RESEARCH ARTICLE

Nanocellulose-based Hydrogels: Preparation Strategies, Dye Adsorption and Factors Impacting

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Abstract

The improper disposal of dyes without any prior treatment is one of the main causes of water pollution around the globe. Since dye-contaminated water contains a variety of hazardous elements, which may harm the aquatic ecosystem, impact the aquatic organisms and ultimately enter the food web chain. The most effective ways to recycle dye-contaminated waste water are adsorption, electrolysis, advanced oxidation, etc. Out of these techniques, adsorption strategy, due to its superior physico-chemical features, has been preferably employed for treating polluted water. In this review article, the potential of pure nitrocellulose (NC) hydrogel, metal/metal oxide or photo-adsorbents-based, metal-organic-framework supported, surface functionalized, bio-materials filled NC-based hydrogels for dyes adsorption has been thoroughly reviewed. The impact of different factors such as pH, time, temperature and filler/additives on dye adsorption/degradation capability of NC-based adsorbents, and kinetic and isotherm data of dye adsorption has been assessed systematically. Further, the influence of different eluents on the recycling ability of various NC-based hydrogels has also been fully assessed.

Keywords: Nanocellulose, hydrogels, dye adsorption, kinetics study, recycle, chemical cross-linking.

Article history:

Received: 12-June-2023
Revised: 11-Oct-2023
Accepted: 15-Oct-2023

1. Introduction

Supplying fresh and drinkable water is one of the biggest challenges throughout the world. In recent years, there has been a continuous rise in the pollution of natural resources, a problem which has to be addressed on an immediate basis to ensure the survival of living beings (Kaushik et al., 2022; Paul & Ahankari, 2023; Solayman et al., 2023). Any change in chemical, physical and biological properties of water because of aggress or access to toxic chemicals is considered as water pollution. Illegal discharge of contaminated water is a global challenge and is of great environmental concern, as fresh water resources are degrading rapidly. The current worldwide water usage is about forty-six hundred km³/year, and according to Burek et al. (Water Futures and Solutions (WFaS), n.d.), this might increase to the range fifty-five to sixty hundred km³/year by 2050. As per the UN data, the agricultural sector, industries and municipalities share about 69, 19 and 12 % of total fresh water, respectively, (Water Scarcity | UNICEF, n.d.). The above data gives insight into, why fresh water should be used efficiently and sustainably.

Fresh water is contaminating rapidly because of dye discharge from the paper, textile, food processing and printing sectors (Amor et al., 2019; P. Sharma, Prakash, Palai, et al., 2022; Xia et al., 2022), producing almost 8 lakh tonnes of dyes per year, with two thousand tonnes dyes coming from textile industries (Yaseen & Scholz, 2019). In dye effluent, major pollutants are acids, salts, salts, glues and auxiliaries, which are toxic, xenobiotic, mutagenic, teratogenic and carcinogenic (Kaushik et al., 2021; Paul & Ahankari, 2023; Xia et al., 2022) and responsible for various health hazards like skin irritations, eye burns, asthma, skin irritations and allergic conjunctivitis (Solayman et al., 2023; Yaseen & Scholz, 2019). Due to the disruption of aquatic life and plant photosynthetic processes, dye wastewater is also posing a serious threat to both aquatic and terrestrial life (Lellis et al., 2019). Even though we are aware of the negative impacts and also have country’s laws and regulations, we nevertheless discard these dyes into the environment without any treatment. So, it is of the utmost necessary to treat these dyes before their discharge as per the international and national standards.

Nowadays, numerous water treatment techniques are available, such as membrane filtration (Costa et al., 2023), electrolysis (W. Zhang et al., 2023), distillation (Hsu et al., 2023), advanced oxidation process (H. Wang et al., 2023),
precipitation (Piaskowski et al., 2018), ion exchange (P. Kumari et al., 2023), flocculation (Sultana & Usman, 2023), and bio (Zain et al., 2023)/synthetic (Taher et al., 2023)-materials based adsorption. Among them, the adsorption technique is best, as it is a simple, effective and chemical-free approach. The evaporation, distillation and electrolysis processes are comparatively costly and also have a low rate of freshwater outflow. Membrane-based technology, i.e., reverse osmosis, which nowadays accounts for 69% of the desalination plants globally, is also facing certain challenges such as high operating pressure requirements (10–80 bar) and membrane fouling problems (Chu et al., 2021; Piaskowski et al., 2018). The advanced oxidation process is costly as it requires energy and chemical reagents. Both biomaterials and synthetic-materials-based adsorbents and membrane filtration system work primarily on adsorption. The bio-based hydrogels in this field are gaining a huge amount of interest because of their highly porous, lightweight, eco-friendly nature and large specific area (Lin et al., 2022; Malik et al., 2023).

Recently, numerous polysaccharides including starch, alginate, chitosan, cellulose, etc., have been used to create environmentally benign and sustainable hydrogels (Barbucci et al., 2003; Chaudhary et al., 2021; S. Thakur, Chaudhary, et al., 2022; S. Thakur, Verma, et al., 2022). The high mechanical toughness, porous character, bio-degradable nature and flexibility of polysaccharides-based hydrogels make them a special candidate for the removal of contaminants from waste water (Pooresmaeil & Namazi, 2020). These bio-based polymers can adsorb contaminants without dispersing in water in numerous ways such as hydrogen bonding, van der Waals attraction, electrostatic contact and pi-pi attraction.

Cellulose is one of the major bio-degradable biopolymers available on earth and has been utilized in its various forms such as macro, micro and nano forms in numerous fields, such as in water purification i.e., pesticide adsorption (Rana, Mishra, et al., 2021), water desalination (Rana, Gupta, et al., 2021), dye removal and heavy metals adsorption (Rana, Scarpa, et al., 2022), electronic industries (Rana, Guleria, et al., 2022), air purification (Rana et al., 2023) bio-chemical extraction (Rana, 2022; Singha & Rana, 2012), etc. (Rana, 2022; Singha & Rana, 2012; M. K. Thakur et al., 2014). Out of various forms, nanocellulose (NC), due to its high surface area, amazing mechanical strength, and availability of abundant hydroxyl groups, has provided appealing results in diverse fields, most especially in the treatment of water (Rana, Gupta, et al., 2021; Rana, Mishra, et al., 2021; Rana, Scarpa, et al., 2022).

Keeping in view the alluring characteristics of NC, the present review article has been focused on recent techniques employed for the synthesis of different NCs- i.e., cellulose nano crystals (CNCs), cellulose nanofibers (CNFs) and bacterial nanocellulose (BNC) based hydrogels and on evaluation of their potential in the removal of dyes from waste water (Fig. 1). In contrast to the previously published review articles(Ahmad et al., 2023; Paul & Ahankari, 2023), none of which have been focused in particular on the dye adsorption potential of NC-based hydrogels, this article presents an updated and critical evaluation of recent findings on NC based hydrogels for adsorption of dyes from waste water. In addition, recent surface functionalization techniques employed or organic/inorganic additives added to NC hydrogels for tailoring the surface chemistry toward the effective removal of dyes have also been thoroughly reviewed.
1.1. Why NC-based adsorbents are better than inorganic-based adsorbents?
The NC-based hydrogels possess superior or almost similar adsorbent capacity to that of inorganic or other adsorbents like carbon nanotubes, iron oxide, titanium dioxide, silicon dioxide, zinc oxide, fullerenes, etc. (Kaushik et al., 2023). Additionally, their use also minimizes the safety issues that are typically associated with long-term use of inorganic materials and carbon nanoparticles (Lu & Astruc, 2020; P. Sharma, Prakash, & Kaushal, 2022; P. Sharma et al., 2023). The separation of the powdered inorganic adsorbents from treated water and adsorption of pollutants at ppb levels are some of the great challenges. NCs based hydrogels are generally preferred over the other hydrogels, since they are more environmentally friendly, possess very large specific areas (depending upon drying methods and dimensions of cellulose fibers, highly flexible and mechanically tougher than other types of aerogels and their porosity and density can be easily controlled and theoretically predicted (Bhatnagar et al., 2015; Mahfoudhi & Boufi, 2017).

1.2 Brief introduction about cellulose nanofibers, cellulose nano crystals and bacterial nanocellulose
NC can be classified into three types, namely CNCs, CNFs and BNC. The former two are obtained from plant wastes through chemical/ enzymatic treatments; however, the latter one is produced by a wide variety of bacterial genera (Rana, Gupta, et al., 2021). CNCs are rod shaped, highly crystalline and are generally extracted/synthesised from dried biomass by enzymatic hydrolysis or chemical hydrolysis techniques (Rana, Frollini, et al., 2021). The chemical technique involves the utility of organic acid (citric/oxalic/acetic acid), inorganic acid (sulphuric acid, phosphoric, hydrochloric acid, etc.) or a combination of both at elevated temperatures (Rana, Frollini, et al., 2021) (Fig. 1). Amorphous segments are eliminated during hydrolysis, leaving behind highly crystalline CNCs. The type of extraction procedure used affects the mechanical strength, thermal strength, aspect ratio, and hydrophilicity of CNCs. They typically have high thermal stability ($T_{\text{onset}}$: 300°C approx..) (Yin et al., 2020) and tensile strength (700-7500 MPa) (Rana, Frollini, et al., 2021), and possess low aspect ratio (13.9 ± 2.6) (Q. Wu et al., 2017) (width: 1−50 nm and length:100-500 nm) (Rana, Frollini, et al., 2021). Zeta potential of -44.40±4.12 mV and polydispersity index in range 22.32-23.58 (Fotie et al., 2017). For the extraction of CNFs, the most popular methods are ultrasonication, grinding, high-pressure homogenization and microfluidization (Rana, Frollini, et al., 2021). In comparison to CNCs, CNFs (diameter<100nm; length lies in micro-scale; aspect ratio 30-300) possess higher aspect ratio and low thermal stability ($T_{\text{onset}}$: 269.74°C), % crystallinity (45-80%), tensile strength (357.5 MPa) and zeta potential value (-55mV) (Radakisin et al., 2020; A. Sharma et al., 2021). BNC is the purest form and has a structure like a twisted ribbon.
(diameter: 20 -60 nm; length in micrometer). It is synthesized by bacteria via a coupled polymerization and crystallization process (Jedrzejczak-Krzepkowska et al., 2016). BNC displays a higher zeta potential value: -53.6 ± 0.7, crystallinity index: 89 % approx., T onset: 224°C and mechanical strength (2 GPa) (Shak et al., 2018; Tshikovhi et al., 2020; Vasconcelos et al., 2017).

2. General overview of synthesis of nanocellulose-based hydrogels

Hydrogels are synthesized either through non-covalent or through covalent cross-linking pathways (Fig 2; Table 1)(Gulrez et al., 2011; Kayra & Aytekin, 2018; Zainal et al., 2021). The degree and type of cross-linking do not only affect the hydrogel formation but also the hydrogel’s pore size, surface properties, porosity and overall network distribution (Al-Sabah et al., 2019). Covalently cross-linked hydrogels mostly possess better mechanical toughness than their counterparts. However, the toxicity of cross-linking agents must be investigated before its utility, as a result, hydrogels may contaminate the water during water treatment. For this reason, efforts are generally made to prepare and utilize the cross-linking agent-free hydrogels. An example of such kind of hydrogel is the blended mixture of TEMPO-oxidized CNFs (TO-CNFs) and cationic guar gum, in which cross-linking takes place through the electrostatic interactions between carboxylate and ammonium groups (Dai et al., 2019). Various methods utilized so far for the synthesis of NC-based hydrogels have been discussed in subsequent subsections.

Table 1. Differences between physical and chemical crosslinking (Gulrez et al., 2011; Kayra & Aytekin, 2018; Zainal et al., 2021).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/parameters</th>
<th>Physical crosslinked hydrogel</th>
<th>Chemical crosslinked hydrogel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stability</td>
<td>Not very stable. Stability varies with pH, concentration and temperature.</td>
<td>Show better thermal, mechanical and structural stability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of interaction forces</td>
<td>Non covalent forces such as hydrogen bonding, electrostatic interactions, hydrophobic interactions, or van der Waals interactions.</td>
<td>Involves covalent bonding between the chains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response to stress</td>
<td>Physically cross-linkages are typically weaker, and show reversible responses to stress.</td>
<td>Show irreversible response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solubility</td>
<td>Dissolve in organic solvents and water upon increase in temperature.</td>
<td>Do not dissolve in the surrounding environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of formation</td>
<td>Heating/cooling polymerization, hydrogen bonding, freeze-thawing, photo-initiator, inverse emulsion technique, heat-induced aggregation, etc.</td>
<td>Chemical crosslinking between NCs can be made by using cross-linking agents or by reaction between the functionalized NCs or by reaction of a polymer chain with OH and COOH groups of NCs, establishing amide or ester linkage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-linkers types</td>
<td>Carbonates, sulfates, phosphates, and citrates or anions of Ca (II), Al (III), Fe (III), etc.</td>
<td>Citric acid, glutaraldehyde, epichlorohydrin, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifespan Applications</td>
<td>Shorter life span (from few days to a month) Drug delivery, wound healing/dressing, controllable scaffolds, conventional filtration, etc.</td>
<td>Comparatively longer lifespan Food/drugs packing, reinforcing agent, thermal protective equipment, medical or packaging application, biomedical and tissue engineering, biomedical devices, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toxicity</td>
<td>These hydrogels are safer for clinical purposes</td>
<td>Covalent cross-linking agents are usually toxic. So, there is a need to evaluate the toxicity of crosslinkers prior to the use of hydrogels for clinical purposes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1. Chemically cross-linked hydrogels

In the chemical approach, NC is graft copolymerized/modified and/or subjected to one-pot cross-linking. They are formed by the covalent linkage of –COOH, –OH, or other functional groups available on NC surface with the carboxyl, amide and amine groups of cross-linking agents. The cross-linking reactions are generally carried out through esterification, Schiff base linkage, Michael Addition reaction, epoxide linkage, etc. The most commonly utilized cross-linking agents are citric acid (CA) (Nasution et al., 2022), glutaraldehyde (GA) (Chen et al., 2022),...
epichlorohydrin (EPH) (El Bouazzaoui et al., 2022; S. Huang et al., 2019), N,N'-methylene bisacrylamide (MBA) (Cai et al., 2020), succinic acid/succinic anhydride (ScA) (Z. Zhang, Abidi, et al., 2022), tannic acid (TA) (Z. Zhang, Abidi, et al., 2022) and divinyl sulfone (DS) (Kang et al., 2016).

The NC can be directly converted into a hydrogel through one-pot cross-linking techniques, which involve conversion of NC into sol by dissolving in suitable solvents and then cross-linking it with suitable cross-linkers. Further, it can be graft copolymerized with some hydrophilic monomers or modified before crosslinking. Depending upon the types of monomers used, the NC-based hydrogels can be classified into three types, namely, homopolymer hydrogels, copolymer hydrogels and multi-polymer hydrogels. The homopolymer hydrogel involves the repetition of the single unit (Jawaid & Mohammad, 2017), and is formed by irradiation with high energy radiations or by dissolving in aqueous solution of NaOH/urea and subsequent cross-linking with epichlorohydrin (El Bouazzaoui et al., 2022). Copolymer hydrogels are formed by using the binary monomer mixtures along with NC. Cai et al. (Cai et al., 2020) prepared such kinds of hydrogels by binary monomer mixtures graft copolymerization of acrylic acid (AA) and acrylamide (AAm) monomers onto CNFs - TiO₂ mixtures using MBA as crosslinkers. Multipolymer hydrogels are made up (S. Huang et al., 2019; Mohite & Adhav, 2017) by two independent cross-linked synthetic polymers and/or natural polymer components.

The polymerization of monomers can be carried out either through radical or ionic pathways. In radical polymerization, a polymer chain is generated by initially adding a redox chemical initiator or by using photo initiator to create a reactive center on the polymeric backbone, and then subsequently developing a new reactive center through reactions of reactive sites with monomers. The chemical initiator technique has been adopted by a couple of researchers to develop NC-based hydrogels (Rao et al., 2017; Zubik et al., 2017). Zubik et al. (Zubik et al., 2017) prepared thermo-Responsive poly(N-isopropylacrylamide)-CNCS and Rao et al. (Rao et al., 2017) synthesized pH-responsive poly(acrylamidoglycolic acid)/CNC hybrid hydrogels through redox free radical polymerization technique. Vakili et al. (Vakili et al., 2021) grafted poly (AA) onto CNCs to design a mucoadhesive hydrogel for the delivery of cisplatin to colorectal cancer. Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2021) utilize a photoinitiator to crosslink methacrylate functionalized CNF with methacrylate hydroxyapatite. The resulting hydrogel composites demonstrated better mechanical strength (compressive strength: 0.198 MPa - 0.009 MPa) and reparability.

Depending upon the network charge, hydrogels may be broadly classified into ionic and non-ionic. NC-based ionic (anionic) hydrogels undergo cross-linking with an ionic unit with the help of a crosslinking agent. The best example of cationic hydrogel is chitosan, which is extracted from partial de-acetylation of chitin. The chitosan and cellulose behave differently at low pH. Between these, chitosan undergoes breakage of the chain at lower pH and thus shows good swelling at low pH (Poornachandhra et al., 2023). Further, to enhance the hydrogel properties in addition to grafting/cross-linking, blending techniques have also been employed.

![Fig. 2. Possible ways for converting NC into NC-based hydrogels.](image-url)
2.1. Physical cross-linking

Physical cross-linking is reversible and here polymer chains are held together by the physical entanglement of chains, van der Waals interactions, hydrogen bonding, ionic and electrostatic interactions or through other non-covalent interactions (Akhtar et al., 2016; Bhaladhare & Das, 2022; Mohammadinejad et al., 2019) (Fig. 3). Since there is no need to have a cross-linking agent, this technique is bio-compatible, safer and easy to process. Xue et al. (Xue et al., 2023) developed physically crosslinked TEMPO oxidized CNCs(TO-CNCs) beads by dropping solidification method, which involves dispersing a homogenous mixture of TO-CNCs in calcium chloride solution. The homogenous mixture, when comes into contact with calcium chloride solution, immediately solidifies and forms beads, which are subsequently freeze-dried before their utility for dye removal or FTIR characterization. Poornachandhra et al. (Poornachandhra et al., 2023) synthesized NCC-Chitosan (CS) hydrogel beads by electrostatic interaction between -ve charged S-NCC and a positively charged CS. They dripped the homogenous mixture of NCC and CS, in alkali solution for solidification purposes or for the formation of hydrogel beads. The beads were further used for the removal of cationic dyes. Physically cross-linked hydrogels are frequently used for the adsorption of dyes or heavy metals from waste water due to their low sensitivity to pH, high porosity, and simplicity of regeneration with no loss of adsorption capacity (Sinha & Chakma, 2019).
Fig. 3. Mechanism for the formation of physical cross-linking between two different polysaccharides (Bhaladhare & Das, 2022). (Reproduced with permission from Ref. (Bhaladhare & Das, 2022) Copyright 2022, RSC)

3. Formation of hydrogels

Akter et al. have accounted for six ways of cellulose hydrogel formation under the heading physical path of cross-linking. These include freeze-thaw, self-assembling, instantaneous gelation, inverse emulsion technique, reconstitution and ionotropic gelation (Akter et al., 2021). However, chemical-cross linking can be carried out through graft copolymerization or polymerisation, chemical reactions, or through irradiations.

The most commonly used techniques for the preparation of NC hydrogels are the sol-gel method (Long et al., 2018), emulsion polymerization (Y. Li et al., 2022), self-assembly, graft copolymerization, chemical reactions, and 3-D printing techniques. Out of various techniques, the sol-gel method is simple and most commonly used. However, in this technique, the synthesis time varies with the type of catalyst and solvent used and can last from a few hours to several days (Bokov et al., 2021; Lim et al., 2015). It is irreversible, carried out at low temperatures and form 3-D
networks. This process is covered in three steps; formation of gel, aging and drying (M. Wang et al., 2021). Initially, the sol is prepared by dispersing NC in a suitable solvent along with a catalyst, which is then subjected to gelation. In the gelatin stage, the interaction (hydrogen bonding, ionic interactions, chemical/physical bonding, etc.) between the hydrolyzed NC particles takes place and a 3D structured viscoelastic gel is formed. Further, the degree of crosslinking depends upon the NC concentration, as its higher concentration result in stiffer aerogel of low porosity (Long et al., 2018). Li et al. (W. Li et al., 2021) prepared mesoporous NC/sodium alginate (SA)/ CMC using this technique (Fig. 4). They initially ultrasonicated the mixture of TO-CNFS, SA and CMC in distilled water for 30 minutes to obtain a viscous solution and subsequently dropped it into a calcium chloride solution for coagulation purposes. The obtained aerogel beads after dipping in water and washing with ethanol were transferred to tert-butanol and subsequently freeze-dried.

Emulsion polymerization is comparatively less time-consuming but it requires the centrifugation process for separation purposes (Y. Li et al., 2022) (Fig. 5). Recently, a self-assembly technique has been employed by Berglund et al (Berglund et al., 2023), for developing CNF-based hydrogels (Fig. 6). They used two different approaches, i.e., vacuum-assisted filtration (VF) and evaporation through suspension casting (SC) for the removal of water and for CNFs hydrogel self-assembly. The hydrogel formed through the casting technique showed a less intertwined/interconnected layered structure after swelling and thus demonstrated three times higher water absorption capability than its counterpart (Fig. 6). Zhang et al. (X. Zhang et al., 2023) also used a self-assembly approach to fabricate CNFs/montmorillonite/polyethyleneimine (cross-linkers) hydrogels adsorbent for the removal of copper and methylene from aqueous solutions. The existence of hydrogen bonding and electrostatic interactions has been confirmed through FT-IR results. Partially deacetylated chitin and TO-CNFS were physically cross-linked through self-assembly technique resulting in Chitin/TOCNFs biohybrid hydrogels (X. Zhang et al., 2019). The process was carried out at room temperature without any use of cross-linker and the developed hydrogel after freeze-drying displayed a highly porous structure. Nguyen et al. (Nguyen et al., 2022) have prepared CNF/GO hydrogels by thoroughly mixing and ultrasonication the mixture of CNFs/GO and subsequently freeze-drying it. The developed aerogel was reported to be mechanically tougher and showed dye adsorption tendency greater than 90% even after the fifth consecutive recycle. Ching et al. (Ching et al., 2018) used ultrasonication technique to convert microcellulose into NC hydrogels, which were subsequently freeze-dried and carbonised in a nitrogen atmosphere to produce highly porous carbon. Hosseinzadeh and co-authors (Hosseinzadeh et al., 2019) synthesised CNC-g-poly[AA-co- 2-hydroxy ethyl methacrylate (HEMA)] hydrogels through graft copolymerization process utilizing MBA as a cross-
linker and APS as initiator. The synthesised hydrogel was treated with ethanol for water removal purposes and subsequently dried in vacuum for further application in water purification.

![Hydrogel formation through emulsion polymerization technique](image)

**Fig. 5.** Hydrogel formation through emulsion polymerization technique (Y. Li et al., 2022). [Adopted from Ref. (Y. Li et al., 2022)].
Fig. 6. (a) CNF hydrogel self-assembly set up via SC and VF techniques, SEM images of freeze dried hydrogels (b) before absorption and (c) after absorption, and (d) their visualization through 2D and 3D X-ray microtomography (XRT) reconstruction after 1000% absorption (Berglund et al., 2023). (Reprinted from Ref. (Berglund et al., 2023) Copyright 2023, ACS under CC BY 4.0)
4. Drying of hydrogel

After the formation of a hydrogel, the solvent is removed by employing freeze-drying (FD), vacuum drying (VD), critical point drying (CPD) or ambient pressure drying (APD) and freeze-casting techniques. The drying process controls the pore size, morphology, surface area and density of the resulting aerogel (Guastaferro et al., 2021). Based on the pore size and density, the aerogels developed from CPD, APD and FD have been named as aerogel, xerogel and cryogel, respectively (Aegerter et al., 2011; Paul & Ahankari, 2023). Further, because of their high absorption potential, these hydrogels have been widely used for absorption/adsorption of dyes from waste water. Among different drying techniques, the FD is generally preferred as it forms aerogels of suitable pore size and strength, whereas in the case of CPD and APD the aerogels of low porosity are formed (Paul & Ahankari, 2023)). Couple of researchers have also reported better pore size for VD aerogels in comparison to FS aerogels.

In FD technique (low pressure and low temperature), the aqueous gel is initially frozen by employing liquid N\textsubscript{2}/dry ice/ refrigerator and then dried in a vacuum oven. It has a disadvantage that during crystal growth, some cracks may be formed and shrinkage can be seen in the structure (Hammani & René, 1997; P. Wu et al., 2019). The VD technique involves sublimation of a sample directly in vacuum. This technique is a more cost-effective and easily affordable approach than FD. Also, FD requires a combination of a refrigeration system, a condenser and a vacuum for removing moisture, whereas no such equipment is required in VD. CPD is done at critical pressure and temperature of solvent and it has the advantageous that at the critical state the capillary forces, because of the free movement of molecules, can be avoided. In both FD and CPD techniques (CPD requires high temperature and pressure and it is time-consuming), the aqueous phase in the hydrogel is replaced with gas (air); however, their respective pathway is different (De France et al., 2017; Gurav et al., 2010).

Freeze casting, just like FD, is another alluring technique, which, contrary to the latter one, forms anisotropic hydrogels (Chau et al., 2016; De France et al., 2017). Chau et al. (Chau et al., 2016) have synthesized such kinds of hydrogels with controllable pore size from aldehyde-functionalized NCs and hydrazide-functionalized poly(oligoethylene glycol methacrylate) (POEGMA) through directional freeze-casting. The pore morphologies were noticed to vary with the total mass of NCs and the relative ratio of CNC and POEGMA. APD is the most efficient approach in terms of time and cost. However, when liquids are evaporated at ambient pressure, the capillary stress at the liquid–vapor interface causes the gel to contract and thus reduces its porosity (Zuo et al., 2015). Further, due to the exceptional benefits i.e., low cost and sustainability, the FD is still the most frequently utilized drying technique for developing NC aerogels.

5. Removal of dyes from waste water

NC hydrogels-based adsorbents can be broadly classified into five categories i.e., virgin NC adsorbents, biopolymer blended NC hydrogels, inorganic materials-blended NC hydrogels, functionalized NC hydrogels and metal/metal oxide doped NC-based hydrogels. All of these types of adsorbents have been successfully used for the removal of different dyes from contaminated waters (Table 2). For removal of methylene blue (MB), the different types of adsorbents used were sulphuric acid extracted NC/carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC)/SA hydrogels (Yap et al., 2023), TO-CNPs beads (Xue et al., 2023), CNCs-chitosan (CS) hydrogel (Poornachandhru et al., 2023), carbonized hydrogels (Ching et al., 2018), CNFs-graphene oxide (GO) hydrogel (Nguyen et al., 2022; Shandong Agricultural University et al., 2019; Z. Wang et al., 2021), CNFs/poly (ethylene imine)PEI/Ag composite aerogel (W. Zhang et al., 2020) (adsorption plus dye decolouration), CNF/montmorillonite nanosheet (MMT)/PEI hydrogel (X. Zhang et al., 2023), CNCs-SiO\textsubscript{2}(Ruan et al., 2022), NC-UIO-66 (Z. Wang et al., 2019), metal-organic frameworks (MOF)-199@Carboxylated CNC/Carboxymethyl CS (CMCS) (Jiang et al., 2022), CMC/carboxylated-CNFs (T. Zhang et al., 2022), TO-CNPs/partially deacetylated chitin hydrogels (X. Zhang et al., 2019), Sago pitch waste extracted CNFs (Beh et al., 2020), BNC/MoS\textsubscript{2} hybrid hydrogels (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020), PVA/limin rich NC-soluble ash –MMT hydrogels (R. Huang et al., 2023), spherical NC-g-poly 2-acrylamido-2-methylpropan sulphonic acid [poly(AMPSA)] hydrogel (Jamwal et al., 2023), SA/GO/CNC 3D scaffold (Al-Shemy et al., 2022), and SA-electrostatically stabilized CNCs (Tavakolalian et al., 2020). Among different adsorbents, the best results were obtained with MOF-199@Carboxylate CNC/CMC adsorbents [maximum adsorption capacity (q\textsubscript{m}):1112.2mg/g] (Jiang et al., 2022). Further, for methyl orange (MO) dye removal, out of various types of adsorbents like Poly[2-(acryloxyloxy)ethyl] trimethylammoniumchloride] [poly(AETAC)-g-1 % TO-CN hydrogels (Roa et al., 2021), poly(2-(dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate) [poly(DMAEMA)]/NC hydrogels (Safavi-Mirmahalleh et al., 2020), poly(DMAEMA)/ (3 -amino)propyltriethoxysilane (AMPES)-CNCS (Safavi-Mirmahalleh et al., 2020), poly (DMAEMA)/hexadecyltrimethoxysilane (HMTS) –CNCS (Safavi-Mirmahalleh et al., 2020), NC/UIO-66 (Z. Wang et al., 2019), Cu\textsubscript{2}O/TiO\textsubscript{2}/CNF/reduced graphene hydrogel (rGO) (Zheng et al., 2022), CNC-PEI-beta-cyclodextrin/poly(AAm) hydrogel (Q. Li et al., 2021), NC-g-poly (AMPSA) (Jamwal et al., 2023) and polydopamine (PDA)-CNFs-PEI hydrogels hydrogels (Tang et al., 2019), the best result was shown by poly(AETAC)-g-TO-CN hydrogels (q\textsubscript{m}= 1379 mg/g) (Roa et al., 2021). Efforts have been also made for removal of other dyes like congo red
adsorbents used were Dialdehyde-CNC/polyvinylamine (PVAm) hydrogel (Jin et al., 2015), CNFs/PEI/Ag aerogel (W. Zhang et al., 2020), Cu-(benzene 1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid) BTC/CNFs aerogel (Shaheed et al., 2021), CNFs/GO (Shandong Agricultural University et al., 2019) and anionic dialdehyde partially fibrillated cellulose (X. Huang et al., 2023), acid red GR (ARGR) [Dialdehyde-CNC/PVAm hydrogel] (Jin et al., 2015), acid green 25 (AG25) & acid brown M (ABM) [Anionic dialdehyde partially fibrillated cellulose] (Jin et al., 2015), bromophenol blue (BB) & direct blue 6 (DB) [Nanobentonite/NC/CS aerogel] (V. Sharma et al., 2020), crystal violet (CV) [poly(AA)-co-2-hydroxyethylmethacrylate HEMA-g-CNC (Hosseinzadeh et al., 2019) and CNC-CS hydrogels (Poornachandhra et al., 2023)], malachite green (MG) [NC-g-poly (AMPSA)] (Jamwal et al., 2023); bismarck brown Y (BBY), brilliant cresyl blue (BCB) and alizarin red S (ARS) [Anionic dialdehyde partially fibrillated cellulose] (X. Huang et al., 2023) and rose bengal (RB) [NC-g-poly (AMPSA)] (Jamwal et al., 2023). The impact of various parameters has been discussed in subsequent sections.

### Table 2. Data on the removal of dyes from waste water by using different kinds of NC based hydrogels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hydrogel name</th>
<th>Drying conditions</th>
<th>Dye</th>
<th>Optimized parameters</th>
<th>$q_m$, mg/g</th>
<th>% Removal efficiency (RE)</th>
<th>Number of times regenerated and % RE after regeneration</th>
<th>Adsorption isotherm/Kinetic data</th>
<th>Ref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TO-NC/CMC/SA</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 4 hr; Adsorbent: 4mg; MB concentration: 50 mL solution of 10 ppm conc.; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>109.03</td>
<td>93.7</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Yap et al., 2023)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poly(AETAC)-g-TO-CNF hydrogels</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>Time: 5 hr; pH: 7.64, Adsorbent: 50mg; adsorbate concentration: 40 mL of 2000 mg/L concentration; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>1379</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>5 times; After the fifth cycle; $q_e$ was noted to be 5% of the original value</td>
<td>Pseudo second order kinetic</td>
<td>(Roa et al., 2021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO-CNFs beads</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 50 min; pH: 9, Adsorbent: 50 mg; adsorbate concentration: 5 mmol/L concentration; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>80% for 5 mmol/L MB and &gt;90% for 1 mmol/L MB concentration</td>
<td>Showed 83% RE for MB even after 5 cycles, when HCl was utilized as an eluting agent</td>
<td>Langmuir isotherm model; second-order kinetics</td>
<td>(Xue et al., 2023)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialdehyde-CNC/PVAm hydrogel</td>
<td>Freeze dried</td>
<td>CR, AR, GR</td>
<td>Time: 8 hr; pH: 3.5, Adsorbent: 0.5 g/L; adsorbate concentration: 100 mg/L concentration; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>869.1</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>Sips model / Pseudo second order kinetics, indicating chemisorption of dyes</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Jin et al., 2015)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Poly(DMAEMA)g/NC hydrogels | Freeze drying | MO  | Time: 144 min; pH: 1, Adsorbent: 0.5 g/L; adsorbate concentration: 5 g/L | 0.75 approx. | --                        | Pseudo-first-order model                                  |                                | (Safa vi-Mirmahalleh et al., 2023) |
| Poly(DMAEMA)g/AMPES-CNCs | MO            | L, 100 mL; ambient temperature; Condition: immersion | 1.5         | --                        | Pseudo-first-order model                                  |                                |                                |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material Description</th>
<th>MO</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Adsorbent</th>
<th>Adsorbate Concentration</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Retained RE (%)</th>
<th>Model/Orders</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poly(DMAEM A)/HMTS - CNCs</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>40 min</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 mg</td>
<td>4000 mg/L</td>
<td>313 K</td>
<td>Immersion</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>(V. Sharma et al., 2020)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanobentonite / NC/CS aerogel</td>
<td>Lyophilised/freeze-dried BB</td>
<td>60 min</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5 mg</td>
<td>4000 mg/L</td>
<td>323 K</td>
<td>Immersion</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>(V. Sharma et al., 2020)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyophilised/ freeze dried DB</td>
<td>Time: 150 min; pH: 12, Adsorbent: 1.6 mg; adsorbate concentration: 50-200mg/L, 50 ml; Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>231</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>First regeneration cycle: 90 mg/g and after the fifth cycle: 71 mg/g at pH 9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNC-CS hydrogels</td>
<td>Hot air oven CV</td>
<td>60 min</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.5 gm</td>
<td>60mg/L, 25 mL; temp: 25°C</td>
<td>Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td>94.75</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Langmuir and Freundlich model/pseudo-second model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 60 min; pH: 9, Adsorbent: 0.13 gm; adsorbate concentration: 30mg/L, 25 ml; temp: 25°C; Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>95.88</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>D-R and Freundlich model/pseudo-second model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freeze dried NC after carbonization at 800°C</td>
<td>Carbonized hydrogel MB</td>
<td>10 min</td>
<td></td>
<td>50 mg; adsorbate concentration: 10mg/L, 50 mL; Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNFs/PEI/Ag composite aerogel</td>
<td>Freeze dried MB &amp; CR</td>
<td>5 min in case of MB and 29 min in case of CR</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adsorbent aerogel of fixed size; adsorbate concentration: 10mg/L, 40 mL; NaBH₄: 10 mL, 50 mM; Condition: both Inflow and immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Approx. 98% discoloration efficiency</td>
<td>Retained its dye discoloration capability (98%) even after the 10 cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNFs/GO aerogels</td>
<td>Freeze dried MB</td>
<td>20 min</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adsorbent 0.1 gm; adsorbate concentration: 20mg/L, 50 mL; Room temperature; Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.48</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>Showed a adsorption capacity of 90% after fifth cycle; The aerogel was stable after 30 compression cycles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel</td>
<td>Freeze-dried MB</td>
<td>24 hr</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Adsorbent 30 mg; adsorbate concentration: varied 5-800 mg/L, 30 mL; Temperature: 45°C; Condition: immersion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>147.6</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>After 5th cycle RE: 49.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNFs/GO</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 6 min; Adsorbent 20 mg; adsorbate concentration: 50 mg/L, 20 mL; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>111.2</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>After 3rd cycle RE:98%; qm: 42.8</td>
<td>Langmuir adsorption isotherm/Pseudo-second-order kinetics (Z. Wang et al., 2021)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CNFs/GO</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB &amp; CR</td>
<td>Time: 24 hr; adsorbate concentration: 10 mg/L, 300 mL; Room temperature; Condition: In flow</td>
<td>MB: 265.6; CR: 21.5</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-- (Shandong Agricultural University et al., 2019)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC/UiO-66</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MO &amp; MB</td>
<td>Time: 350 min; Adsorbent 20 mg; adsorbate concentration: 50 mg/L, 20 mL; pH: 7; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>71.7 &amp; 51.8</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>After 4th cycle: 92% adsorption ability</td>
<td>Pseudo-second-order model (Z. Wang et al., 2019)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNC/SiO2</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 180 min; Adsorbent 10 mg; adsorbate concentration: 100 mg/L, 20 mL; pH: 10; temp: 298 K; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>190.85</td>
<td>Approx.90% at 45mg adsorbent dosage</td>
<td>After 5 cycles: 60% adsorption rate</td>
<td>Langmuir isotherm/Pseudo-second order (Ruan et al., 2022)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CuO/TiO2/CNFs/rGO</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>Time: 120 min; adsorbate concentration: 20 mg/L, 50 mL; Room temperature; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>11.28</td>
<td>85.62%</td>
<td>After 4th cycle: 79.5% photodegradation rate</td>
<td>Pseudo-Second Order/Photodegradation was best suited to Langmuir-Hinselwood pseudo-first-order kinetics (Zhang et al., 2022)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOF-199/Carboxylated CNC/CMCS</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 80 min; Adsorbent 6 mg; adsorbate concentration: 20 ml of 1000 mg/L; pH: 5.25; temp: 298 K; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>1112.2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Freundlich adsorption isotherm/Pseudo-second-order kinetic model (Jiang et al., 2022)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNC-PEI-beta-cyclodextrin/poly(AM) hydrogel</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>Time: 200 min; Adsorbent 0.1gm; adsorbate concentration: 100 ml of 160mg/L; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>155.93</td>
<td>97.46</td>
<td>After 5 cycles: RE 76.67%</td>
<td>Langmuir isotherm/Pseudo-second-order kinetic model (Q. Li et al., 2021)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMC/carboxylated-CNFs</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Time: 12 hr; Adsorbent 17 mg; adsorbate concentration: 100 ml of 100mg/L; temp: 30°C; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>579.50 mg/g; Through Langmuir model: 9 17.43 mg/g</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>After 5th cycle decreased to 513.2 mg/g</td>
<td>Langmuir isothermal model/pseudo-second-order kinetic; Hydrogel did not collapse even after ten cycles (T. Zhang et al., 2022)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO-CNFs/partially decetylated chitin hydrogels</td>
<td>Freeze-dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>pH: 10; time: 24 hr; temp: 25°C; adsorbate concentration: 50 mg/L; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Through Langmuir model: 531</td>
<td>Langmuir adsorption/both pseudo first and second order kinetics (X. Zhang et al., 2019)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sago pitch waste extracted CNFs</td>
<td>Freeze dried</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>Adsorbent dosage: 20 mg; Adsorbate dosage: 20 ml of 20 mg/L; pH 7; Room temperature; Condition: immersion</td>
<td>222.2</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Langmuir isotherm model/Pseudo-second-order kinetic model (Beh et al., 2020)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bacterial NC/MoS₂ hybrid hydrogels | CO₂ supercritical drying | MB | Adsorbate dosage: 60 ml of 5 g/mL; 30 min of pre-a desorption in the dark and 90 min of UV photocatalytic removal | - | 96 | After 6th cycle: approx. 86% | -- | (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020)

PVA/lignin rich NC-soluble ash – MMT hydrogels | -- | MB | Time: 6 hr; adsorbate dosage: 0.5 g; adsorbate dosage: 30 ml of 0.25 mg/mL; Temp:50°C; Condition: Inflow | - | 97.3 | - | Pseudo-second-order | (R. Huang et al., 2023)

Pinus wallichiana derived spherical NC-g-poly (AMPSA) hydrogel | Dried in oven | MG | Time: 60 min; pH: 6; adsorbent dosage: 10 mg; adsorbate dosage: 10 mL of 50-300 mg/L; Condition: immersion; Temp: 30°C | 292.62 | 91.7 | After 4th cycle: approx. 60% | Langmuir isotherm model/Pseudo-second order | (Jamwal et al., 2023)

Anionic dialdehyde partially fibrillated cellulose | Freeze-dried | Cationic dyes (BBY and BCB and CR) and anionic dyes (AR AG25, ABM and ARS) | Adsorbent dosage: 7.5 gm; adsorbate dosage: 15 ml of 25mg/L; Time: 5hr; pH: 7; Temp: 25°C; Condition: immersion | 129.6 against CR; showed better qm towards cationic dyes | 24.3 in in-flow condition | Langmuir isotherm model | X. Huang et al., 2023)

Cationic dialdehyde partially fibrillated cellulose-modified by Giraud’s reagent T | Freeze-dried | Adsorbent dosage: 7.5 gm; adsorbate dosage: 15 ml of 25mg/L; Time: 5hr; pH: 7; Temp: 25°C; Condition: immersion | 540.3 against CR; shows better qm towards anionic dyes | 97% in immersion and 48.7 in in-flow | After the 5th cycle: approx. 60% | Freundlich isotherm model |

SA/GO/CNC 3d scaffold | Freeze-dried | MB | Time: 600 min; pH:6; adsorbent: 2.5gL; adsorbate dosage: 20 ml of 100mg/L; Temp: 25°C; Condition: immersion | 49.75 approx | 90% approx | Both Pseudo first and second-order | (Al-Shemy et al., 2022)

PDA-CNFS-PEI hydrogels | Freeze-dried | MO | Time: 12 hr; Adsorbent dosage: 29.5 mg; adsorbate dosage: 40 ml of 200 mg/L; pH: 4; room temperature; Condition: immersion | 265.9 | Approx. 97% | After 4th cycle: 89% | Langmuir isothermal model/pseudo 2nd order | (Tang et al., 2019)

SA-electrostatically stabilized CNCs | MB | Time: 2 hr; Adsorbent dosage: 30 mg; adsorbate dosage: 25 ml of 800 mg/L; room temperature; Condition: immersion | 549.7; However, at 6000mg/L dye concentration: 1250 | 98% | After 3rd cycle falls from 150mg/g (approx.) to <115 mg/g; when dye conc. Was 3200mg/L | Pseudo-second order | (Tavakolnia et al., 2020)

6. Mechanism of dye adsorption/degradation
A proposed mechanism for interaction between different types of hydrogels and cationic/anionic dyes is given in Figure 7. Poomanchandra et al. (Poomanchandra et al., 2023) during their study on the interaction of CNCs/CH hydrogels with cationic dye, reported that it may take place through five different ways, such as through hydrogen bonding, van der Waals forces, dipolar bonds, n–p, and electrostatic interaction. They further discussed the possibility of two types of hydrogen bonding, namely dipole–dipole hydrogen bonding, which takes place between hydrogen present in the hydroxyl group of hydrogel and the H-acceptor (nitrogen) in the cationic dye, and Yoshida H-bonding
interaction, which occurs between the hydroxyl group of hydrogel and the aromatic rings of cationic dyes. Nguyen et al. (Nguyen et al., 2022) reported the possibility of the existing Pi-Pi stacking interactions between NC/GO and the conjugated system of dyes (MB). Further, some researchers also loaded the NC with a photocatalyst, for dual functionality of hydrogels as dye adsorber and degrader (W. Zhang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2022). The mechanism of dye degradation using photo nanocatalyst loaded NC-based hydrogels is given in Figure 8. From the figure, we can see how different radicals are generated at the intermediate stage of the reaction and lead to the degradation of different dyes.

\[ \text{Here RB is rhodamine B} \]
\[ \text{and -ve charge on hydrogel may be due to } -\text{O}, -\text{COO} \text{- groups, etc} \]

\[ \text{Here + ve charge on hydrogels may be due to the presence of } H_2O^+ \text{ and NH}_3^+ \text{-groups} \]

\[ \text{Attraction may be electrostatic, hydrogen bonding, van der Waals, } n-Pi \text{ and } Pi-Pi \text{ stacking interactions} \]
**Fig. 7.** Schematic view of adsorption of (a) cationic dyes and (b) anionic dyes onto NC-based hydrogels (Poornachandhra et al., 2023).

**Fig. 8.** Degradation of dyes using (a) Ag loaded CNFs/PEI [Adopted from Ref. (Raj et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2022)] and (b) Cu$_2$O/TiO$_2$ photo-nano-catalyst loaded CNF/r-GO hydrogels [Adopted from Ref. (Babu et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2022); A part of figure has been reprinted from Ref. (Babu et al., 2015), Copyright 2015, RSC].
7. Adsorption kinetics and isothermal study

7.1 Adsorption kinetics

A lot of work has been done on the study of NC-based hydrogel adsorption system kinetics by employing time interval tests, which involve immersion of sample in the dye solution and measurement of dye concentration after its withdrawal at different time intervals. Lagergren’s pseudo-first-order and Ho’s pseudo-second-order models are the two main kinetic models that have been utilized to monitor the kinetics of adsorption of dyes onto NC hydrogels (Dąbrowski, 2001; Gınay et al., 2007) (Table 3). The kinetic of adsorption gives us an idea about possible mechanisms and helps in defining the rate-determining step during adsorption. This step is of the utmost importance as it helps in optimizing process parameters and setting up optimized parameters for the removal of dyes at an industrial scale (Febrianto et al., 2009). If the pseudo-first-order model is found to be the best fit for experimental results, then it predicts physical adsorption. However, if the pseudo-second-order model fits well with the experimental data, then adsorption may be supposed to take place through the chemisorption pathway. Many phases have been identified in the adsorption process by making use of the intraparticle diffusion model, including rapid diffusion of adsorbate molecules over the external layer of the adsorbent; diffusion of adsorbate intraparticle in pores; the formation of chemical/physical bonds at the active centres of the adsorbent.

Huang et al. (X. Huang et al., 2023) have used this model along with the pseudo-first/second model to study the dye diffusion process on partially fibrillated cationic cellulose adsorbent and found that adsorption follows pseudo-second-order kinetic, confirming the chemisorption (depend upon both adsorbate and adsorbent concentration). Further, through the intraparticle diffusion model, they affirmed that intraparticle diffusion was not the rate-determining step, and the CR adsorption took place through multiple adsorption mechanisms. A couple of other researchers have also used an intraparticle diffusion model while studying adsorption (Beh et al., 2020; X. Huang et al., 2023; T. Zhang et al., 2022). Jamwal et al. (Jamwal et al., 2023) used the Elovich equation, which is mostly used for the confirmation of chemical bonding, in addition to the pseudo-first and second-order model to study the adsorbance of MG dyes onto spherical NC-g-poly (AMPSA) hydrogel and confirmed that adsorbance takes place through pseudo-second order kinetics i.e., through chemisorption pathway. However, no fitting of experimental data to Elovich equation has been affirmed by them. From Table 2, it can be observed that almost all the NC-based aerogels against different dyes follow pseudo-second-order kinetics. However, poly(DMAEMA)/ AMPES-CNCs and poly(DMAEMA)/ HMTS-CNCs against MO (Safavi-Mirmahalleh et al., 2020) and Nanobentonite / NC/CS aerogel (V. Sharma et al., 2020) against BB dye have been noticed to obey first-order kinetics, means in these adsorbents the adsorption take place through physical adsorption pathway. Further, in case of TO-CNPs/partially decacylated chitin hydrogels, the adsorption of MB was noted to follow by both pseudo-first order and pseudo-second order kinetics(X. Zhang et al., 2019) (Fig. 9). In this case, adsorption was noted to increase rapidly for the initial 3 hr and reached adsorption maximum within 12 hr.

Table 3. Adsorption kinetics models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No</th>
<th>Kinetic Model</th>
<th>Model Equation</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pseudo First Order</td>
<td>( q_t = q_e \left(1 - e^{-k_1 t}\right) )</td>
<td>Lagergren, 1898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pseudo Second Order</td>
<td>( q_t = \frac{k_2 q_e^2 t}{1 + k_2 q_e t} )</td>
<td>Cheung et al., 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Intra Particle Diffusion</td>
<td>( q_t = k_{id} \sqrt{t + c} )</td>
<td>Weber &amp; Morris, 1963</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \( q_e \) and \( q_t \) are the amount of dye adsorbed per unit mass of adsorbent (mg/g) at equilibrium and at time t, respectively; \( k_1, \ k_2 \) and \( k_{id} \) is the pseudo-first order sorption rate constant (h\(^{-1}\)), pseudo-second order adsorption rate constant (g mg\(^{-1}\) h\(^{-1}\)) and rate constant of intraparticle diffusion (mg g\(^{-1}\) h\(^{0.5}\)), respectively and ‘c’ indicates the thickness of boundary layer.
7.2. Adsorption isotherm
Several isothermal models, including Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin, Sips, and Dubinin-Radushkevich, have been used to explore dye adsorption using NC hydrogels as an adsorbent system (Table 4). These models provide useful information about the adsorbent's surface characteristics, the adsorption mechanism, the extent to which adsorption sites are covered, and the degree of affinity between the adsorbent and adsorbate molecules (Al-Ghouti & Da’ana, 2020; Kalam et al., 2021). Table 2 gives the isothermal results of various NC-based adsorbent systems against different dyes. Sometimes, the effects of time and temperature on the rate of adsorption are also taken into account. The information required to find out the adsorption isotherm is generally derived by conducting the static adsorption (batch mode). The concentration of adsorbate is varied to achieve equilibrium adsorption. The equilibrium dye concentration is then plotted against the equilibrium dye uptake and fitted with the aforementioned models. It is crucial to specify the appropriate isotherm model when designing the system and modeling the process since it validates the adsorption process associated with the studied adsorbate-adsorbent system (Kalam et al., 2021).

If the Langmuir isothermal model is determined to be the best fit with the adsorption data, then it validates the homogeneity of the adsorption surface and the monolayer adsorption on an adsorbent surface with a constrained number of uniformly energetic adsorption sites. However, when the Freundlich isotherm model is found to be best fitted, then it confirms multilayer adsorption on heterogeneous adsorbing medium. Further, to foresee adsorption in heterogeneous systems and get beyond the Freundlich isotherm's restriction on growing adsorbate concentration, the Sips isotherm, which is the combined form of the Langmuir and Freundlich models, might be a good option. This model transforms from Freundlich isotherms to Langmuir isotherms with the increase in adsorbate concentration and may be quite useful for discussing adsorption at a specific pressure or a wide range of pressures (Al-Ghouti & Da’ana, 2020; Tzabar & Ter Brake, 2016). The Temkin model is applicable at the intermediate adsorbate concentration. It presumes multilayer adsorption and studies the adsorbate-adsorbent interactions. Some authors have mentioned that this model is not best-suited for aqueous adsorption systems, but has still been applied by a couple of researchers to study NC-based dye adsorbing systems. Dubinin-Radushkevich isotherm is also applicable at the intermediate adsorbate concentration and, unlike Langmuir and Freundlich isotherms, this is a semi-empirical equation describing the mechanism of pore filling and is applied to the multilayer physical adsorption process (Al-Ghouti & Da’ana, 2020).

From the table, it can be observed that almost all the NC-based hydrogels have obeyed Langmuir adsorption isotherm against various dyes. However, only three samples i.e., MOF-199@Carboxylated CNC/CMCS (Jiang et al., 2022) (against MB dye), cationic partially fibrillated cellulose (anionic and cationic dyes) (X. Huang et al., 2023) and CNC-CS hydrogels (against CV and MB dyes) (Poornachandhra et al., 2023) have followed Freundlich adsorption isotherm and thus confirmed multilayers adsorption on heterogenous adsorbing medium. Some hydrogels like dialdehyde-CNC/PVAm hydrogel (against CR, AR and reactive light yellow dyes) (Jin et al., 2015), Nanobentonite / NC/CS aerogel (DB and BB) and CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel (against MB) found to be best fitted to Sips model.
Table 4. Different isotherm models used for the adsorption of dyes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Linear form</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Langmuir</td>
<td>$q_e = \frac{Q_oK_cC_e}{1 + K_cC_e}$</td>
<td>$q_e = \frac{1}{Q_o} + \frac{K_cC_e}{1 + K_cQ_oC_e}$</td>
<td>(Langmuir, 1918)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Freundlich</td>
<td>$q_e = K_F C_e^{1/n}$</td>
<td>$\log q_e = \log K_F + \frac{1}{n} \log C_e$</td>
<td>(Piccin et al., 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dubinin–Radushkevich</td>
<td>$q_e = (q_s) \exp(-K_ad e^2)$</td>
<td>$\ln(q_e) = \ln (q_s) - (K_ad e^2)$</td>
<td>(Dubinin, 1960)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Temkin</td>
<td>$q_e = \frac{RT}{b_T} \ln(A_T C_e)$</td>
<td>$q_e = \frac{RT}{b_T} \ln A_T C_e + \left(\frac{RT}{b_T}\right) \ln C_e$</td>
<td>(Temkin, 1940)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sips</td>
<td>$q_e = \frac{q_m b_s C_e^{1/3}}{1 + b_s C_e^{1/3}}$</td>
<td>$\ln \left(\frac{q_m}{q_e} q_m - q_e\right) = \frac{1}{n} \ln (b_s)$ + $\ln (b_s)^{\frac{1}{n}}$</td>
<td>(Sips, 1948)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, ‘$q_e$’, ‘$C_e$’, ‘$Q_o$’ and ‘$K_c$’ are the equilibrium adsorption capacity (mg/g), equilibrium concentration of adsorbate (mg/L), the maximum amount of the dyes adsorbed per unit weight of the adsorbent, mg/g and Langmuir adsorption equilibrium constant, respectively; ‘$K_F$’ and ‘$n$’ are Freundlich isotherm constant (mg/g) and heterogeneity factor, respectively; ‘$q_s$’, ‘$K_ad$’ and ‘$e$’ are theoretical isotherm saturation capacity (mg/g), Dubinin–Radushkevich isotherm constant (mol$^2$/kJ$^2$) and Dubinin–Radushkevich isotherm constant, respectively; ‘$A_T$’ ‘$b_T$’ and ‘$R$’ are Temkin isotherm equilibrium binding constant (L/g), Temkin isotherm constant and universal gas constant (8.314J/mol/K), respectively; and ‘$b_s$’ is the Sips isotherm constant related to the energy of adsorption.

8. Impact of different factors
The temp, pH, additives and time are major factors that impact significantly the overall performance of the adsorbents and thus special attention has been paid to thoroughly studying the variation in adsorption ability of NC hydrogels with variation in these parameters.

8.1 Impact of additives or functionalization
Efforts have been made to enhance the adsorbing nature or functionality of NC-based hydrogel by blending it with various bio-nanofillers of different functionalities or oxidized.functionalized with suitable polymers. The addition of additives/functional groups not only enhances the surface chemistry but also helps in controlling the pore size, surface area, density, etc., of the hydrogel. The addition of fillers can be carried out with or without cross-linkers. Yap et al. (Yap et al., 2023) blended SA/CMC with NC and reported an increase in adsorption tendency from 24.4 to 90.1% towards MB. Roa et al. (Roa et al., 2021) graft copolymerized CNFs with ALETA monomer utilizing MBA crosslinkers through a free radical reaction pathway for enhancing CNFs tendency to adsorb MY dye. Xu et al. (Xue et al., 2023) found that with the increase in carboxyl groups amount in TO-CNPs hydrogels, the rate of MB dye adsorption increases and attains equilibrium at 50 min. Further, they reported an increase in adsorption capacity from 538 to 682 mg/g, when the concentration of hypochlorite, treatment applied to obtain the TO-CNPs with different carboxyl contents, was varied from 2.5 to 10 mmol /L. Such an increased adsorption capability because of enhancement in porous structure, pore numbers and specific surface area of hydrogel with an increase in carboxylate contents has been reported by a couple of researchers (Mishinaevsky et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2023). Di-aldehyde CNCs were reacted with PVAm to introduce the new functional groups (NH$_2$ and COOH groups) on CNCs surface, which ultimately enhanced CNCs adsorbing capability towards AR, CR 4BS and reactive light yellow K-4G dyes (Jin et al., 2015). Similarly, a lot of polymers like AA-co-HEMA (Hosseinzadeh et al., 2019), poly(AMPSA) (Jamwal et al., 2023) and Girad,s reagent(X. Huang et al., 2023) have been introduced on CNCs, spherical NC and partially nanofibrilled cellulose, respectively, to enhance the adsorption capability of virgin NC.
MOFs like MOF-199 (Jiang et al., 2022), montmorillonite (R. Huang et al., 2023; X. Zhang et al., 2023) and UIO-66 (Z. Wang et al., 2019), due to their high crystallinity, porous nature, tailor able pore size and surface characteristics, alluring absorption ability and high specific surface area, have also been added as fillers in NC hydrogels to enhance their dye adsorbing capability. Zhang et al. (Jiang et al., 2022) prepared MOF-199@Carboxylated CNC/CMCS hybrid through the coordination bonding and ionic cross-linking between MOF-199, and CMCS and carboxylated CNC. The developed aerogel showed a recordable adsorption ability of 1112.2 mg/g against MB, which is the best among entire NC-based hydrogels developed for MB dye adsorption. Further, GO, because of the presence of numerous oxygen-containing groups like –OH, -COOH and epoxy groups and higher surface area have also been utilized as fillers to enhance the porosity, mechanical strength and adsorption ability of NC hydrogels (Al-Shemy et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2022; Shandong Agricultural University et al., 2019; Z. Wang et al., 2021) (Table 2). Among different samples, the CNFs/GO hydrogel prepared by Zhang et al. (Z. Wang et al., 2021) without any use of cross-linkers showed maximum adsorption of 111.2 mg/g against MB within 6 min, which is the highest among all GO-based samples in minimum time. The CNFs/GO composite hydrogels synthesized by Wei et al. (Shandong Agricultural University et al., 2019) showed maximum percent adsorption, among all samples, against MB; however, the time taken is quite long (24 hr). Natural polysaccharides like CS (Jiang et al., 2022; Poornachandhra et al., 2023) and SA (Al-Shemy et al., 2022) owing to the presence of -NH₂ and –OH, and -COOH and –OH groups, respectively, have also been used as fillers for enhancing the pore size as well as functionality for better dye adsorption. Nowadays, metal/metal oxide photocatalysts, due to their eco-friendly nature and advantageous optical characteristics, have been frequently utilized for the degradation of dyes (Ahmaruzzaman & Mishra, 2021; H. Kumari et al., 2023). However, there are a few things that are limiting their use as photocatalysts in water purification. These include the agglomeration of nanoparticles because of high surface area/energy during the treatment and removal issues. There have been considerable attempts made to address this issue by using NC-based 3D support aerogel to decorate/support photo nanocatalysts, which will not only resolve the agglomeration issue but also make it simple to remove the nanocatalyst after-treatment (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020; W. Zhang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2022). Zhang et al. (W. Zhang et al., 2020) loaded Ag nanoparticles onto CNFs/PEI hydrogels, Zheng et al. (Zheng et al., 2022) decorated Cu₂O/TiO₂ onto CNFs/r-GO hydrogels and Ferreira-Neto et al. (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020) loaded MoS₂ photocatalytic nanoparticles onto BC hydrogels for effective removal of dyes. Due to the synergistic impact of photo nanocatalyst-loaded aerogel as an adsorbent and as a dye degrader, these materials showed the remarkable capability to remove dyes from wastewater. Zhang et al. (W. Zhang et al., 2020) recorded a dye degradation of 99.2% for MB (within 5 min) and 96.4% for CR (21 min), when they employed CNFs/PEI/Ag aerogels along with NaBH₄ as a reducing agent. Zheng et al. (Zheng et al., 2022) reported 85.62% MO dye degradation capability for Cu₂O/TiO₂/CNF/r-GO, when irradiated with UV light for 120 min. Similarly, a degradation of 96±3% was noted for MB dye, on utilization of BC/MoS₂ adsorbents and irradiating the dye solution for 120 min with UV-visible light (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020).

8.2 Effect of pH

The point of zero charge (pHpzc) value of the adsorbent controls its ability to adsorb anionic and cationic dyes (Ibrahim et al., 2010). Adsorption of cationic dyes is favored when the solution pH value lies > pHpzc of the adsorbent and similarly, anionic dyes adsorbance is expected to be favored when the solution pH lies < pHpzc of the adsorbent. A lot of work has been done in studying the impact of pH on dye adsorbing capability of NC-based hydrogels against different cationic (MB, MG, rhodamine B, BBY, BCB, CV, etc.) and anionic dyes (MO, CR, AG25, ARS, ABM, BB, DB, etc.). Jin et al. (Jin et al., 2015) while studying the adsorbing capability of dialdehyde-CNC/PVAm (pHpzc value 5.6) hydrogel against CR dyes, reported an increase in removal efficiency (from 59.9 to 99.9%) with the decrease in pH of solution (from 9 to 3.5, respectively). This increase in adsorption has been attributed to the protonation of amine group (NH₃⁺), available on hydrogel surface, in an acidic medium causing enhanced electrostatic interaction between NH₃⁺ group of hydrogel and SO₃⁻ groups of CR dye. On further enhancing the pH of a solution, the deprotonation NH₃⁺ group occurs, which in turn lowers the electrostatic interaction with anionic dye and thus lowers adsorption. Poornachandra et al. (Poornachandra et al., 2023) reported a 4.4 pHpzc value for CNC-CS hydrogels, meaning the surface of this hydrogen remains neutral at this pH. However, when pH was increased beyond 4.4 (from 5 to 9) the adsorbent surface became –ve charged because of deprotonation of carboxyl (–COO⁻) and amino (–NH₂) groups available on the adsorbent surface and thus its tendency to adsorb MB cationic dye enhanced from 86 to 90%. Similarly, Xue et al. (Xue et al., 2023), when utilizing TO-CNFs hydrogel adsorbents for MB adsorption, also reported an increase in removal capacity from 395 to 682 mg/g with enhancement in pH from 3 to 9. Zhang et al. (Z. Zhang, Hu, et al., 2022) found maximum adsorption at pH 5.25 for MOF-199@Carboxylated CNC/CMCS aerogel against MB, which is higher than the pHpzc value (4.3) reported for same adsorbing hydrogel by Mullet et al. (Mullet et al., 1999). A strong decrease in MB adsorption from 100 to 10% was found for sago pitch waste extracted CNFs hydrogel upon the decrease in pH from 7 to 5 (Beh et al., 2020). Similarly, Zhang et al. also better adsorption ability of
CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel towards MB at a pH higher than pH_{pzc} value of hydrogel (Fig. 10) (X. Zhang et al., 2023). Jamwal et al. (93) found a sharp increase in MG adsorption ability for NC-g-poly(AMPSA) hydrogels when pH was increased beyond pH_{pzc} value of hydrogel. Ruan et al. (Ruan et al., 2022) found an increase in the adsorption of MB dye on CNCs/SiO_2 hydrogels upon an increase in pH from 2 to 10. A sharp increase (218.3 to 265.9 mg/g) in adsorption was reported for PDA-CNFs-PEI hydrogels against MO dye when pH was decreased from 10.2 to 4.41 (Tang et al., 2019). This has been attributed to protonation of PEI resulting in enhanced electrostatic attraction with anionic MO dye.

![Fig. 10. (a) pH_{pzc} of CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel hydrogels and (b) Variation in adsorption of MB dye on CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel hydrogels with pH (X. Zhang et al., 2023), “Reprinted from Ref. (X. Zhang et al., 2023), MDPI, under CC BY 4.0”](image)

### 8.3 Impact of temperature

Some authors have reported an increase in dye adsorption ability of NC-based adsorbents with an increase in temperature, while others have reported the opposite trend. For example, Hosseinizadeh et al. (Hosseinizadeh et al., 2019) found that when the temperature is increased from 25 to 55°C, the rate of diffusion of CV dye on CNCs-g-poly(AA-co-HEMA) increases, suggesting the adsorption process is endothermic. Zhang and coworkers also reported an increase in adsorption of MB onto CNF/MMT/PEI hydrogel with the increase in temperature from 25 to 45°C (X. Zhang et al., 2023). A couple of research groups, Xue et al. (Xue et al., 2023) and Al-Shemy et al. (Al-Shemy et al., 2022) also demonstrated the adsorption process to be endothermic during their study on adsorption of MB onto TO-CNFS and SA/GO/CNC 3d scaffold, respectively. Jamwal et al. (Jamwal et al., 2023) contrary to the above finding, demonstrated a rise in adsorption of MG dye onto NC-g-poly (AMPSA) hydrogel up to 30°C, but beyond that a small decrease in adsorption was noted by them. Tavakolian et al. (Tavakolian et al., 2020) also reported a 10% decrease in MB dye adsorption for SA-electrostatically stabilized CNCs adsorbents, when the temperature was increased from 20 to 60°C, suggesting that adsorption is exothermic reaction.

### 9. Regeneration or recycling

The reusability and regenerability study of adsorbents is of importance as it will make the adsorption process of dye removal economical. The majority of researchers have used hydrochloric acid as an eluent for the regeneration of NC-based hydrogels (Roa et al., 2021; Xue et al., 2023). Roa et al. (Roa et al., 2021) recommended that poly(AETAC)-g-1% TO-CNFS hydrogels can be recycled three times, because of a sudden fall in their adsorption capability after the third cycle. Xue et al. (Xue et al., 2023) have utilized four different eluents, namely deionized water, ethanol, NaOH solution (1 mol/L), and HCl solution (1 mol/L) to study the desorption of MB from TO-CNFs beads. The maximum desorption was found with ethanol (94%) followed by HCl solution (93%), water (45%) and NaOH solution (34%). Further, when HCl solution was utilized multiple times, the hydrogels showed 83% MB removal efficiency even after the fifth cycle. Hosseinizadeh et al. (Hosseinizadeh et al., 2019) carried out adsorption-desorption cycle of P(AA-co-HEMA)-g-CNC against CV dye in both acidic (pH:3) and basic medium (pH:9). They reported better dye adsorption capability for hydrogels in the basic medium (71 mg/g) than in acidic medium (11%) after the fifth regeneration cycle. Poornachandhra et al. (Poornachandhra et al., 2023) while studying the desorption of CV and MB dyes from CNC-CS hydrogels, found that the eluents like NaOH (1M) and KOH (1 M) perform well in the case of CV desorption,
while 50% ethanol and HCl (0.1 M) solution give best results against MB dye. GO-based NC hydrogels also showed promising results while recycling multiple times by simply washing with ethanol. CNFs/GO demonstrated removal efficiency of 98% against MB and 97% against TC after the 3rd cycle (Z. Wang et al., 2021). Similarly, another group reported 91.1% removal efficiency for CNFs/GO against MB after 5th cycle (Nguyen et al., 2022) (Fig. 11). Jamwal et al. (93) during reusability of NC-g-poly(AMPSA) hydrogels, varied the concentration of eluents (HCl acid) from 0.10 N - 0.75 N. They reported maximum RE or qm at 0.50 N HCl concentration after the 8th cycle. Li et al. (Q. Li et al., 2021) used 2% NaOH solution for desorption of MO from CNC-PEI-beta-cyclodextrin/poly(AAm) hydrogel and they reported a remarkable removal efficiency of 76.67% after the fifth cycle. From table 2, we can notice that metal or metal oxide-based hydrogels, even after the 7-8th catalytic process, give better/highest dye discoloration ability. For example, CNFs/PEI/Ag showed a dye discoloration tendency of 98% (against MB and CR) (W. Zhang et al., 2020), Cu2O/TiO2/CNF/reduced graphene hydrogel showed 79.5% against MO (Zheng et al., 2022) and Bacterial NC/MoS2 hybrid hydrogels showed 86% against MB, after the 10th , 4th and 6th catalytic process, respectively (Ferreira-Neto et al., 2020).

Fig. 11. (a) Variation in MB adsorption capacity of CNFs/GO hydrogel after recycling and (b) changes in the color of MB solutions after 1, 4, and 6 recycle (Nguyen et al., 2022). “Reprinted from ref. (Nguyen et al., 2022), Copyright 2022, ACS, under CC BY 4.0”.

10. Conclusion
This review provides a brief overview of the removal of dyes using NC hydrogel-based adsorbents. These adsorbents, in addition to their sustainable, cost-effective and eco-friendly nature, also displayed a phenomenal rate of adsorption. It has been established that blending or functionalizing NC hydrogels directly contributes to the improvement of their adsorption ability. So far various cross-linkers have been applied to crosslink the NC-based hydrogels and have resulted in enhancement in the NC hydrogels’ dye adsorption ability. Further, the different nanofillers/blenders used were MOFs, Ag metals, Cu2O, SiO2, CS, etc. The metals/metal oxide-filled NC-hydrogels, due to the synergistic effect of adsorption and photocatalytic degradation showed huge potential in dye removal. Among different samples, the dialdehyde-CNC/PVAm hydrogel and MOF-199@Carboxylated CNC/CMCS hydrogels had the best dye adsorption potential. The factors like initial dye concentration, solution pH, adsorbent dosage, temperature and time impact significantly the ability of NC hydrogel-based adsorbents to remove dye from wastewater. Furthermore, through kinetics research, it has been affirmed the majority of adsorption occurs via a pseudo-second-order reaction. Hydrogels have been recycled by treating them with alkali, ethanol, acid and water. The recycled hydrogels showed an alluring capability to adsorb the dyes even after the 5-8th cycle. Thus, we can conclude that NC hydrogel-based adsorbents are extremely efficient for the treatment of wastewater and are also renewable and reusable. However, there is still a need to undergo significant technological advancements before they can be implemented in practical applications. The following is a list of the challenges and upcoming angles to the present study problem. Large-scale development of NC hydrogels is very challenging; efforts are still needed to optimize the number of additives based on the porosity and adsorption capacity of the hydrogels; bio-degradation may be a problem as cross-linkers may inhibit their ability to degrade; the cost of NC extraction is high; and actions are still needed to assess the life cycle of NC hydrogels.
References:


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