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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).

1	Quantification of Graphene and Graphene Oxide in Complex Organic Matrices
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## 24 Abstract

Interest is growing for graphene as a nanomaterial for electronic and composite 25 applications. Increased production and use of graphene warrants development of strategies to 26 detect and monitor its effect on human health and the environment. A quantification method 27 using programmed thermal analysis (PTA) was developed for few-layer graphene (FLG) and 28 29 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 30 content) exhibited a weaker thermal stability than FLG, making quantification more challenging 31 32 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 33 surface-bound oxygen from GO. This was used in combination with a digestate (Solvable<sup>TM</sup>) to 34 35 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 36 products. We investigated the applicability of this method for quantifying FLG and GO in 37 wastewater biomass because they are likely to accumulate in wastewater biosolids, as these are 38 commonly the first exposure route for novel materials in the environment. Spiking 20 µg of FLG 39 and GO into a 200 mg dried biomass/L wastewater solution resulted in recoveries of  $52 \pm 8\%$ 40 41 and  $80 \pm 6\%$ , respectively. Results from this study can be applied to the development of 42 extraction methods for graphene from similar complex organic matrices (e.g., lung tissue, in-43 vitro/in-vivo studies, algae, daphnia) to support a range of human and ecotoxicological studies. 44

45	Introd	uction

With the influx of graphene into the composite and electronic markets there is a growing 46 concern about the risk of graphene to human health and the environment.<sup>1, 2</sup> Currently, the lack 47 of established methods for quantifying graphene and the lack of reported methods for extracting 48 graphene from complex matrices limits the ability to conduct appropriate human and eco-toxicity 49 studies. The availability of quantification methods is important for developing reliable dose-50 response toxicity metrics and for monitoring workplace safety. In the environment, the same 51 quantification methods are useful for determining exposure concentrations and assessing 52 53 graphene fate and transport routes. Detection methods such as X-ray diffraction<sup>3</sup> and Raman spectroscopy<sup>4</sup> are useful for 54 characterizing graphene, but they do not allow for appropriate quantitative analysis. 55 56 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 57 useful for determining the thermal stability of graphene and can also quantify purity (i.e., metal 58 content),<sup>5</sup> but it is limited to purer, dry samples rather than graphene in complex environmental 59 or biological matrices. UV-Vis has been used previously to characterize the dispersion state of 60 graphene oxide (GO) in aqueous solutions,  $^{6}$  and it can be used as a means of quantifying GO in 61 aqueous solutions, but only if the dispersion (i.e., aggregation) state stays constant. The UV-Vis 62 sensitivity becomes poor for graphene (stacked sheets in aqueous matrix) and GO in aqueous 63 64 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 65 66 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 220-67

68 250 nm; Figure SI-1). The lack of analytical methods for quantifying graphene in complex
69 matrices signifies a need to develop robust analytical strategies that include both quantification

70 and sample preparation.

We have previously developed a quantification method for carbon nanotubes (CNT),<sup>7</sup> and 71 have applied it to CNTs that were extracted from lung tissue with a high recovery.<sup>8</sup> This 72 quantification method, termed programmed thermal analysis (PTA), is an organic 73 carbon/elemental carbon analysis that determines carbon mass and separates CNTs from other 74 forms of carbon on the basis of the CNT's thermal stability. This separation is achieved using a 75 76 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, 77 graphene) evolve later. The ability to separate distinct forms of carbon is important for avoiding 78 79 background interferences when quantifying carbonaceous nanomaterials in complex matrices containing organic carbon. 80

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 using a number of methods (e.g., TGA-mass spectrometry,<sup>9</sup> gel electrophoresis,<sup>10</sup> infrared,<sup>11</sup> radio-labeling,<sup>12</sup> microwave,<sup>13</sup> UV-Vis,<sup>14</sup> and inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry<sup>15</sup>). 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
 separation of CNTs from organic carbon during analysis.<sup>7</sup> Graphene is expected to be easily
 amenable to PTA because of its low oxygen content and consequently high thermal stability.<sup>16</sup>

91	Alternatively, GO tends to have a very high oxygen content, with a carbon to oxygen ratio (C:O)
92	on the order of 1:1; thus, its thermal behavior is similar to organic carbon. While the similar
93	thermal behavior is not an issue for samples containing only GO (e.g., pure aqueous GO stock
94	solutions), it interferes with analysis when quantifying GO in matrices containing organic
95	carbon. GO can be transformed to "reduced graphene oxide" (RGO) using chemical reducing
96	agents such as hydrazine <sup>17, 18</sup> or sodium borohydride. <sup>19-23</sup> Removing oxygen makes graphene
97	(oxide) more hydrophobic, which increases its tendency to aggregate and results in a more
98	efficient separation and extraction. The key to any successful approach for environmental and
99	biological samples will be doing this <i>in-situ</i> (i.e., in a complex matrix) so that GO can easily be
100	recovered.
101	With the increase in graphene production and the advent of new graphene-containing

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 (treated sewage sludge containing living/dead microbes and inert solids).<sup>24</sup> Of these exposure routes, biosolids seem to be the most appropriate end-point for graphene and GO.<sup>25-28</sup>

The aims of this study were to (1) develop a PTA quantification method for graphene and 106 GO and (2) develop a method for recovering graphene and GO from complex organic matrices. 107 We utilized few-layer graphene (10–20 nm thick) in place of single-layer graphene due to the 108 problem obtaining an aqueous solution of single-layer graphene. Because of the difficulty 109 110 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 111 likelihood of graphene to end up in wastewater biosolids, we demonstrated an extraction and 112 113 quantification method for wastewater biosolids to assist with fate and transport studies. The

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results stemming from this research can be leveraged to develop extraction methods for graphene from other biological matrices (e.g., lung tissue, *in-vitro/in-vivo* studies, algae, daphnia).

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## **117 Experimental Methods**

118 *Materials* 

GO solution was used as received (TW Nano; manufacturer reported characteristics: 0.2 119 wt. %, >90% single layer, 0.5–20  $\mu$ m in x-y, 1:1.3 C:O ratio, >1,200 m<sup>2</sup>/g). Graphene 120 nanoplatelet powder was used as received (Angstron Materials, N006-P; manufacturer reported 121 characteristics: >97% carbon, <1.5% oxygen, <1.5% ash, 10-20 nm thick,  $<14 \mu$ m in x-y 122 direction, 21 m<sup>2</sup>/g). Graphene nanoplatelets, or few-layer graphene (FLG), are stacked graphene 123 124 sheets and are used in place of graphene because pristine (i.e., no oxygen) single-layer graphene in aqueous solution is not achievable. GO and FLG consisted of flake like particles with 125 dimensions similar to each other (Figure SI-2, a and c, respectively). SEM images revealed the 126 127 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 µm). 130 Sodium borohydride (99.99%, Sigma Aldrich, 480886), hydroiodic acid (57% in H<sub>2</sub>O, 131 Sigma Aldrich, 210013), and ascorbic acid (reagent grade, Sigma Aldrich, A7506) were used as 132 received. Solvable<sup>TM</sup> 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, ethoxylated alcohol (2.5–10%). Sodium hydroxide (97%, EMD SX0590), Tergitol 15-S-12™ 134 (C12-14 secondary ethoxylated alcohol, CAS no. 84133-50-6, Dow Chemical Company), and 135 136 N,N-dimethyldodecylamine, N-oxide (30% in H<sub>2</sub>O, Sigma Aldrich 40236) were obtained to

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examine the individual components of Solvable. Ultrapure water (18.2–18.3 MΩ-cm) was used
for all experiments.

139

140 Programmed Thermal Analysis

PTA was performed using an organic carbon/elemental carbon analyzer (Sunset 141 Laboratory, Inc., Sunset, Oregon, USA). PTA was used to quantify graphene recovery. 142 determine changes in graphene thermal stability after treatment, and quantify the biomass 143 background carbon after treatment; PTA operation is described in detail elsewhere.<sup>7</sup> Briefly, 144 samples were heated using a graphene-specific temperature ramp program (Table SI-1) in inert 145 conditions (100% He) and then in oxidizing conditions (90% He/10% O<sub>2</sub>). The carbon that 146 evolves during analysis is converted to methane and then detected using flame ionization 147 detection (FID). This FID signal is calibrated with internal and external standards that are used to 148 calculate the mass of carbon evolved. The graphene-specific program was designed to remove 149 150 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 151 graphene. PTA quantifies only the mass of carbon, so the oxgyen mass is not considered for 152 153 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 154 2500 QAT-UP, 7204) designed for high temperatures (Figure SI-3) and then loaded into the PTA 155 instrument for analysis. 156

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158 In-situ Reduction of Graphene Oxide

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159 An *in-situ* reduction method for GO was developed to overcome the difficulty in 160 recovering hydrophilic carbonaceous nanomaterials from aqueous matrices. For reduction experiments, a specified amount (e.g., 0.4%, 2%) of NaBH<sub>4</sub> was added to a mixture of GO 161 162 solution and water or Solvable. Samples were then placed in a furnace at 60 °C for 2 hrs followed by centrifugal separation at  $22,830 \times g$  for 10 min and washed twice with water 163 (additional washing causes poor pellet formation). Final pellets were collected and loaded onto a 164 QFF for either Raman or PTA. Samples requiring a phase-separation were treated with NaBH<sub>4</sub> 165 for 36 hrs rather than 2 hrs. 166 167 Extraction from Biomass 168 Biomass was grown using a laboratory-scale sequencing batch reactor that was seeded 169 using return activated sludge from a local (Mesa, AZ) full-scale wastewater treatment plant.<sup>27</sup> 170 1000 µg dry weight (~78 µL) of concentrated fresh biomass stock (12.8 g/L) was added to 5 mL 171 Solvable to obtain a biomass concentration of 200 mg/L. GO or FLG ( $\sim 20 \mu g$ ) was then added. 172 173 The ratio of carbon to biomass was  $\sim 0.02 \ \mu g \ C/\mu g$  dried biomass. Samples were placed in a furnace at 60 °C for 24 hrs to digest the biomass. After digesting, NaBH<sub>4</sub> was added to begin the 174 *in-situ* reduction process. The treated samples were then centrifuged at  $22,830 \times g$  for 10 min. 175 The pellet was twice washed with water followed by centrifuging each time. The final pellets 176 were collected using a pipette and then loaded onto a QFF for PTA. Samples were prepared and 177 analyzed in triplicate. 178 The method detection limit (MDL) for GO or FLG in 1000 µg dried biomass was 179 calculated using a *t*-distribution with 99% confidence (one tail, seven replicates, 5 µg 180

- graphene).<sup>29</sup> The 95% lower (LCL) and upper (UCL) confidence intervals were calculated as
  0.64 × MDL and 2.20 × MDL, respectively.<sup>29</sup>
- 183

184 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

Surface elemental composition and chemical state were analyzed using X-ray 185 photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) performed on an ESCALAB 220i-XL (Vacuum Generators, 186 U.S.) with a monochromatic Al K<sub>a</sub> source at hv = 1486 eV, a base pressure of  $7 \times 10^{-10}$  mbar, 187 and a spot analysis size of 500 µm. For GO and RGO solutions, powders were obtained by 188 evaporating solutions in aluminum trays. The final dried product was crushed using an agate 189 190 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 191 192 XPS) on the basis of the theoretical atomic percentages calculated from the wide scan.

193

## 194 *Raman Spectroscopy*

195 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° 196 geometry. The sample was excited using a 532-nm laser with 100-mW maximum power, which 197 was controlled using neutral density filters. The data were collected using an Acton 300i 198 spectrograph and a back-thinned Princeton Instruments liquid nitrogen-cooled CCD detector 199 with a spatial resolution <1  $\mu$ m and spectral resolution of ~1 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Between 1300 and 1600 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 200 there are two distinct peaks for graphene, called the D-band (1350 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and the G-band (1580 201 cm<sup>-1</sup>). The D-band is present because of defects or disorder (e.g., sp<sup>3</sup> bonds) present within the 202 203 graphene sample and increases in intensity with increasing disorder. The G-band is the graphitic

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204	band, and a higher, narrower peak indicates a more ordered graphene (i.e., sp <sup>2</sup> bonds). The
205	average $I_D/I_G$ ratio was calculated from measurements taken at four different points for each
206	sample.
207	
208	Scanning Electron Microscopy
209	Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was completed using a Nova 200 FIB-SEM from
210	FEI with a field-emission electron gun. SEM imaging was performed at 5 kV and 0.98 to 1.6 nA
211	with dwell time between 0.3 and 3 $\mu$ s.
212	
213	Ultraviolet-Visible Light Spectroscopy
214	UV-Vis absorption spectra of GO and FLG were investigated on a Hach DR5000. Serial
215	dilutions were made from 2 g/L stock solutions and ultrapure water. All samples were scanned
216	from 200 to 800 nm. For GO, no absorption occurred above 600 nm (brown color in solution)
217	and it had two peaks at 238 and 300 nm. FLG (black color in solution) absorbed across all
218	wavelengths with excellent calibration correlation ( $R^2 > 0.99$ ) and a broad peak at 227 nm.
219	
220	Results
221	Graphene Detection
222	FLG and GO were quantified using PTA, which relies on separating carbon compounds
223	on the basis of their thermal stability in inert (i.e., He) and combustion atmospheres (i.e., 90%
224	He/10% $O_2$ ). Weaker compounds and those with more oxygen will evolve during the inert phase
225	and early in the oxidizing phase. Figure 1 shows the PTA result for $20 \ \mu g$ of FLG and GO (run
226	separately). Instrument detection was reliable with calibration data demonstrating a slope of 1.02

227	and an R <sup>2</sup> of 1.00 for both FLG and GO (Figure SI-4). The majority of FLG evolved at high
228	temperatures during the oxidizing phase, starting around 700 °C and peaking around 900 °C,
229	with the strong thermal stability owing to the low defect density and low oxygen content. A
230	small amount of FLG (~3%) evolved during the inert phase (i.e., where background organic
231	carbon would evolve) and can be attributed to the oxygenated FLG. For GO, the high amount of
232	oxygen resulted in a larger portion evolving during the inert phase (~20%), all of which would
233	be lost in the background of a complex organic sample evolving at the same temperatures. <sup>7</sup>
234	Reducing or removing the oxygenated groups on graphene is key to improving the recovery of
235	GO from complex organic matrices.
236	
237	Improving Detection and Extraction of FLG and GO through Reduction
238	In order to improve GO detection and recovery, different reducing reagents (e.g., sodium
239	borohydride (NaBH <sub>4</sub> ), ascorbic acid, hydroiodic acid (HI)) were investigated to remove oxygen
240	functionalities from GO. Ascorbic acid and HI were not ideal reagents, resulting in incomplete
241	reduction of GO, the inability to fully aggregate GO, or GO adherence to the plastic vials (See SI
242	for further discussion on failed reagents). NaBH <sub>4</sub> emerged as the optimal reagent for GO
243	reduction resulting in an increased thermal stability and hydrophobicity.
244	XPS was used to investigate the C-C and C-O/C=O bond content of GO. Figure 2 shows
245	the XPS analysis for GO in water and GO after treatment with NaBH <sub>4</sub> in water (i.e., RGO). Two
246	peaks were present, one at 284 eV, which is attributed to C-C/C=C, and the other at 286–290 eV,
247	which coincides to a number of carbon and oxygen functionalities (mainly C-O and C=O). The
248	C-O/C-C ratio for GO was 1.1:1, which agrees with the manufacturer's carbon to oxygen ratio of
249	1:1. The C-O/C-C ratio for RGO was 5.6:1, an approximate 5-fold decrease in the number of C-

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250	O/C=O bonds. GO reduction also shifted the C-O peak to lower binding energies, indicating a
251	change in the type of carbon-oxygen functionalities that remained on the GO. These results
252	provide clear evidence that carbon-oxygen functionalities were removed by NaBH4 treatment.
253	SEM images show that reduction of GO (Figure SI-2a) to RGO (Figure SI-2b) did not
254	significantly alter the particle shape or x-y size (e.g., both large, 5–10 $\mu$ m, and small (e.g., right
255	side of Figure SI-2b), < 1 $\mu$ m, sheets were present), and stacked, plate-like structures were
256	formed. Figure 3 shows the PTA thermogram for RGO after treatment with 2% NaBH <sub>4</sub> in water.
257	Chemical reduction improved the thermal stability (i.e., peak shift to the right), providing
258	additional evidence that oxygen functionalities were removed.
259	Raman spectroscopy is used to determine the defect density of CNTs and graphene, <sup>4</sup>
260	defined as the ratio between the D-band (1350 cm <sup>-1</sup> ) and G-band (1580 cm <sup>-1</sup> ) ( $I_D/I_G$ ). The defect
261	density is an indication of the thermal stability <sup>7</sup> and the degree of oxidation. <sup>30</sup> We hypothesized
262	NaBH <sub>4</sub> reduction would decrease the defect density and result in an increase in the GO thermal
263	stability due to a decrease in the number of oxygen functionalities. However, Raman results
264	revealed that the $I_D/I_G$ did not change significantly (>5%) after NaBH <sub>4</sub> treatment. Although
265	reduction of oxygen functionalities occurred (i.e., XPS and thermal stability results), the
266	chemical reduction treatment did not heal defects. $NaBH_4$ is known to reduce aldehydes and
267	ketones into alcohols, and it is capable of reducing lactone and carbonyl groups to hydroxyl
268	groups on functionalized CNTs. <sup><math>31</math></sup> So, in the case of NaBH <sub>4</sub> reduction of GO, presumably the GO
269	functionalities are only being reduced as far as C-OH and C-H, and NaBH <sub>4</sub> is not able to heal
270	defects through C-C sp <sup>2</sup> bond formation.
271	In water, NaBH <sub>4</sub> enabled aggregation of GO, presumably a result of removing

272 oxygenated functional groups, but separation via centrifugation was difficult (i.e., Figure SI-5).

273 In a clean, aqueous matrix (i.e., only water and GO), filtration directly onto a quartz-fiber filter (QFF) is an option for separating the GO (e.g., 10-20 µm X-Y dimensions), but this is not an 274 option for complex matrices because the filter will also collect interfering carbon compounds. 275 For applications involving clean matrices free of carbon interferences, filtration may be an 276 277 option; though retention using the QFFs, which are designed to function as air filters, may be poor for GO as observed for functionalized CNTs.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, if a different quantification 278 279 method (e.g., electrophoresis, UV-Vis) is used, the sample would need to be in a concentrated 280 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 281 biomass (this paper), tissue<sup>8</sup>), GO aggregated and formed a very stable, compact pellet upon 282 283 centrifugation. This is likely due to a combination of a high pH, double-layer compression from 284 increased ionic strength, and the presence of two surfactants, which may cause a cloud-point like effect.<sup>32</sup> The known individual components of Solvable were examined to determine the root of 285 286 the effect. Both surfactants (10% concentration) alone and in combination caused aggregation 287 while sodium hydroxide was not effective. Upon addition of NaBH<sub>4</sub> to the surfactants, samples exhibited severe effervescence due to hydrogen generation, and GO was not easily recovered as 288 289 it adhered to the vials, overflowed the vials along with the bubbles, or would not centrifuge into 290 a pellet. However, adding sodium hydroxide to the two surfactants (individual or combined) curbed the effervescence. Therefore, the excellent performance of Solvable for extracting 291 graphene can be attributed to a synergistic action of its components rather than a single species. 292 Figure 4 shows the percent recovery of RGO as a function of increasing NaBH<sub>4</sub> concentration. 293 294 Recovery with Solvable alone (i.e., no reducing agent) was  $75 \pm 0.5\%$ . Adding low concentrations of NaBH<sub>4</sub> (e.g., 0.04%) did not show improvement with an average recovery of 295

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296  $76 \pm 3\%$ . Increasing the NaBH<sub>4</sub> concentration to 0.4% resulted in a slightly higher recovery (81) 297  $\pm$  3%), but recovery over 90% wasn't achieved until greater than 2% NaBH<sub>4</sub> was used (95  $\pm$ 5%), with a maximum recovery of  $97 \pm 0.4\%$  observed using 8% NaBH<sub>4</sub>. The improved physical 298 299 recovery was attributed to a reduction in oxygen content, resulting in increased aggregation of the graphene particles. Removal of carbon-oxygen bonds shifts the hydrophilic nature of 300 301 graphene to be more hydrophobic, resulting in improved aggregation during centrifugation. Reduction also decreases the amount graphene that would otherwise be lost in the organic carbon 302 PTA background (i.e., during the inert phase as shown in Figure 1). 303 304 When using PTA for quantifying graphene, the thermal stability (i.e., peak oxidizing 305 temperature) is important for separating graphene from background organic carbon during analysis. Figure 5 shows PTA mass loss curves under oxidizing conditions for GO using 306 307 different extraction conditions. Surfactants have been previously shown to reduce the thermal stability of CNTs,<sup>7</sup> and we observed the same effect for GO treated with Solvable, an alkali 308 reagent containing surfactants. Solvable decreased the thermal stability of GO significantly, with 309 310 an onset approximately 130 s earlier and 50 °C lower. Reduction of GO in water with NaBH<sub>4</sub> improved the thermal stability (Figure 3), so we hypothesized that this would improve the GO 311 stability after Solvable treatment. Using low concentrations of NaBH<sub>4</sub> (e.g., 0.04%) after the 312 Solvable treatment only increased the thermal stability slightly ( $\sim 20$  s), but using a higher 313 concentration of  $NaBH_4$  (>2%) returned the thermal stability close to the original (Figure SI-6). 314 315 The improvement in the thermal stability may account for the improved recovery when using greater than 2% NaBH<sub>4</sub> (i.e., Figure 4). To achieve optimal extraction, a combination of Solvable 316 and at least 2% NaBH<sub>4</sub> is recommended. 317 318 Recovery of GO and FLG from Biomass

319	The ability to quantify GO or FLG in a complex organic matrix such as wastewater
320	biosolids is important for assisting environmental studies. As such, we determined detection
321	limits for GO and FLG in biomass as well as recovery of 20 $\mu$ g of GO or FLG from 1 mg of
322	clean, dried biomass (200 mg/L). The MDL, LCL, and the UCL for GO in biomass were
323	calculated to be 2.2, 1.4, and 4.9 $\mu$ g, respectively. The MDL, LCL, and UCL for FLG in biomass
324	were calculated to be 1.5, 0.93, and 3.2 $\mu$ g, respectively. In comparison, the MDL for GO in a
325	clean aqueous matrix (i.e., ultrapure water only) is 1.7 µg.
326	Without Solvable treatment, FLG and GO detection in biosolids was not possible because
327	the amount of biomass collected in the pellet overwhelmed PTA and resulted in indistinguishable
328	peaks for graphene and biomass. Using the extraction method of Solvable and $2\%$ NaBH <sub>4</sub> ,
329	GO/RGO and FLG (20 $\mu$ g) recoveries from 1 mg dried biomass (0.02 $\mu$ g graphene/ $\mu$ g dried
330	biomass) were $80 \pm 6\%$ and $52 \pm 8\%$ , respectively. Although FLG is easier than GO/RGO to
331	detect in a complex matrix using PTA because it is more thermally stable, physical separation
332	from the biomass using centrifugation was less efficient, resulting in a lower recovery. We
333	observed that FLG was very stable in Solvable (before and after biomass treatment), with little
334	recovery occurring via centrifugation (<5%). Although FLG is already in a "reduced" form,
335	adding NaBH <sub>4</sub> helped to improve the FLG aggregation and extraction. We also examined nitric
336	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 ( $pH = 5.6$ ),
338	likely due to increased surface charge separation, but extraction was worse than with Solvable.
339	This agrees with previous results showing Solvable to be optimal over common agents (e.g.,
340	nitric acid, hydrochloric acid, hydrofluoric acid, etc.) used for extracting CNTs from rat lung
341	tissue. <sup>8</sup>

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342 Solvable was efficient at dissolving the biomass, but a small amount of background carbon still remained and interfered with GO/RGO peaks (Figure 6); no interference was 343 observed for FLG. The interference for GO/RGO was consistent across triplicate samples with 344 an average of  $2.2 \pm 1 \,\mu g$ . When the amount of biomass was increased to 5 mg (1 g biomass/L), 345 346 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 347 348 concentrations of biomass, we developed a phase-separation method by extending the heating 349 time of the NaBH<sub>4</sub> step to 36 hrs. This causes the water and surfactant phases of Solvable to 350 separate (Figure 7a), and after centrifugation, RGO remains mostly in the top surfactant phase 351 (Figure 7b). Similarly, when done in a wastewater matrix (i.e., 1 g biomass/L), the undigested 352 (interfering) biomass transfers into the water phase, and the RGO remains in the surfactant phase 353 (Figure 7c). This results in a physical separation of the RGO and the interfering background 354 carbon, allowing for easy recovery of the RGO only. Note, control samples digested with 355 Solvable for 36 hrs (i.e., no NaBH<sub>4</sub>) did not show any significant (<5%) additional removal of 356 biomass interference. Therefore, using NaBH<sub>4</sub> to separate the biomass and RGO into different phases is key for improving recovery in wastewater with a high biomass concentration. Using the 357 phase-separation method, the recovery of RGO (20 $\mu$ g) from 5 mg biomass was 110% ± 13%. 358 359 Recovery greater than 100% is attributed to undigested biomass constituents interacting with 360 RGO, causing the biomass to remain in the surfactant phase. This interaction is presumed to be 361 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 362 363 phase-separation was not successful for FLG as the majority of the FLG transferred to the water 364 phase along with the undigested biomass. The advantage of using the phase-separation method

365 over the centrifugal separation method for GO is that larger amounts of biomass can be used 366 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 367 graphene types. A detailed schematic of the two methods is shown in Figure SI-7. 368 369 Conclusion 370 We have successfully demonstrated an extraction and quantification method for graphene 371 and GO using an *in-situ* reduction method followed by detection with PTA. This method was 372 373 demonstrated in biomass (200 mg/L), resulting in recoveries for GO/RGO and FLG of  $80 \pm 9\%$ and  $52 \pm 8\%$ , respectively. A phase-separation method (similar to liquid-liquid extraction) was 374 developed to improve the recovery of GO from more concentrated wastewater samples (e.g., 1 g 375 376 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 377 complex matrices (e.g., sediments). While FLG was easier to separate thermally using PTA, it 378 379 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 380 study is needed on FLG and single-layer graphene to determine if physical recovery differences 381 exist between the varying types and if an additional processing step can improve the recovery. 382 Reported recoveries are ideal as they were obtained using a lab-grown, clean biomass. 383 384 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 385 graphene, thereby creating a false positive.<sup>7</sup> Similarly, the presence of carbonaceous 386 nanomaterials (e.g., CNTs, fullerenes) in environmental samples with graphene is possible,<sup>33</sup> 387

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388 further complicating recovery when using PTA. While GO/RGO and FLG used herein can be 389 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 390 391 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 392 393 background soot (or CNTs) interfering with graphene. With the challenge of thermally similar 394 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 395 396 methods and more selective extraction methods are needed. However, PTA, in its early analytical 397 development as described herein, is an excellent tool for monitoring the fate/transport and toxicity of graphene for model systems and organisms, respectively. 398

399

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407

## 408 Supporting Information

409 Additional figures.

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



- 2 Figure 2. XPS analysis of (a) GO and (b) RGO. The average position for C=C and C-C was
- 3 284.0 eV, and the average position for C=O and C-O was 287.0 eV and 288.6 eV for GO and
- 4 RGO, respectively.



2 Figure 3. PTA thermograms (oxidizing phase) for RGO reduced with 2% NaBH<sub>4</sub> 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 µg) under oxidizing PTA conditions using different

3 extraction conditions. "Sol" is Solvable and "BH" is NaBH<sub>4</sub>.



- 2 Figure 6. PTA thermogram showing biomass interference for GO in wastewater biosolids.
- 3 Solvable and 2% NaBH<sub>4</sub> treatment.





2 Figure 7. Images showing separation of water and surfactants with extended NaBH<sub>4</sub> 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.