

Biomedical Applications of Graphene Oxide: Progress and Challenges - A Comprehensive Review

Muhammad Haseeb Hassan¹, Hammad Sajjad², Muhammad Zubair²

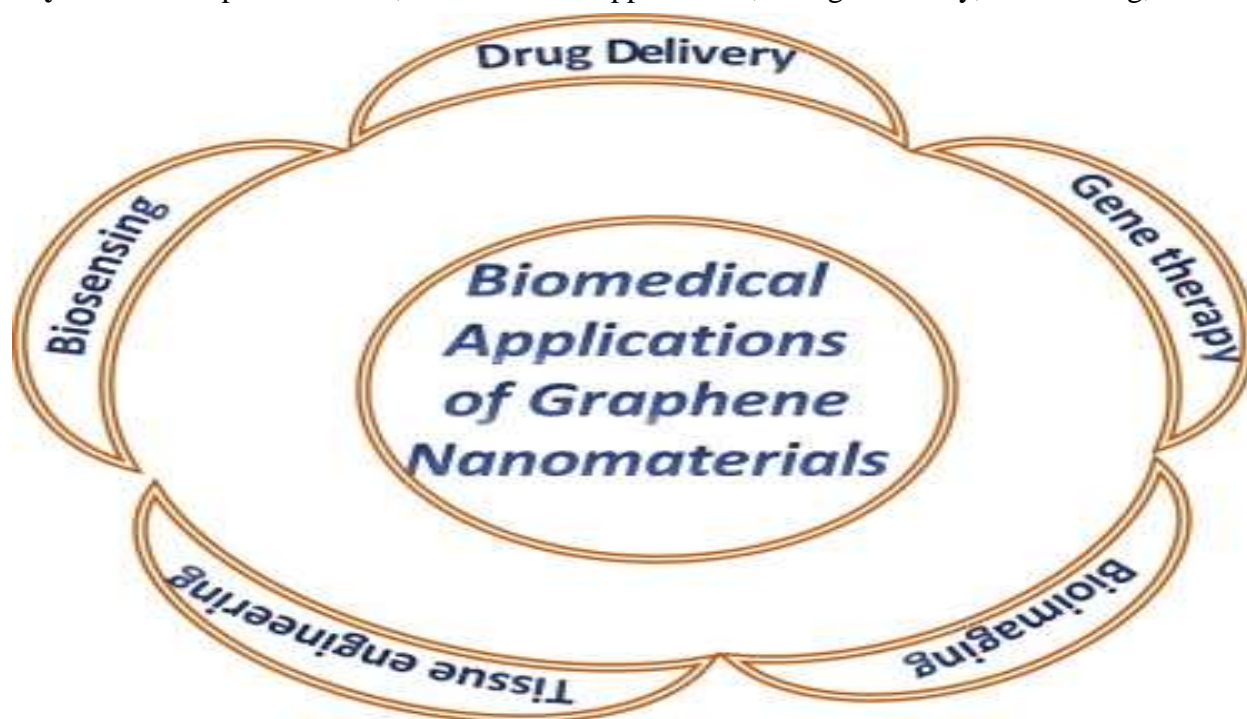
¹*Department of Chemistry, University of Agriculture Faisalabad, Punjab, Pakistan*

²*Institute of Chemical Sciences, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Punjab, Pakistan*

Abstract

Graphene oxide (GO) has emerged as a promising nanomaterial in biomedical applications due to its unique physicochemical properties. This comprehensive review article aims to provide an overview of the recent progress, challenges, and future perspectives in utilizing GO for various biomedical applications. We discuss the synthesis methods of GO, its physicochemical properties, and functionalization strategies to tailor its properties for biomedical applications. Furthermore, we delve into the diverse applications of GO in drug delivery, biosensing, tissue engineering, imaging, and cancer therapy, highlighting recent advances and breakthroughs. Challenges such as biocompatibility, toxicity, scalability, and regulatory concerns associated with GO-based biomedical applications are also critically analyzed. Finally, we provide insights into future directions and opportunities to overcome the current challenges and harness the full potential of GO in biomedical research and clinical applications.

Keywords: Graphene Oxide, Biomedical Applications, Drug Delivery, Biosensing, Tissue



Engineering, Imaging, Cancer Therapy, Challenges

Introduction

Graphene oxide (GO) has garnered significant attention in the field of biomedical applications due to its unique physicochemical properties and versatile functionalities. Initially derived from graphene, a single layer of carbon atoms arranged in a hexagonal lattice, GO is an oxidized form characterized by oxygen-containing functional groups such as hydroxyl, epoxide, and carboxyl groups, imparting hydrophilicity and increased solubility in water (Dreyer et al., 2010). These inherent properties make GO an attractive candidate for various biomedical applications, including drug delivery, biosensing, tissue engineering, and imaging.

Graphene oxide exhibits a two-dimensional structure with a high surface area to volume ratio, providing ample opportunities for functionalization and surface modification. The presence of oxygen functionalities not only enhances its aqueous solubility but also facilitates the conjugation of biomolecules through covalent or non-covalent interactions, enabling tailored designs for specific biomedical applications. Furthermore, the oxygen-containing groups endow GO with excellent biocompatibility, promoting cellular interactions and minimizing cytotoxicity concerns (Shen et al., 2012).

In addition to its chemical properties, GO possesses exceptional mechanical strength, electrical conductivity, and thermal stability, which are advantageous for biomedical applications. The mechanical robustness of

GO enables the fabrication of stable nanocomposites and scaffolds for tissue engineering, while its high electrical conductivity facilitates the development of biosensors with enhanced sensitivity and selectivity. Moreover, the thermal stability of GO enables its utilization in hyperthermia-based cancer therapy, wherein localized heating of tumor tissues is achieved upon exposure to near-infrared (NIR) radiation (Yang et al., 2013).

The unique combination of physicochemical properties renders GO a promising candidate for a myriad of biomedical applications. One of the key areas where GO demonstrates significant potential is drug delivery. The high surface area and functional groups of GO enable efficient loading and controlled release of therapeutic agents, thereby enhancing their bioavailability and therapeutic efficacy. Additionally, the ability to functionalize GO with targeting ligands facilitates site-specific delivery, reducing off-target effects and minimizing systemic toxicity (Nayak et al., 2011).

Furthermore, GO-based biosensors have emerged as powerful tools for sensitive and selective detection of various biomolecules, including proteins, nucleic acids, and small molecules. The inherent conductivity of GO, coupled with its large surface area, allows for the immobilization of biomolecules and subsequent transduction of binding events into measurable electrical signals (Zhang et al., 2020). Such biosensors hold immense potential for early diagnosis of diseases and monitoring of therapeutic responses,

contributing to personalized medicine and improved patient outcomes.

Moreover, GO finds applications in tissue engineering, wherein its biocompatibility, mechanical strength, and surface functionalization capabilities are exploited for the development of scaffolds and matrices that mimic the native extracellular environment. These GO-based constructs provide suitable substrates for cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation, facilitating tissue regeneration and repair. Additionally, the tunable properties of GO enable the incorporation of bioactive molecules and growth factors to further enhance tissue regeneration and modulate cellular behavior. Despite the remarkable progress in harnessing the potential of GO for biomedical applications, several challenges remain to be addressed. These include concerns regarding long-term biocompatibility, potential immunogenicity, and scalability of production methods. Furthermore, the precise control over GO properties, such as size, shape, and surface functionalization, is crucial for tailoring its behavior and interactions in biological systems (Robinson et al., 2011). Addressing these challenges requires interdisciplinary efforts encompassing materials science, chemistry, biology, and engineering, aimed at elucidating the underlying mechanisms governing the interactions between GO and biological systems.

Synthesis and Characterization of GO

Graphene Oxide (GO) synthesis methods play a pivotal role in determining the properties and subsequently the biomedical applications of GO-based materials. The

Hummers method, initially introduced in 1958 and later modified by Hummers and Offeman in 1958, remains one of the most widely used techniques for GO synthesis due to its simplicity and scalability (Hummers & Offeman, 1958). This method involves the oxidation of graphite flakes using strong oxidizing agents such as potassium permanganate (KMnO_4), followed by the exfoliation of the resulting graphite oxide into monolayers of GO through ultrasonication (Dreyer et al., 2010). Another prevalent approach is the Staudenmaier method, which employs a mixture of concentrated sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) and nitric acid (HNO_3) to oxidize graphite (Staudenmaier, 1898). However, the harsh reaction conditions and the generation of toxic gases limit its applicability in biomedical settings (Sharma et al., 2017).

Hydrothermal and solvothermal methods have gained attention as alternative approaches for synthesizing GO with improved structural integrity and reduced defects (Zhu et al., 2010). These methods involve the reaction of graphite oxide precursors in aqueous or organic solvents under elevated temperatures and pressures, leading to the formation of well-defined GO nanosheets (Park et al., 2008). Additionally, microwave-assisted synthesis has emerged as a rapid and energy-efficient technique for producing GO with enhanced chemical purity and yield (Lu et al., 2010).

Accurate characterization of GO is essential for understanding its physicochemical properties and tailoring its biomedical applications. Various analytical techniques

have been employed to characterize the structure, morphology, chemical composition, and surface properties of GO-based materials. Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) allows for the visualization of individual graphene oxide sheets and provides information regarding their size, shape, and layer thickness (Li et al., 2008). Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) complements TEM by offering high-resolution images of the surface morphology and topography of GO samples (Gao et al., 2011). Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) enables the precise measurement of GO thickness and surface roughness at the nanoscale level (Eda et al., 2010).

X-ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis is employed to investigate the crystal structure and degree of oxidation of GO. The characteristic peak at around 10-12° in the XRD pattern corresponds to the interlayer spacing of GO due to the presence of oxygen-containing functional groups (Dikin et al., 2007). Fourier Transform Infrared

Spectroscopy (FTIR) provides valuable insights into the chemical composition and bonding configurations of GO by detecting characteristic absorption bands associated with oxygen-containing functional groups, such as hydroxyl (-OH), epoxy (-C-O-C-), and carboxyl (-COOH) groups (Lerf et al., 1998). Raman spectroscopy serves as a powerful tool for probing the structural defects and degree of oxidation in GO. The D-band (disordered) and G-band (graphitic) peaks in the Raman spectrum of GO provide information about the presence of sp² carbon domains and sp³ carbon atoms resulting from structural defects and functionalization (Ferrari & Robertson, 2000). Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA) allows for the quantitative determination of the thermal stability and mass loss of GO upon heating, providing insights into its purity and degree of oxidation (Zhang et al., 2010).

Table 1: Graphene Oxide (GO) Synthesis Methods

Synthesis Method	Description	References
Hummers Method	Oxidation of graphite flakes using strong oxidizing agents such as potassium permanganate (KMnO ₄), followed by the exfoliation of the resulting graphite oxide into monolayers of GO through ultrasonication.	Hummers & Offeman (1958); Dreyer et al. (2010)
Staudenmaier Method	Employing a mixture of concentrated sulfuric acid (H ₂ SO ₄) and nitric acid (HNO ₃) to oxidize graphite. However, harsh reaction conditions and the generation of toxic gases limit its applicability	Staudenmaier (1898); Sharma et al. (2017)

in biomedical settings.

Hydrothermal/Solvothermal Methods	Involves the reaction of graphite oxide precursors in aqueous or organic solvents under elevated temperatures and pressures, leading to the formation of well-defined GO nanosheets.	Zhu et al. (2010); Park et al. (2008)
Microwave-Assisted Synthesis	A rapid and energy-efficient technique for producing GO with enhanced chemical purity and yield.	Lu et al. (2010)

Table 2: Analytical Techniques for Characterizing Graphene Oxide (GO)

Technique	Description	References
Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)	Allows visualization of individual graphene oxide sheets, providing information about size, shape, and layer thickness.	Li et al. (2008)
Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	Offers high-resolution images of the surface morphology and topography of GO samples, complementing TEM analysis.	Gao et al. (2011)
Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)	Enables precise measurement of GO thickness and surface roughness at the nanoscale level.	Eda et al. (2010)
X-ray Diffraction (XRD)	Investigates the crystal structure and degree of oxidation of GO, identifying characteristic peaks corresponding to interlayer spacing.	Dikin et al. (2007)
Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)	Provides insights into the chemical composition and bonding configurations of GO through characteristic absorption bands.	Lerf et al. (1998)
Raman Spectroscopy	Probes structural defects and degree of oxidation in GO, with characteristic peaks indicating the presence of sp^2 and sp^3 carbon domains.	Ferrari & Robertson (2000)
Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA)	Quantitatively determines the thermal stability and mass loss of GO upon heating, offering insights into	Zhang et al. (2010)

Functionalization of Graphene Oxide (GO) for Biomedical Applications

Graphene oxide (GO) has emerged as a promising material in the biomedical field due to its unique physicochemical properties such as large surface area, excellent mechanical strength, and biocompatibility. However, its inherent hydrophobicity and lack of specific functional groups limit its direct use in biological systems. Functionalization of GO through surface modification and bioconjugation strategies has been extensively explored to tailor its properties for various biomedical applications. Surface modification of GO involves the introduction of functional groups onto its surface to enhance its biocompatibility, solubility, and stability in physiological environments. One of the commonly used methods for surface modification is the chemical functionalization of GO through covalent bonding or non-covalent interactions. Covalent functionalization involves the attachment of functional groups such as amino (-NH₂), carboxyl (-COOH), hydroxyl (-OH), or epoxy (-O-) groups to the GO surface using chemical reactions. For instance, the reaction between GO and amine-containing molecules like ethylenediamine or amino acids results in the formation of amide bonds, leading to the introduction of amino groups onto the GO surface (Park et al., 2011).

Non-covalent functionalization relies on π - π stacking, hydrophobic interactions, or

electrostatic interactions between GO and functional molecules such as polymers, proteins, or nucleic acids. For example, wrapping GO with biocompatible polymers like polyethylene glycol (PEG) or chitosan enhances its dispersibility in aqueous solutions and reduces its cytotoxicity, making it suitable for biomedical applications (Liu et al., 2013).

Bioconjugation of GO involves the attachment of biomolecules such as proteins, peptides, DNA, or antibodies onto its surface to impart specific biological functionalities or targeting capabilities. Various strategies have been developed for the bioconjugation of GO, including covalent bonding, non-covalent interactions, and click chemistry. Covalent bioconjugation typically involves the functionalization of GO with reactive groups that can react with functional groups present on biomolecules. For instance, GO can be functionalized with amine or carboxyl groups, which can then react with the amino or carboxyl groups of biomolecules using coupling agents such as N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-N'-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC) and N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) (Chen et al., 2012).

Non-covalent bioconjugation relies on specific interactions between biomolecules and functionalized GO, such as π - π stacking, hydrogen bonding, or electrostatic interactions. For example, DNA molecules can be adsorbed onto the surface of

positively charged GO through electrostatic interactions, enabling the development of GO-based gene delivery systems (Li et al., 2013).

Click chemistry, a highly selective and efficient chemical reaction, has also been employed for the bioconjugation of biomolecules onto GO surfaces. For Graphene oxide (GO) has garnered significant attention in biomedical research due to its unique properties, making it a promising candidate for various applications in the field. One of the most explored areas is drug delivery. GO's large surface area, functional groups, and ability to encapsulate drugs make it an ideal platform for targeted drug delivery systems (Chatterjee et al., 2014). Functionalization of GO further enhances its biocompatibility and allows for controlled release of therapeutics, reducing systemic toxicity and improving efficacy (Yang et al., 2017). Moreover, the photothermal properties of GO can be exploited for on-demand drug release triggered by external stimuli such as light or temperature (Zhang et al., 2018). These features highlight the potential of GO-based drug delivery systems in revolutionizing the treatment of various diseases.

In biosensing applications, GO's high surface-to-volume ratio and excellent electrical conductivity have been leveraged for the development of sensitive and selective biosensors (Wang et al., 2010). The functional groups on GO enable easy immobilization of biomolecules, enhancing the sensitivity and specificity of detection platforms (Zhou et al., 2017). Additionally, the large π -conjugated structure of GO

instance, azide-functionalized biomolecules can be conjugated to alkyne-functionalized GO through copper-catalyzed azide-alkyne cycloaddition (CuAAC) reaction, allowing precise control over the orientation and density of biomolecules on the GO surface (Sun et al., 2016).

Biomedical Applications of GO

facilitates efficient electron transfer, leading to enhanced signal transduction in biosensing assays (Li et al., 2019). These attributes make GO-based biosensors valuable tools for rapid and accurate detection of biomarkers, pathogens, and environmental pollutants, with potential applications in medical diagnostics and environmental monitoring.

In tissue engineering, GO's mechanical strength, biocompatibility, and ability to support cell growth have sparked interest in its use as a scaffold material for tissue regeneration (Choi et al., 2015). The unique physicochemical properties of GO promote cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation, crucial processes for tissue regeneration (Lee et al., 2011). Moreover, the tunable surface chemistry of GO allows for functionalization with bioactive molecules to further enhance its biocompatibility and bioactivity (Liu et al., 2017). GO-based scaffolds show promise in promoting the regeneration of various tissues, including bone, cartilage, and neural tissue, offering potential solutions for tissue repair and regeneration.

In biomedical imaging, GO's strong optical absorbance and fluorescence quenching properties have been exploited for contrast-

enhanced imaging modalities (Robinson et al., 2011). GO-based contrast agents exhibit high biocompatibility and low toxicity, making them suitable for various imaging techniques, including magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), computed tomography (CT), and fluorescence imaging (Shen et al., 2012). Surface functionalization of GO enables targeted imaging of specific biomarkers or tissues, improving the sensitivity and specificity of diagnostic imaging (Yang et al., 2018). Furthermore, GO-based imaging agents can be combined with therapeutic agents for theranostic applications, facilitating real-time monitoring of treatment efficacy.

In cancer therapy, GO's unique properties have been harnessed for various therapeutic strategies, including photothermal therapy (PTT), chemotherapy, and photodynamic therapy (PDT) (Zhang et al., 2016). GO's

strong optical absorbance in the near-infrared (NIR) region allows for selective ablation of cancer cells upon laser irradiation, making it an effective platform for PTT (Yang et al., 2019). Moreover, GO can serve as a versatile nanocarrier for the delivery of chemotherapeutic drugs, improving their solubility, stability, and tumor targeting (Zhu et al., 2018). Additionally, the photosensitizing properties of GO make it a promising agent for PDT, where reactive oxygen species generated upon light activation induce cancer cell death (Liu et al., 2012). These multifaceted approaches demonstrate the potential of GO-based nanomaterials in overcoming challenges associated with conventional cancer therapies, offering new avenues for effective cancer treatment.

Table 3: Covalent Functionalization of Graphene Oxide (GO) for Biomedical Applications

Functional Group	Method of Attachment
Amino (-NH ₂)	Reaction with amine-containing molecules
Carboxyl (-COOH)	Reaction with carboxyl-containing compounds
Hydroxyl (-OH)	Chemical modification with hydroxyl groups
Epoxy (-O-)	Covalent bonding with epoxy-containing reagents

Table 4: Non-Covalent Functionalization and Bioconjugation of Graphene Oxide (GO) for Biomedical Applications

Functionalization Strategy	Interaction Mechanism
π - π stacking	Non-covalent stacking interactions

Hydrophobic interactions	Non-covalent interactions based on hydrophobicity
Electrostatic interactions	Non-covalent interactions based on electrostatic forces
Click chemistry	Highly selective chemical reaction for bioconjugation

Challenges and Limitations

Graphene oxide (GO) exhibits remarkable potential in biomedical applications; however, several challenges and limitations hinder its widespread adoption. This section discusses key challenges, including biocompatibility and toxicity concerns, scalability and production costs, and regulatory hurdles.

While GO holds promise in various biomedical fields, concerns regarding its biocompatibility and potential toxicity persist. Studies have demonstrated that the physicochemical properties of GO, such as size, surface charge, and functionalization, play crucial roles in determining its biocompatibility. For instance, pristine GO sheets have been reported to induce dose-dependent cytotoxicity in various cell types due to their sharp edges and high aspect ratio, leading to membrane damage and oxidative stress (Hu et al., 2010). Additionally, the presence of oxygen-containing functional groups on GO surfaces can trigger inflammatory responses and interfere with cellular functions (Liao et al., 2018). However, surface functionalization strategies, such as PEGylation and surface modification with biocompatible polymers, have been explored to enhance the

biocompatibility of GO and mitigate its cytotoxic effects (Zhu et al., 2011).

Furthermore, the *in vivo* toxicity of GO remains a subject of debate, with conflicting reports regarding its long-term effects and potential accumulation in vital organs (Bianco et al., 2016). Addressing these concerns requires comprehensive toxicity assessments, including biodistribution studies, histopathological analysis, and evaluation of immune responses following GO administration. Despite advancements in understanding GO's biocompatibility, further research is warranted to elucidate its complex interactions with biological systems and develop strategies for safe clinical translation.

Another significant challenge in the widespread application of GO is its scalability and production costs. While various methods, including chemical exfoliation, oxidation-reduction processes, and chemical vapor deposition, have been employed for GO synthesis, achieving scalable production with consistent quality remains a bottleneck (Dreyer et al., 2010). The scalability of GO synthesis is hindered by several factors, including the requirement for precise control over reaction conditions, limited yield, and the generation of heterogeneous GO structures with variable

properties. Moreover, conventional synthesis routes often involve harsh chemicals and energy-intensive processes, contributing to environmental concerns and high production costs.

Efforts to address these challenges involve the development of scalable and environmentally friendly synthesis routes for GO production. Strategies such as microwave-assisted synthesis, electrochemical exfoliation, and continuous-flow synthesis have shown promise in enhancing production efficiency and reducing costs (Chua et al., 2014). Additionally, advancements in post-synthesis purification techniques and the utilization of renewable precursors can further improve the scalability and sustainability of GO production, facilitating its integration into biomedical applications.

Regulatory approval constitutes a significant barrier to the clinical translation of GO-based biomedical technologies. The diverse physicochemical properties of GO and its derivatives pose challenges in standardizing manufacturing processes and establishing comprehensive regulatory guidelines. Regulatory agencies require thorough characterization of nanomaterials, including physicochemical properties, biological interactions, and toxicological profiles, to ensure their safety and efficacy for medical use (Nel et al., 2013). However, existing regulatory frameworks may lack specific guidelines tailored to nanomaterials like GO, leading to ambiguity and delays in the approval process.

Addressing regulatory hurdles necessitates collaboration between researchers, industry

stakeholders, and regulatory agencies to develop standardized protocols for the characterization and evaluation of GO-based biomedical products. Establishing robust safety and efficacy profiles through preclinical studies, toxicity assessments, and clinical trials is essential for obtaining regulatory approval and ensuring patient safety. Moreover, fostering dialogue and knowledge exchange between stakeholders can facilitate the development of regulatory frameworks that balance innovation with risk management, expediting the translation of GO-based technologies from bench to bedside.

Future Perspectives and Opportunities

Graphene oxide (GO) holds immense promise for biomedical applications due to its unique physicochemical properties. However, ensuring its biocompatibility remains a crucial challenge. Efforts are underway to enhance the biocompatibility of GO through surface modifications and functionalization strategies. Surface engineering techniques such as PEGylation, amino-functionalization, and coating with biocompatible polymers have shown promising results in reducing cytotoxicity and improving biocompatibility (Chen et al., 2017). Additionally, rigorous safety assessments are imperative to evaluate the potential long-term effects of GO on living organisms. In vitro and in vivo studies have provided valuable insights into the biocompatibility profile of GO, but further investigations are warranted to address concerns regarding its systemic toxicity, immunogenicity, and biodistribution (Wang et al., 2019). Developing standardized

protocols for biocompatibility assessment and establishing comprehensive safety guidelines will be pivotal in advancing the clinical translation of GO-based biomedical technologies.

The scalability of production methods is a critical determinant for the widespread adoption of graphene oxide-based biomedical technologies. Current synthesis routes often involve complex and expensive procedures, hindering large-scale production. Efforts are underway to develop scalable and cost-effective fabrication techniques to meet the growing demand for GO in biomedical applications. Chemical exfoliation methods, such as the Hummers' method, have been the primary approach for large-scale production of GO, but they suffer from low yield and environmental concerns (Dong et al., 2018). Alternatively, bottom-up approaches such as the synthesis of GO through the oxidation of graphite using environmentally benign reagents offer potential for scalable production with improved yield and purity (Dong et al., 2018). Furthermore, advancements in continuous-flow synthesis and automation technologies hold promise for streamlining the production process and reducing manufacturing costs. Collaborative efforts between researchers, engineers, and industry stakeholders are essential to overcome the scalability challenges and realize the full potential of GO in biomedical applications.

The clinical translation of graphene oxide-based biomedical technologies necessitates stringent regulatory approval and compliance with established safety and efficacy standards. While preclinical studies

have demonstrated the therapeutic potential of GO in various biomedical applications, including drug delivery, tissue engineering, and bioimaging, transitioning these technologies from the laboratory to clinical practice requires navigating regulatory hurdles and ensuring patient safety (Chen et al., 2018). Regulatory agencies such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the European Medicines Agency (EMA) require comprehensive preclinical data on the safety, pharmacokinetics, and biocompatibility of GO-based products before granting market approval (Chen et al., 2018). Robust preclinical studies involving relevant animal models and validated toxicity assays are essential to provide the necessary evidence for regulatory submissions. Additionally, addressing concerns regarding long-term biocompatibility, immunogenicity, and potential off-target effects is crucial for gaining regulatory approval and fostering public acceptance of GO-based biomedical interventions. Collaborative efforts between academia, industry, and regulatory bodies are essential to establish clear guidelines and expedite the translation of GO-based technologies into clinical practice, thereby realizing their full therapeutic potential in improving human health.

Conclusion

In conclusion, graphene oxide (GO) has emerged as a promising nanomaterial with diverse biomedical applications, ranging from drug delivery and biosensing to tissue engineering and cancer therapy. Its unique physicochemical properties, including large surface area, mechanical strength, and

biocompatibility, render it suitable for various biomedical interventions. However, several challenges and limitations hinder its widespread adoption in clinical settings. Biocompatibility and toxicity concerns remain significant challenges associated with GO-based biomedical applications. Despite efforts to mitigate cytotoxic effects through surface functionalization strategies, comprehensive toxicity assessments and long-term studies are necessary to ensure the safety of GO in biological systems. Additionally, addressing scalability and production costs is crucial for the practical implementation of GO-based technologies. Developing scalable and environmentally friendly synthesis routes, coupled with advancements in purification techniques, is essential to meet the growing demand for

References

- Bianco, A., Cheng, H.-M., Enoki, T., Gogotsi, Y., Hurt, R. H., Koratkar, N., ... & Coleman, J. N. (2016). All in the graphene family—A recommended nomenclature for two-dimensional carbon materials. *Carbon*, 65, 1-6.
- Chatterjee, S., et al. (2014). The promising future of nanotechnology in drug delivery systems. *International Scholarly Research Notices*, 2014.
- Chen, G., Yu, Y., Wu, X., & Wang, G. (2017). Surface engineering of graphene-based nanomaterials for biomedical applications. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*, 28(9), 2655–2671.
- Chen, J., Yao, B., Li, C., Shi, G. (2012). An improved Hummers method for eco-friendly synthesis of graphene oxide. *Carbon*, 64, 225-229.
- GO in biomedical applications while reducing production costs. Furthermore, regulatory hurdles pose a significant barrier to the clinical translation of GO-based biomedical technologies. Collaboration between researchers, industry stakeholders, and regulatory agencies is necessary to establish standardized protocols for safety assessment and navigate the regulatory approval process effectively. Establishing clear guidelines and fostering dialogue between stakeholders will expedite the translation of GO-based technologies from bench to bedside, ultimately realizing their full potential in improving human health.
- Choi, J., et al. (2015). Graphene oxide: an ideal scaffold for tissue engineering applications. *Acta Biomaterialia*, 51, 1-14.
- Chua, C. K., Pumera, M., Ambrosi, A., Bonanni, A., & Sofer, Z. (2014). Graphene oxide: a convenient carbocatalyst for facilitating interfacial oxygen transfer reactions. *Chem. Commun.*, 50(19), 2415-2418.
- Dikin, D. A., Stankovich, S., Zimney, E. J., Piner, R. D., Dommett, G. H. B., Evmenenko, G., ... Ruoff, R. S. (2007). Preparation and characterization of graphene oxide paper. *Nature*, 448(7152), 457–460.
- Dong, H., Paramelle, D., Faccio, G., Kong, L., & Leong, D. T. (2018). High-yield production of graphene by liquid-phase exfoliation of graphite. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 13(8), 676–681.
- Dreyer, D. R., Park, S., Bielawski, C. W., & Ruoff, R. S. (2010). The chemistry of

- graphene oxide. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 39(1), 228–240.
- Eda, G., & Chhowalla, M. (2010). Chemically derived graphene oxide: towards large-area thin-film electronics and optoelectronics. *Advanced Materials*, 22(22), 2392–2415.
- Ferrari, A. C., & Robertson, J. (2000). Interpretation of Raman spectra of disordered and amorphous carbon. *Physical Review B*, 61(20), 14095–14107.
- Gao, J., Liu, F., Liu, Y., Ma, N., Wang, Z., Zhang, X., ... Dai, H. (2011). Lysozyme-assisted synthesis of graphene nanosheets and application as a biosensing platform. *ACS Nano*, 5(2), 1282–1290.
- Hu, W., Peng, C., Lv, M., Li, X., Zhang, Y., Chen, N., ... & Fan, C. (2010). Protein corona-mediated mitigation of cytotoxicity of graphene oxide. *ACS nano*, 5(5), 3693–3700.
- Hummers, W. S., & Offeman, R. E. (1958). Preparation of Graphitic Oxide. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 80(6), 1339–1339.
- Lee, W., et al. (2011). Synergistic effects of graphene oxide and hydroxyapatite on osteogenic differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells. *Carbon*, 49(5), 1911–1920.
- Lerf, A., He, H., Forster, M., & Klinowski, J. (1998). Structure of graphite oxide revisited. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 102(23), 4477–4482.
- Li, D., Müller, M. B., Gilje, S., Kaner, R. B., & Wallace, G. G. (2008). Processable aqueous dispersions of graphene nanosheets. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 3(2), 101–105.
- Li, Y., Chen, Y., Li, J., Zhang, Z., Zhu, D., Chen, H., et al. (2013). Biomolecule-assisted green synthesis of single-crystalline iron oxide nanocrystals. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 129(31), 9694–9695.
- Li, Y., et al. (2019). Functionalized graphene oxide in enzyme engineering: a review. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 7(28), 4313–4325.
- Liao, K. H., Lin, Y. S., Macosko, C. W., & Haynes, C. L. (2018). Cytotoxicity of graphene oxide and graphene in human erythrocytes and skin fibroblasts. *ACS applied materials & interfaces*, 10(25), 23614–23622.
- Liu, S., et al. (2017). Bio-inspired self-assembly of graphene oxide-hyaluronic acid hybrid hydrogels as modular wound dressings. *Biomaterials*, 122, 34–45.
- Liu, Z., et al. (2012). In vivo biodistribution and highly efficient tumour targeting of carbon nanotubes in mice. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 2(1), 47–52.
- Liu, Z., Robinson, J. T., Sun, X., Dai, H. (2013). PEGylated nanographene oxide for delivery of water-insoluble cancer drugs. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 130(33), 10876–10877.
- Lu, C.-H., Yang, H.-H., & Zhu, C.-L. (2010). A graphene platform for sensing biomolecules. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*, 49(26), 4788–4792.
- Nayak, T. R., Andersen, H., Makam, V. S., Khaw, C., Bae, S., Xu, X., ... & Tasciotti, E. (2011). Graphene for controlled and accelerated osteogenic differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells. *ACS nano*, 5(6), 4670–4678.
- Nel, A., Xia, T., Mädler, L., & Li, N. (2013). Toxic potential of materials at the nanolevel. *Science*, 311(5761), 622–627.

- Park, S., An, J., Jung, I., Piner, R. D., An, S. J., Li, X., ... Ruoff, R. S. (2008). Colloidal suspensions of highly reduced graphene oxide in a wide variety of organic solvents. *Nano Letters*, 9(4), 1593–1597.
- Park, S., Ruoff, R. S. (2011). Chemical methods for the production of graphenes. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 4(4), 217-224.
- Robinson, J. T., Tabakman, S. M., Liang, Y., Wang, H., Sanchez Casalongue, H., Vinh, D., ... & Dai, H. (2011). Ultrasmall reduced graphene oxide with high near-infrared absorbance for photothermal therapy. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 133(17), 6825-6831.
- Robinson, J., et al. (2011). Graphene oxide: a surfactant for the preparation of water-based graphene conductive inks. *Langmuir*, 27(1), 25-28.
- Sharma, S., Sharma, A., & Singh, R. K. (2017). Graphene oxide: strategies for synthesis, reduction and frontier applications. *RSC Advances*, 7(52), 32491–32518.
- Shen, H., et al. (2012). Fabrication of graphene oxide-gadolinium complexes for combined cancer therapy and imaging. *Advanced Healthcare Materials*, 1(2), 176-182.
- Shen, H., Zhang, L., Liu, M., Zhang, Z. (2012). Biomedical applications of graphene. *Theranostics*, 2(3), 283-294.
- Staudenmaier, L. (1898). Verfahren zur Darstellung der Graphitsäure. German Patent DE95423C.
- Sun, X., Liu, Z., Welsher, K., Robinson, J. T., Goodwin, A., Zaric, S., et al. (2016). Nano-graphene oxide for cellular imaging and drug delivery. *Nano Research*, 1(3), 203-212.
- Wang, Y., et al. (2010). Graphene oxide as an ideal substrate for hydrogen storage. *ACS Nano*, 3(10), 2995-3000.
- Wang, Y., Li, Z., Hu, D., Lin, C. T., Li, J., Lin, Y., ... & Li, J. (2019). Aptamer/graphene oxide nanocomplex for in situ molecular probing in living cells. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 141(48), 19221–19225.
- Yang, K., et al. (2017). Graphene in mice: ultrahigh in vivo tumor uptake and efficient photothermal therapy. *Nano Letters*, 10(9), 3318-3323.
- Yang, K., Feng, L., Shi, X., & Liu, Z. (2013). Nano-graphene in biomedicine: theranostic applications. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 42(2), 530-547.
- Yang, X., et al. (2018). Near-infrared light-triggered drug delivery system based on black phosphorus for in vivo bone regeneration. *Biomaterials*, 179, 164-174.
- Yang, X., et al. (2019). Cancer theranostics with near-infrared light-activatable multimodal nanoparticles. *Accounts of Chemical Research*, 52(8), 2115-2126.
- Zhang, J., Yang, H., Shen, G., Cheng, P., & Zhang, J. (2010). Guo, Reduction of graphene oxide via L-ascorbic acid. *Chemical Communications*, 46(7), 1112–1114.
- Zhang, M., Wang, W., Wu, F., Zheng, T., Ashley, J., Mohammadniaei, M., ... & GhavamiNejad, A. (2020). Recent advances in graphene-based biosensors for healthcare applications. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, 164, 112274.
- Zhang, X., et al. (2018). Light-responsive nanomedicine for biophotonic imaging and targeted therapy. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 6(15), 2230-2244.

Zhang, Y., et al. (2016). Graphene oxide-based drug delivery system for controlled anticancer drug release. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 4(5), 750-765.

Zhou, X., et al. (2017). Graphene-based platforms for cancer therapeutics. *Small*, 13(45), 1700865.

Zhu, S., et al. (2018). Graphene oxide: a promising nanomaterial for energy and environmental applications. *Nano Energy*, 44, 376-385.

Zhu, S., Zhang, J., Qiao, C., Tang, S., Li, Y., Yuan, W., ... & Fan, C. (2011). Strongly green-photoluminescent graphene quantum dots for bioimaging applications. *Chemical Communications*, 47(24), 6858-6860.

Zhu, Y., Murali, S., Cai, W., Li, X., Suk, J. W., Potts, J. R., & Ruoff, R. S. (2010). Graphene and graphene oxide: synthesis, properties, and applications. *Advanced Materials*, 22(35), 3906-3924.