

The applicability of cellulose -Tara gum composite hydrogels as dye capture adsorbents

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Highlights

- Bead-shaped hydrogels can be produced by regeneration of cellulose nanofibrils instead of dissolving pulp.
- The solid content of the beads was substituted by up to 50% with Tara gum.
- 40% Tara gum allowed us to generate structurally sound beads with a lower density.
- The presence of Tara gum in the fibers of the beads improved the adsorption capacity of Methylene Blue by 39.6%.
- The maximum adsorption capability of the 40% substituted beads was 13.7 mg/g when isotherm data was fitted into a Langmuir model.

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21 **Abstract**

22 There is a growing interest in using naturally derived materials to generate adsorbent
23 materials that can improve water quality by removing industrially derived pollutants
24 such as dyes. In this work, composite beads were prepared from wood-based cellulose
25 nanofibrils (CNF) and Tara gum (TG) by their co-dissolution in urea/sodium hydroxide
26 alkaline media followed by co-regeneration in acidic media. The obtained beads were
27 characterized by Fourier transformed infrared with attenuated total reflectance (FTIR-
28 ATR), X-ray diffraction (XRD), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), elemental analysis
29 (EA), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), while the dye adsorption capacity was
30 followed by UV-vis spectroscopy. The results showed that a 40% substitution of the
31 CNF with TG resulted in lightweight beads with 54% less solid content that maintained
32 similar dimensions. These beads were tested for methylene blue (MB) adsorption at
33 varying sorbent and pollutant concentrations. Methylene blue was selected as it is a
34 common dye used as a redox indicator for tissue staining, dairy testing, microbiology,
35 and in the textile and leather industries. Overall, the TG-CNF composite beads showed
36 improved performance on dye adsorption, with 39.6% more capture when compared to
37 the neat cellulose beads. The maximum adsorption capacity was calculated as 13.7
38 mg/g, utilizing an adsorption isotherm (2-15 ppm) fitted into the Langmuir model.

39 *Keywords:* agrowaste valorization; cellulose II; nanocellulose; methylene blue; water
40 remediation.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Some of the most common pollutants in wastewater are dyes (Cai et al. 2017).
44 Multiple modern economic activities depend on these, such as the textile and leather
45 tanning industries, food technology, pulp and paper manufacturers, agricultural
46 research, photoelectrochemical cells, and cosmetic applications, among others (Forgacs
47 et al. 2004; Rahimian and Zarinabadi 2020). Furthermore, as most of them are water
48 soluble, an effective recovery or treatment is challenging, turning them into a hazard
49 for human health because of their carcinogenesis (Shore 2002; Lang 2009; Gürses et al.
50 2016). Likewise, the presence of these dyes in industrial effluents has a negative impact
51 on both flora and fauna, even when present at low concentrations.

52 Several technologies are used to remove these pollutants, such as flowing the
53 contaminated water through activated sludges, photocatalysis, chemical oxidation, and
54 microbial or enzymatic degradation (Forgacs et al. 2004). However, most of them have
55 shown less performance when compared to remediation by adsorption. Generally, the
56 most widely utilized adsorbent is activated charcoal, which has shown a high adsorption
57 capacity of organic species (Mahmoud et al. 2013; Cai et al. 2017). Nevertheless, it is
58 very expensive, difficult to recover, and it can become unstable during reuse as its
59 physical integrity decreases over time (Mokhtar et al. 2020).

60 Thus, the use of low cost and environmentally friendly materials as adsorbents in
61 water remediation is a priority, also considering that few to no royalties are generated
62 during the wastewater treatment process. Lignocellulosic materials derived from
63 biomass and agroforest residues are an attractive alternative to develop adsorbent
64 materials. Of particular interest in this work, is the underutilized Tara gum.

65 Tara (*Caesalpinia spinosa* (Molina) Kuntze) is a native shrub from Peru, from which
66 products such as Tara gum (TG), Tara powder, and tannins can be obtained. Tara gum
67 is used worldwide in the food industry for its capacity to change the rheological
68 properties of products such as ice cream, creamery products, and other milk derivatives.
69 Tara gum is obtained by grinding the seeds after they are separated from the pods,
70 resulting in a relatively inexpensive material that is naturally biocompatible (Wu et al.
71 2015).

72 Tara gum traditionally has a lower molecular weight (Prado et al. 2005) compared
73 to other commonly used polysaccharides like cellulose and chitosan, which presents a
74 challenge for standalone use in product development. Conversely, cellulose is the most
75 abundant natural polymer as it is widely present in wood, plants, and algae and can also
76 be synthesized as a byproduct by some bacteria and animals (Klemm et al. 2011;
77 Jonoobi et al. 2015). Cellulose has gained attention in developing a wide variety of
78 dimensionally stable hydrogels and aerogels with high surface areas and low densities,
79 which are great candidates for their use in water purification and capture of
80 pollutants.(Qiu and Hu 2013; Wang et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013; Long et al. 2018).
81 Composite materials of cellulose and Tara gum have been previously described (Ma
82 and Wang 2016; Ma et al. 2016; Ponce et al. 2020), demonstrating the potential of
83 combining these two natural polymers.

84 When comparing the different hydrogels achievable, the spherical shape of beads is
85 beneficial for water remediation as it can decrease the backpressure under flow
86 conditions (Ruan et al. 2018). Furthermore, bead structures made of cellulose have been
87 applied in other processes like controlled drug release (Trygg et al. 2015),
88 chromatography and catalytic packing for columns (Wang et al. 2007; Luan et al. 2021),

89 and for noble metal adsorption (Ruan et al. 2016). However, to produce these cellulose
90 beads, pretreatment of dissolving pulp with acid ethanol is required (Trygg and Fardim
91 2011; Gomez-Maldonado et al. 2021a) or premodification of high molecular cellulose
92 like cotton linters (Trygg et al. 2014; Luan et al. 2021). Furthermore, concentrations of
93 4% or above are the required to have stable bead structures (Trygg et al. 2013).

94 This work demonstrates that hydrogel beads can be generated using 1.4% alkaline
95 solutions when starting from nanofibrillated cellulose (CNF) and that they are capable
96 of dye removal. Additionally, beads were generated when combined with Tara gum at
97 varying ratios, improving its removal capacity performance. Their ability to adsorb
98 methylene blue (MB) was assessed by in vitro tests varying the dyes and sorbents
99 concentrations and followed by UV-Vis spectroscopy. The obtained data was fitted into
100 Langmuir and Freundlich models to calculate the maximum adsorption capacity and
101 adsorption constants.

102 **2. Experimental**

103 *2.1 Materials*

104 Bleached cellulose nanofibrils (CNF, 1.91%, pH 6.3) were produced at the Forest
105 Products Development Center (Auburn University, Auburn, AL) from bleached pulp
106 obtained from mixed softwood, which was kindly provided by a North American mill.
107 Tara gum (TG) dry powder was kindly provided by MASAC (Molinos Asociados SAC,
108 Peru). Crystalized Urea was purchased from VWR (Radnor, Pennsylvania, U.S.).

109 NaOH pearls (97% purity) were purchased from ALFA AESAR (Ward Hill,
110 Massachusetts, U.S). Methylene blue (MB) was purchased from Merck KGaA
111 (Darmstadt, Germany). Ultrapure water was deionized and purified with a Thermo
112 Scientific Barnstead nanopure system (18.2 mΩ cm). Unless specified, all the weights
113 in this paper are expressed on oven dry basis.

114 2.2 *Production of cellulose nanofibril (CNF)*

115 The nanocellulose utilized in this work was produced as explained in the previous
116 work (Gomez-Maldonado et al. 2021b) . Briefly, a 2% wt. pulp suspension was washed
117 in acidic and alkaline conditions to eliminate any residual metals or other contaminants
118 present on the pulp. Then, the neutralized pulp was passed 20 times in a Masuko super
119 mass colloidizer (MKZA-10-15J); obtaining a suspension with a 2.8% consistency at a
120 pH of 6.3.

121 2.3 *Formation of the cellulose nanofibril/Tara gum beads*

122 For the generation of the beads, the cellulose nanofibrils aqueous suspension was
123 used as a starting material to generate a 12% Urea-7% NaOH solution; water, urea, and
124 NaOH were added as needed to obtain a final solid content of 1.4% w/v. The
125 nanocellulose suspension used for the solid content was modified to substitute 10, 30,
126 40, and 50% with dry Tara gum powder. The new solution was stirred at -10 °C for 1 h
127 to allow the Tara gum to fully dissolve and for proper homogeneity. Once dissolved,
128 the solution was added dropwise using a syringe needle 21G 100 (0.8192 mm outer

129 diameter) to a volumetric cylinder containing 2 M nitric acid to allow for the material
130 regeneration. Finally, once formed, the beads were washed with repeated changes of
131 fresh ultrapure water until a neutral pH was obtained.

132 2.4 Characterization

133 *Solid content and size.* A total of five beads were weighted in aluminum pans and
134 dried in a convection oven at 105 °C overnight. The moisture content was then
135 calculated according to equation (1). This measurement was done by triplicated, and
136 average values were reported.

$$MC \% = \frac{mass_{wet} - mass_{dry}}{mass_{wet}} * 100 \% \quad (1)$$

137 The average size was obtained after measuring the diameter of 10 beads using a
138 caliper.

139 *Fourier transformed infrared with attenuated total reflectance (FTIR-ATR).* Freeze-
140 dried samples were analyzed with a Perkin Elmer Spotlight 400 FT-IR Imaging System,
141 equipped with an ATR accessory with diamond/ZnSe crystal. 128 scans with a 4 cm⁻¹
142 resolution were collected and the data was processed with Spectrum 6 Spectroscopy
143 Software (Massachusetts, US).

144

145 *X-ray diffraction (XRD).* Freeze-dried samples were ground into powder and
146 analyzed using a RIGAKU Smartlab SE model equipped with Cu K α irradiation (λ =
147 1.541 Å) at 40 kV and 50 mA to obtain the corresponding spectra. Measurements were
148 performed at a scan speed of 0.1 sec/step from 10° to 60° $\theta/2\theta$, at 10°/min.

149

150 *Elemental analysis (EA).* The elemental analysis (CHNS/O) was performed in a
151 Vario MICRO cube, Elementar, (Ronkonkoma, NY, U.S.) with the conditions set
152 according to the ASTM D5373-02 method.

153 *Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).* Freeze-dried samples were tested on aluminum
154 pans in a TGA-50 Shimadzu Thermogravimetric Analyzer (Kyoto, Japan). Samples
155 were tested in a temperature range from room temperature (25 °C) to 600 °C at a rate
156 of 10 °C/min under a nitrogen atmosphere at a rate of 20 mL/min. The thermograms
157 and their corresponding first derivative were recorded for each sample using the
158 software TA-60WS (Kyoto, Japan). Measurements were done by duplicated, and
159 average values were reported.

160

161 *Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).* Freeze-dried beads were placed on standard
162 aluminum studs with carbon tape and sputtered with gold for 60 s in a Q150R ES sputter
163 coating device (Hatfield, PA, U.S.). All the images were recorded using an intensity of
164 20 kW, with working distances between 6 and 8 mm in a Zeiss Evo 50VP scanning
165 electron microscope.

166 2.5 Methylene Blue (MB) Adsorption

167 *Dye removal capacity.* For measuring the effect of the substitution of CNF with TG
168 in the dye adsorption performance, 20 mL of methylene blue solution at a concentration
169 of 15 mg/L was placed in 3 separate beakers. Five beads (8 wet mg) were added, aiming
170 at minimizing instrumental error. Aliquots were extracted and analyzed in a Genesys
171 50 UV-Visible Spectrophotometer from Thermo Scientific (Waltham, MA U.S.) every

172 30 min for the first 5 h and then at 24 h. The wavelength of the test was $\lambda=664$ nm and
 173 the data collected was fitted into a standard curve ranging from 0 to 18 mg/L. Removal
 174 percentage of the dye from the solution was calculated according to equation 2:

$$\text{Dye removal \%} = \frac{[MB]_{initial} - [MB]_{final}}{[MB]_{initial}} * 100 \% \quad (2)$$

175 The obtained data was fitted into the pseudo-first-order kinetic model (equation 3),
 176 and into the pseudo-second-order kinetic model (equation 4).

$$\ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - \frac{k_1 t}{2.303} \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} t \quad (4)$$

177 where k_1 and k_2 are the rate constants, q_e is the adsorption on equilibrium and q_t is
 178 the adsorption in each time point sampled.

179 *Adsorption isotherms.* For constructing adsorption isotherms, 200 mg of wet beads
 180 were placed in 10 mL of methylene blue solutions with 2, 5, 8, 10 and 15-ppm and left
 181 under dark conditions at room temperature for 48 h before measuring the absorbance of
 182 the solutions. Meanwhile, isotherms at constant concentration were also investigated.
 183 To this end, the beads wet mass (0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, and 0.8 g) were
 184 immersed in 10 mL of 15-ppm methylene blue solution, in the same conditions
 185 previously stated. All measurements were done by duplicate and averaged, Langmuir
 186 and Freundlich fitting were used in both sets of experiments. The Langmuir model
 187 (equation 5) was selected as it is the most common fitting, representing the maximum
 188 amount of molecules that can be adsorbed to form a complete monolayer coverage of
 189 the surface (Langmuir 1918; Mohammed et al. 2015). Meanwhile, The Freundlich
 190 model (equation 6) (Freundlich 1907) was selected as it better explains the adsorption

191 onto heterogeneous surfaces, with variations in the heat adsorption, and multilayer
192 formation (Adamson and Gast 1997; Ali 2012; Lombardo and Thielemans 2019).

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{q_{\max}} + \frac{1}{k_L q_{\max}} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Ln}q_e = \text{Ln}k_F + \frac{1}{n}\text{Ln}C_e \quad (6)$$

193 where C_e is the concentration of MB in the solution, k_L and k_F are the corresponding
194 kinetic rates, and $q_{\max}$ is the maximum adsorption possible of the system tested.

195 **3. Discussion and Results**

196 *3.1 Composite hydrogel bead formation*

197 Bead shaped hydrogels were obtained from the starting nanocellulose alkaline
198 solutions once they were dropped into the nitric acid coagulation bath. It was also
199 possible to obtain beads when up to 50% of the total initial solid content of the solution
200 was substituted with Tara gum. However, after 40% substitution a clear difference in
201 the morphology of the beads was perceived, as the regeneration of the solutions resulted
202 in less opaque beads with larger diameters. Beads resulting after 50% substitution were
203 fragile and hard to manipulate, suggesting that optimum substitution of Tara gum is up
204 to 40%.

205 When the solid content was evaluated, the pure cellulose nanofibril beads showed a
206 solid content of $2.15 \pm 0.08\%$, which increased to $2.72 \pm 0.10\%$ and $2.95 \pm 0.24\%$ when
207 10 and 30% of the initial mass was substituted with Tara gum, respectively. This

208 increase suggests that the formation of the beads occurred in the same way, with the
209 cellulose regenerating into fibrils during coagulation and the Tara gum attaching to the
210 surfaces of the formed fibers by hydrogen bonding, increasing the solid content of the
211 overall structure (Ma et al. 2016). Furthermore, with higher contents of Tara gum,
212 distinguishable phases can form and aggregates can be present (Ma et al. 2016). Still,
213 when 40% of the CNF was substituted, the average solid content suddenly dropped to
214 $0.98 \pm 0.01\%$. Conversely, comparing the size of the beads made only with CNF and
215 those with 40% TG, the diameters were 2.8 ± 0.2 mm and 2.6 ± 0.1 mm, respectively.
216 Thus, the change in solid content, along with the small difference in size, but with a
217 clear difference in visual aspect, suggest that the presence of Tara gum as a structural
218 component affects the formation of the bead, probably allowing the Tara gum to act as
219 bridge between the cellulose nanofibrils as observed in other systems (Lopez-Sanchez
220 et al. 2015).

221 XRD spectra presented in Fig. 1a, confirmed the regeneration process of the CNF
222 for the formation of the beads, as the peaks observed in the CNF spheres correspond to
223 a cellulose II configuration (Gong et al. 2017). Conversely, the TG spectrum does not
224 present the typical peaks at 16.86° and 21.86° (Ma et al. 2016), instead, a different peak
225 is present at 15.4° ; this new peak is likely due to the impurities of other components
226 present in TG that remain after extractions. Nevertheless, the composite material clearly
227 shows the signals from cellulose II. Additionally, the new peak observed in the TG
228 spectra confirms the incorporation of the TG into the bead structure.

229 FTIR-ATR spectra for all the generated beads, as well as for raw Tara gum powder
230 are provided in supplementary information (Fig. S1). Meanwhile, Fig. 1b shows the
231 spectra for pure CNF, pure TG, and composite beads generated with the best composite

232 generated, CNF-TG 60:40. For the TG spectrum, it would be expected to see bands
233 relatable to mannose and galactose units. Instead, signals typical of asymmetrical
234 carboxyl groups (ca. 1750 cm^{-1}) are clearly observed, attributed to protein and other
235 lignocellulosic impurities remaining in the TG, and confirmed by the EA (Fig. 1c).
236 Some of these carboxyl containing impurities do not seem to be regenerated with the
237 polysaccharides, as it has been shown that lignin and tannin impurities depolymerize in
238 the presence of urea/NaOH solution (Liu et al. 2020). Additionally, there is also a
239 distinctive C-H bonds signal present, with a wider band at around 2900 cm^{-1} when the
240 TG is compared to the pure CNF beads, this can also be relate to non-symmetrical H-
241 bonding in the TG (Mondal et al. 2019). Also when comparing, there is a clear
242 difference in the bands for CNF and TG related to the C-C and C-O-C signals of the
243 ring are observed in the fingerprint area ($<1400\text{ cm}^{-1}$) (Prado et al. 2005).

244 Conversely, the differences between the pure CNF beads and the composite beads
245 containing 40% of Tara gum are less noticeable at first glance. The main difference is
246 observed at 1620 cm^{-1} , as the band's intensity is clearly reduced, suggesting less
247 adsorbed water (Fan et al. 2012). On the contrary, the bands of the out of the plane O-
248 H bending around 800 cm^{-1} increased, as evidence of the presence of TG in the beads.
249 A slight change is also visible in the bands related to the C-O and C-C stretching (ca.
250 1164 to 1005 cm^{-1}), which had a hypsochromic shift as more α bonds are present.
251 Similarly, at 1466 cm^{-1} , a decrease in intensity of the band was observed when TG is
252 added to CNF, which has been linked to the interaction between these two polymers
253 and less freedom of the C-H bending due to non-conventional H-bonding (Mondal et
254 al. 2019; Chen et al. 2020).

255 The EA (Fig. 1c) showed the increase of 0.04% nitrogen on the composite beads once
 256 the TG was added, lowering the carbon content by 1.4% from the pure CNF beads.
 257 Regarding the thermal properties (Figure 1d), the maximum degradation, shown by the
 258 peak in the first derivative of the plot, was observed at 344 °C for TG. Meanwhile, there
 259 was no difference between the CNF and CNF-TG beads after the substitution, with both
 260 presenting it at 389 °C, which correspond to those values found in literature for
 261 degradation of cellulose (380°C) (Larsson et al. 2013). However, the CNF had a sharp
 262 peak when the first derivative was observed, while the CNF-TG presented a shoulder
 263 before the maximum as observed on a Tara gum matrix reinforced with cellulosic
 264 materials (Ma et al. 2016). However, the temperature point where thermal degradation
 265 starts (onset T) decreased 4°C from 359°C for the CNF to 355°C for the CNF-TG
 266 60:40. This increase could be related to the more porous structure and to a less
 267 crystalline structure formed by the cellulose during regeneration due to the interference
 268 of the Tara gum (Prasad et al. 2010), leading to a faster degradation, as well as being
 269 closer to the onset temperature of Tara gum at 317 °C.

270

271 Fig. 1. Characterization of the CNF beads, CNF-TG 60:40 beads, and Tara gum. (a) XRD
 272 spectra of both beads and Tara gum; (b) FTIR-ATR spectra of both beads and the Tara gum
 273 powder; (c) elemental percentage content data from the EA of the samples; and (d)
 274 thermogravimetric analysis with data extracts on the insert table.

275

276 The surface morphology of the beads was observed using SEM, the images obtained
 277 (Fig. 2) confirms that the regeneration of the fibers is different in the presence of Tara
 278 gum. Pure CNF beads (Fig. 2a) regenerate in wider fibers with a layered interior,

allowing for a smoother and more continuous surface. On the other hand, the composite beads containing TG (Fig. 2b) appeared to form thinner fibers that interlock forming a fiber network. This web-like structure is expected to contribute for a better water retention behavior due the increase of porous structures and the surface area (Cao et al., 2013).

Fig. 2. SEM images of (a) CNF beads and (b) CNF-TG 60:40 beads.

3.2 *Methylene Blue adsorption*

The efficiency of the beads with all the different substitution ratios of TG were tested for the removal of methylene blue; this information is presented in Fig. S2. As expected, an increase in the concentration of Tara gum in the composite beads improved the adsorption capacity of the hydrogel, as more surface area and functional groups (like amino groups and aldehydes) from the impurities on TG were introduced into the structure. Furthermore, there was a perceptible visual difference (Fig. S3) with the beads containing TG, as they presented spots of saturated color, suggesting a higher presence of TG in such area. This also serves as a visual confirmation of the presence of TG in the composite beads.

Likewise, the remotion of the dye was similar in the experiments done with the beads containing 30 and 40% of TG. Nevertheless, as the solid content of the beads was significantly different between them, with the 40% being lighter and therefore having a higher adsorption capacity, the focus was kept on the CNF-TG 60:40 beads (Fig. 3).

Pure CNF beads were able to remove 6.5% from a 15-ppm solution using only 5 beads (8 mg wet weight, or 0.17 mg dry base), while in the case of composite CNF-TG 60:40 beads 9.9% was removed using the same number of beads (0.08 mg dry base). The pseudo kinetics were calculated to better explain the behavior and calculate the equilibrium adsorption (Table 1). The best fitting for both systems was into the pseudo-second-order kinetic representing chemisorption and adsorption (Liu 2008). The CNF derived beads presented a q_e of 62.11 mg/g, while the CNF-TG 60:40 had an adsorption capacity of 200 mg/g. Despite the removal efficiency being lower than 10%, the adsorption capacity obtained for the pure cellulose beads is comparable with data reported in existing literature using regenerated cellulose as an adsorbent (Dai et al. 2021). Adsorption shown by composite beads at CNF-TG 60:40 ratio was higher than the corresponding adsorption by pure cellulose beads.

Fig. 3. Results of the adsorption kinetic experiments of 5 beads of CNF and CNF-TG 60:40 beads in a 15-ppm methylene blue (MB) solution corresponding to (a) removal efficiency, (b) adsorption capacity in mg of dye per gram of material, as well as the pseudo kinetic model fittings for (c) pseudo-first-order, and (d) pseudo-second-order.

Table 1. Parameters for adsorption of methylene blue (MB) by the hydrogel beads.

Adsorption system	Pseudo-first order			Pseudo-second order		
	q_e (mg/g)	k_1 (min ⁻¹)	R^2	q_e (mg/g)	k_2 (g/mg min)	R^2
CNF	31.07	0.0026	0.8644	62.11	0.0002	0.9935
CNF-TG 60:40	95.13	0.0034	0.9201	200.0	0.0001	0.9971

It is worth considering that even if the same number of beads were placed, the solid content was significantly lower in the beads containing Tara gum. Therefore, adsorption

323 isotherms were performed and experiments with a constant methylene blue
324 concentration and varying beads mass to better understand this phenomenon.

325 For the case of isotherms (Fig. 4), it can be observed that when the concentration is
326 increased up to 8-ppm, the adsorption increased with an almost linear trend in both,
327 neat CNF, and composite CNF-TG systems. The adsorption was similar in the case of
328 the isotherms at 8 and 10-ppm solutions, as they are statistically similar. An increase in
329 adsorption was observed when increasing the solution concentration to 10 and 15 ppm.
330 In all conditions, beads containing Tara gum presented the highest adsorption capacity,
331 even when both bead systems presented similar adsorption percentage. The obtained
332 data were fit into a Langmuir model (Table 2, Fig. 4c). The resulting modeling showed
333 that the maximum adsorption capacity of the CNF beads was of 8.28 mg/g with a kinetic
334 constant of 0.14 L/mg. Meanwhile, the CNF-TG 60:40 beads showed a higher
335 maximum adsorption of 13.7 mg/g but with a similar constant of 0.18 L/mg, suggesting
336 a similar adsorption mechanism for both systems (Tran et al. 2013; Bartczak et al.
337 2017). However, the maximum obtained was lower than what was obtained with the
338 kinetic model, showing a high impact in adsorption capacity depending on the sorbent
339 mass utilized. Likewise, as never-dried hydrogels were utilized, the adsorption
340 capacities presented herein account for both, adsorption on the fiber surface and
341 osmotic exchange between the beads and the media.

342 When Freundlich fitting was applied (Table 2, Fig. 4d), $n > 1$ in both cases,
343 suggesting the formation of multilayers on the surface upon the dye adsorption (Kardam
344 et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2018). The different behavior can be attributed to the difference
345 on structure on the beads surface as observed with SEM and to the different functional
346 groups added with the TG (Fig. 2).

347

348 Fig. 4. (a) Adsorption capacity and (b) removal percent of the CNF and CNF-TG 60:40 beads
 349 obtained from the constant mass (200 wet mg) isotherm in solutions with 2, 5, 8, 10, and 15-ppm
 350 of methylene blue; (c) shows the Langmuir model fitting of the data, while (d) corresponds to the
 351 Freundlich model fitting.

352

353 Table 2. Isotherms model parameters for the adsorption of methylene blue onto CNF and
 354 CNF-TG 60:40 beads.

Sample	Langmuir			Freundlich		
	$q_{\max}$	k_L	R^2	n	k_F	R^2
	[mg/g]	[L/mg]			$[\text{mg/g}][\text{L/mg}]^{1/n}$	
CNF	8.28	0.14	0.93	1.68	4.51	0.94
CNF-TG 60:40	13.7	0.18	0.96	2.13	0.92	0.97

355

356 On the other hand, in the experiments with varying mass (Fig. 5) an almost linear
 357 response for the CNF beads up to 600 mg was observed, after which the adsorption
 358 capacity decreased. These results suggest that longer times might be needed for the
 359 saturation of the beads surface, than what was first observed in the kinetic and isotherm
 360 experiments. In the case of the CNF-TG 60:40 beads, a clear trend was not observed,
 361 but an overall decrease of adsorption capacity can be observed as the mass of sorbent
 362 increased.

363 When the removal efficiency is compared (Figure 5b), the CNF beads were able to
364 remove around 60% of the methylene blue dye, which was 10% more than the
365 composite CNF-TG beads. This is relevant as the removal efficiency is comparable
366 among both types of beads, even when the beads containing Tara gum have 54% less
367 dry mass on the structure. Another important observation is that when analyzing the
368 exponential fitting of the percentage of adsorption, both systems showed similar trends,
369 both with correlation coefficients (R) of 0.92. These trend lines were skewed mostly by
370 the removal capacity of the last points 0.6 to 0.8 g for CNF and 0.7-0.8 g for CNF-TG
371 60:40, which seem to be close to the saturation capacity on both systems.

372
373 Fig. 5. (a) Adsorption capacity and (b) removal percent of the data obtained from isotherms
374 varying the amount of sorbent -CNF and CNF-TG 60:40 beads- from 0.1 to 0.8 g on solutions
375 with 15-ppm of methylene blue.

376
377 As expected, the interactions between the beads and the methylene blue increased
378 with increasing contents of Tara gum present in the composite beads. This relates to the
379 increase on functional groups on the Tara gum, which can then interact by electrostatic
380 interactions with the methylene blue cationic groups (El Qada et al. 2006). Furthermore,
381 the use of regenerated cellulose also provides cellulose with a planar surface (110)
382 which is hydrophobic (Yamane et al., 2006); this surface would also drive the
383 interaction with hydrophobic moieties on the pollutants (Lombardo and Thielemans
384 2019).

385 Likewise, as evidenced by the Freundlich fitting and the visual observation, the dye
386 aggregates on the fibers surface, while also been entrapped in the hydrogel liquid phase.

387 The latter, induced by a difference of concentration between the water trapped in the
388 beads structure and the water present in the outside media. Furthermore, the lower solid
389 content of the CNF-TG 60:40 did not prevent the structure to form and perform
390 similarly to the pure CNF beads. With a removal of around 50% of the dye from a 15-
391 ppm was achieved with only 8 mg of wet mass. This opens the possibility of generating
392 adsorbent for water treatment utilizing up to 40% of low-cost, alternative
393 carbohydrates.

394 **Conclusions**

395 In this work, we were able to generate cellulose beads from cellulose nanofibril,
396 instead of traditional pretreated mill pulp, diversifying the raw materials when using
397 alternative sources such as by-products from other agro-industrial operations (Gómez-
398 Maldonado et al. 2020). Furthermore, we demonstrated that up to 40% of the cellulose
399 can be substituted for other carbohydrates (*i.e.*, Tara gum).

400 When the beads were tested to adsorb commonly discarded dyes such as methylene
401 blue, it was observed that the beads containing Tara gum had improved adsorption by
402 39.6% in the isotherm experiments. Furthermore, when the sorbent concentration was
403 varied, this improved 38% was maintained, suggesting that the best performance will
404 be sustained independently of the conditions.

405 Thus, this work demonstrated that innovative sorbents for water treatment can be
406 generated using diverse lignocellulosic materials, seizing not only the cellulose
407 nanofibrils but also gums used nowadays for low-end products. Furthermore, using
408 Tara gum could also decrease the price of cellulose-based adsorbents, as gums have a

409 lower production cost while still being highly available. Therefore, the substitution of
410 a high percentage of the solid mass for these gums will result in a cheaper alternative
411 for water treatment.

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422 **Declarations**

423 **Conflict of Interest.** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

424 **Data Availability.** Data is available upon reasonable request to authors.

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579

580 **Supplementary information**

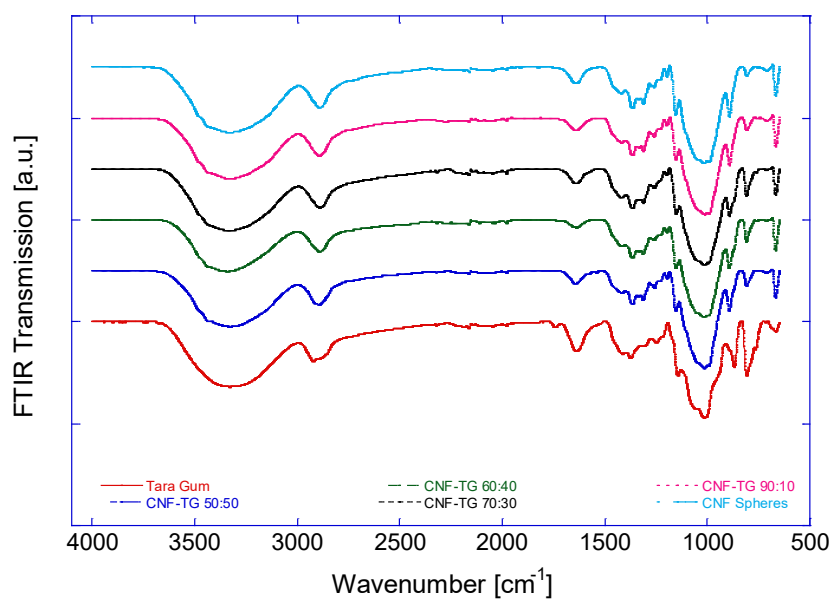


Fig. S1. FTIR-ATR spectra of Tara gum, CNF beads, and beads containing 10, 30, 40 or 50% Tara gum.

585

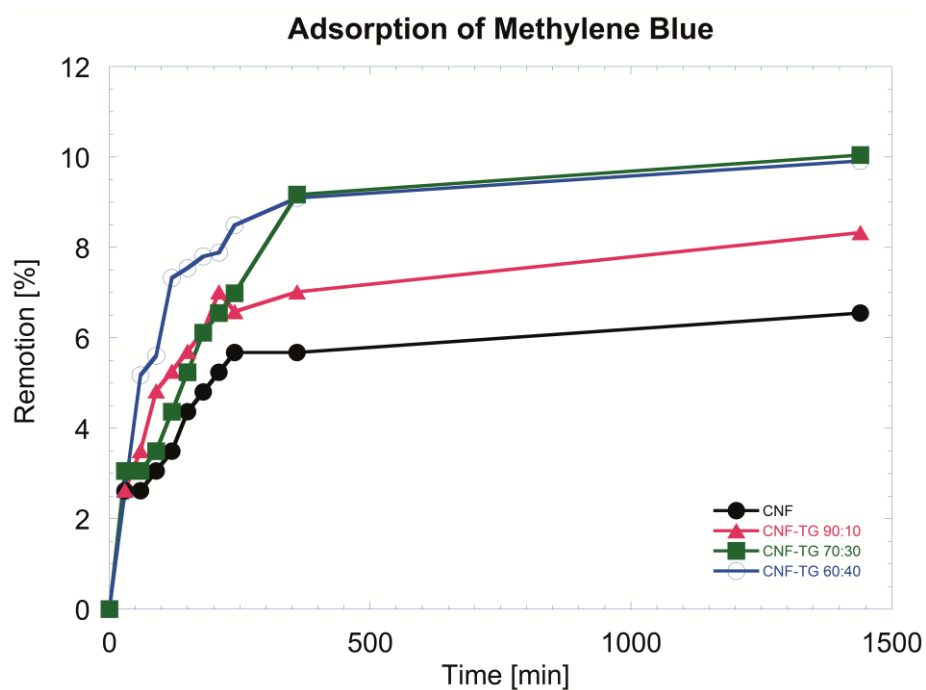
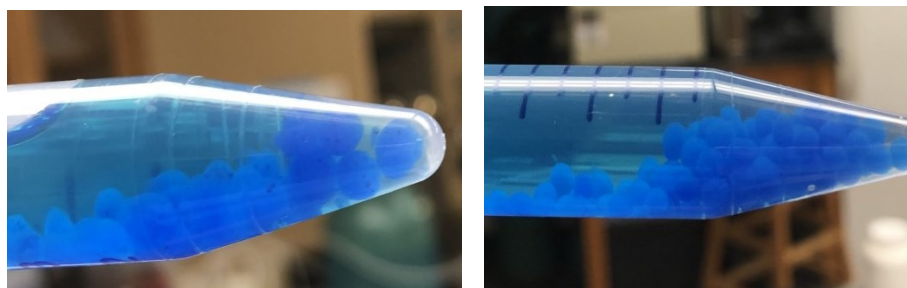


Fig. S2. Removal capacity of the CNF beads, and beads containing 10, 30 or 40% Tara gum. Removal is expressed in percentage; the experiments were done with 5 beads of each material in a 15-ppm methylene blue solution.

590



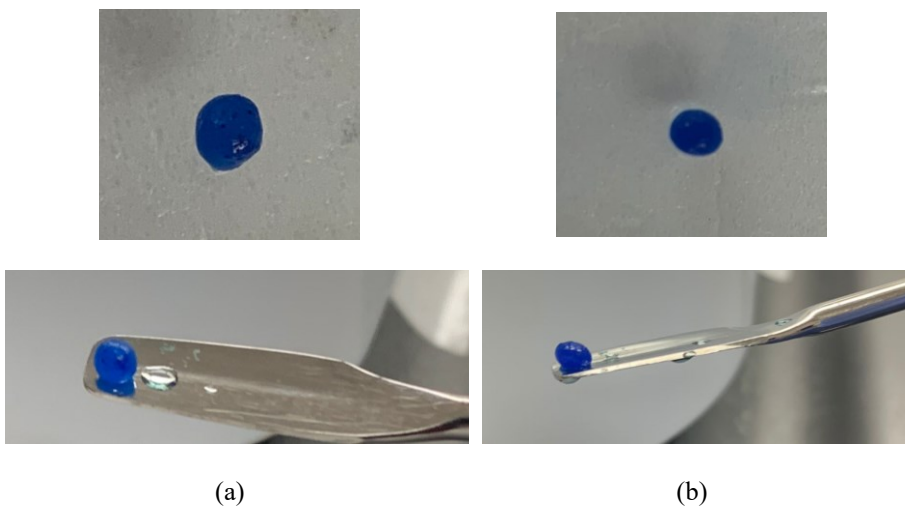


Fig. S3. Picture of the (a) CNF-TG 60:40 and (b) CNF after adsorption of methylene blue