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Characteristics of Nano-plastics in Bottled Drinking Water

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Abstract

 Plastic pollution in water is threatening the environment and human health. Previous relevant studies mainly focus on macro and micro plastic pollutions and their 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 analysis. These nano-plastics may pose higher risk to human health than micro-plastics. Here we report the collection and analysis of organic nanoparticles from commercial bottled water of two brands. Novel nano-plastic particle imaging and molecular 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 plastic water bottles.

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

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].

 Plastic packaging occupies a dominant proportion of around 35% of all polymer resin products from 2000 to 2015, followed by building and construction plastic materials at 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 products at 14% [3]. Since PET is non-permeable to water, moisture, and bacteria due to its intrinsic properties, 75% of PET is used in various food and beverage packaging products [4-7]. Over 46% by volume of plastic waste generation resulted from packaging [8-10].

 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 population drank bottled water every day in 2017[12]. On average, 118 litres of bottled 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. Ultraviolet light irradiation, heat, mechanical and chemical abrasion can result in the 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 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 microplastics [16-18]. However, the prevalence of nano-plastics in potable water is comparatively unreported because of difficulty in their isolation and analysis [19]. Furthermore, standard water treatment processes are unable to remove nano-plastics [20] and may cause their generation from micro-plastics, e.g. during ultraviolet treatment for the removal of natural organic matter.

 It has been estimated that on average a person ingests over 5800 micro/nano-particles of synthetic debris each year, and the largest contribution of over 88% is via drinking 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 circulating particles in vivo is related to particle properties, including size, shape, solubility, surface charge, surface reactivity and energy band structure [21, 22]. The surface properties of nano-polymer, including surface energy, charge, and specific affinity for certain biomolecules are capable of adsorbing macromolecules such as proteins and lipids from the surrounding body fluids. The resulting corona will present toxicity to human [23, 24]. Furthermore, a high abundance of reactive surface groups can denature surrounding lipids and proteins and lead to membrane damage and distortion to haemolytic symptoms [25]. Nano-polymer surface charge can modify 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.

 Figure 1: Illustration of impact of nano-plastics in drinking water on human health 90 [30-32].

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

 Determination of the concentration of nano-plastics in water samples requires a method 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 are the commonly used collection methods for nanoscale plastics. Low concentrations of nano-plastics make the processing of large volumes of water necessary and the batch processing of centrifugation inefficient and a flow through process of filtration is necessary [33]. In this work we have developed a method that uses tangential flow ultrafiltration (TFU) and evaporation to isolate and concentrate nano-sized organic material sufficiently that the material can then be identified by direct thermal desorption (TD) into a gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) system. 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.

2. Materials and Characterization Procedure

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

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

 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.

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

 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 146 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).

 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.

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

 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].

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

2.3 Nanoparticle Characterisation

 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.

 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, Santa Clara, US) interfaced to a UNITY-xrTM Thermal Desorber (Markes International, Bridgend, UK). The advantage of TD-GC/MS is the higher resolution analysis without disruption from organic solvent, thus various low molecular weight plastic additives can be determined [50]. A low volume of nano-PET degradation in retentate can be determined by TD-GC/MS for the first time in this work. This is difficult to be detected by other techniques [51].

 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 International, Bridgend, UK) and 2 pieces of 0.01g of quartz wool were inserted into two ends of the tube. The sample loaded tube was sealed by brass storage caps to avoid 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 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% Phenyl Methyl Siloxane column (30m x 250 µm x 0.25 µm) coupled to an Agilent 5975 MSD single quadrupole mass spectrometer in electron ionisation mode (scanning a 198 range of *m/z* 50 to 650 at 2.7 scans s⁻¹; ionisation energy: 70 eV) using helium as the carrier gas. The heated GC interface was set at 280 °C, the EI source at 230 °C and the 200 MS quadrupole at 150 °C. The oven was programmed from 40 °C (held for 4 min) to 201 200 °C at 8 °C min⁻¹ and held at this temperature for 3 min, for a total run time of 27 min sample^{-1} .

3. Results and Discussion

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

 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 the DLS analysis, the size distribution of the retentates from the bottled water was 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 particles were in the microscale. The retentate from brand B bottled water was 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 um.

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

221 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 226 from the retentates (Figure 5).

 Figure 5: FTIR spectra for the retentates from two brand bottled water (left) and bottle cap material (PP) and body material (PET) (right).

- 231 The IR absorption spectrum of weathering PET and PP has been reported by several 232 researchers [37-40]. By combining the information and knowledge of IR group 233 frequencies, most of the bands for retentates observed can be identified (summarised in 234 Table 1).
- 235

236 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} , 239 1408 cm⁻¹, 1342 cm⁻¹, 1282 cm⁻¹, 1257 cm⁻¹, 1246 cm⁻¹, 1122 cm⁻¹, 1099 cm⁻¹, 1015 240 cm^{-1} , 870 cm⁻¹ and 725 cm⁻¹ (Figure 5 right) [41, 48]. Compared with bands for typical 241 PET, the retentate from bottled waters were found to be degraded PET compounds. 242 PET is the typical material used as the bottle material in these bottled waters. The 243 bending vibration of C=C generate the absorption of 1640 cm⁻¹ and partially 870 cm⁻¹ 244 from the retentate of bottled water showed a ring structure. The 1716 cm^{-1} absorption 245 peak is attributed to C=O stretching. A relatively weaker absorption peak can be found 246 from both bottled water retentates. Compared with absorptions for typical PET, the 247 (C=O)-C stretching of ester on 1246 cm^{-1} was found as a ring ester in the plane mode 248 left from the retentate sample, thus the existence of carboxyl acid end group as shown

 in Figure *6* could be formed from the degradation of PET. Additionally, the low 250 intensity of 1246 cm⁻¹ and 1716 cm⁻¹ absorption peaks was the result from the C=O of nanoscale-carboxylic acid generated from Norrish I, II and released into water[42, 49]. 252 The 1375 cm⁻¹ absorption peak was attributed to the vibration of -CH₂- in the ethylene glycol segment, which was believed to be a gauche conformer of ethylene glycol 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 256 vibration of C-H at 2940 cm^{-1} was increased due to the time of weathering (UV exposure and hydrolysis[41, 45]). The remaining absorption from the retentates may 258 come from weathering and aging of PET resulting in the absents of 1342 cm^{-1} 259 attributing to CH_2 wagging, 1099 cm⁻¹ attributing to symmetric glycol C-O stretch, and 260 $\frac{725 \text{ cm}^{-1}}{25 \text{ cm}^{-1}}$ attributing to C-H and C=O out of plane.

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

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]. 269 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 p- ethoxybenzoate, 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.

 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 286 supermarket and stores for 4 months before our water collection.

 In this study the bottled water was only from two commercial water suppliers. The 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 that some nano particles in bottled water shows similar TD-GC/MS spectrum signatures from PET nano plastics, and plasticizer, this work demonstrates the presence of PET breakdown products in bottled water quantification of the amount is not possible. To 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 analytical procedure – that must also behave identically to the retentate during TD-GC- MS. Such a material could be generated by keeping PET under the same conditions as 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

 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.

4. Conclusion

 In this research, a relatively high volume of organic nanoparticles (dominated by precursors of PET plastic) from the bottled water were collected effectively through a specially designed tangential flow ultrafiltration system. Spherical transparent organic nanoparticles were detected in bottled waters. Most of those retentates were in the nanoscale, which were not removed by current municipal water plants. Decomposed 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. 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 systematic quantification of occurrence of nano-plastic particles be done, and national and international standards need to be established to limit the amount of nano-plastics in drinking waters. Given the possibility of cumulative impact, timely action is of paramount importance.

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