

## A Simple and Sensitive Portable System for a Rapid Evaluation of Bisphenol A Contamination in Potable and Environmental Waters Using a Mesoporous Silica-Modified Carbon Paste Electrode

Journal:	International Journal of Environmental Analytical Chemistry
Manuscript ID	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Original Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
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Keywords:	Bisphenol A, mesostructured sensor, potable water, environmental water

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# A Simple and Sensitive Portable System for a Rapid Evaluation of Bisphenol A Contamination in Potable and Environmental Waters Using a Mesoporous Silica-Modified Carbon Paste Electrode

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### Abstract

In this work, two ordered mesoporous silicas (HMS and SBA-15) were prepared and incorporated into carbon paste electrodes (CPEs) to obtain mesostructured sensors for a rapid determination of bisphenol A (BPA) in waters by voltammetric techniques. The materials were characterized by nitrogen adsorption-desorption measurements, transmission electron microscopy and scanning electron microscopy. The electrochemical properties of the modified carbon paste electrodes were studied by differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV). Results showed that the sensor modified with HMS (HMS-CPE) exhibited strong adsorption activity toward the oxidation of BPA, with a well-defined voltammetric peak at + 0.6 V. Moreover, the HMS-CPE exhibited a wider linearity range, from 0.25 to 4.4 µM BPA, with a detection limit of 61 nM (S/N = 3) and good reproducibility by DPV. The enhanced performance of the HMS-CPE could be attributed to its high surface area, with a 3 D wormhole-like channel structure that favored an excellent accessibility, high adsorption capacity and faster adsorption rate of BPA. This novel sensor was coupled to a portable system and successfully applied for a rapid determination of BPA in tap, mineral, well and river water samples with good recovery, ranging from 98 to 103%.

Keywords: Bisphenol A; mesostructured sensor; potable water; environmental water

## 1. Introduction

Bisphenol A (BPA) is an endocrine disruptor that mimics endogenous estrogens [1] widely used in the production of polycarbonates plastic and epoxy resins that are used in many food containers and packing materials. BPA present a problem of migration into the environment and food attributed to the leakage of residual monomers from polycarbonate plastic and epoxy resins, by process of heating or exposure to acid or basic conditions. Recent toxicological studies revealed that the exposure to BPA has increased through food and waters and this is potentially harmful to human health, even at very low concentration [2]. For these reasons, it is essential to develop simple, selective and sensitive methods for a rapid monitoring of BPA in environmental water samples.

For BPA determination in environmental samples liquid and gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry detection have been currently employed [3, 4]. These analytical techniques can achieve high sensitivity, selectivity and good precision, but they are expensive techniques that require a laborious sample pre-treatment, making them unsuitable for onsite rapid monitoring. In comparison, electrochemical techniques are less expensive and present fast response speed, simple operation, high sensitivity, selectivity and the possibility to perform analysis *in-situ* [5]. Additionally, nanomaterials offer unique chemical, physical, optical, catalytic and electronics properties and present an excellent alternative for sensors research [6]. In the field of environmental monitoring, nanomaterials-based sensors showed a great potential in the determination of trace contaminant [7]. Some examples of nanomaterials-based sensors for monitoring BPA and other endocrine disruptor compounds in environmental samples include, mesoporous silicas [8, 9], carbon nanotubes [10, 11], gold nanoparticles, silk fibroin and dendrimers [12, 13]. Nanomaterials, with large surface area, high surface reactivity and strong

adsorption capacity, favor the efficient capture of the target analytes or amplify the signal associated with detection.

In this sense, ordered mesoporous silicas (OMS) can be effectively exploited to develop modified carbon paste electrodes (OMS-CPEs) for voltammetric detection. They possess unique properties such as large BET surface area, high porosity, controllable and narrowly distributed pore size, and ordered pore arrangement that display a high sensitivity attributed to a better preconcentration efficiency, a better accessibility to the binding sites and faster diffusion processes of the target analyte relative to OMS [14, 15]. Additionally, these types of electrodes have other advantages such as non-toxicity, surface renewal, very low background currents and easy fabrication. For all these reasons, these modified electrodes represent an excellent alternative for environmental monitoring of organic and heavy metal pollutants. For example, different OMS have been used to develop OMS-CPEs in order to improve the sensitive detection of BPA [8], diethylstilbestrol [9], *o*-nitrophenol [16], aminophenol isomers [17], copper [18], lead [19, 20] and mercury [21, 22] in environmental water samples, among others.

In the present work, firstly two ordered mesoporous silicas including HMS and SBA-15 type were evaluated and compared to develop OMS-CPEs. The effect of different morphology, surface area, pore volume and diameter of these materials was studied for voltammetric detection of BPA in aqueous medium by differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV). Secondly, factors affecting the detection of BPA were investigated employing HMS-CPE and, in the optimal operating parameters, the electrode performance was evaluated (linearity, detection and quantification limits, precision and selectivity). The HMS-CPE was used for BPA determination in tap, mineral, well and river waters with very good recoveries.

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## 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Chemicals and Reagents

For ordered mesoporous silicas preparation (SBA-15 and HMS), tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS, 98%, M = 208.33 g/mol, d = 0.934 Kg/m<sup>3</sup>), poly(ethylene glycol)-block-poly(propylene glycol)-blockpolyethylene glycol Pluronic 123 ( $M_{av}$  = 5800 g/mol, d = 1.019 Kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and dodecylamine (DDA) 98% (M = 185.36 g/mol) were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (Spain). Chlorhydric acid 37% (M = 35.45 g/mol, d = 1.19 10<sup>-3</sup> g/mL) and ethanol absolute (M = 46.07 g/mol, d = 0.79 g/mL) were purchased from Panreac (Spain). Water (resistivity 18.2 M $\Omega$  cm) used in the preparation of solutions was obtained from a Millipore Milli-Q-System (Waters, USA).

For OMS-CPEs and electrochemical studies, BPA (+99% purity), glacial acetic acid (99.99% purity) and mineral oil were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Química SL (Madrid). KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> of analytical grade (99.5% purity) and ethanol were obtained from Scharlau (Sentmenat, Barcelona). NaCl (99% purity), NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>·12H<sub>2</sub>O (99-102% purity), CH<sub>3</sub>-COONa x 3H<sub>2</sub>O (99-101% purity) and H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> of analytical grade were obtained from Panreac (Madrid). Graphite powder was obtained from Sugelabor (Metrohm, Madrid, No 6.2801.000). The solvent used for all electrochemical studies was ultrapure water (18.2 M $\Omega$ ·cm) obtained from a Millipore Milli-Q-System (Merck, Madrid).

BPA was dissolved in ethanol to prepare a 0.01 M standard solution and stored at 4 °C. For electrochemical studies a working solution of BPA (10  $\mu$ M) was prepared daily by diluting the standard solutions with the corresponding electrolyte. For linearity determination, working solutions of BPA from 0.4 to 4.4  $\mu$ M were prepared directly in the electrochemical cell by adding successive aliquots of BPA 0.01 M.

#### 2.2 Real water samples

A drinking water sample was collected from a running water tap in Madrid (Canal de Isabel II) and used immediately. Mineral water (Lanjarón, Sierra Nevada, Granada), river water (Jarama river, Madrid) and well water (collected in Fuente del Fresno, San Sebastián de los Reyes, Madrid) were filtered through a 0.45 µm membrane filter (Millipore Membrane filters, 0.45 µm HA) to remove suspended particles and stored, in polyethylene bottles, at -20 °C prior to use. Only, for mineral and river water, the pH was adjusted at 8 with NaOH (0.1 M) prior to voltammetric determination of BPA.

#### 2.3 Instruments

For electrochemical studies with CPEs, differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were performed on a hand-held, battery-powered Bipotentiostat model µSTAT200 (Dropsens, Spain) using a conventional voltammetry cell equipped with three electrodes: a OMS-CPE as working electrode, a saturated Ag/AgCl as reference electrode and a platinum wire (Metrohm) as auxiliary electrode. A PC with DropView software for Windows was used to control the instrument, plot the measurements and perform the analysis of results. All measurements were made at room temperature. A pH-Meter model Basic 20 (Crison Instruments) was used to adjust the pH of electrolyte supporting.

#### 2.4 Synthesis of ordered mesoporous silicas

HMS mesoporous silica was synthesized following the method described by Pérez-Quintanilla *et al.* [23] Briefly, 3 g of DDA were dissolved in 13 mL of Milli-Q water and 7.6 mL of ethanol. The solution was stirred until its homogenization, and subsequently 4.2 g of TEOS were added drop by drop. The solution was stirred for 18 h, yielding a Page 7 of 30

thick white suspension that was filtered and dried at 80 °C for 1 h. The amine was removed by heating the solid at reflux in ethanol with a Soxhlet for 8 h. Finally, the rests of surfactant were removed by calcination at 550 °C for 18 h. SBA-15 mesoporous silica was prepared according to the method of Zhao *et al.* [24] as follows: 2.42 g of Pluronic 123 were dissolved in 72 g of 2 M HCl solution and 18 mL of Milli-Q water with stirring at 35 °C. Then, 5.1 g of TEOS were slowly added, and the resulting mixture was stirred at the same temperature for 20 h. After this reaction time, the stirring was stopped and the temperature was increased to 80 °C and maintained for 24 h. The solid product was recovered by filtration and washed with water. Then, it was calcined at 500 °C for 18 h. Table 1 shows the main characterization data for the prepared materials.

## 2.5 Characterization of mesoporous silicas

Nitrogen gas adsorption-desorption isotherms were performed using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 analyzer. Elemental analysis (% H, % C and % N) were performed using a microanalyser model LECO CHNS-932. The thermal stability of the modified nanostructured silicas was studied using a Setsys 18 A (Setaram) thermogravimetric analyzer with a 100  $\mu$ L platinum crucible. A synthetic air atmosphere was used and the temperature increased from 25 °C to 800 °C at a speed of 10 °C per minute. Conventional transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on a TECNAI 20 Philips microscope operating at 200 kV, with a resolution of 0.27 nm and  $\pm$  70° of sample inclination, using a BeO sample holder. Scanning electron micrographs (SEM) and morphological analysis were carried out on a XL30 ESEM Philips with an energy-dispersive spectrometry system (EDS). The samples were treated with a sputtering method with the following parameters: sputter time 100 s, sputter current 30 mA, and film thickness 20 nm using sputter coater BAL-TEC SCD 005.

#### 2.6 Preparation of ordered mesoporous silica modified CPEs

OMS-CPEs were prepared according to a previous work [20] by mixing 0.100 g (20% w/w) of the OMS (HMS or SBA-15) with 0.300 g (60% w/w) of carbon paste. Then, 0.100 g (20% w/w) of mineral oil were added to the mixture and mixed until obtain a uniform paste (HMS-CPE or SBA-15-CPE). The so obtained materials were packed into the end of a 5.0 cm long polyethylene tube (i.d. 3 mm), with a metallic wire as inner electrical contact. Appropriate packing was achieved by pushing the electrodes surfaces against a sheet of paper (this procedure also helps to eliminate the excess of mineral oil). Smoothing of the electrode surface was made by hand-polishing on a filter paper. When necessary, new electrode surface was obtained by replacing the wetted paste by freshly prepared uniform paste and polishing them again on a filter paper. For comparative purpose, an unmodified CPE was prepared according to the same procedure. All freshly-made electrodes were activated by performing 2–3 cycles of DPV until the background was stable. This activation process was realized all days prior to use them.

### 2.7 Voltammetric measurements

All electrochemical studies with OMS-CPEs were accomplished by DPV and CV. Unless otherwise stated, a 0.1 M acetate buffer (pH 8.0) was used as electrolyte support for BPA determination. After open-circuit accumulation of BPA for 3 min with stirring at 300 rpm, DPV were recorded from 0.0 to  $\pm 0.8$  V and the oxidation peak of BPA around  $\pm 0.6$  V was measured. The pulse amplitude was 50 mV with a potential step height of 5 mV, the pulse width was 40 ms and the scan rate was 100 mV/s. Cyclic voltamperograms were recorded from 0.0 to  $\pm 0.8$  V at different scan rates. After each measurement, to ensure that BPA was not present on the electrode surface, regeneration of the electrode was

performed by 2–3 cycles of DPV. Each measurement was performed in triplicate and the average value was reported.

## **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 3.1 Characterization of mesostructured silicas

The physicochemical properties of the mesostructured silicas such as the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller surface area ( $S_{BET}$ ), the total pore volume, and the Barrett, Joyner and Halenda (BJH) average pore diameter are shown in Table 1. Both HMS and SBA-15 materials possessed very high  $S_{BET}$ , with typical pore volume and average BJH pore diameter values for surfactant-assembled mesostructures. HMS was the material with the highest  $S_{BET}$ , but with a small pore diameter (962 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and 32 Å, respectively), while SBA-15 was the material with the lowest  $S_{BET}$  and the highest pore diameter (764 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and 49 Å, respectively).

The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms for mesostructured silicas are shown in Fig. 1 (A and B). For both HMS and SBA-15 materials the isotherms were type IV according to the I.U.P.A.C. classification and had a narrow hysteresis loop representative of mesoporous solids (pore width between 2 and 50 nm). SBA-15 showed a H1 hysteresis loop, which is indicative of uniform cylindrical pores, while HMS showed a H2 hysteresis loop, which is indicative of wormhole-like pores. The volume adsorbed for both isotherms increased sharply at a relative pressure ( $P/P_0$ ) at 0.4 for HMS and 0.5 for SBA-15, what represents capillary condensation of nitrogen within the mesopore structure. As it can be seen in Fig. 1 (C and D), narrow pore size distribution was found for SBA-15, what provides evidence for uniform framework mesoporosity while as in HMS, the capillary condensation/evaporation step was not very sharp, and therefore the pore size was not too uniform, with more than one maximum in the pore sized distribution.

Evidence for disordered structure of HMS was confirmed by TEM. These micrographs (Fig. 2 A) showed irregularly aligned mesopores throughout the materials with relatively uniform pore sizes (wormhole-like pore arrangement). On the other hand, TEM images of SBA-15 (Fig. 2 B and C) demonstrated a clear arrangement of ordered hexagonal pores with uniform size throughout the structure. SEM pictures demonstrated the spherical morphology of HMS particles (Fig. 2 D) with mean diameters around 1.7  $\mu$ m while for SBA-15 (Fig. 2 E) the particle morphology was rod-like (1 x 0.4  $\mu$ m).

# 3.2 Electrochemical performance of BPA on ordered mesoporous silica modified CPEs The electrochemical behaviour of OMS-CPEs and unmodified CPE was investigated for BPA determination (10 $\mu$ M) by DPV at different accumulation time (0, 2 and 5 min) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7). Table 2 shows the peak current and potential obtained in all tested conditions. As it can be seen, with unmodified CPE any oxidation peak for BPA was obtained in the experimental conditions assayed (Fig. 3A), whereas with OMS-CPEs a well-defined oxidation peak was obtained, around + 0.6 V, for BPA. This fact can be attributed to the large surface area, specific porous networks and narrow pore size distribution of the OMS, which ensure numerous adsorption sites for BPA and a fast mass transport process. As it can be seen in Table 2, the peak high obtained with SBA-15-CPE was very low, suggesting that the adsorption process of BPA on this material was very poor, whereas with HMS-CPE a very high peak was obtained, indicating that with this OMS the adsorption process of BPA on the electrode surface was more effective. With both OMS-CPEs, the oxidation peak of BPA increased by increasing the accumulation time, demonstrating an efficient accumulation of BPA into the silica structure that greatly enhances the oxidation signal. In addition, Fig. 3B shows the DPVs obtained with HMS-CPE in the absence and presence of BPA at different accumulation time. Without BPA,

no oxidation peak was observed that confirmed that the oxidation peak obtained was due to the oxidation of BPA. In addition, the neutral and extensively cross-linked character of the HMS framework allows the efficient and environmentally benign recovery of the costintensive template by simple solvent extraction. Therefore, HMS is a promising material to develop CPE for the determination of BPA in waters and was considered a best alternative to other mesoporous silicas such as SBA-15. This fact was confirmed in the present work since with HMS-CPE the accumulation of BPA was most effective, improving the sensitivity in the determination of BPA. Thus, in comparison with SBA-15, the wormhole-like structure of HMS with a higher surface area and spherical morphology (Table 1) favoured the adsorption and mass transport process of BPA toward the electrode.

HMS was reported for the first time by Tanev and Pinnavaia [25] as a neutral templating route to prepare mesoporous silica, based on hydrogen bonding and self-assembly between neutral primary amine micelles and neutral inorganic precursors. This templating route produces mesostructures with thicker pore walls, which improve the stability of the mesopore framework. In HMS, a substantial fraction of  $(SiO)_3Si-OH$  groups are incorporated in the thicker pore walls, instead of being located exclusively at channel surfaces [26]. Moreover, the smaller particle sizes with spherical morphology provide better access to the wormlike-framework-confined mesopores in adsorption processes [27]. The influence of the scan rate on BPA oxidation in the CPE modified with HMS was investigated by CV. Fig. 4 shows the CVs obtained for HMS-CPE in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7) containing BPA 10  $\mu$ M with a scan rate ranging from 0.05 to 0.2 V/s. Only an oxidation peak was observed, indicating that the oxidation process of BPA was totally irreversible. In addition, the oxidation peak current of BPA increased by increasing the scan rate. As it can be seen in Fig. 4 (inset), the oxidation peak current ( $\mu$ A) was linearly proportional to the scan rate (V/s). The regression equation was  $I_p = 116.0 v + 4.0 (R^2 = 0.9836)$ . This equation indicated that the electro-oxidation of BPA on the surface of the modified CPE was an adsorption-controlled process.

#### 3.3 Optimization of detection of BPA on HMS modified CPE

### 3.3.1 Effect of pH

The voltammetric response of BPA (10  $\mu$ M) detection (two minutes of accumulation time) was studied in different media as electrolyte support phosphate buffer and acetate buffer 0.1 M, at pH ranging from 5 to 8. Fig. 5 shows the effect of electrolyte support and pH on the oxidation peak current obtained for BPA. When the pH value increased from 5 to 6, the oxidation peak current of BPA increased in phosphate buffer whereas decreased in acetate buffer. From pH 6 to 8, the oxidation peak current of BPA also improved gradually with acetate buffer, whereas with phosphate buffer the peak current was similar. Higher values of pH were not tested since at these values the stability of the OMS and activity of the electrodes decreased. As it can be seen in Fig. 5, the highest sensitivity in the determination of BPA was obtained employing acetate buffer as electrolyte support (pH 8) with the lower signal noise. The background current was relatively low and the oxidation peak was well shaped. In consequence, acetate buffer at pH 8 was selected as electrolyte support for BPA determination. In addition, the oxidation peak potential of BPA shifts negatively with increasing pH value, indicating that the proton takes part in the oxidation process of BPA, so when pH value increases, the electrochemical oxidation of BPA becomes easy and the peak current increases.

#### 3.3.2 Effect of accumulation time

 The effect of the accumulation time on the voltammetric response of BPA was studied using 0.1 M acetate buffer at pH 8 as electrolyte support. Fig. 6 shows the variation of oxidation peak current of BPA with the accumulation time at two concentration values. Accumulation of the analyte in the electrode surface is a widely used and efficiency way to improve the sensitivity of the detection step. As it can be seen in Fig. 6, peak currents ( $\mu$ A) increased proportionally with accumulation time (min), from 1 to 6 min at 1  $\mu$ M concentration ( $R^2$  = 0.988) and from 1 to 3 min at 10  $\mu$ M concentration ( $R^2$  = 0.945). These results confirmed that the accumulation time improved the surface amount of BPA and then enhanced the oxidation peak. At low concentration level of BPA, the HMS-CPE surface it is not easily saturated, whereas at high concentration level, the saturation of the electrode surface was obtained at 3 min of accumulation time. For a rapid analysis of BPA, a 3 min accumulation time was found to be sufficient for the BPA determination, but longer time (6 min) may be required in samples with very low BPA concentration.

## 3.4 Analytical performance of HMS modified CPE

Under optimized conditions, different concentrations (M) of BPA are measured by DPV after 3 min accumulation time. It was found that the oxidation peak current ( $\mu$ A) of BPA was proportional to its concentration over the range from 0.25 to 4.4  $\mu$ M with the following equation:  $I_p = 77665 \text{ C} + 0.0282 (R^2 = 0.9958)$ .

The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) were determinate as the concentration of BPA that would give a signal 3 or 10 times the background noise, respectively. The background noise was measured under the optimized conditions. After 3 min of accumulation time the LOD and LOQ were 0.061  $\mu$ M and 0.22  $\mu$ M, respectively. It is well known that in CPE modified with silica materials the LOD improves significantly when the preconcentration time increases. It is interesting to note that very

low LOD was obtained with a relatively low accumulation time (3 min). At low concentration level of BPA, LOD can be improved increasing the accumulation time. Thus, after 6 min the LOD was  $0.042 \mu$ M.

The developed HMS-CPE showed very good reproducibility for BPA detection. For a single electrode surface (six consecutive determinations) the RSD for the detection of 0.2  $\mu$ M of BPA solution after 3 min accumulation time was less than 5%. For a ten different electrode surfaces, used in different days, the RSD was less than 8% (three determinations for each electrode surface). In addition, the stability of the HMS-CPE was studied by measuring the electrode response of BPA for 3 months using the electrode surface was polished and a new electrode, which maintains the initial oxidation peak current, was used. The good stability and reproducibility of the HMS-CPE could be attributed to the mesoporous framework stability of the HMS material.

Finally, a systematic study was carried out to evaluate the interference of other endocrine disruptors on the determination of BPA. The oxidation peak of 0.2  $\mu$ M BPA solution in the absence and in the presence of different interferences was measured. It was found that 10  $\mu$ M of  $\beta$ -estradiol, 10  $\mu$ M of estriol and 10  $\mu$ M of testosterone did not influence on the BPA determination (the peak current reduction was lower than 10%). On the other hand, 10  $\mu$ M of progesterone and 10  $\mu$ M of dienestrol produced an important reduction in the BPA peak current (near to 50%), interfering BPA analysis.

#### 3.5 Analytical application of HMS modified CPE for BPA determination in waters

To evaluate the performance of the developed HMS-CPE, by practical analytical applications, it was coupled to a portable system by a rapid determination of BPA in tap, mineral, river and groundwater samples, without any pre-treatment. The BPA

concentration was determined by the standard addition method to compensate the matrix effect from real waters. Accuracy was assessed by recovery test and BPA was added to the water samples to achieve a final concentration of 0.88  $\mu$ M (three times lower than the specific migration limit marked by the European Commission, 0.6 mg/Kg). As it can be seen in Table 3, the average recovery was 98 ± 12% for tap water, 103 ± 7% for river water, 103 ± 7% for underground water and 102 ± 6% for mineral water, suggesting that the HMS-CPE developed can be used for practical, rapid and simple analysis of BPA in potable and environmental waters.

Table 4 show other electrochemical methods previously published for the determination of BPA in waters using different modifiers to prepare the CPEs (by mixing). The modified CPE prepared by Yu *et al.* [28] using  $\beta$ -cyclodextrin modified with ionic liquid as modifier presented a lower sensitivity (LOD =  $0.083 \mu$ M, 5 min accumulation time). On the other hand, compared with the CPE modified with MCM-41 mesoporous silica developed by Wang, Yang and Wu [8], the HMS-CPE possesses a similar sensitivity and precision between different sensors but a better recovery for all waters analysed. In addition, another advantage of HMS versus MCM-41 is that the neutral and extensively cross-linked character of the HMS framework allows the efficient and environmentally benign recovery of the cost-intensive template by simple solvent extraction. Furthermore, the HMS-CPE development in this work has been used in portable analysers for *in situ* monitorization of BPA in environmental waters. Finally, a recent work published by Ghanam et al. [29] present a comparative study of several electrochemical carbonaceous CPEs based on graphite, carbon black, multiwall carbon nanotubes and glassy carbon to quantify BPA. The LODs values obtained were comprised between 0.12 and 0.8 µM, for all tested electrodes, so the LOD value obtained with the HMS-CPE developed in this work (0.061 µM after 3 min accumulation time) was lower.

## 4. Conclusions

Ordered mesoporous silicas are an intelligent solution to prepare electrochemical sensors because, its high surface area, high porosity, controllable and narrowly distributed pore size and ordered pore arrangement. In this study, we have demonstrated that a carbon paste electrode modified with HMS is a excellent option to determine BPA in potable and environmental waters. The electrode prepared has as main advantages: an adequate LOD (0.061  $\mu$ M after 3 min accumulation time) that can be increased increasing the accumulation time, a very good stability during 3 months using the electrode every day, reproducibility and a better recovery for tap, mineral, river and groundwater samples. Thus the electrode developed in this work has a great potential to be used in portable analysers for monitoring BPA in water samples.

## **Conflict of interest**

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare

# Acknowledgments

Authors thank financial support from the Comunidad de Madrid and European funding from FEDER program (Project S2013/ABI-3028, AVANSECAL).

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 Table 1. Characterization data for two ordered mesoporous silicas.

0.1.		Particle morphology	BET surface	BJH pore	Pore volume
Silica	Channel structure	(size, µm)	area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	diameter (Å)	$(cm^{3}/g)$
HMS	3 D Wormhole-like	Spherical (1.7)	962	32	0.88
SBA-15	2D hexagonal array	Rope-like (1 x 0.4)	764	49	0.74
		20			
		URL: http://mc.manuscrip	tcentral.com/geac		

**Table 2.** Peak current and potential obtained for BPA determination using unmodifiedCPE and OMS-CPEs at different accumulation times.

	Peak current ( $\mu$ A) $\pm$ SD <sup>a</sup>	Potential (V)					
	Without accumulation time						
Unmodified-CPE	-	-					
SBA-15-CPE	-	-					
HMS-CPE	$0.021 \pm 0.006$	0.63					
2 min accumulation time							
Unmodified-CPE	<b>•</b>	-					
SBA-15-CPE	$0.050 \pm 0.008$	0.61					
HMS-CPE	$0.26 \pm 0.05$	0.58					
5 min accumulation time							
Unmodified-CPE	- 72						
SBA-15-CPE	0.17 ± 0.07	0.61					
		0.50					

DPV recorded from 0.0 to +0.8 V in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7). Pulse amplitude: 50 mV, potential step height: 5 mV, pulse width: 40 ms, scan rate: 100 mV/s. BPA 10  $\mu$ M.

	Found	Spiked	Total found	Recovery	RSD
Sample <sup>a</sup>	(µM)	(µM)	(µM)	(%)	( <i>n</i> = 3)
Tap water	0.0	0.0	0.0		
	0.0	0.88	0.85	98	12
Mineral water	0.0	0.0	0.0		
	0.0	0.88	0.90	103	7
Well water	0.0	0.0	0.0		
	0.0	0.88	0.90	103	7
River water	0.0	0.0	0.0		
	0.0	0.88	0.89	102	6

Table 3. Recoveries obtained for BPA determination on a HMS-CPE in water samples.

<sup>a</sup>Tap water: Canal Isabel II, Madrid, mineral water: Lanjarón, Sierra Nevada, river water: Jarama river and well water: collected in Fuente del Fresno, San Sebastián de los Reyes. Experimental conditions: 0.1 M acetate buffer (pH 8) and three minutes of accumulation time. Other experimental conditions in are shown in Table 2.

Table 4. Comparison of CPE modified with HMS with others modified CPEs for BPA determination in waters.

Samula	Elastrada madifiar	Linear range	Detection limit	Accumulation	Precision <sup>a</sup>	% Recovery	Deference
Sample	Electrode modifier	[BPA, µM]	(µM)	time (min)	(RSD, %)	(RSD, %)	
Tap, mineral, river and	HMS <sup>b</sup>	0.25 to 4.4	0.061	3	8 (n=10)	98 to 103	This work
well water							
Tap and river waters and	β-CD/IL <sup>ь</sup>	0.1 to 11.0	0.083	5	5.1 (n=5)	96 to 103	25
packing materials							
Lake water	MCM-41 <sup>b</sup>	0.22 to 8.8	0.038	3	6.4 (n=10)	91 to 107	8
Precision determinate betw	veen different sensors.			),			
<sup>o</sup> Working electrode prepare	d by mixing.						
HMS: Hexagonal mesoporc	ous silica; β-CD/IL: β-	cyclodextrin mo	dified ionic liquid	; MCM-41: order	ed mesoporous	silica.	





1,0







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20

0

0

0.1

0.2

Peak current (µA)

60

50



Figure 5.





Figure 6.

# **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

**Figure 1.** N2 adsorption-desorption isotherms of HMS (A) and SBA-15 (B) and pore size distribution of HMS (C) and SBA-15 (D).

**Figure 2.** TEM imagens of HMS (A) and SBA-15 (B and C) mesoporous silicas and SEM imagens of HMS (D) and BSA-15 (E) mesoporous silicas.

**Figure 3**. (A) DPV of unmodified CPE and HMS-CPE for BPA (10  $\mu$ M) at 5 min of accumulation time. (B) DPV of HMS-CPE without BPA and with BPA (10  $\mu$ M) at different accumulation time. Other experimental conditions used are shown in Table 2.

**Figure 4**. CV obtained for BPA (10  $\mu$ M) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7) with HMS-CPE at different scan ratios. Inset shows the linear relationship of oxidation peak current versus scan rate. Pulse amplitude: 50 mV, potential step height: 5 mV, pulse with: 40 ms.

**Figure 5.** (A) Effect of electrolyte support and pH value on the peak current of BPA 10  $\mu$ M at HMS-CPE. (B) DPV of BPA in acetate buffer at different pH values. (C) DPV of BPA in phosphate buffer at different pH values. Other experimental conditions used are shown in Table 2.

**Figure 6.** Effect of accumulation time on the peak current of BPA at HMS-CPE. DPV in 0.1 M acetate buffer at pH 8. Other experimental conditions used are shown in Table 2.

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