

Effect of cellulose-based fillers on vulcanized natural rubber

Flavia Leticia Silva Freitas

Universidade de São Paulo

Carla Almêda Correia

Universidade de São Paulo

Letícia Mota de Oliveira

Universidade de São Paulo

Hélio Ribeiro

Mackenzie Presbyterian University

Ticiane Sanches Valera (✉ tvalera@usp.br)

Universidade de São Paulo

Research Article

Keywords: cellulose nanocrystal, phosphoric acid hydrolysis, natural rubber compound, vulcanization, mechanical properties

Posted Date: April 13th, 2023

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-2787511/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

Effect of cellulose-based fillers on vulcanized natural rubber

Flávia L. S. Freitas¹ (ORCID <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8960-6476>); Carla A. Correia¹ (ORCID <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4509-6574>); Letícia M. Oliveira¹; Hélio Ribeiro² (ORCID <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5489-1927>); Ticiane S. Valera¹ (ORCID <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5107-9877>)

¹Department of Metallurgical and Materials Engineering - Polytechnic School - University of São Paulo – USP - Av. Professor Mello Moraes, 2463 - Butantã, São Paulo - SP - CEP 05508-030, Brazil.

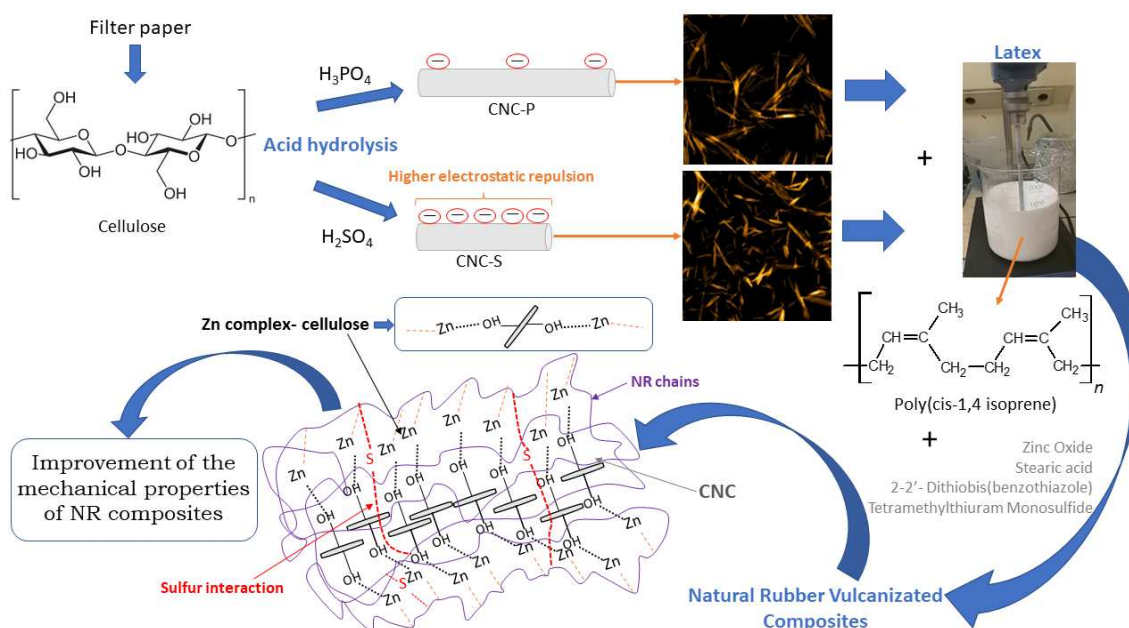
²Escola de Engenharia, Mackenzie Presbyterian University- Rua da Consolação 896, São Paulo, SP CEP 01302-907, Brazil.

Abstract

Cellulose nanocrystal (CNC) fillers have gained attention in research and industrial applications owing to their excellent properties and environmental bias. They can be added to natural rubber (NR) compounds to enhance properties such as the modulus of elasticity. CNCs can be extracted by different acid methods that promote singular features in interfacial adhesion, according to the type of acid used. This study addresses the feasibility of using cellulose nanoparticles in vulcanized NR composites. For this purpose, two different hydrolysis procedures using sulfuric acid and the less aggressive phosphoric acid were performed. These nanoparticles were then added to different amounts of NR compound. The effects of the CNCs on the vulcanization of the NR compound were evidenced by the formation of a zinc-cellulose-rubber complex, which reduced the optimal vulcanization time and increased the NR compound cure rate, particularly for the samples treated with phosphoric acid. In addition, the formation of this complex structure affected the morphology and mechanical properties of the composites. In particular, the tensile strength, elongation at break, and modulus at 300% of the composites with nanocellulose treated with phosphoric acid increased by 90%, 16%, and 51%, respectively, compared to the NR compound. Furthermore, the higher aspect ratio of the nanocellulose particles, mainly treated with phosphoric acid, favored the filler-matrix adhesion, making them a promising alternative to enhance the mechanical properties of NR compounds.

Key words: cellulose nanocrystal, phosphoric acid hydrolysis, natural rubber compound, vulcanization, mechanical properties

Graphical Abstract



37

38

Introduction

39

40
 41 Natural rubber (NR) is one of the most important elastomers, used in numerous
 42 technological and industrial applications throughout the world. Good processability, high
 43 flexibility, outstanding resilience, low hysteresis, and high tear and tensile strengths
 44 (strain-induced crystallization) stand out as its main properties (Visakh et al. 2012a, b;
 45 Parambath Kanoth et al. 2015). Data from the Association of Natural Rubber Producing
 46 Countries (ANRPC) (2021) indicated that around 14 million tons of NR were produced
 47 in 2021, corresponding to 48% of the worldwide rubber production. In Brazil, data from
 48 the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE) reported that the production of
 49 NR reached 376.036 tons in 2020 (IBGE, 2020).

50 Despite the advantages of NR, its low elasticity modulus and abrasion resistance
 51 limit its wide applicability. Further enhancement of the mechanical properties of NR can
 52 be achieved by reinforcing it with different types of fillers such as carbon black and silica
 53 (Martins et al. 2008; Pantamanatsopa et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2014; Ali et al. 2020),
 54 which are among the most commonly used in industrial applications. However, some of
 55 these materials are obtained from non-renewable sources and require large amounts of
 56 energy for production. For this reason, among others, natural cellulose-based fillers are
 57 gaining attention in both research and industrial sectors, in addition to the excellent

58 specific chemical and physical properties exhibited by such materials. Therefore, the
59 development of low-density and environmentally friendly reinforcement fillers such as
60 cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) has been identified as a potential replacement for
61 traditional fillers (Tian et al. 2017; Phanthong et al. 2018; Chawalitsakunchai et al. 2019;
62 Dittanet et al. 2019; Lavanya and Natchimuthu 2019; Nie et al. 2019; Tao et al. 2019; Ali
63 et al. 2020).

64 The cellulose structure, which remains unaltered in the CNC, is formed by the
65 repeated connection of two 1,4- β glycosidic bonds through hydrogen bonds (Habibi et al.
66 2010; Moon et al. 2011; Kargarzadeh et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019; Ali et al. 2020). In
67 addition to their renewability, CNCs combine biodegradability, high aspect ratio,
68 flexibility, low density, and high strength. Furthermore, the CNC surface can be tailored
69 to improve its adhesion to polymer matrices when used as a reinforcement agent. The
70 surface treatments of CNCs are generally classified according to the chemical nature of
71 the extraction method used to obtain the nanoparticles (Moon et al. 2011; Phanthong et
72 al. 2018). CNCs can be produced by acid hydrolysis using hydrochloric, hydrobromic,
73 phosphoric, citric, oxalic, maleic, and sulfuric acids. Therefore, different CNC-charged
74 surfaces are produced, depending on the acid used in the hydrolysis (Phanthong et al.
75 2018; Vanderfleet et al. 2018). Sulfuric acid is the most commonly used, and its high
76 sulfate content provides a highly negatively charged sulfate-ester surface that stabilizes
77 the CNC dispersion and increases the compatibility of the CNC/resin system (Moon et al.
78 2011; Gan and Chow 2019). However, the presence of charged sulfate groups in a
79 composite may reduce the thermal stability of the matrix (Habibi et al. 2010; Xie et al.
80 2018).

81 Orthophosphoric acid synthesis is a promising alternative that produces CNC
82 particles exhibiting enhanced thermal stability and a small amount of surface charges
83 compared with that obtained using sulfuric acid (Camarero Espinosa et al. 2013; Eyley
84 and Thielemans 2014; Lu et al. 2014; Xie et al. 2018; Gan and Chow 2019). However,
85 the ionic repulsion between the charged sulfate groups is known to promote their
86 dispersibility much better than the CNC superficial charges introduced by phosphoric
87 acid hydrolysis (Camarero Espinosa et al. 2013). Nevertheless, stable suspensions can be
88 obtained when anionic phosphate half-ester surface groups are present (Camarero
89 Espinosa et al. 2013). In addition, the authors noted that nanocomposites of ethylene
90 oxide–epichlorohydrin copolymers prepared with CNCs extracted using phosphoric acid

91 showed a better reinforcing capability than those hydrolyzed using hydrochloric or
92 sulfuric acids.

93 When added to an elastomeric compound, fillers such as CNCs can significantly
94 improve the mechanical properties of the matrix phase (Siqueira et al. 2011; Zhang et al.
95 2014; Tian et al. 2017; Dittanet et al. 2019; Nie et al. 2019; Tao et al. 2019). Zhang et al.
96 (Zhang et al. 2014) observed that the NR tensile strength and modulus increased by 38%
97 and 433%, respectively, upon a 5 wt% CNC addition to NR, thereby resulting in a 16%
98 decrease in the elongation at break. Nie et al. (Nie et al. 2019) investigated the application
99 of CNCs in epoxidized NR (ENR). As expected, CNC addition effectively improved the
100 mechanical properties of the nanocomposite, although it reduced the elongation at break
101 with increasing CNC content, probably due to the formation of hydrogen-bonding
102 crosslinked networks, which, in turn, restricted the movement of the ENR molecular
103 chains. Dittanet et. al (Dittanet et al. 2019) reported that the tensile strength, tensile stress
104 at 200% elongation (200% modulus), and elongation at break increased with the addition
105 of CNC to NR. The authors used sulfuric acid-hydrolyzed CNC and observed a 30%
106 increase in the tensile strength for 2 wt% CNC addition.

107 Numerous studies (Siqueira et al. 2011; Gao et al. 2013; Parambath Kanoth et al.
108 2015; Chawalitsakunchai et al. 2019; Silva et al. 2019) have been performed using
109 multiple sources of cellulosic nanoparticles for elastomeric reinforcement, and some of
110 them have focused on investigating the properties of unvulcanized NR.

111 Although the CNC phosphoric acid extraction is already well established, there
112 are no reports on composites that use such CNCs in vulcanized NR extracted from latex.
113 Therefore, in this work, a comparative study was performed on the
114 morphological/structural and mechanical/rheological characteristics of NR composites
115 prepared with CNCs obtained from phosphoric and sulfuric acid hydrolysis. The
116 morphological and structural characteristics of the CNCs were studied using atomic force
117 microscopy (AFM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray excited photoelectron spectroscopy
118 (XPS), and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). Moreover, a new approach is proposed to
119 improve the properties of vulcanized NR compounds reinforced with CNC obtained by
120 hydrolysis with the less aggressive phosphoric acid instead of the widely used sulfuric
121 acid. In addition, this research strongly emphasizes the use of bio-based materials
122 obtained from renewable sources.

123

124 **Experimental**

125

126 Materials

127

128 NR was supplied in a centrifugated latex form by BDF Trade in Agricultural
129 Products of São Paulo, Brazil. CNCs were prepared with the acid hydrolysis method,
130 using a quantitative filter paper (CAAL Ltda., Brazil, ash content of 0.00013 g).
131 Orthophosphoric and sulfuric acids (Labsynth Ltda., Brazil) were used for acid hydrolysis
132 and glacial acetic acid (CAAL Ltda., Brazil) was used for the latex coagulation.

133

134 Preparation of CNC

135

136 Acid hydrolysis of filter paper (40 g) was performed with a 63 wt% sulfuric acid
137 (H_2SO_4) solution in a ratio of 1:10 (g/ml) at 45 °C for 50 min under continuous agitation.
138 In addition, acid hydrolysis of filter paper (40 g) was performed with a 10.5 M
139 orthophosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) solution in a ratio of 1:20 (g/ml) at 100 °C for 60 min under
140 agitation, using a method similar to that developed by Camarero Espinosa et al.
141 (Camarero Espinosa et al. 2013). The obtained suspensions were quickly cooled, diluted
142 with deionized water to 1000 mL, and centrifuged at 17,000 rpm for 10 min, followed by
143 three centrifugation processes of 5 min each to remove the excess acid present in the
144 suspension. The resultant precipitates were dialyzed against deionized water for 7 days
145 until a constant neutral pH was achieved. The suspensions of CNCs were then dispersed
146 using an Ultraturrax mixer and subsequently by ultrasonic tip treatment for 10 min to
147 prepare CNCs. The CNCs obtained from hydrolysis with sulfuric acid are hereafter
148 referred to as CNC-S, and those with phosphoric acid as CNC-P. For TGA, XRD, and
149 XPS analyses, the CNC-S and CNC-P samples were dried in a vacuum oven at a
150 temperature of 60 °C for 12 h.

151

152 Preparation of NR composites

153

154 To prepare NR composites, the amount of filler was calculated for final
155 concentrations of 2.5, 5.0, and 10.0 phr of CNCs according to the amount of NR in the
156 latex (60 wt%). The CNC dispersion in each sample was mechanically stirred for 2 h at
157 300 rpm at room temperature to obtain a homogeneous mixture. The final emulsions were
158 coagulated by the progressive addition of acetic acid solution with a molar concentration

159 of 3 mol/L. The coagulated rubber was washed with distilled water until a neutral pH was
 160 achieved. Subsequently, thin sheets of rubber were dried under vacuum at 60 °C until
 161 constant weight was achieved. NR composites with different CNC contents were prepared
 162 using a Mecanoplast two-roll mill (model C400 I) with 25 × 34 rpm rotation and 1:1.4
 163 friction. Table 1 shows the formulation of composites in parts per hundred parts of rubber
 164 (phr) with different contents of CNCs and unfilled rubber compound.

165

166 **Table 1** Formulation of the natural rubber (NR) compound and composites

Sample	NR	CNC	Zinc oxide	Stearic acid	MBTS ^a	TMTD ^b	Sulfur
NR	100	0	4	1	1	0.5	1.5
NR + CNC-S or P 2.5	100	2.5	4	1	1	0.5	1.5
NR + CNC-S or P 5	100	5	4	1	1	0.5	1.5
NR + CNC-S or P 10	100	10	4	1	1	0.5	1.5

167 ^a2-2'- Dithiobis(benzothiazole) ^b Tetramethylthiuram Monosulfide

168

169 The formulations of the NR compound and composites (Table 1) were prepared
 170 according to (Formela et al. 2016; Moonart and Utara 2019). The components were added
 171 sequentially and mixed for 5 min until the compound was completely homogenized. To
 172 obtain the cure time for vulcanization (t_{90}), vulcanization curves were obtained using an
 173 oscillating disc rheometer ODR 2000 (TEAM, Brazil), according to ASTM D-2084-11.
 174 The vulcanization was performed using a hydraulic press machine at a temperature of 160
 175 °C, running time of respective t_{90} , and 20 MPa pressure.

176

177 Characterization methods

178

179 *XRD*

180 The XRD analyses of the filter paper and CNC samples were performed in a
 181 Philips XPERT-MPD diffractometer, with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$), in the 2θ range
 182 from 5 to 40°, with steps of 0.02°, and soaking time of 2.5 s. The pristine filter paper was
 183 used as purchased, and the CNC samples, dried in a vacuum oven, were ground with a
 184 mortar and pistil and sieved through a 325 mesh. The crystallinity index (CI) was
 185 estimated by subtracting the amorphous halo (Park, Sunkyu, Baker, John O, Himmel,

186 Michael E, Parilla, Philip A and Johnson 2010) from the XRD curves, by creating a
187 baseline. The CI was calculated using Equation 1,

188

$$189 \quad CI(\%) = \frac{A_c}{A_t} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

190 where A_t is the total area of the XRD curves, and A_c is the sum of the peak areas
191 corresponding to the cellulose crystalline structure; both A_t and A_c were calculated after
192 the correction baseline.

193

194 XPS

195 XPS analyses were performed using a surface analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
196 with a monochromated Al-K α X-ray source (1486.6 eV). A resolution of 1 eV was used
197 for the survey scans. The peaks were deconvoluted using the Avantage software (Thermo
198 Fisher Scientific).

199

200 AFM

201 The CNCs were analyzed with a Bruker microscope using the Peak Force method
202 (Multi mold 8). The images were acquired using ScanAsyst-air probes (silicon tips on a
203 silicon nitride lever) at a scan rate of 1 Hz and 512 \times 512-pixel resolution. The nominal
204 spring constant of the cantilever was 0.4 N/m. The aqueous CNC suspensions were
205 diluted with distilled water. The samples were prepared using drops of CNC dilute
206 dispersions (0.1 mg/ml) deposited on mica substrate and dried at 25 °C. The diameter (d),
207 length (L), and aspect ratio (d/L) of the CNC samples were measured for 70 nanocrystals
208 in each CNC sample using Gwyddion Surface Data software.

209

210 TGA

211 The TGAs were performed using a Netzsch-brand equipment (model STA 449).
212 The analyses were performed in triplicate using 10 mg of each sample in alumina
213 crucibles. The samples were heated from room temperature to 1000 °C at a rate of 10 °C
214 /min under a nitrogen atmosphere with 20 ml/min of gas flow. The maximum degradation
215 temperature (T_{max}) and initial temperature of thermal degradation (T_{onset}) were obtained
216 from the derivative thermogravimetric (DTG) curves, with T_{onset} corresponding to the first
217 inflection point of the curves.

218

219 *SEM-FEG*

220 Specimens of NR and composites were analyzed using SEM-FEG (FEI,
221 INSPECT F50 SEM-FEG model). Micrographs were collected at an accelerating voltage
222 of 15 kV. Energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was used to analyze the semi-
223 quantitative chemical composition of the unfilled NR compounds and composites. The
224 samples were prepared by cutting with a diamond knife at a cryogenic temperature (-120
225 °C) in ultramicrotome (Leica, model EM FC6). The surfaces were sputter-coated with a
226 gold protective film (Balzers Sputter Coater).

227

228 *Mechanical tests*

229 The mechanical properties were measured using an Alpha Technologies universal
230 testing machine (model Tensometer T 2000) equipped with a 1 kN load cell. The
231 experimental procedure was performed with five replicate specimens in accordance with
232 ASTM D412-06. The tests were conducted at room temperature at a testing velocity of
233 500 mm/min.

234

235 *Crosslink Density*

236 The crosslink density (ν) values were determined by the swelling method using
237 Equation 2 (Flory and Rehner 1943; Mathew et al. 2001), where M_c is the molecular
238 weight between the crosslinks, calculated using Equation 3, v_n is the molar volume of the
239 solvent, ρ_p is the density of the polymer, and V_{rf} is the volume fraction of the rubber phase
240 in the swollen gel of the rubber vulcanizate.

241

$$242 \quad \nu = \frac{1}{2M_c} \quad (2)$$

243

244 where,

245

$$246 \quad M_c = \frac{-\rho_p v_n V_{rf}^{1/3}}{[\ln(1 - V_{rf}) + V_{rf} + \chi V_{rf}^2]} \quad (3)$$

247

248 χ is the interaction parameter between the polymer and solvent and is expressed by
249 Equation 4 (Flory and Rehner 1943; Mathew et al. 2001).

250

251
$$\chi = \beta + \frac{v_n}{RT} (\delta_s - \delta_p)^2 \quad (4)$$

252

253 where β is the lattice constant; δ_p and δ_s are the solubility parameters of the polymer and
254 solvent, respectively; R is the gas constant; and T is the absolute temperature.

255 V_{rf} , expressed in Equation 5, was calculated by considering only the fraction of the
256 rubber compounds, that is, by subtracting the fiber amount using the empirical density of
257 each filler, as described by Jacob et al. (Jacob et al. 2004).

258

259
$$V_{rf} = \frac{(d - fw)\rho_p^{-1}}{(d - fw)\rho_p^{-1} + A_s\rho_s^{-1}} \quad (5)$$

260

261 where d is the de-swollen weight of the sample, f is the volume fraction of the fiber, w is
262 the initial weight of the sample, ρ_s is the density of the solvent, and A_s is the amount of
263 solvent absorbed by the sample.

264 The swelling of the NR compound and composites was performed in toluene for 72 h
265 at room temperature using square samples with a width of 10 mm and a thickness of 2
266 mm.

267

268 **Results and discussion**

269

270 **XRD results**

271

272 Fig. 1 shows the X-ray diffraction curves obtained for the pristine filter paper and
273 the CNCs obtained by hydrolysis with sulfuric acid (CNC-S) and phosphoric acid (CNC-
274 P).

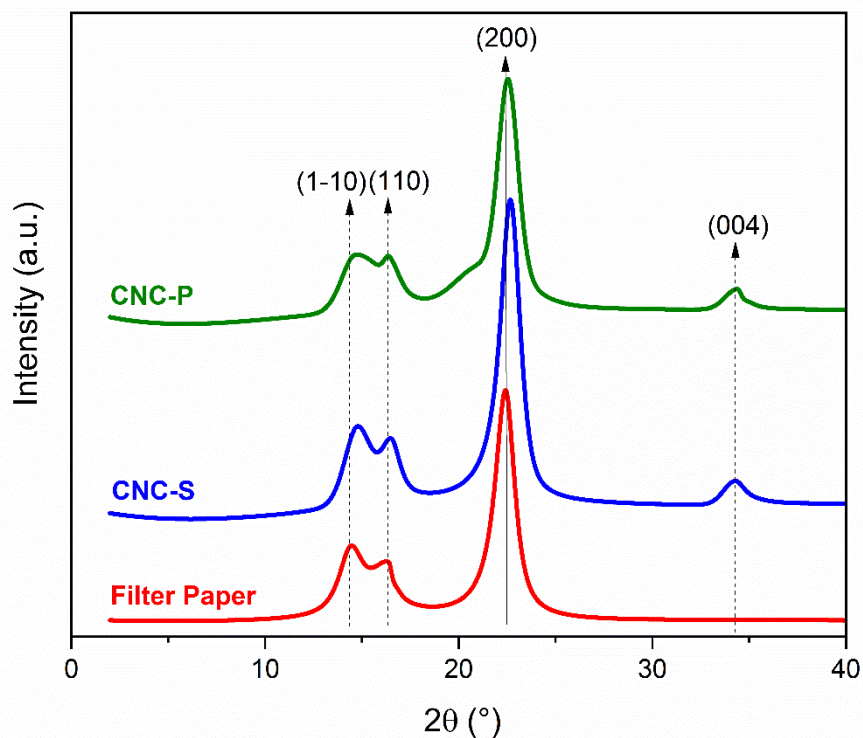


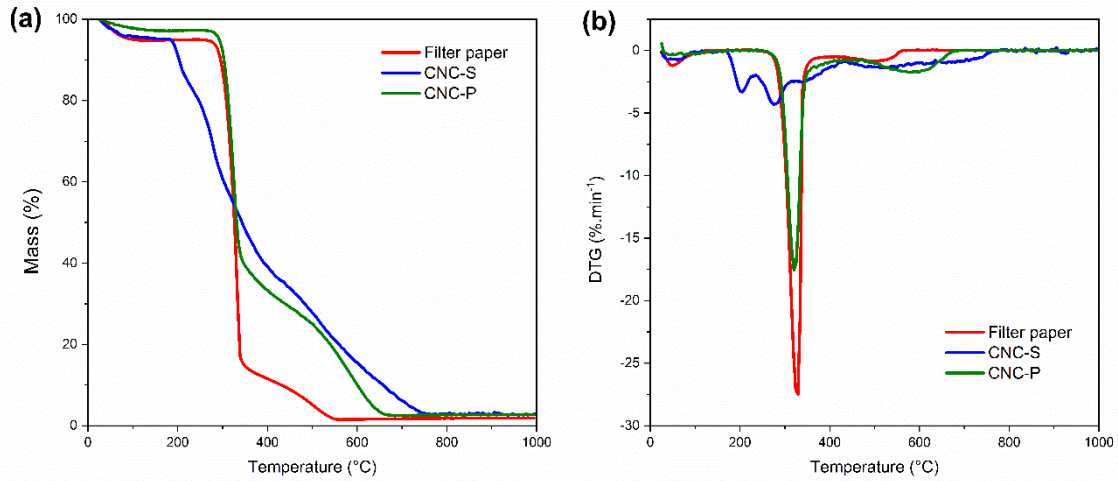
Fig. 1 XRD curves of the pristine filter paper and the CNCs extracted with sulfuric acid (CNC-S) and phosphoric acid (CNC-P)

All the curves presented have the characteristic peaks of cellulose I. The highest intensity peak at approximately $2\theta = 22.3^\circ$ corresponds to the crystallographic plane (200). The lower intensity peaks at approximately $2\theta = 14.5^\circ$ and 16.4° correspond to the lattice planes (1-10) and (110), respectively. These peaks are characteristic of cellulose I β .

The peak at $2\theta = 34.3^\circ$ is attributed to the (004) plane, and the increase in its intensity indicates a higher crystallinity compared to that of the pristine material (filter paper) (Kasyapi et al. 2013). Thus, the crystallinity index calculated for the filter paper, CNC-S, and CNC-P are 78%, 83% and 80%, respectively. These results indicate the removal of the amorphous regions of cellulose by the treatments performed (Martins et al. 2011; Thomas et al. 2015).

TGA results

293 The thermal stability of CNCs is a very important characteristic, as vulcanized
294 composites are processed at high temperatures. The TGA curves and their derivatives
295 obtained for the pristine filter paper, CNC-S, and CNC-P are shown in Fig. 2.
296



297
298 **Fig. 2** TGA (a) and DTG (b) curves of the pristine filter paper, CNC-S, and CNC-P
299

300 Figs. 2a and 2b show that the weight loss in all samples occurred in three major
301 steps during the heating ramp. The first occurred between room temperature and
302 approximately 100 °C, and can be attributed to loss of moisture. The loss of water in the
303 filter paper and CNC-S is 5 wt%, and that in CNC-P is approximately 3 wt%.

304 In the second stage, approximately between 150 and 400 °C, CNC-P and the
305 pristine filter paper present the same degradation behavior that occurred in a single step.
306 These samples exhibit the typical cellulose degradation behavior. At this stage, the
307 degradation starts from the depolymerization step, in addition to the dehydration and
308 decomposition of the glycosidic structure. The CNC-S sample exhibits a complex
309 degradation behavior that occurred in multiple steps (Fig. 2b). In the process of the CNC-
310 S degradation, the hydrolysis of the sulfated cellulose occurred initially and subsequently
311 the decomposition of the amorphous regions in the temperature range 150–300 °C,
312 followed by steps of dehydration and depolymerization that occurred between 300 and
313 415 °C (Roman and Winter 2004; Camarero Espinosa et al. 2013). The last stage,
314 approximately between the 500 and 750 °C, is related to the degradation of the
315 carbonaceous residues (Shen et al. 2017).

316 Table 2 shows the values of the initial thermal degradation temperature (T_{onset})
317 and maximum degradation temperature (T_{max}) obtained from the DTG curves (Fig. 2b),
318 and the residue content at 500 °C obtained from the TGA curves (Fig. 2a).

319

320 **Table 2** Onset degradation temperature (T_{onset}), maximum degradation temperature
321 (T_{max}), and residues at 500 °C, obtained from the TGA and DTG curves.

Sample	T_{onset} (°C)	T_{max} (°C)	Residues at 500 °C (%)
Pristine filter paper	275	227	5
CNC-S	170	276	28
CNC-P	278	320	25

322

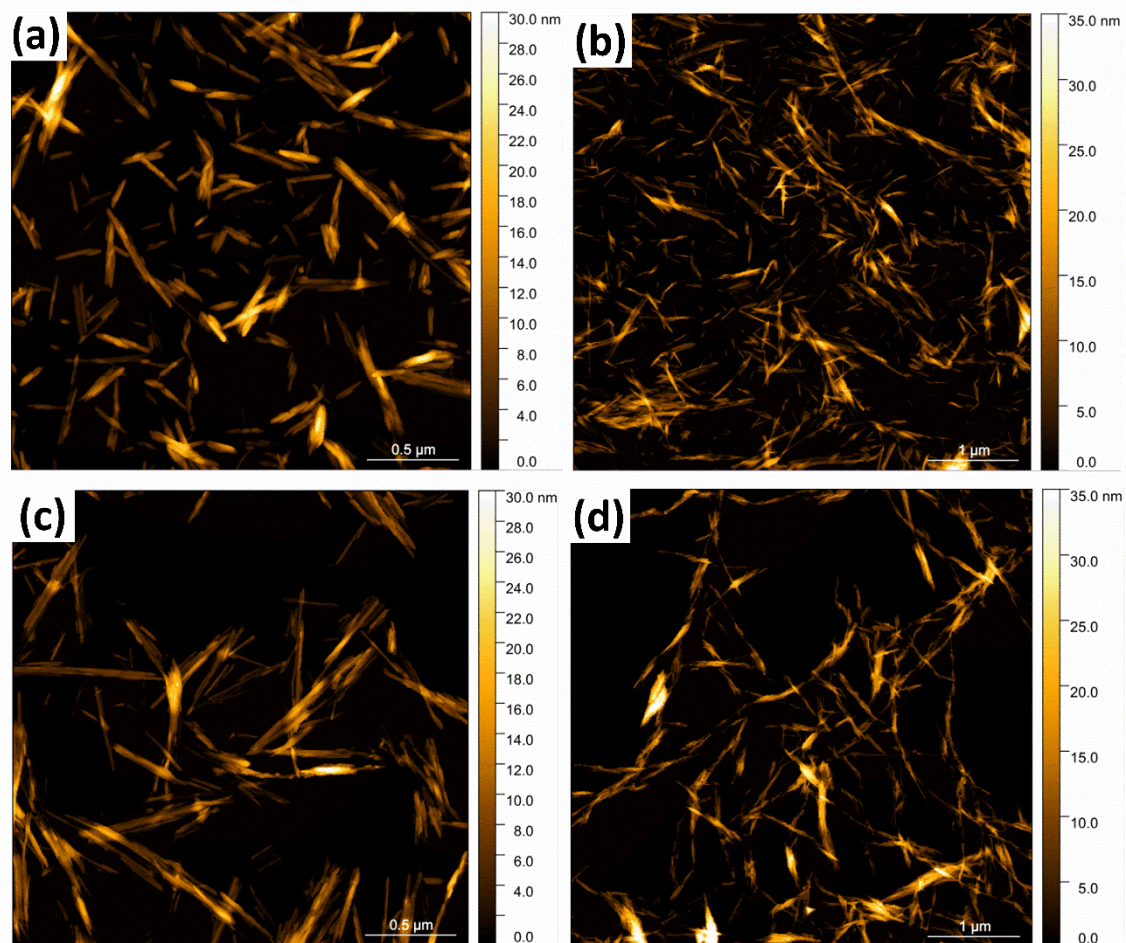
323 CNC-S showed lower thermal stability than CNC-P and the pristine filter paper.
324 This behavior can be attributed to the degradation of cellulose, which can be catalyzed by
325 sulfuric acid (Roman and Winter 2004). The residual mass at 500 °C of CNC-S and CNC-
326 P is higher than that of the filter paper. CNC-S and CNC-P have higher crystallinity than
327 the filter paper, and the energy required to break the intermolecular bonds is higher
328 (Huang et al. 2018).

329

330 AFM results

331

332 Fig. 3 shows AFM images at two different scales for CNC-S and CNC-P.



333

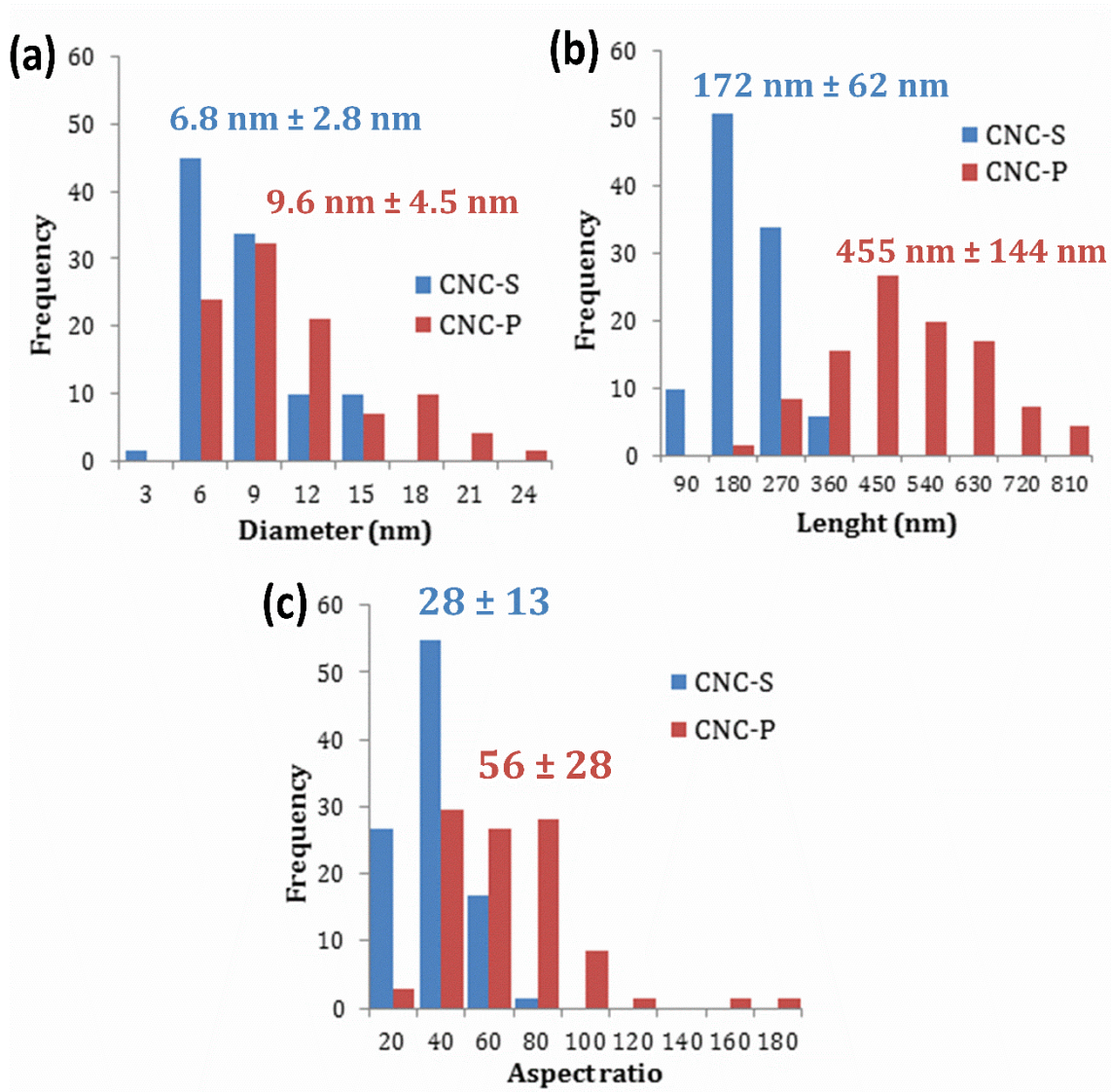
334 **Fig. 3** Topographic AFM images of CNC-S with scan sizes of 2.5 x 2.5 μm (a) and 5 x 5
 335 μm (b), and CNC-P with scan sizes of 2.5 x 2.5 μm (c) and 5 x 5 μm (d).

336

337 Clearly, the structures obtained from both hydrolysis conditions are found at the
 338 nanometer scale, and the particles exhibit the shape of a needle. Furthermore, it the
 339 nanocrystals tend to interconnect after the drying of the aqueous dispersion, forming
 340 agglomerates because of the formation of intermolecular hydrogen bond. Particularly, in
 341 the 2.5 x 2.5 μm-scan size AFM images, the CNC-P samples seem to be more
 342 agglomerated than the CNC-S ones. This behavior is expected because it is known that
 343 CNC-P has a lower density of surface electrostatic charges compared to CNC-S, which
 344 has sulfate groups grafted onto its surface (Camarero Espinosa et al. 2013).

345 The diameter (d) and length (L) were measured to estimate the dimensions of the
 346 nanocrystals found individually in the images. The distributions of the diameter, length,
 347 and the aspect ratio (AR), are illustrated in Fig. 4.

348



350

351 Fig. 4 Distributions of the diameter (a), length (b), and aspect ratio (c) of the CNC-S
 352 and the CNC-P samples, measured from AFM images

353

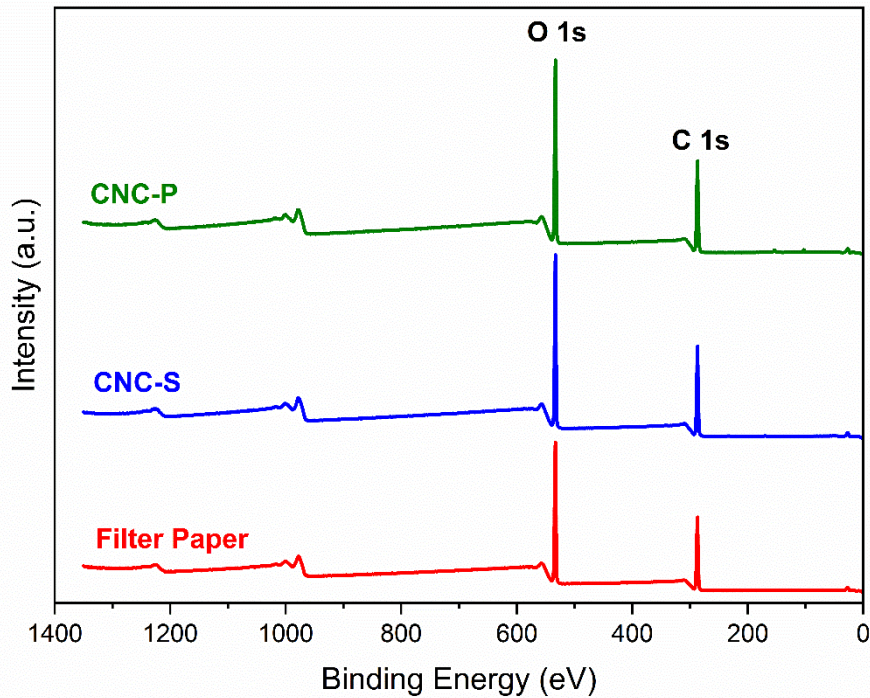
354 As shown in Fig. 4, CNC-S has smaller dimensions and a lower aspect ratio than
 355 CNC-P. It is possible to observe a slightly wider distribution in the values of the diameter,
 356 length, and aspect ratio for CNC-P, indicating that these nanocrystals are more irregular
 357 in size than CNC-S. These results do not agree with those reported in the literature
 358 (Dufresne 2012).

359

360 XPS analysis

361

362 Fig. 5 shows the survey photoemission spectra in the region between 0 and
 363 1400 eV of the pristine filter paper, CNC-S, CNS-P.
 364



365
 366 **Fig. 5** XPS survey spectra of the pristine filter paper, CNC-S, and CNC-P

367
 368 Peaks at 533 and 287 eV are observed for all samples and can be attributed to the
 369 presence of O1s and C1s, respectively (Ribeiro et al. 2015; Lima et al. 2016). According
 370 to the chemical structure of cellulose, formed by D-glucose units $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$, the presence
 371 of oxygen is mainly related to the hydroxyl groups, which can undergo oxidation and be
 372 converted into carboxyl groups, contributing to an increase in the intensity of the
 373 normalized O1s peak (Li et al. 2015). Table 3 shows the mass concentrations of the
 374 pristine filter paper, CNC-S, and CNC-P. A very small peak attributed to sulfur is
 375 observed at approximately 170 eV. However, the phosphorus peak (135 eV) was not
 376 detected in the survey spectra.

377
 378 **Table 3** C, O, and S mass concentrations and O/C ratio obtained by the survey spectrum
 379 for the pristine filter paper, CNC-P, and CNC-S.

Sample	% O	% C	%S	O/C
--------	-----	-----	----	-----

Pristine filter paper	42.9 ± 0.4	57.1 ± 0.4	0	0.75
CNC-S	43.5 ± 0.5	56.2 ± 0.5	0.3 ± 0.1	0.76
CNC-P	43.1 ± 0.3	56.9 ± 0.3	0	0.77

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393 Vulcanization characteristics

394

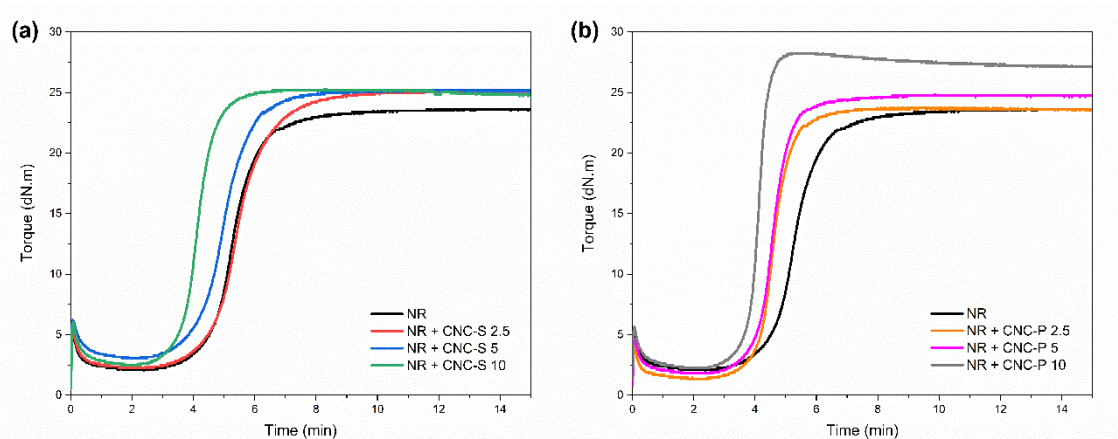
395

396

397

For CNC-S, the presence of sulfur on the sample surface (see Table 3) is due to the sulfate groups originating from the acid hydrolysis performed with sulfuric acid (Li et al. 2015). The sulfur concentration (0.3%) corresponds to 1.53 sulfate groups per 100 anhydro glucose units, according to the calculation described by Li et al. (Li et al. 2015). The value achieved for the sulfate groups is in agreement with that reported in CNC studies using sulfuric acid (Li et al. 2015; El Achaby et al. 2018). However, this value is close to the detection limit of the equipment (0.1%). Sulfate groups present on the surface of CNCs create an electrostatic repulsion between them, hindering their agglomeration. The presence of sulfate groups in CNC-S and the absence of phosphate groups in CNC-P explain the AFM images, as there is a greater amount of agglomerates in the nanocrystals extracted by sulfuric acid than in those extracted by phosphoric acid.

Fig. 6 shows the rheometric curves obtained for the NR compound and composites with CNC-P (NR + CNC-P) and CNC-S (NR + CNC-S) additions.



398

399

400

401

402

Fig. 6 Rheometric curves of (a) the NR compound without and with addition of CNCs extracted with H₂SO₄ (CNC-S) and (b) NR compound without and with addition of CNCs extracted with H₃PO₄ (CNC-P)

403 The vulcanization characteristics of the NR compound and composites, expressed
 404 in terms of maximum and minimum torque (M_H and M_L , respectively), pre-vulcanization
 405 time (scorch time, ts_2), optimal vulcanization time (t_{90}), torque variation (ΔM), and cure
 406 rate index (CRI), are summarized in Table 4.

407

408 **Table 4** Vulcanization characteristics of the NR compound without and with CNC
 409 addition, at 160 °C.

Sample	M_L (dN.m)	M_H (dN.m)	ts_2 (min)	t_{90} (min)	ΔM^a (dN.m)	CRI ^b (min ⁻¹)
NR	2.0	23.6	4.32	6.48	21.6	46.3
NR + CNC-S 2.5	2.3	25.1	4.32	6.91	22.8	38.6
NR + CNC-S 5	3.1	25.2	3.91	6.15	22.1	44.6
NR + CNC-S 10	2.5	25.3	3.45	4.91	22.8	68.5
NR + CNC-P 2.5	1.4	23.7	3.97	5.39	22.4	70.4
NR + CNC-P 5	1.8	24.9	3.85	5.34	23.0	67.1
NR + CNC-P 10	2.3	28.2	3.57	4.48	26.0	109.9

410

$$^a\Delta M = M_H - M_L$$

411

$$^b\text{CRI} = \text{Cure rate index} = 100 / (t_{90} - ts_2)$$

412

413 The addition of filler to the NR compound results in an increase in the maximum
 414 torque. This behavior indicates an increase in the stiffness of the vulcanized compound
 415 owing to the restriction of the rubber chain mobility caused by the reinforcement addition
 416 (Lopattananon et al. 2006). Composites with 10 phr CNC-P exhibit the highest values of
 417 maximum torque and ΔM , which are related to the degree of intermolecular crosslinking.

418 The addition of CNCs reduced the optimal vulcanization time and increased the NR
 419 cure rates, particularly for samples with CNC-P. The longer vulcanization time of CNC-
 420 S composites might be due to the presence of sulfate groups on the surface of the crystals,
 421 which was not observed for CNC-P (Abraham et al. 2012).

422

423 The zinc and other crosslinking agents used to prepare the composites generate
 424 active sites for crosslinking in the NR backbone. Furthermore, they favor the breakdown
 425 of cellulose hydrogen bonds, which allows them to participate in the crosslinked network.
 426 The OH groups present in the cellulose chemical structure form a complex with zinc, and
 427 this process is discussed in the next section (3.7) (Abraham et al. 2012). Thus, it is
 suggested that compounds with CNC-P have more available OH groups and lower surface

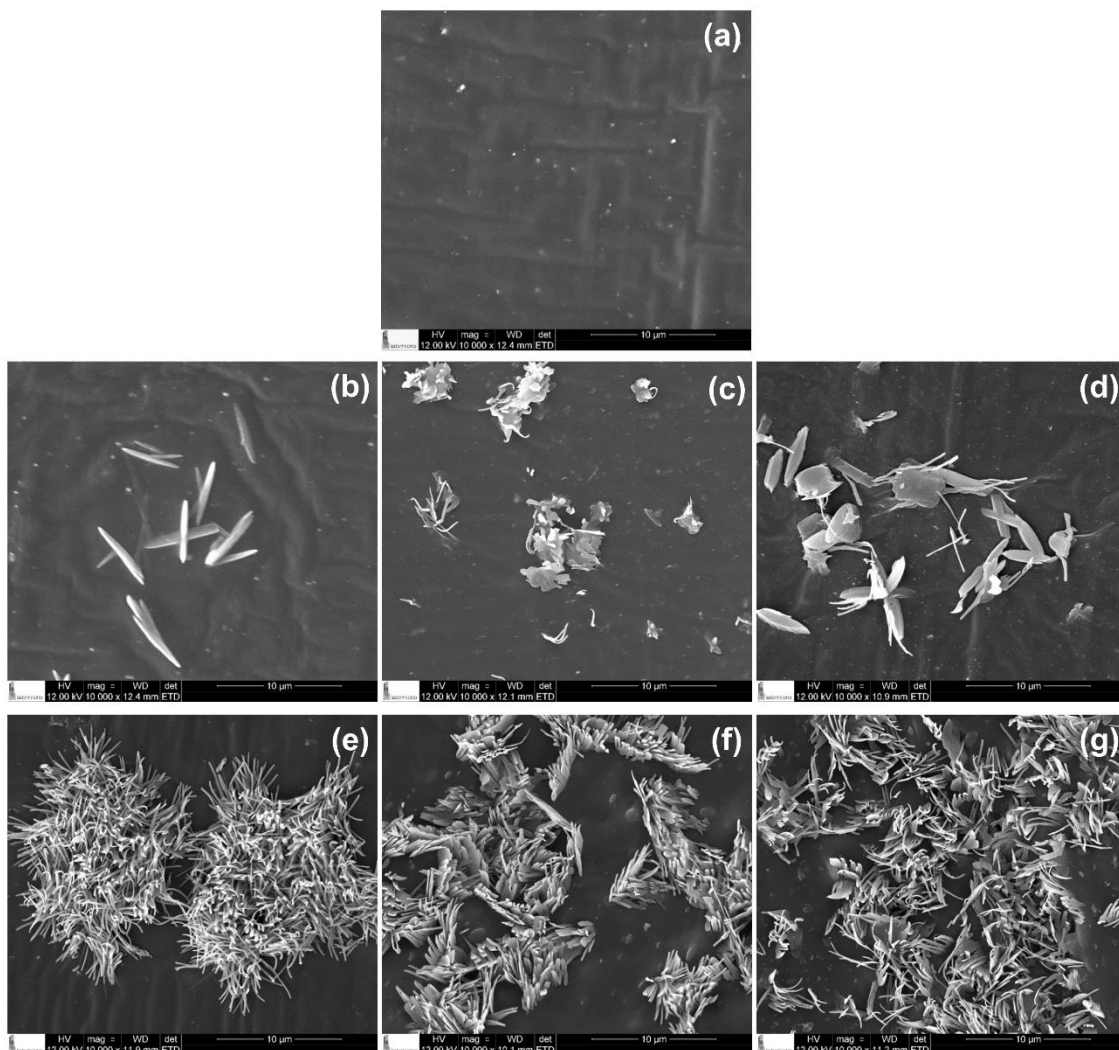
428 charges compared to those with CNC-S, allowing the curing reactions to occur more
429 rapidly. In addition, CNC-P particles have an average length 2.5 times longer than that of
430 CNC-S particles and twice the aspect ratio, contributing to a stronger interaction between
431 the filler and matrix phase.

432

433 Dispersion and network of CNC in NR nanocomposites

434

435 Fig. 7 shows the FEG-SEM images used to examine the dispersion of the CNC
436 composites. These images were compared to those of NR compounds.



437

438 **Fig. 7** SEM-FEG micrographs, at 10,000 times magnification, of the samples: NR (a),
439 NR + CNC-S 2.5 (b), NR + CNC-S 5 (c), NR + CNC-S 10 (d), NR + CNC-P 2.5 (e), NR
440 + CNC-P 5 (f) and NR + CNC-P 10 (g).

441

442 The morphologies of the composites differ from that of the NR compound.
443 Composites with CNC-S present platelet-shaped particles (Fig. 7b, 7c, and 7d) and
444 composites with CNC-P exhibit the form of needles (Fig. 7e, 7f, and 7 g). The filled and
445 unfilled NR compounds are formed by dispersed phase elements, such as vulcanization
446 additives, zinc oxide, and sulfur. The presence of vulcanization elements is more evident
447 in the NR compound (Fig. 7a).

448 EDS spectra of unfilled and filled NR compounds are shown in Fig S-1 of the
449 supplementary information. The results of the semi-quantitative EDS analysis confirm
450 the highest zinc and sulfur content in the dispersed particles on the cryofractured surface
451 of the NR compound. Considering the composites, the analysis indicates zinc and sulfur
452 contents in the particles dispersed in the CNC-P composite lower than in those dispersed
453 in the CNC-S composite. The CNC-P composites exhibit particle structures with flowers
454 blooming at the surface of the compounds (Fig 7e, f, and g), unlike those observed in the
455 CNC-S composites. Moreover, this structure probably results from the interaction
456 between the Zn and OH groups present on the cellulose surface, or even a cluster of CNCs.
457 The formation of these complexes is discussed in section (3.7).

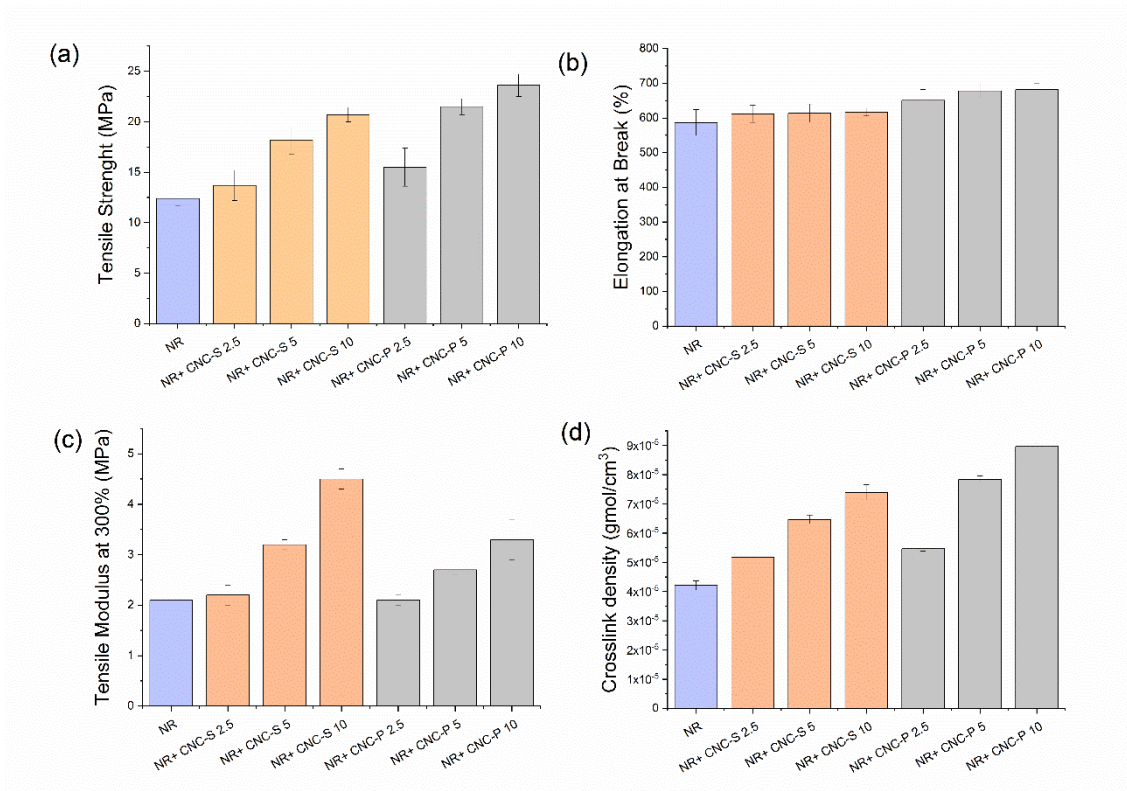
458

459 Mechanical properties of the nanocomposites

460

461 Mechanical and crosslink density tests were performed on the NR compound and
462 NR + CNC-S and NR + CNC-P composites, and the results are shown in Fig. 8.

463



464

465 **Fig. 8** Tensile tests of the NR compound and composites with different contents of CNC:
 466 tensile strength at break (a), elongation at break (b), modulus at 300% elongation (c), and
 467 crosslink density (d).

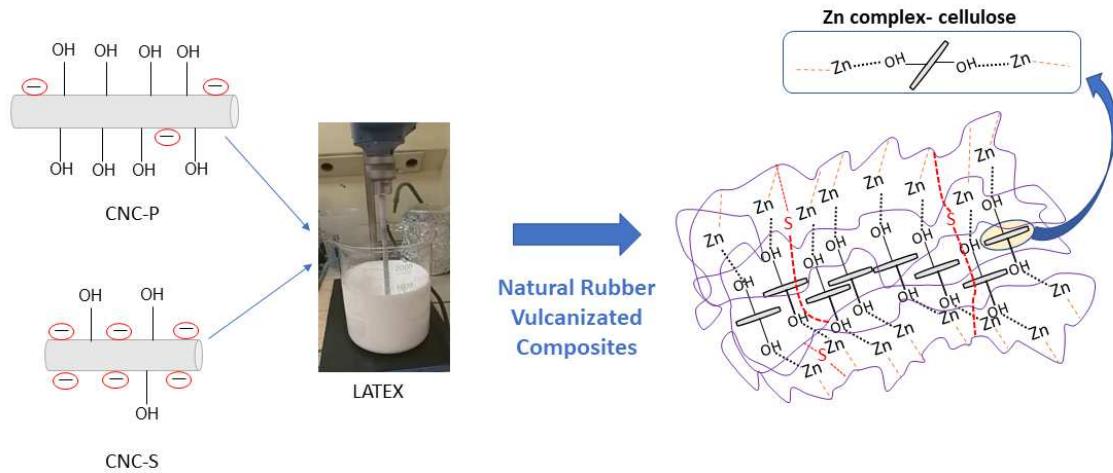
468

469 Fig. 8 shows an increase in the values of all mechanical tensile properties of the
 470 composites produced from CNC-S as well as CNC-P, compared to the NR compound.
 471 The values of the tensile strength at break, elongation at break, and 300% modulus
 472 increased by 90 %, 16 %, and 52 %, respectively, for composites produced with 10 phr
 473 CNC-P, whereas for composites produced with 10 phr CNC-S, they increased by 68 %,
 474 5 %, and 109 %, respectively, compared to the unfilled NR compound. The increase in
 475 tensile strength and modulus values as a function of the amount of the CNC added to the
 476 compound has already been reported (Visakh et al. 2012b; Abraham et al. 2013; Kumagai
 477 et al. 2019; Jardin et al. 2020).

478

479 Zinc oxide is a widely used vulcanizing agent in NR formulations, acting as an
 480 activator in this process. Combined with sulfur, the introduction of this compound as
 481 divalent metal ions allows reactions of oxidizing agents with alpha methylene carbon
 482 atoms or with polyisoprene double bonds (Stiehler and Wakelin 1947). These reactions
 result in an increase in the intermolecular forces in the NR compounds.

483 In this work, the introduction of Zn and vulcanizing agents with CNCs allowed
 484 the formation of Zn-cellulose complexes (Fig. 9) that allow enhancing the mechanical
 485 properties of the composites (Abraham et al. 2012; Thomas et al. 2015).
 486



487
 488 **Fig. 9** Schematic formation of the Zn-cellulose complex in vulcanized NR compounds
 489 with CNC addition
 490

491 Studies (Abraham et al. 2012, 2013) have shown that the introduction of
 492 crosslinking agents promotes sulfur reactions during vulcanization, allowing the breaking
 493 of the double bonds in the NR structure. The scission between the two active sites of NR
 494 and sulfur, which occurs during vulcanization, forms a crosslinking network. This
 495 crosslinking network forms with cellulose molecules, a stable complex with metal zinc,
 496 originating from zinc oxide. The addition of zinc oxide in the preparation of composites
 497 forms active sites in the NR by breaking the carbon double bonds and contributes to the
 498 deprotonation of cellulose which enables the breakdown of intramolecular and
 499 intermolecular hydrogen bonds by setting free OH groups on the cellulose surface. The
 500 alkaline latex medium and sonication process can also favor the scission of hydrogen
 501 bonds. The zinc reactions allow the OH groups to participate in the crosslinking network
 502 and the formation of a stable complex (Zn-cellulose) with the metal attached to the
 503 hydroxyl and carbon groups.

504 Therefore, the increase in the mechanical properties of NR compounds with the
 505 addition of CNCs is due to the synergistic effect of rubber-rubber, rubber-cellulose, Zn-
 506 cellulose, and cellulose-cellulose interactions (Fig. 9).

507 Furthermore, the high reinforcing effect of CNC-P can be attributed to the well-
508 known phenomenon of percolation of high-aspect-ratio fillers, which form a more rigid
509 continuous network of these nanoparticles compared to that formed by CNC-S.
510 Furthermore, the mechanical properties of the composites can be attributed to the
511 formation of a continuous cellulosic network when the threshold percolation is reached
512 (Siqueira et al. 2010).

513 Although a decrease in elongation was expected (Abraham et al. 2012; Thomas et
514 al. 2015) the results of the present study showed an increase, particularly for composites
515 with CNC-P. An increase of 5% and 16% in the elongation of the composites prepared
516 with 10 phr of CNC-S and CNC-P (Fig. 8b), respectively, can be attributed to an increase
517 in the nanocellulose content, which decreases the micro spaces between the CNCs and
518 the matrix. Moreover, the specific surface area of the reinforcement in contact with the
519 matrix is larger for CNC-P compared to CNC-S, according to the nanoparticle dimensions
520 reported in (Fig. 4); therefore, the elongation properties of the CNC-P composites are
521 higher (Thomas et al. 2015).

522 The crosslink density of the NR compound and composites was evaluated, and
523 the results presented in Fig. 8d show an increase with the addition of CNC to NR. The
524 most pronounced result was observed for the composite with 10 phr of CNC-P. It is
525 noteworthy that this sample exhibited the highest maximum torque and cure rate index
526 values in the rheometric test and the highest modulus and tensile strength values in the
527 mechanical test, compared to the NR compound and other composites.

528 Studies (Mathew et al. 2001; Arroyo et al. 2003; Cao et al. 2017; Correia and
529 Valera 2019) showed similar results for rubber matrix composites and explained that this
530 behavior may be related to the interfacial interaction between the filler and matrix,
531 because strong filler-matrix interactions can hinder solvent permeation in the rubber
532 matrix, reducing the volume of the absorbed solvent after the swelling test (Cao et al.
533 2017).

534

535 **Conclusion**

536

537 The influence of the introduction of CNCs on NR composites was investigated.
538 The CNCs were extracted by hydrolysis using phosphoric (CNC-P) and sulfuric (CNC-
539 S) acids. Compared to CNC-P, CNC-S had a lower thermal resistance because of the
540 sulfate groups acting as catalysts for thermal degradation and the lowest aspect ratio.

541 Considering the properties of the composites, it was concluded that the addition
542 of CNC-P to NR favored vulcanization. The CNC-P composites exhibited an increase in
543 the maximum torque (M_H) and cure rate index values and a reduction in the optimal
544 vulcanization time. This behavior might be due to the absence of phosphate groups on the
545 surface of the nanocrystals and to the higher amount of OH groups on the cellulose surface
546 compared to CNC-S.

547 Furthermore, the results of the mechanical tests confirmed that i) the CNC-P
548 particles with longer lengths and higher aspect ratio, compared to those of CNC-S,
549 resulted in the CNC-P composites having better mechanical properties; and ii) during the
550 vulcanization process (crosslinking), metal Zn and cellulose nanoparticles formed a
551 complex, increasing the adhesion between the CNCs and the elastomeric matrix.
552 Moreover, an increase in the stiffness of the NR compound with CNC addition was
553 confirmed through the increase in the elasticity modulus, enhancement in the tensile
554 properties, and increase in the maximum torque values, according to the rheometric test.
555 This behavior can be attributed to the strong charge-matrix interaction and the increase in
556 the crosslink density, which reduces the mobility of the rubber molecules.

557 Therefore, CNCs are promising reinforcing agents for NR compounds, mainly in
558 products such as rubber gloves or automotive components, which require the highest
559 mechanical strength.

560

561 **Acknowledgments**

562 The authors are grateful to Dr. Marcio Yee from UNIFESP, and the Chemistry
563 Department, USP. This research was supported by the LNNano – Brazilian
564 Nanotechnology National Laboratory (CNPEM/MCTI) during the use of the AFM
565 (proposal AFM-26460) open access facility.

566

567 **Author contributions**

568 All the authors contributed to the conception and design of the study. Material
569 preparation, data collection, and analysis were performed by Carla Almeda Correia,
570 Leticia Mota Oliveira, and Flavia Leticia Silva Freitas. The first draft of the manuscript
571 was written by Flavia Leticia Silva Freitas and Carla Almeda Correa, and all the authors
572 commented on and contributed to the previous versions of the manuscript. All authors
573 have read and approved the final manuscript.

574

575 **Founding**

576 Financial support by Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel
577 (CAPES) from to the PNPD project no. 88887.373623/2019-00 and Proex number
578 0727/2020.

579

580 **Data availability**

581 All relevant data are within the manuscript and available from the corresponding author
582 upon request.

583

584 **Declarations**

585

586 **Conflict of interest**

587 The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest about this manuscript.

588

589 **Ethical approval**

590 Not applicable.

591

592 **Consent to participate**

593 All authors were participated in this work.

594

595 **Consent for publication**

596 All authors agree to publish.

597

598 **References**

599

600 Abraham E, Deepa B, Pothan LA, et al (2013) Physicomechanical properties of
601 nanocomposites based on cellulose nanofibre and natural rubber latex. *Cellulose*
602 20:417–427. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-012-9830-1>

603 Abraham E, Elbi PA, Deepa B, et al (2012) X-ray diffraction and biodegradation analysis
604 of green composites of natural rubber/nanocellulose. *Polym Degrad Stab* 97:2378–
605 2387. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymdegradstab.2012.07.028>

606 Ali SD, Imiete IE, Orlandi ME, et al (2020) Novel CNC/silica hybrid as potential
607 reinforcing filler for natural rubber compounds. *J Appl Polym Sci* 137:48332.
608 <https://doi.org/10.1002/app.48332>

609 Arroyo M, López-Manchado MA, Herrero B (2003) Organo-montmorillonite as
610 substitute of carbon black in natural rubber compounds. *Polymer* 44:2447–2453.
611 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0032-3861\(03\)00090-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0032-3861(03)00090-9)

612 Camarero Espinosa S, Kuhnt T, Foster EJ, Weder C (2013) Isolation of thermally stable
613 cellulose nanocrystals by phosphoric acid hydrolysis. *Biomacromolecules* 14:1223–
614 1230. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bm400219u>

615 Cao L, Fu X, Xu C, et al (2017) High-performance natural rubber nanocomposites with
616 marine biomass (tunicate cellulose). *Cellulose* 24:2849–2860.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-017-1293-y>

618 Chawalitsakunchai W, Dittanet P, Loykulnunt S, et al (2019) Extraction of nanocellulose
619 from pineapple leaves by acid-hydrolysis and pressurized acid hydrolysis for
620 reinforcement in natural rubber composites. *IOP Conf Ser Mater Sci Eng*
621 526:012019. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/526/1/012019>

622 Correia CA, Valera TS (2019) Cellulose Nanocrystals and Jute Fiber-reinforced Natural
623 Rubber Composites: Cure characteristics and mechanical properties. *Mater Res*
624 22:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1980-5373-MR-2019-0192>

625 Dittanet P, Somphol W, Lampang TN, et al (2019) Natural rubber reinforced by
626 nanocellulose extracted from dried rubber leaves. *AIP Conf Proc* 2083:030008.
627 <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5094318>

628 Dufresne A (2012) *Nanocellulose: From nature to high performance tailored materials.*
629 De Gruyter, Berlin.

630 El Achaby M, Kassab Z, Barakat A, Aboulkas A (2018) Alfa fibers as viable sustainable
631 source for cellulose nanocrystals extraction: Application for improving the tensile
632 properties of biopolymer nanocomposite films. *Ind Crops Prod* 112:499–510.
633 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2017.12.049>

634 Eyley S, Thielemans W (2014) Surface modification of cellulose nanocrystals. *Nanoscale*
635 6:7764–7779. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c4nr01756k>

636 Flory PJ, Rehner J (1943) Statistical mechanics of cross-linked polymer networks I.
637 Rubberlike elasticity. *J Chem Phys* 11:512–520. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1723791>

638 Formela K, Hejna A, Piszczyk Ł, et al (2016) Processing and structure–property
639 relationships of natural rubber/wheat bran biocomposites. *Cellulose* 23:3157–3175.
640 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-016-1020-0>

641 Gan I, Chow WS (2019) Synthesis of phosphoric acid-treated sugarcane bagasse cellulose
642 nanocrystal and its thermal properties enhancement for poly(lactic acid)

643 nanocomposites. *J Thermoplast Compos Mater* 32:619–634.
644 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0892705718772866>

645 Gao TM, Huang MF, Xie RH, Chen HL (2013) Preparation and characterization of nano-
646 crystalline cellulose/natural rubber(NCC/NR) composites. *Adv Mater Res* 712–
647 715:111–114. <https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/AMR.712-715.111>

648 Habibi Y, Lucia LA, Rojas OJ (2010) Cellulose nanocrystals: Chemistry, self-assembly,
649 and applications. *Chem Rev* 110:3479–3500. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr900339w>

650 Huang L, Zhang X, Xu M, et al (2018) Preparation and mechanical properties of modified
651 nanocellulose/PLA composites from cassava residue. *AIP Adv* 8:025116.
652 <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5023278>

653 Jacob M, Thomas S, Varughese KT (2004) Mechanical properties of sisal/oil palm hybrid
654 fiber reinforced natural rubber composites. *Compos Sci Technol* 64:955–965.
655 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0266-3538\(03\)00261-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0266-3538(03)00261-6)

656 Jardin JM, Zhang Z, Hu G, et al (2020) Reinforcement of rubber nanocomposite thin
657 sheets by percolation of pristine cellulose nanocrystals. *Int J Biol Macromol*
658 152:428–436. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2020.02.303>

659 Kargarzadeh H, Huang J, Lin N, et al (2018) Recent developments in nanocellulose-based
660 biodegradable polymers, thermoplastic polymers, and porous nanocomposites. *Prog*
661 *Polym Sci* 87:197–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2018.07.008>

662 Kasyapi N, Chaudhary V, Bhowmick AK (2013) Bionanowhiskers from jute: preparation
663 and characterization. *Carbohydr Polym* 92:1116–23.
664 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.10.021>

665 Kumagai A, Tajima N, Iwamoto S, et al (2019) Properties of natural rubber reinforced
666 with cellulose nanofibers based on fiber diameter distribution as estimated by
667 differential centrifugal sedimentation. *Int J Biol Macromol* 121:989–995.
668 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2018.10.090>

669 Lavanya R, Natchimuthu N (2019) Decrystallization of cellulose under the influence of
670 elastomer-assisted mechanical and mechanochemical shear. *Bull Mater Sci* 42:168.
671 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12034-019-1852-y>

672 Li MC, Wu Q, Song K, et al (2015) Cellulose Nanoparticles: Structure-Morphology-
673 Rheology Relationships. *ACS Sustain Chem Eng* 3:821–832.
674 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acssuschemeng.5b00144>

675 Lima MCFS, Zaida do Amparo S, Ribeiro H, et al (2016) Aqueous suspensions of carbon
676 black with ethylenediamine and polyacrylamide-modified surfaces: Applications for

677 chemically enhanced oil recovery. Carbon 109:290–299.
678 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2016.08.021>

679 Lopattananon N, Panawarangkul K, Sahakaro K, Ellis B (2006) Performance of pineapple
680 leaf fiber-natural rubber composites: The effect of fiber surface treatments. J Appl
681 Polym Sci 102:1974–1984. <https://doi.org/10.1002/app.24584>

682 Lu Q, Lin W, Tang L, et al (2014) A mechanochemical approach to manufacturing
683 bamboo cellulose nanocrystals. J Mater Sci 50:611–619.
684 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-014-8620-6>

685 Martins MA, Pessoa JDC, Gonçalves PS, et al (2008) Thermal and mechanical properties
686 of the açai fiber/natural rubber composites. J Mater Sci 43:6531–6538.
687 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-008-2842-4>

688 Martins MA, Teixeira EM, Corrêa AC, et al (2011) Extraction and characterization of
689 cellulose whiskers from commercial cotton fibers. J Mater Sci 46:7858–7864.
690 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-011-5767-2>

691 Mathew AP, Packirisamy S, Radosch HJ, Thomas S (2001) Effect of initiating system,
692 blend ratio and crosslink density on the mechanical properties and failure
693 topography of nano-structured full-interpenetrating polymer networks from natural
694 rubber and polystyrene. Eur Polym J 37:1921–1934. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-3057(01)00067-2)
695 [3057\(01\)00067-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-3057(01)00067-2)

696 Moon RJ, Martini A, Nairn J, et al (2011) Cellulose nanomaterials review: Structure,
697 properties and nanocomposites. Chem Soc Rev 40:3941–3994.
698 <https://doi.org/10.1039/c0cs00108b>

699 Moonart U, Utara S (2019) Effect of surface treatments and filler loading on the properties
700 of hemp fiber/natural rubber composites. Cellulose 26:7271–7295.
701 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-019-02611-w>

702 Nie J, Mou W, Ding J, Chen Y (2019) Bio-based epoxidized natural rubber/chitin
703 nanocrystals composites: Self-healing and enhanced mechanical properties. Compos
704 Part B Eng 172:152–160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesb.2019.04.035>

705 Oliveira, MDM; Gonçalves ECP (2020) Impactos da SarS-CoV-2 na produção de
706 borracha natural do Estado de São Paulo. Análises e Indicadores do Agronegócio.
707 <http://www.iea.sp.gov.br/ftp/iea/AIA/AIA-67-2020.pdf> . Accessed 04 April 2023.

708 Pantamanatsopa P, Ariyawiriyanan W, Meekeaw T, et al (2014) Effect of modified jute
709 fiber on mechanical properties of Green Rubber composite. Energy Procedia
710 56:641–647. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2014.07.203>

711 Kanoth BP, Claudino M, Johansson M, et al (2015) Biocomposites from natural rubber:
712 Synergistic effects of functionalized cellulose nanocrystals as both reinforcing and
713 cross-linking agents via free-radical thiol-ene chemistry. *ACS Appl Mater Interfaces*
714 7:16303–16310. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.5b03115>

715 Park S, Baker JO, Himmel ME, Parilla PA and Johnson DK (2010) Cellulose crystallinity
716 index: measurement techniques and their impact on interpreting cellulase
717 performance. *Biotechnol Biofuels* 3:2–10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1754-6834-3-10>

718 Phanthong P, Reubroycharoen P, Hao X, et al (2018) Nanocellulose: Extraction and
719 application. *Carbon Resour Convers* 1:32–43.
720 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crcon.2018.05.004>

721 Ribeiro H, Da Silva WM, Neves JC, et al (2015) Multifunctional nanocomposites based
722 on tetraethylenepentamine-modified graphene oxide/epoxy. *Polym Test* 43:182–
723 192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymertesting.2015.03.010>

724 Roman M, Winter WT (2004) Effect of sulfate groups from sulfuric acid hydrolysis on
725 the thermal degradation behavior of bacterial cellulose. *Biomacromolecules* 5:1671–
726 1677. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bm034519+>

727 Shen XJ, Huang PL, Chen JH, et al (2017) Comparison of acid-hydrolyzed and TEMPO-
728 oxidized nanocellulose for reinforcing alginate fibers. *BioResources* 12:8180–8198.
729 <https://doi.org/10.15376/biores.12.4.8180-8198>

730 Silva MJ, Cena CR, Sanches AO, et al (2019) DBSA to improve the compatibility,
731 solubility, and infusibility of cellulose nanowhiskers modified by polyaniline in
732 reinforcing a natural rubber-based nanocomposite. *Polym Bull* 76:3517–3533.
733 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00289-018-2556-y>

734 Siqueira G, Bras J, Dufresne A (2010) Cellulosic bionanocomposites: A review of
735 preparation, properties and applications. *Polymers (Basel)* 2:728–765.
736 <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym2040728>

737 Siqueira G, Tapin-Lingua S, Bras J, et al (2011) Mechanical properties of natural rubber
738 nanocomposites reinforced with cellulosic nanoparticles obtained from combined
739 mechanical shearing, and enzymatic and acid hydrolysis of sisal fibers. *Cellulose*
740 18:57–65. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-010-9463-1>

741 Stiehler RD, Wakelin JH, (1947) Mechanism and Theory of Vulcanization. *Ind Eng*
742 *Chem* 39:1647–1654. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie50456a027>

743 Tao H, Dufresne A, Lin N (2019) Double-network formation and mechanical
744 enhancement of reducing end-modified cellulose nanocrystals to the thermoplastic

745 elastomer based on click reaction and bulk cross-linking. *Macromolecules* 52:5894–
746 5906. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.macromol.9b01213>

747 Thomas MG, Abraham E, Jyotishkumar P, et al (2015) Nanocelluloses from jute fibers
748 and their nanocomposites with natural rubber: Preparation and characterization. *Int*
749 *J Biol Macromol* 81:768–777. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2015.08.053>

750 Tian M, Zhen X, Wang Z, et al (2017) Bioderived Rubber-Cellulose Nanocrystal
751 Composites with Tunable Water-Responsive Adaptive Mechanical Behavior. *ACS*
752 *Appl Mater Interfaces* 9:6482–6487. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.6b16308>

753 Vanderfleet OM, Osorio DA, Cranston ED (2018) Optimization of cellulose nanocrystal
754 length and surface charge density through phosphoric acid hydrolysis. *Philos Trans*
755 *R Soc A* 376:20170041. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2017.0041>

756 Visakh PM, Thomas S, Oksman K, Mathew AP (2012a) Effect of cellulose nanofibers
757 isolated from bamboo pulp residue on vulcanized natural rubber. *BioRes* 7:2156–
758 2168. <https://doi.org/10.15376/biores.7.2.2156-2168>

759 Visakh PM, Thomas S, Oksman K, Mathew AP (2012b) Crosslinked natural rubber
760 nanocomposites reinforced with cellulose whiskers isolated from bamboo waste:
761 Processing and mechanical/thermal properties. *Compos Part A Appl Sci Manuf*
762 43:735–741. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesa.2011.12.015>

763 Wang J, Liu X, Jin T, et al (2019) Preparation of nanocellulose and its potential in
764 reinforced composites: A review. *J Biomater Sci Polym Ed* 30:919–946.
765 <https://doi.org/10.1080/09205063.2019.1612726>

766 Xie H, Du H, Yang X, Si C (2018) Recent Strategies in Preparation of Cellulose
767 Nanocrystals and Cellulose Nanofibrils Derived from Raw Cellulose Materials. *Int*
768 *J Polym Sci* 2018:. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/7923068>

769 Zhang C, Dan Y, Peng J, et al (2014) Thermal and mechanical properties of natural rubber
770 composites reinforced with cellulose nanocrystals from southern pine. *Adv Polym*
771 *Technol* 21448. <https://doi.org/10.1002/adv.21448>

772 (2018) Association of Natural Rubber Producing Countries (ANRPC). <http://conab.gov.br>.
773 Accessed 10 Jan 2021

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [GraphicalAbstractv.final.tif](#)
- [FigS1.pdf](#)