PYROLYSIS OF COMPLEXES OF METALLOSULPHOPHTHALOCYANINES WITH 1 2 CHITOSAN FOR OBTAINING GRAPHITE-LIKE STRUCTURES 3

- 4 Natalia Sh. Lebedeva, Sabir S. Guseynov, Elena S. Yurina, Yury A. Gubarev, Anatoly I.
- 5 V'yugin

6	G.A. Krestov Institute of Solution Chemistry of the Russian Academy of Sciences,
7	Ivanovo, Russia, 153045
8	[@] Corresponding author E-mail: gua@isc-ras.ru
9	ORCID information:
10	Natalia Sh. Lebedeva 0000-0001-7260-3239
11	Elena S. Yurina 0000-0002-2403-7049
12	Yury A. Gubarev 0000-0003-2870-2189
13	
14	Abstract
15	The pyrolysis of chitosan and its polymeric complexes with metal phthalocyanines was
16	studied by thermochemical and spectral methods. At all stages of thermal oxidation, the
17	decomposition products of chitosan and polymer complexes with metal phthalocyanines were
18	determined by the mass spectral method, the chemistry of the process was proposed. The pyrolysis
19	of chitosan and its polymer complexes with metal sulphophthalocyanines leads to the formation
20	of carbonizates with a wide variety of graphite-like structures with different contents of
21	polyconjugated carbon-carbon bonds, the presence of which was confirmed by IR spectroscopy.
22	It was shown that the introduction of copper(II)tetrasulphophthalocyanine into the composition of
23	the polymer complex with chitosan results in an increase in the content of aliphatic structures in
24	carbonizates, and the introduction of cobalt(II)tetrasulphophthalocyanine leads to aromatic
25	compounds content increase. The possibility of changing the structures of chitosan carbonizates
26	to obtain graphite-like structures by complexation with metal phthalocyanines has been shown.
27	
28	Keywords

29

30 31

Pyrolysis, phthalocyanines, polymer, chitosan, carbonizates

Introduction

32 Chitosan is a natural polymer with great potential for structural chemical and physical 33 modification. According to its chemical structure, chitosan is a linear aminopolysaccharide of 2-34 amino-2-deoxy-β-D-glucan being formed during deacetylation of chitin. The presence of reactive 35 functional groups (OH and NH₂) in each structural unit of chitosan, a flexible structure of polymer 36 chains and the ability to coordinate metal ions makes it possible to consider chitosan as a new 37 functional biomaterial of high potential for its application in various fields. Being a hypoallergenic, 38 biodegradable and biocompatible polymer with antimicrobial and antifungal characteristics, 39 chitosan is widely used for biomedical purposes, as a blood anticoagulant, in drug delivery 40 systems, in tissue engineering [1–5], as well as in other fields, such as wastewater treatment [6– 41 8], food packaging [9,10], cosmetics [11], textile, paper and film technologies [12,13]. Recently, 42 attempts have been made to study and develop technologies for producing carbon fibre from 43 \chitosan [14,15]. The obtaining of carbon fibres from other polysaccharides includes the initial stage of thermal oxidation and exposure at a temperature of 300-400 °C, chemical and pyrolysis 44 45 treatment [16]. However, carbon fibres obtained from cellulose and viscose are of unsatisfactory 46 quality. It is considered that chitosan, due to its structural features, may be a more promising source of carbon fibres. 47

In this connection, the study of the processes occurring during the thermal and thermal
 oxidative action on chitosan and its polymer complexes can help in improving industrial processes
 planning and optimization.

51 This work is a continuation of earlier researches, in which the process of pyrolysis of a 52 wide range of chitosans and chitosan complexes (18.8 kDa, degree of deacetylation is 90.4%) with 53 sulphoderivatives of copper and cobalt phthalocyanines) was studied. As a result of it, the 54 temperature ranges of evaporation of physically and chemically bound water were revealed, and 55 thermal decomposition of chitosan and its complexes, the temperatures of physical and phase 56 transitions were established [17]. The introduction of sulphosubstituted phthalocyanines into the 57 polymer complex has nontrivial effects on the thermochemical behaviour of chitosan. It 58 conditioned the performing of thermogravimetric studies with synchronous recording of mass-59 spectra in order to detail the chemical processes proceeding at various stages of chitosan pyrolysis 60 (18.8 kDa, degree of deacetylation is 90.4%) and of its complexes with sulphoderivatives of copper 61 and cobalt phthalocyanines). In addition, in that work, for these compounds information on thermal 62 oxidative destruction in the atmosphere of air was obtained The aim of this work is a comparative 63 analysis of the pyrolysis processes of chitosan and its complexes with metal phthalocyanines, as 64 well as a comparative analysis of the samples obtained by pyrolysis treatment of chitosan and its 65 complexes.

66 67

Experimental part

68 We used chitosan with a viscosity average molecular weight of 18 800 Da. The degree of 69 deacetylation of chitosan was determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy described in [18]. ¹H NMR 70 spectra were recorded using Avance III (Bruker) (500.17 MHz) and 2% solution of DCl in D_2O as 71 a solvent for chitosan. The degree of deacetylation of the sample used in the work was 90.4 mol%.

Copper(II) (CuPc) and cobalt(II)tetrasulphophthalocyanines (CoPc) were synthesized and
 purified according to the methods [19]. The purity of the tetrasulphophthalocyanines used in this
 work was no less than 98%.

75 Crystalline samples of polymer complexes of chitosan with metal phthalocyanines were 76 obtained by evaporation of solutions with a sulphophthalocyanine concentration of $6.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ M 77 and 0.02% chitosan.

78 Experimental studies of phase transitions and relaxation processes were carried out on a 79 DSC 204 F1 differential scanning heat flow calorimeter (Netzsch Gerätebau GmbH, Germany). 80 The test samples weighing 4-5 mg were placed in pressed aluminum crucibles with holes in the 81 cover. An empty aluminum crucible served as a reference sample. The calorimetric experiment 82 was carried out in a dynamic atmosphere of dry argon (argon content was 99.998%) with a gas flow rate of 40 ml·min⁻¹ and a heating rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹. All DSC measurements were made 83 84 relative to a baseline obtained for two empty crucibles. The temperature and sensitivity of the 85 calorimeter were calibrated by measuring the temperatures and enthalpies of phase transitions for 86 11 standard substances (Hg, C₆H₁₂, C₁₂H₁₀, KNO₃, RbNO₃, In, Bi, Sn, Zn, KClO4, CsCl). The 87 temperature measurement accuracy was 0.1 °C. The weighing accuracy was \pm 0.001 mg 88 (Sartorius M2P balance).

89 Thermogravimetric analysis was carried out on a TG 209 F1 thermo-microbalance 90 (Netzsch Gerätebau GmbH, Germany). Powdered samples (4-7 mg) were placed into platinum 91 crucibles and heated at a rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ in a dynamic atmosphere of dry argon and air with a 92 gas flow rate of 30 ml·min⁻¹ from room temperature to 600-700 °C. The accuracy of measuring 93 the sample mass was $1 \cdot 10^{-7}$ g.

Mass spectrometric analysis was performed using an STA 409CD thermoanalytical setup (Netzsch Gerätebau GmbH, Germany) equipped with a mass spectrometer with a QMG 422 skimmer system (In Process Instruments, Germany), which made it possible to carry out thermogravimetric and DSC measurements with synchronous registration of mass spectra of thermal decomposition products. The samples were heated at atmospheric pressure in a flow of dry ultrapure argon (70 ml·min⁻¹). Scanning electron microscopy analysis of Microscopic images of the sample surfaces
 were obtained with a VEGA 3 TESCAN scanning electron microscope (SEM) under vacuum
 condition and at an accelerating voltage of 5.0 kV. Samples in the powder were placed on
 aluminum butts.

104

105 **Discussion of the Results**

106 1. Pyrolysis

As noted above, we previously obtained thermochemical data reflecting the temperature stages of pyrolysis of chitosan and its complexes with sulphophthalocyanines in an argon atmosphere [17]. In continuation of the studies begun in order to establish the chemical processes occurring at individual stages of pyrolysis, a combined thermal analysis was carried out with synchronous registration of mass spectra of the samples under study in argon. Typical temperature dependences of the curves (TG / DTG), DSC, and TIC (total ion current) for chitosan in argon are shown in Figure 1.

114



115 Temperature $^{\circ}$ C 116 **Figure 1.** TG/DTG/DSC/TIC curves obtained for degradation of CS at a heating rate of 10 ° C 117 min⁻¹ in argon.

118

119 The mass numbers (m / z) of thermal decomposition products, the onset temperature 120 (Ton) and the temperature of the peak of the ion current intensity (Tmax) of the pyrolysis 121 process of CS, CSCoPc, and CSCuPc in the temperature range from 20 to 750 ° C are 122 summarized in Table 1.

123 The process of chitosan pyrolysis in argon is a multistage one (Figure 1). The first stage 124 (15-150 ° C) is accompanied by a weight loss on the TG curve of about 6 wt%, by an 125 endothermic peak on the DSC curve, and the removal of gaseous products with mass numbers m 126 /z = 18, 17 and 16, indicating the removal of water and its fragments. The maximum of this 127 process occurs at a temperature of 117 ° C (Table 1). Thus, the first stage consists in the removal 128 of physically and chemically sorbed water. A similar conclusion was reached by the authors [20] 129 who studied the IR spectra of chitosan samples heated to different temperatures.

The stage of chitosan dehydration partially overlaps with the beginning of its thermal decomposition. The weight loss of the chitosan sample, according to TG data up to 320 °C, is 44 wt. %. The temperature of the maximum weight loss rate (Tmax) at this stage of thermal decomposition of CS coincides with the endopeak on the DSC curve, indicating the predominance of destructive processes. However, the asymmetric behaviour of the temperature dependence of the DSC curve in the temperature range from 150 to 320 °C, namely the transition of the unevenly inclined endothermic peak to the exothermic peak, indicates both the destruction and the formation

- 137 of new chemical bonds in the test sample. Analysis of the mass spectra of thermal decomposition
- 138 products presented in Table 1 showed a complex pattern of chitosan pyrolysis, in which gaseous
- 139 products with mass numbers corresponding to fragments of H₂O, NH₃, CO, CO₂, HCl, and
- 140 CH₃COOH are recorded (Figure 2).



Figure 2. Mass spectra of gases evolved during the thermal treatment of CS, CSCoPc andCSCuPc.

144

At the initial stage of destruction, upon reaching a temperature of 152-159 °C, the formation of CO_2 is recorded (m / z = 44) (Table 1). The intensity of the ion current is comparatively not high even at maximum emission, nevertheless, the event takes place. The evolution of carbon dioxide, according to the literature [21,22], is attributed to an accidental rupture of the C-O-C glycosidic bond, and the reaction products are shortened polymer chains, oligomers, their radicals and CO_2 .

Figure 2 shows that the maximum ionic current corresponds to the evolution of ammonia. This process begins almost immediately (172-178 °C) after the dehydration stage, that is, deamination processes dominate at the first stage of chitosan pyrolysis. We suppose that the anomalous DSC curve of chitosan at this stage is due to the fact that the removal of NH₂ groups is accompanied by crosslinking of fragments of the polymer chain or of adjacent macrochains (Figure 3).



- 158 $c_{H_2OH}m$ $c_{H_2OH}n$ 159Figure 3. Chitosan deamination reaction scheme
- 160

Table 1. Thermal degradation products of the CS, CSCoPc and CSCuPc							
	m/z	CS		CSCoPc		CSCuPc	
products	a.m.u	T _{on} ,	T _{max} ,	T _{on} ,	T _{max} ,	T _{on} ,	T _{max} ,
		(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)
Н.О	18	55	117	37	70	35	69
1120		172	244	171	227	170	217
H ₂ O	17	55	117	37	70	35	69
H ₂ O,NH ₃		172	244	171	227	170	217
CO ₂	44	152-159	249	183	235	188	217
		354	428	376	429	418	542-577
H ₂ O		55	117	37	70	35	65
H ₂ O, NH ₃	16	172	248	171	227	164	217
CH_4		411	585	389	434	393	563
Acetic acid	60	172-178	244	211	237	195-200	217-234
NH ₃	15	172-178	248	211	314	200	227
CH ₄	15	411	585	389	434	393	562
Acetic acid decomposition product	43	172-178	249	183	227-237	200	217-232
Acetic anhydride C_2H_2O , $(C_2H_4N^+)$	42	172-178	249	183	227-237	200	217-232
Acetaldehyde (CHO)	29	172	249	200	238	205	223
HCl	38	172	244	205	248	195	217-222
HCl	37	172	244	205	248	195	222
HCl	36	172	244	205	248	195	222
HCl	35	172	244	205	248	195	222
HCN	27	544	730	-	-	542	709
HCN	26	544	730	-	-	542	709
SO ₂	64	-	-	217	299	269	408
SO ₂	48	-	-	217	299	269	408

162 The formation of new structures is indirectly confirmed by the results of electron 163 microscopy of the initial chitosan samples and of the heated ones (Figure 4). It is seen that chitosan 164 heating (to 170 °C) leads to the formation of larger aggregates.

165 At the initial stage of chitosan pyrolysis, when the temperature reaches 172 °C, the 166 emission of acetic acid fragments (m / z = 15, 43, 60 [23]) and acetic anhydride (m / z = 42) is 167 recorded in the gas phase. Probably, the reaction of elimination of the side N-acetyl groups occurs 168 (Figure 5).

169 In a number of works it was assumed that the products of the deacetylation reaction of 170 chitosan can be polymer structures in which neighboring macrochains are connected at the site of 171 cleavage of acetyl groups by bridging groups -N=N- or -NH-. We consider that with a high 172 degree of chitosan deacetylation, as in this case (90.4%), the probability of macrochain 173 crosslinking during deacetylation is low. Recently, many publications have appeared in the 174 scientific literature [24–27], in which it was proposed to use the amount of the evolved acetic acid 175 found in mass spectra to evaluate the degree of deacetylation. It should be noted that the formation 176 of acetic acid from the acetyl groups of chitosan requires water (Figure 5); therefore, the results 177 will depend on the course of dehydration reactions or on the residual water content in the polymer. 178 One of such reactions, according to the authors [28], may be the reaction of the onset of destruction 179 of pyrazine rings (T = 200 °C), in the course of which nitrogen- and oxygen-containing volatile 180 compounds (furan and its derivatives, pyrazines and pyridines) can be formed. All the listed 181 compounds in mass spectra have high m / z values, exceeding 67 units [26] and were not detected 182 by us in the temperature range 150-320 °C in significant amounts. In addition, it is reliably known 183 that the stage of destruction of monomeric units occurs after the cleavage of almost all glycosidic 184 bonds in chitin and chitosan. This stage is high-temperature and occurs at temperatures above 250 185 °C [20,29]. Therefore, the reaction of intermolecular dehydration is more likely according to the 186 scheme on Figure 6.

187



188

189 Figure 4. Image of the structure of chitosan (a) before heating, (b) after heating to 170 °C. 190

191





Figure 5. Schemes of chitosan deacetylation reactions.

In general, the pyrolysis of chitosan in the range of 150-320 °C is accompanied by a high rate of the gaseous products removal with a weight loss, according to TG data, of about 44 wt. %. Analysis of the mass spectra of the thermal decomposition products presented in Table 1 showed a complex picture of the destruction of chitosan characterized by partially or completely overlapping steps.





Figure 6. Scheme of the dehydration reaction.

A further increase in temperature leads to the appearance of a pronounced exothermic effect and a decrease in the rate of weight loss (Figure 1). The release of energy is usually associated with the formation of new bonds. This exo-effect was observed earlier, but the interpretation of this effect was different. For example, in [27] the exothermic effect with a maximum at 310 °C is mainly attributed to the first stage of decomposition of the polysaccharide - deacetylation, since it was found that the amount of energy released at this temperature increased with an increase in the degree of deacetylation. A different opinion was uttered in the work [20] which emphasizes that thermal degradation of chitosan occurs mainly by a free radical mechanism. Intermediate radical products can spontaneously recombine, resulting in the formation of crosslinked structures. The same opinion was shared by the authors [22] who proposed possible schemes for the formation of crosslinked structures, the first stage of which is the break of the glycosidic bond with the formation of radicals RO and R (R-fragment of the chitosan chain). The author [21] adheres to a different position, considering that the exo-effect occurs due to the formation of pyrazine and its derivatives as a result of complex condensation reactions of the products of opening of pyrazine monomeric rings, Possible schemes for such reactions are described in [29,30]. Probably, all of the above processes take place upon reaching 250 °C, when

the chitosan structure collapses. It should be noted that in this work pyrazine, pyridine, or furan derivatives were not detected in significant amounts; the bulk of the weight loss was explained by the processes involving the release of H₂O, NH₃, CO, CO₂, HCl, and CH₃COOH. These processes, as noted above, begin at a temperature 172-178 °C and reach their maximum value at temperatures of 244-249 °C.

228 Thus, the pyrolysis of chitosan begins with the simultaneous stages of deamination, 229 deacetylation, intermolecular dehydration, and to a lesser extent, there is a rupture of glycosidic 230 bonds. All these processes lead to the formation of crosslinked polymer structures even at 231 relatively low temperatures. Beginning from 220 °C, reactions occur with massive rupture of 232 glycosidic bonds (maximum emission of CO₂ is at 249 and 428 °C, Table 1) with the formation of 233 radical products, partial destruction of monomeric rings of pyrazine (with the formation of acetic 234 acid and ammonia, maximum emission at 244 °C, Table 1). The listed processes proceed 235 simultaneously with the recombination of radicals, leading to the formation of crosslinked polymer 236 structures that with a further increase in temperature up to 700 °C degrade without manifesting 237 bright effects (Figure 1). The main gaseous products at this stage are CO₂, CH₄, CHN. As can be 238 seen from Table 1, CO₂ emissions are two-stage. The second stage of CO₂ evolution begins at 354 239 °C and reaches a maximum at 428 °C. Along with this, there is a process characterized by the 240 release of CH₄, starting from 411 °C and reaching a maximum at 585 °C, as well as the release of 241 hydrogen cyanide CHN, with an onset temperature of 544 °C and a maximum of 730 °C. The 242 release of CH₄, CO₂, CHN suggests that further pyrolysis of the products formed after the first 243 stage of thermal decomposition of chitosan occurs, leading to the formation of products with a 244 high carbon content. The mass of the carbonizate obtained at 700 °C is about 46% of the initial 245 used chitosan.

246 The resulting carbonizate has been studied in the IR spectrum (Table 2). The latter turned out to be very sparse, there were almost no infrared bands, only a band of medium intensity was 247 recorded at a frequency of 1610 cm⁻¹ and a weak band of 804.5 cm⁻¹. Probably, graphite-like 248 249 structures were formed and they were characterized by the absence of IR spectra, since there were 250 no changes in the dipole moment when the atoms vibrated in a structure constructed from identical 251 carbon atoms [31]. It can be assumed that the detected absorption at 1610 cm⁻¹ may be explained by the valence vibrations of C=C in graphite-like structures or by vibrations of groups of C=O 252 conjugated with C-C atoms [32]. Absorption in the region at 1000-800 cm⁻¹ is typical for C-C 253 groups that are part of unsaturated hydrocarbons or C-O-C valence vibrations of single-substituted 254 epoxides. Absorption in the area of 1100 -800 cm⁻¹ is very wide and low-intensity, and these 255 256 parameters indicate a small polarity and a large variety of structures formed. The literature reports 257 on the composition of the carbonizate obtained under similar pyrolysis conditions. So, the authors 258 [14,33] discovered graphite-like structures in it. Moreover, as shown in [14], graphite-like 259 structures are formed from condensed aromatic carbon compounds. It should be noted that not 260 everything is so unambiguous - another work reported [20] that unsaturated and aromatic 261 hydrocarbons were not found in the carbonizate, but a structure typical for active carbon was 262 formed. Probably, the composition of the carbonizate significantly depends on the purity of the initial chitosan and the presence of impurities affecting the initial stages of destruction. 263

264 A thermochemical study conducted earlier showed [17] that the formation of a chitosan 265 polymer complex with phthalocyanines leads to a slight decrease in the thermal stability of the 266 complexes. However, according to the data obtained (Table 1, Figure 7), the chemistry of the 267 pyrolysis process changes dramatically. In the context of this work, it is important to describe 268 briefly the information obtained earlier on the composition and structure of chitosan complexes 269 with the metal phthalocyanines. In our previous work, it was proved that chitosan binds 270 phthalocyanines differently [17,34]. CuPc in chitosan is in a dimerized state, the polymer complex 271 is formed due to electrostatic interactions between SO-3-groups of metallophthalocyanine and NH⁺ 272 -groups of chitosan, H-binding of peripheral substituents of CuPc with the side groups of the CS 273 macrocycle, as well as due to hydrophobic forces. The CoPc in chitosan is in the monomeric state, 274 and the polymer complex is formed due to the donor-acceptor interaction between polymer aminogroup of cobalt phthalocyanine atom, H-bonding of peripheral CoPc substituents to the side groups of the CS macrochain, and, possibly, due to electrostatic interactions between the α -groups of metallophthalocyanine and the β -groups of chitosan. The complexes, as in previous studies, were obtained by mixing aqueous solutions of chitosan and the corresponding metal phthalocyanines. The average composition of the polymer complexes is 1 MPc molecule:monomer unit CS = 1:80.

As shown above, the process of complexation of chitosan with metal phthalocyanines is not a classical chemical reaction, that is, the binding of MPc does not lead to chemical modification of the polymer. Let us consider the effect of complexation of cobalt(II)- and copper(II)phthalocyanines with chitosan on the chemistry of the pyrolysis process. The course of the DSC curves of the CSCoPc and CSCuPc complexes significantly differs both from each other and from CS (Figure 7); therefore, the chemistry of polymer pyrolysis also differs.





288 289

292

Figure 7. DSC curves obtained for degradation of CS, CSCoPc, CSCuPc at a heating rate of 10
 °C·min⁻¹ in argon.

Individual metal phthalocyanines are stable compounds, their degradation temperatures are 294 256 and 317 °C, respectively, and the thermal destruction itself begins with pyrolytic destruction 295 of sulphgroups, their maximum emission of products falls on 299 °C (CoPc) and 269 °C (CuPc) 296 (Table 1). Consequently, the initial stages of polymer destruction are not complicated by the 297 pyrolysis of metal phthalocyanines.

298 Judging by the value of the CO₂ emission current (m / z = 44), the probability of accidental 299 ruptures of glycosidic bonds in the composition of polymer complexes of chitosan with metal 300 phthalocyanines is even lower than in the case of individual chitosan (Table 1). In addition, the 301 temperature at which CO₂ is emitted is 30 °C higher in the complex than in pure chitosan (Table 302 1). Possibly, at the initial stage, metal phthalocyanines exhibit their antioxidant properties in the 303 composition of complexes with chitosan [35,36], inactivating randomly formed radicals and 304 thereby performing chain termination. Up to a certain temperature (183-188 °C) phthalocyanines 305 cope with the formed radicals.

As in the case of chitosan, at the initial stage of pyrolysis of CSCoPc complexes, CSCuPc volatile products because of the deacetylation process. are recorded. Unlike chitosan, the emission of fragments of acetic acid (m / z = 15, 43) and acetic anhydride (m / z = 42) in the case of complexes CSCoPc and CSCuPc is recorded at higher temperatures: 183 C and 200 °C, respectively, maximum emission is shifted in the range of low temperatures 227-237 °C (CSCoPc) and 217-232 °C (CSCuPc). It should be noted that in the case of chitosan and CSCuPc deacetylation according to the scheme (Figure 5) proceeds in the same temperature range as the emission of fragments of N-acetyl groups, starting from 172 C and 200 °C, respectively (Table 1). On the contrary, in the case of CSCoPc, acetic acid is detected in mass spectra at a higher temperature, starting from 211 °C. Probably, in this case, acetic acid, like ammonia (Table 1), is formed as a result of decomposition of pyrazine rings.

317 The transition from chitosan to its complexes with metal phthlocyanines radically changes 318 the chemical picture related to the release of ammonia (Figure 2). In the case of polymer 319 complexes, the process becomes a two-step process. Starting from a temperature of 164 °C, the 320 CSCuPc mass spectra record an ammonia signal which reaches its maximum at 217 and 227 °C 321 (Table 1). It is noteworthy that starting at 180 ° C on the DSC CSCuPc curve, the process of ammonia release is accompanied by a rather pronounced exo-effect. We believe that the process 322 323 proceeds according to scheme 3. Thus, the temperature of the onset of the deamination process in 324 CSCuPc is 7 °C lower than in chitosan. A possible reason is the competitive interactions of 325 phthalocyanine sulphogroups with the aminogroups of chitosan and the formed electrostatic and 326 H-bonds of CuPc with chitosan, which weaken the C-N and N-H bonds.

327 In the case of CSCoPc, for which the main type of bond with chitosan is donor-acceptor 328 interaction, the onset of the deamination process (Ton = 171 °C) practically coincides with the 329 temperature set for chitosan, while the temperature of maximum NH₃ emission from the CSCoPc 330 sample is lower by 17 °C. Another characteristic difference can be traced in the analysis of the 331 DSC curve CSCoPc - in the analyzed temperature range the exo-effect is not recorded, probably, 332 in this case the crosslinked polymer structures shown in Figure 3 are not formed. A possible reason 333 may be steric hindrances created by CoPc for the formation of a network of hydrogen bonds 334 between macrochains and screening of a part of aminogroups due to donor-acceptor interaction 335 with CoPc. It is possible that it is these screened NH₂ groups that are split off with the maximum 336 emission at a temperature of 314 °C (Table 1).

Attention is drawn to the fact that the temperature ranges Ton – Tmax get narrow in the presence of metal phthalocyanines; all the processes under consideration are much faster. It is obvious that the introduction of sufficiently bulky metal phthalocyanine molecules into the polymer disrupts the network of hydrogen bonds between macrocyclic chains, weakens the bonds and reduces the degree of crystallinity. All these structural changes in the polymer promote pyrolysis, facilitate the removal of volatile gaseous products, and, probably, contribute to the reaction rate increase.

344 Comparison of high-temperature processes occurring in the samples under study is 345 problematic, since they are superimposed on the processes of destruction of peripheral 346 substituents, and then of the macroring. However, it should be noted that, in general, the process 347 of pyrolysis of CSCuPc is quite similar to the thermal destruction of chitosan, since, despite the 348 high rate and change in the maximum temperatures, the composition of the volatile pyrolysis 349 products is the same (Table 1). Complexation of chitosan with CoPc more significantly affects the 350 chemistry of pyrolysis, leading to the disappearance, for example, of the low-temperature stage of 351 the formation of cross-linked polymer structures, and the high-temperature stage associated with 352 the emission of hydrogen cyanide.

Judging by the obtained IR spectra of carbonizates CSCuPc and CSCoPc, pyrolysis of polymer complexes of chitosan with phthalocyanines, all other things being equal, leads to the obtaining of somewhat different products. The spectra of carbonizates CSCuPc and CSCoPc, in contrast to the IR spectrum of chitosan carbonizate, contain a much larger number of the bands resolution (Table 2). As an example, Figure 8 shows the IR spectrum of CSCuPc and its carbonizate.

359 360

361

 Table 2. IR spectra of carbonizates of chitosan and its complexes with copper(II) and cobalt(II) tetrasulfophthalocyanines.

Carbonizate

CS	CSCuPc	CSCoPc
570 wery weak	599 very weak	589 very weak
805 weak	-	874 very weak
-	1110 very int.	1131 broad, int.
-	1556 weak	-
1610 average	1639 average	1636 average
-	2914 weak	-
-	3432 broad, int.	3462





368 The IR spectra of the carbonizates CSCuPc and CSCoPc are similar to each other, despite significant differences at the initial stage of pyrolysis. The 1640 cm⁻¹ band, along with the 1200 -369 1000 cm⁻¹ bands, is referred to as aromatic compounds. 370

In addition, the band in the 1800-1600 cm⁻¹ region, as noted above, may be due to the 371 372 presence of C=O [32] groups.

373 Characteristic out-of-plane deformation vibrations of C-H in low-substituted aromatic 374 compounds are manifested in the range of 670-900 cm⁻¹ [31,32], and this phenomenon is observed 375 in the case of carbonizate CSCoP. In the IR spectrum of CSCuPc this band is also visually detected, 376 but it is much less intense. In this case, the IR spectrum of the carbonizate CSCuPc shows a band at about 1556 cm⁻¹, which most likely corresponds to the stretching vibrations of the C = C bond 377 in olefins [37]. This assumption is also supported by the band at 2914 cm⁻¹ associated with the 378 379 stretching vibrations of the CH group in aliphatic compounds [32].

380 Noteworthy is the presence in the IR spectra of carbonizates CSCuPc and CSCoPc of a very wide band in the region of 3400 cm⁻¹, probably, due to the presence of terminal OH groups of 381 carbohydrates; moreover, the band in the region of 1140-1100 cm⁻¹ can also refer to the vibrations 382 383 of the valence bond C-O fragment of carbohydrates C-OH [32,38].

384 Thus. the pyrolysis of chitosan and its polymeric complexes with metal 385 sulphothalocyanines leads to the formation of carbonizates with a wide variety of graphite-like 386 structures with different content of polyconjugated carbon-carbon bonds. The introduction of CuPc 387 causes an increase in the content of aliphatic structures, and CoPc - of aromatic compounds. In 388 conclusion, we would like to note that the pyrolysis of chitosan and its polymer complexes can 389 probably become a valuable tool for obtaining graphite-like structures.

390

362

365

367

391 Acknowlegements This work was financially supported by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Russian Federation under state assignment No. 01201260481. We are grateful to the center "The upper Volga region centre of physico-chemical research" for analysis of the investigated samples.

396

397 **References**

- B. Sarmento, J. Das Neves, Chitosan-Based Systems for Biopharmaceuticals: Delivery, Targeting and Polymer Therapeutics, 2012. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119962977.
- 400 [2] M.N.V.R. Kumar, R.A.A. Muzzarelli, C. Muzzarelli, H. Sashiwa, A.J. Domb, Chitosan
 401 chemistry and pharmaceutical perspectives, Chem. Rev. (2004).
 402 https://doi.org/10.1021/sr020441h
- 402 https://doi.org/10.1021/cr030441b.
- 403 [3] S.A. Agnihotri, N.N. Mallikarjuna, T.M. Aminabhavi, Recent advances on chitosan-based
 404 micro- and nanoparticles in drug delivery, J. Control. Release. (2004).
 405 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2004.08.010.
- 406 [4] R. Riva, H. Ragelle, A. Des Rieux, N. Duhem, C. Jérôme, V. Préat, Chitosan and chitosan derivatives in drug delivery and tissue engineering, Adv. Polym. Sci. (2011).
 408 https://doi.org/10.1007/12_2011_137.
- 409 [5] G. Kratz, C. Arnander, J. Swedenborg, M. Back, C. Falk, I. Gouda, O. Larm, Heparin410 chitosan complexes stimulate wound healing in human skin, Scand. J. Plast. Reconstr.
 411 Surg. Hand Surg. (1997). https://doi.org/10.3109/02844319709085478.
- 412 [6] R. Yang, H. Li, M. Huang, H. Yang, A. Li, A review on chitosan-based flocculants and their applications in water treatment, Water Res. (2016).
 414 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.waters.2016.02.068
- 414 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2016.02.068.
- 415 [7] Y. Liu, Y. Li, J. Lv, G. Wu, J. Li, Graft copolymerization of methyl methacrylate onto
 416 chitosan initiated by potassium ditelluratocuprate(III), J. Macromol. Sci. Pure Appl.
 417 Chem. (2005). https://doi.org/10.1080/10601320500189414.
- 418 [8] A. El-Shafei, S. Shaarawy, A. Hebeish, Graft copolymerization of chitosan with butyl
 419 acrylate and application of the copolymers to cotton fabric, Polym. Plast. Technol. Eng.
 420 (2005). https://doi.org/10.1080/03602550500207840.
- 421 [9] H.K. No, S.P. Meyers, W. Prinyawiwatkul, Z. Xu, Applications of chitosan for
 422 improvement of quality and shelf life of foods: A review, J. Food Sci. (2007).
 423 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2007.00383.x.
- 424 [10] P.K. Dutta, S. Tripathi, G.K. Mehrotra, J. Dutta, Perspectives for chitosan based
 425 antimicrobial films in food applications, Food Chem. (2009).
 426 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2008.11.047.
- I. Aranaz, N. Acosta, C. Civera, B. Elorza, J. Mingo, C. Castro, M. de los L. Gandía, A.H.
 Caballero, Cosmetics and cosmeceutical applications of chitin, chitosan and their
 derivatives, Polymers (Basel). (2018). https://doi.org/10.3390/polym10020213.
- [12] S.H. Lim, S.M. Hudson, Review of chitosan and its derivatives as antimicrobial agents
 and their uses as textile chemicals, J. Macromol. Sci. Polym. Rev. (2003).
 https://doi.org/10.1081/MC-120020161.
- 433 [13] C.K.S. Pillai, W. Paul, C.P. Sharma, Chitin and chitosan polymers: Chemistry, solubility
 434 and fiber formation, Prog. Polym. Sci. (2009).
 435 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2009.04.001.
- 436 [14] M. Bengisu, E. Yilmaz, Oxidation and pyrolysis of chitosan as a route for carbon fiber 437 derivation, Carbohydr. Polym. (2002). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0144-8617(02)00018-8.
- 438 [15] M.N.V. Ravi Kumar, A review of chitin and chitosan applications, React. Funct. Polym.
 439 (2000). https://doi.org/10.1016/S1381-5148(00)00038-9.
- 440 [16] G. Savage, G. Savage, The Properties of Carbon-carbon Composites, in: Carbon-Carbon
 441 Compos., 1993. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-1586-5_8.
- 442 [17] N.S. Lebedeva, S.S. Guseinov, E.S. Yurina, Y.A. Gubarev, O.I. Koifman,
- 443 Thermochemical research of chitosan complexes with sulfonated metallophthalocyanines,

444		Int. J. Biol. Macromol. (2019). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2019.07.051.
445	[18]	A. Hirai, H. Odani, A. Nakajima, Determination of degree of deacetylation of chitosan by
446		1H NMR spectroscopy, Polym. Bull. (1991). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00299352.
447	[19]	G.P. Shaposhnikov, V.P. Kulinich, V.E. Maizlish, Modifitsirovannye ftalotsianiny i ikh
448		strukturnve analogi, Liq. Cryst. Their Appl. Moscow Krasand. (2012).
449	[20]	J. Zawadzki, H. Kaczmarek, Thermal treatment of chitosan in various conditions.
450	[=0]	Carbohydr Polym (2010) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbool.2009.11.037
451	[21]	C Ou S Chen Y Liu I Shao S Li T Fu W Fan H Zheng O Lu X Bi Study on
452		the thermal degradation kinetics and pyrolysis characteristics of chitosan-Zn complex. I
453		Anal Appl Pyrolysis (2016) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaan.2016.03.021
454	[22]	M Mucha A Pawlak Complex study on chitosan degradability Polimery/Polymers
455		(2002) https://doi.org/10.14314/polimery 2002.509
456	[23]	Y S Nam W H Park D Ihm S M Hudson Effect of the degree of deacetylation on the
457	[23]	thermal decomposition of chitin and chitosan panofibers. Carbohydr. Polym. (2010)
458		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carhpol.2009.11.030
459	[24]	G S Lal F R Haves Determination of the amine content of chitosan by pyrolysis-gas
460	[27]	chromatography I Anal Annl Purolysis (1984) https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-
461		2370(84)80012_1
462	[25]	I Mattai F R Haves Characterization of chitosan by pyrolysis-mass spectrometry I
463	[23]	Anal Anni Pyrolysis (1982) https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-2370(82)80019-3
464	[26]	H Sato S Mizutani S Tsuge H Obtani K Agi A Takasu M Okada S Kohavashi T
465	[20]	Kivosada S Shoda Determination of the degree of acetylation of chitin/chitosan by
466		pyrolysis-gas chromatography in the presence of ovalic acid Anal Chem 70 (1998) 7_
467		12
468	[27]	I.M. Nieto, C. Peniche-Covas, G. Padro'n, Characterization of chitosan by pyrolysis-mass
469	[27]	spectrometry thermal analysis and differential scanning calorimetry. Thermochim Acta
470		(1991) https://doi.org/10.1016/0040-6031(91)80260-P
470	[28]	C Peniche Covas W Argüelles Monal I San Román A kinetic study of the thermal
472	[20]	degradation of chitosan and a mercantan derivative of chitosan Polym Degrad Stab
472		(1993) https://doi.org/10.1016/01/1_3910(93)90120_8
473	[29]	I Zeng C Oin I Wang W Li Volatile compounds formed from the pyrolycis of
475	[2]	chitosan Carbohydr Polym (2011) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carboh.2010.10.007
476	[30]	P-S Wang G V Odell Formation of pyrazines from thermal treatment of some amino-
477	[30]	hydroxy compounds I Agric Food Chem 21 (1973) 868–870
478 1178	[31]	V Gomez-Serrano I Pastor-Villegas A Perez-Florindo C Duran-Valle C Valenzuela-
470 1/79	[31]	Calaborro ET_IR study of rockrose and of char and activated carbon I Anal Annl
480		Pyrolysis (1996) https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-2370(95)00921-3
481	[32]	B C Smith Fundamentals of fourier transform infrared spectroscopy second edition
482	[32]	2011
483	[33]	H Kaczmarek I Zawadzki Chitosan pyrolysis and adsorption properties of chitosan and
484	[33]	its carbonizate Carbohydr Res (2010) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carres.2010.02.024
485	[34]	NS Lebedeva Y A Gubarev E.S. Yurina A I. Vyugin I.M. Lipatova Features of
486	[31]	chitosan interaction with conner(II) and cobalt(II) tetrasulforthalocyanines Russ I Gen
487		Chem 87 (2017) https://doi org/10 1134/ $\$1070363217100139$
488	[35]	GP Amaral GO Puntel CL Dalla Corte F Dobrachinski RP Barcelos LL Bastos
489	[33]	DS Ávila IBT Rocha E O Da Silva R L Puntel E A A Soares The antioxidant
490		properties of different phthalocyanines Toxicol Vitr (2012)
491		https://doi.org/10.1016/i.tiv.2011.10.006.
492	[36]	C. Kantar, H. Akal, B. Kaya, F. Islamollu, M. Türk, S. Sasmaz, Novel nhthalocyanines
493	[20]	containing resorcinol azo dves: Synthesis, determination of pKa values, antioxidant
494		antibacterial and anticancer activity. J. Organomet. Chem (2015)
495		https://doi.org/10.1016/i.jorganchem 2014 12.042
		r=

- 496 [37] E. Fuente, J.A. Menéndez, M.A. Díez, D. Suárez, M.A. Montes-Morán, Infrared
- 497 spectroscopy of carbon materials: A quantum chemical study of model compounds, J.
 498 Phys. Chem. B. (2003). https://doi.org/10.1021/jp027482g.
- 499 [38] W.W. Duley, D.A. Williams, The infrared spectrum of interstellar dust: Surface functional groups on carbon, Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. (1981).
- 501 https://doi.org/10.1093/mnras/196.2.269.