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1 **Determination of transformation products of per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances at**
2 **trace levels in agricultural plants**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are ubiquitous in the environment. However,
16 only a limited number of predominantly persistent perfluoroalkyl acids (PFAAs) have been
17 analyzed in edible plants so far. We present a generic trace analytical method that allows for
18 quantification of 16 intermediate fluorotelomer alcohol (FTOH)- or perfluoroalkane
19 sulfonamidoethanol (FASE)-based transformation products as well as 18 PFAAs in plants.
20 Additionally, 36 suspected intermediate PFAS transformation products were qualitatively
21 analyzed. The ultrasound-assisted solid-liquid extraction of wheat and maize grain, maize
22 leaves, Jerusalem artichoke and ryegrass (1-5 g plant sample intake) was followed by a clean-
23 up with dispersive solid-phase extraction using graphitized carbon adsorbent (5-10 mg per
24 sample) and chemical analysis by reversed phase liquid chromatography-tandem mass
25 spectrometry. The method was based on matrix matched and extracted calibrations (MMEC)
26 and displayed good precision with relative standard deviations in triplicate analyses typically
27 below 15% for all quantified analytes and matrices. An average deviation of 12% between
28 quantified concentrations obtained by MMEC and a method based on isotopically labelled
29 internal standards underlines the good trueness of the method. The method quantification
30 limits for the majority of analytes in all plant samples were in the low ng/kg concentration
31 range. Plant matrices were analyzed from crops grown on agricultural fields that have been
32 contaminated with PFASs. FTOH- and/or FASE-based intermediate transformation products
33 were detected in all samples with *N*-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid (EtFOSAA)
34 and perfluorooctane sulfonamide (FOSA) as the prevailing compounds in concentrations up to
35 several hundred ng/kg in maize leaves. The 9:3 Acid (a transformation product of 10:2
36 FTOH) was tentatively identified. In accordance with these findings, the final degradation
37 products perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) and perfluorodecanoic acid (PFDA) were
38 frequently detected. For perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids (PFCAs), according to earlier
39 findings, short chain homologues generally displayed the highest levels (up to 98 µg/kg for
40 perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA) in maize leaves). However, maize grain was an exception
41 showing the highest concentrations for long chain PFCAs, whereas PFBA was not detected.
42 The uptake of high levels of PFASs into plants is of concern since these may be used as
43 animal feed or represent a direct exposure medium for humans.

44

45 **Keywords:** PFAS transformation products; plant samples; fluorotelomer; perfluoroalkane
46 sulfonamidoethanol; quantification

47

48 **1 Introduction**

49 Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are exclusively man-made compounds that have
50 been produced in large volumes since the 1950s [1, 2]. Their unique ability to lower surface
51 tension is exploited in a wide range of very useful industrial and consumer products including
52 surfactants in fluoropolymer production, metal plating, fire-fighting foams and coatings of
53 textile and paper products [1]. However, increasing evidence shows toxicity of numerous
54 PFASs [3] as well as the ubiquitous presence of PFASs in the environment [2-4]. The final
55 transformation products of many PFASs, the perfluoroalkyl acids (PFAAs), are extremely
56 persistent in the environment. Furthermore, long-chain PFAAs are highly bioaccumulative
57 and thus end up in biota like polar bears [5] and humans [3]. Their short-chain analogues
58 preferably partition to the water cycle [6], from where they find their way into the food chain
59 via uptake into plants [7].

60 In the federal state of Baden-Württemberg (in the south-west of Germany) a large-scale
61 contamination of agricultural land with PFASs was discovered in 2013 [8]. The source of the
62 contamination is likely to be paper sludge obtained from surface treated paper products
63 brought out on the fields in the early 2000s. At that time, highly fluorinated phosphate esters
64 (PAPs) were frequently applied for surface treatment of water- and grease-repellent products
65 of paper and board [9]. These phosphate esters were typically based on n:2 fluorotelomer
66 alcohols (FTOHs) (n:2 PAPs, also di- and tri-esters) of various fluorinated chain lengths (i. e.
67 various even numbers of n) or on *N*-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoethanol (EtFOSE)
68 (SAmPAP, usually the di-ester) [9].

69 Under aerobic conditions n:2 PAPs are hydrolyzed in soil and sludge to form n:2 FTOHs,
70 followed by oxidation to n:2 fluorotelomer carboxylic acids (n:2 FTCAs), n:2 fluorotelomer
71 unsaturated carboxylic acids (n:2 FTUCAs) and finally transformation to highly persistent C_n
72 and C_{n+1} perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids (PFCAs) [10-13]. In addition, (n-1):3 carboxylic
73 acids ((n-1):3 Acids) and their unsaturated analogues ((n-1):3 UAcids) can also be formed
74 [10, 12-14].

75 Also EtFOSE-based surfactants are degraded in the environment. The hydrolysis of SAmPAP
76 leads to EtFOSE, which is further microbially transformed to *N*-ethyl perfluorooctane
77 sulfonamidoacetic acid (EtFOSAA), *N*-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamide (EtFOSA) and the
78 corresponding *N*-dealkylated substances (FOSE, FOSAA and FOSA). The final persistent
79 transformation products are perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) or PFCAs [15-17]. The
80 degradation pathways are exemplarily illustrated in the literature for 6:2 diPAP [10] and
81 SAmPAP diester [15].

82 Methods for FOSE- or more general perfluoroalkane sulfonamidoethanol (FASE)-based
83 metabolites in plants have not been published so far and the uptake and translocation of these
84 compounds have not been studied. Two published studies analyzed FTOH-based
85 transformation products (FT(U)CAs, (n-1):3 Acids, and PFCAs) in plants. Zhang and co-
86 workers exposed soybean hydroponically to 8:2 FTOH [18]. For sample preparation, the
87 methanol extract of the freeze-dried plant tissues was split. Clean-up of one half was
88 performed by solid-phase extraction (SPE) using a weak anion exchanger (WAX) before
89 screening for acidic transformation products of 8:2 FTOH. The second half was cleaned with
90 graphitized carbon adsorbent before determination of FTOHs. Both, the parent compound, as
91 well as its metabolites were found in all parts of the plant. Bizkarguenaga et al. fortified
92 compost-amended soil with 8:2 diPAP and cultivated carrot and lettuce [19]. Ultrasound-
93 assisted extraction was performed with acetonitrile before clean-up with SPE (WAX).
94 Intermediate transformation products were not detected in the plants, however, a suite of
95 PFCAs were quantified in carrots and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) was found in lettuce.
96 PFAA uptake and translocation has earlier been observed in, e. g., tomato [20] and zucchini
97 [21].

98 Understanding the potential uptake of FTOH- and FASE-based PFASs and their
99 transformation products into edible plants is a crucial prerequisite for an effective risk
100 assessment in agricultural contamination cases. This requires ultra-trace analytical methods
101 for a suite of (intermediate) PFAS transformation products. The only two published studies to
102 date that are relevant in this respect are described above [18, 19]. However, none of these
103 studies investigated FASE-based substances and both studies used fortification with PFASs to
104 investigate transformation behavior. Hence, no analytical method to measure a broad set of
105 intermediate transformation products of FTOH- and FASE-based compounds in complex
106 matrices is available, yet, or has been applied to study an environmental contamination case.
107 We therefore aimed to develop a quantitative trace analytical method for these compounds
108 (including PFCAs and perfluoroalkane sulfonic acids (PFSAs)) in plant samples. The method
109 was applied to wheat and maize grain, maize leaves, Jerusalem artichoke and ryegrass grown
110 on the contaminated fields in Baden-Württemberg.

111

112 **2 Materials and methods**

113 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

114 The target analytes comprised transformation products of fluorotelomer- and perfluoroalkane
115 sulfonamidoethanol-based precursors (see introduction). We focused on compounds with a

116 chain length between four and sixteen perfluorinated carbon atoms, since these chain lengths
117 have been shown to occur in PAPs used in coatings of paper products [22]. The following
118 substance classes were included: n:2 FTCAs, n:2 FTUCAs, (n-1):3 Acids, (n-1):3 UAcids,
119 (alkyl)FASEs, (alkyl)FASAAs, and (alkyl)FASAs, whereby ‘alkyl’ could be methyl (Me),
120 ethyl (Et), or missing (i. e. just hydrogen). A total of 16 commercially available authentic
121 reference standards were used in this study together with six stable isotope-labelled
122 compounds used as internal standards (IS). All standard chemicals were purchased from
123 Wellington Laboratories (Guelph, ON, Canada) with a purity of >98% and are listed in Table
124 S1 in the Supplementary Material (SM) together with their acronyms according to Buck et al.
125 [2]. In addition, also the final transformation products, the PFCAs and PFSAs, were analyzed
126 using the same extracts (see section 2.8). Ultrapure water from a Milli-Q system (Merck
127 KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) was used. LC/MS grade methanol (MeOH), acetonitrile (ACN)
128 and ammonium acetate (NH₄OAc) were obtained from Biosolve (Valkenswaard, the
129 Netherlands).

130 **2.2 Stability of analytes**

131 The stability of standard solutions of the analytes during typical sample processing times (two
132 to four days) and conditions was investigated for at least one compound from each substance
133 class (except (n-1):3 UAcids for which no standard was available) by preparing duplicate
134 individual standard solutions at a concentration of 10 ng/mL in MeOH. One replicate for each
135 compound was stored at daylight and room temperature and the second one in the dark at -18
136 °C. Signal areas obtained by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry analysis (LC-
137 MS/MS, see below) were compared after 7, 14 and 21 days.

138 **2.3 Samples**

139 Wheat (*Triticum L.*) grain, maize (*zea mays*) grain and leaves, and Jerusalem artichoke
140 (*Helianthus tuberosus*) were each grown on two different agricultural fields in the area of
141 Rastatt in the Upper Rhine Plain, Baden-Württemberg, Germany. One field was contaminated
142 with PFASs through application of paper fiber biosolids [8], while the other was an
143 uncontaminated control field. Ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) was cultivated in the lab on
144 contaminated as well as uncontaminated soil taken from the field. An overview of the plant
145 samples used in the present study is given in Table 1. The drying and homogenization
146 procedures for the plant samples are described in detail elsewhere [23]. In brief, after harvest
147 plants were cut in small pieces, dried (by air drying, freeze drying, or in a convection oven at
148 60 °C), homogenized in a cryogenic grinder, and stored at 6 °C. For method development the

149 entire uncontaminated Jerusalem artichoke was cut, freeze dried and homogenized while for
150 chemical analysis of contaminated samples the Jerusalem artichoke skin and the peeled
151 Jerusalem artichoke were processed separately.

152 **2.4 Extraction and clean-up**

153 For this study no laboratory tools or vessels containing fluoropolymer parts were used in
154 order to avoid blank contamination. Prior to sample extraction the IS (10 ng of each standard)
155 including IS for PFCAs and PFSAs (see section 2.8 below) were spiked as follows. The
156 homogenized plant samples were placed in a 50 mL polypropylene (PP) centrifugation tube
157 and suspended in ACN. After spiking with 10 ng of each standard in MeOH, the tube was
158 vortex-mixed for 10 s and then left open at room temperature for 72 h for the solvent to
159 evaporate to dryness.

160 **2.4.1 Solid-liquid extraction**

161 Sample extraction was based on solid-liquid extraction with ACN in three cycles. The sample
162 intake and ACN volume for each cycle of extraction was optimized matrix-specifically (Table
163 1). The sample suspended in ACN was vortex mixed for 10 s, ultra-sonicated for 15 min at
164 room temperature, and placed into a 360 degree rotary mixer for 15 min at 25 rounds per
165 minute (rpm). After centrifugation for 5 min at 5,000 rpm, the supernatant was transferred to a
166 50 mL PP tube. The extraction was repeated twice as described above but with a reduced
167 duration of 5 min for ultra-sonication. Finally, the combined extracts were concentrated to 1
168 mL at room temperature under a gentle stream of dry nitrogen. Concentration to dryness was
169 avoided to prevent loss of volatile (neutral) analytes.

170 **2.4.2 Clean-up by dispersive solid phase extraction**

171 The concentrated extract was transferred into a 2.5 mL PP centrifugation tube before adding a
172 matrix-specific amount (Table 1) of granular graphitized carbon (Supelclean ENVI-Carb
173 120/400, Supelco, Sweden). After vortex mixing for 30 s and microcentrifugation for 2.5 min
174 at 14,000 g, the supernatant was carefully removed and filtered through a syringe filter (0.2
175 μm membrane, PP housing, Minisart RC4, Sartorius, Germany) into another 2.5 mL
176 centrifugation tube. The filter was washed twice with 150 μL of ACN. The combined solutions
177 were concentrated to approximately 500 μL under a gentle stream of dry nitrogen at room
178 temperature and the extract was weighed to determine the final volume gravimetrically.
179 Extracts were stored at 8 °C until instrumental analysis. In case precipitation occurred during
180 storage, the extracts were microcentrifuged for another 2.5 min at 14,000 g and only the clear
181 supernatant was transferred to a PP autoinjector vial for LC-MS/MS analysis.

182 **2.5 Instrumental analysis**

183 Chemical analysis of sample extracts was performed by LC-MS/MS employing a UPLC
184 Acquity I-Class system coupled to a tandem mass spectrometer (Xevo TQ-S) equipped with
185 an electrospray ionization (ESI) source (all from Waters). An Acquity UPLC BEH Shield
186 RP18 column (50 x 2.1 mm, 1.7 μm particle size, Waters) was used for chromatographic
187 separation in reversed phase mode at 40 °C at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min. A 'PFC IsolatorTM',
188 column (50 x 2.1 mm, Waters) was placed between the eluent mixer and the injector to trap
189 and delay elution of potential background contamination from the eluents or the UPLC
190 system. The injection volume was 2.5 μL . The applied mobile phase gradient was taken from
191 literature [24] and is given in Table S3 in the SM. MS analysis was carried out in negative ion
192 multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. MRM transitions of compounds with available
193 authentic reference standards were optimized by direct infusion and are displayed in Table S4
194 in the SM. MRM transitions of target analytes without available reference standard were
195 extrapolated from MRM transitions of structurally similar compounds, usually homologues
196 (Table S5 in the SM).

197 **2.6 Quantification**

198 Signal integration and quantification were carried out using the software MassLynx V4.1
199 (Waters). Two quantification procedures were applied, i. e. matrix matched and extracted
200 calibration (also known as procedural calibration) and the internal standard (also known as
201 isotope dilution) method. All analytes with reference standards were quantified by matrix
202 matched and extracted calibration using the calibration curves described in section 2.7.2
203 below. The calibration curve of Jerusalem artichoke was applied for quantification of both
204 Jerusalem artichoke skin and peeled Jerusalem artichoke. Internal standard quantification was
205 additionally performed for FOSA, EtFOSA, MeFOSE, MeFOSAA, 8:2 FTCA and 6:2
206 FTUCA (as well as for all PFCAs and PFSAs, see section 2.8), which were the analytes with
207 authentic isotope labelled IS in this study. Analytes without reference standards were only
208 analyzed qualitatively (detected with a certain level of confidence (see section 3.4) or non-
209 detected).

210 **2.7 Method validation**

211 A full method validation was made for the FTOH- and FASE-based intermediate
212 transformation products. The following sections 2.7.1 to 2.7.5 thus refer to these analytes.
213 Quantification of PFCAs and PFSAs is described briefly in section 2.8. A full validation was

214 not performed for the PFAAs since the use of authentic isotopically mass-labeled internal
215 standards for almost all PFAAs assures good quality of the quantified concentrations.

216 **2.7.1 Instrumental blanks, instrumental detection limits and linear range**

217 Instrumental background contamination (“blanks”) was evaluated by injection of 2.5 µL pure
218 solvent into the LC-MS/MS system. To obtain instrumental detection limits (IDL) and the
219 linear range of the mass spectrometric detection a dilution series of the standards at 10, 20, 50,
220 100, 250, 500, 750, 1000, 2000 and 5000 pg/mL in pure ACN (5 µL injection volume) was
221 analyzed. Due to absence of blank contamination for all analytes, the IDL was defined as the
222 lowest injected amount of analyte leading to a signal in the chromatogram with a signal to
223 noise ratio of at least three ($S/N \geq 3$).

224 **2.7.2 Procedural blanks, method detection and quantification limits**

225 Analysis of plant samples grown on uncontaminated soil (see section 2.3) did not show
226 detectable concentrations of any of the analytes. Thus, procedural background contamination
227 did not occur above the method detection limit. Method detection limits (MDLs, in µg/kg
228 sample) were therefore derived from the matrix matched and extracted calibration (5 to 10
229 calibration points, extracted in duplicates, see Tables S6-S8 in the SM for spike concentration
230 ranges) based on the uncontaminated plant samples. The MDL, derived by rational means,
231 was defined as the lowest spike concentration showing a signal in the chromatogram with S/N
232 ≥ 3 . The method quantification limit (MQL), derived by rational means, was defined as the
233 lowest spike concentration showing a signal in the chromatogram with $S/N \geq 10$ and deviating
234 less than 20% from the matrix matched and extracted linear fitted calibration curve (fit
235 weighting $1/x$). To validate the “rational” MDL and MQL values, MDLs and MQLs were
236 additionally determined according to DIN standard 32645 for maize grain and leaves.

237 **2.7.3 Recoveries and matrix effects**

238 Recoveries (covering the whole sample extraction and preparation procedure) and matrix
239 effects were repeatedly evaluated during method development and optimization and in the
240 validation of the final method. In order to consider sample preparation recoveries of the target
241 analytes independently from matrix effects, mean signal areas in the extracts of spiked,
242 uncontaminated plant samples were compared to mean signal areas in spiked extracts of
243 uncontaminated samples. Spiking was performed with 10 ng each of the 16 reference
244 standards (Table S1 in the SM) to the matrix-specifically optimized sample amounts (Table
245 1), as described above in section 2.4. For the determination of matrix effects on instrumental
246 analysis of the target compounds, mean signal areas in spiked extracts of uncontaminated

247 samples were compared to mean signal areas of the analytes injected in pure solvent. Matrix
248 effects are expressed as the ratio of the respective signal areas, i. e. a value of 1 means no
249 matrix effect, while values >1 and <1 indicate signal enhancement and suppression,
250 respectively, by the presence of co-extracted sample constituents.

251 **2.7.4 Precision**

252 The precision of the method was evaluated by triplicate analysis (intra-day) of all
253 contaminated plant samples and is expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD) of the
254 quantified concentrations. However, since only relatively few analytes were detectable in the
255 contaminated samples (see section 3.4), repeatability was additionally determined using
256 samples spiked with IS. Contaminated samples (triplicate analysis as described above) and
257 uncontaminated samples (ten repetitions from the matrix matched and extracted calibration
258 curves for all plant types except for Jerusalem artichoke for which 16 repetitions were
259 prepared) were spiked with the six IS before extraction and the RSD of signal areas of the IS
260 in the chromatograms of the final extracts were determined as a quantitative measure of
261 repeatability.

262 **2.7.5 Trueness of quantification**

263 Certified or consensus reference plant materials with the target analytes were not available.
264 The trueness of quantification was therefore evaluated by comparing the quantified
265 concentrations of FOSA, EtFOSA, MeFOSE, MeFOSAA, 8:2 FTCA and 6:2 FTUCA (i. e.
266 the analytes with authentic IS in this study) in contaminated samples obtained by matrix
267 matched and extracted calibration with the results obtained using the independent internal
268 standard method. The latter is generally considered to be the most accurate quantification
269 method using mass spectrometric detection, since it corrects for varying recoveries and matrix
270 effects on a compound- and sample-specific basis.

271 **2.8 Analysis of perfluoroalkyl carboxylic and perfluoroalkane sulfonic acids**

272 A total of 13 PFCAs and four PFSAAs were quantified in the contaminated plant samples
273 together with the intermediate transformation products (in the same extracts) using the
274 internal standard method. These two compound classes represent the terminal, stable
275 transformation products from fluorotelomer- and FASE-based precursors, respectively. All
276 reference compounds and isotope labelled IS (Table S9 in the SM) were purchased from
277 Wellington Laboratories (Guelph, ON, Canada) with a purity of $>98\%$. The applied MRM
278 transitions are shown in Table S10 in the SM. MRM transitions of perfluoropentadecanoic
279 acid (PFPeDA, no reference standard available) were extrapolated from MRM transitions of

280 homologues. The following analytes were quantified using structurally similar IS, since
281 authentic isotope labelled standards were not available: PFTrDA (¹³C-PFDoDA), PFTeDA
282 (¹³C-PFDoDA), PFPeDA (¹³C-PFDoDA, calibration curve for PFTeDA), PFHxDA (¹³C-
283 PFDoDA), PFODA (¹³C-PFDoDA), PFBS (¹⁸O-PFHxS) and PFDS (¹³C-PFOS) (for full
284 compound names see Table S9 in the SM).

285

286 **3 Results and discussion**

287 **3.1 Pre-experiments and method development**

288 Fluorotelomer- and FASE-based intermediate transformation products are highly variable in
289 their physico-chemical properties such as charge, pK_A, logK_{ow} or volatility. Thus, the
290 extraction and clean-up procedure needed to be relatively generic and was optimized with
291 regard to a compromise between best possible recoveries, minimizing matrix effects, and
292 achieving low MDLs/MQLs.

293 For method development the 16 target analytes shown in Table S1 in the SM were employed.
294 The stability of these compounds was experimentally demonstrated (see section 2.2). None of
295 the tested compounds were found to degrade in methanol under the test conditions, thus a
296 potential bias by transformation during sample treatment was not expected. A possible
297 reduction of standard stability in matrix extracts was considered unlikely and not further
298 investigated.

299 Furthermore, no in-source fragmentation of FTCAs to their unsaturated, co-eluting FTUCA
300 analogues with the same chain length was observed during mass spectrometric detection.
301 Thus, the selectivity of the MS/MS detection was sufficient to distinguish between these
302 structurally very similar compound classes.

303 Potential losses of the semi-volatile (alkyl)FASAs and (alkyl)FASEs during the different
304 sample drying procedures were not evaluated. The quantified concentrations for these PFASs
305 may thus underestimate the levels originally present in the samples before drying.

306 Ultrasound-assisted solid-liquid extraction was performed, since this approach has been
307 shown to be highly efficient in numerous studies for a wide variety of different PFASs and
308 sample types [25, 26]. Evaporation to dryness in any sample processing step led to severe
309 recovery losses for (alkyl)FASAs and (alkyl)FASEs and was thus avoided throughout sample
310 preparation. These two compound classes have been reported as volatile in literature [27].

311 **3.2 Selection of the clean-up procedure**

312 A clean-up of all extracts was needed, since complex environmental samples like plant tissue
313 typically display strong matrix effects during analysis by LC-MS with electrospray ionization.
314 The two methods described in literature so far for analysis of FT(U)CAs, (n-1):3 Acids, and
315 PFCAs in plants employed SPE with a weak anion exchange sorbent [18, 19]. We compared
316 different frequently applied approaches for the clean-up procedure, including SPE [11, 28],
317 the QuEChERS (quick easy cheap effective rugged and safe) method [29], a modified version
318 [30] of the ion-pairing method originally developed by Ylinen et al. [31], and dispersive solid-
319 phase extraction using ENVI-Carb graphitized carbon adsorbent as previously applied in
320 various studies [24, 32, 33]. Details of the SPE, the QuEChERS, and ion-pairing method are
321 given in section 1.2 in the SM. Even though we tested SPE with two different mixed mode
322 sorbents (Oasis WAX, Waters and CUNAX22Z, UCT) in conjunction with a large set of
323 solvents of different elution strengths, we observed poor recoveries <10% for both
324 (alkyl)FASAs and (n-1):3 Acids (data not shown) from plant samples. Extracts that were
325 instead cleaned-up with the ion-pairing method still showed massive matrix effects during
326 instrumental analysis for a number of analytes. Due to signal suppression, some analytes were
327 not even detected when spiked into the extracts. SPE and ion-pairing were thus rejected as
328 clean-up methods. In contrast, satisfactory recoveries of all analytes were obtained using
329 ENVI-Carb for clean-up of the extracts. However, strong matrix effects were still observed
330 for many analytes (see below for detailed discussion). Using the QuEChERS method alone
331 resulted in poorer recoveries and even larger matrix effects than for the ENVI-Carb method.
332 An additional clean-up with ENVI-Carb reduced the matrix effects only slightly but also
333 compromised the recoveries. Therefore, we decided to use ENVI-Carb as the only clean-up
334 method for all plant extracts. Figure S1 in the SM compares recoveries and matrix effects for
335 all test compounds extracted from wheat grain and Jerusalem artichoke after extract clean-up
336 with ENVI-Carb alone, QuEChERS alone, and a combination of QuEChERS and ENVI-Carb.

337 **3.3 Optimization and validation of the extraction and clean-up method applying** 338 **ENVI-Carb**

339 **3.3.1 Instrumental blanks, instrumental detection limits and linear range**

340 None of the 16 compounds with available reference standards were detected in the
341 instrumental blanks. Compound specific IDLs are given in Table S11 in the SM. The linear
342 calibration range of the MS/MS instrument covered the entire tested range between the

343 individual IDLs and 25 pg injected with a Pearson correlation coefficient of the linear
344 regression of at least 0.95 (mean 0.99).

345 **3.3.2 Method detection and quantification limits**

346 As procedural blank contamination did not occur (see section 2.7.2) the MDLs and MQLs
347 were solely a function of sample intake, recovery, matrix effects, instrumental sensitivity and
348 chromatographic noise. Values of MDL and MQL obtained by “rational means” and
349 according to DIN standard 32645 were well comparable in extracts of maize grain and maize
350 leaves and differed from each other on average by less than a factor of three (Tables S12 and
351 S13 in the SM). Rationally derived MDLs and MQLs of MeFOSE and all carboxylic acids
352 excluding 8:2 and 10:2 FTUCA were equal in maize leaves due to our definition of these
353 values in the “rational” approach (see section 2.7.2). Generally, MDLs and MQLs were in the
354 ng/kg range in all tested plant matrices (Tables S12 to S16 in the SM). In literature [18, 19],
355 notably higher MDLs were reported compared to our study. For 6:2 FTUCA 0.3 µg/kg
356 (carrot) and 4 µg/kg (lettuce) vs. 0.004-0.08 µg/kg (our study), for 8:2 FTUCA 0.3 µg/kg
357 (carrot), 3 µg/kg (lettuce), and 0.06 µg/kg (soybean) vs. 0.001-0.5 µg/kg (our study), for 8:2
358 FTCA 0.3 µg/kg (carrot), 3 µg/kg (lettuce), and 0.22 µg/kg (soybean) vs. 0.03-0.8 µg/kg (our
359 study), and for 7:3 Acid 0.4 µg/kg (carrot), 3 µg/kg (lettuce), and 0.08 µg/kg (soybean) vs.
360 0.002-0.04 µg/kg (our study).

361 **3.3.3 Recoveries and matrix effects**

362 Sample preparation recoveries and matrix effects on ionization were determined according to
363 section 2.7.3. The spiked amount of 6:2 FTCA did not exceed the MQL in most plant types,
364 due to particularly high MQLs for this analyte (Tables S12 to S16 in the SM). Thus, 6:2
365 FTCA was not evaluated. However, the FTCA were represented by 8:2 and 10:2 FTCA.
366 The influence of sample intake and amount of ENVI-Carb used in extract clean-up on
367 recoveries and matrix effects is exemplarily illustrated for maize leaves and Jerusalem
368 artichoke in Figure 1 and for the other tested plant matrices in Figure S2 in the SM. With
369 decreasing sample intake increasing recoveries were achieved for maize leaves (Figure 1a).
370 This also holds true for ryegrass and Jerusalem artichoke (Figure S2 in the SM). Maize leaves
371 and ryegrass are very bulky matrices, thus the increase in recoveries was most likely due to
372 the increase in volume of extraction solvent relatively to the sample amount (and thus less
373 loss of extract in the samples after centrifugation). Consequently, only 1 g of these matrices
374 was extracted in the optimized procedure (Table 1). Jerusalem artichoke aggregated to a solid
375 chunk during evaporation of the ACN (applied to suspend the sample before spiking with IS)

376 and required mechanical crushing with a specula prior to the extraction procedure. This effect
377 was less pronounced with a lower sample intake. At the same time (as expected) matrix
378 effects decreased with decreasing sample intake; however, even with the final sample intake
379 of 1 g dry weight strong signal suppression (especially for EtFOSE) was observed. Similarly
380 strong matrix suppression for EtFOSE was also observed in extracts of the other tested plants
381 (Figure S2 in the SM). These observations necessitate a quantification approach that takes
382 account of the strong and highly varying matrix effects. The influence of varying amounts of
383 ENVI-Carb in the clean-up of the extracts on recoveries and matrix effects was minor, as
384 representatively shown for Jerusalem artichoke (Figure 1b) and in Figure S2 in the SM. Thus,
385 in the final extraction protocol (Table 1) we consistently applied the lowest tested ENVI-Carb
386 amount in order to assure best possible recoveries during the clean-up procedure. Compound-
387 and matrix-specific recoveries for the finally applied methods are given in Table 2 and matrix
388 effects in Table S17 in the SM.

389 Zhang and co-workers reported recoveries for isotope-labeled 8:2 FTCA and 8:2 FTUCA
390 from soybean in the range of 68-106% [18]. In the study by Bizkarguenaga et al. only
391 apparent recoveries from carrot and lettuce were presented, hampering a direct comparison
392 with our results [19]. Matrix effects were not presented or discussed in any of these two
393 studies.

394 **3.3.4 Precision**

395 The repeatability of the signal areas of the six IS spiked to uncontaminated plant samples in
396 the preparation of the matrix matched and extracted calibration ($n=10$ except for Jerusalem
397 artichoke $n=16$) was used as one measure of precision. Mean RSD for all IS were 9.9% for
398 wheat grain, 5.2% for maize grain, 8.0% for maize leaves, 15% for Jerusalem artichoke, and
399 9.9% for ryegrass, indicating a high degree of repeatability of the sample preparation and
400 instrumental analytical method. Compound- and matrix-specific results are listed in Table S18
401 in the SM. The aggregation of Jerusalem artichoke and crushing with a specula prior to the
402 extraction procedure (see section 3.3.3) may be the reason for the slightly elevated RSD in
403 comparison to the other plant samples. Comparable results for repeatability were also
404 obtained considering the signal areas of the IS in the repeated analyses ($n=3$) of the
405 contaminated samples, with mean RSD of 12% for wheat grain, 4.2% for maize grain, 7.3%
406 for maize leaves, 13% for peeled Jerusalem artichoke, 6.2% for Jerusalem artichoke skin, and
407 11% for ryegrass (Table S19 in the SM). The high degree of repeatability of IS signal areas is
408 visualized for maize grain as example in Figure 2 and for all other plant matrices in Figure S3
409 in the SM.

410 However, analysis of the IS spiked onto the samples 72 h prior to extraction may not fully
411 represent the situation of analytes that were taken up by the plants or formed as
412 transformation products in the plants because the uptake process in the plant is not replicated.
413 Precision of the whole method was thus also evaluated considering quantified concentrations
414 of the analytes in the triplicate analyses of the contaminated samples. The RSD of all
415 quantified values above the respective MQLs are given in Table 3 with a median RSD of 9%
416 and a mean RSD of 17% (mainly driven by one high value of 87% for EtFOSAA in Jerusalem
417 artichoke skin). These values mirror the results obtained for the IS and confirm good precision
418 also for analytes embedded in the matrix at levels down to the MQLs of few ng/kg sample dry
419 weight.

420 **3.3.5 Trueness of quantification**

421 The two independent quantification methods, i. e. matrix matched and extracted external
422 calibration and the internal standard method, yielded well comparable concentrations for the
423 six analytes (with available isotope labelled IS) in the contaminated samples (Table 3). The
424 percentage deviations between the results from the two quantification methods are shown for
425 all detected compounds (including results between the MDL and MQL) and all matrices in
426 Table S20 in the SM. On average the quantified concentrations by the two approaches
427 differed by 12% only, indicating a good trueness of quantification even for detected
428 concentrations below the respective MQLs.

429 **3.4 PFASs in contaminated plant samples**

430 The optimized extraction and clean-up methods were applied to samples of maize grain,
431 maize leaves, peeled Jerusalem artichoke, Jerusalem artichoke skin, wheat grain, and
432 ryegrass, all grown on contaminated fields. All samples were analyzed in triplicates. We
433 quantified the 16 target PFASs with available reference standards (Table 3) and additionally
434 conducted qualitative suspect screening for another 36 representatives of fluorotelomer- and
435 FASE-based transformation products without commercially available reference standards
436 using theoretically derived MRMs for mass spectrometric detection (see Table S5 in the SM).
437 We introduced five levels (a-e) of identification confidence for the analytes lacking reference
438 standards with level “a” indicating highest confidence (Table 4). Results of the suspect
439 screening are given in Table 4 (only detected suspects) and Table S21 in the SM (full list of
440 suspects). Additionally, we also quantified 14 PFCAs and four PFSAs in the same extracts
441 (see section 2.8). Results are summarized in Table S22 in the SM.

442 Both fluorotelomer- and FOSE-based intermediate transformation products were quantified in
443 different plant samples in relatively low concentrations, all in the ng/kg range (Table 3).
444 However, frequency of detection and concentrations differed amongst the different plant types
445 and parts. Maize leaves were identified as the samples showing the highest contamination
446 concerning both the number and levels of detected analytes. Compounds present in both
447 maize grain and leaves displayed on average a 125-fold higher concentration in the leaves
448 pointing towards uptake with water and accumulation through evaporation of the water from
449 the leaves.

450 The intermediate FOSE-based transformation products EtFOSAA and FOSA were detected in
451 all plant matrices with EtFOSAA consistently being among the intermediate transformation
452 products with the highest concentration. This indicates that a significant part of the PFAS
453 contamination on the fields is FOSE-based, most likely FOSE-based phosphoric acid esters,
454 which have been used in coatings for paper and board [9]. The relatively high levels of FOSA
455 and especially EtFOSAA are in agreement with literature in which these two compounds were
456 identified as the intermediate transformation products of EtFOSE displaying the longest half-
457 lives during aerobic degradation in activated sludge [17]. Further, this picture is completed by
458 the presence of PFOS in all plant samples that contained concentrations of EtFOSAA >0.01
459 µg/kg (Table S22 in the SM). PFOS is the final stable biodegradation product of EtFOSE and
460 was recently identified as a metabolite, in this case of FOSA, in a soil/plant environment [34].
461 In the study of Bizkarguenaga et al., FOSA was only biotransformed to PFOS in the presence
462 of a crop.

463 The long chain compound 9:3 Acid was tentatively identified (confidence level “a”) in maize
464 leaves, Jerusalem artichoke skin, and wheat grain (Table 4) and thus is one of the
465 fluorotelomer-based intermediates with the highest detection frequency. Confidence level “a”
466 implies that the signal was detected with two MRM transitions and that the retention time was
467 close to the predicted retention time, resulting in a high probability of correct identification.
468 This finding is further corroborated by the detection of PFDA (being a stable transformation
469 product of 9:3 Acid) in all plant samples and with the highest concentrations (reaching µg/kg)
470 among long chain PFCAs (Table S22 in the SM).

471 The PFCA patterns found in the plant samples, as the terminal degradation products of
472 fluorotelomer-based precursors, were characterized by high concentrations of short chain
473 compounds, with up to 98 µg/kg for PFBA in maize leaves and up to 124 and 94 µg/kg for
474 perfluoropentanoic acid (PFPeA) and perfluorohexanoic acid (PFHxA), respectively, in
475 ryegrass. This is in agreement with literature that identified short chain PFAAs as the

476 compounds that are predominantly transferred from the roots to the aerial plant parts [19, 35],
477 likely due to their higher water solubility and mobility compared to longer chain analogues
478 [11]. However, in our study maize grain represents an exception. PFBA, PFPeA, and PFHxA
479 were all <MDL in maize grain, even though many long chain homologues were quantified
480 with PFDA as the predominant PFCA at 2.65 µg/kg (Table S22 in the SM). The pattern looks
481 very different in maize leaves with PFBA as the prevalent PFCA at 98 µg/kg. There seem to
482 be plant part-specific uptake barriers that may even discriminate short chain PFCA
483 homologues.

484 Blaine et al. [20] measured higher concentrations of most investigated PFAAs in shoot or fruit
485 than in root of tomato, radish, celery, and pea. Also in hydroponically grown cabbage, tomato,
486 and zucchini, an uptake of PFAAs by roots and further distribution of predominantly short
487 chain homologues to leaves and fruits was observed [21]. For PFOA and PFOS higher
488 accumulation in the vegetative portion of oat, spring wheat, and maize than in their storage
489 organs was reported [36], while Wen et al. [37] measured higher concentrations of PFAAs in
490 roots than in shoots of wheat. The observed tissue dependent bioaccumulation potential for
491 different classes and homologues of PFASs in our study as well as in literature underlines the
492 need for an independent risk assessment for each plant part.

493

494 **4 Conclusions**

495 A trace analytical method for the identification and quantification of fluorotelomer- and
496 FASE-based transformation products in plants was developed. It allows quantification of a
497 total of 34 PFASs (16 intermediate transformation products and 18 PFAAs) and qualitative
498 screening of another 36 PFASs in the same extract. To accommodate so many different
499 compounds with a wide variety of physical-chemical properties, the clean-up had to be
500 generic, which partly led to strong matrix effects. The quantification procedure thus has to
501 take matrix effects into account. The developed generic method showed good accuracy
502 (precision and trueness) and can potentially be extended to further groups of PFASs.

503 Applying the method to plant samples grown on contaminated fields confirmed the uptake of
504 both intermediate transformation products as well as persistent PFAAs. We demonstrated, that
505 FOSE-based precursor PFASs are important constituents of the contamination case in south-
506 west Germany. Accumulation of PFASs in plants grown for human consumption is of concern
507 even if comprehensive toxicity data for many transformation intermediates are lacking.

508 However, FTCAs and FTUCAs have shown acute and chronic toxicity to aquatic
509 invertebrates and green algae [38-40]. Fortunately, in our study edible plant parts like the

510 grain of maize and wheat were much less contaminated than maize leaves. Other leafy
511 vegetables like lettuce were not investigated.
512 Perspectively, studies on the uptake mechanisms and possible transformation pathways of
513 PFASs in plants should be undertaken in order to better understand and predict the fate of
514 these anthropogenic chemicals in the environment. Such studies can also help to understand if
515 phytoremediation of contaminated acres could be a viable alternative to excavation.

516

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522

523 **Appendix A. Supplementary material**

524 Detailed information on chemicals, MS/MS analysis, matrix matched and extracted
525 calibrations, IDLs, MDLs, MQLs, matrix effects, precision, trueness, as well as results of
526 qualitative and quantitative analysis are given in the Supplementary Material.

527

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- 658

659 **Table 1.** Overview of plant samples as well as matrix-specifically optimized sample intake,
660 solvent volume, and amount of ENVI-Carb used in the extraction and clean-up procedure.

Sample	Extracted sample amount (g)	Volume of ACN in three cycles of extraction (mL)	Amount of ENVI-Carb (mg)
Wheat grain	5	8 / 5 / 5	5
Maize grain	5	6 / 6 / 6	10
Maize leaves	1	10 / 3 / 3	10
Jerusalem artichoke skin	2	7.5 / 5 / 5	10
Jerusalem artichoke peeled	2	7.5 / 5 / 5	10
Jerusalem artichoke (whole)	2	7.5 / 5 / 5	10
Ryegrass	1	10 / 7 / 7	10

661

662 **Table 2.** Compound- and matrix-specific sample preparation recoveries (in %) of the
 663 reference compounds after extraction and clean-up of spiked, uncontaminated plant samples
 664 (spiking range 2-10 µg/kg). In cases where the experiment was performed in duplicate both
 665 values are given individually.

	Maize grain	Maize leaves	Wheat grain	Jerusalem artichoke	Ryegrass
FOSA	84	71 / 65	79	76 / 71	68 / 57
MeFOSA	63	66 / 59	62	74 / 70	52 / 50
EtFOSA	67	66 / 59	67	65 / 66	52 / 47
MeFOSE	68	72 / 55	69	87 / 83	66 / 53
EtFOSE	80	67 / 68	84	104 / 103	55 / 43
FOSAA	62	47 / 44	72	77 / 75	59 / 53
MeFOSAA	70	58 / 56	78	82 / 81	65 / 55
EtFOSAA	74	61 / 56	83	80 / 83	67 / 59
8:2 FTCA	51	51 / 43	64	76 / 72	43 / 31
10:2 FTCA	59	45 / 43	69	73 / 73	57 / 48
6:2 FTUCA	35	54 / 48	55	71 / 71	45 / 43
8:2 FTUCA	42	54 / 48	65	78 / 75	45 / 36
10:2 FTUCA	53	55 / 50	74	88 / 86	52 / 43
5:3 Acid	64	57 / 51	52	57 / 64	47 / 49
7:3 Acid	65	61 / 53	63	68 / 68	51 / 44

666 **Table 3.** Quantified concentrations (on dry weight basis) and RSD ($n=3$) of the target analytes in contaminated plant samples derived by matrix
 667 matched and extracted calibration (**bold**) and the internal standard method (*italic*), respectively. All values above MDL were quantified, however,
 668 values between the MDL and the MQL are set in parentheses. Empty cells are non-detects (<MDL, see Tables S12-S16 in the SM for MDLs).

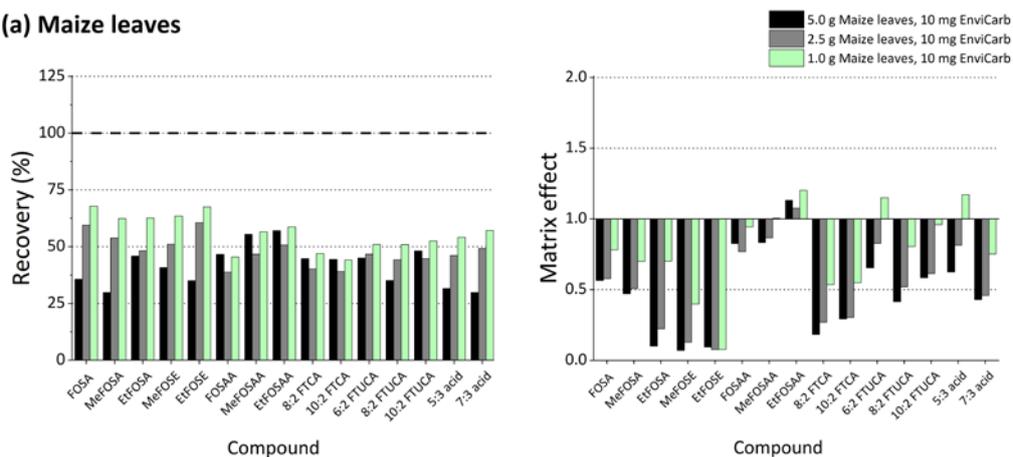
	Wheat grain [μg/kg]	RSD [%]	Maize grain [μg/kg]	RSD [%]	Maize leaves [μg/kg]	RSD [%]	Jerusalem artichoke skin [μg/kg]	RSD [%]	Jerusalem artichoke peeled [μg/kg]	Ryegrass [μg/kg]	RSD [%]
FOSA	0.0022 <i>0.0026</i>	19 38	(0.0019) <i>(0.0016)</i>		0.213 <i>0.223</i>	7 6	(0.0021) <i>(0.0020)</i>		(0.0015) <i>(0.0015)</i>	(0.0086) <i>(0.0070)</i>	
MeFOSA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
EtFOSA	-		-		0.0490 <i>0.0672</i>	9 14	-		-	-	
MeFOSE	-		-		-		-		-	-	
EtFOSE	-		-		-		-		-	-	
FOSAA	-		(0.0008)		0.152	12	-		(0.0028)	(0.0273)	
MeFOSAA	-		-		(0.0017) <i>(0.0017)</i>		-		-	-	
EtFOSAA	(0.0059)		0.0056	21	0.405	9	0.125	87	(0.0111)	(0.0162)	
6:2 FTCA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
8:2 FTCA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
10:2 FTCA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
6:2 FTUCA	0.185 <i>0.224</i>	8 1	-		-		-		-	0.205 <i>0.203</i>	3 9
8:2 FTUCA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
10:2 FTUCA	-		-		-		-		-	-	
5:3 acid	-		-		-		-		-	-	
7:3 acid	-		-		0.150	6	(0.0374)		-	-	

670 **Table 4.** Summary of detected analytes in qualitative analysis of target compounds without
 671 authentic reference standards in contaminated plant samples and their confidence level of
 672 identification (a-e). An explanation of the levels of confidence is also given. Empty cells
 673 indicate non-detects.

	Maize leaves	Maize grain	Jerusalem artichoke skin	Jerusalem artichoke peeled	Ryegrass	Wheat grain
9:3 Acid	a	-	a	-	-	a
11:3 Acid	-	-	-	a	-	-
5:3 UAcid	-	-	-	-	c	c
FBSA	-	-	b	-	-	b
MeFBSA	-	a	-	-	-	e
MeFBSAA	-	-	e	e	-	e
EtFBSAA	a	-	-	e	-	-
MeFHxSAA	-	-	-	-	b	-
EtFBSE	-	b	b	b	c	a
FHxSE	-	-	-	-	e	-
EtFHxSE	-	b	-	-	-	-
Level of confidence	Explanation					
a	Two MRMs were detected. Predicted and experimentally derived retention time differ less than 30 s from each other.					
b	One MRM was detected. Predicted and experimentally derived retention time differ less than 30 s from each other.					
c	One MRM was detected at low intensity in some but not all triplicates. Predicted and experimentally derived retention time differ less than 30 s from each other.					
d	Two MRMs were detected. Predicted and experimentally derived retention time differ more than 30 s from each other.					
e	One MRM was detected. Predicted and experimentally derived retention time differ more than 30 s from each other.					

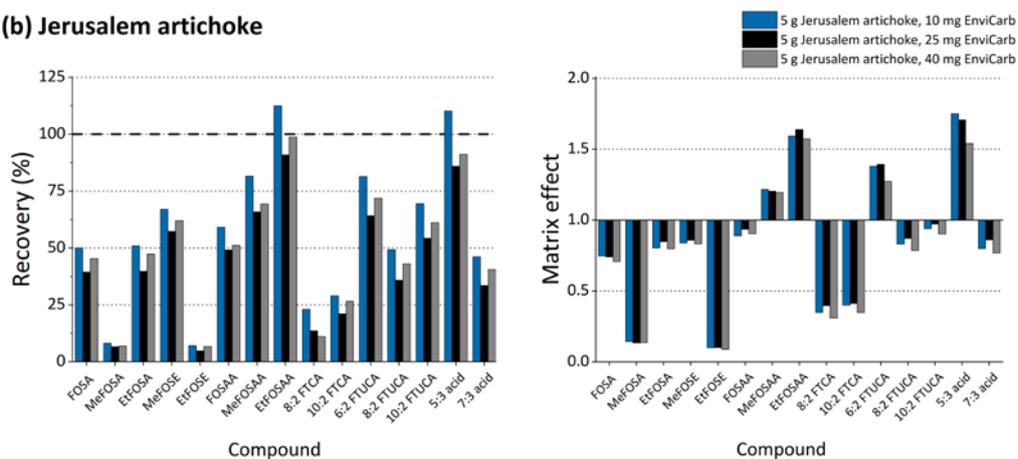
674

(a) Maize leaves



675

(b) Jerusalem artichoke

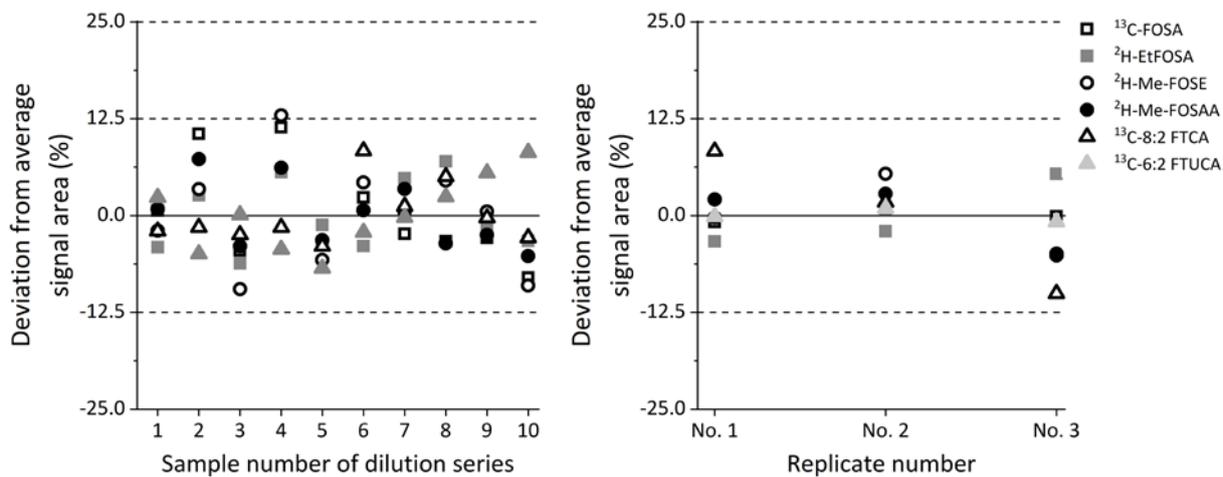


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677

678 **Figure 1.** Recoveries and matrix effects of the target analytes after extraction of (a) different
679 amounts of maize leaves (spiked with 2-10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) and after application of (b) different
680 amounts of ENVI-Carb during clean-up of Jerusalem artichoke (spiked with 2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$).

681



682

683

684 **Figure 2.** Relative variation of individual signal areas of the six internal standards in the
 685 extracts of uncontaminated maize grain from the preparation of the matrix matched and
 686 extracted calibration (left, mean RSD 5.2%) and in the triplicate analyses of contaminated
 687 maize grain (right, mean RSD 4.2%).