Crosslinker Chemistry Determines the Uptake Potential of Perfluorinated Alkyl Substances by β-Cyclodextrin Polymers

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Abstract

Per- and poly fluorinated alkyl substances (PFASs), notably perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctanesulfonic acid (PFOS), contaminate many ground and surface water resources and are environmentally persistent. Furthermore, there are many other PFASs in use and many are likewise persistent and found to contaminate fresh water resources. A polymer consisting of βcyclodextrin (β -CD) crosslinked with decafluorobiphenyl (DFB-CDP) has shown promise for sequestering PFOA at environmentally relevant concentrations, though its efficacy to remove other PFASs from water has not yet been explored. Additionally, although the DFB-CDP was designed to sequester PFASs on the basis of favorable fluorous interactions, the rationale for its relatively high affinity for PFOA compared to other previously synthesized β-CD polymers remains unknown. In this study, we explored crosslinker chemistry as a potential determinant of PFAS affinity for β-CD polymers. We synthesized three DFB-CDP derivatives with varying degrees of phenolation in the crosslinker (to evaluate effects of polymer surface charge) along with two β-CD polymers crosslinked by two other chemically distinct strategies, epichlorohydrin and 2isocyanatoethyl methacrylate. We measured the equilibrium removal of ten PFASs from water by each of the five polymers at environmentally relevant concentrations. We found that β -CD polymers crosslinked by perfluorinated aromatics with low degrees of phenolation are more favorable for PFASs adsorption. These findings provide insight into the mechanism of PFASs adsorption by β -CD-based polymers and will inspire modular designs of β -CD-based adsorbents to target other PFASs and micropollutants.

Introduction

The contamination of ground and surface water by per-and polyfluorinated alkyl substances (PFASs), notably perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctanesulfonic acid (PFOS), has emerged as an environmental and health crisis throughout the world.¹⁻² PFASs are used in the production of fluoropolymers,³⁻⁴ aqueous film-forming foam (AFFF) formulations to suppress fires,⁵⁻⁶ and many other industrial processes and consumer products.^{4,7-8} Because of the widespread usage of PFOA and PFOS, their ecological persistence, and their noted occurrence in drinking water resources, several communities in the United States declared states of emergency for PFOA and PFOS in 2016. Furthermore, although these two contaminants have drawn significant regulatory and legal attention, there are many other PFASs in use.⁹ Granular activated carbon (GAC) is presently used as an adsorbent-of-last-resort in affected communities, but its intermediate affinity for PFASs makes it expensive to achieve residual aqueous phase concentrations below the regulatory thresholds.¹⁰ GAC is also fouled by natural organic matter (NOM),¹¹ and regeneration of PFAS-loaded GAC is energy-intensive.¹²

β-cyclodextrin (β-CD), a macrocycle composed of seven glucose units, forms host–guest complexes with a variety of PFASs.¹³ For instance, the association constants of the 1:1 host-guest complex between β-CD and PFOA and PFOS are $(5.00\pm0.10)\cdot10^5$ M⁻¹ and $(6.96\pm0.79)\cdot10^5$ M⁻¹ respectively.¹⁴ Despite these relatively high association constants, some previous β-cyclodextrinbased polymers remove PFOA poorly, including a β-CD polymer crosslinked by tetrafluoroterephthalonitrile (**TFN-CDP**) that rapidly removes many organic chemicals from water.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ Recently we reported a β-cyclodextrin (β-CD)-based polymer network, referred to as **DFB-CDP**, that reduces PFOA concentrations from 1 µg L⁻¹ to <10 ng L⁻¹.¹⁷ The adsorbent was not fouled by humic acids, which are major constituents of NOM, and was regenerated and reused multiple times by washing with MeOH. These characteristics make **DFB-CDP** a promising candidate for PFOA remediation. Although **DFB-CDP** was designed to stabilize β-CD-PFAS inclusion complexes through secondary noncovalent interactions with the crosslinkers, these interactions and the effects of crosslinker chemistry on PFASs uptake are not yet understood.

Recently we reported a side reaction during the polymerization of **TFN-CDP** in which a fluorine of TFN could be substituted by a hydroxyl group and the resulting phenolated TFN could be incorporated into the polymer network. More heavily phenolated polymers showed increased capacity to bind Pb²⁺ ions and increased binding affinity for 83 micropollutants,¹⁸ yet all of the phenolated TFN-linked polymers had low affinity to anionic PFASs suggesting that phenolation may not be desired in β -CD polymers designed for PFAS uptake. Here we explore the role of crosslinker chemistry in modulating the removal of PFOA, PFOS and eight other PFASs. Within the **DFB-CDP** family, we explore the role of phenolation on the kinetics and thermodynamics of PFAS uptake. Noting the large difference in affinity between the **DFB-CDP** and β -CD polymers crosslinked by TFN, we also explored β -CD polymers crosslinked by two other chemically distinct strategies: epichlorohydrin, (**EPI-CDP**), a commonly studied CD-based adsorbent, and a urethane-containing methacrylate β -CD network (**IEM-CDP**) (**Scheme 1**). This broad comparison demonstrates that the nature of the crosslinkers plays an important role in PFAS uptake, and the superior PFASs uptake.



Results and Discussion

Model Studies. Because DFB-CDP is insoluble, it is difficult to determine the regiochemistry of the ether linkages and side reactions formed during polymerization. Model reactions of DFB with *n*-butanol in anhydrous DMSO imitate the reactions of hydroxyls of β -CD with DFB (Scheme 2). The dominant product observed by ¹⁹F NMR was the 4,4'-dibutyl ether **1a** (83.5%), and minor products include the mono-phenolated **1b** (4.9%) and mono-phenolated, mono-butyl ether **2b** (7.7%) (Scheme 2). The presence of **2b** suggests the possibility of phenolated DFB being incorporated into the β -CD polymer network.

To control the side reactions and tune the concentrations of phenolated DFB incorporated into the polymer, we added 5% and 10% water to anhydrous DMSO to favor increased phenolation (Scheme 2). The formation of dibutyl ether 1a is inhibited in reactions 2 and 3 compared with that in reaction 1, with only 60.8% and 48.3% of 1a being detected after 48 hours (Scheme 2). The phenolated product 2b was formed in increased yield, with 21.4% of 2b in reaction 2 and 35.8% in reaction 3 (Scheme 2). These experiments demonstrate that phenolation occurs readily in the presence of water. This model study suggests that polymerizations conducted with increased water content will provide DFB-CDP samples with higher amounts of phenolation.

Scheme 2



Polymer **Synthesis** and Characterization of DFB-CDPs. To tune the degree of phenolated DFB incorporated into DFB-CDP polymers while keeping the structure morphology of **DFB-CDPs** as similar as possible, we polymerized β -CD and DFB with the same molar feed ratio 1:3 in different solvents (DMSO: $H_2O = 100: 0, 95:5,$ 90:10). After the monomers and K_2CO_3 were heated in solvents at 85°C, the suspensions gelled and were isolated in this form after 40-48 h (Scheme 1). Gels exhibited darker colors from polymer **DFB-CDP-1** to **DFB-CDP-3**, with the colors ranging from light yellow to light brown. Elemental analysis results of C, H, and F suggested that DFB-CDPs have similar crosslinking densities, with β-CD: DFB incorporation ratios ranging from 1:2.5 to 1:2.9 (Table 1). Meanwhile, DFB-CDPs had different concentrations of phenolated DFB incorporated into the polymers. The phenolate concentration in the polymers was determined by deprotonating the phenols using Li₂CO₃ and determining the amount of bound Li⁺ using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES).¹⁸ DFB-CDP-1 has the lowest phenolate concentration at 0.063 ± 0.008 mmol g⁻¹, which indicates that $4.8 \pm 0.6\%$ of DFB incorporated into the polymer phenolated. Meanwhile, DFB-CDP-2 and **DFB-CDP-3** have similar and much higher phenolate concentrations incorporated into the polymers, with the values being 0.22 ± 0.011 mmol g⁻¹

Table 1

Sample	β-CD: Crosslinker Incorporation Ratio	[Li⁺] Bound (mmol g⁻¹)	[Phenolate] (mmol g ⁻¹)
DFB-CDP-1	1:2.5	0.063 ± 0.008	0.063 ± 0.008
DFB-CDP-2	1:2.6	0.22±0.011	0.22 ± 0.011
DFB-CDP-3	1:2.9	0.25±0.018	0.25 ± 0.018
EPI-CDP	1:8	0*	N/A
IEM-CDP	1:3.5	0.031 ± 0.009	N/A

* Li* signals of EPI-CDP samples by ICP-OES are below quantification limit.



Figure 1. ¹⁹F MAS NMR of DFB-CDPs at 600 MHz while spinning at 48 kHz. **A.** ¹⁹F MAS NMR of as-synthesized and deprotonated DFB-CDP-3. Orange trace: As-synthesized DFB-CDP-3; Blue trace: DFB-CDP-3-Deprotonated; **B.** ¹⁹F MAS NMR of deprotonated DFB-CDPs. Red trace: DFB-CDP-1-Deprotonated; Blue trace: DFB-CDP-3-Deprotonated.

 $(16.1 \pm 0.8\%$ phenolated DFB) for **DFB-CDP-2** and 0.25 ± 0.018 mmol g⁻¹ $(17.4 \pm 1.3\%$ phenolated DFB) for **DFB-CDP-3**. These results are consistent with the model studies (**Scheme 2**) and demonstrate a way to control the phenolate concentration in the **DFB-CDPs**.

The presence and relative concentrations of phenolates in the polymers were further confirmed by zeta potential measurements (**Table S2**) and solid-state ¹⁹F NMR (**Figure S3**). The ¹⁹F MAS NMR spectrum of as-synthesized **DFB-CDP-3** exhibited two broad peaks at -142.4 and -159.2 ppm (Figure 1A). These chemical shifts are similar to those found in the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of model compound 1a obtained in solution (δ = -142.9 and -159.0 ppm). This observation indicates that the DFB-CDP polymers are linked mostly by 4,4'-disubstituted decafluorobiphenyl groups. The spectrum of as-synthesized DFB-CDP-3 also exhibits a shoulder around -164.0 ppm, which corresponds to the fluorines adjacent to the phenol in the neutral form of 2b (2b', δ = -163.3 ppm, Figure S1). Upon treatment of DFB-CDP-3 with K₂CO₃ to deprotonate the as-synthesized polymer, the chemical shifts of the shoulder shifted to -172.4 ppm, and a similar shift was observed in the solution spectrum of 2b upon deprotonation (δ = -171.4 ppm, Figure S1). These observations suggest that the shoulder corresponds to fluorines on phenolated aryl rings that are incorporated into DFB-CDP-3. Notably, the shoulder at -172.4 ppm is much less prominent in the spectrum of the less-phenolated DFB-CDP-1 (Figure 1B), which is consistent with the loadings determined by ICP-OES.

PFOA Adsorption in Nanopure Water by DFB-CDPs. The degree of phenolation incorporated into DFB-CDPs was inversely associated with their PFOA equilibrium removal percentage. The PFOA removal efficiency of each sample was characterized in a batch experiment using $[PFOA]_0$ of 1 µg L⁻¹ in nanopure water, and [DFB-CDP] of 10 mg L⁻¹. Each adsorbent was sieved to between 20 µm and 45 µm to minimize differences in adsorption behavior that can be attributed to differences in particle sizes. Each of the DFB-**CDPs** adsorbs PFOA under these conditions and exhibits similar adsorption kinetics when comparing the rates of adsorption using Ho and McKay's pseudo-second-order adsorption model (Figure 2).¹⁹ The values of k_{obs} from 0 to 6 h are 34.0, 30.4 and 39.3 g mg⁻¹ h⁻¹ for **DFB**and CDP-1, DFB-CDP-2 **DFB-CDP-3** respectively. **DFB-CDP-1** removed $86.6 \pm$ 7.1% of PFOA at equilibrium, while DFB-CDP-2 and DFB-CDP-3 exhibited $68.2 \pm$ 1.5% and $65.0\pm2.1\%$ equilibrium removal of



Figure 2. Kinetics of PF**O**Aradsorption by three DFB-CDPs ([PFOA]₀ = 1 μ g L⁻¹; [DFB-CDP] = 10 mg L⁻¹) in nanopure water. Error bars: Standard deviation of 3 experiments.

Table 2

Adsorbent	Equilibrium Removal (%)	<i>k_{obs}</i> (g mg ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)
DFB-CDP-1	86.6±7.1	34.0
DFB-CDP-2	68.2±1.5	30.4
DFB-CDP-3	65.0±2.1	39.3

PFOA (**Table 2**). The average PFOA removal at equilibrium was inversely associated to the phenolation levels of DFB-CDPs 1-3. Therefore, through comparing three **DFB-CDPs** with similar crosslinking density and morphology, these experiments demonstrate that the thermodynamics of PFOA uptake by β -CD polymers are negatively influenced by the presence of phenolates.

Polymer Synthesis and Characterization of EPI-CDP and IEM-CDP. Two other β -CD-based polymers were prepared and evaluated to further understand how crosslinker chemistry influences PFASs adsorption. Epichlorohydrin-cyclodextrin polymer (**EPI-CDP, Scheme 1B**) was selected because it has been studied extensively as an alternative adsorbent and lacks hydrophobic crosslinkers.²⁰ Another β -CD polymer was prepared by modifying β -CD with 2-isocyanatoethyl

methacrylate (IEM), followed by radical polymerization of the methacrylate groups (IEM-CDP, Scheme 1C). IEM-CDP was designed as a more hydrophobic polymer that lacks perfluoroarene materials linkers. Both were formed insoluble. as water swellable solids with structural parameters given in the SI.

PFAS Adsorption Studies. The three **DFB-CDPs**, **EPI-CDP**, **IEM-CDP** were evaluated for their ability to remove a mixture of ten PFASs with different chain lengths and polar head groups. Six PFASs are perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids (PFCAs) with n = 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 carbons, three are perfluoroalkyl sulfonates (PFSAs)



Figure 3. Equilibrium adsorption of ten PFASs by five β -CDbased polymers in 1 mM pH 7.5 phosphate buffer ([PFAS]₀ = 1 μ g L⁻¹; [Adsorbent] = 10 mg L⁻¹). Error bars: Standard deviation of 3 experiments.

with n = 4, 6, and 8 carbons, and the tenth PFAS is an ammonium perfluoroalkyl ether carboxylate associated with the Chemours GenX process.

Batch experiments were performed to evaluate the equilibrium removal (contact time = 9 hours) of 1 µg L⁻¹ of each PFAS in the presence of each of the five CD-based adsorbents (10 mg L⁻¹) in a 1 mM phosphate buffer solution at pH 7.5 (Figure 3). DFB-CDP-1 performed the best and exhibited more than 70% removal of PFOA, PFNA, PFDA, PFHxS and PFOS, along with modest removal of some shorter-chain PFASs, with 5–40% equilibrium removal noted for PFBA, PFHxA, PFHpA, and PFBS. The trend of higher affinity for longer-chain PFASs was observed for all five β -CD-based polymers, indicating that the hydrophobic interaction between β -CD-based polymers and PFASs is affecting β-CD-based polymers' affinity for PFASs. Likewise, all five β-CD-based polymers exhibited better removal of perfluorosulfonic acids (PFSA) than perfluorocarboxylic acids (PFCA) with the same carbon number (except for PFBA and PFBS removal by EPI-CDP), which is consistent with the adsorption affinity of GAC, anion exchange resins, and other adsorbents for PFASs.²¹⁻²² Notably, none of the five β-CD-based polymers exhibited significant removal of GenX. Weiss-Errico and coworkers found that B-CD binds GenX two orders of magnitude more weakly than PFOA because of GenX's branched structure ($K_a = (7.45 \pm 4.27) \cdot 10^2$ M^{-1}), which is consistent with the poor removal of GenX by all five β -CD-based polymers observed here. Furthermore, the observation of poor GenX uptake suggests that β-CD is involved during the adsorption of the other PFASs.¹³

Among the three **DFB-CDP** polymers, **DFB-CDP-2** and **DFB-CDP-3** exhibited similar and lower equilibrium removal of several PFAS than **DFB-CDP-1**, including PFHpA, PFOA, PFNA, PFBS and PFHxS. This observation is consistent with the 1 μ g L⁻¹ PFOA adsorption results in nanopure water (**Figure 2**) and can be explained by more phenolated DFB incorporated into the polymer network of **DFB-CDP-2** and **DFB-CDP-3** than **DFB-CDP-1**. The other two β -CD-based polymers linked with epichlorohydrin (**EPI-CDP**) and 2-isocyanatoethyl methacrylate (**IEM-**

CDP) exhibited significantly lower removal for 8 out of 10 PFASs than the three DFB-CDPs, in which EPI-CDP had the poorest performance and removed no more than 50% of any PFAS at equilibrium. These results are informative considering that both EPI-CDP and IEM-CDP exhibited less negative zeta potential values at pH 7.5 than DFB-CDPs, with EPI-CDP being close to neutral, -1.29 ± 0.55 mV, and IEM-CDP being -9.16 ± 0.43 mV. This suggests that surface charge may be one important factor, but not the only factor that determines a β -CDbased polymer's affinity for anionic PFASs.

To further evaluate the role of surface charge on PFAS uptake, we repeated the PFAS experiments in a 1 mM phosphate buffer solution at pH 5.5. The surface charge of four of the five polymers (all except for EPI-CDP) became less negative at pH 5.5. All β -CD-based polymers exhibited improved removal for the



Figure 4. Comparison of equilibrium removal % for (A) PFOA and (B) PFHxS by five β -CD-based polymers at pH 7.5 (blue) and 5.5 (red). ([PFAS]₀ = 1 µg L⁻¹; [Adsorbent] = 10 mg L⁻¹; Matrix: 1 mM phosphate buffer). Error bars: Standard deviation of 3 experiments.

majority of the PFASs at pH 5.5 than at pH 7.5 (Figure S7). Figure 4 shows the comparison of equilibrium removal percentage of PFOA and PFHxS at pH 7.5 and pH 5.5 among the five polymers. Each polymer exhibited a broad-spectrum increase of PFAS removal when the pH was lowered from 7.5 to 5.5. The performance gain was largest for polymers that exhibited relatively poor removal of a particular PFAS at pH 7.5. For example, among the three **DFB-CDPs**, the increase in removal of PFOA at pH 5.5 was greater for DFB-CDP-2 and DFB-CDP-3. Similarly, the increase in removal of PFHxS at pH 5.5 was greater for DFB-CDP-2 and DFB-CDP-3. This further demonstrates the role that polymer surface charge plays in the removal of PFASs among structurally similar β -cyclodextrin polymers. The performance of the **EPI-CDP** polymer also increased at pH 5.5 despite more subtle changes in the surface charge. For example, the surface charge of EPI-CDP is -1.29 ± 0.55 mV and -0.87 ± 0.23 mV at pH 7.5 and 5.5, respectively. These results suggest that the enhanced removal of PFASs at lower pH is not only due to the protonation of β -CD-based polymers' functional groups, but other factors such as the chemical nature of the PFAS. Moreover, despite the fact that **EPI-CDP** exhibited better removal of PFAS at pH 5.5, the performance of EPI-CDP remains modest, with removal of all PFAS except PFOS remaining less than 50% (Figure S7). This further demonstrates that other properties of β -CD-based polymers are affecting their affinity to PFAS besides surface charge. Taken together, our data suggests that an optimized microenvironment around β-CD is essential for maximum affinity for PFASs, which is the combination of crosslinker chemistry, crosslinking density,¹⁷ and surface charge.

Conclusions

Three decafluorobiphenyl β -CD crosslinked polymers with similar crosslinking density and different amounts of phenolated decafluorobiphenyl incorporated into the polymer network were synthesized. Both zeta potential measurement and ¹⁹F MAS NMR of the three polymers are consistent with the presence and concentrations of phenolated decafluorobiphenyl in the polymer network. **DFB-CDP-1**, the polymer with the lowest phenolate concentration, exhibited the highest

affinity for PFOA in nanopure water, and for 10 PFASs in buffered solutions as well. These findings suggest that negative charges around β -CD hinder the capture of negatively charged PFASs. Two other β -CD-based polymers with different crosslinkers, epichlorohydrin and 2-isocyanatoethyl methacrylate, were synthesized and showed inferior affinity compared to **DFB-CDPs** for 8 out of 10 PFASs. This finding indicates that other properties of β -CD-based polymers besides zeta potential will affect their affinity for PFASs, such as the chemical nature of the crosslinker and the crosslinking density. Finally, this study demonstrates that the affinity of β -CD-based polymer adsorbents to certain micropollutants can be tuned through the judicious modification of their composition.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. The Supporting Information is available from the *ChemRxiv* preprint server.

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Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): W.R.D. And D.E.H. own equity and/or stock options in CycloPure Inc., which is commercializing materials related to those reported in this work.

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