

# Characterization of Sulphated Cellulose Nanocrystals as Stabilizer for Magnetite Nanoparticles Synthesis with improved Magnetic Properties

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## Abstract

This work reports on hydrogen bond energy of sulphated cellulose nanocrystals (CNC) obtained from rubber wood (RW) cellulose for effective steric stabilization of magnetite nanoparticles obtained *via* the modified Massart's method. The particles morphology, structure and crystallite properties were investigated by using microscopic techniques. The magnetic properties of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles were investigated by using physical property measurement system. The average width of CNC was  $\approx 20$  nm with length of between 190 nm-300 nm. Changes in the hydrogen bond energy of the RW cellulose, during acid hydrolysis, were investigated by using the FT-IR hydrogen bonding energy calculation. The CNCs capped Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles synthesized, were monodispersed and oval in shape (with average particle diameter of  $\approx 4$  nm). The Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles obtained, exhibited superparamagnetic behaviour and saturation magnetization (*M<sub>s</sub>*) of  $\approx 67.5$  amu/g.

**Keywords:** Sulphated cellulose nanocrystals, Stabilizer, Magnetite nanoparticles, Magnetic properties, Monodispersibility, Rubber wood (RW), Biocompatibility

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Nanocellulose exhibits unique properties, such as: crystallinity, strength, bio-compatibility and the presence of readily functionalized surface hydroxyl groups. These properties have made it one of the most researched biopolymers in recent times (Moon *et al.*, 2011) and necessitated various research efforts for the application of nanocellulose in advanced materials fabrication (Moon *et al.*, 2011; Habibi *et al.*, 2010). Notable applications of nanocellulose, include its use as a composite material with: polysiloxanes (Grunert and Winter, 2002), polysulphonates (Oksman and Sain, 2006), polycapro-lactone (Habibi *et al.*, 2008), carboxymethyl cellulose (Choi and Simonsen, 2006), among others. (Cao *et al.*, 2007; Garcia de Rodriguez *et al.*, 2006; Habibi *et al.*, 2010; Hubbe *et al.*, 2008; Paralikar *et al.*, 2008).

Generally, the suitability of the nanocellulose obtained, to the various intended applications and its dispersibility in the proposed matrix, is dependent, to a large extent, on its surface properties, which could vary with the synthetic method applied (Habibi *et al.*, 2010). The general synthetic routes, usually employed in the synthesis of nanocellulose are either mechanical or chemical (Zhan *et al.*, 2012). Nanocellulose crystals obtained *via* acid hydrolysis are also known to exhibit improved surface properties that are dependent on the nature of the acid used; with sulphuric acid producing particles more readily dispersed in aqueous medium when compared to hydrochloric acid-hydrolysed particles, which readily flocculate. (Habibi *et al.*, 2010;

Moon *et al.*, 2011). This was attributed to the fact that sulphonation of the pendant hydroxyl groups on the nanocellulose surface, results in improved particle-particle repulsion due to a strengthening of the electric double layer around the nanocellulosic crystals (Habibi *et al.*, 2010). The ability of the pendant hydroxyl group of nanocellulose to be readily functionalized, provides a means of tailoring the hydrogen bonding interaction in cellulose, thereby making it suitable for applications in steric stabilization (Habibi *et al.*, 2010).

This ability of nanocellulose to act as a steric stabilizer can promote monodispersibility, especially magnetic materials, which can be prone to particle aggregation (Wang *et al.*, 2010; Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015). Several synthetic methods have been employed to overcome the problem of aggregation and oxidation in magnetic nanoparticles, especially magnetite nanoparticles (Mosayebi *et al.*, 2017). High temperature synthesis remains widely reported and it involves the application of organic precursors, surfactants or a combination of these (Ravikumar and Bandyopa-dhyaya, 2011). Chemical co-precipitation remains the simplest, convenient and a cost-effective approach, if carefully monitored.

The ability of the co-precipitation process to occur in aqueous medium has made it of particular interest in the production of nanomagnetite suitable for drug delivery applications Ravikumar and Bandyopa-dhyaya, 2011; Laurent *et al.*, 2008). Notable research efforts at overcoming aggregation of nanomagnetite particles in aqueous medium, include the use of steric stabilizers,

such as: dextran, polyacrylic acid, polyvinylalcohol, citric acid, silica, gluconic acid, dimer-captosuccinic acid, among others (Laurent *et al.*, 2008; Ravikumar and Bandyopa-dhyaya, 2011; Mahmoudi *et al.*, 2008; Lin *et al.*, 2005). These stabilizers are known to prevent or reduce aggregation by using their functional groups to interact with magnetite *via* the surface hydroxyl groups of magnetite that are present in aqueous magnetite ferrofluids (Mosayebi *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, with the aid of this interaction, stabilizers can interact with magnetite to form core-shell particles (i.e. magnetite core and stabilizer shell particles), hence facilitating the dispersion of magnetite (Mosayebi *et al.*, 2017; Mondini *et al.*, 2008; Shukla *et al.*, 2007). Previous research efforts at controlling aggregation had varying degree of success, however, the use of high amounts of toxic surfactants and the cost of some of the stabilizers remains a challenge (Laurent *et al.*, 2008; Ravikumar and Bandyopa-dhyaya, 2011). Furthermore, the chemical co-precipitation route also has the general drawback of producing polydispersed particles with relatively large particle size regime (Mosayebi *et al.*, 2017; Ravikumar and Bandyopa-dhyaya, 2011). Considering the non-toxic nature of nanocellulose, coupled with its low cost, functionalized surface, biocompatibility and crystallinity, it can present a means of overcoming particle aggregation and hence, controlling the polydispersity of nanomagnetite obtained *via* the co-precipitation method, through adequate tuning of the cellulose degree of hydrogen bonding.

This work studies the hydrogen bonding energy interaction of cellulose, tuned *via* sulphuric acid hydrolysis of rubber wood (RW) cellulose to, effectively stabilize magnetite nanoparticles. Furthermore, the crystal structure and surface morphology of CNC, CNC-capped Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles were investigated by using electron diffraction and imaging techniques. The ability of sulphated CNC to promote a relatively smaller size, and improved monodispersity of the CNC capped nanomagnetite when compared to some previous reports that employed some other surfactants, was clearly shown.

## EXPERIMENTAL

### Materials and Sample Preparation

Toluene, acetone, ethanol, NaOH (97%) were obtained from Sigma Aldrich Inc. USA and deionized water, sodium chlorite, glacial acetic acid, sulphuric acid, FeCl<sub>2</sub>, FeCl<sub>3</sub> and Type 1, ultrapure de-ionized water (18.2 MΩ.cm, 25°C), Merck Millipore, Germany) were used. All reagents were used without further purification. Rubber wood was obtained from the Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria (RRIN), Iyanomo, Edo State. Nigeria.

### Preparation of Cellulose

#### Extraction of waxes, oils and resins

About 50 g of RW was placed in a 500 mL Soxhlet

apparatus and was extracted over a mixture of toluene, acetone and ethanol in a ratio of 4:1:1, for 7hrs in order to remove waxes, oil and resin. The RW was thereafter, washed with warm water (45-50°C) to remove other forms of impurities and dried under a vacuum oven prior to further characterization and fractionation of cellulose.

### Delignification of RW

RW pulp was placed in 1.5 wt/vol % of sodium chlorite (NaClO<sub>2</sub>) with drop-wise addition of acetic acid (pH < 4). The solution became bright yellow with the samples floating. The reaction was kept at a temperature of 90°C for over 4 hrs. This process was repeated two more times, until the solution became yellow and the pH remained constant. The solution was washed several times by using a Buckner funnel until a neutral pH was reached. Holocellulose ( $\alpha$ -cellulose and  $\beta$ -hemicellulose) was obtained, by the gradual removal of lignin (Habibi *et al.*, 2010; Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015).

### Degrading of Hemi-Cellulose

The holocellulose obtained from delignification of RW was treated with 17 % NaOH solution. The sample was stirred for 45-60 min. The cellulose obtained was washed with de-ionized water and the conductivity was checked repeatedly in order to ensure complete removal of NaOH. The wet cellulose obtained was stored at 4°C.

### Cellulose Nano-Crystals (CNC) Preparation via Acid Hydrolysis

CNC was prepared according to a previously reported procedure (Favier *et al.*, 1995; Sebe *et al.*, 2012). In a typical experiment, 3 g of cellulose was hydrolysed by 64% sulphuric acid. This hydrolysis was achieved by adding concentrated sulphuric acid drop-wise to RW cellulose suspension in an ice bath in order to reach the desired concentration with vigorous stirring for 20 min. The suspension was heated to 45°C for 70 min. The resulting suspension with excess sulphuric acid was centrifuged (by using a Remy cooling centrifuge 12°C) repeatedly (for 10 min, at 12000 rpm) until the supernatant became turbid after repeated cycles. The turbid suspension was placed in a 11 kDa MWCO dialysis membrane and dialyzed against ultrapure deionized water until a constant pH was attained after three days. The suspension was sonicated for 15 min. The resulting CNC was divided into two parts, one for freeze drying and other was diluted to a concentration of 0.5% w/w with deionised water for further characterization.

### Preparation of magnetite nanoparticles by chemical coprecipitation

Magnetite was prepared by using the modified Massart's method (Durdureanu-Angheluta *et al.*, 2012; Massart *et al.*, 1995). In the synthesis process, 0.01mol FeCl<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O and 0.02 mol FeCl<sub>3</sub> solutions were prepared in ultrapure deionized water in a round bottom flask and heated at

60°C for 10 min with continuous N<sub>2</sub> purging in order to prevent oxidation. Subsequently, 2M NaOH was added drop-wise into the ferrite solution under vigorous stirring (1200 rpm) until the pH of solution was about 12. Thereafter, 5 ml of 0.5% w/w nanocellulose was gradually added to the ferrite solution for the steric stabilization of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. The mixture was subsequently heated at a temperature of 80°C for another 2 hrs. The resulting Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles formed (black precipitate) were separated magnetically after repeated washing with deionized water until a neutral pH was attained. It was then dried under vacuum at 60°C for 6 hrs.

**Characterization Methods**

**Fourier Transform-Infrared Studies for CNC**

Perkin-Elmer Spectrum One FT-IR spectrometer, operating between 4500 and 400 cm<sup>-1</sup> was used to determine the functional groups present in the CNC. A resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> was used and 64 scans were performed for each spectrum. The IR spectra were recorded as KBr pellets by subtracting the spectral of the KBr from the iron oxide nanoparticles.

**X-ray Diffraction Studies for Magnetite**

Powder X-ray diffraction studies were performed in order to determine the crystal structure of the CNC and CNC-capped synthesized magnetite nanoparticles. The diffraction pattern was recorded in a 2θ angle range of between 25-70° at a scanning range of 0.02° on an X-ray diffractometer (Philip's X'pertPro) with a CuK<sub>α</sub> radiation (λ = 0.154) by employing an X'celerator detector and a monochromator at the diffraction beam side. Powder samples were used by employing a standard sample holder.

**Crystallinity Index (CI) Studies for CNC**

The crystallinity index (CI) was calculated by using the intensity values of the diffraction peaks, corresponding to the crystalline and amorphous regions, according to the Segal method (Abraham *et al.*, 2013):

$$CI = (I_{(002)} - I_{(am)}) / I_{(002)} \times 100 \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

where I<sub>(002)</sub> is the counter reading at peak intensity of 2θ angle close to 22.6°, representing the crystalline material and I<sub>(am)</sub> is the counter reading at peak intensity of 2θ angle close to 18°, representing amorphous material in natural rubber wood cellulosic fibre.

The crystallinity index was also evaluated by the method proposed by Hermans *et al.* (Rosa *et al.*, 2010),

$$CI' = A_{cryst} / A_{tot} \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

where A<sub>cryst</sub> denotes the sum area of the crystalline peaks at (101), (10 $\bar{1}$ ), (021) and (002) crystallographic planes and A<sub>tot</sub> denotes the sum area covered by the diffractogram.

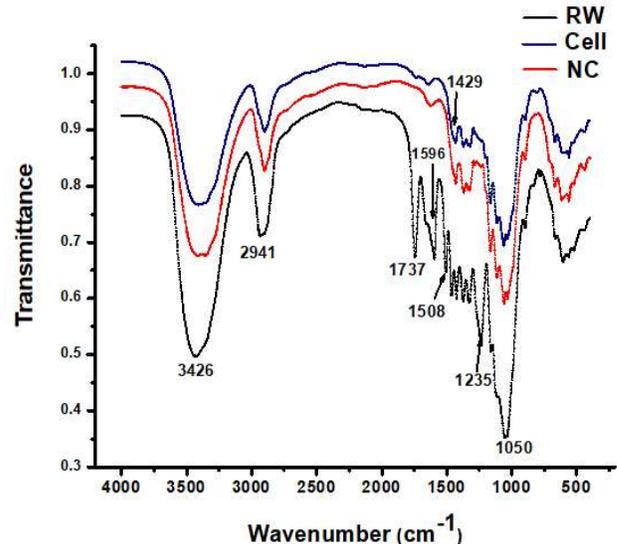
**Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) Analysis**

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed in an FEI TECNAIS Twin microscopy with an accelerating voltage of 100 kV. The sample solutions were prepared by dispersion under an ultrasonic vibrator. The sample was drop casted on a 400-mesh copper grid and dried under vacuum at room temperature.

**3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra of the rubber wood (RW), cellulose (Cell) and the CNC samples are shown in Figure 1. Infra-red spectra of lignocellulosic materials are generally categorized into two regions *viz*: the region characteristic of O-H and C-H stretching vibrations (3600-2700 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and the 'finger print' region (1800-600 cm<sup>-1</sup>) for cellulosic materials. The RW, Cell and CNC samples showed absorption bands corresponding to O-H vibrations at frequencies of 3426 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 3420 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and 3418 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The peaks between 2941cm<sup>-1</sup>-2944 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 1), are characteristics of the C-H stretching vibrations in methyl and methylene groups of cellulosic materials (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015; Favier *et al.*, 1995; Abraham *et al.*, 2013; Rosa *et al.*, 2010). The band at 1737 cm<sup>-1</sup> (in the RW spectra) is typical of C=O stretching vibrations of hemicellulose carboxyl and acetyl groups. The absence of this band in the cellulose and CNC spectra confirms the removal of hemicellulose during the fractionation process of RW. The bands at 1596 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1508 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1235 cm<sup>-1</sup> (in RW spectra) are typical of the C=C stretching vibrations of benzene and guaiacyl/syringyl groups of lignin.

The absence of these bands also in the CNC and cellulose spectra confirms the removal of lignin during the delignification process. The peaks at about 1050-1056 cm<sup>-1</sup> and between 1429-1430 cm<sup>-1</sup>, are typically



**Figure 1:** The FT-IR spectra of: rubber wood (RW), cellulose (Cell) and nanocellulose (CNC)

attributed to C-H, C-O deformation, stretching and bending vibrations in various carbohydrate functional groups.

Characteristic lignocellulosic peaks corresponding to C-H deformations and C-O-C stretching vibrations were observed in all three spectra at about 896-897 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1160-1162 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The peaks between 1614-1616 cm<sup>-1</sup> and between 668-670 cm<sup>-1</sup>, correspond to OH bending (of absorbed water) and C-OH out-of-plane bending (of cellulose) (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Poletto *et al.*, 2014; Popescu *et al.*, 2007).

An index for comparing the degree of hydrogen bonding is the energy of the hydrogen bond, which monitors the deviation of the O-H absorption band from that expected for the free O-H stretching vibration. A comparison of the O-H absorption band of the RW, cellulose and CNC, showed that CNC had a slightly lower absorption frequency. This may be attributed to the slightly higher degree of hydrogen bonding in CNC when compared to RW and Cellulose as seen in their hydrogen bond energies (Table 1). The energy of the hydrogen bonds can be calculated (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Poletto *et al.*, 2014; Popescu *et al.*, 2007) by using Equation (3):

$$EH = 1/K[(v_0 - v)/v_0] \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

where  $v_0$  is the frequency assigned to free hydroxyl groups (3650 cm<sup>-1</sup>),  $v$  is the observed frequency for the hydrogen bonded hydroxyl groups and  $k$  denotes a constant ( $1/k = 2.625 \times 10^2$  kJ).

The hydrogen bond distance (R), was estimated by using the Pimentel and Sederholm equation (Equation 4 below) (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015; Poletto *et al.*, 2012):

$$\Delta v(\text{cm}^{-1}) = 4430 \times (2.84 - R) \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

where  $\Delta v(\text{cm}^{-1}) = (v_0 - v)$ ,  $v_0$  is the monomeric OH stretching frequency with a value of 3600 cm<sup>-1</sup> and  $v$  is the observed frequency in the IR spectra.

**Table 1:** Parameters from FT-IR analysis of: rubber wood (RW), cellulose (Cell) and nanocellulose (CNC)

FT-IR Indices	E <sub>H</sub> (kJ)	R(Å)	Crystallinity		HBI A3435/A1317
			IR Ratio	H1430/H894	
			LOI	H1367/H2914	
RW	16.11	2.800	1.6168	1.5129	1.3521
Cellulose	16.54	2.790	1.2813	1.2500	1.7273
CNC	16.69	2.796	1.5417	1.3160	1.9612

Table 1 shows the IR parameters evaluated from the FT-IR spectra. The hydrogen bond energy (E<sub>H</sub>) and hydrogen bond distance (R), obtained for RW, Cellulose and CNC, were (16.11 kJ, 2.800 Å), (16.54 kJ, 2.790 Å), (16.69 kJ, 2.796 Å), respectively. The E<sub>H</sub> for CNC was slightly higher than that for cellulose, which also had a higher E<sub>H</sub> value when compared to RW, signifying a higher degree of hydrogen bonding

in the CNC and Cellulose when compared to RW. The order of degree of hydrogen bonding was CNC>Cellulose>RW. This trend is in agreement with previously reported values for E<sub>H</sub> for other lignocellulosic materials, where the removal of lignin and amorphous regions in lignocellulosic materials, corresponded to higher degree of hydrogen bonding (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Poletto *et al.*, 2014; Popescu *et al.*, 2007).

The crystallinity of the RW, cellulose and CNC were also studied by using the indices as proposed by (Nelson and O'Connor, 1964). Lateral order index (LOI), Total Crystallinity Index (TCI) and hydrogen bond index (HBI) values from the FT-IR spectra were determined. The ratio of the bands between 1420-1430 cm<sup>-1</sup> (which correspond to the number of crystalline regions in the cellulose sample) and the band at 898 cm<sup>-1</sup> (corresponding to the amorphous region), were used to obtain the LOI value. The LOI corresponds to the relative number of crystalline and amorphous regions in the cellulose.

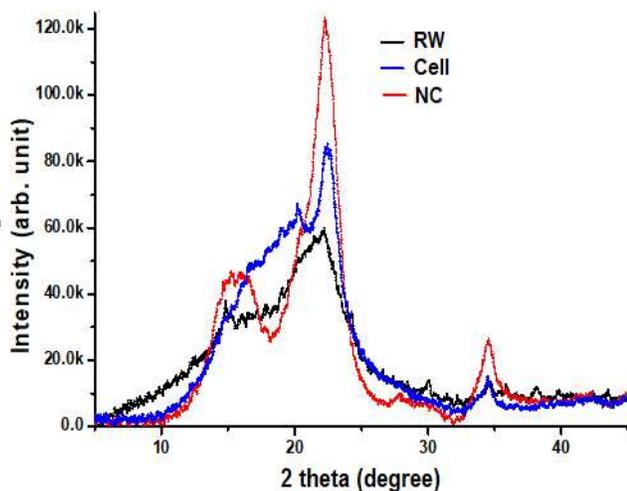
The TCI value was obtained by taking the ratio of the peaks at 1430 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2941 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The TCI was proposed by Nelson and O'Connor (Nelson and O'Connor, 1964) as an index for the infra-red crystallinity ratio. The degree of crystallinity, chain regularity and amount of bound water were also studied by using the HBI, which is dependent on the bond distance of the cellulose chains and their mobility. The ratio of the bands at 3426 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1320 cm<sup>-1</sup> was assigned to the HBI. The LOI, TCI and HBI values obtained for RW, cellulose and CNC were similar. The LOI values obtained were lower than that reported by Ikhuoria *et al.* (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015), for CNC from coir. However, the TCI and HBI were similar to the values obtained by Ikhuoria *et al.* The LOI, and HBI values were lower than those reported for *Pinus elliottii*, *Eucalyptus grandis*, *Mezilaurus itauba*, and *Dipteryx odorata* (Poletto *et al.*, 2012), while the TCI values for CNC, RW and cellulose from RW, were observed to be slightly higher than those reported by Poletto *et al.* (Poletto *et al.*, 2012). The use of LOI, and TCI values in monitoring crystallinity are best suited for comparative studies only, since the assigned spectral regions usually contain contributions from both the amorphous and crystalline chains (Fan *et al.*, 2012).

A considerably higher shift from the free O-H absorption peak (corresponding to a higher degree of hydrogen bonding) should be expected from CNC, considering its higher degree of crystallinity, orientation and close packing of its fibrils than the RW (Moon *et al.*, 2011). The reduced shift observed from the monomeric O-H absorption peak could be because of the effect of the sulphuric acid used during acid hydrolysis of the cellulose. During hydrolysis of the cellulose, some of the O-H groups were esterified, thereby resulting in a reduced degree of hydrogen

bonding (Habibi *et al.*, 2010; Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015; Jiang *et al.*, 2010). The sulphonated hydroxyl groups, apart from reducing the degree of hydrogen bonding, can also help to stabilize the nanocellulose particles by reducing aggregation (Jiang *et al.*, 2010; Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015).

The sulphated hydroxyl group that replaces the hydroxyl group on the cellulose after hydrolysis enhanced the electric double-layer around the CNC particles, thereby increasing the inter-particle repulsion. The effect of this is that, particle-particle aggregation and the degree of hydrogen bonding is reduced. The presence of sulphated groups on the CNC surface, is also expected to promote the steric stabilization characteristics of the synthesized CNC (Mosayabi *et al.*, 2017).

The XRD peaks were assigned to the diffractograms (Figure 2), according to the native cellulose structure, as described by Wada *et al.* (Wada *et al.*, 2001). The diffractograms showed characteristic peaks at  $2\theta$  angles of between:  $14-14.5^\circ$ ,  $16-16.5^\circ$  and  $22-22.5^\circ$ , corresponding to the (1 $\bar{1}0$ ) (110) and the (200) crystallographic planes, respectively. The  $2\theta$  reflection of between  $18-18.5^\circ$ , which corresponds to the amorphous region of the cellulosic samples was smaller in the CNC diffractogram when compared to



**Figure 2:** X-ray diffraction patterns of: rubber wood (RW), cellulose (Cell) and nanocellulose (CNC)

the RW and cellulose samples. The reduction in the peak intensity (height) is due to the fact that hydrolysis only occurs at the amorphous regions of cellulose (Moon *et al.*, 2011; Poletto *et al.*, 2014).

The crystallinity index (CI) of the samples was ascertained by using the Segal (Equation 1) and Hermans methods (Poletto *et al.*, 2014; Popescu *et al.*, 2007) (Equation 2). The CI obtained by applying the Segal method shows that the (1 $\bar{1}0$ ) and (110) crystallographic planes are neglected by the Segal method of evaluating CI. Hence, values obtained by

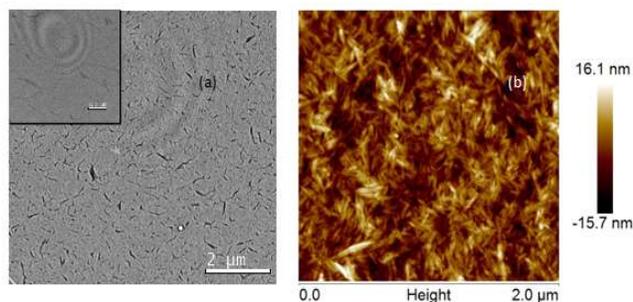
the Segal method are generally considered inadequate in describing the crystalline state of a lignocellulosic material. It is however, still useful for comparative studies when it is quoted relative to other methods (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015; Xu *et al.*, 2013).

The CI and CI' values obtained for RW (65.6%, 63.1%), cellulose (66.4%, 64.3%) and CNC (68.9%, 66.2%) samples, respectively, have progressively increased from RW through to the CNC. This again is, due to the reduction in the proportion of amorphous regions (as predicted by FT-IR) in the lignocellulosic samples, since the treatment of RW *via* the sulphonation route, proceeds to yield CNC. A reduction in the amorphous regions of the nanocrystals, typically increases the crystal orientation and close packing, thereby improving crystallinity (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015; Moon *et al.*, 2011) of the CNC produced. The crystallinity index values obtained for RW by both the Segal and Herman methods, were higher than those reported for *Pinus elliottii*, *Eucalyptus grandis*, *Mezilaurus itauba* and *Dipteryx odorata*, with (CI, CI') values of (43.4, 34.1), (49.3, 34.4), (52.7, 37.8) and (55.7, 43.0), respectively (Poletto *et al.*, 2014).

Considering the fact that *Pinus elliottii*, *Eucalyptus grandis*, *Mezilaurus itauba*, and *Dipteryx odorata*, had similar  $E_H$  and R values to RW (16.757, 2.799), (16.182, 2.800), (16.325, 2.800), (16.613, 2.799), respectively, it would have been expected that they exhibit similar CI and CI' values when compared to RW. However, the lower degrees of crystallinity in *Pinus elliottii*, *Eucalyptus grandis*, *Mezilaurus itauba*, and *Dipteryx odorata*, can be attributed to the presence of relatively higher amounts of absorbed water, as reported by Poletto *et al.* (Poletto *et al.*, 2012) and demonstrated by the presence of a band at about  $3567\text{cm}^{-1}$  in the FT-IR spectra, in all the aforementioned species and the loss of absorbed water at  $100^\circ\text{C}$  in their respective thermogravimetric plots (Popescu *et al.*, 2007). The absence of such a band in the FT-IR spectra of RW, shows that absorbed water was minimal (Ikhuoria *et al.*, 2015). Absorbed moisture, typically reduces the close packing and molecular orientation of fibers, which consequently reduce crystallinity (Habibi *et al.*, 2010; Azizi Samir *et al.*, 2005; Nainggolan *et al.*, 2013).

Figure 3a shows the morphological assemblies of the CNC in a regular array, as expected for nanocellulose crystals. The measured diameters, obtained for the CNC crystals, were between 10-30 nm with lengths of between 190-300 nm. This is consistent with previously reported studies on CNC crystals particle size (Habibi *et al.*, 2010; Azizi Samir *et al.*, 2005; Nainggolan *et al.*, 2013). As seen from the electron microscope images, slight aggregation of the nanocellulose was observed and this was attributed to the presence of hydrogen bonding in the cellulose nanocrystals (Araki *et al.*, 2000; Araki *et al.*, 1999).

Figure 3b shows the typical distribution of the



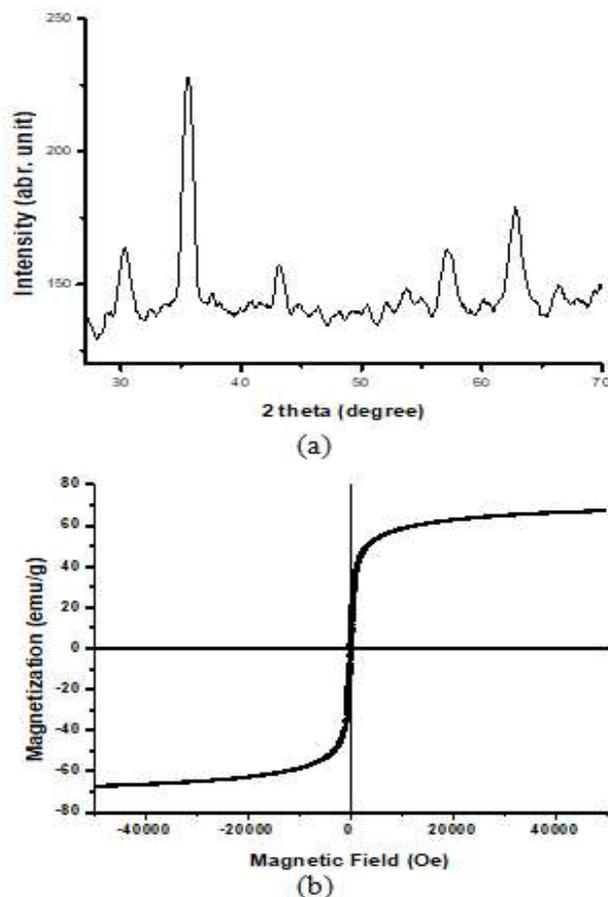
**Figure 3:** (a) TEM images of CNC and (b) AFM topography images of CNC

population of CNC and the image data height under ambient conditions. The AFM images show regular particle size. This was confirmed by the surface roughness of the CNC, which was found to be c.a. 16 nm. The processed AFM images show that the CNC height (width) was within the range of between 5 to 30 nm and the length was between 130 to 220 nm. The CNC height measurement was consistent across the selected areas measured, although with slight changes within 1 nm run-to-run in the AFM height measurement. These changes in height measurement are often linked with water molecules penetrating the CNC and diffusing between the particles, which generally results to separation in the cellulose chains. This agrees with the report of Lahiji *et al.* (Lahiji *et al.*, 2010), where humidity changes had no effect on the lattice spacing of cellulose, as determined by X-ray diffraction measurements.

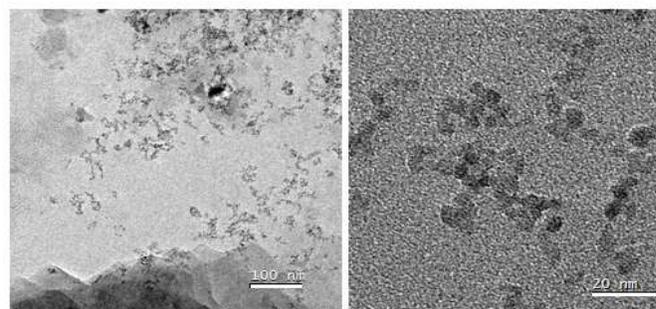
The crystal structure and the overall phase purity of the CNC-capped  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles were analysed by using Powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD). The XRD pattern of the magnetic particles (black powder) synthesized is shown in Figure 4(a).

The peaks obtained were indexed in the cubic spinel structure (spatial group Fd-3M group no. 227), JCPDS no: 01-075-0033 for the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  particles. The XRD pattern indicated that the black powder was  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  (as there was no indication of hematite or partially ordered maghemite) and it was found to be crystalline in nature. This may be attributed to a high pH 12 used, which is consistent with previous report, where  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  adsorb at the ferric hydroxide surface (Santoyo *et al.*, 2011), which helped to facilitate the electron hopping between  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  (Santoyo *et al.*, 2011; Tronc *et al.*, 1992). The line broadening observed in the diffracted line, indicates the ultrafine nature, crystallite particles and cubic single phase nano-sized  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  powder, which is in accordance with previous reports (Santoyo *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2014).

The saturation magnetization ( $m_s$ ) of CNC-capped magnetite was measured as a function of the magnetic field (H, Oe) at 300 K in the applied magnetic field, ranging between -50 kOe to 50 kOe, as shown in Figure 4(b). At 300 K, the  $m_s$  value of 66.7 emu/g for the CNC-capped magnetite synthesized was lower than the  $M_s$  of the bulk magnetite (92-100 emu/g) (Han *et al.*, 1994) and this corresponds well with the previously reported works on magnetite nanoparticles of similar sizes and surface functionalization by using chemical co-



**Figure 4:** (a) X-Ray diffraction pattern of CNC-capped magnetite showing crystalline peaks of CNC capped  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles by chemical co-precipitation (b) Magnetic hysteresis loop of CNC-capped  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles under magnetic field up to 50 kOe at 300 K



**Figure 5:** TEM image showing the formation of magnetite nanocrystals capped with nanocellulose at 100 nm (a) and 20 nm (b)

precipitation methods (Tao *et al.*, 2006; Si *et al.*, 2005; Roca *et al.*, 2007).

The low magnetic susceptibility, with respect to particle size in the CNC-capped magnetite, has previously been reported and can be attributed to spin disorder at the particle surface. This is caused by surface in-homogeneities and truncation of the crystalline lattice (Goya *et al.*, 2003; Baumgartner *et al.*, 2013) this is evident in Figure 5. The lower  $M_s$  for CNC-capped magnetite may be the combined result of its smaller particle size and the association of  $\text{Na}^+$

cations at the particle surface. It was recently shown that the  $\text{Na}^+$  cations at the particle surface produced a layer of partially oxidized, non-stoichiometric magnetite/maghemite that surrounds the crystal core (Panda *et al.*, 2001; Zaitsev *et al.*)

The morphology of the nanocellulose-capped magnetite formed was examined by direct observation *via* transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The TEM images of the magnetite particles (Figure 5) are dominated by particles with very small particle size (~4 nm). The shape of the magnetite nanoparticles was spherical (distorted) or oval in shape, which is typical of magnetite nanoparticles synthesized by chemical co-precipitation (Ghandoor *et al.*, 2012). The Figure further showed that the magnetite nanoparticles were monodispersed with minimal aggregation.

Comparison of the particle size obtained with previous reports for nanomagnetite synthesized by co-precipitation, revealed the effect of the sulphated nanocellulose surface on the size and dispersity of the particles obtained. Specifically, the nanocellulose-capped magnetite nanoparticles obtained, had smaller size and were largely monodispersed when compared to previous reports of Jiang *et al.* (Jiang *et al.*, 2004), (8-50 nm), Mahdavi *et al.* (Mahdavi *et al.*, 2013), (7.83-9.41 nm), Gil *et al.* (Gil *et al.*, 2013),  $13.80 \pm 3.4$  nm) and Lee *et al.* (Lee *et al.*, 1996), (4-10 nm), who applied different surfactants, for example dextran, oleic acid, dicarboxyl terminated polyethylene glycol and polyvinyl alcohol, respectively.

Reports for nano-magnetite synthesized without surfactant had an average particle size of 16.5 nm and 11.0 nm (obtained *via* control of the pH window applied during synthesis) (Mascolo *et al.*, 2013). The better steric stabilization of nanocellulose when compared to the aforementioned surfactants/stabilizers, may be attributed to its sulphated hydroxyl groups, larger steric effect and better crystallinity, which reduce inter-particle aggregation and provides the required functional groups for interaction with the nanomagnetite surface. Besides the steric stabilization ability of the above surfactants/stabilizers, other factors, such as: the pH of the solution, stirring rate, duration of heat treatment, etc., may have also contributed to the results obtained (Mahdavi *et al.*, 2013).

The small size of the nanocellulose stabilized nanomagnetite particles implies that they are single domain particles. Since shape anisotropy is known to be absent in spherically-shaped single domain particles, the nanocellulose-capped nanomagnetite particles synthesized, exhibited superparamagnetic behaviour (as seen in **Figure 4b**) (Laurent *et al.*, 2008).

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The challenges in the synthesis of magnetite nanoparticles *via* the chemical co-precipitation route are the polydispersity and large particle sizes that are sometimes obtained. However, chemical co-precipitation is a highly desirable approach for the synthesis of magnetite nanoparticles, especially for bio-medical applications, due to the ease of the method

and the ready availability of its reagents. Typically, surfactants or steric stabilizers are applied to control the particle growth and aggregation and hence, produce monodispersed nanoparticles with acceptable size range. The choice of surfactant or steric stabilizer depends on their ability to stabilize the nanoparticles against Van der Waals attractive forces, which promote aggregation during the nucleation and growth processes. This is achieved *via* the electric double layer repulsion or steric stabilization or a combination of both.

In this work, nanocellulose crystals were synthesized from RW and its pendant hydroxyl groups functionalized *in-situ via* sulphuric acid hydrolysis in order to obtain sulphated nanocrystals. The sulphating of the nanocrystals reduced the hydrogen bonding in the nanocellulose and hence, resulting in less aggregation in CNC, while improving its ability to stabilize nanomagnetite particles by increasing the length of the electric double-layer and steric stabilization. The nanocellulose-capped magnetite particles obtained, were monodispersed and are of relatively small size when compared to previous reports that employed other surfactants, such as: dextran, oleic acid, dicarboxyl terminated polyethylene glycol and polyvinyl alcohol. The nanomagnetite particles obtained were spherical, of single domain particle size range and they exhibited good colloidal stability as ferrofluid.

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