Are fluorescence-based chlorophyll quantification methods suitable for algae toxicity assessment of carbon nanomaterials?

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10 toxicity assessment of carbon nanomaterials?

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12 Using a multi-walled carbon nanotube (MWCNT) and graphene oxide (GO) as representative test 13 materials, we evaluated the applicability of in vivo and in vitro chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) fluorescence 14 quantification methods, which are used in standard algae ecotoxicity tests such as OECD 201 and ISO 8692. In vivo quantification of Chl-a from Raphidocelis subcapitata indicated a significant reduction in 15 Chl-a fluorescence in the presence of MWCNTs due to shading, but a significant autofluorescence from 16 17 GO that caused an overestimation of Chl-a concentration. In vitro Chl-a quantification methods 18 employing a modified acetone and an ethanol extraction protocol reduced the influence of shading and autofluorescence, but both resulted in a significant loss of fluorescence signal in the presence of 100 mg 19 L⁻¹ MWCNTS (99-100%) and GO (21-52%). Chl-a reduction was dose dependent for both tested CNM 20 21 materials, but effects were more pronounced for MWCNT, which caused a significant fluorescence reduction (16±0.3%) already at 1 mg L⁻¹. Further study of the CNM-algae-Chl-a interaction processes 22 23 revealed that CNM can not only interact with live algae, but also efficiently adsorb extracted Chl-a. Our results showed that within 10 min, 95-100% of Chl-a extracted from two algae concentrations were 24 25 adsorbed to MWCNT, while 35-60% of Chl-a was adsorbed to the GO. This study shows that Chl-a 26 quantification by fluorescence determination is not a suitable method for ecotoxicity testing of CNM. However, a quick screening test for individual MNMs is recommended to determine if Chl-a adsorption 27 is a significant process prior to selection of a quantification method. 28

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30 Key words: Standard tests; adsorption; carbon nanotubes; graphene oxide;

31 Introduction

Many of the existing standard toxicity test guidelines (TGs) have been found to exhibit 32 limitations when applied to assessment of manufactured nanomaterials (MNMs) (Sørensen et 33 al., 2015). As a result, there has been significant effort within the Organization for Economic 34 Cooperation and Development (OECD), the International Standardization Organization (ISO) 35 36 and large-scale research projects (e.g. EU FP7 projects Marina and NANoREG) to evaluate the applicability of existing TGs for MNMs. In 2009, the OECD Working Party on 37 Manufactured Nanomaterials (WPMN) assessed the limitations of existing OECD TGs for 38 39 MNMs (OECD, 2009), and published the results of a seven year testing programme as a series of dossiers in 2015. The general conclusion of OECD was that most TGs are considered 40 suitable for the testing of MNMs, but common issues of harmonised dispersion preparation, 41 sedimentation during exposure and dosimetry were highlighted. These issues have been the 42 subject of individual studies (Hartmann et al., 2010, Hund-Rinke et al., 2010, Hartmann et al., 43 44 2015) and a critical review of the dossiers has highlighted significant limitations with the conclusions drawn by OECD (Hansen et al., 2017). In some cases, modifications were 45 proposed for improving the relevancy of specific TGs towards MNMs. 46

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In 2012, a guidance document addressed general issues such as sample preparation and dosimetry, but lacked specific focus on individual TGs (OECD, 2012). Despite further work, there is currently no official compilation of proposed nano-specific test modifications on OECD TGs for ecotoxicity, therefore the adaption of the test guidelines is hampered (Hund-Rinke *et al.*, 2016). Most recently, the EU FP7 project Marina has provided an overview of the progress on eight OECD ecotoxicity TGs, summarising the difficulties identified with individual TGs for MNMs and the proposed modifications.

OECD Guideline 201 (Freshwater Alga and Cyanobacteria, Growth Inhibition Test) 56 (OECD, 2011) and ISO 8692:2004 (Water quality-freshwater algal growth inhibition test 57 with Scenedesmus subspicatus and Selenastrum capricornutum) (ISO, 2004) are two of the 58 most commonly used standard aquatic ecotoxicity tests. The tests are quick and cost effective 59 to perform, reliable and reproducible, employ organisms which are easy to maintain in 60 permanent culture, and present the user with few ethical considerations compared to other 61 species. The test is internationally recognised, and freshwater algae toxicity data are available 62 for many chemicals and metals. However, significant variability in EC₅₀ values for MNM 63 effects on algal growth is reported, highlighting the importance of test reliability and 64 65 reproducibility for interpretability (Menard et al., 2011).

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OECD 201 is considered to have limited issues with respect to sedimentation and 67 dosimetry during exposure, due to samples being shaken during the incubation period (Hund-68 Rinke et al., 2016). However, two key limitations regarding the applicability of OECD 201 to 69 MNMs have been identified. The first is that the chelating agent EDTA, a component of the 70 test medium, can interfere with metallic MNMs causing iron precipitation and resulting in 71 72 unfavourable growth conditions (Kadar et al., 2012, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016, Mouchet et al., 73 2016, Zhang et al., 2016). It is now recommended that an EDTA-free algal medium should be considered when testing metal MNMs (Hund-Rinke et al., 2016). The second is accuracy in 74 determination of algal growth. Biomass determination through dry weight is not applicable in 75 76 the presence of particles and interference was reported in both cell counting and in vivo measurement of chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) concentrations by fluorescence (Handy et al., 2012a, 77 Handy et al., 2012b, Hartmann et al., 2012, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016). Cell counting in a 78 haemocytometer is very laborious, has a large variance and may not truly reflect algal 79 biomass if the mean cell size changes in response to a toxicant or other conditions (Hund-80

81	Rinke et al., 2016). In the case of in vivo fluorescence Chl-a measurements, MNMs can cause
82	shading of the algae fluorescent signal, which reduces the response, underestimating the Chl-a
83	concentration and overestimating the toxicity of the MNM being studied (Handy et al., 2012a,
84	Handy et al., 2012b, Hartmann et al., 2012, Sørensen et al., 2015, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016,
85	Sørensen et al., 2016). The term shading can refer to either (i) blocking of the light from the
86	source to the algal cells, or (ii) blocking of the fluorescence signal from the algal cells to the
87	detector. The main approach suggested for overcoming the issue of fluorescence signal
88	shading is the extraction of the Chl-a from the algal cells and removal of the MNMs prior to
89	in vitro fluorescence measurement of the algal extract (Hartmann et al., 2012, Hund-Rinke et
90	al., 2016). Methods proposed include the use of acetone extraction (Mayer et al., 1997,
91	Sørensen et al., 2016), ethanol extraction and filtration (ISO 10260) (ISO, 1992), and acetone
92	extraction combined with MNM flocculation and sedimentation (no filtration) using locust
93	bean gum (Cerrillo et al., 2016, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016).
94	
95	Although these studies used different reference MNMs (TiO2, Ag and Au) (Hartmann
96	et al., 2012, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016), no carbon-based MNMs (CNMs) were included.
97	Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and graphene family nanomaterials (GFNs) represent a large group
98	of CNMs with increasing production volumes. CNTs and GFNs exhibit unique
99	physicochemical properties that differ quite significantly from spherical metal and metal
100	oxide MNMs and have implications for their environmental fate and effects (Jackson et al.,
101	2013, Zhao et al., 2014, Hu et al., 2016). One feature in particular, is the high adsorption
102	capacity of CNMs for organic chemicals (Chen et al., 2007, Kah et al., 2014, Glomstad et al.,
103	2016, Zindler et al., 2016). The propensity for CNMs to adsorb organic compounds raises the
104	issue of Chl-a adsorption in algae ecotoxicity studies employing extraction methods.

In the current study, we evaluate the applicability of different fluorescence-based Chl-106 107 a quantification methods for the assessment of CNMs using a multi-walled CNT (MWCNT) and a graphene oxide (GO) as test materials. The suitability of in vivo fluorescence 108 approaches are evaluated using OECD Guideline 201 (OECD, 2011). In vitro fluorescence 109 110 approaches are evaluated using a Chl-a extraction method described in the ISO 10260 guideline (ISO, 1992), and also by applying a modified acetone extraction and flocculation 111 112 method developed in the EU FP7 project Marina (Hund-Rinke et al., 2016) and benchmarked in the EU FP7 project NANoREG (Cerrillo et al., 2016). 113

115 Methods

114

116 *Materials*

The MWCNTs were supplied by the Joint Research Centre and is known widely as NM-400. 117 118 The GO was supplied by Abalonyx AS (Oslo, Norway). Nanomaterial stock dispersions of 2560 mg L⁻¹ were prepared by probe sonication (Branson Ultrasonics Sonifier S-450; Branson 119 Ultrasonics, USA) at 15 % amplitude for 13 minutes and 45 seconds. This method delivers an 120 acoustic delivered power of 7.35±0.05 Watt and an accumulated dose of 7056±103 J to the 121 dispersion, which was determined using the calorimetric described by Taurozzi et al. as a 122 123 basis (Taurozzi et al., 2012). Stock dispersions of GO were prepared in MilliQ water. Due to the hydrophobicity of the MWCNT, the dispersion procedure was enhanced through the 124 inclusion of a pre-wetting step with 96% ethanol and the addition of 20 mg L⁻¹ natural organic 125 126 matter (NOM, Suwannee river). Working dispersions were prepared by diluting the stock dispersions either in OECD algae growth media TG201 (for GO exposures) or TG201 127 containing 10 mg L⁻¹ NOM (TG201+NOM; for MWCNT exposures). NOM was dissolved in 128 129 MilliQ or TG201 by magnetic stirring for 24 h followed by repeated filtration (0.2 µm

130 Nalgene filter unit, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) to remove undissolved material.131

132 Nanomaterial Characterisation

133 SEM was performed with an Hitachi S-5500 ultra high resolution SEM equipped with bright field and dark field STEM detectors and a Bruker Quantax EDS system. The MWCNT 134 samples were dispersed in isopropanol and prepared on lacey carbon TEM grids. GO was 135 dispersed in high purity water and similarly prepared on a lacey carbon grid. Prior to imaging, 136 all samples were cleaned of volatile organic contaminants using a UV ozone cleaner. An 137 138 acceleration voltage of 30kV was used for images. The hydrodynamic diameter (HDD) and zeta potential of MWCNT and GO were determined with a Zetasizer ZS (Malvern 139 140 Instruments, UK) in stock dispersions and exposure dispersions (TG201 and TG201+NOM) prepared at a concentration of 100 mg L⁻¹. It is acknowledged that the usefulness of dynamic 141 142 light scattering is limited for MNMs with high aspect ratios and high polydispersity (e.g. CNTs). 143

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145 Algae culture

146 The algae used for the experiments in this study derived from a continuous in-house

147 Raphidocelis subcapitata (formerly known as Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata) culture. The

algae culture is maintained at $60 - 120 \,\mu E/m^2/s$ at a constant temperature of 21 ± 2 °C. Regular

149 monitoring confirms that the culture fulfils the recommended quality criteria regarding

growth rate and sensitivity for ecotoxicological testing as specified in ISO 8692:2004 (ISO

151 2004).

152

153 Chl-a determination

In this study, we determined Chl-a as surrogate for total Chl. All Chl-a measurements were
performed using a fluorimeter (TD700, Turner design, USA) with an optical kit (10-037R;
Turner design, USA) suited for *in vivo* and extracted Chl-a measurements (excitation 340-500
nm; emission >665 nm).

- 158
- 159 In vivo Chlorophyll-a determination

160 In order to investigate the feasibility of *in vivo* Chl-a determination in algae exposed to CNM,

161 MWCNT and GO were added to algae dispersions and the fluorescence signal determined.

162 Algae were diluted in either TG201 (for GO exposures) or TG201+ NOM (MWCNT

163 exposures) to result in fluorescence values of approximately 25 AU (arbitrary units), which

164 corresponds to approximately 25000 cells mL⁻¹ (See Supplementary Information section for

more details). Following dilution, MWCNT and GO were added to the algae to reach a final

166 concentration of 100 mg L^{-1} . Algae-CNM dispersions were carefully shaken and left standing

still in the dark for 10 minutes to enable algae-CNM interactions, but prevent any

168 toxicological response, before measuring fluorescence as described above. Algae prepared at

similarly concentrations in TG201 and TG201+NOM, respectively were used as controls.

170 Control and CNM exposure groups were measured in triplicates (n=3).

171

172 In vitro Chlorophyll-a determination

173 In vitro Chl-a determination was evaluated using two different Chl-a extraction methods in

174 order to investigate the effect of the extraction solvent on potential CNM interference.

175 Experiments were conducted at algal concentrations resulting in an approximate fluorescence

176 of 500 AU, which corresponds to approximately 500000 cells mL^{-1} (See Supplementary

177 Information section for more details). These concentrations were based on typical values

found in previously conducted OECD 201 growth inhibition tests during the middle-end 178 phase of the test. The CNMs were added to the algae to reach a concentration of 100 mg L^{-1} , 179 selected based on the CLP hazard classification limit. The samples were carefully agitated, 180 left standing for 10 min and extracted thereafter with the two methods described below. As 181 controls, only algae in the respective growth media (TG201 or TG201+NOM) were extracted. 182 Each condition was tested in triplicates (n=3). As first method we applied an acetone 183 extraction of Chl-a as described in by Hund-Rinke et al., (Hund-Rinke et al., 2016) and 184 Cerrillo et al., (Cerrillo et al., 2016). In brief, 2 mL of the exposure dispersions were 185 transferred into 8.8 mL of acetone containing lotus bean gum (LBG), mixed by immersion 186 187 and placed in the dark for 24 h before determining the fluorescence as described above. This 188 method was adapted to testing MNMs using LBG to increase the flocculation and sedimentation of MNMs so that an MNM-free supernatant containing the extracted Chl-a can 189 be isolated and analysed. 190

191

The second method investigated for extracting Chl-a for *in vitro* quantification was the ISO 10260 '*Measurement of biochemical Parameters - Spectrometric determination of the chlorophyll-a concentration*', using filtration (GF-F; Whatman, UK) and heated Chl-a extraction in 90% ethanol. The extract was allowed to cool to room temperature and filtered once more in order to remove particulate matter before measuring Chl-a fluorometrically as described above.

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199 Dose dependency

Dose dependent impacts of CNMs on Chl-a quantification were studied using the modified
acetone extraction method described above. MWCNT and GO were added to a high algae
concentration (fluorescence approximately 600 AU) to reach the following exposure

203	concentrations: 100, 50, 10, 1, 0.1 and 0 mg L ⁻¹ . The exposures were carefully shaken and left
204	standing still for approximately 10 minutes. To obtain homogeneous samples, the exposure
205	dispersions were agitated and a 2 mL sample was transferred into 8.8 mL of acetone
206	containing LBG, mixed by immersion and placed in the dark for 24 h. Chl-a fluorescence was
207	determined fluorometrically as described above. Each condition was tested in triplicates
208	(<i>n</i> =3).

209

210 Extraction point and time dependence

211 In this experiment we wanted to test if CNM interference derives from adsorption and following removal of algae through settling, or if CNMs can also interact with extracted Chl-212 a. Therefore, 100 mgL⁻¹ MWCNT and GO were added to two algae concentrations: low 213 214 (fluorescence approximately 15 AU) and high (fluorescence approximately 500 AU). The 215 CNMs were added (i) to the algae 10 min before extraction, (ii) directly after the Chl-a 216 extraction with acetone (as described above), and iii) after 24 h after Chl-a extraction, 10 217 minutes before fluorescence measurements. Due to potential interference of CNMs present in 218 the dispersions, the later samples (iii) were filtered either through GF-F filters (Whatman, 219 UK; MWCNT) or through 0.1 µm Omnipore PTFE filter (MerkMillipore Ltd, Ireland; GO). Following, the fluorescence was determined as described above. All conditions were tested as 220 triplicates (*n*=3). 221

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223 Microscopy

In order to visualise the interaction of CNM with live *R. subcapitata*, samples of high algae concentrations (600-700 AU) were mixed by agitation with CNMs to reach concentrations of 10 or 50 mg L⁻¹ CNMs. Samples were inspected with a fluorescent microscope (Nikon

Eclipse 90i; Nikon, Japan) using a 10 and 20x objective and B-2A filter (optimised for blue 227 228 excitation with a wide excitation bandpass). Further, the adsorption of Chl-a onto MWCNT 229 was visualised. A highly concentrated Chl-a suspension was extracted from an enriched R. subcapitata culture using the previously described ISO method. The extracted Chl-a was 230 subsequently added to 5 mL of 100 mg L⁻¹ MWCNT and carefully shaken for 2 minutes and 231 left standing in the dark for approximately 10 minutes. As background control dispersions 232 containing only 100 mgL⁻¹ MWCNT were used. The samples were filtered through 0.1 µm 233 Omnipore PTFE filter (MerkMillipore Ltd, Ireland; GO), and the filters placed on microscopy 234 slides. Images of MWCNT were taken with a Nikon Eclipse fluorescent microscope (Nikon, 235 236 Japan) using a 40x objective and B-2A filter. Chl-a was visualised using fluorescence 237 applying high exposure times (1.5 s) and high contrast mode. 238 **Statistics** 239

Data analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism 7 (GraphPad Software Inc., USA). Data
sets were analysed for normality (Shapiro-Wilk normality test). Significant differences
between treatments groups were analysed using either t-test (two groups) or one way
ANOVA (multiple groups).

244

245 **Results**

246 CNM Characterisation

247 The physicochemical properties of the CNMs used in the study are summarised in Table 1.

248 MWCNT NM-400 was supplied by the JRC repository and sub-samples of material from the

same batch has been extensively characterised previously (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2014).

250 Therefore, existing data are presented for size (thickness and length) and specific surface area

(SSA). The SSA of the MWCNT was reported as 189.3±8.1 m² g⁻¹ using SAXS analysis and 251 254 m² g⁻¹ using BET method. The MWCNT had a reported average length of 846±446 nm, 252 and widths of 16.2±3.5 nm and 11±3 nm determined independently by two different 253 laboratories (Rasmussen et al., 2014). In house acquired STEM images of MWCNT NM-400 254 showed a similar size range (Figure 1A and B). The GO sheets were relatively heterogeneous, 255 ranging from <100 nm to 1 μ m in size (Figure 1C). The CNMs were also characterised in 256 257 dispersion form, both as stock dispersions and in the standard algae toxicity media (TG201) used in the studies. Average particle size distribution (Z-ave) for MWCNTs was 3540±727 258 nm in the stock dispersion and 2480±1450 nm at 100 mg L⁻¹ in TG201+NOM (Table 1). The 259 260 large Z-ave value and high standard deviation is consistent with high aspect ratio MNMs analysed by dynamic light scattering. The zeta potential values were 0.8±1.6 mV and -20±2.8 261 mV, respectively, confirming unstable dispersions of MWCNT. Dispersions of GO were 262 263 observed to be relatively stable and had a hydrodynamic diameter (HDD) of 245±14.6 nm in the stock dispersion and slightly smaller size of 214±7.22 nm in the algae growth medium 264 TG201 at a concentration of 100 mg L⁻¹. The zeta potential values were -41±0.14 mV and -265 28±0.25 mV, respectively (Table 1). 266

267

268 In vivo Chlorophyll-a determination

In vivo Chl-a fluorescence measurements revealed a high level of interference in the presence of both tested CNMs (Figure 2). Relative to the control samples, Chl-a fluorescence was significantly reduced for MWCNTs through shading of the algal cell fluorescent response, being measured as a significant (P<0.001) net loss of fluorescence in the system (Figure 2). Furthermore, the algae were observed to adsorb or attach significantly to the MWCNT aggregates (Figure 3A). In contrast, the measured fluorescence of the GO at both high and low concentrations was significantly (P<0.001) increased relative to the control samples

(Figure 2). This was due to autofluorescence of GO causing high fluorescent background levels that affected *in vivo* Chl-a quantification (Figure 2). Without algae present, GO autofluorescence at a concentration of 100 mg L⁻¹ was >100 AU in the TG201 algae media, and was even higher >300 AU in MilliQ water (data not shown). In contrast to in MWCNT dispersions, algal cells remained dispersed in the presence of high GO concentrations (Figure 3B). Although adsorption of algal cells to GO might occur, this could not be determined with light microscopy due to the small size and stable dispersion of GO in the exposure media.

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285 In vitro Chlorophyll-a determination

When using in vitro Chl-a determination, no direct fluorescence interference and 286 287 autofluorescence was observed. However, a loss of fluorescence signal relative to control samples containing only algae was observed for both CNM types with both extraction 288 methods applied (Figure 4). Fluorescence was completely reduced in the presence of 100 mg 289 L^{-1} MWCNT using the modified acetone extraction (99.5±0.2%) and the EtOH extraction 290 described in the ISO protocol (99.1±0.4%) (Figure 4A). Fluorescence was also decreased in 291 the presence of 100 mg L⁻¹ GO, however, the reduction was significantly less pronounced, 292 being 21.5 \pm 4.7% when using the EtOH extraction method and 52 \pm 8% (*p*=0.0049) when 293 using the acetone extraction method (Figure 4B). 294

295

299

296 Dose dependence

When applying the acetone extraction method, a clear dose dependence of fluorescencereduction was found for both CNMs tested. However, the effects were more pronounced for

MWCNT than for GO (Figure 5). A significant reduction in fluorescence of 16.5±4% was

300 observed for the MWCNT at a concentration of only 1 mg L^{-1} (*P*<0.0001). At the tested

301 concentrations of 10, 50 and 100 mg L^{-1} the relative reduction in fluorescence was $65\pm1.6\%$,

 95.5 ± 0.3 and 98 ± 0.1 %, respectively. In the GO exposures, a significant reduction in

fluorescence was seen at concentrations of 50 and 100 mgL⁻¹, being 22.4±1.4% and 32±1.1%,
respectively.

305

306 In vitro Chlorophyll-a determination – Extraction point and time dependence

In order to understand more about the adsorption process, the CNMs were added to both high 307 308 and low algae concentrations at different time points in the extraction process: (i) added to the live algae immediately prior to extraction (TP1), (ii) added directly added after Chl-a 309 extraction with acetone but prior to the 24 h settling period (TP2), and (iii) added after the 24 310 311 h settling period, 10 minutes before fluorescence measurements were made (TP3). Figure 6 summarises the degree of Chl-a adsorption of the two CNMs at both high and low algae 312 concentrations at TP1-TP3. Chl-a fluorescence was significantly decreased (95 - >100 %) in 313 the presence of 100 mg L⁻¹ MWCNT for both low and high algae concentrations compared to 314 controls at all TP. At all TPs, the decrease in fluorescence was more efficient (P < 0.001) for 315 the low algae concentration than for the high algae concentration (Figure 6A). Association of 316 Chl-a with the MWCNTs was also observed microscopically (Figure 7). While no 317 318 fluorescence signal was detected in the MWCNT only controls (Figure 7A and B), the 319 presence of high Chl-a concentrations resulted in a fluorescence signal which was most intense and most stable in association with MWCNT aggregates (Figure 7D). Furthermore, 320 the reduction in fluorescence was lower for the GO than for the MWCNTs at both test 321 322 concentrations and at all TPs (Figure 6B). However, the results were generally consistent for this material at both concentrations and all TPs, with fluorescence reduction being 50-55% at 323 the low concentration across all TPs and 35-60% at the high concentration. Again, there was a 324

slight trend towards greater fluorescence reduction when moving from TP3 to TP1.

326

327 Discussion

328 The current study assessed the applicability of Chl-a determination by fluorescence for algae toxicity assessment of CNMs. Our results show that the assessed in vivo and in vitro methods 329 were not suitable for use with CNMs. In vivo Chl-a fluorescence measurements for CNMs 330 highlighted two key interference processes; (i) shading of algal fluorescence, and (ii) 331 autofluorescence. Shading of the fluorescent signal was the predominant interference process 332 in the case of the MWCNTs. Moreover, MWCNTs were unstable, formed aggregates and 333 settled out of the exposure dispersion removing any co-adsorbed algal cells (Table 1; Figure 334 3A). The co-adsorption of CNTs and other CNMs to algal cells in exposure studies is well 335 336 documented (Schwab et al., 2011, Long et al., 2012, Sørensen et al., 2015, Mouchet et al., 2016, Nolte et al., 2017). Critically, co-adsorption prevents separation of the two matrix 337 elements, e.g. through CNM settling, which may have offered a solution for achieving 338 339 accurate Chl-a measurements. Some studies have even detected individual CNTs in the cytoplasm of algal cells which may complicate quantification further (Rhiem et al., 2015). 340 Although shading of the algal cell fluorescence is also expected to be an issue in the case of 341 GO, the results show that autofluorescence of this material is the dominant process, having an 342 343 even greater impact on the ability to measure Chl-a fluorescence accurately. However, there 344 was no clear evidence of co-adsorption between algal cells and GO (Figure 3B). The GO was relatively stable in the exposure dispersions, making it impossible to identify single GO sheets 345 with light microscopy and therefore detect potential co-adsorption of GO and algal cells. The 346 347 results of the current assessment support those from previous studies which concluded that in vivo measurement of Chl-a in tests employing MNMs is not feasible due to shading of algal 348 349 fluorescence, algal cell adsorption processes and autofluorescence in similar wavelengths as

352	Owing to the significant limitations in achieving accurate determination of Chl-a in vivo,
353	recent studies have attempted to develop in vitro approaches for Chl-a determination
354	(Hartmann et al., 2012, Cerrillo et al., 2016, Hund-Rinke et al., 2016). In the current study,
355	the issues concerning shading of algal fluorescence and autofluorescence during the Chl-a
356	fluorescence measurements were removed when the in vitro approaches were applied.
357	However, the concentration-dependent loss of Chl-a fluorescence signal observed in the in
358	vitro studies indicates that the Chl-a is being removed from the system through adsorption to
359	the CNMs (Figure 5). The results from the studies assessing the two different extraction
360	methods for in vitro Chl-a determination from algal cells showed that the presence of 100
361	mgL ⁻¹ MWCNT caused a total loss of Chl-a fluorescence signal in the extracted samples
362	relative to controls. Similarly, GO exhibited a reduction in Chl-a fluorescence relative to the
363	control samples, however, the reduction was less than that observed for the MWCNTs.
364	Furthermore, the reduction in fluorescence was less when using the EtOH extraction and
365	filtration procedure compared to the acetone extraction method reported by Hunde-Rinke et
366	al. [8]. This suggests that the partition coefficient for Chl-a between the CNMs and the two
367	organic solvents is different, with the EtOH retaining a greater proportion of Chl-a than the
368	acetone. However, reduction was still around 20% and is therefore sufficiently high that an
369	accurate determination of Chl-a values is not possible. The differences in Chl-a concentration
370	reduction observed between the MWCNT and GO indicate that the presence of significant
371	amounts of oxygen in the GO material reduces the hydrophobicity of the material and
372	therefore its adsorption affinity for algae cells and Chl-a compared to the MWCNTs. This was
373	supported by the increased level of dispersion stability observed for the GO compared to the

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A higher adsorption affinity of MWCNTs was also seen in dose-dependence 376 experiments using acetone extraction. Here, the MWCNTs caused a significant reduction of 377 Chl-a signal at a concentration of only 1 mgL⁻¹. A comparable level of reduction was only 378 reached in GO exposure at a concentration of 50 mg L⁻¹. The dose dependent interactions 379 show that the level of Chl-a adsorption will be a function of the algae to CNM ratio, although 380 the current study does not go as far as determining adsorption isotherms similar to those 381 previously reported for specific persistent organic pollutants and CNMs (Chen et al., 2007, 382 383 Kah et al., 2014, Glomstad et al., 2016, Zindler et al., 2016). Critically, this dose dependent 384 signal reduction of Chl-a means that a CNM concentration-dependent quantity of the extracted Chl-a will be removed from the sample matrix during the removal of the CNMs. 385 This in turn, might lead to a false interpretation of dose dependent CNM toxicity. Despite the 386 lower degree of Chl-a fluorescence signal reduction observed for GO, it is clear that accurate 387 total Chl-a concentrations cannot be determined for either material, highlighting severe 388 limitations with the proposed modifications to OECD 201 for CNMs. 389

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391 A more detailed assessment of the adsorption process was conducted in an attempt to identify possible modifications to the in vitro method of Hund-Rinke et al., (Hund-Rinke et 392 al., 2016) that would reduce or even remove the impact of adsorption processes on the 393 394 fluorescence measurements. To achieve this, the CNMs were added to both high and low algae concentrations (reflecting algae concentrations at the start and end of the growth 395 396 period), and at different time points in the extraction process. Irrespective of when the CNMs were added to the test system, significant adsorption was observed for both CNMs at both 397 algae concentrations and at all TPs studied (Figure 6). This shows not only that CNM-algae 398

co-adsorption occurs, but that CNMs readily adsorb the extracted Chl-a. This was confirmed 399 by microscopic observations, in which high Chl-a fluorescence was shown associated with 400 401 MWCNT aggregates (Figure 7D). The shortest contact time for CNMs and Chl-a used in the current study was 10 min (TP3). However, even within this very short timeframe, Chl-a 402 403 adsorption at TP3 was observed to be >100% for the MWCNTs at the low algae concentration and approximately 95% for the high algae concentration. The level of Chl-a adsorption was 404 even higher at TP1 and TP2. Although the degree of Chl-a adsorption to GO was significantly 405 lower than that observed for the MWCNTs at all TPs, it was still determined as ~50% for the 406 low algae concentration and ~35% for the high algae concentration at TP3. Again, Chl-a 407 408 adsorption was typically higher at TP1 and TP2 for GO. The results show that the Chl-a 409 adsorption process occurs extremely rapidly (< 10 min) and therefore further modification of the OECD 201 method proposed by Hunde-Rinke et al., (Hund-Rinke et al., 2016) does not 410 411 appear feasible.

412

Consistent with most adsorption models (e.g. Langmuir, Freundlich, and the Dubinin-413 Ashtakhov model based on Polanyi theory) (Yang et al., 2006, Kah et al., 2011, Glomstad et 414 415 al., 2016), the decrease in fluorescence was more efficient (P<0.001) for the low algae 416 concentration than for the high algae concentration at all TPs (Figure 6A) for MWCNT. 417 Although the reduction in fluorescence due to adsorption was lower for the GO than for the MWCNTs at both test concentrations and at all TPs (Figure 6), the level was still greater than 418 419 30% indicating that reliable Chl-a measurement reflecting accurate algal growth during the test cannot be achieved. Interestingly, the measured reduction in fluorescence for MWCNTs 420 in low algae concentrations was greater than 100% at all TPs (Figure 6A). It is suggested that 421 the MWCNTs also adsorb the NOM present in the exposure media. The adsorption of NOM 422 to CNTs is well known, and the stabilising effect this has on CNT dispersions is the main 423

reason why NOM is increasingly utilised in aquatic ecotoxicity studies with such materials
(Cupi *et al.*, 2015, Linard *et al.*, 2015, Cerrillo *et al.*, 2016, Glomstad *et al.*, 2016).

427 **Recommendations**

Based on the evidence presented in the current study, it is recommended that all MNMs to be 428 subjected to algal growth tests should first undergo a rapid screening test to determine their 429 affinity for Chl-a adsorption. A detailed approach presented in the Supplementary Information 430 is summarised briefly here. A stock dispersion of the test MNM in freshwater algae media 431 should be prepared and added to a solution of extracted Chl-a in algae test media. The 432 resulting sample should be shaken for 10 mins and the MNMs removed by filtration or 433 flocculation and settling. A control sample, containing only Chl-a, should also be prepared 434 435 and treated in the same way. The fluorescence of the resulting Chl-a should then be measured and the percentage loss of Chl-a to the test MNM determined. It is suggested that Chl-a 436 adsorption >10% renders the method unsuitable for the selected MNM and an alternative 437 438 method must be used. Where Chl-a adsorption is <10%, the method is considered suitable and can be used as part of the toxicity test. 439

440

Based on the recommendations by Hund-Rinke et al. (Hund-Rinke et al., 2016) and 441 the results of the current study, it is suggested that both *in vivo* and *in vitro* fluorescence 442 443 determination of Chl-a have limitations and do not represent viable standard methods, which need to be applicable to all MNM types. Cell counting using automated systems can also be 444 limited as agglomerates can be in the size range of the algae and systems are not able 445 446 differentiate between the two under these circumstances. Although the method is very time consuming and therefore costly, it is recommended that manual cell counting remains the only 447 reliable approach currently available for accurately quantifying algal cell growth in acute 448

449 toxicity methods. Owing to the importance of standardised algae acute toxicity tests from a

450 regulatory perspective, it is also recommended that alternative approaches for the

451 quantification of algal growth is prioritised in the near future.

452

453 Conclusion

The currently available algae toxicity test methods are not fully suited to the hazard 454 assessment of the MNMs. A number of issues arise during both the exposure period and in the 455 algal growth quantification methods available, including *in vivo* and *in vitro* fluorescence 456 measurements. In vivo quantification is limited due to the issue of MNMs shading algal 457 fluorescence and is unable to provide reliable Chl-a concentrations. In vitro fluorescence 458 quantification, based on extraction of the Chl-a followed by removal of the test MNMs, has 459 460 recently been recommended as the best alternative to in vivo quantification. Whilst this remains the case for MNMs which do not exhibit a significant level of algae or Chl-a 461 adsorption, the approach is not suitable CNMs and other MNMs which have a strong 462 463 adsorptive properties. At present, algal growth quantification by cell counting seems to remain the only method which has potential applicability for all MNM types, but this method 464 is very time consuming and not necessarily suitable for standard toxicity tests which need to 465 be time and cost effective. 466

467

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473 **Declaration of Interest**

- 474 The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content
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594 Tables

Table 1. Properties of MWCNT (NM-400) and GO used in this study. The hydrodynamic diameter (HDD) is given as z-average. For HDD, polydispersity index (PDI) and zeta potential values are presented as mean \pm SD; n=3.

Material	Identifier	Surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	Size (nm)	HDD (nm)		PDI		Zeta potential (mV)	
Materiai				Stock ^e	Exposuref	Stock ^e	Exposure ^f	Stock ^e	Exposure ^f
MWCNT	NM-400	254* ^a 189.3±8.1* ^b	$\frac{11 \pm 3/16.2 \pm 3.5^{*c}}{846 \pm 446^{*d}}$	3540±727	2480±1450	0.99±0.013	0.92±0.92	0.8±1.6	-20±2.8
GO	GO	n.a.	<100 nm – 1 µm	245±14.6	214±7.22	0.40±0.018	0.37±0.023	-41±0.14	-28±0.25

*Data reproduced from Rasmussen et al. (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2014)

598 a: Derived using BET method

599 b: Derived using SAXS

600 c: MWCNT thickness (the two values shown represent independent measurements conducted in two different laboratories)

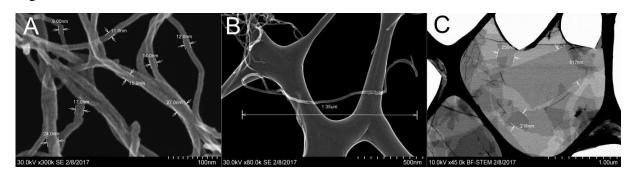
601 d: MWCNT length

e: Stock concentration of CNMs were 2560 mg L⁻¹, in MilliQ (GO) or MilliQ+20 mgL⁻¹ NOM (MWCNT)

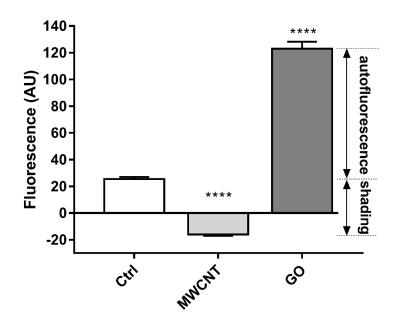
603 f: The exposure concentration of the CNMs was 100 mg L^{-1} in TG201 (GO) or TG201+10 mg L^{-1} NOM (MWCNT)

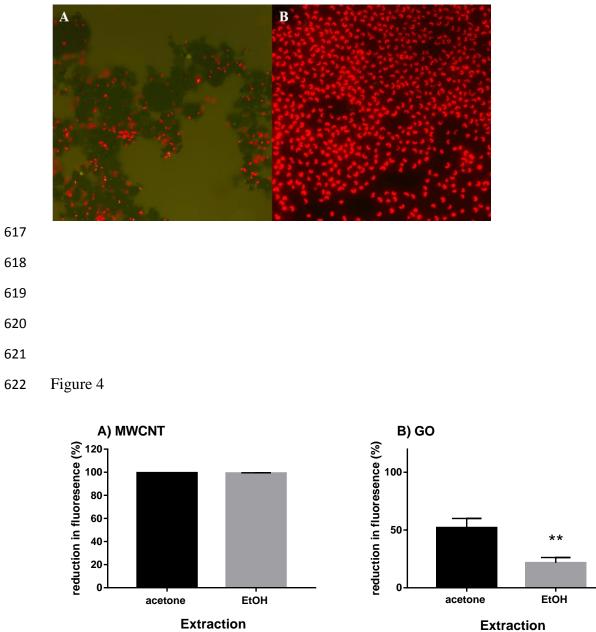
605 Figures

607 Figure 1

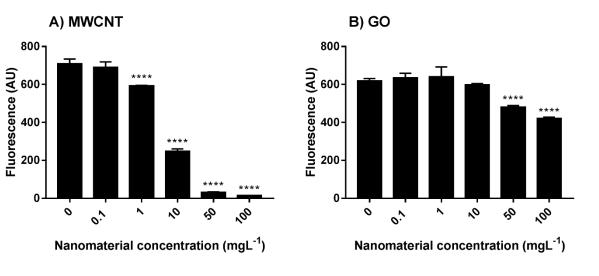


- 614 Figure 2



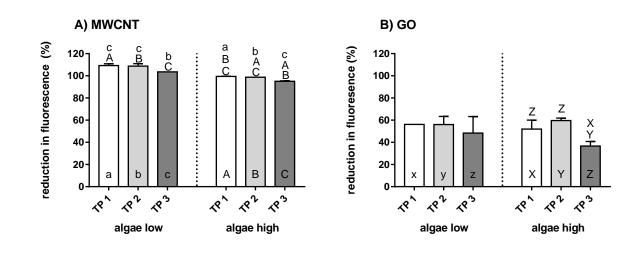


Extraction



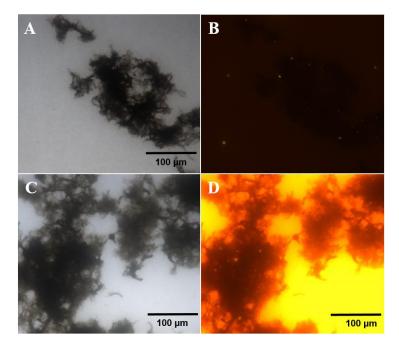


- 630 Figure 6





634 Figure 7



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638 Figure captions

639

Figure 1. Electron microscopic images of A, B) MWCNT in SEM mode and C) GO in STEMmode showing the size of the CNMs used in this study.

642

643 Figure 2. In vivo fluorescence measurements of algae in control groups (Ctrl), and in the

644 presence of 100 mg L⁻¹ MWCNT and GO, respectively. The data is shown as mean \pm SD, *n*=3.

645 Significant differences are indicated (P < 0.05).

646

Figure 3. A) Algae adsorbed to agglomerates of MWCNT (10 mgL⁻¹ in TG201+NOM), and B)

Homogenous dispersion of algae in the presence of 50 mgL^{-1} GO (in TG201).

Figure 4. Reduction in algal Chl-a fluorescence, relative to control samples containing only algae, after extraction with two different methods: acetone extraction with enhanced flocculation (LBG) and EtOH extraction followed by filtration in the presence of A) 100 mg L⁻¹ 1 MWCNT and B) 100 mg L⁻¹ GO added. Data are presented as mean±SD, *n*=3. Significant differences in fluorescence reduction between acetone and EtOH extraction are shown (*P*<0.05).

Figure 5. Reduction in fluorescence (AU) of Chl-a extracts in the presence of different concentrations of A) MWCNT and B) GO. Chl-a was extracted with acetone and subjected to flocculation and settling in the presence of LBG. Data is shown as mean \pm SD, *n*=3. Significant differences compared to control groups (0 mgL⁻¹) are indicated (*P*<0.0001).

661

Figure 6. Relative reduction of Chl-a fluorescence compared to control using a modified OECD extraction protocol. Fluorescence was determined at two algae concentrations (low and high) in the presence 100 mg L⁻¹ MWCNT (A) and GO (B). Data bars represent samples with addition of CNMs at different time points during the Chl-a extraction: TP1: CNMs added to the live algae; TP2: CNMs added directly added after Chl-a extraction; TP3: CNMs added 10 minutes before fluorescence measurements. The data is shown as mean±SD, *n*=3. Significant differences between groups are indicated by different letters (*P*<0.05).

669

Figure 7. Microscope images of MWCNT. A, B) without Chl; C, D) MWCNT mixed with
extracted Chl. Fluorescence images (B, D) were taken at the same illumination and microscope
settings. Chlorophyll is seen in bright red surrounding the MWCNT. Background Chl is seen
as yellow after rapid bleaching during illumination.

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