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1	Characteristics of Nano-plastics in Bottled Drinking Water		
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19 Abstract

20 Plastic pollution in water is threatening the environment and human health. Previous 21 relevant studies mainly focus on macro and micro plastic pollutions and their 22 characteristics. Little is known about the extent and characteristics of nano-scale plastics in our drinking water systems, mainly due to difficulties in their isolation and 23 analysis. These nano-plastics may pose higher risk to human health than micro-plastics. 24 25 Here we report the collection and analysis of organic nanoparticles from commercial 26 bottled water of two brands. Novel nano-plastic particle imaging and molecular 27 structure analysis techniques have been applied. The findings show the existence of organic nanoparticles, and a likely source has been identified to be the degradation of 28 29 plastic water bottles.

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31 Keywords: plastic, nano, water, pollution, health, environment

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33 **1. Introduction**

Micro and nano-plastic pollution in water is one of the global environmental and public health concerns. Since 1950s the global plastic product has increased rapidly and reached 360 million tons in 2019[1]. The irresponsible disposal of plastic wastes has led to substantial damages to the environment. According to a World Bank estimation in 2017, there were 1.4 billion tons of plastic waste [2]. Among these plastic wastes,
only around 60% plastics, including polyethylene terephthalate (PET), high-density
polyethylene (HDPE), low-density polyethylene (LDPE) and polypropylene (PP) were
recyclable in 2018. Moreover, only 8.4% in total was actually recycled, while 15.7%
was incinerated in 2018 [3].

43 Plastic packaging occupies a dominant proportion of around 35% of all polymer resin 44 products from 2000 to 2015, followed by building and construction plastic materials at 45 16%, textiles at 12%, consumer and institutional products at 10%, transportation at 6%, electrical and electronics at 4%, industrial machinery with less than 1% and other 46 products at 14% [3]. Since PET is non-permeable to water, moisture, and bacteria due 47 to its intrinsic properties, 75% of PET is used in various food and beverage packaging 48 49 products [4-7]. Over 46% by volume of plastic waste generation resulted from 50 packaging [8-10].

51 There are 7.7 billion single-use plastic water bottles consumed in the UK every year and 391 billion litres of global consumption in 2017[11]. Around 19% of the UK 52 53 population drank bottled water every day in 2017[12]. On average, 118 litres of bottled 54 water was consumed per person in Europe in 2019[13]. Most single-use plastic water bottles are composed of PET. These PET bottles take 400 years to fully decompose. 55 56 Ultraviolet light irradiation, heat, mechanical and chemical abrasion can result in the 57 breaking of the chemical bonds in PET polymer. This leads to chain scission and depolymerisation. Therefore, micro and nano-plastics debris can be released inside and 58 59 outside from plastic water bottles through the degradation of plastics [14, 15]. In addition, 93% of 259 bottled waters across 11 brands were reported to contain 60 61 microplastics [16-18]. However, the prevalence of nano-plastics in potable water is comparatively unreported because of difficulty in their isolation and analysis [19]. 62 63 Furthermore, standard water treatment processes are unable to remove nano-plastics 64 [20] and may cause their generation from micro-plastics, e.g. during ultraviolet 65 treatment for the removal of natural organic matter.

It has been estimated that on average a person ingests over 5800 micro/nano-particles 66 67 of synthetic debris each year, and the largest contribution of over 88% is via drinking 68 water [16]. Whilst micro-plastics have been more widely studied, nano-plastics are more likely to have more negative impacts on human health. Cytotoxicity from 69 circulating particles in vivo is related to particle properties, including size, shape, 70 71 solubility, surface charge, surface reactivity and energy band structure [21, 22]. The 72 surface properties of nano-polymer, including surface energy, charge, and specific 73 affinity for certain biomolecules are capable of adsorbing macromolecules such as 74 proteins and lipids from the surrounding body fluids. The resulting corona will present 75 toxicity to human [23, 24]. Furthermore, a high abundance of reactive surface groups 76 can denature surrounding lipids and proteins and lead to membrane damage and 77 distortion to haemolytic symptoms [25]. Nano-polymer surface charge can modify 78 cationic particles, which leads to higher localisation of cationic particles in the lung and enhanced cellular uptake and pulmonary toxicity [26]. Additionally, the translocation
of nano-polymer into cells by endocytes is followed by phagosomes, which leads to
accumulation of particles in lysosomes. This becomes a pathway for cellular breakdown
of pathogens [27]. These toxicities have the potential for oxidative damage,
inflammation and accumulation in diverse tissue types [28, 29].

The toxicities of nano-plastics digestion will result in potential oxidative damage,
inflammation, and accumulation in diverse tissue types of humans. Figure 1 illustrates
the potential impact of nano-plastics in drinking water on human health.

87



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Figure 1: Illustration of impact of nano-plastics in drinking water on human health[30-32].

Typically, micro-plastic surveys have proceeded by counting pieces of plastic collected 91 92 on filters and individually analysing a proportion of them. Results have then been 93 presented as numbers of pieces per volume of fluid which is instructive to demonstrate However, as for all other pollutants, assessment 94 the existence of contamination. 95 and/or prediction of impact requires knowledge of concentration – mass of plastic per This can be determined by bulk analysis of plastics concentrated from a 96 volume. known volume of water. 97

98 Determination of the concentration of nano-plastics in water samples requires a method 99 able to both reliably isolate the nano-size fraction and to concentrate it sufficiently to be detectable by the chosen method of analysis. Centrifugation and membrane filtration 100 are the commonly used collection methods for nanoscale plastics. Low concentrations 101 102 of nano-plastics make the processing of large volumes of water necessary and the batch 103 processing of centrifugation inefficient and a flow through process of filtration is 104 necessary [33]. In this work we have developed a method that uses tangential flow 105 ultrafiltration (TFU) and evaporation to isolate and concentrate nano-sized organic material sufficiently that the material can then be identified by direct thermal desorption 106 (TD) into a gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) system. 107 TD-GC/MS has already been shown to be able to identify plastics in samples of micro-plastic [34]
but combination with TFU is necessary for nano-plastic analysis as it allows particles
in retentate fluids to be concentrated: by dewatering; thereby increasing concentration
of suspended particulates, and by desalting; thereby preventing dilution of solids by
precipitated salts when the fluid is evaporated.

These methods are used in this paper, to report for the first time the characteristics of nano-plastics found in bottled water. Also, super-resolution optical nanoscopy with microsphere lens was used for the first time for the imaging of nano-plastics as these nano-plastics cannot be observed clearly using standard scanning electron microscopy due to surface charges and agglomeration as well as TD-GC/MS to identify the polymer structures (break down products) of the nanoparticles collected.

119

120 2. Materials and Characterization Procedure

121 2.1 Nanoparticle Collection and Concentration Using Tangential Flow Ultrafiltration
 122 (TFU)

123 Two brands of bottled water (A and B) were analysed. Both were bottled in PET 124 bottles in August 2020 and analysed 4 months later. During the isolation procedure 125 all open vessels were covered loosely with aluminium foil to prevent deposition of 126 airborne particulates.

127

16 L of each water was filtered using a tangential flow ultrafiltration (TFU) system
(Figure 2.) A peristaltic pump (Masterflex P/S Prescision Console Drive pump)
transferred water at 300 ml/min into filters through silicone tubing. In the TFU system,
there were two 3 kD molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) (pore size: 1.2 nm) 200 PES
filters (Vivaflow, Sartorius, UK) connected in series.

133

134 The TFU system was used to concentrate the retentate (particulates >1.2 nm) by running 135 until a final retentate volume of 200ml was achieved; 80 fold concentration increase. 136 Furthermore, the salt content of the waters was also reduced by continual replacement 137 of retentate volume with DIW (dialysis) until the electrical conductivity of the retentate dropped from that of the original bottled water (A - 709 μ S/cm, B - 337 μ S/cm) to 13 138 139 μ S/cm. De-salting ensured that the solid sample ultimately prepared for analysis was 140 not diluted by precipitated mineral salts. 16L of DIW was also run through the system 141 to generate a retentate that was a procedural blank, for comparison to retentate A and 142 B.

143

0.5ml of the retentate fluid was used for analysis of size distribution and surface
morphology (see 2.2 below). The remaining 199.5ml retentate fluids were evaporated
to dryness in watch glasses in a closed drying oven at 40°C. The watch glasses
increased in mass by 8mg from retentate A and 6mg from B, the solid material was
removed by gentle scraping with a steel spatula. Non-destructive nano-particle

characterisation by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) was carried out on
this powder (see 2.3 below) prior to it being recollected and analysed by TD-GC/MS
(see 2.3 below).

152

The mass recovered from the procedural blank was <1mg and its solids formed a film rather than removable powder, therefore, transfer for analysis was done by adding 0.5 ml of DIW to the watch glass to resuspend any particulate. This suspension was then added dropwise to quartz wool – which had previously been heated and desorbed at 320°C - with intervening drying under an infra-red lamp. This quartz wool loaded with retenate was then placed in the thermal desorption tube (see 2.3 below).

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Figure 2: Schematic diagram of the TFU system used in this research.

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165 2.2 Analysis of Size Distribution and Surface Morphology of Nano-plastic Particles

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The size distribution of the nanoparticle retentate was measured using Dynamic Light
Scattering and Nanoro-M super-resolution optical microscopy with a super-resolution
microsphere amplifying lens - SMAL (LIG Nanowise Ltd, UK)[35, 36].

170 The surface morphologies of nanoscale particles in the liquid samples were imaged 171 using a novel Nanoro-M model optical nanoscope based on Super-resolution 172 Microsphere Amplifying Lens (SMAL). The dynamic light scattering recorded and 173 analysed the significant size distributions in peak diagram using Zetasizer Nano and 174 associated software tool.

176 2.3 Nanoparticle Characterisation

175

FTIR (ALPA II, Brucker) in the transmittance mode was used for the analysis of
molecular structures of the retentate nano-plastic samples in powdered form. A pankit
(PerkinElmer,UK) was applied to press the sample to ensure flat surfaces on both sides.

180 For TD-GC/MS analyses of nano sized PET degradants from the PET bottled water the samples were analysed using a an Agilent GC-MSD system (Agilent, Technology, 181 Santa Clara, US) interfaced to a UNITY-xrTM Thermal Desorber (Markes 182 183 International, Bridgend, UK). The advantage of TD-GC/MS is the higher resolution analysis without disruption from organic solvent, thus various low molecular weight 184 plastic additives can be determined [50]. A low volume of nano-PET degradation in 185 retentate can be determined by TD-GC/MS for the first time in this work. This is 186 187 difficult to be detected by other techniques [51].

188 Prior to the TD-GC/MS analysis, retentate was loaded onto a quartz filter paper which was rolled and placed in an empty stainless steel thermal desorption tube (Markes 189 International, Bridgend, UK) and 2 pieces of 0.01g of quartz wool were inserted into 190 two ends of the tube. The sample loaded tube was sealed by brass storage caps to avoid 191 192 contaminants before loading into the Thermal Desorber. The tube was desorbed at 320°C for 20 mins using nitrogen gas at a flow rate of 100 mL/min. The purged gas 193 194 was temporarily stored in a 30°C cold trap after which it was desorbed (at 320°C; 3 min) and transferred to an Agilent 7980A GC fitted with an Agilent HP-5MS 5% 195 Phenyl Methyl Siloxane column (30m x 250 µm x 0.25 µm) coupled to an Agilent 5975 196 197 MSD single quadrupole mass spectrometer in electron ionisation mode (scanning a range of m/z 50 to 650 at 2.7 scans s⁻¹; ionisation energy: 70 eV) using helium as the 198 carrier gas. The heated GC interface was set at 280 °C, the EI source at 230 °C and the 199 200 MS quadrupole at 150 °C. The oven was programmed from 40 °C (held for 4 min) to 200 °C at 8 °C min⁻¹ and held at this temperature for 3 min, for a total run time of 27 201 202 min sample⁻¹.

203

3. Results and Discussion

205 *3.1 Surface morphology and size distribution of nano-plastics found in bottled water*

206 The majority of organic nanoparticles from concentrated retentate of Brand A and B bottled water were transparent and spherical (Figure 3). According to the statistics of 207 208 the DLS analysis, the size distribution of the retentates from the bottled water was 209 uniform (Figure 4). The retentate from brand A bottled water was composed of 83.9% particles with a size around 433 nm, 16.1% particles with a size around 66 nm and no 210 particles were in the microscale. The retentate from brand B bottled water was 211 212 composed of 64.8% particles with a size around 140 nm, 31.4% particles with a size 213 around 605 nm and 3.8% particles with a size around 5 μ m.

214



Figure 3: Optical microscopic images of organic nanoparticles from concentrated retentate for Brand A and B bottled water.



measured by DLS.

3.2 Molecular structures of the submicron and organic nanoparticles from the retentates

- FTIR analyses indicate discrete spectra of the submicron and organic nanoparticles from the retentates (Figure 5).





- 231 The IR absorption spectrum of weathering PET and PP has been reported by several
- researchers [37-40]. By combining the information and knowledge of IR group
 frequencies, most of the bands for retentates observed can be identified (summarised in
 Table 1).
- 235

Absorption (cm ⁻¹)	Appearance	Group	Suspended compound
3300	medium	-stretching vibration of O-H	carboxylic acid [41]
	broad		
2940	weak	-stretching vibration of C-H	-CH ₂ - in ethylene
		-stretching aliphatic	glycol segment [42, 43]
		vibration in the amorphous	
		region of C-H	
1730	weak	-stretching vibration of C=O	carbonyl group of
			carboxylic acids [42-44]
1640	medium	-stretching vibration of C=C	Conjugated or cyclic
			alkene [42, 43, 45]
1540	medium	-stretching vibration of N=O	nitro compound [46]
1375	weak	-bending vibration of C-C	carboxylic acid [42, 47,
		-stretching vibration of ring	48]
		(C-C) in-plane	
		-bending vibration of ring	
		(C-H) in-plane	
		-aromatic skeleton stretching	
		vibration	
1245	weak	-stretching vibration of C-O	carboxylic acid [42-44]
1040	strong	-stretching vibration of C-O	Anhydride [42-44]
870	strong	-bending vibration of C=C	Conjugated or cyclic
			alkene

Table 1: Responded groups and corresponding compounds to peaks in Figure 5 (left)

237

238 The typical FTIR fingerprints for PET are composed of peak positions of: 1716 cm⁻¹, 1408 cm⁻¹, 1342 cm⁻¹, 1282 cm⁻¹, 1257 cm⁻¹, 1246 cm⁻¹, 1122 cm⁻¹, 1099 cm⁻¹, 1015 239 cm⁻¹, 870 cm⁻¹ and 725 cm⁻¹ (Figure 5 right) [41, 48]. Compared with bands for typical 240 PET, the retentate from bottled waters were found to be degraded PET compounds. 241 PET is the typical material used as the bottle material in these bottled waters. The 242 bending vibration of C=C generate the absorption of 1640 cm⁻¹ and partially 870 cm⁻¹ 243 244 from the retentate of bottled water showed a ring structure. The 1716 cm⁻¹ absorption peak is attributed to C=O stretching. A relatively weaker absorption peak can be found 245 from both bottled water retentates. Compared with absorptions for typical PET, the 246 (C=O)-C stretching of ester on 1246 cm⁻¹ was found as a ring ester in the plane mode 247 left from the retentate sample, thus the existence of carboxyl acid end group as shown 248

in Figure 6 could be formed from the degradation of PET. Additionally, the low 249 intensity of 1246 cm⁻¹ and 1716 cm⁻¹ absorption peaks was the result from the C=O of 250 nanoscale-carboxylic acid generated from Norrish I, II and released into water[42, 49]. 251 The 1375 cm⁻¹ absorption peak was attributed to the vibration of -CH₂- in the ethylene 252 glycol segment, which was believed to be a gauche conformer of ethylene glycol 253 254 segment. This was also coming from the aging of PET with conformational changes as illustrated in Figure 6 [43, 48, 50]. The intensity of asymmetry stretching aliphatic 255 vibration of C-H at 2940 cm⁻¹ was increased due to the time of weathering (UV 256 257 exposure and hydrolysis[41, 45]). The remaining absorption from the retentates may come from weathering and aging of PET resulting in the absents of 1342 cm⁻¹ 258 259 attributing to CH₂ wagging, 1099 cm⁻¹ attributing to symmetric glycol C-O stretch, and 725 cm⁻¹ attributing to C-H and C=O out of plane. 260



262

261

Figure 6: Norrish I, II reactions of PET degradation (derived from [47, 48, 51])

264

3.3 Mass spectrum of submicron and organic nanoparticles from the retentates
The selection of secondary-ion mass spectrometry (SIMs) for TD-GC/MS result was
based on Norrish I, II reactions of PET degradation and results in derivatives from PET

or plasticizer with m/z of 121 (benzoic acid) and 149 (fomyl benzoic acid) moieties [52]. These m/z values were therefore used to select specific peaks for suspended suspected derivatives from aged PET.

TD-GC/MS analyses of both bottled water retentates indicated besides the presence of a series of phthalate derivatives the presence of substantial amounts of ethyl pethoxybenzoate, which was notably absent in the procedural blank derived from DI water retentate (Figure 7). The similarity of ethyl p-ethoxybenzoate to partial break down segments from PET (Figure 6) indicates the existence of decomposed components from PET (the bottle material for the bottled water) in the bottled water retentates.



278

Figure 7: Partial TD-GC/MS m/z 121 mass chromatograms of both brands of bottled water retentates and the procedural blank. Stars indicated the presence of phthalate derivatives. Ethyl p-ethoxybenzoate was identified based on the characteristic fragments in its mass spectrum (m/z 194 (molecular ion peak), 166, 149, 138 and 121 (base peak))

The Norrish degradation of PET may have been caused by light exposure, particularly
UV light exposure during packaging, transportation, storage, and shelfing in the
supermarket and stores for 4 months before our water collection.

287

288 *3.4 Limitations of the study*

289 In this study the bottled water was only from two commercial water suppliers. The 290 occurrence of the nano particles reported in this study is specific to the locations covered. While the study on the bottle and cap materials has provided strong evidence 291 292 that some nano particles in bottled water shows similar TD-GC/MS spectrum signatures 293 from PET nano plastics, and plasticizer, this work demonstrates the presence of PET 294 breakdown products in bottled water quantification of the amount is not possible. To 295 quantify the amount of nano-sized PET breakdown products in water samples there is a requirement for a standard - a material of known mass that can be put through the 296 297 analytical procedure - that must also behave identically to the retentate during TD-GC-298 MS. Such a material could be generated by keeping PET under the same conditions as 299 that collected in the retentates; kept in water at same temperature and UV exposure but it would also be necessary that all this material was also <10kD. Preparation of such 300

standards should be the object of further studies in order that quantification of nano-plastics that have now been demonstrated to be detectable.

It, however, suggests a careful consideration of the use of plastic containers for drinking
water given the possibility of degradation by thermal mechanism and light exposure.
The study provides a warning for the need for more systematic, controlled, and
randomised studies to understand the occurrence of plastic nanoparticles in our water
systems. The possibility that this is an existing risk makes this of urgency.

308

309 4. Conclusion

In this research, a relatively high volume of organic nanoparticles (dominated by 310 precursors of PET plastic) from the bottled water were collected effectively through a 311 specially designed tangential flow ultrafiltration system. Spherical transparent organic 312 313 nanoparticles were detected in bottled waters. Most of those retentates were in the nanoscale, which were not removed by current municipal water plants. Decomposed 314 315 segments from PET were identified as ethyl p-ethoxybenzoate by FTIR and TD-GC-MS. These may come from the degradation of the PET bottles containing the water. 316 317 These nano-plastics are unable to be metabolized and can be absorbed by people causing various damage to health. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that more 318 319 systematic quantification of occurrence of nano-plastic particles be done, and national 320 and international standards need to be established to limit the amount of nano-plastics 321 in drinking waters. Given the possibility of cumulative impact, timely action is of 322 paramount importance.

323

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- 328
- 329 Data Statement
- 330 The data generated by this research is reported in the Tables and Figures.
- 331

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