLC, supplemental methods such as GC, GC-MS or LC-MS are applied more frequently owing to the large number of different PAHs other than benzanthrone in environmental samples.

The isolation of PAHs is effected by a pre-column clean-up on silica columns, followed by chromatography on Sephadex LH-20 with 2-propanol as the eluent [6]. This clean-up separates benzanthrone from PAHs owing to its higher polarity, and it is then discarded with contaminants of similar polarity and thus escapes detection. Multi-step clean-up procedures have also been developed (7), and benzanthrone will be found in a column eluate not containing PAHs.

Liquid chromatography on Sephadex LH-20 with 2-propanol as eluent will elute benzanthrone just before chrysene and benz[*a*]anthracene, and this method alone is therefore not suitable for the separation of benzanthrone from PAHs.

A separation of organic compound classes in synthetic fuels has been performed. Stepwise elution of compounds from neutral alumina with hexane, benzene, chloroform–0.75% ethanol and tetrahydrofuran THF–10% ethanol was performed. Benzanthrone was found in the chloroform fraction. This fraction was subjected to column chromatography on silica gel, and benzanthrone and amino-PAHs were found in the benzene eluate [8].

Polycyclic aromatic compounds were isolated from fish tissue by adsorption chromatography on alumina and gel chromatography on biobeads, and the detection limit was below 0.2 µg/kg [9]. Clean-up on an alumina column yielded well defined compound classes [10]. Compound class separation was also achieved by normal-phase HPLC [11]. Oxygenated and nitro-substituted PAHs were determined by HPLC with electrochemical detection [12].

A clean-up based on XAD-2 was developed in order to isolate polar and non-polar polycyclic compounds [13,14]. This method is based on the polycyclic aromatic structure of solutes rather than polarity. It provides a column eluate containing all non-polar and slightly polar polycyclic

aromatic compounds in one fraction. Thus, nitroarenes, heterocycles, PAHs and benzanthrone are isolated together, while most interfering compounds are absent. The mixture of polycyclic compounds obtained by this clean-up often contains too many polycyclic compounds, and a direct determination of benzanthrone without a second clean-up can only be done by high-resolution GC.

A combination of gel chromatography on Bio-Beads SX-12 and normal-phase LC was used for clean-up of aromatic ketones and related compounds followed by capillary GC [15].

An HPLC method for mixtures of up to 600 organic compounds, followed by GC-MS, has been published [16]. Narrow-bore columns of 1 mm I.D. were used in HPLC for the separation of compounds, and subsequent off-line MS was performed [17]. HPLC in conjunction with diode-array UV detection and MS was found suitable for the analysis of complex mixtures of polycyclic aromatic compounds [18].

On-line LC-GC has also been applied to polycyclic compounds in airborne particulate matter and diesel exhaust particulate extracts [19,20]. LC-GC is used directly with crude extracts without prior sample clean-up. Compounds present in the sample are split up between different gas chromatograms. This is not satisfactory, because it should be the aim of GC analysis to produce one gas chromatogram representing total amounts of compounds to be determined.

### 3. Gas chromatography and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

Diesel particulate matter has been analysed. Polycyclic compounds were separated by normal-phase HPLC with gradient elution. PAHs and polar polycyclic compounds are found in different fractions, and the concentration of benzanthrone is about one quarter of that of fluoranthene. Compound identification was achieved by GC-MS using non-polar stationary phases. Mass spectra for polar aromatic compounds were given [21]. Benzanthrone was also identified in

treated wood after supercritical fluid extraction and GC-flame ionization detection [22]. Liquid crystalline stationary phases were applied to the determination of polycyclic materials in airborne particulate matter. Benzanthrone and other polycyclic compounds were separated from PAHs by HPLC on silica gel prior to GC [23]. Mass spectra of benzanthrone and related compounds have been reported and fragmentation pathways investigated [24,25]. MS fragmentation and GC retention of benzanthrone among 80 other compounds frequently encountered in environmental samples has been described [26].

Polycyclic aromatic ketones and PAHs have been isolated from urban airborne particulate matter and both compound classes separated by LC on silica gel. A second clean-up by column chromatography on Sephadex LH-20 with 2-propanol as eluent was applied in order to separate oxygenated polycyclic compounds from aliphatic polar compounds. The sample originated from urban airborne particulate matter collected in Duisburg (Germany). Benzanthrone was the most abundant polycyclic aromatic ketone, and its concentration ranged from 0.46 to 3.66 ng/m<sup>3</sup>. Many other polycyclic compounds were identified in addition to benzanthrone by GC-MS [27]. A characteristic profile of benzanthrone and other polycyclic compounds in aircraft turbine particulate emissions has been obtained by a selective clean-up and GC [28].

A comprehensive presentation of polycyclic aromatic ketones in environmental samples has been given, and methods for the characterization of polycyclic aromatic ketones have been reviewed [29,30]. Benzanthrone and other oxygenated polycyclic aromatic compounds were sampled from Diesel exhaust, separated from PAHs by clean-up on silica gel and identified by GC-MS [31]. Condensate from brown coal combustion flue gas in residential heating also contained benzanthrone, among other oxygen-containing polycyclic compounds [32]. The seasonal variation of organic aerosols in California has been investigated by GC-MS [33]. Extracts from gasoline exhaust particulates were separated into five fractions according to polarity, and individual compounds were identified by GC-MS

[34]. During the determination of benzantrone and other polycyclic aromatic ketones by capillary GC, random overlap with PAHs may occur, and stationary phases of different polarities should be employed in compound identification by GC [35].

Polar polycyclic aromatic compounds have been characterized by GC–MS with negative-ion chemical ionization [36]. The sample used was NBS standard reference material SRM 1650, which originated from Diesel exhaust particulate matter and was fractionated by normal-phase HPLC prior to GC–MS.

#### 4. Mutagenicity

Numerous investigations into the mutagenicity of benzantrone have been performed in the past 15 years. Benzantrone was found to be mutagenic in a test with *Salmonella typhimurium* strains after activation, and it is suspected that its oxidation in air may also lead to mutagenic products [37]. The Ames test for mutagenicity was performed with 30 polycyclic compounds from urban air particulate matter [38]. Soot and 70 associated polycyclic compounds were tested for mutagenicity [39]. The mutagenicity of indoor air pollutants was measured [40,41]. Weak mutagenicity was found for keto derivatives of PAHs [42]. Dilute wood smoke was reacted with sub-ppm levels of O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> in a Teflon chamber. Aromatic ketones contributed 4% of total mutagenicity before reaction and 16–30% after reaction [43]. Residential wood combustion contributed to Contra Costa County community airborne mutagens in a winter inversion [44]. The polar neutral fraction of urban airborne particulate matter was found to be more mutagenic in the Ames assay than aliphatic or aromatic hydrocarbons [45].

Polar neutral compounds isolated from airborne particulate matter originating from residential heating and exhaust gases were more mutagenic than PAHs [46]. A mutagenicity-directed approach was undertaken to the determination of genotoxic components in coastal sediments. Fractionation was carried out by normal-

and reversed-phase LC and gel permeation chromatography (GPC), and the Ames test for mutagenicity was performed [47]. A bioassay-directed fractionation and interseasonal study was also undertaken [48].

#### 5. Toxicity

Since benzantrone is also an industrial chemical, data on its toxicity have been reported. More than six hepatic microsomal metabolites were isolated [49]. Algal cancer was observed in the marine alga *Porphyra tenera* in the presence of benzantrone in Fukuoka, Japan [50]. The effect of benzantrone on the bladder of guinea pigs has been investigated, and localized damage was observed at a dose of 25 mg/kg [51]. The long-term effect of benzantrone in rats at a biweekly administration rate of 25 µg/kg has been described [52]. Benzantrone was administered to mice, rats and rabbits, and a low acute and a strong subchronic toxicity to liver and blood were observed [53]. The health status of workers in the production of benzantrone was surveyed, and disorders of the liver were attributed to combined effects of several chemicals [54]. The interaction of benzantrone with serum proteins was found to be strongest at pH 7–8 [55]. The toxicity of PAHs and related compounds to *Daphnia magna* was investigated, and PAHs were classified as toxic, moderately toxic and non-toxic [56]. Photoinduced toxicity to larvae was reported [57]. Bioelimination and organ retention of benzantrone in scorbutic and non-scorbutic guinea pigs was investigated, and ascorbic acid facilitated the bioelimination of benzantrone [58,59]. Ascorbic acid also reversed the effects of benzantrone in mice [60]. Bioelimination of benzantrone was slower in guinea pigs than in rats [61].

#### 6. Environmental occurrence

As benzantrone is not only an industrial chemical but also accompanies PAHs in combustion related particulate emissions, it is found

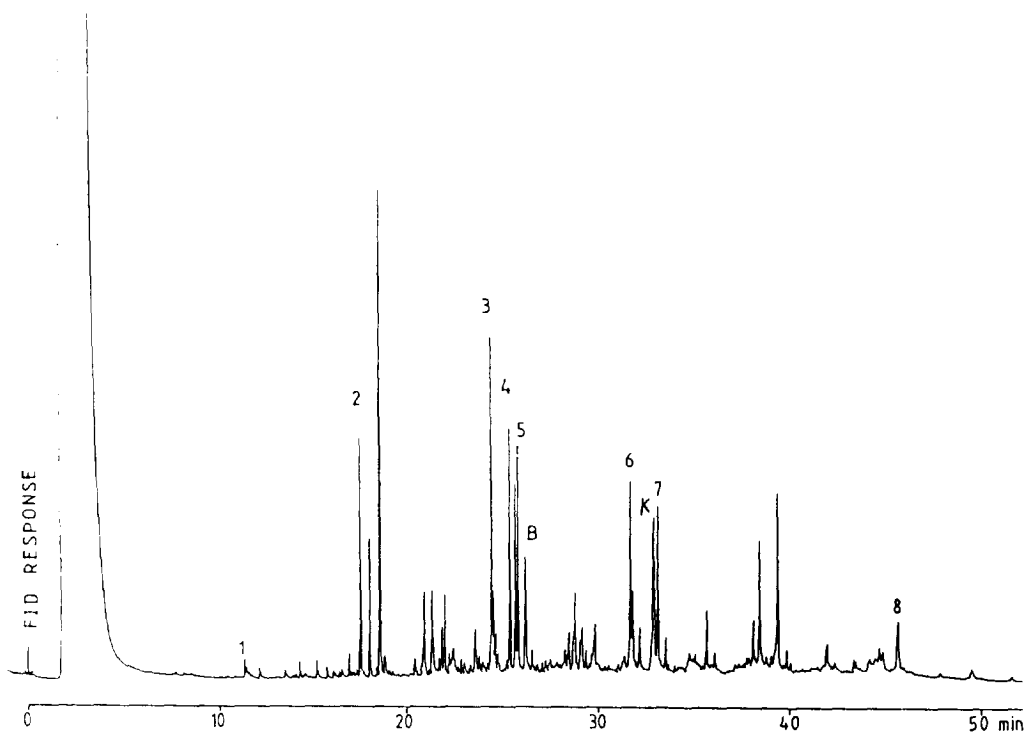


Fig. 2. Gas chromatogram of polycyclic aromatic compounds isolated from aircraft turbine particulate emissions (Pratt and Whitney JT3D3, gas turbine). Stationary phase, OV-1; column, 60 m  $\times$  0.03 mm I.D., temperature, programmed from 110 to 280°C at 4°C/min. Y Ordinate scale: peak 2 (fluoranthene) represents 4.5 ng. Peaks: 1 = phenanthrene; 2 = fluoranthene; 3 = benzo[ghi]fluoranthene; 4 = cyclopenta[cd]pyrene; 5 = chrysene; 6 = benzo[b]fluoranthene; 7 = benzo[a]pyrene; 8 = coronene; B = benzanthrone; K = 6-H-benzo[cd]pyrene-6-one.

virtually everywhere in the environment. Most interesting is the fact that it was also found in a meteorite [62]. A characteristic fingerprint of benzanthrone among other polycyclic aromatic emissions is displayed in Fig. 2. This sample was

obtained from gas turbine particulate emissions and also reveals the quantitative ratio of benzanthrone to PAHs. The concentrations of benzanthrone in air particulate matter and surface soil are listed in Table 1.

Table 1  
Contents of benzanthrone in airborne particulate matter and surface soil

Sample	Location	Concentration	
		ng/m <sup>3</sup> air	$\mu$ g/kg
Urban air particulate matter [5]	Oregon, USA	1.7	
Urban air particulate matter [27]	Duisburg, Germany	0.46–3.66	
Surface soil [77]	Nagoya, Japan		10
Exhaust particulate matter [21]	In-use VW Diesel engines, USA		243–1281

Owing to its widespread distribution in the environment, there is a comprehensive literature available on the environmental occurrence of benzanthrone. Oxygenated arenes were identified in urban air in Toronto, Canada [63]. Diesel exhaust contains polycyclic aromatic ketones in the most mutagenic fractions separated from diesel soot extracts, and benzanthrone was identified among other oxygen-containing derivatives of PAHs such as anthracenedione, 4*H*-cyclopenta[*def*]phenanthren-4-one and fluorenones [64]. Polar subfractions of Diesel exhaust account for 65% of direct-acting mutagenicity in the Ames assay [65]. Polycyclic ketones were also identified in urban airborne particulate matter from St. Louis, MO, USA [66]. Emission rates of benzanthrone were found to be twice as high from gasoline engines than Diesel engines in Japan [67]. Emissions of polycyclic compounds from rubber combustion were characterized [68]. Ambient airborne particulate matter was investigated in the Philadelphia industrial area, and mutagenicity testing was done [69]. Polycyclic aromatic ketones were also present in the pot room of an aluminium production plant [70]. Higher mutagenic activity is found for PAHs in Diesel exhaust after oxidation [71]. An interesting area is the gas/particle distribution of atmospheric organic compounds including polycyclic compounds [5,72]. The analysis of organic matter in coke oven emissions also revealed polycyclic compounds [73]. Sources of fine organic aerosol were systematically investigated [74–76]. Benzanthrone was also determined in urban surface soil from Japan, and it was found that it had originated from air particulate matter precipitated from the atmosphere [77].

## 7. Conclusion

The determination of benzanthrone is mostly done by multi-stage clean-up procedures and characterization by instrumental methods involving MS in addition to HPLC or GC. Owing to the complex analytical procedure, fewer data have been published on the environmental oc-

currence of benzanthrone and other related polycyclic aromatic ketones than on parent PAHs. It is recommended that any determination of polycyclic compounds should include polycyclic aromatic ketones of molecular masses 230 and 254, since they are always abundant in emissions from combustion sources, and obviously contribute to the total mutagenicity after being derivatized by secondary reactions.

Minor components among polynuclear aromatic compounds and the atmospheric reaction products of primary emissions including benzanthrone form an exceedingly large group of slightly or strongly polar polynuclear aromatic compounds. Multi-step clean-up procedures must be applied, and determination of selected compounds poses a challenge to current efficient analytical methods. An increase in mutagenic activity after atmospheric reactions has been reported [71]. The ratio of benzanthrone and benzo[*a*]pyrene to benzo[*e*]pyrene decreases during atmospheric degradation, and this ratio thus gives an important indication whether such atmospheric reactions have occurred or not.

Profile analysis of polycyclic aromatic ketones must be performed if the ratio of benzanthrone to minor polycyclic aromatic compounds is to be determined. A multi-step clean-up procedure is performed, and PAHs are absent from the profile of polycyclic aromatic ketones obtained by capillary GC [27].

The ratio of benzanthrone to benzo[*e*]pyrene and other PAHs is most rapidly revealed by clean-up on XAD-2 and profile analysis by capillary GC. Quantitative ratios of benzanthrone to all other major polycyclic compounds, including PAHs, are directly available from the chromatogram, whereas some overlap may occur among minor components [13].

HPLC is an efficient method for sample clean-up but cannot provide comprehensive information on related compounds that occur together with benzanthrone at similar concentration. Combined techniques such as GC-MS, LC-GC or LC-MS were all applied successfully and allow direct compound identification without sample clean-up.

## References

- [1] H. Koch, G. Kilpper and P. Miederer, Ger. Offen., DE 3.811.635, 1989.
- [2] L.V. Timoshenko, Aktual. Vapri. Okhr. Tr. Klin. Promsti. (1976) 123.
- [3] G. Schaden, in R.C.E. Jones and C.A. Cramer (Editors), Proceedings of the 3rd International Symposium on Analytical Pyrolysis, 1976, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1977, p. 289.
- [4] U.R. Stenberg and T.E. Alsberg, Anal. Chem., 53 (1981) 2067.
- [5] M.P. Ligocki and J.F. Pankow, Environ. Sci. Technol., 23 (1989) 75.
- [6] G. Grimmer, K.W. Naujack and D. Schneider, Fresenius' Z. Anal. Chem., 311 (1982) 475.
- [7] R. Niles and Y.L. Tan, Anal. Chim. Acta, 221 (1989) 53.
- [8] D.W. Later, M.L. Lee, K.D. Bartle, R.C. Kong and D.L. Vassilaros, Anal. Chem., 53 (1981) 1612.
- [9] D.L. Vassilaros, P.W. Stoker, G.M. Booth and M.L. Lee, Anal. Chem., 54 (1982) 106.
- [10] M.L. Lee, D.L. Vassilaros and D.W. Later, Int. J. Environ. Anal. Chem., 11 (1982) 251.
- [11] H.Y. Tong, D.L. Shore, F.W. Karasek, P. Helland and E. Jellum, J. Chromatogr., 285 (1984) 423.
- [12] M.T. Galceran and E. Moyaro, Talanta, 40 (1993) 615.
- [13] T. Spitzer, J. Chromatogr., 237 (1982) 273.
- [14] T. Spitzer, J. High Resolut. Chromatogr. Chromatogr. Commun., 7 (1984) 301.
- [15] P. Fernandez and J.M. Bayona, J. Chromatogr., 625 (1992) 141.
- [16] F.W. Karasek and H.Y. Tong, J. Chromatogr., 332 (1985) 169.
- [17] R. Draisci, A. Cecinato, E. Brancaleoni and P. Ciccio, Chromatographia, 23 (1987) 803.
- [18] M.A. Quilliam and P.G. Sim, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 26 (1988) 160.
- [19] G.W. Kelly, K.D. Bartle, A.A. Clifford and R.E. Robinson, J. High Resolut. Chromatogr., 15 (1992) 526.
- [20] G.W. Kelly, K.D. Bartle and A.A. Clifford, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 31 (1993) 73.
- [21] H.Y. Tong, J.A. Sweetman, F.W. Karasek, E. Jellum and A.K. Thorsrud, J. Chromatogr., 312 (1984) 183.
- [22] S.B. Hawthorne, D.J. Miller and M.S. Krieger, Fresenius' Z. anal. Chem., 330 (1988) 211.
- [23] K.P. Naikwadi, A.M. McGovern and F.W. Karasek, Can. J. Chem., 65 (1987) 970.
- [24] T. Ueda, Z. Abliz, S. Iwashima, J. Aoki and T. Kan, Int. J. Mass Spectrom. Ion Processes, 88 (1989) 175.
- [25] T. Ueda and Z. Abliz, Res. Bull. Meisei Univ., Phys. Sci. Eng., 25 (1989) 39.
- [26] J. Tuominen, K. Wickstrom and H. Pyysalo, J. High Resolut. Chromatogr. Chromatogr. Commun., 9 (1986) 469.
- [27] J. Koenig, E. Balfanz and W. Funcke, T. Romanowski, Anal. Chem., 55 (1983) 599.
- [28] T. Spitzer, J. High Resolut. Chromatogr. Chromatogr. Commun., 5 (1982) 98.
- [29] T. Ramdahl, Environ. Int., 11 (1985) 197.
- [30] T. Ramdahl, Environ. Sci. Technol., 17 (1983) 666.
- [31] J. Schulze, A. Hartung, H. Kiess, J. Kraft and K.H. Lies, Chromatographia, 19 (1984) 391.
- [32] T. Knobloch and W. Engewald, J. High Resolut. Chromatogr. Chromatogr. Commun., 16 (1993) 239.
- [33] W.F. Rogge, M.A. Mazurek, L.M. Hildemann, G.R. Cass and B.R.T. Simoneit, Atmos. Environ., Part A, 27 (1993) 1309.
- [34] T. Alsberg, M. Strandell, R. Westerholm and U. Stenberg, Environ. Int., 11 (1985) 249.
- [35] T. Spitzer, J. Chromatogr., 267 (1983) 167.
- [36] J.M. Bayona, K.E. Markides and M.L. Lee, Environ. Sci. Technol., 22 (1988) 1440.
- [37] T.L. Gibson, V.B. Smart and L.L. Smith, Mutat. Res., 49 (1978) 153.
- [38] M.F. Salamone, J.A. Heddle and M. Katz, Environ. Int., 2 (1979) 37.
- [39] D.A. Kaden, R.A. Hites and W.G. Thilly, Cancer Res., 39 (1979) 4152.
- [40] I. Alfheim and T. Ramdahl, Environ. Mutagen., 6 (1984) 121.
- [41] K. Sexton, L.M. Webber, S.B. Hayard and R.G. Sextro, Environ. Int., 12 (1986) 351.
- [42] N. Moeller, I. Hagen and T. Ramdahl, Mutat. Res., 157 (1985) 149.
- [43] R. Kamens, D. Bell, A. Dietrich, J. Perry, R. Goodman, L. Claxon and S. Tejada, Environ. Sci. Technol., 19 (1985) 37.
- [44] C.P. Flessel, G.N. Guirguis, J.C. Cheny, K.I. Chang, E.S. Hahn, S. Twiss and J.J. Wesolowski, Environ. Int., 11 (1985) 293.
- [45] H.J. Moriske, J. Block, H. Schleibinger and H. Rueden, Zentralbl. Mikrobiol. Hyg. Abt. 1, Orig. B, 181 (1985) 240.
- [46] H.J. Moriske, I. Block and H. Rueden, Schriftenr. Ver. Wasser-, Boden-, Lufthyg., 67 (1986) 235.
- [47] P. Fernandez, M. Grifoll, A.M. Solano and J.M. Bayona, Environ. Sci. Technol., 26 (1992) 817.
- [48] A. Greenberg, J.H. Lwo, T.B. Atherholt, R. Rosen, T. Hartmann, J. Butler and J. Louis, Atmos. Environ., Part A, 27 (1993) 1609.
- [49] M. Das, K. Garg, G.B. Singh and S.K. Khanna, Biochem. Int., 18 (1989) 1237.
- [50] S. Ishio, T. Yano and R. Nakagawa, in S.H. Jenkins (Editor), Proceedings of 5th International Conference on Advances in Water Pollution Research, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1970, Vol. 2, III-18, pp. 1–8.
- [51] G.B. Singh and V.N.P. Tripathi, Experientia, 29 (1973) 683.
- [52] G.B. Singh and S.K. Khanna, Environ. Res., 12 (1976) 327.

- [53] V.A. Volodchenko, E.R. Sadokha and J.S. Ostrovskaya, *Farmakol. Toksikol. (Moscow)*, 40 (1977) 457.
- [54] A.J. Kleiner, J.S. Sonkin, Z.F. Nestrugina, E.V. Krylova and L.D. Rezenkina, *Gig. Tr. Prof. Zabol.*, 10 (1979) 43.
- [55] G.B. Singh and C.R. Krishna Murti, *Ind. Health*, 22 (1984) 279.
- [56] J.L. Newsted and J.P. Giesy, *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.*, 6 (1987) 445.
- [57] J.T. Oris and J.P. Giesy, Jr., *Chemosphere*, 16 (1987) 1395.
- [58] M. Das, K. Garg, G.B. Singh and S.K. Khanna, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 178 (1991) 1405.
- [59] K. Garg, S.K. Khanna, M.A. Das and G.B. Singh, *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, 30 (1992) 967.
- [60] N. Dwivedi, M. Das, A. Joshi, G.B. Singh and S.K. Khanna, *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, 31 (1993) 503.
- [61] K. Garg, S.K. Khanna, M. Das and G.B. Singh, *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, 30 (1992) 517.
- [62] R.V. Krishnamurthy, S. Epstein, J.R. Cronin, S. Pizzarello and G.U. Yuen, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, 56 (1992) 4045.
- [63] R.C. Pierce and M. Katz, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 9 (1975) 347.
- [64] M.L. Ju and R.A. Hites, *Anal. Chem.*, 53 (1981) 951.
- [65] D.R. Choudhury, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 16 (1982) 102.
- [66] T. Ramdahl, G. Becher and A. Bjoerseth, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 16 (1982) 861.
- [67] T. Handa, T. Yamauchi, K. Sawai, Y. Takaki, Y. Koseki and T. Ishi, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 18 (1984) 895.
- [68] B.W. Jacobs and C.E. Billings, *Am. Ind. Hyg. Assoc. J.*, 46 (1985) 547.
- [69] S.A. Wise, S.N. Chesler, L.R. Hilpert, W.E. May, R.E. Rebberet, C.R. Vogt, M.G. Nishioka, A. Austin and J. Lewtas, *Environ. Int.*, 11 (1985) 147.
- [70] K.E. Thrane and H. Stray, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 53 (1986) 111.
- [71] K.H. Lies, A. Hartung, A. Postulka, H. Gring and J. Schulze, *Dev. Toxicol. Environ. Sci.*, 13 (1986) 65.
- [72] J. Albaiges, J.M. Bayona, P. Fernandez, J. Grimalt, A. Rosell and R. Simo, *Mikrochim. Acta*, 2 (1991) 13.
- [73] P.J. Kiston, J. Ellis and P.T. Crisp, *Fuel*, 70 (1991) 1383.
- [74] W.F. Rogge, L.M. Hildemann, M.A. Mazurek, G.R. Cass and B.R.T. Simoneit, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 27 (1993) 636.
- [75] W.F. Rogge, L.M. Hildemann, M.A. Mazurek, G.R. Cass and B.R.T. Simoneit, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 27 (1993) 2736.
- [76] W.F. Rogge, L.M. Hildemann, M.A. Mazurek, G.R. Cass and B.R.T. Simoneit, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 27 (1993) 1892.
- [77] T. Spitzer and S. Kuwatsuka, *J. Chromatogr.*, 643 (1993) 305.