

# Chitosan Nanocrystals Synthesis *via* Aging and Application Towards Alginate Hydrogels for Sustainable Drug Release

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## Abstract

Marine biomass waste is a remarkable source of functional molecules and materials. Yet material extraction, conversion and processing are often chemically intensive, preventing the widespread and clean use of these abundant resources for high-end applications. Moreover, current challenges in biomedicine calls for the design of novel materials with better functional and mechanical properties. Herein, we present a novel chemical process to afford chitosan nanocrystals (ChsNCs), which uniquely combine high degree of deacetylation, rod shape and high crystallinity for mechanical robustness. This method is a simple solid-state aging process starting from chitin nanocrystals (ChNCs) and requiring limited chemical and energetic input, which we have quantified using process mass intensity as the sustainability metric. This method, as well as a previously reported solution-based method, afforded a family of novel nanomaterials, which we used to form alginate hydrogels. The resulting materials are the first examples of ChsNC-based hydrogels and featured superior performances in terms of both rheological properties, as well as

sustained drug release, as compared to previously reported chitosan/alginate systems. This work opens an avenue for functional soft materials using a green resource via a clean process.

## **Introduction**

The study of hydrogels has been a subject of intense research, with advancements in a diverse variety of fields such as tissue engineering,<sup>1</sup> microfluidic devices,<sup>2</sup> adhesives,<sup>3</sup> agriculture,<sup>4</sup> catalysis,<sup>5</sup> drug delivery,<sup>6</sup> and bone scaffolding materials.<sup>7</sup> The ability for these hydrophilic 3D polymeric structures to swell in water and biological fluid makes them mimics of natural tissue, endowing them with incredible applications.<sup>8-10</sup> Notably, cellulose and chitin, are respectively the first and second most abundant biopolymers in the world. As such, these biopolymers have been intensely focused on as both hydrogel<sup>9-12</sup> and aerogel<sup>13</sup> components due to their bioavailability and biocompatibility<sup>14-16</sup>. Chitin is particularly interesting because its deacetylation affords chitosan, which uniquely possesses a primary amine functionality on the C2 unit of its glucose backbone,<sup>15</sup> The degree of deacetylation (DDA) is a common unit to measure the proportion of primary amines to acetamide functionalities, with chitin and chitosan possessing < 15 % and > 70 % DDA, respectively.<sup>17</sup> In chitosan, once the primary amine becomes quaternary and bears a positive charge below pH 6.3, it can readily form hydrogels with negatively charged crosslinkers and co-monomer units.<sup>18</sup> Additionally, chitosan also uniquely possesses antibacterial and antioxidant capabilities due to its inherent positive charge, making it capable of penetrating negatively-charged cell membranes in bacteria.<sup>19, 20</sup> Through these advantages, chitosan use has become increasingly prevalent in biomedicine.<sup>21</sup>

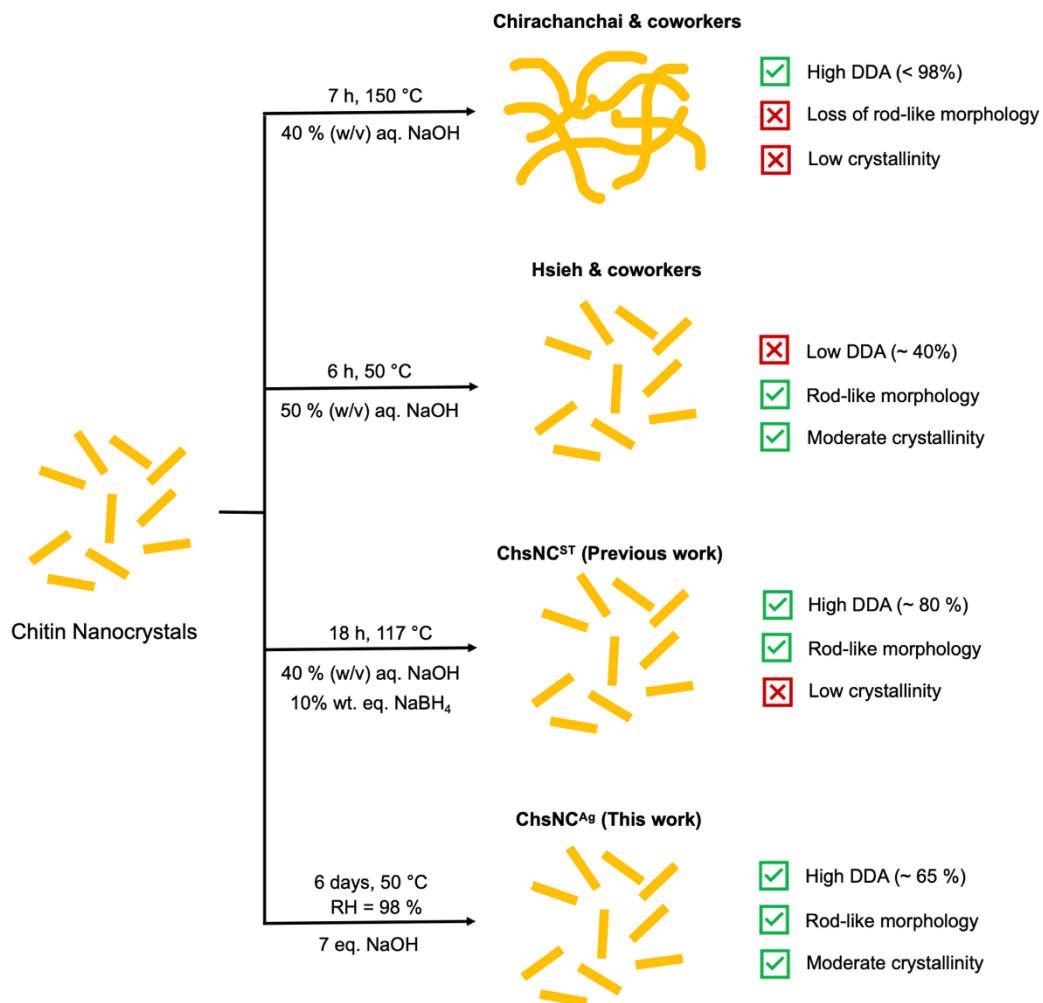
Chitin and chitosan extraction from natural sources is however not a perfect process, plagued as it is by its reliance on harsh chemical conditions. In particular, chitin deacetylation into

chitosan typically relies on the use of corrosive alkaline solutions, heated at high temperatures for extensive periods and ultimately generates toxic effluents.<sup>22</sup> Yet, chitin and chitosan are sourced from, crustacean shell waste, which is produced in the multi-million-ton scale every year and is mostly discarded resulting in a negative environmental impact, despite their obvious chemical value.<sup>23-28</sup> Several innovative strategies have focused on improving the extraction, purification and transformation methods, taking advantage of alternative processes such as ionic liquids<sup>29</sup>, glycerol,<sup>30</sup> biocatalysts<sup>31</sup>, or mechanochemistry.<sup>32-34</sup>

In order to further valorise these biopolymers into high-end applications, researchers have explored their extraction as nanocrystallites *via* a partial depolymerization procedure; raw cellulose or chitin can be transformed into cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) and chitin nanocrystals (ChNCs), respectively.<sup>35-39</sup> These materials feature high aspect ratios and high crystallinity.<sup>40</sup> CNCs in particular have been the focus of intense research attention in the last two decades and have been applied to a wide range of sectors, from coatings to catalysis and biomedicine.<sup>41-43</sup> These nanomaterials have also been applied in the formation of hydrogels, where they typically bring about enhanced mechanical durability for applications in scaffolding materials and drug delivery.<sup>44-46</sup> For material applications within hydrogel formation and biomedicine, the crystallinity and morphology of the nanocrystal are key features. For instance, CNCs have the ability to augment the mechanical properties of the resulting composite.<sup>47-49</sup> Yet, CNCs lack naturally occurring functional groups enabling direct covalent or ionic cross-linking, so they are typically incorporated inside the hydrogel matrix by physical mixing.<sup>9</sup> There are instances of CNCs being able to interact and bind with the gelling matrix, yet this requires surface modification of the CNCs with more treatment steps, further complicating the fabrication of such reinforcement materials.<sup>50, 51</sup> ChNC, on the other hand, have been less studied. Huang *et al.* used ChNCs with a

10% DDA as a reinforcing material for an alginate-based hydrogel with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  as the primary crosslinker.<sup>45</sup> Petrova *et al.* took one step further and used ChNCs with DDA of 30 % and alginate together with no  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in acidic media to form hydrogels, which exhibited enhanced mechanical properties and allowed sustained drug release of tetracycline as a model small molecule drug.<sup>52</sup> In these works, the authors emphasized the importance of the presence of amine groups, even at low density, on the surface of ChNCs as a key parameter to allow gelation of the system. In this context, the fabrication of hydrogels from rod-shaped chitosan nanocrystals (ChsNCs) would be ideal. On the one hand, ChsNCs feature positive charges on their surface, which can cross link with monomers such as alginates. On the other hand, ChsNC with rod-shape and high crystallinity can impart improved mechanical properties to the resulting hydrogel. Until recently though, the synthesis of such ChsNCs had remained elusive, explaining the lack of report of their use as co-substituents in hydrogel composites to this date.

Initial studies of the deacetylation of ChNC resulted in the formation of a highly deacetylated chitosan “webbed nanoscaffold”, as the harsh basic conditions used (aqueous 40 % w/v NaOH at 120 °C for 7 h) compromised the nanocrystalline structure and rod shape of original ChNC (**Scheme 1**).<sup>53</sup> The Hsieh group explored a much milder approach of basic media deacetylation at lower temperature (50 °C), which successfully retained the nanorod morphology and crystallinity, yet only provided a DDA of ChNCs of up to 40 %, affording what they called a core-shell chitin-chitosan nanocrystal.<sup>54, 55</sup> Our group reported last year a solvo-thermal process able to transform ChNCs into ChsNCs ( $\text{ChsNC}^{\text{ST}}$ ), using catalytic amounts of  $\text{NaBH}_4$  to prevent excessive depolymerization and to preserve their rod shape. For the first time, this synthesis gave access to ChsNC with high DDAs and rod shape, although the crystallinity dropped significantly.



**Scheme 1:** Current paths towards deacetylation of ChNCs into ChsNCs.

Herein, we report a simple and sustainable aging process to access a new type of ChsNC material (ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>), featuring a rod shape, good DDAs and high crystallinity from ChNCs. This solvent-free method takes inspiration from past work in our group on the use of aging for the conversion of bulk chitin into bulk chitosan.<sup>33</sup> We used metrics for sustainability including process mass intensity (PMI) and established our process to be “greener” than our previous route as well as other methods in the literature. Then, we studied the resulting family of ChsNC materials, ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> and ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>, as cross linkers to afford the first reported nanochitosan-based hydrogels.

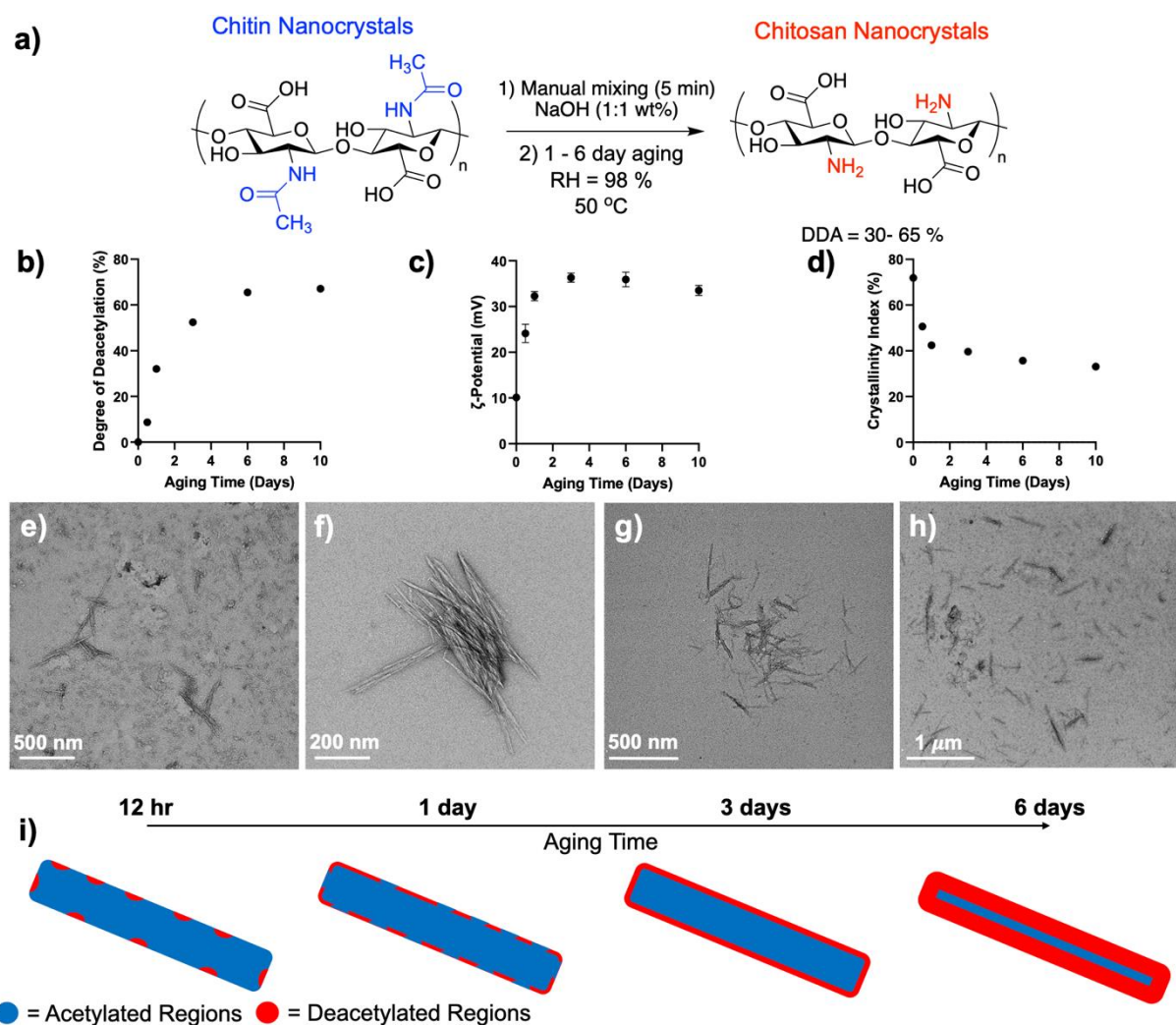
With a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free alginate hydrogel formulation, we explored their rheological properties. ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> in particular provided superior gelation behaviour, affording a stable gel in half an hour with storage modulus values up to 2 orders of magnitude in comparison with ChNC and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>. The protein-drug release studies were performed with ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> or ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -cross-linked alginate hydrogels, and showed that ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> provided prolonged drug release in the time scale of days, unlike other alginate-based gels which tend to release drugs in the matter of hours.<sup>56, 57</sup>

## Results and Discussion

### *Aging-based synthesis of chitosan nanocrystals (ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>)*

We first sought to develop a synthetic method to access ChsNC with the following properties: 1) high DDA values, 2) crystallinity retention, and 3) rod-like morphology retention, and turned to solid-state, mechanochemical/aging methods as a framework. The Yan and Kerton groups had demonstrated that high-energy milling methods are able to break chitin crystallinity, making it more accessible for deacetylation, and at the same time favour accelerated hydrolysis of its  $\beta$ -1,4-glycosidic linkages.<sup>58</sup> These procedures afforded low MW chitosans,<sup>34</sup> soluble N-acetylglucosamine oligomers, N,N'-diacetylchitobiose dimers, as well as N-acetylglucosamine monomers.<sup>58, 59</sup> Conversely, our group has developed mild mechanochemical methods for the functionalization of polymers while preserving their structural integrity,<sup>60, 61</sup> as exemplified with the deacetylation of chitin to yield high MW chitosan.<sup>33</sup> This method relied on three steps, the first one being optional: 1) milling in a vibrational mill to amorphize chitin alone followed by 2) a 5 min. milling with NaOH powder and 3) solid-state aging under 98% humidity, with optional heating to 50 °C.<sup>62</sup> The entire process was mild enough to prevent hydrolysis while affording excellent DDA in the 80-95% region.

In this context, we sought to investigate the use of vibrational milling and aging under 98% humidity for the transformation of ChNC into ChsNC. We reasoned that the low depolymerization observed with these methods was conducive to the preservation of nanostructure of the material. We first vibrationally milled ChNCs with either 1 or 2 eq. of NaOH (w/w %) in a 10 mL zirconia milling jar with one 10 mm zirconia ball for 5 min. In another set of experiments, we ground ChNCs in a mortar and pestle under the same conditions. We calculated DDA values through  $^{13}\text{C}\{^1\text{H}\}$  multiple-CP/MAS solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (ssNMR) spectroscopy using an established method previously reported.<sup>63</sup> DDAs of only 2 to 3 % were measured in all cases, consistent with our past report on bulk chitin (**Figure S1**).<sup>33</sup> This treatment was however successful in creating a homogeneous powder mixture of the ChNC and NaOH. We thus used this mixture as the starting point for aging experiments, consisting of an incubation period in a closed chamber with a high relative humidity (RH) of 98 % at 50 °C and followed the reaction between 12 h and 10 days (**Figure 1a**).



**Figure 1:** (a) Schematic depicting the aging reaction parameters for the deacetylation of ChNCs into ChsNCs. (b) DDA, (c)  $\zeta$ -potential at pH 5 and (d) crystallinity index (CRI) as a function of aging time using the reaction conditions listed in (a). The data shown at 0 aging time is the initial ChNC used without aging. The tabulated values can be seen in **Table S1**. Representative TEM image of (e) 12 h aged, (f) 1-day aged, (g) 3-day aged and (h) 6-day aged ChsNCs<sup>Ag</sup>. (i) Schematic depicting the theorized formation of deacetylated regions on the ChNC over the course of the aging period from 12 h to 6 days, with total deacetylation of the surface starting at 3-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and further interior deacetylation at 6-day aging time.



DDA was measured along the way by ssNMR and found that it increased steadily from 8.7 % at 12 h to 65 % at 6 days (**Figure 1b, Table S1**), as seen by the decrease in integral area of both the methyl (~ 23 ppm) and carbonyl carbon (~ 177 ppm) associated with the acetlyamine functionality is seen (**Figure S2**). After 6 days, the reaction plateaued. The resulting material hence accessed by aging was denoted ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>. As a matter of comparison, the ssNMR spectra of starting material ChNCs and solvo-thermally prepared ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> are provided as **Figure S3**, confirming DDA values of 0 % and 88 % respectively.

It is important to note, that the DDA value calculated from ssNMR accounts for the entire material, reporting the state of both the surface of the nanocrystals and its core. We thus turned to dynamic light scattering (DLS) of ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> aqueous suspensions at pH 5 as a method to track the surface functionalization along the reaction, via the measurement of the  $\zeta$ -potential (**Figure 1c**). No matter the aging time, all ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> featured  $\zeta$ -potential values in the positive range, from + 24 to + 37 mV, indicative of the presence of quaternary ammonium cations – and successful deacetylation. A comparison is made with a suspension of ChNCs, which is the sample at aging day = 0, in which a  $\zeta$ -potential value of + 10.1 mV was observed (**Table S1**). Similar to DDA, the  $\zeta$ -potential values increased as a function of aging time. Yet, while DDA values plateaued at 6 days, the  $\zeta$ -potential values plateaued and receded slightly from 3 days of aging time onwards. We hypothesize that ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> reached a “saturated” level of deacetylation at 3 days, corresponding to the functionalities at the surface of the nanocrystal. From 3 to 6 days, subsequent deacetylation did not affect the surface charge of the particle.

ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> samples were further studied by powder X-ray diffraction (pXRD) to measure their crystallinity index (CrI) throughout the aging process. In line with both the DDA and  $\zeta$ -potential, the CrI of ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> dropped rapidly from 72 % for ChNC to 51 % after 12 h of aging

and finally reached 40 % and 36 % after 3 and 6 of aging, respectively (**Figure 1d**). In contrast, ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> featured a lower CrI of 24 % (**Figure S4, Table S1**). The ssNMR is also consistent with the loss in crystallinity in ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> as compared to ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>, as revealed by the broadened peaks in **Figure S3**. This broadening is indicative of structural disorder at both the local and medium range. This suggests that loss of crystallinity and deacetylation work in tandem, which has been seen for bulk chitin to chitosan conversion as well as in the nanoscale.<sup>64, 65</sup>

Finally, the morphology of the nanocrystals was carefully monitored using transmission electron microscopy (TEM). No matter the aging time, ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> retained its original rod-like structure – even with longer aging time (**Figure 1e-h**). The length of the nanorods was measured manually through multiple TEM micrographs (**Figure S5**). The 12 h aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> had a length of  $186 \pm 42$  nm, the 1-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>,  $208 \pm 33$  nm, the 3-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>,  $198 \pm 44$  nm, and the 6-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>,  $203 \pm 36$  nm. The ChNCs originally had a length of  $\sim 240$  nm, which indicates that the aging process does not seemingly destroy the morphology or dimensions of the nanorod architecture to an extensive degree.

Based on the results from these different characterisation methods during the aging process, we can hypothesize that amorphization occurs rapidly, as a consequence of aging in the presence of NaOH. This is accompanied by deacetylation, which occurred preferably at the surface of the nanocrystal, which slowly becomes fully saturated over 3 days, as seen in  $\zeta$ -potential measurements. Next, deacetylation of the deeper structures of the nanocrystal occurred up until a certain threshold, in which the crystalline interior of the nanocrystal is too obstructed to be deacetylated (**Figure 1i**).

### *Sustainability metrics*

To summarize, we have proven through a combination of TEM, XRD, ssNMR and  $\zeta$ -potential measurement techniques that the aging methodology successfully creates ChsNCs with moderate crystallinity, a rod-like shape, and high DDA. While solid-state aging reactions align with green chemistry principles in theory, quantification of such claims must always be done in order to truly provide metrics for comparison with other techniques. Indeed, quantification of aging reactions for chitin have already been reported from our group, and is seen to yield very efficient energy consumption per gram of product ( $\text{J g}^{-1}$ ) in our previous report.<sup>33</sup> Therefore, we look towards quantifying the process mass intensity (PMI) for the transformation of chitin to ChNC and ChNC to ChsNC, as well as a cumulative mass intensity (MI) for four routes (**Table 1**). The MI was calculated as following the best practices for sustainability metrics,<sup>66</sup> using the following equation:

$$MI = \frac{\sum \text{total mass of process}}{\text{mass of isolated product}} \quad (1)$$

We compare our novel aging method to our previously reported solvo-thermal method, as well as other deacetylation methods reported by the Hsieh group and Chirachanchai groups, as outlined in **Scheme 1**.

Entry	Deacetylation Method	PMI (chitin to ChNC)	PMI (ChNC to ChsNC)	Total MI (chitin to ChsNC)
1	Solvo-thermal base treatment (Chirachanchai group) <sup>53</sup>	246.5	362.5	441.8
2	Mild solvo-thermal base treatment (Hsieh Group) <sup>54</sup>	281.9	920	789.3
3	Solvo-thermal base treatment with NaBH <sub>4</sub> (Previous work) <sup>65</sup>	70.7	377.7	494.4

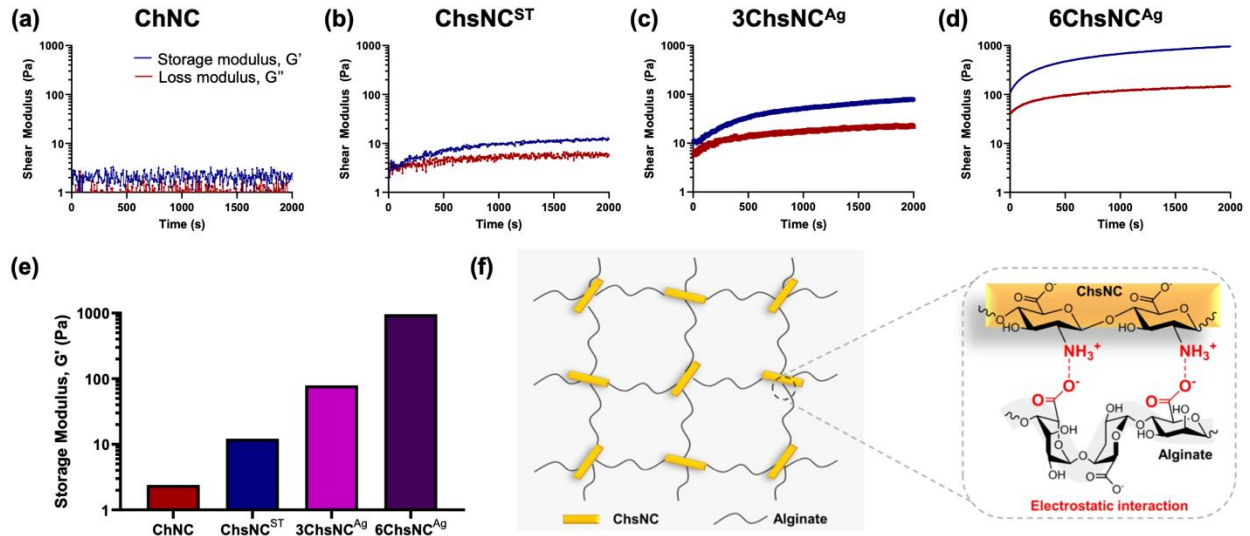
4	Aging reactions ( <b>This work</b> )	70.7	170	286.2
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**Table 1:** Process mass intensity calculations for four different processes to make ChsNCs starting from chitin. All calculations are based on conservative approximations based on product yield mass found in each report.

The Chirachanchai and co-workers process (**Table 1, entry 1**) has a lower MI than the one of the Hsieh group (**Table 1, entry 2**), both for chitin to ChNC conversion and the deacetylation to ChNC to ChsNC. Importantly, the process of Chirachanchai did not retain nanorod morphology of the ChsNCs. In contrast, our previous solvothermal synthesis (**Table 1, entry 3**) has a PMI of 70.7 for the first step, almost a 4-fold decrease compared to both Chirachanchai and Hsieh methods. This is presumably due to the increased scale of our group's procedure for the synthesis ChNCs (14 g product yield) as opposed to the 5 g product scale of Hsieh method. This is also the case for the drastic difference in PMI for the ChNC to ChsNC step, in which the scale for Hsieh is on the microgram scale (up to 400 mg product, MI = 920) and our previous work having yield up to 29 g. In the case of the aging method (**Table 1, entry 4**), performing the second step of the process in the solid-state immediately enabled lower material use. The PMI for the conversion of ChNC to ChsNC has more than 2-fold decrease (PMI = 170) compared to the solvo-thermal method (PMI = 377.7). Importantly, the drastic reduction in MI when one of the steps is changed in place for a solid-state reaction instead of a “classic” solution-based reaction, in which the total MI (from chitin to ChsNCs) is decreased from MI = 494.4 for the solvothermal deacetylation method to MI = 286.2 for the aging deacetylation method. Thus, aging is not only a reliable method to deacetylate ChNCs into ChsNCs, but it is also more sustainable, as evidenced by quantified green metrics.

*ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> containing alginate hydrogel rheological study*

We then pursued the synthesis of ChsNC-containing hydrogels. For this task, we selected 3-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>) and 6-day aged ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>) samples as the ones combining high DDA (52.4 % and 65.5 % resp.), good CrI (40% and 36% resp.), and nanorod morphology, as well as the previously reported ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> (DDA: 88 %, CrI: 24 % and rod shape), and ChNC (DDA: 0 %, CrI: 72 % and rod shape).<sup>65</sup> These were combined with sodium alginate which is well known for its ability to form polyelectrolyte complexes (PECs) due to its polyionic nature as well as being biocompatible, lending itself as an attractive hydrogel precursors.<sup>67, 68</sup> Important in all past examples of hydrogels made of alginates and either cellulose, chitin or chitosan



**Figure 2:** Rheology measurements for gels made by mixing a 2 wt. % Na alginate solution with a suspension of 2 wt. % (a) ChNC, (b) ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>, (c) 3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and (d) 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> at pH 5. Blue lines depict the storage modulus ( $G'$ ) and red lines show the loss modulus ( $G''$ ). (e) storage modulus values at 2000 s for the four gels above. (f) Schematic depicting the crosslinking interaction between the positively-ChsNCs and negatively-charged alginate at pH 5.

Four prototype hydrogels were fabricated using aqueous solutions of 2 wt. % Na alginate and aqueous suspensions of 2 wt. % ChNC (ChNC-alginate), ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> (ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>-alginate), 3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate), and 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate) at pH 5, and subsequently monitored for their rheological behaviour (**Supporting Information**). Importantly, no Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions were used in this setting, unlike most examples of cellulose<sup>69, 70</sup> and chitin-based hydrogels,<sup>45</sup> as these cations tend to leach and cause instability during subsequent use. We reasoned that the positive charges in ChsNCs could replace the use of such ions for gelation and afford a more stable material.<sup>52</sup> A 5 mL syringe with 4 wt. % sodium alginate solution was combined with another 5 mL syringe with 4 wt. % nanocrystal suspension using a syringe connector. It was crucial that the pH was controlled to be pH 5, such that it was below the pK<sub>a</sub> value of chitosan (~ 6.3) and above that of alginate (~ 3.5).<sup>71</sup> A control test was done in which the gels were made at neutral pH 7, in which no gelling occurred. The rheological measurements showed that the use of ChNCs as the crosslinker did not trigger gel formation (**Figure 2a**), as seen by the negligible difference between the storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli. In contrast, when ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> was used as the crosslinking agent, the G' was higher than the G'' value, proving that gelation occurred between the alginate and ChsNCs (**Figure 2b**), yet with a modest G' value 12.2 Pa at 1 Hz of shear rate. 3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate (**Figure 2c**) and 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate (**Figure 2d**) gels showcased superior mechanical properties compared to the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>-alginate gel, with G' values around 79.2 and 961.7 Pa, respectively, in a gelling time of 2000 s and at 1 Hz of shear rate (**Figure 2e**). To sum up, all the tested ChsNC samples were able to crosslink alginate to form gels at pH = 5. These are the first reported hydrogels based on ChsNCs. In contract, ChNCs were not able to gel with alginates, showcasing the key role of protonated amine functionalities in this context (**Figure 2f**). ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>-alginate, 3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate and 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>-alginate respectively featured increasing G' values,

jumping each time by one order of magnitude. Interestingly, 3ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> feature very similar CrI and  $\zeta$ -potential values, while they differ significantly in their DDA values (52.4 % and 65.5 % resp.). This suggests that this change has a dramatic effect to favour gelation. Interesting, Petrova *et al.* reported an alginate hydrogel made with 30% deacetylated ChNC, and a G' value around 30 Pa at 1Hz, which is in good agreement with the trend we measured.<sup>52</sup> Interestingly this trend stops when considering ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>, as its high DDA should afford an even better G' value. We propose here that the low CrI of this material imparts too much flexibility, and thus enables phase separation within the ChsNC-alginate gel, as is seen in gels made with bulk chitosan polymer.<sup>72</sup> We did observe visually that no homogeneous macroscopic gel could be formed with this material. These observations suggest that the usage of 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> as the crosslinker fell in a sweet spot, where the combination of good DDA (65.5 %) and still moderate CrI (36 %) afforded excellent gelation properties due to successfully arresting microphase separation. The resulting G' value is the highest measured on an Ca<sup>2+</sup> free alginate gel made with polysaccharide nanocrystals.

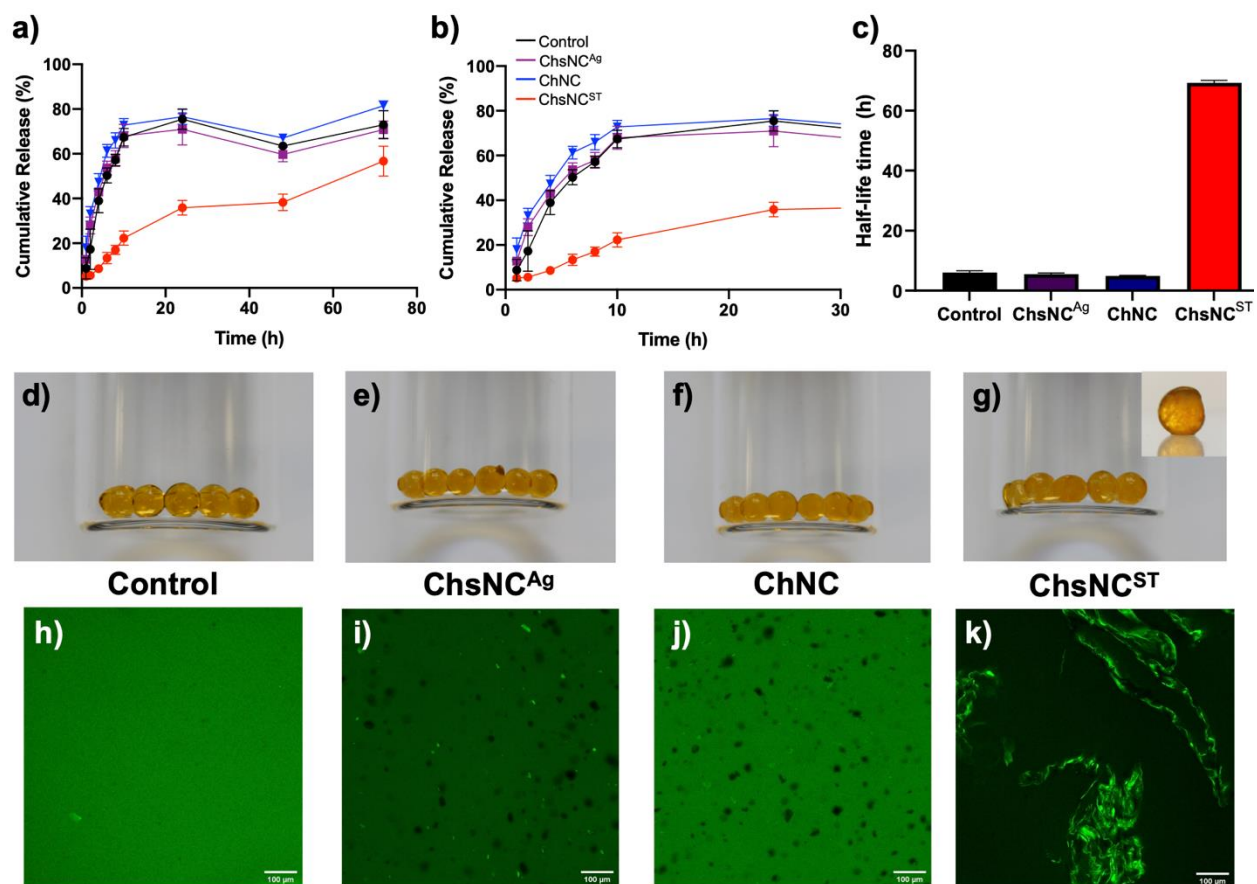
### ***Drug release study for ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> containing Ca-alginate hydrogels***

To demonstrate the versatility of this system, we decided to test it as a drug release vehicle. Oral drug administration is often accompanied by high dosage rates to combat the short circulation times of common peptide and protein-based drugs.<sup>73</sup> Drug delivery with hydrogels has therefore seen extensive research within the past decades.<sup>6</sup> In order to provide a more mechanically stable gel for drug delivery, Ca<sup>2+</sup> cations were introduced as a second crosslinker to form more robust alginate/nanocrystals hydrogel beads. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) with fluorescein isothiocyanate labelling (BSA-FITC) was chosen as the model protein drug due to its inherent

negative charge, which may in turn also bind with the ChsNCs to promote sustained drug release. The hydrogel beads were prepared first by mixing a 4 wt. % alginate solution with the nanocrystal solution using a syringe connector and then subsequently added drop-wise into 0.2 M  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (**Supporting Information**). Using this method, 5 types of hydrogel beads were fabricated: control hydrogel bead with no nanocrystal incorporation (Ca-alginate), hydrogel beads with 3-day ( $3\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$ ) and 6-day ( $6\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$ )  $\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}$  incorporation, hydrogel beads with ChNC incorporation ( $\text{ChNC}/\text{Ca-alginate}$ ), and hydrogel beads with  $\text{ChsNC}^{\text{ST}}$  incorporation ( $\text{ChsNC}^{\text{ST}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$ ). Swelling experiments were also done without BSA-FITC loading in order to test for the stability of the hydrogel beads (**Figure S6**). All the as-made hydrogel beads held stable for over 8 h with the exception of the hydrogel beads with ChNC incorporation, which lost physical integrity after only 4 h. Furthermore, it was noted that  $6\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$  possessed the greatest anti-swelling property out of the 5 hydrogel beads, outperforming the  $3\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$  hydrogel bead. Thus,  $6\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}/\text{Ca-alginate}$  was chosen to be the representative  $\text{ChsNC}^{\text{Ag}}$ -incorporated hydrogel bead to be used for the drug release study.

For loading the BSA-FITC into the hydrogel beads, first a BSA-FITC solution was mixed with the nanocrystal solution and incubated for 1 h to allow for interaction between the nanocrystals and protein. Afterwards, the protein-nanocrystal solution was mixed with alginate, added drop-wise into an aqueous 0.2 M  $\text{CaCl}_2$  bath, and promptly washed quickly three times with D.I. water (**Supporting Information**). The drug-loaded beads were then placed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at a pH of 7.4, and the subsequent release profiles were obtained by monitoring 200  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquots at specific time intervals using a micro-well plate reader (**Figure 3a-c**).





**Figure 3:** (a) Release profiles for control (Ca-alginate), ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>/Ca-alginate), ChNC (ChNC/Ca-alginate), and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> (ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>/Ca-alginate) hydrogel beads with BSA-FITC incorporation over the course of 72 h. (b) Expanded view for the initial 24 h release profile. (c) Bar graph depicting the half-life time values for cumulative BSA-FITC release from the above-mentioned BSA-FITC loaded alginate gels. (d-g) Optical photographs of the respective BSA-FITC loaded hydrogel beads, inset of (g) is a photograph of the same sample at a higher magnification. (h-k) Confocal microscopy images of the respective BSA-FITC loaded hydrogel beads.

It was observed that ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>/Ca-alginate, ChNC/Ca-alginate and the control Ca-alginate hydrogel beads all featured a comparable drug release profile, with about 70% of the drug being released after only 10 h (**Figure 3a-b**). These results indicate a burst release in agreement with

past reports on calcium-crosslinked alginate-based systems.<sup>57, 74</sup> Interestingly, the burst release was absent in the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>-Ca-alginate condition, showing a much slower BSA-FITC release, as only 20% of the drug was released after 10 hours and 55% after 3 days. The half-life time, which is the time at which 50% of the loaded BSA-FITC has been released, was plotted by qualitatively interpolating the points within the release profile (**Figure 3c**). Surprisingly, it is seen that almost an order of magnitude increase in the half-life time is achieved with the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>/Ca-alginate system in comparison with the other systems. One possible explanation for this phenomenon may be due to the phase separation that was happening within the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>/Ca-alginate system, which can be seen in the optical photographs of the hydrogel beads (**Figure 3d-g**). The control Ca-hydrogel beads (**Figure 3d**) were clear, while the 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>/Ca-alginate (**Figure 3e**) and ChNC/Ca-alginate (**Figure 3f**) hydrogel beads were translucent but still homogeneous. However, the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>/Ca-alginate beads depict clear inhomogeneity within the matrix, indicative of phase separation of the BSA-FITC within the gel (**Figure 3g**). To explore this further, we employed the use of confocal microscopy (**Figure 3h-k**). The control Ca-alginate beads show uniform brightness (**Figure 3h**) while the 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup>/Ca-alginate beads have distinct bright spots, indicative of small sites of interaction between the BSA and 6ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> (**Figure 3i**). With ChNC incorporation, there are no bright spots and only dark sites which indicate no interaction is occurring between the ChNC and BSA-FITC (**Figure 3j**). Yet, one can see the clear contrast when ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> is used as the substituent in the Ca-alginate gel (**Figure 3k**), which is seen to have a 3-D network within the hydrogel bead. This is also evidence that supports the hypothesis of phase separation occurring between the ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> and alginate, further verified by the low modulus values (**Figure 2b**). In combination with both the formation of condensed ChsNC<sup>ST</sup>-alginate phases, as well as the BSA-FITC being incorporated into this phase (due to the BSA-FITC being initially loaded with the

ChsNCs), the high crosslinking density of the resulting matrix resulted in remarkably sustained drug release.

In comparison with bulk chitosan, Chen *et al.* used bulk carboxymethyl chitosan blended with alginate and cross-linked with genipen to create a hydrogel for release of BSA. In their report, they provided a release of 80 % cumulative drug release within the first 5 hours at pH 7.4.<sup>57</sup> While, other gel systems with biopolymer incorporation such as methylcellulose also had rapid cumulative BSA release of at least 70% within the first 6 h at pH 7.4.<sup>56</sup> It can be seen that for these systems, the nanoscale attributes of the ChsNC such as crystallinity and DDA plays a crucial role in determining the properties seen at the macroscale, which we can uniquely tailor using this family of nanocrystals.

## Conclusions

A novel and sustainable aging methodology was utilized to synthesize ChsNCs from ChNCs. The as-made ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> had higher DDA values as compared to those in the literature, while also retaining moderate crystallinity, as seen through pXRD. Retention of its nano-rod morphology was visualized through TEM. Sustainability metrics were assessed for the first time for the transformation of chitin to ChsNCs, and the value of solid-state aging verified to have a huge impact in lowering the PMI of the process. The application of this family of ChsNCs with varying properties to hydrogel formation and drug release was explored for the first time. We validated the ability of ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> to gel with negatively charged alginate. Compelling results demonstrated that the higher crystallinity in ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> was key in strengthening the mechanical properties of alginate hydrogels. Finally, the ChsNC<sup>Ag</sup> and ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> were incorporated within a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-mediated alginate gel system in order to test their ability to provide

sustained drug release of the model protein drug BSA-FITC. ChsNC<sup>ST</sup> featured a much more sustained drug release profile, which outcompetes systems using both bulk chitosan as well as bulk cellulose, further emphasizing the imperative role DDA plays in these materials. These results demonstrate that tunability of nanocrystals chemical, structural and physical properties is absolutely crucial in order to tailor the material to the needs of hydrogel formation, stabilization, and biomedical application. Herein, we showcase a very simple and clean method to generate a family of ChsNC-based materials with desirable tunability and outstanding properties for both hydrogel formation and sustaining drug release.

## **SI statement**

Details of experimental procedures and further supporting figures and schemes – PDF

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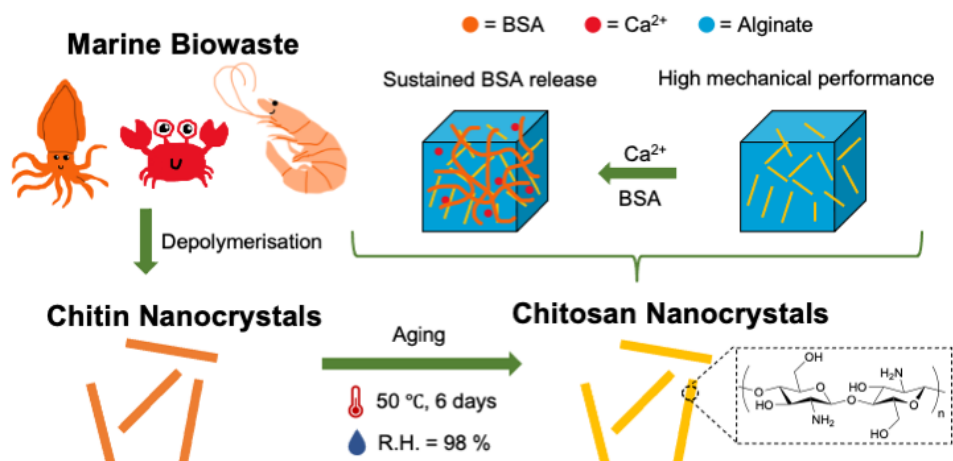
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## TOC graphic



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