Sensitive chemoselectivity of cellulose nanocrystal films

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Abstract

Cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) self-assembled into a chiral nematic structure film is an advanced platform for the fabrication of fascinating sensing, photonic and chiral nematic materials. Despite extensive progress in the functions of CNCs, their chemoselectivity has rarely been reported. Here, we exploit a brand-new perspective of CNCs in chemoselectivity, which shows sensitive selectivity even between isomers of monosaccharides and disaccharide by generating discernible crystal patterns. This sensitive selectivity of glucose homologs is attributed to the selective interaction of carbohydrate–carbohydrate, which enables the tune of the photonic properties and chiral mesoporous structures. Moreover, based on the chemoselectivity, chiral mesoporous structures with tunable specific surface areas are assembled from CNC suspensions and glucose homologs. We envision that the sensitive chemoselectivity of CNC films could provide insights into the recognition of carbohydrates and the preparation of mesoporous carbon in numerous practical applications.

1. Introduction

Cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) are biodegradable and sustainable polymers that could be hydrolyzed and extracted from cotton (Atalla et al. 1984; Lu et al. 2010; Saito et al. 2006), tree pulp (Claro et al. 2018; Lima et al. 2004) and bacteria (Arserim-Ucar et al. 2021; Dugan et al. 2013). Due to the chiral nematic phase (Gray et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2020), high surface area (Chen et al. 2021; Elazzouzi-Hafraoui et al. 2008) and eco-friendly nature (Zhang et al. 2020; Sunasee et al. 2016), CNCs have been widely used in medical devices (Du et al. 2019; Ke et al. 2021; Palaganas et al. 2017), food packagings (Assis et al. 2021; Nascimento et al. 2018) and photonic materials (Lagerwall et al. 2014). Recent years have witnessed an increasing interest in introducing various foreign components into the CNC platform to control its optical response and chiral nematic structure (Bardet et al. 2015; Eremeeva et al. 2020; Querejeta-Fernandez et al. 2014; Roy et al. 2009; Tang et al. 2017; Xiong et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2020). For instance, electric field has been applied to control the iridescence properties of CNCs at the micro-scale (Frka-Petesic et al. 2017; Manda et al. 2020). Magnet field, as a powerful and versatile tool, has also been used to control the CNC orientation and switch the structural colors in a programmed manner (Frka-Petesic et al. 2017). Besides, Qing et al. (2019) reported the chemoselectivity of pristine CNC film to saccharides, along with the color variation through the carbohydrate–carbohydrate interactions. However, there is still scarce study of the chemoselectivity of cellulose in isomers of glucose homologs, which is a powerful approach to recognize glucose homologs and prepare mesoporous carbon films.

In this work, we synthesize and screen out CNC precursors with excellent self-assembly capabilities by sulfuric acid hydrolysis through the control of hydrolysis temperature and time. The available yields of crystalline cellulose can reach more than 74wt% and the surface sulfur content can reach 0.95wt%. The resulting CNC suspension can be dried into a chiral nematic blue film by evaporation-induced self-assembly technique (Kang et al. 2013; Revol et al. 1998; Roman et al. 2005). The fabricated CNC film establishes sensitive selectivity between not only monosaccharides or disaccharide, but also their isomers, by forming distinct pattern morphologies in the crystalline process. We show that the crystal
morphologies are determined by the carbohydrate–carbohydrate interactions. Furthermore, we take the spatial carbohydrate–carbohydrate interactions to regulate the chiral nematic structure and fabricate mesoporous carbon films with a specific surface area ranging from 700 to 1350 m²/g. We believe that the sensitive chemoselectivity and the tune of chiral mesoporous carbon films of CNC film can contribute to the development of sugar-based sensors (Egawa et al. 2011; Suresha et al. 2008), chiral recognition (Chen et al. 2021; Li et al. 2021) and large-scale chiral structures (Lin et al. 2021; Tan et al. 2021).

2. Experimental Section

2.1 Fabrication of film

**Materials.** Cotton was bought from a market (Dalian, China) without any further processing. The analytical grade chemical sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄, 98%), d-glucose, d-galactose, d-lactose, and d-sucrose were purchased through standard suppliers. Polystyrene Petri dishes with a diameter of 5 cm were supplied by Guangzhou Jet Bio-Filtration Co., Ltd.

**Preparation and purification of CNC suspensions.** The CNCs were prepared by acidic hydrolysis at a temperature ranging from 35, 45 to 65 °C and the time ranging from 60, 90, 120 to 150 mins. The acid hydrolysis process was conducted at a ratio of 1:15 g/mL (solid cotton to sulfuric acid). The sulfuric acid solution (64wt%) was heated to a certain temperature in advance. After the temperature was constant, a certain proportion of the solid cotton was added to the solution and stirred vigorously. The hydrolysis reaction was conducted with a large amount of ultrapure water and the solution was allowed to stand for a night. The supernatant was poured out at any time, which was repeated several times until it was not layered. After that, the suspension without stratification was centrifuged at 6000 rpm/min for 10 minutes. The dispersion and centrifugation processes were repeated at least three times. At last, it was dialyzed using deionized water through a cellulose ester dialysis membrane (12,000–14,000 molecular weight wiped off) until constant pH was reached (typically over 4-5 days). The process for cellulose hydrolysis with sulfuric acid was shown in Fig. S1.

**The sample sulfur content hydrolyzed by sulfuric acid.** The sulfur contents of the suspension was often cited to evaluate the stability and charge content of the samples (Abitbol et al. 2013). After the removal of excess acid, the suspension of CNC dispersion (2.0wt%, 5 g) in presence of NaCl solution (1 mM, 75 g) is titrated with NaOH (50 mM). NaCl gave a certain ionic strength to limit repulsions in mixture due to the charged groups presented at the surface of CNCs. The sulfur content in solution could be quantified (Fig. S2). Because of charge repulsion, CNCs were dispersed in water and organized into a chiral nematic lyotropic liquid crystalline phase, which could be captured in a solid film when the dispersing medium was slowly evaporated.

**Preparation of the mesoporous carbon films.** Using the chiral phase of cellulose, the mesoporous silicon template (tetraethoxysilane, 200 µl) was introduced into the cellulose suspension (3wt%, 5 ml). The same
proportion of different types of glucose homologs (28wt%) was added. The mixed solution was stirred at room temperature for 1 hour, and then placed in a petri dish and dried for 24 hours to obtain a mixed film.

**Carbonization and de-templating of the nanocomposite cellulose film.** The mixed film was put into the tube furnace filled with nitrogen with a heating rate of 2 °C/min to 100 °C and kept for 2 hours. Then the temperature was raised to 600 °C at the same heating rate, and maintained for 6 hours. After that, the furnace was slowly cooling down to room temperature, and a carbonized carbon/silica composite film was obtained. Finally, the black film was put in a 2 M NaOH solution (200 ml), and stored at 90 °C for 4 h to remove SiO₂.

**2.2 Surface characterization**

**Transmission electron microscopy (TEM).** The TEM sample was prepared by putting dilute dispersion (~0.01wt%) of cellulosic suspension onto carbon-coated grids. 10 uL CNC suspension was dispersed on a glow-discharged carbon-coated copper network (300-mesh copper, Ted Pella Inc) and filter paper was used to remove excess liquid and then characterized on a JEOL JEM-2100 (HR) with an accelerating voltage of 200 kV with a LaB6 filament.

**Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and polarized optical microscopy (POM).** The surface morphology was characterized using a Carl Zeiss electron microscope with ORION NanoFab. The sample was fractured after being frozen by liquid nitrogen and the section was collected. POM images were captured using an Olympus BX53 optical microscope.

**Atomic force microscopy (AFM).** An appropriate concentration of CNC dispersion (~ 0.005wt%) was transferred to the mica plate and dried at room temperature. NanoWizard ULTRA Speed JPK in QITM mode was used to image the samples. To obtain a good characterization, a uniformly dispersed sample at a low concentration was prepared. Figure 1a shows the AFM images of samples with hydrolysis time 60 mins, 90 mins, 120 mins and 150 mins, respectively.

**3. Results And Discussion**

The hydrolysis time and temperature were first screened out for extracting cellulosic suspension from cotton. Here, the hydrolysis time and temperature were changed from 60 to 150 mins and 35 to 55 °C, respectively. During the hydrolysis reaction, the amorphous regions of cellulose were selectively hydrolyzed, leaving the crystalline regions known as CNCs with spindle-shaped nanoparticles (Fig. S3). Also, a protonated sulfate group (–OSO₃) was introduced into the surface of the CNC nanoparticles, which was detected by a conductivity titration method. The sulfur content and charge density under different reaction conditions were shown in Fig. S4. With the reaction temperature increased, the sulfur content (wt%) increased first and then decreased due to the excessive hydrolysis of the CNC nanoparticles. Meanwhile, the sulfur content increased with the reaction time at the same temperature (Fig. S4a). Note that, the charge density was kept almost constant (Fig. S4b).
Based on the charge repulsion induced by $-\text{OSO}_3$, a chiral CNC film was obtained via a simple and environmental evaporation-induced self-assembly method. It was shown that the aspect ratio of obtained CNCs decreased as the hydrolysis time increased as shown in Fig. 1a, and the optimal hydrolysis temperature 45 °C was screened out to obtain the largest CNC yield (~74.1wt%) at this condition (Fig. 1b). Further optical photos showed that the structural color of CNC films could be controlled from colorless to reddish with hydrolysis time varying from 60 to 150 mins (Fig. 1c). Moreover, we found that distinct fingerprint in macro-scale was generated on each CNC film, as shown in Fig. 1d. Figure 1e showed the SEM images of the micro-scale structures of CNC films, which manifested different pitches ($P$) ranging from 238 nm, 309 nm, 370 nm to 394 nm, respectively, with the increase of hydrolysis time. To explore the relationship between micro-structures and structural colors, we detected the reflection wavelength ($\lambda$) of the films by a spectrophotometer (Fig. 1f). It could be seen that the hydrolysis time resulted in a red-shift of the reflection band. In addition, the reflected wavelength was positive to the pitch value $P$, which was consistent with De Vries equation (Devries et al. 1951): $\lambda_{\text{max}} = n_{\text{avg}}P$. Here, $n_{\text{avg}}$ was the average refractive index. We believe that the unique chiral nematic structures will provide a new insight in chemoselectivity.

To explore the chemoselectivity of the CNC film, we examined the crystalline morphologies of glucose homologs including monosaccharides, disaccharide and their isomers, whose molecular formulas were shown in Fig. 2a. During the experiment, we dripped the glucose homologs solution (200 mmol/mL, 200 µl) on the CNC film drop by drop. Then, the glucose homologs crystallized on the target surface, as shown in the schematic in Fig. 2b. Obviously, the crystalline morphologies of various glucose homologs were distinct among not only monosaccharides and disaccharide, but also their isomers, though there were only differences in the spatial isomerization of -OH in the molecular structure (Fig. 2a).

In the crystallization process, the glucose precipitated and spread gradually to generate glittering and translucent snowflake-like structures (Fig. 2c and Fig. S5). However, the crystallization process of galactose (the isomer of glucose) was obviously different, forming a flower-like structure (Figs. 2c and S6). Similarly, for lactose and its isomer, the crystalline morphologies were also distinct, which exhibited structures of forked branches and patches of feathers, respectively (Fig. 2c). Moreover, we observed similar crystalline morphologies of glucose homologs on glass plates, as shown in Fig. 2d. The above discrepancy shows that the CNC films establish sensitive chemoselectivity of not only monosaccharides and disaccharide, but also their isomers by forming distinct pattern morphologies in crystalline process. This sensitive selectivity is due to the carbohydrate-carbohydrate interactions between glucose homologs and CNC films, rather than the crystallization differences of glucose homologs themselves.

Note that, the carbohydrate-carbohydrate interactions between carbohydrates and sulfonated polysaccharide have been reported before (Bavireddi et al. 2013; Ji et al. 2019; Sletmoen et al. 2018), which can be detected by colloidal probe microscopy (Lorenz et al. 2012; Witt et al. 2016). Here, the carbohydrate-carbohydrate interactions between CNC film and glucose homologs are shown in Fig. 3a. Different crystalline morphologies are attributed to the hydrogen bonds with different conformations, formed by the isomerization of hydroxyl groups in isomers of glucose homologs. Moreover, the selectiv
interaction between various glucose homologs and CNC films can be used to regulate the porous structure of carbon (Gan et al. 2021; Gao et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2021). As carbohydrate–carbohydrate interactions between glucose homologs are weak, the influence of glucose homologs to the microstructure of CNCs film would be small. When glucose homologs are mixed into CNCs, the pitch value $P$ could be disturbed due to the carbohydrate–carbohydrate interaction as shown in Fig. 3b. After further carbonization and de-templating process, a carbonized material with long range ordered mesopores is obtained assembled from CNCs and glucose homologs (CNCs/glucose) film, and a schematic is shown in Fig. 3c. Moreover, the pitch value $P$ of the carbonized films is influenced by the types of glucose homologs, which are 327 nm, 384 nm, 346 nm and 365 nm, respectively, in contrast to the $P$ of original CNC films (370 nm), as shown in Fig. 3d. This further verifies the distinction of selective interactions between various glucose homologs and CNCs.

Not only the chiral structure of carbonized films, but also the pore structural feature of carbonized materials including specific surface area, pore volume and diameter, determine their applications. Following is an example of the mesopore carbonized material assembled from the CNCs and sucrose (CNCs/sucrose). The carbonized CNCs/sucrose material has inherited the chiral structure as well as the functions of cellulose, as evidenced in the transmission electron microscopy (Fig. 4a). According to the nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherm of carbonized CNCs/sucrose material which exists a hysteresis loop, the adsorption isotherm could be labeled as Type V (Kazmierczak-Razna et al. 2017), which provides insight into the pore type of the material (Deng et al. 2020). Besides, we apply the Barret–Joyner–Halenda model (Fig. 4c) to calculate the peak pore diameter of CNCs/sucrose material (~3.3 nm), which is an idea carrier for catalyst.

Further, the influence of glucose homologs on specific surface area, pore volume and diameter was investigated. For CNC carbon films without glucose homologs, as shown in Fig. 4d and Table S1, the specific surface area, pore volume and diameter are 705 m$^2$/g, 1.02 cm$^3$/g and 3.7 nm, respectively. However, after monosaccharides or disaccharides are added into cellulose solution, the surface area of CNC carbon film is nearly doubled (Fig. 4d), while the pore volume and pore diameter are both slightly reduced (Table S1). This is attributed to the increased mesoporous of CNC films when added with glucose homologs compared to the original ones. Therefore, we can fabricate the mesoporous carbon films with tunable specific surface area assembled from CNC suspensions and various glucose homologs.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we prepared CNC precursors by sulfuric acid hydrolysis through the control of hydrolysis conditions, whose yield, sulfur content and reflectance spectra could be controlled with different preparation conditions. The CNC films show sensitive chemoselectivity to glucose homologs including monosaccharides, disaccharide and their isomers, which is attributed to the selective carbohydrate–carbohydrate interactions between CNC films and glucose homologs. Besides, this distinct interactions can be utilized to fabricate mesoporous carbon films with tunable specific surface area assembled from
CNC suspensions and glucose homologs. We expect that the sensitive chemoselectivity of CNCs opens up a new avenue for recognizing carbohydrates and fabricating mesoporous carbon films, which shows great potential in the fabrication of sugar-based sensors, electrode materials nanodevices, energy storage devices, etc.

**Declarations**

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**Figures**

**Figure 1**

Characterization of pure CNC films fabricated with different hydrolysis time (from left to right: 60 mins, 90 mins, 120 mins and 150 mins). (a) AFM images of the CNC films with different hydrolysis time. (b) CNC yields under different hydrolysis time and temperatures. (c) Photographs of the films indicated different color response. (d) POM images of films with fingerprint textures; (e) SEM images of CNC films with different randomly oriented periodic pitches. (f) Reflectance spectra of films with different hydrolysis time at 45 °C.
Figure 2

(a) The molecular formulas of different glucose homologs (from left to right are glucose, galactose, lactose and sucrose, respectively). (b) Schematics showing the mechanism of glucose homologs solution dripping onto the CNC film and forming crystallizations. (c) POM images showing the glucose homologs crystallization on CNC films. (d) POM images showing the glucose homologs crystallization on glass plates.

Figure 3

The process of preparing carbon film with CNCs and glucose homologs. (a) The molecular formula of CNCs and glucose homologue (d-Galactose, sucrose respectively). (b) Schematics showing the mechanism of the self-assembly process of cellulose and glucose homologs solution into a film. (c) Schematics showing the carbonization process of cellulose films. (d) SEM images of carbon films with different glucose homologs (glucose, galactose, lactose and sucrose, respectively).
Figure 4

(a) TEM image of mesoporous carbon film with twisting rod-like morphology. (b) Nitrogen adsorption isotherms of mesoporous carbon film. (c) Photograph of a mesoporous carbon film with glossy black appearance obtained from pyrolysis and etching of the pristine CNCs/sucrose film and Barret–Joyner–Halenda pore size distribution of carbon film calculated from the adsorption branch of the nitrogen isotherms. (d) Surface areas of mesoporous carbon film with different glucose homologs based on Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) theory.

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