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Nano Impact Statement

With increased graphene use in consumer products there is a growing concern over its effect on human health and the environment. Quantification methods are needed to understand the risk associated with graphene. In this study, we describe a method for quantifying graphene in complex organic matrices. This method is useful for monitoring graphene in the environment and determining its impact on human health. Given graphene's likelihood to end up in wastewater treatment plants, we demonstrate the applicability of this method for wastewater biosolids. The results presented in this study will also be fundamental for the further development of methods for quantifying graphene in other complex matrices (e.g., sediment, tissue).

Abstract

Interest is growing for graphene as a nanomaterial for electronic and composite applications. Increased production and use of graphene warrants development of strategies to detect and monitor its effect on human health and the environment. A quantification method using programmed thermal analysis (PTA) was developed for few-layer graphene (FLG) and graphene oxide (GO). FLG exhibited strong thermal stability, which allowed for easy detection in matrices consisting of thermally weaker background organic carbon. GO (50% oxygen content) exhibited a weaker thermal stability than FLG, making quantification more challenging in the presence of thermally similar background organic carbon. To resolve this, an *in-situ* reduction method using a reducing agent (sodium borohydride) was developed to remove 34 surface-bound oxygen from GO. This was used in combination with a digestate (SolvableTM) to create an optimized extraction method for recovering FLG and GO from complex organic matrices. FLG and GO will enter sewer systems due to their use by industry and in consumer products. We investigated the applicability of this method for quantifying FLG and GO in wastewater biomass because they are likely to accumulate in wastewater biosolids, as these are 39 commonly the first exposure route for novel materials in the environment. Spiking 20 μ g of FLG 40 and GO into a 200 mg dried biomass/L wastewater solution resulted in recoveries of $52 \pm 8\%$ 41 and $80 \pm 6\%$, respectively. Results from this study can be applied to the development of extraction methods for graphene from similar complex organic matrices (e.g., lung tissue, *in-vitro/in-vivo* studies, algae, daphnia) to support a range of human and ecotoxicological studies.

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With the influx of graphene into the composite and electronic markets there is a growing 47 concern about the risk of graphene to human health and the environment.^{1, 2} Currently, the lack of established methods for quantifying graphene and the lack of reported methods for extracting graphene from complex matrices limits the ability to conduct appropriate human and eco-toxicity studies. The availability of quantification methods is important for developing reliable dose-response toxicity metrics and for monitoring workplace safety. In the environment, the same quantification methods are useful for determining exposure concentrations and assessing graphene fate and transport routes. 54 Detection methods such as X-ray diffraction³ and Raman spectroscopy⁴ are useful for characterizing graphene, but they do not allow for appropriate quantitative analysis. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) spectroscopy can also be used to detect graphene; they are quantitative methods, although limited in that respect. TGA is useful for determining the thermal stability of graphene and can also quantify purity (i.e., metal 59 content),⁵ but it is limited to purer, dry samples rather than graphene in complex environmental or biological matrices. UV-Vis has been used previously to characterize the dispersion state of 61 graphene oxide (GO) in aqueous solutions,⁶ and it can be used as a means of quantifying GO in aqueous solutions, but only if the dispersion (i.e., aggregation) state stays constant. The UV-Vis sensitivity becomes poor for graphene (stacked sheets in aqueous matrix) and GO in aqueous solution below approximately 1.5 mg/L and 75 µg/L, respectively (Figure SI-1 showing UV-Vis spectrum for graphene and GO). In more complex matrices (e.g., surface water), quantifying graphene and GO will be more difficult due to different aggregation states and matrix interferences in the same wavelength range, which is especially true for GO (peaks between 220-

 $\,$ 250 nm; Figure SI-1). The lack of analytical methods for quantifying graphene in complex matrices signifies a need to develop robust analytical strategies that include both quantification and sample preparation. 71 We have previously developed a quantification method for carbon nanotubes (CNT) , and

72 have applied it to CNTs that were extracted from lung tissue with a high recovery. This quantification method, termed programmed thermal analysis (PTA), is an organic carbon/elemental carbon analysis that determines carbon mass and separates CNTs from other forms of carbon on the basis of the CNT's thermal stability. This separation is achieved using a time-dependent temperature ramp program; thermally weaker carbon compounds (e.g., tissue, bacteria) evolve early in the program while thermally stronger carbon compounds (e.g., CNT, graphene) evolve later. The ability to separate distinct forms of carbon is important for avoiding background interferences when quantifying carbonaceous nanomaterials in complex matrices containing organic carbon.

Before PTA can be used to quantify CNTs in complex organic matrices, CNTs must be extracted to separate them from excess carbonaceous material that could interfere with the analysis. With proper extraction methods in place, CNTs can be concentrated and then quantified 84 using a number of methods (e.g., TGA-mass spectrometry, gel electrophoresis, 10 infrared, 11 85 radio-labeling, 12 microwave, 13 UV-Vis, 14 and inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry¹⁵). Given the physical and chemical similarities between graphene and CNTs, we hypothesize that the same approach can be used for extracting and quantifying graphene.

For PTA, oxygen functional groups on CNTs are problematic because they complicate 89 separation of CNTs from organic carbon during analysis.⁷ Graphene is expected to be easily 90 amenable to PTA because of its low oxygen content and consequently high thermal stability.¹⁶

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With the increase in graphene production and the advent of new graphene-containing products, graphene is likely to enter into wastewater treatment plants. Given graphene's similarity to CNTs, it will presumably end up in wastewater effluent or wastewater biosolids 104 (treated sewage sludge containing living/dead microbes and inert solids).²⁴ Of these exposure 105 routes, biosolids seem to be the most appropriate end-point for graphene and GO ²⁵⁻²⁸

The aims of this study were to (1) develop a PTA quantification method for graphene and GO and (2) develop a method for recovering graphene and GO from complex organic matrices. We utilized few-layer graphene (10–20 nm thick) in place of single-layer graphene due to the problem obtaining an aqueous solution of single-layer graphene. Because of the difficulty extracting oxygenated carbonaceous nanomaterials (e.g., GO) from complex matrices, we applied an *in-situ* reduction method to increase hydrophobicity and improve recovery. Given the likelihood of graphene to end up in wastewater biosolids, we demonstrated an extraction and quantification method for wastewater biosolids to assist with fate and transport studies. The

114 results stemming from this research can be leveraged to develop extraction methods for graphene

115 from other biological matrices (e.g., lung tissue, *in-vitro/in-vivo* studies, algae, daphnia).

116

117 **Experimental Methods**

118 *Materials*

119 GO solution was used as received (TW Nano; manufacturer reported characteristics: 0.2 120 wt. %, >90% single layer, 0.5–20 μ m in x-y, 1:1.3 C:O ratio, >1,200 m²/g). Graphene 121 nanoplatelet powder was used as received (Angstron Materials, N006-P; manufacturer reported 122 characteristics: >97% carbon, <1.5% oxygen, <1.5% ash, 10–20 nm thick, <14 µm in x-y 123 direction, 21 m²/g). Graphene nanoplatelets, or few-layer graphene (FLG), are stacked graphene 124 sheets and are used in place of graphene because pristine (i.e., no oxygen) single-layer graphene 125 in aqueous solution is not achievable. GO and FLG consisted of flake like particles with 126 dimensions similar to each other (Figure SI-2, a and c, respectively). SEM images revealed the 127 presence of rectangular plates, with small $(x-y < 1 \mu m)$ and large $(x-y < 5-10 \mu m)$ fractions for 128 both GO and FLG. FLG was typically smaller than the maximum size listed by the manufacturer 129 (average x-y from Figure SI-2c was approximately 4 x 2.5 μ m). 130 Sodium borohydride (99.99%, Sigma Aldrich, 480886), hydroiodic acid (57% in H₂O, 131 Sigma Aldrich, 210013), and ascorbic acid (reagent grade, Sigma Aldrich, A7506) were used as 132 received. Solvable[™] was obtained from Perkin Elmer. Solvable is a tissue solubilizer consisting 133 of sodium hydroxide $(\leq 2.5\%)$, C10-16-alkyldimethyl, N-oxide (2–10%), and C11-15-secondary, 134 ethoxylated alcohol (2.5–10%). Sodium hydroxide (97%, EMD SX0590), Tergitol 15-S-12™ 135 (C12-14 secondary ethoxylated alcohol, CAS no. 84133-50-6, Dow Chemical Company), and 136 N,N-dimethyldodecylamine, N-oxide (30% in H2O, Sigma Aldrich 40236) were obtained to

137 examine the individual components of Solvable. Ultrapure water $(18.2–18.3 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{cm})$ was used for all experiments.

Programmed Thermal Analysis

PTA was performed using an organic carbon/elemental carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, Inc., Sunset, Oregon, USA). PTA was used to quantify graphene recovery, determine changes in graphene thermal stability after treatment, and quantify the biomass 144 background carbon after treatment; PTA operation is described in detail elsewhere.⁷ Briefly, 145 samples were heated using a graphene-specific temperature ramp program (Table SI-1) in inert 146 conditions (100% He) and then in oxidizing conditions (90% He/10% O_2). The carbon that evolves during analysis is converted to methane and then detected using flame ionization detection (FID). This FID signal is calibrated with internal and external standards that are used to calculate the mass of carbon evolved. The graphene-specific program was designed to remove most of the background organic carbon during the initial inert phase and then transition into the oxidizing phase where the more stable background carbon is removed before evolution of graphene. PTA quantifies only the mass of carbon, so the oxgyen mass is not considered for 153 compounds like GO. The maximum temperature under inert conditions was set at 675° C to avoid loss of oxygenated graphene. Samples were put onto a quartz-fiber filter (QFF; Pall Tissuquartz 2500 QAT-UP, 7204) designed for high temperatures (Figure SI-3) and then loaded into the PTA instrument for analysis.

In-situ *Reduction of Graphene Oxide*

calculated using a *t*-distribution with 99% confidence (one tail, seven replicates, 5 µg

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X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

Surface elemental composition and chemical state were analyzed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) performed on an ESCALAB 220i-XL (Vacuum Generators, 187 U.S.) with a monochromatic Al K_α source at hv = 1486 eV, a base pressure of 7×10^{-10} mbar, and a spot analysis size of 500 µm. For GO and RGO solutions, powders were obtained by evaporating solutions in aluminum trays. The final dried product was crushed using an agate mortar and pestle. All samples were prepared for XPS by pressing the powder into a disk on clean indium foil. Peak fitting was performed manually using XPS peak analysis software (Casa XPS) on the basis of the theoretical atomic percentages calculated from the wide scan.

Raman Spectroscopy

Raman spectroscopy was used to determine the changes in the GO structure resulting from the *in-situ* reduction. Raman was performed on a custom-built confocal instrument in 180° geometry. The sample was excited using a 532-nm laser with 100-mW maximum power, which was controlled using neutral density filters. The data were collected using an Acton 300i spectrograph and a back-thinned Princeton Instruments liquid nitrogen–cooled CCD detector 200 with a spatial resolution <1 μ m and spectral resolution of ~1 cm⁻¹. Between 1300 and 1600 cm⁻¹, 201 there are two distinct peaks for graphene, called the D-band (1350 cm^{-1}) and the G-band (1580 m) 202 cm⁻¹). The D-band is present because of defects or disorder (e.g., $sp³$ bonds) present within the graphene sample and increases in intensity with increasing disorder. The G-band is the graphitic

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In a clean, aqueous matrix (i.e., only water and GO), filtration directly onto a quartz-fiber filter 274 (QFF) is an option for separating the GO (e.g., $10\n-20 \mu m X-Y$ dimensions), but this is not an option for complex matrices because the filter will also collect interfering carbon compounds. For applications involving clean matrices free of carbon interferences, filtration may be an option; though retention using the QFFs, which are designed to function as air filters, may be 278 poor for GO as observed for functionalized CNTs.⁷ Furthermore, if a different quantification method (e.g., electrophoresis, UV-Vis) is used, the sample would need to be in a concentrated aqueous or powder form and not adhered to a filter.

In a Solvable matrix, which is the reagent used to solubilize organics (e.g., wastewater 282 biomass (this paper), tissue 8), GO aggregated and formed a very stable, compact pellet upon centrifugation. This is likely due to a combination of a high pH, double-layer compression from increased ionic strength, and the presence of two surfactants, which may cause a cloud-point like 285 effect.³² The known individual components of Solvable were examined to determine the root of the effect. Both surfactants (10% concentration) alone and in combination caused aggregation while sodium hydroxide was not effective. Upon addition of NaBH4 to the surfactants, samples exhibited severe effervescence due to hydrogen generation, and GO was not easily recovered as it adhered to the vials, overflowed the vials along with the bubbles, or would not centrifuge into a pellet. However, adding sodium hydroxide to the two surfactants (individual or combined) curbed the effervescence. Therefore, the excellent performance of Solvable for extracting graphene can be attributed to a synergistic action of its components rather than a single species. Figure 4 shows the percent recovery of RGO as a function of increasing NaBH4 concentration. 294 Recovery with Solvable alone (i.e., no reducing agent) was $75 \pm 0.5\%$. Adding low concentrations of NaBH4 (e.g., 0.04%) did not show improvement with an average recovery of

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Recovery of GO and FLG from Biomass

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The ability to quantify GO or FLG in a complex organic matrix such as wastewater biosolids is important for assisting environmental studies. As such, we determined detection limits for GO and FLG in biomass as well as recovery of 20 µg of GO or FLG from 1 mg of clean, dried biomass (200 mg/L). The MDL, LCL, and the UCL for GO in biomass were calculated to be 2.2, 1.4, and 4.9 µg, respectively. The MDL, LCL, and UCL for FLG in biomass were calculated to be 1.5, 0.93, and 3.2 µg, respectively. In comparison, the MDL for GO in a 325 clean aqueous matrix (i.e., ultrapure water only) is 1.7 µg. Without Solvable treatment, FLG and GO detection in biosolids was not possible because the amount of biomass collected in the pellet overwhelmed PTA and resulted in indistinguishable peaks for graphene and biomass. Using the extraction method of Solvable and 2% NaBH4, 329 GO/RGO and FLG (20 µg) recoveries from 1 mg dried biomass (0.02 µg graphene/µg dried 330 biomass) were $80 \pm 6\%$ and $52 \pm 8\%$, respectively. Although FLG is easier than GO/RGO to detect in a complex matrix using PTA because it is more thermally stable, physical separation from the biomass using centrifugation was less efficient, resulting in a lower recovery. We observed that FLG was very stable in Solvable (before and after biomass treatment), with little recovery occurring via centrifugation (<5%). Although FLG is already in a "reduced" form, adding NaBH4 helped to improve the FLG aggregation and extraction. We also examined nitric acid as a digesting agent in place of Solvable to determine if pH or surfactants were an issue. 337 Like Solvable, FLG was more stable in nitric acid ($pH < 0$) than in ultrapure water ($pH = 5.6$), likely due to increased surface charge separation, but extraction was worse than with Solvable. This agrees with previous results showing Solvable to be optimal over common agents (e.g., nitric acid, hydrochloric acid, hydrofluoric acid, etc.) used for extracting CNTs from rat lung tissue.

Solvable was efficient at dissolving the biomass, but a small amount of background 343 carbon still remained and interfered with GO/RGO peaks (Figure 6); no interference was observed for FLG. The interference for GO/RGO was consistent across triplicate samples with 345 an average of 2.2 ± 1 µg. When the amount of biomass was increased to 5 mg (1 g biomass/L), GO/RGO peaks were indistinguishable due to the false positive from interfering background carbon that remained after treatment. To improve the extraction for GO/RGO from high concentrations of biomass, we developed a phase-separation method by extending the heating time of the NaBH4 step to 36 hrs. This causes the water and surfactant phases of Solvable to separate (Figure 7a), and after centrifugation, RGO remains mostly in the top surfactant phase (Figure 7b). Similarly, when done in a wastewater matrix (i.e., 1 g biomass/L), the undigested (interfering) biomass transfers into the water phase, and the RGO remains in the surfactant phase (Figure 7c). This results in a physical separation of the RGO and the interfering background carbon, allowing for easy recovery of the RGO only. Note, control samples digested with 355 Solvable for 36 hrs (i.e., no NaBH₄) did not show any significant ($\langle 5\%$) additional removal of 356 biomass interference. Therefore, using N a $BH₄$ to separate the biomass and RGO into different phases is key for improving recovery in wastewater with a high biomass concentration. Using the 358 phase-separation method, the recovery of RGO (20 μ g) from 5 mg biomass was 110% \pm 13%. Recovery greater than 100% is attributed to undigested biomass constituents interacting with RGO, causing the biomass to remain in the surfactant phase. This interaction is presumed to be adsorption of the biomass to RGO as no interfering background carbon from the biomass was observed in the surfactant phase for triplicate control samples that did not contain RGO. The phase-separation was not successful for FLG as the majority of the FLG transferred to the water phase along with the undigested biomass. The advantage of using the phase-separation method

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over the centrifugal separation method for GO is that larger amounts of biomass can be used while avoiding interferences from undigested biomass. However, in other instances, the centrifugal method is preferred because it is simpler, less time consuming, and useful for both graphene types. A detailed schematic of the two methods is shown in Figure SI-7.

Conclusion

We have successfully demonstrated an extraction and quantification method for graphene and GO using an *in-situ* reduction method followed by detection with PTA. This method was 373 demonstrated in biomass (200 mg/L), resulting in recoveries for GO/RGO and FLG of $80 \pm 9\%$ 374 and $52 \pm 8\%$, respectively. A phase-separation method (similar to liquid-liquid extraction) was developed to improve the recovery of GO from more concentrated wastewater samples (e.g., 1 g biomass/L). Although the phase-separation method is more complex than the centrifugal separation method, it is an intriguing technique that warrants further investigation for highly complex matrices (e.g., sediments). While FLG was easier to separate thermally using PTA, it was more difficult to physically recover using the extraction method. This was for a specific type of FLG, whereas other types from different manufacturers could behave differently. Further study is needed on FLG and single-layer graphene to determine if physical recovery differences exist between the varying types and if an additional processing step can improve the recovery. Reported recoveries are ideal as they were obtained using a lab-grown, clean biomass. When using biosolids obtained from a wastewater treatment plant, the recovery values are expected to increase due to presence of soot particulates, which behave thermally similar to 386 graphene, thereby creating a false positive.⁷ Similarly, the presence of carbonaceous nanomaterials (e.g., CNTs, fullerenes) in environmental samples with graphene is possible,

further complicating recovery when using PTA. While GO/RGO and FLG used herein can be separated and quantified using PTA (e.g., Figure SI-7), the presence of CNTs with a similar thermal stability as GO or FLG would be difficult to distinguish with PTA alone. Ideally, a graphene standard (similar to the NIST single-walled CNT standard reference material, SRM 2483) would be used to create a spike standard addition curve in order to quantify the amount of background soot (or CNTs) interfering with graphene. With the challenge of thermally similar carbonaceous materials present (e.g., soot) or predicted (e.g., CNT) in the environment, PTA and similar thermal methods alone are not currently suitable, and analytical advancements to these methods and more selective extraction methods are needed. However, PTA, in its early analytical development as described herein, is an excellent tool for monitoring the fate/transport and toxicity of graphene for model systems and organisms, respectively.

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Supporting Information

Additional figures.

References

2 Figure 1. PTA thermograms for few-layer graphene (FLG) and graphene oxide (GO).

Figure 2. XPS analysis of (a) GO and (b) RGO. The average position for C=C and C-C was

- 284.0 eV, and the average position for C=O and C-O was 287.0 eV and 288.6 eV for GO and
- RGO, respectively.

Figure 3. PTA thermograms (oxidizing phase) for RGO reduced with 2% NaBH4 in water.

- 3 0.04, 0.4, 2, 8%). Error bars indicate one standard deviation (each direction) for triplicate
- 4 samples.

2 Figure 5. Mass loss curves for GO $(-20 \mu g)$ under oxidizing PTA conditions using different

3 extraction conditions. "Sol" is Solvable and "BH" is NaBH4.

- 2 Figure 6. PTA thermogram showing biomass interference for GO in wastewater biosolids.
- 3 Solvable and 2% NaBH4 treatment.

2 Figure 7. Images showing separation of water and surfactants with extended NaBH4 treatment:

- 3 (a) RGO before centrifugation control sample, (b) RGO after centrifugation control sample, and
- 4 (c) RGO after centrifugation in 5 mg biomass sample. RGO is trapped in the surfactant phase,
- 5 and GO and undigested biomass are centrifuged down into the water phase.