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(Article begins on next page)

¹ From polysaccharides to UV-curable biorenewable

² organo/hydrogels for methylene blue removal

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- 12 KEYWORDS: UV-curing, polysaccaharides, hydrogels
- 13

14 ABSTRACT

Biorenewable "all-starch"-derived organo/hydrogels (OHGs) were prepared *via* "green" and fast
UV-curing and tested as bio-adsorbents for the removal of methylene blue from water.
Methacrylated starch (MS) and acrylated starch derivative, γ-cyclodextrin (ACy), were synthetized

18 for use as hydrogel OHG precursors for the photopolymerization process. Real-time 19 photorheology confirmed the high reactivity of the prepared photocurable precursors. The 20 mechanical properties and swelling behaviour of the photocured hydrogelsOHGs were examined 21 focusing on the influence of the increasing amount of ACy. The MS-ACy hydrogelsOHGs were 22 tested as innovative and environmental-friendly biorenewable materials for water treatment, using 23 methylene blue (MB) as reference pollutant. The experimental data reveal that hydrogels-OHGs 24 containing an increasing amount of ACy show not only superior mechanical strength but also 25 adsorption properties as a consequence of the high crosslinking efficiency of the acrylated 26 cyclodextrin derivative and its ability to form host-guest inclusion complexes. Finally, the 27 printability of these photocurable formulations via digital light processing (DLP) 3D – Printing is confirmed, envisaging which allows to foresee the fabrication of new absorption absorbing 28 29 materials with complex but designed geometries for a specific application and application-tailored 30 geometry, which could represent a new frontier and as such offers new perspectives for wastewater 31 treatment.

32

33 1. INTRODUCTION

Water is the most valuable resource for mankind and water pollution caused by human activities is without question a major environmental problem. Among all aquatic pollutants, dyes take an ever-growing part and currently their world-wide annual production has reached approximately 800,000 tons whereby about 10-15% is lost into the environment during their industrial production [1]. Many dyes are commonly used in various large-scale industrial commodities such as in textiles, leather, food, paper printing, pharmaceuticals and cosmetics 40 [2,3]. Specifically, textile industry remains the major source of dye-release into the environment 41 due to the considerable amount of water involved in the dyeing process [4]. As an example, 100 42 L of water is required to process 1 kg of textiles in traditional textile finishing processes [5]. The 43 presence of coloured effluents inhibits the growth of the aquatic flora since they limit the 44 sunlight penetration into waters, thus hindering photosynthesis and reducing the gas solubility in 45 water [6]. Moreover, most synthetic dyes can cause hazards to humans due to their intrinsic 46 toxicity. Among commercial dyes, 3,7-bis(dimethylamino) phenazathionium chloride, 47 commonly known as methylene blue (MB), is one of the most used ones. Since it may provoke 48 vomit, gastritis, cyanosis, heartbeat increase, jaundice, and tissue necrosis [7,8], its discharge 49 even in traces into wastewater needs to be minimized.

50 Different processes are currently available for the removal of dye residues from water, such as 51 chemical oxidation, adsorption, precipitation, membrane-filtration, electrolysis, 52 photodegradation, electrokinetic coagulation, flocculation with Fe(II)/Ca(OH)₂, and also 53 biological, microbiological, and physiochemical methods [9]. Despite that, many of the existing 54 approaches have limitations associated to both the production of hazardous by-products and high 55 energy costs. Among them, adsorption processes are extensively used since they are simple and 56 cost-effective. Evidently, the adsorption efficiency largely relies on the type of adsorbent. 57 Activated carbon, mesoporous silica, and magnetic nanoparticles are the most commonly used 58 materials due to their high adsorption capacity and availability [10-12]. With the aim to develop 59 low-cost adsorbent materials, several studies have been carried out to evaluate the adsorption 60 properties of new polymeric hydrogels [13].

Hydrogels (HS) are three-dimensional hydrophilic crosslinked polymer networks able to
absorb large quantities of water without dissolving. Therefore, they are gaining increasing

63 attention as adsorbents also for wastewater treatment. However, HS are commonly made of 64 petroleum-based and non-degradable polymers, generating so-called secondary environmental pollution [14,15]. This is the reason why in the last years special attention has been given to 65 66 adsorbents which are based naturally occurring resources, e.g. carbohydrate-based HS. These are 67 environmentally friendly, renewable, biodegradable and non-toxic [16,17]. Several 68 polysaccharides like cellulose [18], chitosan [19,20], starch [21], alginate [22], and dextran [23] 69 were recently proposed for preparation of low-cost hydrogels [16,24]. Presently, these types of 70 materials display low mechanical properties which hinder their applicability. Different strategies 71 can be applied to overcome this problem, like the creation of double-crosslinked networks or the 72 formation of hybrid hydrogels based on the combination of inorganic and organic materials 73 [24,25].

Starch, in particular, is one of the most abundantly available polysaccharides. It consists of a mixture of two glucose-derived polymers, namely amylose (linear) and amylopectin (branched), joined together by $\alpha(1-4)$ linkages. Moreover, the high availability of hydroxyl groups makes it a very versatile biopolymer, giving the opportunity of chemical modifications *via* -OH substitution to prepare a large number of derivatives. And indeed, grafted starch has been previously used for the removal of metal [26,27] and dye pollutants from water [25].

Among starch derivatives, cyclodextrins (CDs), have been proposed as especially interesting absorbents. CDs are cyclic oligoamyloses, which can be sustainably derived from starch using glycosyltransferase and consist of either 6 (α), 7 (β) or 8 (γ) glucose subunits [28,29]. Taking advantage of their torus-shaped structure, they can be used to trap different pollutants *via* the generation of the so-called host-guest inclusion complexes [30,31]. Generally, different crosslinkers and grafting agents are used along with CDs to prepare grafted polymers or 86 copolymers. One of the first CD-based polymers being used for water purification consisted of 87 CDs crosslinked with epichlorohydrin (ECH) [31-33]. Subsequently, various types of molecular 88 architectures were developed by simply substituting the hydroxyl moieties of CDs with other 89 functional groups, to make them suitable for different types of reaction with other polymers [33-90 37]. In particular, bio-based hydrogels prepared by using the CDs along with other natural 91 polymers have shown promising potential in wastewater treatment [38,39]. However, the vast 92 majority of investigations on hydrogels containing CDs focused on chitosan-based systems [40-93 43], while investigations combining CDs with other polysaccharides such as cellulose, starch, 94 alginate and cotton are still scarce [37,44].

So far only few reports mentioned the use of bio-based photo-crosslinked hydrogels for wastewater treatment [45-47] and only one utilized photo-crosslinked polysaccharides [48].
Photopolymerizations have several advantages over other conventional techniques used to prepare chemically crosslinked hydrogels, namely fast reaction rates, no volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions, and no need of heat but comparatively low energy consumption [49-51].

101 We therefore synthesized new UV-curable polysaccharide-based organo/hydrogels (OHGs) 102 from starch and y-cyclodextrin. For this purpose, starch was methacrylated (methacrylated 103 starch, MS) and γ -cyclodextrin acrylated (acrylated γ -cyclodextrin, ACy) according to previously 104 reported procedures [51,52]. This procedure makes these molecules suitable for 105 photopolymerization processes. The aim was to obtain a randomly oriented double network upon 106 UV-light irradiation of the functionalized polysaccharides. Besides the function as absorbents, 107 ACys could potentially reinforce the hydrogel OHG networks, due to the expected and already 108 proven high crosslinking efficiency [52].

109 The curing kinetics of the photocurable formulations were evaluated via real-time photo-110 rheology. The mechanical properties and the swelling capability of the photocured hydrogels 111 OHGs were investigated with the particular aim to characterize the structure of the crosslinked 112 networks. Finally, the adsorption properties were investigated in detail to prove the potential 113 application as bio-based absorbent material for waste-water treatment. Methylene blue (MB) was 114 used as a model molecule for cationic dyes. Both the capacity and the kinetics of absorption of 115 the MS-ACy hydrogels OHGs were investigated. Finally, the printability via digital light 116 processing (DLP) 3D – Printing was demonstrated, envisaging a new frontier for wastewater 117 treatment through fabrication of complex application-tailored geometries with increased surface 118 area which may have a profound positive impact on the development of better performing 119 absorption materials in general [53].

120 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

121 2.1 Materials.

High amylose Hylon VII maize starch (70% amylose) was obtained from Ingredion (Goole, UK).
γ-Cyclodextrin was obtained from ABCR. Methacrylic anhydride (MA), triethylamine (>99%)
(TEA), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (ACS reagent P99.9%), ethanol absolute, acryloyl chloride,
anhydrous n-methyl-pyrrolidone (NMP), methylene blue (MB), methyl red and phenylbis(2,4,6trimethylbenzoyl)phosphine oxide (BAPO) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used
without further purification.

128 2.2 Synthesis of methacrylate starch (MS)

Methacrylated starch (MS) was synthetized as previously reported [51]. Accordingly, 6 g of high amylose maize starch were dispersed in 200 mL of DMSO. Subsequently the solution was heated up at 70°C for 30 min to gelatinize the starch. Then, the solution was cooled down at room temperature (RT) and 12 mL of MA and 0.22 mL of TEA were added dropwise. The reaction was left to stir at RT for 18 hours. The products were then precipitated in ethanol, dissolved in deionized water and precipitate again in ethanol. This procedure was repeated two times in order to purify the product (47%). The final aqueous solution was lyophilized.

136 2.3 Synthesis of acrylated γ-cyclodextrin (ACy)

137 Acrylated γ -cyclodextrin (ACy) was prepared as previously reported [52]. Accordingly, γ -

138 cyclodextrin (20 g) was first dried under high vacuum before being dissolved in anhydrous n-

139 methyl-pyrrolidone (NMP, 160 mL). Then, the temperature was decreased to 0 °C and acryloyl

140 chloride (36.07 mL) was added dropwise. The reaction mixture was magnetically stirred at RT

141 for 72 h at 300 rpm. Dropping the reaction mixture into 2 L of deionized H₂O gave ACy as a

142 precipitate (67%). After decanting at RT for 30 min., the product was filtered and washed four

143 times using deionized H₂O, before being dried under high vacuum for 24 h.

144 2.4 Organo/hydrogel preparation

145 Different photocurable formulations were prepared by dissolving the functionalized

146 polysaccharide precursors in a H₂O/DMSO (20/80) mixture. The MS-ACy weight ratio was

147 varied, while the total monomer concentration was kept at 10 wt% (Table 1). BAPO [1 phr,

148 (weight per hundred resin)] was used as a photoinitiator. The hydrogels-OHGs were prepared by

149 pouring the precursor formulations into a silicon mold and irradiating for 1 minute with UV light

- 150 (100 mW/cm²) using a Hamamatsu LC8 lamp equipped with 8 mm light guide (240 to 400 nm as
- 151 spectral distribution).
 - BAPO Methacrylated Starch (MS) Acrylated y-Cyclodextrin (ACy) Sample name (wt%) (wt%) (phr) MS 100 0 MS-ACy 3-1 75 25 MS-ACy 2-1 66 34 1 MS-ACy 1-1 50 50 MS-ACy 1-2 34 66 100 **ACy** 0
- 152 **Table 1.** Photocurable formulations.

153

- 154 2.5 Characterization
- 155 2.5.1 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)

¹H-NMR and ¹³C-NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Advance 400 Fourier Transform

157 NMR spectrometer (FT NMR, Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA). The chemical shifts (δ) were

158 measured and are given in parts per million (ppm) relative to TMS for ¹H NMR and ¹³C{¹H}

159 NMR, respectively, according to IUPAC. All the spectra were recorded at RT except for the ¹³C-

160 NMR spectra of starch and methacrylated starch which were measured at 60°C to improve the

161 spectra resolution.

162 2.5.2 Attenuated Total Reflectance-Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR)

163 FTIR spectra were recorded by using a Perkin Elmer Spectrum 2000 FTIR spectrometer (Perkin

164 Elmer, Norwalk, CT, USA) equipped with a single reflection attenuated total reflectance (ATR)

165 accessory (golden gate). 32 scans were recorded for each sample from 4000 to 500 cm^{-1} with a

166 resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

167 2.5.3 Photorheology and Rheology

168 The rheology tests were performed using Anton PAAR Modular Compact Rheometer (Physica 169 MCR 302, Graz, Austria) in a parallel plate configuration with a quartz bottom glass (25 mm). 170 The experiments were recorded at RT setting the gap between the plates at 300 µm. Preliminary 171 amplitude sweep measurements were conducted to define the linear viscoelastic region (LVR) of 172 the liquid formulations. Real-time photorheology measurements were carried out to evaluate the 173 curing kinetic of the precursor formulations. The curing process was evaluated by following the 174 changes in the elastic storage modulus G' during UV-light irradiation (Hamamatsu LC8 lamp, 30 175 mW/cm^2). The tests were performed in the LVR setting a constant strain amplitude of 0.5% and 176 constant frequency (ω) of 6 rad/s. The light was switched on after 30 s to let the system stabilize 177 before the onset of polymerization. Frequency sweep experiments $[\omega: 0.1-100 \text{ rad/s}]$ were then 178 conducted on freshly crosslinked hydrogels under constant strain amplitude (1%). Finally, the 179 main structural parameters of the crosslinked hydrogels were calculated as follows. The molar 180 mass between two entanglement points (M_e*), the crosslinking densitynumbers of crosslinks (v_e) 181 and distance between two entanglement points (ξ) were obtained from equations 1, 2, and 3, 182 respectively.

183
$$M_e^* = \frac{cRT}{G_p'} \tag{1}$$

184
$$v_e = \frac{G'_p N_A}{RT}$$
(2)

185
$$\xi = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{v_e}} \tag{3}$$

Where c is the concentration, R is the universal gas constant, T is the temperature in Kelvin,
G'_p is the storage modulus in the frequency independent plateau region and N_A is the Avogadro's
number [54].

189 2.5.4 Compression Test

Unconfined uniaxial compression tests were performed with a MTS QTestTM/10 Elite controller using TestWorks® 4 software (MTS Systems Corporation, Edan Prairie, Minnesota, USA). The measurements were performed at RT on cylindrical samples (Ø=10, h=10) with a cell load of 10 N and a head-speed of 0.5 mm/min. The data acquisition rate was set at 20 Hz. The compressive modulus was estimated as the slope of the linear region of the resulting stress–strain curves.

195 2.5.5 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

Differential scanning calorimetric analyses were carried out using a Mettler Toledo DSC
instrument. The measures were performed under nitrogen atmosphere (50 µl/min) setting a
heating rate of 10 °C/min. Approximately 6 mg of each sample were sealed in a 100 µL
aluminium pan with pierced lids.

200 2.5.6 Swelling Behaviour

The swelling behaviour was investigated by means of gravimetric analysis. The dried hydrogels OHGs (air drying) were first immersed in deionized water at RT. Then, the samples were removed from water at different time-intervals and subsequently weighted after removing the free water present on the surface with a filter paper. The swelling degree (SD%), the equilibrium swelling ratio (S_{eq}) and the equilibrium water content (EWC) were calculated with the following Equations (4,5,6).

10

207
$$SD\% = \left(\frac{W_{\mathbf{t}} - W_d}{W_d}\right) * 100, \tag{4}$$

$$208 \qquad S_{eq} = \frac{W_e - W_d}{W_d} \tag{5}$$

209
$$EWC\% = \frac{W_e - W_d}{W_e} * 100,$$
 (6)

210 where $W_{f}W_{t}$ is the final-weight at time t, W_{d} is the weight of the dry sample, and W_{e} is the 211 weight of the sample at the equilibrium state.

212 2.5.7 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM)

The morphological characterization of the hydrogelsOHGs was performed by using a FESEM Zeiss Supra 40 (Oberkochen, Germany). The sample were first lyophilized and then immersed in liquid nitrogen to induce a fragile fracture. Subsequently, the broken specimens were covered with a 5 nm thick film of Platinum.

217 2.5.8 Adsorption study

218 The adsorption study of MB was conducted by adding 8 mL of MB solution (40 mg/L) to 8 mg of dried hydrogelOHG at T = 25 °C. Afterwards the vials were protected from light with an 219 220 aluminium foil to avoid photocatalytic degradation of the dye. Then, fixed amount of supernatant 221 was taken out at different time-intervals to monitor the dye adsorption. The MB concentration 222 was determined by JENWAY 6850 UV/Vis (Cole-Parmer, Stone, Staffordshire, UK) UV-visible 223 spectroscopy by following the peak centred at 665 nm. The adsorption capacity at time t (qm [mg/g]) and the equilibrium adsorption capacity (qe [mg/g]) were calculated according to 224 225 Equations 7 and 8, respectively.

226
$$q_m = \frac{(C_0 - C_t) * V}{W}$$
 (7)

227
$$q_e = \frac{(C_0 - C_e) * V}{W}$$
 (8)

228 Where $C_0 (mg/L)$ is the initial MB concentration, while $C_e (mg/L)$ and $C_t (mg/L)$ are the MB 229 concentration at time t and at equilibrium, respectively. V (mL) is the volume of MB solution 230 and W (g) is the mass of the dried hydrogelOHG.

Two different kinetic models were then used to evaluate the adsorption rate and the potential rate controlling step. The kinetic data were analysed by means of pseudo-first order and pseudosecond order models [55], using the Lagergren Equations (9 and 10).

$$234 \qquad \frac{dq}{dt} = k_1(q_e - q_m) \tag{9}$$

$$235 \qquad -\ln\left(\frac{1-q_m}{q_e}\right) = k_1 t \tag{10}$$

where k_1 is the rate constant of pseudo-first order sorption [1/min]. According to this approximation, a plot of $-\ln((1-q)/q_e)$ vs t gives a straight line with slope k_1 .

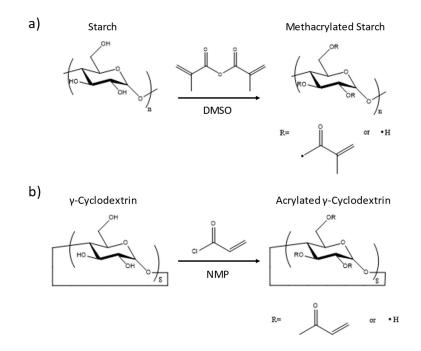
Equations 11 and 12 report the second-order kinetic rate equation and its integrated formularespectively [56].

240
$$\frac{dq}{dt} = k_2 (q_e - q)^2 \tag{11}$$

241
$$\frac{t}{q} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e}$$
 (12)

242	where k_2 is the rate constant of the pseudo second order sorption [g/(mg min)]. According to
243	this approximation, a plot of t/q vs t gives a linear relationship with slope $1/q_e$ and intercept
244	$1/k_2 q_e^2$.
245	2.5.9 Digital light processing (DLP) 3D-printing
246	The printability of the precursor formulations by means of DLP 3D – Printing was investigated
247	using an Asiga UV-MAX DLP printer (nominal XY pixel resolution of 27 μ m, light emission at
248	λ =385nm). Different CAD models were converted into STL files and 3D printed. The layer
249	thickness and the light intensity were fixed at 50 μ m and 30 mW/cm ² , while the exposure time
250	was set at 3-ranged between 2.5 and 3 s, depending on the photocurable formulation being used.
251	The printed objects were post-cured for 3 min using a mercury lamp provided by Robot Factory
252	(UV-light, 12 mW/cm ² , 385 nm).
253	
254	
255	
256	3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
257	Biorenewable photopolymerized "all-starch" hydrogels <mark>OHGs</mark> were prepared from
258	functionalized starch and γ -cyclodextrin, a starch derivative, and tested as bio-adsorbent for the
259	removal of methylene blue from water. Both of the polysaccharides were functionalized via
260	hydroxyl groups substitution to get derivatives suitable for photopolymerization processes.
261	Accordingly, methacrylated starch (MS) and acrylated γ -cyclodextrin (ACy) were prepared

following two synthetic routes already reported in previous studies, using methacrylic anhydride and acryloyl chloride as functionalizing agents (Scheme 1) [51,52]. The complete procedures are given in the experimental section.



265

Scheme 1. Schematic representation of a) starch and b) cyclodextrin functionalization reactions.

268 The successful functionalizations were confirmed by means of ¹H NMR and ¹³C{¹H} NMR,

269 which revealed the typical signals of the new vinyl protons ($\delta^1 H_{MS} = 5.66$ and 6.07 ppm; $\delta^1 H_{ACy}$

270 = 5.95, 6.18, and 6.32 ppm) and carbons ($\delta^{13}C_{MS}$ = 127.75 and 136.61 ppm; $\delta^{13}C_{ACy}$ = 128.39

and 132.06 ppm); methyl protons and carbons ($\delta^{1}H_{MS} = 1.9$ ppm; $\delta^{13}C_{MS} = 18.45$ ppm) and

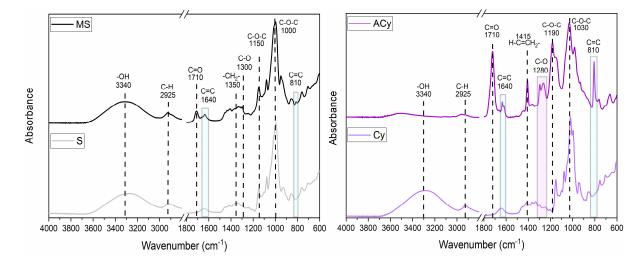
272 carbonyl carbons ($\delta^{13}C_{MS} = 170.38$ ppm; $\delta^{13}C_{ACy} = 165.57$ ppm) of the photoreactive derivatives

273 MS (Fig. S1, Fig. S2) and ACy (Fig. S3, Fig. S4). The obtained degree of substitution (DOS) for

the hydroxyl groups were approximately 0.08 for MS and 0.9 for ACy in accordance towith what
was reported previously [51,52].

The efficiency of the functionalization was further proven by infrared spectroscopy. The ATR-FTIR spectra of MS and ACy were collected and compared to the spectra of the starting materials. The detailed assignment of the signals corresponding to the spectral vibrations of both the main polysaccharides groups and the new chemical functionalities is highlighted in Fig. 1 [57-59].

The new characteristic peaks corresponding to the C=CH₂ out of plane bending vibrations and C=O stretching vibration of meth-/acrylates can be easily observed at 815, 1640 cm⁻¹ and 1710 cm⁻¹, respectively [60-62]. The reduction of the intensity of the signal corresponding to the -OH vibration at 3340 cm⁻¹ further confirms the conversion of hydroxyl groups into (meth)acrylated functions of both starch and γ -cyclodextrin. Note that the reduction of the -OH peak intensity is more pronounced in the spectrum of acrylated ACy, suggesting-confirming a-the higher degree of functionalization [52].



288

Figure 1. FTIR spectra of pristine Starch (S), γ-cyclodextrin (Cy) and their corresponding
methacrylated derivatives starch (MS) and acrylated γ-cyclodextrin (ACy).

291

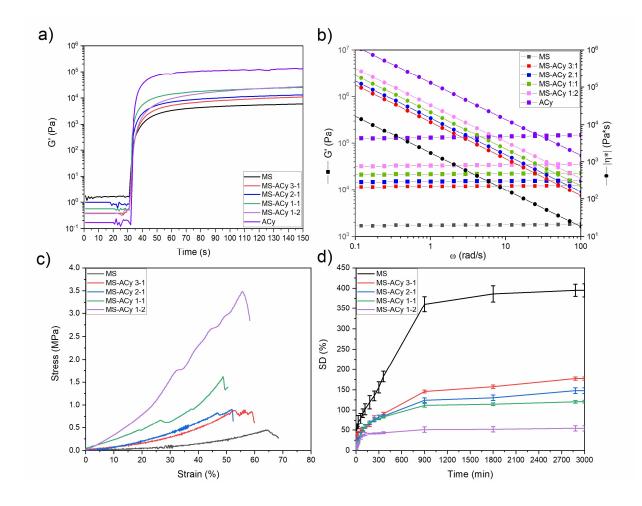
Several photocurable formulations were prepared by dissolving different amounts of MS and ACy in a H₂O/DMSO (20/80) mixture, while phenylbis(2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl)phosphine oxide (BAPO, registered trade name Omnicure 819) was added as a photoinitiator. DMSO was used as co-solvent in order to increase the solubility of ACy in aqueous formulations. The chemical composition of the final precursor formulations is given in the experimental section.

297 The photoreactivity of the formulations was evaluated by means of real-time photorheology. The 298 build-up of the polymer network was monitored by following the storage modulus (G') evolution 299 during UV-light irradiation. The photorheology curves shown in Figure 2a reveal the high 300 reactivity of these polysaccharides-based formulations. The induction time, i.e. the minimum time 301 required to start the photo-induced chemical crosslinking, is less than 2" for all investigated 302 formulations. Moreover, photo-crosslinking is completed within approximately 60", as confirmed 303 by the onset of the plateau value of the storage moduli (G'). However, even if all formulations 304 seem to have similar curing kinetics, as suggested by the similar slopes ($\Delta G'/\Delta t$) of the curves, the 305 reaction rates increase almost three times (from 134 to 335 Pa/s) as the concentration of ACy is 306 increased in the precursor formulation (see entry 1, Tab. 2). Also, higher G' values are reached 307 with increasing ACy content (see entry 2 Tab. 2). This proves that the addition of ACy into the 308 formulations leads to faster curing kinetics, due to the higher reactivity of acrylates with respect 309 to methacrylate moieties and the higher degree of functionalization of ACy. The higher 310 crosslinking efficiency of the cyclodextrin derivatives also generated stiffer hydrogels [52].

The viscoelastic properties of the hydrogels-OHGs just formed upon UV-light irradiation were investigated by means of frequency sweep experiments. The dynamic viscosity $|\eta^*|$ and the storage modulus G' values are reported in Tab. 2. The $|\eta^*|$ slope values are approximately -0.9 for all the samples, suggesting a pseudo-plastic behaviour (Fig. 2b) [54]. Furthermore, performing the analysis in the linear viscoelastic region, it is possible to determine the network parameters in nonintrusive way, from the G' measured values [63].

317 The molar mass (M_e^*) and the distance (ξ) between two entanglements points decreased with 318 increasing ACy content and the crosslink density (ve) increased by more than an order of 319 magnitude (see entries 3, 4 and 5, Table 2). These results are consistent with the high crosslinking 320 efficiency of ACy [52]. The influence of ACy on the final properties of the UV-cured 321 thermosetting networks was further confirmed by the thermo-mechanical characterizations that 322 were carried out on dried samples. DSC measurements revealed an increase in the glass transition 323 temperatures (T_g) with increasing amount of ACy in the precursor formulations, given that the 324 increase in the crosslinking density of a polymer reflects into higher T_g values (Tab. 2) [64]. 325 Furthermore, the mechanical properties of the hydrogels were evaluated by means of compression 326 tests. The obtained stress-strain curves are shown in Fig. 2c, while the Young's modulus (E_c), and the ultimate compression strength (UCS) values and compression at break are reported in Tab. 2. 327 328 The E_c values range from 0.78 to 3.93 MPa and are higher than the ones of other polysaccharides-329 based hydrogels already reported in the literature [65-67]. Once again, the higher the ACy content, 330 the higher are both E_c and UCS, meaning that the presence of ACy improved the mechanical 331 performance of the photopolymerized networks as a result of the higher ve values. Whereas the compression at break slightly decreases in the presence of ACy, as expected for more crosslinked 332 333 networks.

334 Subsequently, the water-absorption capability of these polysaccharide-based OHGshydrogels 335 was investigated. First, the cured hydrogelsOHGs were immersed in water to remove DMSO via 336 solvent exchange. Then, the samples were dried and immersed again in water to evaluate the 337 degree of swelling at different time-intervals, following the procedure reported in the experimental section. The swelling kinetics of the hydrogels OHGs are shown in Figure 2d and the swelling at 338 339 equilibrium (S_{eq}) and the equilibrium water content (EWC) values are listed in Tab. $\frac{32}{2}$. As 340 displayed, all the photocured hydrogels-OHGs reach Seq after approximately 15 hours. However, 341 as expected from the crosslinking degree values, the presence of ACy affects the swelling degree, 342 since both S_{eq} and EWC decrease (from 395 to 54 and from 80 to 35, respectively) as the ACy 343 content increases.



344

18

- 345 **Figure 2.** a) Photorheology curves; b) frequency sweep plots; c) stress-strain curves and d)
- 346 swelling kinetic of the samples prepared from all the precursor formulations.
- 347
- 348 Table 2. Photo-/rheological, mechanical, thermal and swelling data of the MS-ACy
 349 organo/hydrogels.

	MS	MS-Acy 3-1	MS-Acy 2-1	MS-Acy 1-1	MS-Acy 1-2	<mark>ACy</mark>
Reaction rate [Pa/s]	134	201	266	300	335	<mark>1800</mark>
G ['] p [kPa]	1.8	12 <mark>.0</mark>	15.4	22.1	34.1	<mark>131.2</mark>
M _E *[g/Mol]	156.5	22.9	17.9	12.5	8.1	<mark>2.1</mark>
v _E [1/m ³]	4.3*10 ²³	2.9*10 ²⁴	3.7*10 ²⁴	5.4*10 ²⁴	8.3*10 ²⁴	3.2*10 ²⁵
ξ [m]	1.3*10-8	7.0*10-9	6.4*10-9	5.7*10-9	4.9*10 ⁻⁹	<mark>3.1*10⁻⁹</mark>
T _G [°C]	95	98	100	102	109	N.A.
E _C [MPa]	0.36±0.15	0.78±0.01	$1.04{\pm}0.08$	2.10±0.28	3.93±0.11	<mark>N.A.</mark>
Compression at break [%]	64± <mark>2.3</mark>	56±4 <mark>.0</mark>	52±0.1	49±2.8	56±3.5	N.A.
UCS [MPa]	0.59±0.19	0.89±0.10	0.90±0.13	1.62±0.15	3.48±0.23	N.A.
SEQ	3.95±0.15	1.78±0.04	1.47±0.07	1.2±0.03	0.54±0.06	N.A.
EWC [%]	80±0.7	64±0.9	60±1.4	55±1.0	35±2.7	N.A.

 $\begin{array}{ll} 350 \\ \text{M}_{e}^{*} \text{ molar mass between two entablements points, } \xi \text{ distance between two entanglements points, } \nu_{e} \frac{\text{crosslinking}}{\text{densitynumbers of crosslinks}}, E_{c} \text{ Young's modulus, UCS ultimate compression strength, } S_{eq} \text{ swelling at equilibrium} \\ 352 \\ \text{and EWC equilibrium water content.} \end{array}$

353

354 The effect of ACy on the hydrogel OHG structure was further proved by the microstructural 355 characterization. The FESEM images of the different hydrogels OHGs are shown in Figure 3 356 (higher magnification available in Figure 5S). The structure of the hydrogels OHGs prepared from 357 MS is highly porous, with pore size even higher than 20 µm (Fig. 3a). Instead, the addition of ACy 358 in the photocurable formulations leads to a reduction of the porosity. As displayed in Fig. 3b-e, 359 both the pore number and size decreased with the increasing ACy content. The microstructure of 360 a sample prepared from 100% ACy is given for comparison in Fig. 3f. As you can see, this last 361 sample does not present any porosity, at least not in the micrometric scale. These results are in

- 362 good agreement with the previous findings, further confirming that the addition of ACy leads to
- 363 higher crosslinking density (higher v_e) with lower M_e^* and ξ .

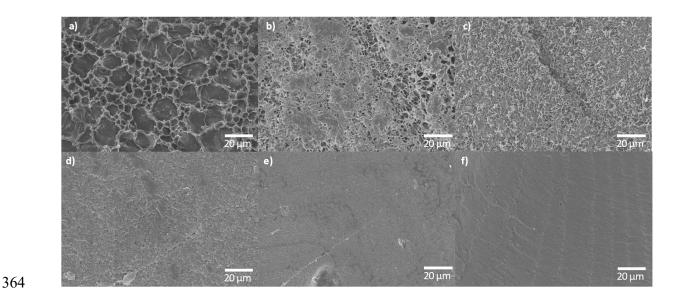


Figure 3. FESEM images of different samples prepared from a) MS, b) MS-ACy 3-1, c) MSACy 2-1,d) MS-ACy 1-1, e) MS-ACy 1-2, f) ACy.

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368 Finally, the photocured hydrogels OHGs were tested as adsorbent materials for the removal of 369 organic dyes from water. The chelating properties of the hydroxyl groups of starch make these 370 hydrogels OHGs especially promising candidates for the removal of cationic dyes. Moreover, the 371 presence of cyclodextrins within the structure of the polymeric network can increase the 372 absorption capability due to the ability of cyclodextrins to form host-guest inclusion complexes. 373 Methylene blue (MB) was selected as a model dye molecule, due to its fit to the dimension of the 374 cavity of γ -cyclodextrin that enables efficient complexation [68]. The MB adsorption kinetics are 375 displayed in Fig. 4.

As shown in Fig. 4a, the MB adsorption proceeded rapidly reaching a plateau after about 100 min (q_e). The obtained q_e values are in good agreement with the ones reported in the literature for other polysaccharides-based hydrogels, such as those prepared with carboxymethyl cellulose/graphene oxide (GO) (59 mg/g) [69], regenerated cellulose/GO [70], corn stalk/organic montmorillonite composite (49 mg/g) [71] and carbonized lignosulfonate/gelatin (38 mg/g) [72].

The adsorption of cationic dyes into polysaccharides-based hydrogels mainly depends on the hydrogel composition, since the absorption is mainly affected by the generation of hydrogen bonds between the hydroxyl groups of the polymer chains and the amide group of the dye molecule. Moreover, the absorption is also affected by the porosity of the network. Therefore, the increase of the crosslinking density lowers the free volume and the dye absorption is expected to decrease accordingly [60].

387 But on the contrary, the relative amount of MB absorbed into our MS-ACy hydrogels OHGs 388 increased with the increase of ve and the reduction of network porosity. As shown in Table 3, the 389 q_e of the hydrogels OHGs increased from 42 to 59 mg/g with increasing content of ACy, 390 reaching a maximum of +50 wt% with respect to the samples prepared from 100% MS. 391 However, if the ACy content was furtherly increased the qe seems indeed to be negatively 392 affected. The maximum absorption capability is reached by keeping the ratio MS:ACy at 1:1 and 393 the 50 wt% of ACy might represent a threshold beyond which the molecular diffusion into the 394 network is hindered by the v_e enhancement, resulting into a lower absorption. The higher 395 absorption values reached with the less porous and more crosslinked hydrogels OHGs which 396 show a lowered swelling capability can be explained simply by the increased number of ACy 397 units which seemingly remain accessible and therefore lead to an increased number of host-guest 398 inclusion complexes between MB and γ -cyclodextrin [68]. Therefore, the absorption of MB

399 likely occurs following two different mechanisms: a) H-bonding interactions between the

400 residual -OH groups of MS and ACy and b) MB complexation into the cavity of ACy.

The adsorption rates (k_a) were also estimated by evaluating the slopes of the first linear part of the curves [60]. The high k_a values obtained with an increase from 0.49 to 0.81 [mg/(g*s)] with increasing ACy content, (Table 34) suggest that the adsorption mainly occurred on the hydrogel surface. This finding is consistent with the absorption evolution scaling with time, since the q_e of the hydrogels OHGs is reached within the first 100 min, a time much shorter than required to reach the swelling equilibrium (15 hours).

407 The absorption data were then fitted using pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order models. 408 Fig. 4c-d show the results of the fitting analyses. As can be seen from the graph reported in Fig. 409 4c, the experimental data do not fit with the linear trend expected from the pseudo-first-order 410 model which is therefore not applicable the pseudo-first-order model is not applicable, since 411 there is no linear correlation between the experimental and the calculated data [55]. On the 412 contrary, the pseudo-second-order model correctly describes the MB adsorption into the MS-ACy hydrogelsOHGs, as confirmed by the high correlation coefficient R² (>0.99823) and the 413 414 calculated absorption capacity $(q_{e,calc})$ values that fit with the experimental data $(q_{e,exp})$. All the 415 data resulting from the pseudo-second-order fitting are listed in Table 3. The excellent data 416 fitting with the pseudo-second-order kinetic model suggests that the rate-determining step is 417 chemisorption [73].

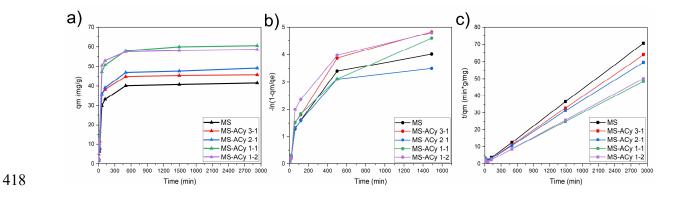


Figure 4. a) qm vs time, b) data fitted using the pseudo-first order kinetic model, cb) data fitted
using the pseudo-second-order kinetic model for the absorption of MB into the different MS-ACy
hydrogelsOHGs.

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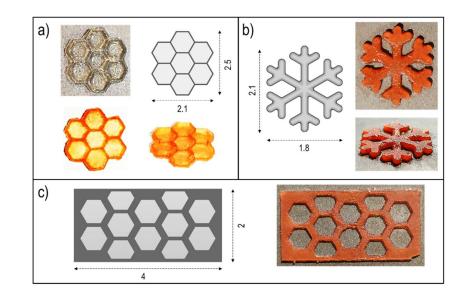
 Table 3. Pseudo-second-order fitting parameters for MB adsorption.

Sample	k _a [mg/(g*s)]	qe, calc [mg/g]	qe, exp [mg/g]	k ₂ [g/(mg*min)]	\mathbb{R}^2
MS	0.49	41.52	42.30	4.52*10-4	0.999525
MS-ACy 3-1	0.58	45.83	46.49	5.82*10-4	0.999771
MS-ACy 2-1	0.60	49.17	50.40	2.75*10-4	0.998231
MS-ACy 1-1	0.80	60.53	59.88	3.08*10-4	0.997972
MS-ACy 1-2	0.81	58.55	61.24	4 <mark>.</mark> 95*10 ⁻⁴	0.996524

423

424	Based on these results of the good reactivity of the investigated formulations towards UV-light
425	initiated photopolymerization, the DLP-printability of the most promising formulation with
426	respect to the absorption capacity was assessed. As shown in Figure 5, free standing 3D printed
427	geometries were successfully obtained with a good resolution without the use of any additional
428	dyes during the printing process. This is an interesting preliminary result, as the good DLP-
429	printability will allow the design of photocured hydrogels with complex geometries to suit specific
430	applications and to improve the adsorption properties by increasing the surface area of the
431	hydrogels, which will enhance the process of chemisorption

432 Based on the good reactivity of the formulations towards UV-light initiated photopolymerization 433 (i.e. short induction times and fast curing kinetic), the DLP-printability was assessed, focusing in 434 particular on the two formulations having the best adsorption properties (MS-ACy 1-1 and MS-435 ACy 1-2). First the printability was investigated without using any additional dye. The preliminary 436 results showed that even though both the formulations can be successfully 3D-printed, the final 437 resolution of the printed objects was quite low due to over-polymerization (Fig. 5a - top), 438 especially for those structures having small-scale details (see Fig. S6). Therefore, methyl red (MR) 439 was added as dye to limit light-diffusion in the vat while printing. The MR concentration was set 440 at 0.2 phr since this content doesn't affect significantly the photopolymerization kinetic (see Figure 441 S7) but is enough to improve considerably the printing resolution (Figure 5a - bottom). However, 442 the structures prepared from MS-ACy 1-1 showed poor self-standing properties. To improve the mechanical stability, further 3D-printing investigations were carried out by using MS-ACy 1-2, 443 444 given that the higher content of ACy leads to more crosslinked and stiffer samples. As shown in 445 Figure 5b-c, different objects were successfully printed with a good fidelity to the digital CAD 446 models and a higher mechanical stability. This is an interesting preliminary result, as the good 447 DLP-printability will allow the design of complex geometries with high surface area would 448 improve the adsorption properties of the material by enhancing the chemisorption process.



449

Figure 5: DLP-printed organo/hydrogels from a) MS-ACy 1-1 and b-c) MS-ACy 1-2.

451

450

452 4. CONCLUSIONS

453 Novel polysaccharide-based photocurable hydrogels-organo/hydrogels were fabricated *via* UV-454 curing of photoreactive starch and y-cyclodextrin derivatives and tested as bio-absorbents for the 455 removal of methylene blue from water. Methacrylated starch (MS) and acrylated γ -cyclodextrin 456 (ACy) were successfully synthetized to be exploited in photocuring processes and the real-time 457 photorheology analysis revealed that increasing the ACy content fastens the kinetics due to the 458 high reactivity of the multi-acrylated macromer. Rheological, thermo-mechanical and 459 morphological tests performed on the photocrosslinked hydrogels revealed that higher amounts 460 of ACy lead to an increase of the cross-link density, with the formation of stiffer networks with 461 smaller porosity. Besides fastening the photopolymerization kinetic and stiffening the resulting 462 hydrogel networks, ACy had a strong influence on the absorption capabilities of the 463 hydrogels<mark>OHGs</mark>. The results of the swelling and absorption tests revealed that the final properties

464	of the hydrogels OHGs could be easily tailored by modulating the ingredients within the
465	precursor formulations. In fact, even if the swelling equilibrium values decreased, higher MB
466	absorption capacity was recorded with the increase of ACy content-into the hydrogel, possibly
467	due to the combination of the chelating properties of the hydroxyl groups of MS and the ability
468	of ACy to form inclusion complexes with MB. All the HS-absorption experimental data correctly
469	fitted with the pseudo-second-order kinetic model, suggesting chemical adsorption. Furthermore,
470	the DLP printability of these polysaccharides-based hydrogels OHGs was demonstrated, opening
471	a new frontier for wastewater treatment.
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- 485 ABBREVIATIONS
- 486 S Starch, MS Methacrylated Starch, C γ-Cyclodextrin, AC Acrylated γ-Cyclodextrin.

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