

1 **Microfluidic water-assisted trap focusing method for ultra-large** 2 **volume injection in reversed-phase nano-liquid chromatography** 3 **coupled to electron ionization tandem-mass spectrometry**

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20 21 22 23 **Abstract**

24
25 Nano-LC gradient elution is the separation method of choice in many emerging LC-MS applications.
26 This success is due to the synergistic effect of nano-flow rates and ionization efficiency. However,
27 the advantages obtained from a higher solute concentration are limited by the small injection volumes
28 typical of nano-LC. Solvent-based solute focusing of large sample volumes in a short trap column,
29 operating in switching mode, can overcome this constraint. Herein this research study we present an
30 efficient, column-switching method that relies on a custom-made T-union passive diffusion
31 micromixer to assist water dilution and promote trap solute focusing. Five pesticides in different
32 media were used as model compounds and the analyses were carried out with a triple quadrupole
33 mass spectrometer equipped with a Liquid Electron Ionization (LEI) LC-MS interface in MRM mode
34 and full scan. The system microfluidics were investigated using COMSOL modeling software. This
35 method allows injecting 20 μ L (or volumes greater than) of sample volume in an organic solvent
36 onto a nano-LC column, speeding up the analysis time and, improving 400-fold the limits of
37 quantitation for selected compounds. Reproducible results in terms of peak area, peak shape, and
38 retention times were achieved, regardless the matrix composition. Matrix effects values in soil
39 extracts spanned between 95.2% and 101.5%. Repeatability test on peak area variations were lower
40 than 10%.

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Key words

Ultra-high-volume injection; Nano-LC; Liquid electron ionization (LEI)-tandem mass spectrometry; Water-assisted trap focusing; Pesticides; Microfluidics.

1. Introduction

One of the key challenges in many analytical procedures is to lower limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ), enabling analyte detection at an ultra-trace level. Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) has become the preferred analytical technique for many such challenging applications thanks to selectivity, sensitivity, and wide range of LC-amenable substances of different polarity [1]. Despite the advantages of this technique, the presence of very low concentrated contaminants in environmental, forensic, food, and other applications requires to include efficient strategies to boost LC-MS sensitivity [2,3]. This increase can be achieved using different approaches such as instrument implementation [4], enrichment steps [5,6], or by increasing the volume of sample injected in the chromatographic column [7,8]. One of the essential parts of the LC-MS analytical workflow is sample pretreatment, especially when analyzing complex samples containing target analytes at low concentrations [9]. Offline or online solid-phase extraction (SPE) are widely used as preconcentration and pretreatment procedures, particularly for aqueous sample [10-12]. A typical SPE protocol is time-consuming, requires a sample size of a few milliliters, and adequate apparatus maintenance to achieve reliable results and avoid sample loss. Moreover, SPE procedures often require additional steps of solvent evaporation and residue reconstitution in the mobile phase, which represent possible error sources [13]. Furthermore, the idea of chemical processes and procedures more attentive to reducing environmental impact has become of increasing importance, and all laboratory practices should follow guidelines and principles of “green analytical chemistry” (GAC) to couple performance and sustainability [14-16].

A “green” and well-recognized alternative to solvent evaporation is the direct injection of a large volume (LVI) of sample. This strategy enhances sensitivity when a volume of sample dissolved in a non-eluting solvent, exceeding the 10% of the column void volume, is injected onto the column [17,18]. The maximum sample volume injectable is linked to column dimensions, analyte, mobile and stationary phase polarities, and working chromatography flow rates. The simplest way to perform LVI is to inject a large volume of sample dissolved in a non-eluting solvent to avoid peak broadening (single column system) [19]. For instance, in reversed-phase liquid chromatography (RP-LC), where

76 water is a non-eluting solvent, the volume of injected sample can span from 250 to 1800 μL ,
77 depending on column diameter [20,21]. Another way to realize LVI is called column-switching
78 (coupled columns, CC-LVI). It involves an online SPE preconcentration step in a short pre-column
79 after LVI. The pre-column is coupled with an analytical column via a switching valve that allows
80 operating in back-flushing mode to elute the trapped analytes [22,23]. In literature, several existing
81 LVI applications are reported, including the determination of pesticides, herbicides, and fungicides
82 in vegetables and water [24-26]. In the last decades, miniaturization of LC instrumentation has led to
83 the development of micro- and nano-LC, improving sensitivity by reducing sample dilution inside
84 the column. However, the excellent mass sensitivity of nano-LC is diminished by the severe injection
85 volume limitation. Several strategies have been adopted to focus LVI in a narrow band at the column
86 head and exploit increased sensitivity and peak capacity in scaled-down LC columns. Wilson et al.
87 [27] developed an automated instrumental method based on temperature-assisted on-column solute
88 focusing (TASF), demonstrating the focusing of LVI of small molecules and peptides on the head of
89 capillary columns of 0.1 mm of internal diameter (i.d.) in gradient mode. However, for non-polar
90 compounds, most of the conventional LVI methods used in RP-LC cannot be applied. Target
91 compounds should be dissolved in a hydrophilic solvent to be focused on the column head, leading
92 to considerable sample loss due to very low water solubility, adsorption on sample vials, or injection
93 lines. Mårta et al., developed a new method to improve LOD for the determination of steroid
94 hormones in plasma samples by sample dilution in water/organic solvent at different concentrations
95 using LVI in micro-LC [28].

96 Microfluidic devices (mixers and micromixers, depending on their internal volume) have attracted
97 increasing attention in several fields of application thanks to the possibility to mix different fluids
98 very rapidly. Mixers are predominantly used to enable lab-on-chip devices or to implement
99 microfluidic technologies in the LC systems, ensuring efficient solvents mixing in gradient formation
100 in HPLC/UHPLC pumps. Mixers can be classified into two main categories: active and passive.
101 Active mixers require power input, whereas passive mixers —also called static mixers— rely on the
102 design of microchannels to enhance molecular diffusion and chaotic advection for efficient mixing
103 [29,30]. Recently, Janovska et al. realized a small volume microfluidic chaotic mixer for two-
104 dimensional liquid chromatography. Their device can properly mix two different mobile phases for
105 two different stationary phases in a multidimensional separation technique, improving sample
106 focusing and chromatographic performance [31].

107 Mixers are potentially usable in LVI applications, enabling proper dilution mixing between a highly
108 aqueous mobile phase and a fixed volume of a strong eluting solvent where the analytes are dissolved.
109 Zhong et al. developed a pre-column dilution LVI for the UHPLC-MS/MS separation of pesticides

110 in cabbages at trace level using an active mixer before the chromatographic column [32]. The analytes
111 dissolved in a strong eluting solvent were diluted in water inside the mixer before chromatographic
112 separation, thus focusing at the column head (2 mm i.d.).

113 In this study, we present and discuss a microfluidic water-assisted trap focusing (M-WATF) method
114 to increase sensitivity in RP nano-LC using a liquid electron ionization (LEI) MS/MS system [33,34].
115 LEI represents an efficient approach for addressing the difficult conversion of a liquid-phase into a
116 gas-phase for EI, using a nano-scale flowrate, generating library searchable spectra. Different
117 interfacing systems based on EI have been also proposed by Amirav's and Mondello's groups [35-
118 38]. M-WATF was applied to the determination and quantification of selected pesticides in soil
119 samples. In the M-WATF method, a fixed volume of sample (20 μ L) dissolved in a high percentage
120 of a strong eluting solvent was injected and focused on a nano-trap column (0.3 mm i.d.) before
121 elution and chromatographic separation. This volume represents a 400-fold increase in respect to the
122 typical sample injection volume applied in nano-LC. A dual strategy was employed to achieve this
123 goal: evaluation of the microfluidic dynamics before, inside, and after the micromixer, and the use of
124 nano-LC columns of 0.075 mm i.d. to avoid sensitivity losses.

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127 **2. Experimental section**

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129 **2.2 Standard and sample preparation**

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131 Clomazone, paclobutrazol, fludioxonil, metolachlor and pirimiphos methyl standards (purity grade
132 >99%) were provided by Syngenta Ltd. (Bracknell, UK). Stock solutions were prepared
133 gravimetrically in acetonitrile (ACN) (LC-MS grade, Merck, Rome, Italy) at 400 μ g/mL. The
134 working solutions were prepared volumetrically as combined suites at the concentration of 10 ng/mL
135 in 100% ACN, 50:50 H₂O:ACN (v:v), and 100% H₂O (LC-MS grade, Merck, Rome, Italy). Soil
136 samples were provided by Syngenta Ltd. and treated as follows: 1 g of soil was extracted with 2 mL
137 of a mixture ACN:H₂O 50:50 (v:v) and shaken for 30 min using IKA Trayster digital shaker (VWR
138 PBI International, Milan, Italy) at 60 rpm. The soil was re-extracted twice with 2 mL of a mixture
139 ACN:H₂O 80:20 (v:v) for 30 min, then acidified at pH 3 with formic acid (Sigma Aldrich, Milan,
140 Italy) and shaken again for 30 min. The supernatant (6 mL) was passed through a 0.22 μ m disposable
141 filter (UNIPREP, Whatman, Clifton, NJ) and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 5 min before evaporation
142 to 1 mL under a nitrogen flow (N₂ Generator, Claind, Milan, Italy). Ten extracts (1 mL each) were
143 used for method validation. Five of them were fortified at the following concentrations: 2; 10; 50;
144 100, and 250 ng/mL for real sample calibration experiments. The other five extracts were fortified at
145 10 ng/mL for M-WATF performance evaluation and repeatability tests.

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2.3 M-WATF nano-LC apparatus

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2.4 LEI MS/MS instrumentation

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Figure 1 a-b illustrates the M-WATF nano-LC system and its functioning in a) trap loading; b) trap elution. In Figure 1 a, an Agilent Infinity II pump (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA), working at 20 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$, provided a water flow rate for the dilution of the sample dissolved in a strong eluting solvent inside a custom-made T-union passive diffusion micromixer, T2 (VICI AG International, Schenkon, Switzerland). This aqueous flow rate was first directed to an unmodified stainless-steel tee-union, called T1 (internal volume: 0.57 μL , VICI AG International, Schenkon, Switzerland), where it was split into two streams of water: (A) at 18 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ and (B) at 2 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$. Stream A is directed to T2, while stream B passed through a six-port valve (V1) (Rheodyne, Milan, Italy) collecting the sample into the loop before reaching T2. V1 was equipped with a certified 20 μL sample loop (Rheodyne, Milan, Italy). A micro-liquid flow meter (Sensirion SLG-0075, Staefa, Switzerland) was placed between T1 and V1 to monitor stream B in real time. Stream A and the sample carried by stream B mixed inside T2, re-establishing the flow rate at 20 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ directed into a second valve (V2) (Rheodyne, Milan, Italy) equipped with a nano-trap column (Zorbax SB-C18, 0.3 mm x 5 mm, 3.5 μm i.d. particle size, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA). This is a crucial point of the system because only if the mixing of the two streams is efficient, will the sample be transported and focused in the trap with a high percentage of water. A second pump, a 3000 Ultimate RSLC nano pump (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy), working at 400 nL/min was used to elute the trap column in back-flushing mode and for the chromatographic separation, as shown in Figure 1 b. The separation was carried out on an Agilent SB-C18 column (0.075 mm i.d. x 150 mm x 3.5 μm i.d. particle size). The mobile phase consisted of 3:97 (v:v) ACN:water (A) and ACN (B) in linear gradient elution, from 0% B to 100% B in 10 minutes. Details of the entire system are fully discussed in the Results and Discussion section.

An Agilent 7010B triple quadrupole mass detector (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) was equipped with a Liquid Electron Ionization (LEI) interface. Further, details of the mechanism and performance of the interface can be retrieved elsewhere [33,34]. The ion source was kept at 280 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ during LEI analyses, and the vaporization micro-channel temperature was set at 400 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Data acquisitions were carried out in full scan and multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) modes. Physicochemical properties, full scan acquisition parameters, precursor and product ions, and optimized collision energy for each

181 analyte are listed in Table S-1 and in Table S-2 of the Supporting Information. The ion source pressure
182 was 150 mTorr. Nitrogen (99.9 %, Air Liquide, Milan, Italy) was used as collision gas at a flow rate
183 of 1.5 mL/min when operating in MRM. Helium was used as quenching gas in the collision cell at 4
184 mL/min flow rate. The filament current was set at 60 μ A to prevent filament damages and increase
185 lifespan.

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187 **3. Results and discussion**

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189 Narrow chromatographic peak bands typically require small injection volumes, especially when the
190 sample is dissolved in a strong eluting solvent [39]. Commonly, in gradient mode, the injection
191 volume with a strong eluting solvent in nano-LC columns (0.075 mm i.d.) must be lower than 50 nL
192 at 400 nL/min flow rate. Therefore, many real-world applications are not possible due to the difficulty
193 in reaching the required LODs without sample preconcentration step. Contrary, if a sample can be
194 diluted in a non-eluting solvent, then it is possible to inject a larger volume into the column. This
195 methodology is penalized by the extended time required (several minutes, depending on the volume,
196 LC flow rate) to transfer the sample from the loop to the column head.

197 As mentioned in the Introduction, column-switching has been used to rapidly and efficiently transfer
198 a large volume of sample into a suitable trap column before releasing the analytes in back-flushing
199 mode [22]. This solution is successful if used with analytical columns after a proper sample dilution
200 into a weak eluting solvent. However, at micro- and nano-flow rates, the water dilution necessary for
201 trap focusing is less efficient or absent, impaired by the mostly laminar properties of the solvents
202 involved in the dilution process. In RP nano-LC, a suitable alternative to mix a strong eluting solvent
203 with water is needed to avoid sample handling and speed up analysis time.

204 In the M-WATF system, the microfluidic processes have been studied in detail. In particular, the
205 behavior of two laminar flows has been investigated, one coming from the sample (in ACN) and the
206 other from the pump (100% H₂O, see Experimental section), inside and after the T2 micromixer and
207 the connection between T2 and V2. Two different designs for T2 were considered and evaluated.
208 These studies permitted the investigation of the ideal combination of the microfluidic components to
209 accomplish the efficient mixing of the two solvents, promoting analytes focusing on the trap column.

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211 **3.1 Evaluation of T2 passive diffusion micromixer**

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213 **3.1.1 Governing balance equations**

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215 In order to study the velocity and concentration fields obtained after T2 for ACN in water, the
 216 numerical solution of the transport phenomena equations [40], which express the conservation of
 217 mass, momentum, and chemical species transport under the hypothesis of isothermal, incompressible
 218 Newtonian fluids and laminar mixing flow, is obtained by using COMSOL® (COMSOL
 219 Multiphysics, Brescia, Italy) modeling software.

220 The governing balance equations are the following:

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$$(\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) = \nu$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \vec{u} \right) = -\nabla p + \mu \nabla^2 \vec{u}$$

$$\frac{\partial c_A}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \nabla) c_A = D_{AB} \nabla^2 c_A \quad \text{with } c_A = \rho x_A \quad (1)$$

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223
 224 Where u is the velocity vector, c_A , x_A and D_{AB} are the concentration, mass fraction, and binary
 225 diffusivity of the species A for system A–B, respectively, while p , ρ and μ are the pressure, density,
 226 and dynamic viscosity of the fluids, respectively.

227 In Table 1 the values assumed by the main thermophysical properties of the liquids considered in this
 228 work are shown.

229 By applying appropriate boundary conditions to the geometrical configuration of interest a unique
 230 solution can be obtained numerically.

231 In a more general solution, the balance equations have been written in dimensionless form:

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$$(\nabla^* \cdot \vec{u}^*) = \nu$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \vec{u}^*}{\partial t^*} + \vec{u}^* \cdot \nabla^* \vec{u}^* \right) = \frac{1}{Re} \nabla^{*2} \vec{u}^* = -\nabla^* p + \frac{1}{Re} \nabla^{*2} \vec{u}^*$$

$$\frac{\partial c_A^*}{\partial t^*} + (\vec{u}^* \cdot \nabla^*) c_A^* = \frac{Dc_A^*}{Re Sc} = \frac{1}{Re Sc} \nabla^{*2} c_A^* \quad (2)$$

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 235 where a physical meaning can be assigned to the dimensionless parameters which appear in the
 236 equations. More in detail, the Reynolds number (Re) expresses the ratio between the inertia forces
 237 and the viscous forces. In this case, by considering the volumetric flow rate imposed at the inlet of
 238 the T2, Re at the exit of the micromixer assumes low values (Re=0.45-0.48), which means that in this
 239 case, viscous forces dominate on the inertia ones. In the meantime, the Schmidt number (Sc), defined
 240 as the ratio between momentum and mass diffusivity, assumes a value of 210 for ACN. Under the
 241 investigated conditions, a trade-off is obtained between the low values of Re and the high values

242 assumed by Sc for which it becomes mandatory to study numerically the minimum distance from the
243 outlet of the T2 in correspondence of which a perfect mixing of the two liquids is expected. The
244 numerical solution of Equations 2 can give a complete description of the variation of the mixing index
245 as a function of the axial distance from T2 outlet towards V2.

246 The solutions for governing equations together with their boundary conditions were carried out by
247 resorting to the commercial software COMSOL Multiphysics™ 5.2a., with a relative tolerance of $1e-$
248 06 .

249 250 **3.1.2 T2 passive diffusion micromixer volume and connection**

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252 At such low Re values, turbulent mixing does not occur, and diffusive species mixing plays an
253 important role. Therefore, the choice of internal volume and exit capillary diameter connected to T2
254 was crucial for achieving a sufficient solvent mixing to focus analytes on the trap column [30]. Three
255 prototypes were tested to evaluate the mixing features of T2 during the short travel from the exit of
256 the union (0 mm) inside the first mm of the capillary. Because of the laminar nature of the flow, no
257 further mixing is expected along the capillary. The first prototype was an unmodified stainless-steel
258 T-union with $0.57 \mu\text{L}$ internal volume and $175 \mu\text{m}$ i.d. exit capillary; the second and the third ones
259 were custom-made PEEK T-unions with internal volumes of $2.2 \mu\text{L}$, and $175 \mu\text{m}$ i.d. and $20 \mu\text{m}$ i.d.
260 exit capillaries, respectively. The comparison between the different prototypes was carried out by
261 considering the average mass concentration of ACN exiting T2. In Figure 2, it can be observed that
262 the unions with 0.57 and $2.2 \mu\text{L}$ internal volumes and $175 \mu\text{m}$ i.d. exit capillaries show similar results
263 (12.3 and 12.1% , respectively) at 1 mm from T2 exit. It was noticed an increase of the contact area
264 between water and ACN only when working with the union with $2.2 \mu\text{L}$ internal volume and $20 \mu\text{m}$
265 exiting capillary, enhancing the mixing effect by diffusion [41] and further decreasing the organic
266 solvent percentage to 7% . Therefore, this custom-made union was selected to conduct the
267 experiments. Diameters smaller than $20 \mu\text{m}$ were not used because they generate a very high
268 backpressure.

269 270 **3.1.3 M-WATF nano-LC system operation and method optimization**

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272 The sequence of system operation has been described in the Experimental Section 2.3 and illustrated
273 in Figure 1. Before *trap loading*, the $20 \mu\text{L}$ loop is filled with the sample dissolved in ACN or various
274 percentages of water-ACN. In *trap loading*, V1 is switched, and the sample is driven to T2 at 2
275 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ (stream B). Due to laminar regimes, this flow rate should be low enough to promote mixing

276 by diffusion in T2 with the 18 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ of 100% water (stream A) reaching the expected reduction of
277 ACN concentration of 10% at the exit of T2. Two different T2 configurations were considered: the
278 first one (red dots) has an internal volume of 0.57 μL and an exit capillary of 175 μm i.d.; the second
279 one (blue dots) has an internal volume of 2.2 μL an exit capillary of 20 μm i.d (Figure 3). As it can
280 be seen in the Figure, the red-dotted plot tends to reach the expected percentage (10%) as the distance
281 from the mixer increases, but after 1 mm the percentage is still higher ($>12\%$). Contrary, the blue-
282 dotted line indicates the immediate dilution of the sample at the exit of T2.

283 Finally, streams A and B after mixing inside T2, carried the sample at 20 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ into the trap in a
284 highly aqueous environment for an optimized sample focusing.

285 The total sample transfer time is approximately 10 min using a 20 μL loop. In *trap elution* V2 is
286 switched, and the trap is back-flushed by the nano-LC pump. Then, the eluted analytes are delivered
287 to the nano-LC column for chromatographic separation. The MRM profiles of the experiments are
288 reported in Figure 4. The five-compound mixture (10 ng/mL) was dissolved in 50:50 $\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{ACN}$ (v:v)
289 (b) and 100% ACN (c), and the results were compared with the same mixture dissolved in 100% H_2O
290 (a). The profiles show similar peak shapes, and the average area values comparison (Table 2) spans
291 from 77.6% and 102%. The area values differences within the five replicates spread between 2 and
292 8%. These results demonstrate a satisfying dilution in water and efficient trap focusing even in pure
293 eluting solvent (100% ACN) with limited sample losses and excellent repeatability. It is relevant that
294 the injected volume (20 μL) represents a 400-fold increase for a typical injection volume in nano-LC.
295 It is also noticeable that the presence of a high concentration of ACN does not cause peak broadening
296 or other modifications in the chromatographic profiles.

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298 **3.1.4 M-WATF nano-LC performance evaluation**

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300 The M-WATF performance was evaluated considering method LODs and LOQs, linearity, and
301 matrix effects (ME). All measurements were conducted in triplicate. The results are reported in Table
302 3.

303 Linearity experiments were carried out using soil extracts, at the concentrations reported in the
304 Experimental section, to calculate LODs and LOQs. All pesticides examined showed good linearity
305 ($R^2 > 0.995$). High response for linearity is expected when using EI as the ionization mechanism, and
306 this result is also confirmed in this case, thanks to the efficiency of the dilution step in T2 and the
307 nano-LC column-switching approach. LODs and LOQs were calculated based on a signal-to-noise
308 ratio 3:1, and 10:1, respectively considering the less intense MRM transitions. With a 20 μL injection,
309 instrumental LODs spanned between 2 and 9 pg on-column, corresponding to 0.2-0.45 ng/g in soil

310 extracts. These results represent a significant sensitivity improvement due to the larger injection
311 volume, with LODs and LOQs nearly 400-fold lower than those obtained with typical nano-LC
312 injection volumes (~50 nL). Repeatability results indicate a stable response with a negligible
313 influence of the matrix. The evaluation of MEs was conducted comparing the calibration curves of
314 each pesticide in water and soil extracts. In ideal conditions, the total absence of MEs is observed
315 when the two curves are overlapping. Figure S-1 shows the calibration curves obtained in 100% H₂O
316 and soil extract for each selected compound. For this application, the overlapping ratio spans from
317 95.2% to 101.5% confirming the lack of MEs. These results are in agreement with other findings that
318 indicate that LEI response is scarcely influenced by interfering coeluted compounds coming from the
319 matrix compared to other LC-MS ionization techniques, in particular electrospray [29,30].
320 Studies of repeatability were carried out in post-extraction addition mode using soil matrix samples
321 spiked with the five-pesticides mixture at 10 ng/mL. These experiments were aimed to evaluate the
322 matrix impact on the system during routine analyses. It was essential to investigate the response of
323 the system in real-world conditions to evaluate the impact of a complex matrix on the system and its
324 effect on the analytes response. The soil extract was injected ten consecutive times into the system,
325 and MRM profiles were recorded. The peak area values and RDS% are shown in Table S-3. As
326 demonstrated, peak area variations were lower than 10%, which is considered a satisfactory result in
327 real-world conditions.

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329 **4. Conclusions**

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331 A significant limitation of nano-LC is the very low injection volume, M-WATF is a new method to
332 introduce an ultra-large volume of sample in a RP nano-LC-RP column. This large volume
333 introduction leads to a noticeable sensitivity increase without affecting chromatographic resolution,
334 using samples dissolved in solvent mixtures at varying percentages. A significant limitation of nano-
335 LC is a very low injection volume. M-WATF contributes to widening the range of possible
336 applications of nano-LC, especially when the concentrations of analytes are particularly low.
337 M-WAFT RP nano-LC enhances the results obtainable with the LEI-LC-MS, demonstrating
338 negligible variations of signal response at different solvent percentages and absence of MEs, even in
339 the presence of soil extracts as complex matrices. The design of M-WATF can be successfully utilized
340 with any nano-LC-MS system, with other nano-scale analytical approaches whenever a significant
341 increase in sensitivity is required.

342 **Declaration of interest**

343 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Supplementary Material

Supplementary material related to this article can be found in SM_file.

Figure 1. M-WATF operation steps in sequence: a) trap loading; b) trap elution. A: 18 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ of 100% H_2O ; B: 2 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ of 100% H_2O .

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Figure 2. Average mass concentration of ACN obtained with different T2 prototypes in the first mm inside the exit capillary. Red trace: 0.57 μL - 175 μm i.d. exit capillary. Green trace: 2.2 μL -175 μm i.d.; Blue trace: 2.2 μL - 20 μm i.d.

Figure 3. Comparison of average mass concentration of ACN (%) obtained with different T2 configurations.

Figure 4. MRM profiles of a five-compound mix at 10 ng/mL dissolved in a) 100% H₂O; b) 50:50 H₂O:ACN (v:v); c) 100% ACN, respectively. 1) clomazone; 2) paclobutrazol; 3) fludioxonil; 4) s-metolachlor; 5) pirimiphos-methyl.

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418 Table 1. Main properties of the working fluids.

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	<i>Water</i>	<i>Acetonitrile</i>
<i>Dynamic viscosity [mPa s] @ 25°C</i>	0.89	0.347
<i>Density [kg/m³] @ 25°C</i>	1000	786
<i>Mass Diffusivity in water [m²/s]</i>	-	1.975 10 ⁻⁹

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Table 2. Comparison average of the peak areas values obtained from five-compound mix solutions in 100% H₂O:ACN(v:v), 50:50 H₂O:ACN (v:v), and 100% ACN.

Compound	Area^{a)} At 100% H₂O	Area^{a)} at 50:50 H₂O:ACN (v:v)	Avg. area comparison (%)	Area^{a)} at 100% ACN	Avg. area comparison (%)
<i>1-clomazone</i>	10107.0±123.5	8123.0±366.8	84.2	7844.9±171.8	77.6
<i>2-paclobutrazol</i>	6399.1±261.0	6001.3±120.5	94.7	5135.3±113.0	80.2
<i>3-fludioxonil</i>	12114.0±963.7	12562.0±909.5	102.3	10663.0±375.2	88.1
<i>4-s-metolachlor</i>	15051.1±717.4	12054.3±426.8	80.8	12511.7±503.1	83.0
<i>5-pirimiphos-methyl</i>	2282.7±96.7	1977.7±86.4	86.6	1987.2±84.5	90.8

^{a)} Average value of five replicates ± standard deviation

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Table 3. Method validation data of the selected compounds in water and soil extracts.

<i>Compound</i>	<i>Method LODs (ng/mL) (a)</i>	<i>Method LOQs (ng/mL) (a)</i>	<i>Lineari ty range (ng/mL)</i>	<i>Equation (100% H₂O)</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Equation (soil extracts)</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Matrix effects evaluatio n^(b)</i>
<i>clomazone</i>	0.20	0.70	2-250	y=1044.4 x-1277.4	0.997 1	y=1060.4 x-3627.9	0.999 6	101.5 (+1.5%)
<i>paclobutraz ol</i>	0.20	0.80	2-250	y=988.73 x -5753.2	0.995 5	y=958.46 x-4821.6	0.998 1	96.9 (-3.1%)
<i>fludioxonil</i>	0.10	0.25	2-250	y=1334.4 x-4238.8	0.998 8	y=1270.6 x-3183.1	0.999 8	95.2 (-4.8%)
<i>s- metolachlor</i>	0.25	0.60	2-250	y=1215.5 x-3391.5	0.998 3	y=1212.2 x-1739.4	0.993 8	99.7 (-0.3%)
<i>pirimiphos- methyl</i>	0.45	1.50	2-250	y=289.07 x-333.69	0.999 7	y=286.26 x-219.89	0.998 9	99.0 (-1.0%)

502 ^(a) LODs and LOQs were calculated in soil extracts

503 ^(b) soil extracts slope/water slope*100

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