

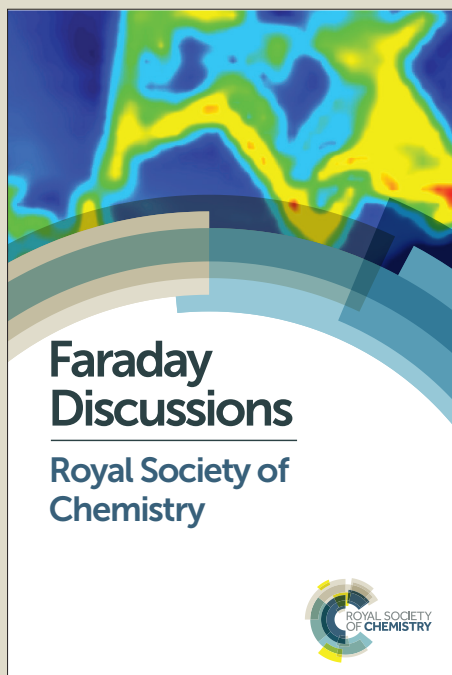
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1 Aqueous dispersions of oligomer-grafted carbon  
2 nanomaterials with controlled surface charge and  
3 minimal framework damage

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**19 Abstract**

20

21 Functionalised carbon nanomaterials (CNMs), with an undamaged carbon framework  
22 and controlled physiochemical properties, are desirable for a wide range of scientific  
23 studies and commercial applications. The use of a thermochemical grafting approach  
24 provides a versatile means to functionalise both multi-walled carbon nanotubes  
25 (MWCNTs) and carbon black (CB) nanoparticles without altering their inherent  
26 structure. The functionalisation process was investigated by employing various types  
27 of grafting monomers; to improve water solubility, reagents were chosen that  
28 introduced ionic character either intrinsically or after further chemical reaction. The  
29 degree of grafting for both MWCNTs and CB ranged from 3-27 wt%, as established by  
30 thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA). Raman spectroscopy confirmed that the structural  
31 framework of the MWNTs was unaffected by the thermochemical treatment. The  
32 effectiveness of the surface modification was demonstrated by significantly improved  
33 dispersibility and stability in water, and further quantified by zeta-potential analysis.  
34 The concentration of stable, individualised, grafted MWNTs in water ranged from ~30-  
35 80 µg/mL, whereas functionalised CB (CB) in water showed improved dispersibility up  
36 to ~460 µg/mL. The successful preparation of structurally identical but differently  
37 functionalised nanoparticles panels, with high water compatibility and minimal  
38 framework damage, are useful for controlled experiments. For example, they can be  
39 used to explore the relationship between toxicological effects and specific  
40 physiochemical properties, such as surface charge and geometry.

## 41 1. Introduction

42

43 Carbon nanomaterials (CNMs), e.g., graphenes, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and  
44 carbon black (CB) nanoparticles, have a significant place in nanoscience due to their  
45 extraordinary thermal, mechanical and electronic properties;<sup>1</sup> they have been  
46 proposed for an extensive range of applications including in biomedical contexts, such  
47 as photothermal therapy,<sup>2,3</sup> drug delivery<sup>4,5</sup> and bioimaging.<sup>6,7</sup> However, the  
48 hydrophobic nature of CNMs hinders straightforward liquid-phase dispersion,  
49 especially in aqueous media, or in a host polymeric matrix. Consequently, chemical  
50 functionalisation methods, including both covalent and non-covalent approaches, have  
51 been intensively investigated in an attempt to increase their solution stability.  
52 Improved processing and compatibility are considered crucial to fully exploit the  
53 impressive intrinsic properties.<sup>8-10</sup>

54 One of the most commonly used covalent functionalisation strategies involves  
55 aggressive oxidisation of the CNMs with strong acids, particularly mixtures of HNO<sub>3</sub>  
56 and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>,<sup>11,12</sup> to produce highly concentrated aqueous dispersions. The carboxylic  
57 acid functional groups generated during such process allow amidation or esterification  
58 reactions to alter the surface properties of carbon materials further.<sup>13,14</sup> However, the  
59 oxidation process inevitably introduces defects into the carbon framework and  
60 reduces the dimensions of both CNTs and graphene (oxide),<sup>15,16</sup> leading to diminished  
61 properties.<sup>17,18</sup> In addition, the resulting CNMs are typically contaminated with  
62 oxidation debris.<sup>19,20</sup> Direct reaction with the carbon framework can also be achieved  
63 by using highly reactive intermediates, such as nitrenes, carbenes and ylides.<sup>21</sup>  
64 Unfortunately, these reactions typically involve time-consuming filtrations, expensive

65 reagents and the production of large amounts of liquid waste. These functionalisation  
66 routes have limited scalability and hence limited applicability to the current scale of  
67 CNMs production.

68 Non-covalent interactions between CNTs and organic materials are attractive since  
69 the CNTs surface can be modified without disturbing the characteristic  $\pi$  system.<sup>22,23</sup>

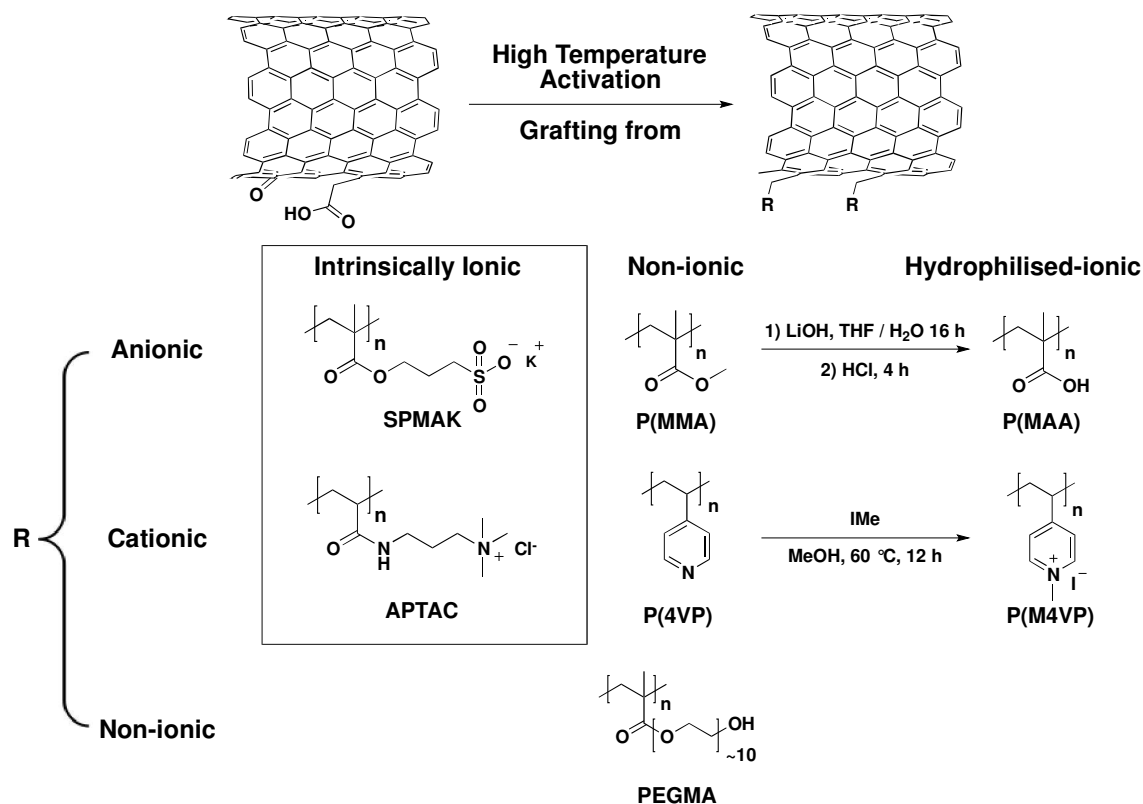
70 Numerous studies have shown that non-covalent functionalisation using polymers or  
71 surfactants can effectively disperse nanotubes by utilizing multiple weak interactions  
72 such as  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions, electrostatic interactions, hydrophobic-hydrophilic  
73 competition, *etc.*<sup>21</sup> However, the major drawback of non-covalent functionalisation lies  
74 in the lack of stability of the resulting assemblies due to the intrinsically weak  
75 interactions, and the usual need to maintain excess free surfactant (or other modifier)  
76 in the suspension.

77 An attractive thermochemical approach to grafting MWCNTs was reported, which  
78 takes advantage of the intrinsic defective groups on the so-called 'pristine' MWCNTs  
79 surface, as synthesised.<sup>24</sup> Heat treatment in vacuum or inert atmosphere generates  
80 surface radicals, suitable for further reaction. Recently, the grafting approach has  
81 been applied to the preparation of highly water-compatible MWCNTs, stabilised by  
82 cationic, anionic, or non-ionic grafted species; the thermal activation process was  
83 followed by 'grafting from' polymerisations, and hydrophilising post-functionalisation  
84 reactions on the initially non-ionic monomers.<sup>25</sup> In contrast to traditional acid oxidation  
85 protocols, the thermochemical method has significant advantages of minimising the  
86 damage to the nanotube framework, whilst avoiding production of debris or the use of  
87 corrosive solutions.<sup>24</sup> Here, the thermochemical functionalisation method is extended  
88 by using a broader range of monomers with intrinsic cationic or anionic functional  
89 groups to modify the surface characters of MWCNTs. The goal was to increase the

90 surface charge on the MWCNTs, using the same set of pre-existing reactive sites, and  
91 to simplify the reaction scheme. Additionally, the approach was applied to CB  
92 nanoparticles, in order to demonstrate its versatility and to provide panel of CNMs with  
93 identical surface chemical properties but different geometry.

94 **2. Results and Discussion**95 **2.1 MWCNTs functionalization**

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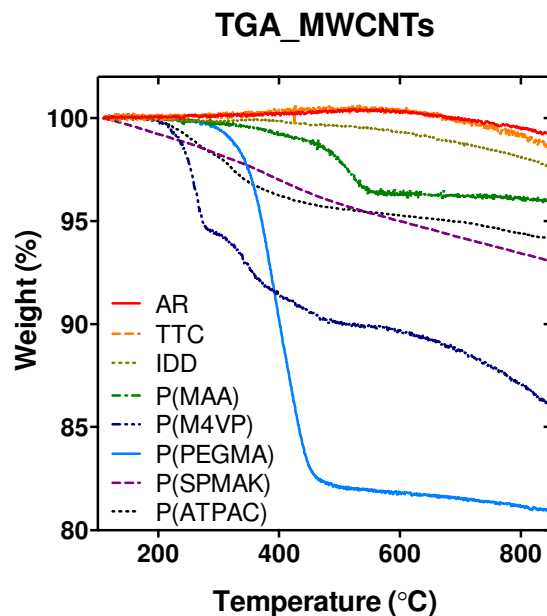
98 Scheme 1. Reaction scheme for the thermochemical 'grafting from' MWCNTs comparing intrinsically  
 99 ionic monomers, non-ionic hydrophilic monomers (PEGMA), and non-ionic monomers (MMA and 4VP)  
 100 that can be hydrophilised by subsequent reaction to form ionic species (MAA and M4VP respectively).  
 101

102 In the previous study, a thermochemical approach was successfully applied for  
 103 preparation of a panel of cationic, anionic and non-ionic functionalized-MWCNTs (*f*-  
 104 MWCNTs), via the modification of the initially uncharged grafted oligomers, by  
 105 hydrolysis or quaternisation. Specifically, poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) was  
 106 hydrolysed to poly(methacrylic acid) (P(MAA)), N-methyl 4-vinylpyridine iodide (M4VP)  
 107 was obtained by methylation of 4-vinylpyridine (4VP); and non-ionic poly (ethylene  
 108 glycol) methacrylate (PEGMA) monomer was grafted as a bulky side chain acrylate

109 (reactions shown in Scheme 1). The *f*-MWCNTs retained their carbon framework and  
110 displayed significantly enhanced water compatibility.<sup>24,25</sup> In order to simplify the  
111 synthesis process and further increase the magnitude of surface charge (and hence  
112 the colloidal stability of the system), two intrinsically ionic monomers, 3-sulfopropyl  
113 methacrylate potassium salt (SPMAK) and (3-acrylamidopropyl) trimethylammonium  
114 chloride (APTAC), with explicit anionic and cationic functional groups on the backbone  
115 respectively, were employed to modify the surface characteristics of MWCNTs using  
116 the same thermochemical mechanism (refer to Scheme 1).  
117



118

119 2.1.1 Characterisation of the *f*-MWCNTs

120

121 Figure 1. TGA weight loss profiles of as-received (AR) MWCNTs, thermal treated control (TTC)  
 122 MWCNTs and various *f*-MWCNTs, heated in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere with a 10 °C/min ramping rate from 100 °C  
 123 to 850 °C. Note that TGA curves and other data within this paper regarding P(MAA), P(M4VP),  
 124 P(PEGMA), IDD grafted MWCNTs have been adapted from our previous report.<sup>25</sup>

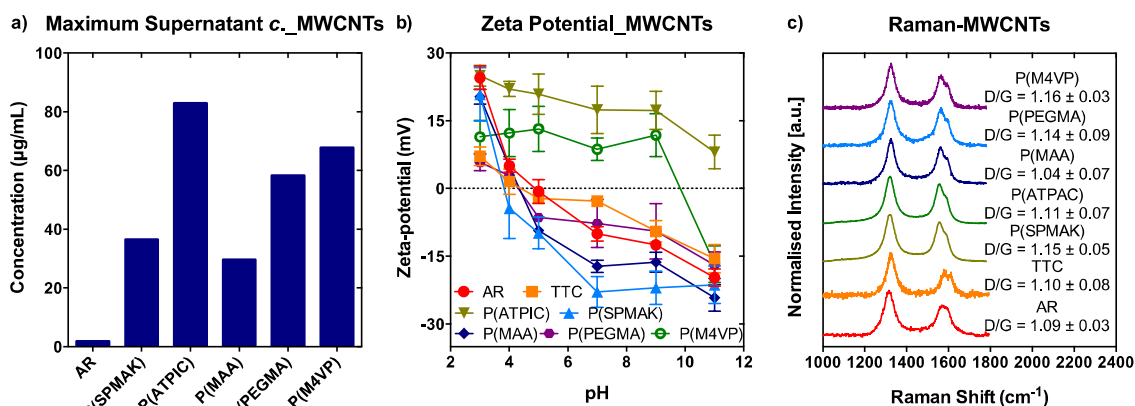
125

126 Table 1. Grafting ratios deduced from weight loss, wt% (weight percentage of grafted oligomers in total  
 127 grafted sample weight), grafting concentration (moles of monomer per gram of MWCNTs), and  
 128 estimated degree of polymerisation (number of repeating monomeric units). The table summarises the  
 129 results for the new reagents and those previously reported,<sup>25</sup> calculated based on TGA profiles (Figure  
 130 1).

131

Sample Code	Grafted Compound (chemical name)	M <sub>w</sub>	Grafting Ratio (wt%)	Grafting Concentration (μmol/g)	Monomer Repeats
P(SPMAK)-MWCNTs	3-Sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt	206.7	9.2	490.2	5.8
P(APTAC)-MWCNTs	(3-Acrylamidopropyl) trimethyl ammonium chloride	246.3	5.0	213.7	2.5
P(MAA)-MWCNTs	Methacrylic acid	86.1	3.4	408.8	4.9
P(M4VP)-MWCNTs	N-methyl 4-vinylpyridine iodide	247.1	8.7	385.6	4.6
P(PEGMA)-MWCNTs	Poly (ethylene glycol) methacrylate	528.9	18.3	423.5	5.0
IDD-MWCNTs	1-Iodododecane	169.3	1.4	83.9	1.0

132



133  
 134 Figure 2. a) The supernatant concentrations of various *f*-MWCNTs were quantitatively determined by  
 135 UV absorbance with a loading concentration of 2 mg/mL; b) zeta-potential analysis of AR, TTC and *f*-  
 136 MWCNTs as a function of pH. Error bars are mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) ( $n = 5$ ) c) Raman  
 137 spectroscopy analysis of AR, TTC and *f*-MWCNTs.  
 138

139 Table 2. Maximum supernatant concentration (with loading concentration 2 mg/mL), zeta-potential in  
 140 pH 7 HPLC water, isoelectric point (IEP) and D / G ratio of AR and grafted MWCNTs.

Sample Code	Maximum supernatant concentration in water ( $\mu\text{g/mL}$ )	Zeta-potential (mV) in pH 7 HPLC water	IEP	D/G Ratio
P(SPMAK)-MWCNTs	36.5	$-22.9 \pm 3.4$	3.8	$1.11 \pm 0.07$
P(ATPIC)-MWCNTs	82.9	$19.2 \pm 1.4$	N/A	$1.15 \pm 0.05$
P(MAA)-MWCNTs	29.6	$-17.2 \pm 1.3$	4.3	$1.03 \pm 0.07$
P(PEGMA)-MWCNTs	58.3	$-7.8 \pm 5.3$	4.6	$1.13 \pm 0.09$
P(M4VP)-MWCNTs	67.8	$8.7 \pm 2.4$	9.8	$1.04 \pm 0.03$

141

142 The grafting ratios and degrees of polymerisation of the new ionic monomers were  
 143 characterised based on TGA analysis (Figure 1, Table 1). In contrast to as-received  
 144 (AR) and non-grafted thermal treated control (TTC) MWCNTs, significant weight  
 145 losses occurred for the *f*-MWCNTs, which are attributed to the decomposition of the  
 146 grafted organic oligomers/polymers. This step indicates that successful  
 147 oligomer/polymer grafting has been achieved. The grafting ratio was calculated based  
 148 on the difference between the weight percentage of *f*-MWCNTs and TTC-MWCNTs, in  
 149 order to exclude any effect of minor volatile/absorbed impurities within the AR-  
 150 MWCNTs. The TTC sample was obtained using the same activation protocol as  
 151 functionalisation, but exposing activated MWCNTs to air rather than a monomer, at  
 152 ambient temperatures.<sup>24,25</sup> In order to estimate the number of active sites, the  
 153 MWCNTs were grafted with the non-polymerisable reagent 1-iodododecane (IDD).<sup>25</sup> A

154 further control of treating TTC-MWCNTs with monomer MMA, followed by standard  
155 workup, indicated that unreacted monomer was completely removed; thus simple  
156 physisorption of monomers on MWCNTs does not contribute to the grafting ratios  
157 obtained (Figure S1).

158 The negatively charged P(SPMAC)-MWCNTs have a grafting ratio of 9.2 wt% with a  
159 calculated repeating monomeric unit of 5.8, similar to the previously reported anionic  
160 P(MAA)-MWCNTs (Table 1). The two types of anionically charged MWCNTs  
161 displayed similar decreasing trends in their zeta-potential curves on increasing  
162 solution pH due to the protonation/deprotonation of either sulfonyl or carboxylic acid  
163 groups. The P(SPMAC)-MWCNTs displayed a lowered IEP at 3.8 compared to  
164 P(MAA)-MWCNTs at 4.3, as expected qualitatively from the relative  $pK_a$  values of the  
165 respective acids. In addition, a more negative zeta-potential in pH 7 aqueous solution  
166 was obtained (-22.9 mV) for P(SPMAC)-MWCNTs than P(MAA)-MWCNTs (-17.2 mV),  
167 presumably due to the higher grafted concentration. As a result, P(SPMAC)-MWCNTs  
168 showed even better water compatibility, with a 23 % improvement of water solubility  
169 compared to P(MAA)-MWCNTs, as measured by UV analysis.

170 The positively charged P(ATPAC)-MWCNTs displayed a 5.0 wt% grafting ratio with a  
171 low monomer repeat of only 2.5. Although the grafting concentration and number of  
172 monomeric repeats were lower than the other types of *f*-MWCNTs, the water  
173 dispersibility of P(ATPAC)-MWCNTs was still improved compared to the positively  
174 charged P(M4VP)-MWCNTs. The aqueous dispersion of P(ATPAC)-MWCNTs  
175 displayed the highest concentration of 82.9  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  within the *f*-MWCNTs panel. Again,  
176 the surface charge properties were quantified by zeta-potential analysis. The results  
177 showed that the P(ATPAC)-MWCNTs sample retained a positive zeta-potential in  
178 aqueous solutions even up to pH 11. In pH 7 aqueous solution, the zeta-potential of

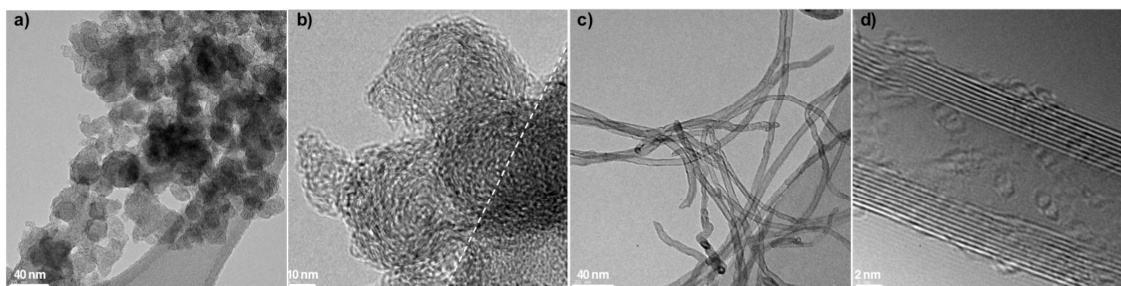
179 P(ATPAC)-MWCNTs was + 19.2 mV, much improved compared to P(M4VP)-  
180 MWCNTs (+ 8.7 mV).

181 The new ionic monomer grafted MWNTs appeared undamaged by the process, as  
182 anticipated, semi-quantitatively confirmed by the unchanged, D/G ratio characterized  
183 by Raman spectroscopy (Figure 2c, Table 2).

184

## 185 2.2 Carbon black NP functionalisation

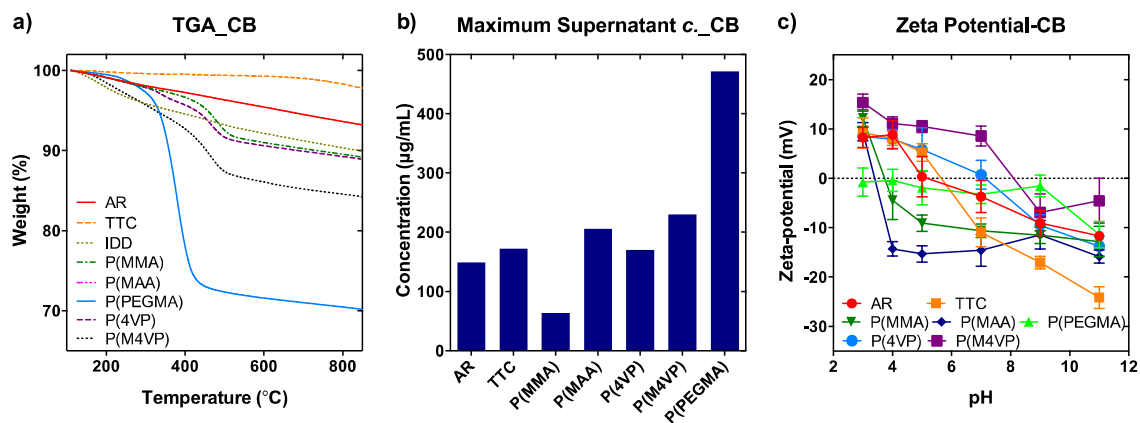
186 As mentioned earlier, the thermochemical functionalisation approach has great  
187 potential to be applied to other types of CNMs, as the surface chemistry is expected to  
188 be similar. CNMs produced by gas phase processes, in particular, may be expected to  
189 have a similar set of defective surface sites that can be converted to active radicals.  
190 As a proof of such a concept, CB was selected as a case study to investigate the  
191 versatility of the method. Although likely more defective, CB nanoparticles are  
192 chemically related, especially to CVD MWCNTs, and hence can provide an interesting  
193 control system for the panel of *f*-MWCNTs, with a different geometry.



194 Figure 3. a,c) Low resolution and b,d) high resolution bright field TEM images showing the morphology  
195 and crystallinity of CB (a,b) nanoparticles and MWCNTs (c,d). The white dashed line in 3b indicates the  
196 edge of the underlying amorphous carbon film of the TEM grid.  
197  
198

199 As shown in Figure 3b, AR-CB displayed layered carbon-sheet structures, but with  
200 much lower crystallinity than the MWCNTs (Figure 3d). The CB nanoparticles  
201 employed in this study had an average primary particle diameter of  $21.1 \pm 6.2$  nm  
202 (N=100), as determined by analysis of LR-TEM images (Figure 3a), which is only  
203 slightly larger than that of the MWCNTs used whose average diameter is  $12.1 \pm 3.7$   
204 nm (N=100). Given the similarities in chemical components, diameter and other  
205 properties (which will be further discussed below), the two materials can provide  
206 interesting comparisons to study geometric effects systematically.

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Figure 4. a) TGA weight loss profiles of as-received (AR) CB, thermally treated control (TTC) CB and various functionalised CB (*f*-CB), heated in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere with a 10 °C/min ramp rate from 100 to 850 °C; b) the supernatant concentrations of various *f*-CB were quantitatively determined by UV absorbance with a loading concentration of 2 mg/mL; c) zeta-potential analysis of AR, TTC and *f*-CB as a function of pH. Error bars are mean ± standard deviation (SD) (n = 5)

Table 3. Grafting ratios in weight loss, wt% (weight percentage of grafted oligomers in total grafted sample weight), grafting concentration (moles of monomer per gram of CB), and estimated degree of polymerisation (number of monomer repeats), calculated based on TGA profiles (Figure 4b); maximum supernatant concentration (with loading concentration 2 mg/mL), zeta-potential in pH 7 HPLC water, isoelectric point (IEP) and D/G ratio of AR and *f*-CB.

Sample Code	Grafting Ratio (wt%)	Grafting Concentration (µmol/g)	Monomeric Repeats	Solubility in water (µg/mL)	Zeta-potential (mV) in pH 7 HPLC water	IEP
AR-CB	N/A	N/A	N/A	149.0	-3.7 ± 3.2	5.0
TTC-CB	N/A	N/A	N/A	172.1	-11.0 ± 2.9	5.6
P(MMA)-CB	8.6	940.0	1.9	63.9	-10.6 ± 1.4	3.8
P(MAA)-CB	5.9	728.2	1.4	205.9	-14.6 ± 3.2	3.4
P(4-VP)-CB	8.9	929.5	1.8	170.0	0.7 ± 3.0	7.0
P(M4VP)-CB	13.6	637.0	1.3	230.2	8.6 ± 2.0	8.1
P(PEGMA)-CB	27.6	720.8	1.4	465.8	-3.3 ± 1.9	N/A
IDD-CB	7.9	506.7	1.0	N/A	N/A	N/A

220

221 Using an identical preparation process as described above, anionic CB (P(MAA)-CB)

222 were obtained by hydrolysis of hydrophobic methyl methacrylate grafted CB in alkaline

223 solution. The weak base P(4-VP)<sup>26</sup> was quaternised using iodomethane (IMe) to

224 obtain more stable aqueous dispersions of protonated polymer (P(M4VP)) grafted CB.

225 TGA analysis confirmed the successful grafting of CB nanoparticles. The TGA profile

226 of AR-CB displayed continuous weight loss between 100 to 850 °C, due to the lower

227 thermal stability of less crystalline carbon framework compared to MWCNTs. In

228 contrast to as-received (AR) and non-grafted thermal treated control (TTC) CB, a

229 second range of significant weight loss occurred around 200-500 °C for *f*-CB, which is  
230 attributed to the decomposition of the grafted organic oligomers/polymers. This step  
231 indicates successful oligomer/polymer grafting.

232 The grafting ratio of the P(MMA)-CB (8.6 wt%) decreased slightly after the hydrolysis  
233 treatment (5.9 wt%), due to the loss of methyl groups. The grafting ratio of 4-VP-  
234 grafted CB was 8.9 wt%, and the degree of polymerisation was very similar to that of  
235 the P(MMA)-CB. TGA of the quaternised product retained the features of the P(4-VP)-  
236 CB, associated with the combustion of the grafted oligomer, with additional weight  
237 loss (4.7%) between 100 to 300 °C, attributed to the methyl group and the associated  
238 iodide counter-ion. The higher grafting ratio of P(PEGMA) grafted CB, 27.6 wt%, is  
239 partly attributed to the high molecular weight of side chain of PEGMA monomer (Table  
240 3).

241 Compared to previously reported *f*-MWCNTs, the cationic (M4VP), anionic (MAA) and  
242 non-ionic (PEGMA) grafted CB samples displayed a similar trend of grafting ratio,  
243 namely P(PEGMA) > P(M4VP) > P(MAA).

244 Table 4. Comparisons of IDD grafted CB and MWCNTs<sup>25</sup> in terms of grafting ratios in weight loss, wt%  
245 (weight percentage of grafted oligomers in total grafted sample weight), grafting concentration (moles of  
246 IDD in per gram of CNMs), BET surface area, and another estimated grafting concentration (moles of  
247 IDD per m<sup>2</sup> of carbon surface.

Sample Code	Grafting Ratio (wt%)	Grafting Concentration ( $\mu\text{mol/g}$ )	BET surface area ( $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ )	Grafting Concentration ( $\mu\text{mol/m}^2$ )
IDD-CB	7.9	506.7	270	1.88
IDD-MWCNTs	1.4	84.1	227	0.37

248

249 Based on grafting ratios of the non-polymerisable reagent IDD, the reactive site  
250 concentrations on CB and MWCNTs can be compared. As might be expected from the  
251 more defective structure, the number of active sites identified was higher on the CB  
252 (approximately 1 per 200 carbons) than MWCNTs (1 per 1000), both by mass and  
253 when normalised to surface area (Table 3). However, the cationic (M4VP), anionic  
254 (MAA) and non-ionic (PEGMA) grafted CB did not show a significant increase in the  
255 total grafting ratios compared to the MWCNTs grafted with the same monomers.  
256 Instead, the apparent number of monomer repeats was consistently reduced. One  
257 possible explanation is that the higher density of radicals on the CB surface not only  
258 increased the number of polymerisation initiation sites, but also the rate of termination  
259 of the polymerization. Termination may either occur by reaction between two short  
260 oligomers or the quenching of a growing oligomer by a nearby radical site. It is worth  
261 mentioning that in this study, the grafting density and degree of polymerisation are  
262 estimated assuming that IDD reacts stoichiometrically with all active radical sites and  
263 the polymerisation processes is initiated at a radical site but can terminate anywhere  
264 on the CB or MWNT surface; in other words that each oligomer/polymer chain  
265 consumes one radical site.<sup>25</sup> However, if chain-chain or chain-radical site termination  
266 dominates, each chain would be associated with two radical sites in total;  
267 implementing this assumption would lead to doubled values for estimated chain length  
268 (monomer repeats) and halved grafting concentrations per unit area. These two



269 alternative estimates represent limits for the true average value. However, a further  
270 complication is that the active radical sites on the carbon surface may be not equally  
271 accessible to the IDD probe and the monomers used. If steric effects are significant  
272 and the monomers are more bulky, then again the real chain length will be longer and  
273 the grafting density lower, than currently estimated. This effect may be more  
274 significant, for the high defect density CBs. Further work on mechanism is needed;  
275 current experiments are exploring the use alkyl iodides with different chain lengths, to  
276 explore the influence of steric constraints.

277 The water solubility of AR and *f*-CB samples has been quantified by UV-vis analysis.  
278 Due to the high density of oxygen-containing functional groups on CB surfaces, the  
279 AR-CB sample already has a moderately high water solubility of 149 µg/mL. After  
280 functionalisation, *f*-CB, stabilised by cationic, anionic and non-ionic charges displayed  
281 further improved water dispersibility, reaching 230, 206 and 472 µg/mL respectively.  
282 The higher concentration obtained for P(PEGMA) grafted CB can be attributed to high  
283 steric stabilisation effect of PEG chains and the much higher grafting ratio than  
284 cationic and anionic CB.

285 The zeta potential analysis further confirmed successful grafting of the CB with  
286 anionic, non-ionic and cationic oligomers/polymers (Figure 4c). The AR-CB and TTC-  
287 CB are weakly acidic, with an iso-electric point (IEP) of 5.0 and 5.6, as expected given  
288 the surface oxides, including carboxylic acid groups, present on the CB surface. The  
289 lowered IEP at 3.4 for P(MAA)-CB compared to P(MMA)-CB (IEP 3.8), confirmed the  
290 successful hydrolysis process. Moreover, the improved plateau voltage value of  
291 P(MAA)-CB (~ -15 mV) from P(MMA)-CB (~ -10 mV), again, provided proof of  
292 successful reaction. The 4-VP functionalised systems introduce positively-charged  
293 groups, shifting the IEP to higher pH; by introducing a positive charge through

294 quaternisation, the IEP of P(M4VP)-CB was successfully increased to about pH 8.1.  
295 The grafted PEGMA is non-ionic and the zeta potential of aqueous dispersions (up to  
296 pH 9) of P(PEGMA)-CB samples remain close to zero, indicating that the original  
297 acidic surface oxides are indeed activated and converted to non-ionic PEG-based  
298 chains.

### 299 **3. Experimental methods**

#### 300 **3.1 Materials**

301 MWCNTs (diameter 12.1 nm, s.d. 3.7 nm), synthesised by CVD, were obtained from  
302 Arkema SA (Lacq-Mourenx, France). Carbon black nanoparticles (Printex 90, primary  
303 particle diameter 21.1 nm, s.d. 6.2 nm) were provided by Degussa-Hüls (Frankfurt,  
304 Germany). Potassium 3-(methacryloyloxy)propane-1-sulfonate (SPMAK, 98%), (3-  
305 acrylamidopropyl)trimethylammonium chloride solution (75% in H<sub>2</sub>O), methyl  
306 methacrylate (MMA, > 98.5%), 4-vinyl pyridine (4-VP, 95%), poly(ethylene glycol)  
307 methacrylate (PEGMA, average M<sub>n</sub> = 530), 1-iodododecane (IDD, 98%), iodomethane  
308 (IMe, ≥ 99%), and lithium hydroxide (LiOH, 98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich  
309 for CNM functionalisation. Before use, all liquid monomer chemicals were passed  
310 through a chromatographic column consisting of neutral and basic aluminium oxide  
311 powders (aluminium oxide 90 (0.063-0.200 mm), activity stage I for column  
312 chromatography, Merck Millipore, Germany) and further degassed by bubbling N<sub>2</sub> gas  
313 for at least 30 minutes, in order to remove any radical inhibitors and oxygen.

#### 314 **3.2 Functionalisation of CNM**

##### 315 **3.2.1 Thermochemical grafting**

316 The thermal activation process was carried out in a custom-made 30 mm diameter  
317 quartz tube attached to a sample flask, and the whole setup was connected to a  
318 vacuum system. In a typical experiment, 100 mg of CNM were heated to 1000 °C at a  
319 constant ramping rate of 15 °C/min under vacuum ( $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$  mbar), in a three-zone  
320 tube furnace (PTF 12/38/500, Lenton Ltd, UK) and held at the activation temperature  
321 for 2 hours. After the activation step, the quartz tube was slowly removed from the  
322 heating zone and allowed to cool to room temperature under vacuum. The CNM were

323 then transferred to the connected round bottom flask by gravity. 8 mL of the reactant  
324 (for SPMAK, 1 g of compound was dissolved in degassed 1:1 v/v ethanol H<sub>2</sub>O co-  
325 solvent) was then injected into the flask containing the thermally-activated CNM. The  
326 reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature overnight. The unreacted reactant  
327 was removed via filtration through a 0.10 or 0.45 µm pore size polytetrafluoroethylene  
328 (PTFE) membrane (Whatman, UK) under vacuum. The product was thoroughly  
329 washed with 3 × 90 mL of washing solvent (details of which solvent to be used for  
330 each grafting reagent can be found in ESI), then dispersed in 90 mL of solvent and  
331 bath sonicated (USC300T, 45kHz, 80W, VWR International, USA) for 15 minutes. The  
332 filtration-sonication cycle was repeated three times in order to remove any physically  
333 absorbed reactants. The functionalised CNM are named by the abbreviation of the  
334 grafted polymer and CNM type: e.g. P(SPMAK)-MWCNTs. The other sample codes  
335 can be found in Table 1.

### 336 **3.2.2 Post-functionalisation of f-CB**

#### 337 **3.2.2.1 Synthesis of P(M4VP)-CB**

338 P(4-VP)-CB (20 mg) were dispersed in 10 mL of methanol (99.8%, Sigma-Aldrich) by  
339 sonication for 5 minutes; IMe (3.12 mL, 50.0 mmol) was added drop-wise, and the  
340 reaction mixture was heated to 60 °C overnight under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere.<sup>27</sup> Afterwards,  
341 the mixture was cooled to room temperature and filtered through a 0.10 µm PTFE  
342 membrane. The CB were washed with 3 × 30 mL of ethanol, then dispersed in 30 mL  
343 of ethanol and bath sonicated for 15 minutes. The filtration-sonication cycle was  
344 repeated three times in order to remove any physically absorbed reactants.

#### 345 **3.2.2.2 Synthesis of P(MAA)-CB**

346 LiOH (40 mg) was dissolved in 20 mL 10:1 v/v THF/water co-solvent before adding  
347 20 mg of P(MMA)-CB. The reaction mixture was bath sonicated for 5 min to obtain a

348 good dispersion, and then stirred at room temperature overnight. Subsequently, 37%  
349 hydrochloric acid (HCl, AnalaR grade, BDH) was added drop-wise until the pH value  
350 of the solution reached pH 2.<sup>28</sup> The mixture was stirred for another 12 hours, then  
351 filtered on a 0.10  $\mu\text{m}$  PTFE membrane, and washed with water ( $3 \times 30$  mL). The CB  
352 residue was dispersed in 30 mL of water by bath sonication for 15 minutes. The  
353 filtration-sonication cycle was repeated three times in order to remove any remaining  
354 salt and acid.

### 355 3.3 Characterisation of CNM

#### 356 3.3.1 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

357 TGA analyses were carried out using a Perkin Elmer Pyris 1, by heating  $1.8 \pm 0.2$  mg  
358 CNM samples to 100  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , under a  $\text{N}_2$  atmosphere (60 mL/min), and holding  
359 isothermally for 30 minutes to remove residual water and/or solvent; the temperature  
360 was then increased from 100 to 850  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  at a constant ramping rate of 10  $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$  under  
361 flowing  $\text{N}_2$  (60 mL/min).

#### 362 3.3.2 Zeta-potential measurement

363 Zeta-potential analyses were performed on a Brookhaven ZetaPALS. *f*-CNMs samples  
364 were dispersed in HPLC water with a concentration of 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  by bath sonication for  
365 15 minutes. The pH was adjusted using 0.1 or 0.01 M HCl/NaOH, measured by a  
366 digital pH meter (VWR sympHony<sup>TM</sup> meter, VWR International, USA).

#### 367 3.3.3 Raman spectroscopy

368 Raman spectra ( $1000 - 1800$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) were collected on a LabRam Infinity Raman  
369 spectrometer, using a 532 nm laser (scan time 90 s, average 3 scan cycles). The D/G  
370 ratio was determined from the ratio of integrated intensity under the Raman bands at

371 around  $1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (D-band) and  $1580\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (G-band) respectively.<sup>29</sup> Average values  
372 and standard deviations were obtained from five independent measurements.

### 373 **3.3.4 UV-vis spectroscopy**

374 The water compatibility of *f*-CNMs was quantified by UV-vis spectroscopy (Lambda  
375 950, Perkin Elmer). For water solubility tests, as-received and *f*-CNMs were bath  
376 sonicated (45 kHz, 80 W, VWR International, USA) in HPLC water for 15 minutes with  
377 different initial powder loading concentrations of 2 mg/mL. CNM aggregates were  
378 settled by centrifugation for 15 minutes at 10,000 g. The supernatant was carefully  
379 decanted and the concentration of grafted MWCNTs determined by UV absorbance  
380 and application of the Beer-Lambert law,  $A = \epsilon \times c \times d$ , where  $A$  is the measured UV  
381 absorbance,  $\epsilon$  is the extinction coefficient (35.10 mL/mg/cm for Arkema MWCNTs at  
382 800 nm,<sup>30</sup> 19.45 mL/mg/cm for CB nanoparticles at 800 nm) and  $d$  is the light path  
383 length (1 cm cuvette length, in this study).

### 384 **3.3.5 Specific surface areas**

385 The measurements of adsorption and desorption isotherms of nitrogen at 77 K were  
386 carried out on 100 mg CNMs using a Micromeritics ASAP 2010 apparatus. Specific  
387 surface areas were calculated according to the Brunauer, Emmet and Teller (BET)  
388 equation from the adsorption isotherm in the relative pressure range of 0.05-0.20  $p/p_0$ .

#### 389 4. Conclusion

390 In this paper, MWCNTs have been successfully grafted with new, intrinsically ionic  
391 positive and negative monomers using a thermochemical approach, leading to  
392 aqueous dispersions of *f*-MWCNTs with increased surface charge and enhanced  
393 water dispersibility compared to previously published results. The degree of  
394 functionalisation is quantified by TGA analysis, and a combination of UV-vis and zeta-  
395 potential techniques confirm the altered surface charge and water compatibility of the  
396 panel of *f*-MWCNTs. Further, the thermochemical method was also been successfully  
397 applied to another important class of CNMs, specifically carbon black (CB). Again, the  
398 TGA, UV-vis, and zeta-potential analyses confirmed successful grafting and water  
399 compatibilisation.

400 Building on previous work, these charged MWCNTs can serve as model materials,  
401 which can be delivered in aqueous conditions, for cytotoxicity and cell uptake  
402 investigations; the new monomer systems offer simplified preparation protocols and  
403 further improved water solubility. The *f*-CB samples, with closely matched surface  
404 chemical properties, provide excellent controls for the toxicity tests using in vitro cell  
405 models, for exploring geometric effects, and are under investigation. In addition, water  
406 dispersible CNMs are desirable in a wide range of applications, from printing  
407 conductive inks, to assembling filters and electrodes. The versatility of the  
408 functionalisation route presented, to address both different classes of carbons and  
409 different types of surface grafting, whilst minimizing carbon framework damage, is very  
410 attractive. Pure gas phase embodiments of the process avoid time-consuming filtration  
411 steps, minimize waste, and are readily scalable. Current investigations are exploring  
412 the modification of other types of carbon nanomaterials, including single-walled

413 carbon nanotubes, MWCNTs grafted carbon fibres,<sup>31</sup> carbon aerogels, and graphene,  
414 as well fundamental aspects of the carbon surface chemistry. The potential  
415 applications of such materials will be explored and may be extended by including  
416 functional components, for example, pseudocapacitive groups for supercapacitors or  
417 metal<sup>24</sup>/oxide<sup>32</sup> catalyst binding groups for heterogeneous reactions.

418

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