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- 1 MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF BIOCHAR-DERIVED CARBONACEOUS
- 2 NANOMATERIALS FOR DETECTION OF HEAVY METAL IONS IN AQUEOUS
- 3 **SYSTEMS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

- 13 This article focuses on implementing multivariate analysis to evaluate biochar-derived
- carbonaceous nanomaterials (BCN) from three different feedstocks for the detection and
- differentiation of heavy metal ions in aqueous systems. The BCN were produced from dairy
- manure, rice straw and sorghum straw biochar using our NanoRefinery process. The
- 17 NanoRefinery process transforms biochar into advanced nanomaterials using
- depolymerisation/chemical oxidation and purification of nanomaterials using solvent
- 19 extraction. Dairy manure biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (DMB-CN), rice straw

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biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (RSB-CN) and sorghum straw biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (SSB-CN) were utilised as probes for the evaluation of their fluorescent properties and the detection of heavy metal ions. The BCN fluorescence quenching and fluorescence recovery was tested with lead (Pb<sup>2+</sup>), nickel (Ni<sup>2+</sup>), copper (Cu<sup>2+</sup>) and mercury (Hg<sup>2+</sup>). Principal component analysis (PCA) and discriminant analysis were used to differentiate among heavy metal ions in water samples. The BCN from different feedstocks had different characteristics and produced different interactions with heavy metal ions. DMB-CN had the highest quenching for Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> while SSB-CN and RSB-CN responded best to Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup>, respectively. The fluorescence quenching was modelled using linear and empirical functions. PCA and discriminant analysis used the quenching measurements to differentiate heavy metal ions in aqueous system. A key result was that the discriminant analysis had a 100 % accuracy to detect Pb2+, 66 % for Ni2+ and Cu2+, and 33 % for Hg<sup>2+</sup>. This study has shown that biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials could be used in heavy metal ions sensing applications. This is the first step in the development of a fast and accurate method for the detection of heavy metal ions in waters using environmentally friendly BCN.

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- 37 **Keywords:** Biochar; Carbonaceous nanomaterials; Heavy metal ions, Fluorescence sensors,
- 38 Quenching, Multivariate analysis

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

- 41 Agro-industry is the core of local and regional economies around the world. However,
- 42 industries producing and processing agricultural raw materials generate millions of tons of

by-products and waste which are, in the majority, unexploited. Rice straw, sorghum straw and dairy manure biochar are residues generated from agro-industrial activities seeking transformative processes to create added-value products (Beltrán-Ramírez et al., 2019). Worldwide, the estimated rice production for 2018 was 769 million tons (FAO, 2018). Therefore, the worldwide production of rice straw is above 1 billion tons as each ton of rice produces 1.5 tons of rice straw (FAO, 2018; Satlewal et al., 2018). Sorghum is the fifth most important grain with a worldwide production of 85.2 million tons (Cuevas et al., 2018). Each ton of sorghum results in 1.3 tons of sorghum straw creating a worldwide production of sorghum straw of more than 100 million tons (Cuevas et al., 2018; Kim and Dale, 2004). Similarly, animal manure is one of the largest wastes produced by the agro-industry. In Europe alone, domesticated animals produce more than 1500 million tons, including 1284 million tons of cattle manure (Guo et al., 2010; Holm-Nielsen et al., 2009). The enormous amounts of residues overwhelm traditional uses, such as field fertilisation, and present an opportunity for novel transformation processes able to produce added-value products from agro-industrial wastes. Worldwide, the focus of agro-industrial waste management has evolved from disposal to the use of these residues as raw materials for the production of chemicals, energy or materials (Burg et al., 2018; Plácido and Zhang, 2018; Plácido et al., 2019). In keeping with this shift toward sustainability, waste-to-energy effectively provides organic waste treatment, sustainable energy generation and resource recovery. One of these waste-to-energy methods is biomass thermal conversion through gasification or pyrolysis processes. Both processes produce synthesis gas (syngas, 13–85 %), biooil (5–75 %), and biochar (10–30 %) (Hsieh et al., 2015). Syngas and biooil can be used to produce biofuels, electricity and heating, all of which are readily marketable with supply well matched to demand (Gao et al., 2017).

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Pyrolysis and gasification of dairy manure, sorghum straw and rice straw are the subject of current research. Dairy manure has been transformed using bench and pilot scale gasifiers (Nam et al., 2016) with sand from the cattle bedding (Nam et al., 2017) and in co-feeding with cotton gin trash and microalgae (Hanif et al., 2016). Similarly, sorghum and rice straw thermal conversion have been transformed using pyrolysis in a pressurised reactor (Santos and Capareda, 2016), fluidised bed gasification (Maglinao Jr et al., 2015), a bench-scale auger pyrolysis (Nam et al., 2015) and acid pre-treated rice straw pyrolysis (Hsieh et al., 2015). In contrast, current added-value applications for biochar such as the production of activated carbons (Jin et al., 2016) or soil amendment do not have the capacity to absorb the huge quantity of this material associated with the transformation of agro-industrial wastes. Research is now beginning to investigate transformation into nano- and micro-biochar via physical processes and application to the removal of pollutants and the production of electrode materials (Li et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Naghdi et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2018) and the use of biochar depolymerisation for the transformation of biochar into different added-value products. Humic and fulvic acids were generated as a product of the chemical depolymerisation of cotton gin trash (CGT) biochar and municipal solid waste (MSW) biochar (Genuino et al., 2017; Plácido and Capareda, 2015) via biochar depolymerisation, nano-silica was obtained from CGT biochar (Plácido and Capareda, 2015). The production of carbon-based nanomaterials is the most recent development in the application of biochar chemical depolymerisation. Placido et al. have recently reported the production and purification of carbon dots (Cdots) from microalgae biochar (Plácido et al., 2019). The physicochemical properties and biological compatibility of Cdots have enabled their use as bioimaging probes and the initial assessments for their application as environmental sensors.

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Cdots and other carbonaceous nanomaterials applied as heavy metal ions sensors have been produced from different feedstocks including chitosan, egg whites, lotus root, orange peels, DNA, pigeon waste, and chocolate (Gogoi et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Song et al., 2015; Tiong et al., 2015; Ye et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). Heavy metal ions detection using Cdots is based on fluorescence quenching where the metal ions interact with the Cdot groups, reducing their fluorescence. The typical detection range for heavy metal ions includes values from below the minimum allowed by the environmental regulation (ppb or nM) to the toxic concentrations for different organisms (50-100 μM). The quenching effect is dependent on the specific metal ion-Cdot interaction, which differs for each combination of Cdot and metal ion. Egg white Cdots were quenched by Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions but not by other metal ions (Zhang et al., 2015). DNA-derived Cdots were quenched by 20 uM of Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ag<sup>+</sup> ions (Song et al., 2015). Similarly, Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions were the most significant quenching agent with orange peel Cdots (Gu et al., 2016) and pigeon waste Cdots (Ye et al., 2017). Although these Cdots were produced from renewable sources, their production occurred as a stand-alone process not linked directly with bioenergy production. The BCN evaluated in this work were produced from processes optimised for energy production and, therefore, represent added-value products from agro-industrial waste.

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Biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (BCN) evidenced different levels of interaction with heavy metal ions. However, some BCN can interact with several heavy metal ions, showing low selectivity (Plácido et al., 2019). Therefore to improve the heavy metal ion selectivity, it is necessary to move beyond the use of a single BCN methodologies to a combination of different BCN with multivariate statistics. The aim of this study was to evaluate the fluorescent properties of BCN from three different biochars (dairy manure, rice straw and sorghum straw) as fluorescence probes for detecting heavy metal ions, and implementing

statistical multivariate analyses as a tool to differentiate heavy metal ions in aqueous systems.

This new understanding should help to improve predictions of BCN applications in heavy metal sensing.

## 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 2.1 Substrate

Dairy manure, rice straw and sorghum straw biochars were used as substrates for BCN production.. Sorghum straw biochar was produced in a fluidised bed/pyrolysis process at 500 °C for 30 minutes (Maglinao Jr et al., 2015). Whereas, rice straw biochar was produced in a pyrolysis process using a batch pressure reactor at 500 °C for 30 minutes (Series 4580 HP/HT, *Parr* Instrument Company, Moline, IL) (Nam et al., 2015). Dairy manure biochar was produced in a fluidised bed/gasification process at 700 °C (Nam et al., 2016). All biochars were sieved using a 1 mm mesh, after which the biochars were kept in a closed container at environment temperature (20–25 °C) until use.

## 2.2 Chemicals

All chemicals were analytical grade: Potassium permanganate (KMnO4) (Alfa Aesar), Acetone (Acros Organics), Nickel sulphate (Ni<sup>2+</sup>) (Fisher Scientific), Copper sulphate (Cu<sup>2+</sup>), Mercury Chloride (Hg<sup>2+</sup>), Lead Nitrate (Pb<sup>2+</sup>), sodium dihydrogen phosphate, disodium hydrogen phosphate and Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid (EDTA) Tetrasodium Salt (Sigma-Aldrich).

Deionised and filtered water (Milli-Q ultrapure water system with a 0.22 µm filter, Merck Millipore) was employed in all the procedures.

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# 2.3 Biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials preparation

The biochar depolymerisation reaction was as follows: 10 wt % solutions of KMnO<sub>4</sub> were mixed with biochar (5 wt %) in 125 mL Erlenmeyer flasks. The depolymerisation was performed at 120 °C for 1 hour at 15 psi in an autoclave (Med 12, Selecta) (Plácido and Capareda, 2015). After the chemical depolymerisation, the biochar solutions were centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 20 minutes at room temperature to separate the liquid (supernatant) and solid phases (remaining biochar). The liquid phase (supernatant), the biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterial (BCN) rich phase, was mixed with acetone until the production of a second liquid phase. Then, the two liquid phases (upper and lower) were separated by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 20 minutes (Legend RT, Sorvall). The upper phase was withdrawn and later rotoevaporated (miVAc Quattro concentrator, Genevac) until dry. After weighing, the dried upper phase was resuspended in deionised and filtered water, and ultrasonicated for 1 minute at 50 % amplitude (200W) (Branson, Emerson). The BCN were obtained after repeating the organic solvent precipitation process two additional times. The extracted BCN were suspended in water and kept at 4 °C until use. The BCN fluorescence emission and excitation spectra and the stability studies were performed in a Hitachi F2500 spectrophotometer. The stability of the BCN fluorescence was measured at different pHs (pH 3 to 10) and exposure times (0 to 1 h), the photobleaching measurements were obtained under constant excitation during 1 hour.

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# 2.4 Heavy metal ions quenching assays

Two quenching experiments were performed in this work. First, an evaluation of the quenching ability of the individual BCN (50 ppm) using a defined concentration of 50  $\mu$ M of each heavy metal ion. This concentration was selected as it is widely used in heavy metal ions quenching studies with nanomaterials (Essner et al., 2016; Hou et al., 2015). Second, an evaluation of the quenching ability of mixed BCN (50 ppm) using heavy metal ion concentrations from 0.0125  $\mu$ M up to 50  $\mu$ M. The range utilised was selected to include the minimum limit for these ions and concentrations reported in wastewaters effluents. Stock solutions of the metal salts were prepared at concentrations of at least 25 mM and for BCN at concentrations of 1000 ppm. All the solutions were prepared using deionised and 0.22  $\mu$ M filtered water. The quenching studies utilised 1 mL BCN solutions of 50 ppm diluted from the 1000 ppm solutions. The metal solutions were added to the cuvette containing BCN starting from 0.0125  $\mu$ M up to 50  $\mu$ M. Fluorescence spectra were collected after each heavy metal aliquot addition. The reduction in fluorescence was calculated as Fluorescence reduction percentage (FR %) (see **Equation 1**).

176 Fluorescence reduction % = 
$$\left(\frac{BCN \ FL_0 - BCN \ FL \ HMt}{BCN \ FL_0}\right) \times 100$$
 Equation 1

Where  $BCN FL_0$  is the BCN fluorescence without heavy metal addition and  $BCN FL_{HMt}$  corresponds to the BCN fluorescence after a specific concentration of heavy metal was added. All experiments were performed in triplicate and the initial quenching experiment results were analysed using the SAS Software University Edition. To understand the quenching mechanisms Stern–Volmer plots were constructed plotting  $BCN FL_0/BCN FL_{HMt}$  (F<sub>0</sub>/F) vs metal ion concentration.

**2.5** Fluorescence quenching mechanism

The metal quenching mechanisms studies utilised BCN solutions of 50 ppm diluted from the 1000 ppm solutions. The BCN solutions (50 ppm) fluorescence was measured at the maximum excitation wavelengths for each BCN (DMB-CN (330 nm), SSB-CN (310 nm), and RSB-CN (315 nm)). Then, the metal ions solutions were added to the previously measured solution of BCN (50 ppm) to reach a concentration of 50  $\mu$ M. The fluorescence of the metal ion/BCN solution was measured. Afterwards, EDTA solution was added to the metal ion/BCN solution to reach EDTA concentrations of 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, and 200  $\mu$ M. The fluorescence was measured after vigorously mixing. The fluorescence recovery was calculated using **Equation 2**.

194 Fluorescence recovery =  $\frac{F}{F_0}$  Equation 2

Where F is the fluorescence after the addition of the heavy metal or the EDTA and  $F_0$  is the initial BCN fluorescence. Additionally, the fluorescence restoration percentage (F.Res. %) that measure the amount of fluorescence recovered after the metal reduction was calculated using **equation 3**.

199 Fluorescence restoration 
$$\% = \frac{F_{EDTA} - F_{Metal}}{F_0 - F_{Metal}} \times 100$$
 Equation 3

where,  $F_{EDTA}$  is the fluorescence after the EDTA addition,  $F_{Metal}$  is the fluorescence after the addition of 50  $\mu$ M of heavy metal ions and  $F_{\theta}$  is the initial BCN fluorescence.

## 2.6 Statistical Multivariate analysis

Multivariate analysis was employed to evaluate the use of BCN as a tool for heavy metal discrimination. Six different variables were utilised two alphabetical (Metal and BCN) and four numerical (25 and 50  $\mu$ M fluorescence reduction (FR %), 50  $\mu$ M EDTA fluorescence

recovery and 100  $\mu$ M EDTA F.Res %). As 50  $\mu$ M EDTA fluorescence recovery and 100  $\mu$ M EDTA F.Res % were not normally distributed, the variables were transformed using a power to ten and power squared transformations, respectively. The PROC PRINCOMP statement (SAS Software University Edition) was employed for the PCA calculations using the data correlation matrix. The PROC DISCRIM statement (SAS Software University Edition) was employed to create a discrimination rule to identify heavy metal ions using the variables employed in the PCA. A second set of data was constructed to evaluate the accuracy of the discrimination rule.

#### 3 RESULTS

## 3.1 Biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials fluorescence stability

Figure. 1a describes the maximum fluorescence intensity and the wavelength associated with that fluorescence for different excitation wavelengths. DMB-CN fluorescence intensity increased as the excitation wavelength increased from 280 to its maximum at 330 nm before decreasing. RSB-CN and SSB-CN fluorescence intensity increased between excitation wavelengths of 280 and 310 nm. SSB-CN fluorescence intensity reduced at higher excitation wavelengths. RSB-CN behaved differently than the other BCN as the fluorescence intensity was almost constant between 310 and 340 nm before decreasing. The BCN maximum emission wavelengths exhibited small increases between 280 and 340 nm with linear slopes between 290 and 330 nm for DMB-CN (0.18 nm/nm), 300 and 340 nm for SSB-CN (0.20 nm/nm) and between 290 and 310 nm for RSB-CN (0.35 nm/nm). In all BCN, the maximum emission wavelength exhibited a considerable shift to longer wavelength after an excitation wavelength of 350 nm with slopes between 3 and 4-times greater than at the shorter

excitation wavelengths. The excitation wavelength corresponding to the highest emission was 310, 315 and 340 nm for SSB-CN, RSB-CN and DMB-CN, respectively.

**Figure. 1b** shows how the BCN normalised fluorescence intensity reduced after 1 hour exposure at the peak excitation wavelength. DMB-CN (excitation wavelength 330 nm) showed the largest reduction of 8 % followed by RSB-CN (excitation wavelength 315 nm) with a 2.3 % reduction and SSB-CN (excitation wavelength 310 nm) with a 1.85 % reduction. In addition to differences in the magnitude of fluorescence reduction after 1 hour, the dynamics of the reduction were also different. DMB-CN fluorescence reduced at all times. RSB-CN decreased during the first 20 minutes before stabilising. SSB-CN fluorescence increased during the first 5 minutes before decreasing during the next 35 minutes and finally stabilising. These results demonstrate that BCN are fairly resistant to photobleaching and should be stable enough for repeated measurements (Song et al., 2015; Ye et al., 2017).

**Figure. 1c** describes the modifications in the BCN fluorescence at different pH. All BCN displayed a fluorescence intensity increase with the pH reduction . The largest DMB-CN fluorescence increase occurred between pH 8 and pH 7 where there was a 10 % increase. Between pH 7 and pH 3, the fluorescence intensity increased less than 2 %. In RSB-CN, the pH reduction between pH 8 and pH 3 produced a linear increase in the RSB-CN fluorescence intensity (40 %) that was fit by a linear regression (Fluorescence = -0.053pH + 1.1523 with R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9838). SSB-CN emission fluorescence increased almost 10 % between pH 8 and 4. However, at pH 3 the fluorescence reduced 6 % compared to pH 4 fluorescence. Between, pH 8 and 5 the SSB-CN fluorescence and pH relationship were fit by a linear regression (Fluorescence = -0.0286 pH + 1.1397 with R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9994).

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## 3.2 Heavy metal ions quenching assays

256 3.2.1 Quenching experiment using a constant concentration of heavy metal ions 257 Figure. 2 describes the quenching experiment using heavy metal ions at 50 µM and 50 ppm 258 of BCN. All the BCN were quenched by the four heavy metal ions tested. However, the quenching level varied between metal ions and BCN. Cu<sup>2+</sup> produced the highest quenching in 259 260 all the tested material, with an average fluorescence quenching across the individual BCN samples of  $40 \pm 2.3$  %, followed by Pb<sup>2+</sup> (22 ± 4.9 %), Ni<sup>2+</sup> (18 ± 6.5 %) and Hg<sup>2+</sup> (13 ± 5.2 261 %). All heavy metal ions quenched DMB-CN fluorescence by at least 20 %. DMB-CN 262 achieved the largest fluorescence reduction percentage (FR %) in  $Hg^{2+}$  (22 %) and  $Ni^{2+}$  (30.3 263 %). In contrast, SSB-CN showed strong FR % of 43 % with Cu<sup>2+</sup> while showing weak 264 reduction for  $Ni^{2+}$  (10.3 %) and  $Hg^{2+}$  (6.8 %) and the lowest for  $Pb^{2+}$  (16.2 %). RSB-CN 265 fluorescence was strongly quenched by Cu<sup>2+</sup> (39.4 %) and Pb<sup>2+</sup> (28.5 %), intermediately by 266 Ni<sup>2+</sup> (17.4 %) and weakly by Hg<sup>2+</sup> (10 %). For all heavy metal ions, the highest quenching 267 was achieved by a different BCN (Cu<sup>2+</sup> SSB-CN, Pb<sup>2+</sup> DMB-CN, Ni<sup>2+</sup> RSB-CN and Hg<sup>2+</sup> 268 DMB-CN). The full quenching experiment statistical analyses, including analysis of variance 269 270 (ANOVAs) and the differences among means tests (Duncan's test), are in the supplementary 271 material. In all heavy metal ions, the ANOVAs evidenced differences among the BCN (p-272 value = 0.0004). Therefore, it was possible to test the differences among the means using the 273 Duncan's test (**Table. 1**). Duncan's test demonstrated that SSB-CN (42.8 %) was similar to DMB-CN and different from RSB-CN. Pb<sup>2+</sup> generated the highest quenching in RSB-CN 274 275 (28.5 %) and DMB-CN (24.8 %) fluorescence, which were statistically similar. As DMB-CN had the highest FR % for Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> and the Duncan's test determined it was significantly 276 277 different from the other BCN, it can be used for future individual heavy metal ions analysis.

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3.2.2 Quenching experiment using variable concentrations of heavy metal ions The fluorescence reduction (FR %) as a function of the heavy metal concentration was evaluated for the BCN. The fluorescence spectra of the quenching experiments for the three BCN and heavy metal ions are included in the supplementary material. All BCN / heavy metal ion combinations exhibited a reduction in the fluorescence when the heavy metal ion concentration increased. DMB-CN, RSB-CN and SSB-CN quenching percentage followed a trend similar to the 50 µM experiments, showing high quenching for Cu<sup>2+</sup>, followed by Pb<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup>. The FR % was modelled to analyse the effect of heavy metal concentration in BCN fluorescence quenching. **Table. 2** describes the fitting of the quenching experiments. Cu<sup>2+</sup> concentration and SSB-CN FR % had a linear correlation at the majority of the concentrations evaluated. In contrast, DMB-CN had a combination of a linear and a power correlation and RSB-CN had two power functions. The limit of detection (LOD) for SSB-CN/Cu<sup>2+</sup> and RSB-CN/Cu<sup>2+</sup> was 0.55 μM, whereas for DMB-CN/Cu<sup>2+</sup> the LOD was 0.3 μM. The correlations between Pb <sup>2+</sup> concentration and BCN FR % were described using power and linear functions. However, the three materials fitted a power function between 5 and 50 μM. The three trend lines were similar in the power term. However, the scaling factor multiplying the concentration was greater in the BCN with greater quenching (RSB-CN) and smaller in the BCN with low quenching (SSB-CN) (**Table. 2**). The LOD for the BCN/Pb<sup>2+</sup> were 0.4, 3 and 2 μM for MAB-CN, SSB-CN and RSB-CN, respectively. Ni<sup>2+</sup> quenching was modelled using power function but with differences in the power and scalar terms. DMB-CN had the highest power and scalar terms which also described the highest quenching observed in this material. RSB-CN FR % was modelled using the same equation for all the range of concentrations. Similar to Pb<sup>2+,</sup> The LOD for the BCN/Ni<sup>2+</sup> were 0.3, 3 and 2 µM for MAB-CN, SSB-CN and RSB-CN, respectively. Hg<sup>2+</sup> quenching was the lowest of all the heavy

metal ions and was modelled using power and logarithmic functions for all BCN. DMB-CN and RSB-CN were modelled with power functions for all the range of concentrations and, as the other equations, high quenching was associated with greater scalar and power values. As SSB-CN had the lowest quenching, the data was the only BCN well fitted by a logarithmic function (**Table 2**). The LOD for the BCN/Hg<sup>2+</sup> were 0.6, 4.5 and 8.5  $\mu$ M for MAB-CN, SSB-CN and RSB-CN, respectively. The vast majority of the fitting curves had an R<sup>2</sup> ~ 0.99. This high correlation motivated the investigation into the quantification and discrimination of heavy metal ion concentration using mixed BCN.

## 3.3 Quenching mechanism

The Stern-Volmer plots for BCN fluorescence quenching by heavy metal ions were utilised to evaluate the fluorescence quenching mechanisms (**Figure. 3**). RSB-CN and SSB-CN fluorescence quenched with Cu<sup>2+</sup> were the only Stern-Volmer plots with a linear correlation (**Figure. 3a** and **Table. 3**). A linear Stern-Volmer plot indicates collisional quenching that can be characterised using the Stern-Volmer equation F<sub>0</sub>/F = 1 + K<sub>SV</sub>[Q], where Ksv is the Stern-Volmer quenching constant. RSB-CN had a K<sub>SV</sub> of 0.0162 L.μMol<sup>-1</sup>, and SBB-CN had a K<sub>SV</sub> of 0.017 L.μMol<sup>-1</sup>. The differences in the K<sub>SV</sub> explained the higher quenching produced by Cu<sup>2+</sup> in SSB-CN than RSB-CN. The Stern-Volmer plots for the other combinations of metal ions and BCN types had a nonlinear behaviour with a downward curvature (**Figure. 3a, b, c, d**). Such curves are representative of pure collisional quenching when some of the fluorophores are less accessible than others (Ke et al., 2018; Warrier and Kharkar, 2018). As downwards non-linear Stern-Volmer plots are not fully understood and modelled, the equations from **Table. 2** and **Equation 3** were combined to describe the behaviour of F<sub>0</sub>/F with the change of metal ions concentration for downwards non-linear

Stern-Volmer plots. The empirical model utilised two constant terms, a scalar and an exponent, which are associated with the heavy metal ions concentration (**Table. 3**). The empirical model described the behaviour of  $F_0/F$  with significant accuracy as the majority of the equations had an  $R^2$  above 0.99. As the model is an empirical approach, it was not possible to define a correlation between the terms in the equations and measurable properties from interactions between heavy metal ions and BCN. However, the values of the scalar and power terms were similar in some BCN/heavy metal ion interactions. RSB-CN's scalar term is similar in all the  $F_0/F$  plots with nonlinear downwards curves (0.029-0.033) and all the  $Pb^{2+}$  plots had a similar exponent term. DMB-CN had the most diverse combination of scalar and power terms as almost all of them were different.

To assess the strength of the interactions between BCN and the heavy metal ions, EDTA was used to evaluate the fluorescence recovery (**Figure. 4**). The fluorescence significantly recovered in all BCN after EDTA addition with the amount of fluorescence recovery dependent on the EDTA concentration and the heavy metal type. For Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup>, 50  $\mu$ M of EDTA was the minimum concentration to reach a fluorescence recovery (F/F<sub>0</sub>) above 0.9. Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> required 100  $\mu$ M of EDTA to reach a F/F<sub>0</sub> above 0.9. The EDTA concentration increase did not produce a continuous increase in the fluorescence recovery. In fact, the fluorescence did not change with the addition of EDTA concentrations below 25  $\mu$ M. The differences in EDTA concentration to reach significant fluorescence recovery indicate differences in the BCN quenching sites for each metal and differences in the binding energies between BCN and heavy metal ions. The F.Res % was greater in Cu<sup>2+</sup> followed by Pb<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup>. DMB-CN had the highest F.Res % in three of the four ions indicating a lower binding energy between the DMB-CN groups and the heavy metal ions. In contrast, SSB had

the strongest interactions with  $Pb^{2+}$ ,  $Ni^{2+}$  and  $Hg^{2+}$  where the F.Res % was between 23 % and 75 %.

## 3.4 Statistical Multivariate analysis

## 3.4.1 Principal component analysis

Six different variables, two alphabetical (Metal and BCN) and four numerical (25 and 50  $\mu$ M F.R%, F<sub>0</sub>/F 50  $\mu$ M EDTA and F.Res % 100  $\mu$ M EDTA), were evaluated to facilitate the detection and discrimination of heavy metal ions using BCN. The initial step in the multivariate analysis was PCA. In this case, PCA was calculated from the numerical variables and discriminated using the alphanumerical variables (**supplementary material**).

Two initial principal components were selected as the main components for the analysis because PC 1 (69.75 %) and PC 2 (23.05 %) explained 92.8 % of the variation in the experiment (**Figure. 5a**). The scree plot (**Figure. 5b**) confirmed this selection as PC 1 and PC 2 also had the highest eigenvalues. The component pattern plot (**Figure. 5c**) shows that all variables positively correlate with PC 1 and uniformly with three variables (F.Res % 100  $\mu$ M EDTA, 25 and 50  $\mu$ M F.R %). In contrast, F<sub>0</sub>/F 50  $\mu$ M EDTA correlated highly and positively with PC 2. In PC 2, the other variables did not have a strong correlation and were positive and negative. The variables correlation matrix indicated (**Supplementary material**) a strong correlation between 50  $\mu$ M F.R % and F.Res % 100  $\mu$ M EDTA (0.821), 50  $\mu$ M F.R % and 25  $\mu$ M F.R % (0.9561), and 25  $\mu$ M F.R % and F.Res % 100  $\mu$ M EDTA (0.7318). F<sub>0</sub>/F 50  $\mu$ M EDTA did not have a strong correlation with any of the other variables as the correlation was below 0.37. The variables did not have a negative correlation in any case.

**Figure. 5d** and **5e** depict the component scores plots for PC1 and PC2 grouped by metal and by BCN, respectively.

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When the components scores were grouped by metal, Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup> groups were easily identified in **Figure. 5d**. Cu<sup>2+</sup> have similar scores with all the BCN, whereas the other metal ions scores were more diffuse. The Pb<sup>2+</sup> group was easily identified and SSB-CN/ Pb<sup>2+</sup> scores are closer to all the SSB-CN scores than the other Pb<sup>2+</sup> scores. In contrast, Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> were mixed, making the metal ion grouping difficult. Although Hg<sup>2+</sup> was mixed with Ni<sup>2+</sup>, the  $Hg^{2+}$  distribution in the plot was more compact than  $Ni^{2+}$ . On the other hand, the component scores grouped by BCN exhibited a distribution across the entire plot (Figure. 5e). The effect of the BCN material interactions were easier to observe in Figure. 5e. The SSB-CN formed two clusters one including Pb<sup>2+</sup> Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup>, and other one with Cu<sup>2+</sup>. A cluster of DMB-CN was observed with Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup>. RSB-CN scores did not cluster, but the scores were distributed through the PC 1 axis. The clusters observed in DMB-CN and SSB-CN were responsible of the lack of clarity grouping Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup>. The results from the PCA demonstrate that it is possible to use fluorescence measurement from BCN to explore the differences and similitudes in the interactions between heavy metal ions and BCN. In the future, it will be important to evaluate the effect of other BCN to improve the ability to group and discriminate heavy metal ions.

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## 3.4.2 Discriminant analysis

The discriminant analysis aimed to determine the type of heavy metal ion in an aqueous sample using the quenching results from SSB-CN, RSB-CN and DMB-CN. The discriminant analysis had the same numeric variables utilised in the PCA (F.R % 25 and  $50 \mu M$ ,  $F_0/F 50$ 

μM EDTA and *F.Res* % 100 μM EDTA). As the homogeneity of within covariance matrices test had a chi-square value significant at the 0.001 level, the within covariance matrices were used in the discrimination function. Therefore, a quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA) was performed. **Table. 4** summarises the performance of the QDA regarding the metal ions classification from the training database. From the training database, the prediction was 100 % accurate for Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup> and 88.9 % accurate for Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup>. The application of cross validation exposed additional misclassifications for Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> where the model prediction accuracy was 88.9 and 66.7 %, respectively. Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> kept the same accuracy between the cross validation and the initial test. The total error count estimate for the cross validation tests was slightly greater (0.1389) than the original run (0.0556).

In order to test the reliability of the QDA previously evaluated, a novel data set was collected for completing a validation test beyond the training database. The novel samples included results from the quenching of the four heavy metal ions and the three BCN. **Table. 5** contains the scores of the validation test for the novel samples using the QDA obtained from the initial dataset. In this case, the QDA maintained the 100 % accuracy for Pb<sup>2+</sup> determination between the original and the validation test. However, the accuracy decreased in Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> to 66.7 %, 66.7 % and 33.3 %, respectively. The most significant issues were observed with Hg<sup>2+</sup> where the QDA had significant issues differentiating Hg<sup>2+</sup> from Ni<sup>2+</sup> using the validation data. The reduced accuracy with the validation data was especially apparent with the DMB-CN results in which the QDA located Hg<sup>2+</sup> as Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> as Hg<sup>2+</sup>. The similarities between these two metal ions in DMB-CN were also observed in the PCA results (**Figure. 5**). Although the accuracy reduced between the initial and validation data, the QDA was able to correctly predict the metal ions in 66 % of the occasions from the validation set and the principal errors were associated with the discrimination

between Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup>. This demonstrates that it is possible to utilise discrimination analysis as a tool for the determination of specific heavy metal ions in water samples using BCN quenching data.

#### 4 DISCUSSION

The biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (BCN) from different feedstocks, rice straw, sorghum straw and dairy manure, had different fluorescence characteristics. The peak excitation wavelength differed among SSB-CN, DMB-CN and RSB-CN with values of 310, 330 and 315 nm, respectively. pH changes produced modifications in the fluorescence, especially in RSB-CN and SSB-CN. The lack of changes in the DMB-CN fluorescence with pH can be associated with the presence of aromatic rings attached to carboxyl and/or hydroxyl groups.

Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> reached the highest quenching in DMB-CN (22 and 30 %), Cu<sup>2+</sup> in SSB-CN (42 %) and Pb<sup>2+</sup> in RSB-CN (43 %). The different quenching obtained by each metal can be associated with the BCN chemical, electronic and vibrational properties (Shtepliuk et al., 2017). BCN and heavy metal ions interact using the C–O, C=O and C-OH groups in the BCN structure, which were confirmed via FT-IR spectroscopy (Plácido et al., 2019). The unshared electron pairs in these groups are capable of forming coordination linkages with heavy metal ions. Carboxylic and phenolic groups drive the interactions with metal ions. The high affinity between carboxylic acids and Pb<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions has been reported in other materials (Bala et al., 2007; Kaşgöz et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2016). The differences in the interactions between BCN and heavy metal ions are associated with the amount of carboxyl,

phenolic and hydroxyl groups in the BCN structure (Tchaikovskaya et al., 2016), the adjacent or surrounding groups to the quenching groups, and the location of the quenching groups. The adjacent groups increase or reduce the electrons attraction (Smith, 2013) and steric effects in these groups and the quenching groups can improve or reduce the interaction with heavy metal ions (Chatterjee et al., 2005).

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The FR % and the heavy metal ions concentration correlation fitted linear, power and logarithmical functions. The type of function used in each BCN/heavy metal ion combination was defined by the  $R^2$  of the function. The majority of the functions had a  $R^2$  above 0.99, evidencing the future use of these functions for quantifying the amount of heavy metal ions in aqueous systems. Differences between the functions enable discrimination and detection of a specific heavy metal ion in a sample. The different Stern-Volmer plots had linear and nonlinear downward patterns. These patterns are associated with collisional quenching with the linear pattern indicating pure collisional quenching with all the quenching sites are available, and the non-linear downward pattern indicating pure collisional quenching where some interaction groups are less accessible than others (Ke et al., 2018; Warrier and Kharkar, 2018). SSB-CN and RSB-CN interaction with Cu<sup>2+</sup> were the only quenching sites following the Stern-Volmer linear model. The other combinations of BCN and heavy metal ions evidenced quenching sites with less or more accessibility. Therefore, some excited quenching sites interacted with heavy metal ions, facilitating the transition to the ground state, while other inaccessible quenching sites maintained their excited state. Linearity deviations are associated to the quencher characteristics, quencher diffusion properties and the quenching sites (Ke et al., 2018; Warrier and Kharkar, 2018). The BCN structure and location of the quenching sites can produce different steric or repulsion effects to each quencher generating the different downward curves. Empirical functions were employed to describe the SternVolmer plots patterns (**Table. 3**). These equations accurately predicted the shape of the Stern-Volmer plots. However, the physical or chemical significance of the two parameters, exponent and scalar terms, is currently a research topic. As occurs in the traditional Stern-Volmer model, these parameters should be associated with the characteristics of the quencher and the quenching site. Future work will focus in the study of the BCN/heavy metal ion interactions, and seek to develop a quenching model that can explain the physical and chemical phenomena associated with the BCN fluorescence quenching by heavy metal ions.

The EDTA experiment showed differences in the strength of interactions among the BCN/heavy metal ion parings. BCN interactions with Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> were stronger than Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup> as shown by the EDTA concentration needed to achieve fluorescence recovery (F/F<sub>0</sub>) above 0.9. Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> required double the concentration of EDTA compared to Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup>. Similar to the fluorescence recovery, the fluorescence restoration percentage was lower in Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> than Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup>. This measurement demonstrated that some of the interactions were not fully reversible with the EDTA addition. The reduced reversibility indicated a strong interaction between some of the quenching sites and the heavy metal ions.

Multivariate analyses were able to differentiate heavy metal ions in aqueous samples with variable accuracy. Pb<sup>2+</sup> was identified with a 100 % accuracy, followed by Cu<sup>2+</sup> (66 %), Ni<sup>2+</sup> (66 %) and Hg<sup>2+</sup> (33 %). The principal difficulty for the PCA and the discriminant analysis was the differentiation between Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup>. Neither multivariate test was able to achieve a full separation between these two heavy metal ions. To improve the error observed in the QDA, it is important to increase the number of samples in the training data. The use of other quenching variables and utilisation of novel BCN can help discriminate more accurately the

differences between  $Hg^{2+}$  and  $Ni^{2+}$ . In the future, BCN/ heavy metal ion quenching information data combined with multivariate statistics may provide a fast tool to detect a larger number of heavy metal ions and to quantify the amounts of heavy metal ions in aqueous systems.

Stringent environmental regulations for heavy metal ions will be pushing the development of more accurate and portable detection methods. BCN derived heavy metal sensors and detection methodologies can be integrated in the \$1.37 billion environmental sensor market. Using a BCN price of 1% of the carbon dots price in the market (129 £/kg), this product will have 18-times more value than the original biochar (0.076 £/kg). Additionally, the technologies and equipment required for the process are developed in different scales facilitating the technical establishment of this process. Future work will focus on modelling the quenching process, the initial steps for a portable sensor and the economics of integrating nanomaterials production with that of pyrolysis and gasification facilities.

#### 5 CONCLUSIONS

This article demonstrated the different optical and chemical properties of biochar-derived carbonaceous nanomaterials (BCN) as fluorescence probes for heavy metal sensing. In addition, this study lays the groundwork for future research into the use of the different interactions between heavy metal ions and BCN as variables for multivariate analysis. Hg<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> reached the highest quenching in DMB-CN (22 and 30 %), Cu<sup>2+</sup> in SSB-CN (42 %) and Pb<sup>2+</sup> in RSB-CN (43 %). The Stern-Volmer plots (F<sub>0</sub>/F and heavy metal concentration) had linear and non-linear downward patterns and these patterns were modelled using linear

functions (SSB-CN/Cu<sup>2+</sup> and RSB-CN/Cu<sup>2+</sup>) and empirical functions (power functions) to describe the non-linear downward Stern-Volmer plots. The EDTA experiments demonstrated different levels of interaction between the BCN and the metal ions as different EDTA concentrations were necessary to recover the BCN fluorescence. PCA and discriminant analysis demonstrated that is possible to combine the quenching measurements obtained from the different BCN to determine and differentiate among heavy metal ions in aqueous system. The discriminant analysis using validation dataset had a 100 % accuracy to detect Pb<sup>2+</sup>, 66 % for Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup>, and 33 % for Hg<sup>2+</sup>. This is a first step to utilise quenching data from BCN and heavy metal ions to develop an easy and accurate sensor for heavy metal ions in aqueous systems.

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