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**STRUCTURAL AND MAGNETIC BEHAVIOR OF FERROGELS OBTAINED BY
FREEZING THAWING OF POLYVINYL ALCOHOL/POLY(ACRYLIC ACID) (PAA)-
COATED IRON OXIDE NANOPARTICLES**

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ABSTRACT

Superparamagnetic ferrogels with high swelling ability and potential applications as solvent absorbers and stimuli-responsive drug delivery devices were obtained by a non-toxic and environmentally friendly route based on dispersion of poly(acrylic acid)-coated iron oxide nanoparticles (PAA-coated NPs) in poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) solutions followed by freezing-thawing. Presence of carboxylate groups arising from the PAA coating allowed hydrogen bonding formation between NPs and PVA and enabled the synthesis of optically homogenous, superparamagnetic materials formed by a homogenous distribution of NPs diffuse clusters in the PVA matrix. The addition of PAA-coated NPs produced a remarkable increase in crystallinity degree, thermal degradation and swelling percentage respect to the neat matrix, which demonstrates that ferrogels with improved properties can be obtained by this procedure. Thereafter, combination of a cryogenic technique with the use of non-toxic components and magnetic NPs coated by a pH sensitive polymer makes these ferrogels very promising for applications in the biomedical field.

Keywords: magnetic nanoparticles, ferrogel, magnetic properties, iron oxides.

1. INTRODUCTION

Polymer gels are wet and soft materials constituted by networks of flexible cross-linked chains with a fluid filling their interstitial space [1]. They are fascinating materials with multiple and diverse applications as separator agents, solvent absorbers, ion exchangers, diapers, drug delivery devices, etc [2-5]. Although these examples show that products based on hydrogels (arising from many different natural or synthetic polymers) have had an enormous impact in the field of medicine and patient care, today, new and more sophisticated applications, as stem cell research, drug delivery, tissue engineering, in vitro diagnostics, among others, require more than good chemical and mechanical properties from these materials [6-8]. Tuning of network porosity, affinity to specific therapeutic drugs and bio-molecules, responsiveness of the porous structure to external stimuli, control on architectural features, etc. are some of the design challenges to face, in order to prepare materials with potential clinical applications. Furthermore, from an ideal point of view, these characteristics should be attained by the use of non-toxic, non-expensive and biocompatible reactants and processing techniques.

Formation of hydrogels can be carried out by diverse techniques like chemical crosslinking, photo-polymerization, gamma or electron irradiation and freezing-thawing (F-T), among others. F-T is a cryogenic technique that has been successfully used for the crosslinking of a number of polymers [1, 9-10]. Main advantages associated with the use of F-T can be found in the good physical and mechanical properties of the gels obtained, the simplicity of the technique, the use of low temperatures and the absence of any leachable toxic crosslinking agents or other waste that can be harmful to the human body [11].

Hydrogels can be used as matrices for the development of new advanced functional materials like ferrogels with new and interesting magnetic and mechanical properties [12-15]. Ferrogels play an important role in the development of new devices of fundamental interest in the biomedical and pharmaceutical fields like sensors, artificial muscles, drug delivery devices, etc.

[16-18]. They are obtained by dispersion of magnetic NPs in a soft gel matrix and constitute one relevant example of nanostructured magnetic systems.

To obtain a ferrogel, incorporation of magnetic NPs can be performed following diverse procedures [11]. Among them, dispersion of preformed magnetic NPs (of a specific size, shape and coating) in a polymer solution that could be subsequently crosslinked, results attractive as a strategy to obtain nanocomposites with well controlled and predictable properties. Non-toxicity and biocompatibility of magnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (NPs), like magnetite (Fe_3O_4) and maghemite ($\gamma-Fe_2O_3$), make them the natural choice for the synthesis of materials with potential biomedical applications [17, 19-20]. Most of these applications require ferrogels with high filler concentrations (close proximity among NPs) and, at the same time, a good level of dispersion of NPs in the matrix. This is important because it has been demonstrated that extensive aggregation can eliminate many of the advantages associated with the use of nanometric fillers, especially when individuality of NPs is not preserved or in presence of macroscopic aggregation. More important, distribution of magnetic NPs in the matrix strongly controls final magnetic properties of ferrogels. In concentrated systems, the influence of magnetic dipolar interactions between closest neighbours becomes significant, affecting the macroscopic magnetic properties of the material. For this reason is fundamental both, to design strategies that enable the control of the dispersion level of NPs in the matrix and to understand the role of NPs distribution, the effect of the formation of assemblies and aggregates, and the influence of possible interactions between magnetic NPs on the final behaviour of materials, after and during fabrication. The importance of these variables on the magnetic properties of real nanocomposites is reflected in the large number of studies that have been reported regarding the magnetic response of iron oxide NPs and magnetic ferrites entrapped in different kinds of polymers, or as ferrofluids, as a function of concentration [21-26].

By proper selection of NPs coating, affinity between NPs and matrix can be favored, leading to the improvement of the dispersion level of NPs in the matrix and to the formation of well

dispersed and robust ferrogel systems. Furthermore, NPs coating can add special functionalities and responsiveness to the final material, enhancing their potential applications.

PVA, a well-known biocompatible polymer with a good gel forming capability, is an ideal candidate for the synthesis of ferrogels and has been previously used as matrix to disperse metallic and magnetic NPs for diverse applications [27-34]. Poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) is a biocompatible, pH-responsive polyelectrolyte (pKa 4.5) that provokes little antigenic reaction *in vivo* [35]. Because of ionization of carboxylic acid groups, charge density of PAA chains is strongly dependent on pH. Hence, PAA is very sensitive to pH and ionic strength, which make it very useful for the design of polymer networks with stimuli-responsive load and release abilities [36-39]. In fact, acrylic acid has already been used for the synthesis of inter-penetrating networks (IPNs) and copolymers that exhibit thermo-, electro- and pH-responsive behavior [35, 37]. More recently, PAA proved to be useful for the synthesis of PAA-coated magnetic NPs with the ability to adsorb basic dyes and basic proteins [40], to enhance the mobility of magnetic NPs with potential applications in groundwater remediation applications [41], for the synthesis of controlled magnetic aggregates, [42] and for the synthesis of Janus NPs that can be reversibly self-assembled by controlling pH [43-44]. Thus, PAA could be an interesting choice as possible coating of magnetic NPs forming ferrogels.

The main objective of this work is to synthesize ferrogels by dispersion of functional, PAA-coated magnetic NPs in PVA aqueous solutions followed by physical crosslinking of the polymer chains by a F-T method. The general idea behind this work is that the presence of PAA in the surface of NPs could facilitate the formation of strong hydrogen-bond interactions between NPs and the PVA matrix leading to well dispersed ferrogels and, at the same time, produce hybrid networks which potentially might show absorption and release capabilities controlled by pH.

As a first and important step in this direction we studied the effects that these PAA-coated NPs have on the structure, thermal properties and swelling capabilities of PVA hydrogels and the effect that the extent of NPs aggregation have on the magnetic properties of the final systems. In all

cases we compared the obtained results with equivalent systems obtained using non-coated (only stabilized by charge) magnetic NPs obtained by traditional coprecipitation methods. This allow us to analyze, not only the influence of coating on the dispersion level of obtained nanocomposites, but also the effect of morphology of NPs distribution on the physical (melting temperature, crystallinity degree, crosslinking density) and magnetic properties (magnetization as a function of applied field, coercive field as a function of temperature and Field-Cooling and Zero-Field-Cooling curves) of the obtained ferrogels.

To our knowledge, this is the first time in which this type of poly(electrolyte) coated NPs are used for the synthesis of ferrogels through a non-toxic and environmentally friendly synthesis and processing route.

2. EXPERIMENTAL

Ferrogels were prepared by crosslinking PVA-magnetite aqueous dispersions of different concentrations. Aqueous ferrofluids containing PAA-coated and non-coated NPs with a size of about 10 nm were kindly supplied by NANOGAP Company, Spain. Presence of PAA on the surface of the particles was confirmed by FTIR (see Figure S1 in the supplementary material). Poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA from Sigma-Aldrich, average molecular weight of 93,500 g/mol and hydrolysis degree of 98-99%) solutions were first prepared by mixing 10 g of polymer and 100 ml of distiller water at 85 °C under continuous stirring for 4 h. After this process, calculated volumes of PAA-coated or non-coated NPs aqueous dispersions (previously sonicated by 30 min, were mixed with 25 ml of the PVA solution to give stable dispersions with approximately 6 wt.% and 9 wt.% of uncoated and coated magnetic NPs, respect to the total content of solids. These dispersions were poured into a mould and frozen for 1h (F,-18 °C). Then, the solution was allowed to thaw at room temperature (T, 25 °C) for the same time. This F-T process was repeated 3 times. Throughout this paper the following nomenclature for samples is used: *6PAA*: ferrogel with 6 wt.% of PAA-coated

NPs; *9PAA*: ferrogel with 9 wt.% of PAA-coated NPs; *6NC*: ferrogel with 6 wt.% of non-coated NPs and *9NC*: ferrogel with 9 wt.% of non-coated NPs.

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, Zeiss ULTRA plus instrument) was used to determine the dispersion level of NPs in the matrix. Samples were swollen, frozen, lyophilized and then cryofractured with N₂ liquid before testing. Differential Scanning Calorimetric (DSC) measurements were carried out in a Shimadzu DSC-50 from room temperature to 250 °C at 10 °C/min, under N₂ atmosphere. The melting temperature (T_m) and the crystallinity degree were taken from the obtained curve. Before DSC analysis, gels samples were dried for 48 h at 37 °C. The degree of crystallinity (X_{cr} %) was calculated from the following equation:

$$X_{cr} \% = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta H^0 \times W_{PVA}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where ΔH was determined by integrating the area under the melting peak over the range 190-240 °C and ΔH^0 was the heat (138.6 J/g) required for melting a 100% crystalline PVA sample [45] and W_{PVA} is the mass fraction of the matrix.

To study the possible structures or agglomeration of the NPs within gel, Small-angle X-ray (SAXS) experiments were performed in the SAXS line of the Brazilian Synchrotron Light Laboratory (LNLS).

Thermogravimetric (TGA) studies were performed in a Shimadzu TGA-DTGA 50 from room temperature to 900 °C at 10 °C/min under air atmosphere. Degradation temperature (T_p) and iron oxide content, reported as the fully oxidized crystalline phase, Fe₂O₃, (Fe_2O_3 wt.%) were obtained from these measurements.

To perform gel fraction ($GF\%$) measurements, a slice of each sample was placed in oven at 37 °C until no change in its mass was observed. Each sample was immersed into distilled water at room temperature for 4 days to rinse away un-reacted species. Subsequently, the immersed sample was removed from distilled water and dried at 37 °C until constant weight was reached. Therefore the gel fraction can be calculated as follows:

$$GF\% = \frac{W_f - W_F}{W_i - W_F} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where W_i and W_f are the weights of the dried hydrogels before and after immersion respectively, and W_F is the weight of the used filler.

Swelling determinations were carried out in saline solution (pH = 7.4) at 25 °C. All samples were dried before immersion at 37 °C for 48 h. The equilibrium swelling degree (M_∞ %) was determined by the following equation:

$$M_\infty \% = \frac{M_f - M_i}{M_i} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where M_i is the weight of the samples after immersion and M_f is the weight of the sample at equilibrium water content.

Magnetic properties were analyzed using a Superconducting Quantum Interference Device (Quantum Design, MPMS, XL). Magnetization curves as a function of applied field were obtained at different temperatures from 5 to 300 K between -20 and 20 kOe. Field-Cooling and Zero-Field-Cooling (FC/ZFC) curves were obtained in the temperature range from 5 to 350 K under an external applied field of 50 Oe. Ms values were expressed per gram of uncoated oxide, as emu/g Fe₂O₃.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Morphology of Ferrogels.

Optical images of ferrogels can be observed in **Figure 1** (a, d). A clear difference in homogeneity can be observed between samples prepared with PAA-coated and non-coated NPs pointing to higher extension of aggregation for ferrogels obtained with non-coated fillers (apparent differences in color between coated and non-coated NPs could be associated to a slightly higher level of surface oxidation in the case of PAA-coated NPs that does not seem to have any influence on the magnetic properties of the materials, as will be shown below). This is also observed in FESEM images (Fig. 1) of the fracture surface of ferrogels. Micrographs show the formation of separated micrometric compact

aggregates in samples modified with non-coated NPs, whereas samples prepared with PAA-coated NPs present a more homogeneous structure characterized by diffuse NPs clusters arranged on the whole sample. This is probably a consequence of both, improved initial stability of PAA-coated particles in the colloidal dispersion and favorable hydrogen bond interactions between the surface coating (PAA) and PVA chains of the hydrogel [46].

3.2. Thermal Properties and Network Structure.

Several mechanisms have been proposed trying to explain the crosslinking process occurring by F-T. Some authors consider that during freezing stages polymer concentrates in regions between ice crystals, promoting the generation of PVA crystallites. These crystallites would be responsible of gel formation, acting as crosslinking points between PVA chains. Upon thawing stage and melting of ice crystals, a porous matrix would be generated formed by polymer-poor regions embedded in the surrounding polymer-rich gel. During consecutive F-T cycles, ice crystals would tend to preferentially form in the pores, increasing crystallinity degree of the gel, and giving a more resistant material. [1, 9-10] Although this is the general accepted idea, other mechanisms pointing to the possibility of hydrogen bonding as the inducing interaction responsible for the formation of the physical network [35,47] and even the occurrence of chemical crosslinking processes arising from the creation of free radicals formed by shear during ice grow, have been proposed [48].

In any case, presence of NPs could strongly influence both, the formation process of the network and the final properties of the materials. This effect can be even more important for particles stabilized with coatings that can form strong bonds with chemical groups of the host. This is the case of PAA, which presents available carboxylic acid groups in its structure. NPs effect on the network can be revealed by analysis of the thermal and physical properties of the final ferrogels. By analysis of samples with a similar content of Fe_2O_3 wt.% (11-12 wt%), it is clear that T_p , T_m and X_{cr} increase with the presence of PAA-coated NPs and decrease with the addition of non-coated NPs respect to the neat matrix. (Table 2). T_m showed a small increase for PAA-coated based systems

respect to the neat PVA hydrogel. On the contrary, addition of non-coated NPs produced a slight decrease on this value. This could be associated with a moderate increase and decrease of the PVA crystal size respect to the hydrogel respectively. Crystallinity also showed a markedly decrease in the case of non-coated systems, whereas the opposite behavior was observed for hydrogels modified with PAA-coated NPs. The effect of the presence of NPs on the degradation temperature of nanocomposites was also important. In the case of ferrogels with a higher level of dispersion (obtained with PAA-coated NPs), T_p increased almost 50°C respect to the neat hydrogel. This is in agreement with the expected behavior for ferrogels with a good dispersion of NPs in the matrix [49]. As reported by Goiti et al., even small amounts of well dispersed magnetite NPs are effective in shifting T_p to higher values. This effect has been associated to restrictions in polymer chain mobility and reduction of diffusivity of attacking agents within the polymer matrix, both due to the polymer-filler interactions [49].

Results presented above suggest different roles for both kinds of NPs in the matrix. As mentioned, PAA-coated NPs can easily form hydrogen bonding through their carboxyl groups with OH groups of PVA [35]. This enables a strong interaction of NPs with the PVA chains even before the crosslinking process starts, i.e. before formation of the gel. It seems possible that the intimate contact between NPs and polymer could facilitate nucleation of big crystals in the PVA matrix, explaining the higher values of X_{cr} and T_m for these nanocomposites respect to unmodified PVA.

The crosslinking density of the gel can be inferred by the $GF\%$. As can be seen in table 2, $GF\%$ did not increase with the presence of PAA-coated NPs and shows a marked increase for non-coated NPs. Moreover, swelling increased for the PAA modified samples, and decreased for the non-coated modified systems (with high $GF\%$). As described above, models proposed for cryogel formation state that ice crystals formed during the freezing stage promote the generation of PVA crystallites by increasing, locally, the concentration of polymer chains through the formation of “polymer fences” around ice. Then, these crystallites would act as entanglements for pendant chains bridging the neighbouring crystallites [9]. Within this framework, results obtained for systems

modified with PAA-coated NPs are unexpected. The increase in X_{cr} observed for PAA-coated NPs gels did not seem to affect the crosslinking density of the system. This would indicate that crystalline regions in the PVA could be acting as physical crosslinks but only to a small degree. Formation of a heterogeneous dispersion of big crystals in the network would produce an increase in the crystallinity degree and melting temperature of the system, with a poor contribution to the physical gelation of PVA, explaining the observed results. On the other hand, some authors [35,47] have claimed that the predominant factor in the gelation of PVA hydrogels is the formation of physical crosslinks by hydrogen bonding between hydroxyl groups of PVA and not the formation of crystallites. In presence of PAA, an increase in hydrogen bonding between PAA-coated NPs (plenty of carboxylic groups) and PVA chains could be expected to occur, at expenses of a decrease in hydrogen bond self-association between PVA chains. However, the extent in which the interaction between PAA-coated NPs and PVA can contribute to the formation of crosslinked regions is, at this point, not completely understood.

In the case of non-coated NPs, the high increase in the $GF\%$ and the decrease in the $M_{\infty}\%$ indicate that these gels are more crosslinked than the matrix. However, X_{cr} decreased. We propose that NPs aggregates formed in this system from the very beginning of processing could be acting as additional physical crosslinking points conducting to a less crystalline matrix but to a more crosslinked ferrogel.

It is important to note that ferrogels obtained using PAA-coated NPs showed an important increase in swelling respect to the neat matrix (almost 50%). This effect is probably a consequence of the presence of carboxylate groups on the surface of magnetic NPs. At physiological pH (7.4), most of carboxylic groups are present as carboxylate anions. Under these conditions, electrostatic repulsion between ions of the same charge and the osmotic imbalance between the interior and exterior of the gels cause further expansion of the 3D polymer network [50] similar extra expansions have been observed for cationic polymer gels when environmental pH decreases below a critic value [39]. Hence, by the only addition of PAA-coated NPs and without the use of any other

comonomer, PVA hydrogel was transformed in a ferrogel with improved swelling ability, crystallinity and degradation temperature and potential pH-responsive characteristics. All these results would indicate that PVA/PAA-coated NPs based ferrogels could be very interesting candidates for drug delivery and other biomedical applications.

3.3. SAXS experiments.

Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) is a powerful technique to determine structural organization of NPs in a polymer matrix and has been already successfully used in the analysis of ferrogels [51-53].

In this work, SAXS was used as a semi-quantitative tool for the structural and comparative analysis of coated and non-coated NPs dispersions in PVA hydrogels. Although the restricted range of the obtained SAXS spectra does not allow performing a comprehensive study of the real ferrogels structure, some general trends can be obtained, useful for a comparative and semi-quantitative analysis. Figure 2 shows the Log-Log plot of $I(q)$ vs q for ferrogels obtained with PAA and non-coated NPs. SAXS experimental curves display three and two different scattering regions, respectively. The existence of a third power-law regime describing agglomerates has already been observed by Hernandez et al. [53]. At low q values, both samples showed a power-law dependency of the SAXS intensity of the form $I(q) = I_0 q^{-\alpha}$, where I_0 is a constant and α is related to the correlation length on the material (which can be determined from the slope of the linear part of the Log-Log plots) [54]. For samples obtained with non-coated NPs, the low q region has a slope of -1.3 and -1.5, for 6 wt.% and 9 wt.% respectively, values that are close to those reported for dilute ferrofluids suspended in polymer gels [55].

Using Guinier formula $I(q) = G \exp(-q^2 R_g^2 / 3)$ where G is the Guinier prefactor, we calculated the radius of gyration, R_g , of the scattering objects [56]. The obtained values were approximately 19 and 11 nm for systems modified with coated and non-coated NPs respectively. Assuming that shape of the largest dispersed structure is a sphere, and using $D = 2(5/3)^{1/2} R_g$ (where D is the diameter of

the object), we obtained sizes of approximately 49 nm for samples modified with PAA-coated NPs and 28 nm for gels with non-coated NPs. Both values are greater than the size of the individual NPs. These values are presented in **Table 1**. Based on these preliminary results, and considering FESEM images, samples could be represented as formed by a distribution of micrometric NPs aggregates constituted by smaller NPs clusters. The nature of these aggregates (distance between particles, shape, etc.) seems to depend on the nature of NPs coating. In the case of non-coated samples, big aggregates are compact and form well defined NPs rich zones in the matrix. This is probably a consequence of the absence of coating that induces aggregation and close contact between NPs. On the other hand, PAA-coated NPs, with a stronger affinity by PVA, form smaller, more diffuse aggregates (larger separation between NPs) distributed in the whole sample (see Figs. 1 e-f). This behaviour points to a lower tendency to aggregation for PAA-coated NPs in the PVA gel which is attributed to the stabilizing effect of PAA and its strong interactions with the PVA matrix.

In the high q -regime (Porod regime) all samples show a decay of the scatter intensity with q^{-4} characteristic of Porod scattering from sharp interfaces and related to the individual particles [57]. As we mentioned previously, in the case of samples with PAA-coated NPs, three linear regions are identified while for ferrogels with non-coated NPs only two regions are observed. We associated these difference on the α value to different correlation scales on the characteristic length in the material. Hence, it would indicate that in samples with PAA-coated NPs different structures, related with different length scales, coexist.

To facilitate the analysis we replot the data of figure 2 as $q^4 I(q)$ vs. q (see inset). In the scattering profile of samples modified with PAA-coated NPs, a well defined peak can be distinguished, whereas in samples modified with non-coated NPs two peaks are observed. The first peak gives a value of about 7.2 and 7.7 nm for samples prepared with coated and non-coated NPs respectively (for q range values where $\alpha = 4$), and is mainly associated with the size of NPs in the clusters. The second peak observed for samples prepared with non-coated NPs (at lower value of q and below the characteristic q values of particles sizes) is associated to the cluster size. From this

peak, a value of approximately 40 nm was obtained, consistent with the Guinier approximation and, as we will see later, in complete correspondence with the magnetic properties.

For samples modified with PAA-coated NPs a peak for low values of q was not observed. This could be because of the low compactness of the sample which is associated with a low intensity of the scattered wave (not observed) or because the value of q is below the lowest measured (see [53]). In summary, both FESEM and SAXS experiments show that samples were formed by micrometric aggregates dispersed in the matrix, and that these aggregates are constituted by smaller NPs clusters. Samples prepared with non-coated NPs seem to present a more compact and less branched internal structure than aggregates formed by PAA-coated NPs, i.e. the distance between NPs in samples prepared with PAA-coated NPs would be greater than in the case of aggregates formed by non-coated NPs. This is clearly a consequence of the presence of the PAA coating on the surface of NPs.

3.4. Magnetic Properties.

As described above, PAA-coated ferrogels showed a higher level of dispersion when compared with systems obtained with non-coated NPs. However, as extent of aggregation, formation of aggregates and distance between NPs in the clusters can strongly influence the magnetic properties of ferrogels, the study of the real magnetic response of final materials is of paramount importance.

Magnetization hysteresis loops of the samples were obtained at two different temperatures (5 and 300 K) at a maximum applied field of 20 kOe (**Figure 3**). All samples measured at room temperature showed a relatively high saturation magnetization (M_s). These asymptotic values are 50.1, 50.0, 50.1 and 50.0 emu/g Fe_2O_3 for samples 6PAA, 9PAA, 6NC and 9NC, respectively. These values are smaller than expected for well-crystallized bulk Fe_3O_4 with a M_s of 90 emu/g [58]. Decrease in M_s respect to the bulk value could be a consequence of different contributions like surface disorder and low crystallinity that explain the large variability of M_s values found in the

literature between samples obtained by different procedures and under different conditions. For example, Xu et al. [40] have published M_s values of approximately 82 emu/g for PAA-coated magnetite nanoparticles (50 nm). Lima et al. have reported M_s values of 80 emu/g for NPs with a size of 7 nm [59] whereas M_s values near to 20 emu/g were also found for 5 nm magnetite NPs [60]. Iron oxide magnetite NPs with average sizes of 4.5 nm and 6 nm M_s show M_s values of 20 emu/g and 58 emu/g respectively [61]. M_s between 55 and 65 emu/g for 20 nm magnetite NPs have also been found [62]. Hence, considering that in our case nanoparticle nominal size is about 10 nm in diameter, the obtained M_s value would indicate that surface effects and/or low crystallinity are playing an important role on magnetization.

A zoom of the magnetization loops at 5 and 300 K are shown in the inset of figure 3 in order to display coercive field values. As expected, a marked increase in the coercive field (H_C) as the temperature decreases can be observed. This is the typical behavior expected for superparamagnetic systems in which, at low temperatures (below the blocking temperature), magnetic relaxation time is longer than measurement time, the system is thermally blocked and the coercive field has a value different from zero. For higher temperatures, the magnetic relaxation time is shorter than the measurement time and the particles ensembles are considered as a “paramagnetic” system (see H_c values in table 3). At $T = 300 K$ all samples exhibit low coercive fields, typical of superparamagnetic systems with weak interactions between NPs [21]. However, a slight difference between samples prepared with PAA-coated NPs and non-coated NPs can be noticed. Ferrogels obtained with PAA-coated NPs show H_C values around 10 Oe, while samples with non-coated NPs show values around 20 Oe. In the case of PAA samples, smaller H_C values obtained at room temperature can be explained by a better dispersion, less interaction between NPs and a superparamagnetic behavior. This difference was more pronounced at low temperatures, with NPs in the blocked state. At $T=5K$, coercive field values associated to 6PAA and 9PAA samples were about 140 Oe, whereas values of 298 and 282 Oe were obtained for 9NC and 6NC samples, respectively (see table 3). These differences are a consequence of the higher magnetic interactions

present in NC samples due to the formation of micrometric aggregates and is in agreement with ZFC/FC results discussed later. Thus, PAA coating reduces the interaction between NPs and promotes a more homogeneous distribution of NPs in PVA.

As can be seen in fig. 3 a concentration increase does not seem to affect magnetostatic properties, such as saturation magnetization or coercive field. This is observed in **Table 3** for both kinds of ferrogels (PAA and NC gels).

Figure 4 shows the coercive field as a function of temperature for two of the samples. For samples prepared with PAA-coated NPs, H_c decreases from about 140 Oe at 5 K to nearly 10 Oe at room temperature. At temperatures below 50 K the coercive field depends on $T^{0.5}$ which is typical for a random distribution of anisotropies. Above 50 K the H_c separates from the expected dependency with $T^{0.5}$.

ZFC/FC measurements, displayed in **Figure 5** and **6**, were carried out in the following way: the sample was first cooled down from 300 to 5 K without magnetic field, then a static magnetic field of 50 Oe was applied and the magnetization values were measured increasing the temperature up to 350 K (ZFC measurement). Then, the sample was cooled down to 5 K under applied magnetic field (50 Oe) and, again, magnetization values taken in a heating scan from 5 to 350 K (FC curve).

From the ZFC curve blocking temperature (T_B) can be determined, defined as the maximum of the ZFC curve, being 128 K for samples 6PAA and 9PAA, which proves the superparamagnetic behavior of these ferrogels. In samples prepared with non-coated NPs the blocking temperature seems to be above room temperature.

The irreversibility temperature, T_i (defined as the threshold temperature above which FC and ZFC curves coincide) was about 152 K for both samples. The small difference between the maximum of the ZFC curve (T_B) and T_i (around 34 K) is related to the low polydispersity of these NPs (a narrow distribution of blocking temperatures is related with a narrow energy barrier distribution) [21,63].

Under the assumption that coated-magnetic NPs inside the PVA gel are only weakly interacting, the estimation of T_B allows the assessment of the mean energy barrier (E_B). This can be done using the usual equations $T_B = K_{eff} V/25k_B$ and $E_B = K_{eff} V$ [21] and the particle nominal diameter of 10 nm, from which we obtained $E_B = 4.5 \times 10^{-20}$ J (4.5×10^{-13} erg) and an effective anisotropy constant $K_{eff} = 8.5 \times 10^5$ erg/cm³ or PAA samples. These values are in good agreement with values reported in the literature for similar systems [64-67].

In the NC samples the ZFC/FC curves have similar characteristics to that observed in percolated clusters glasses, in which a “shoulder” is seen at low temperatures, instead of a peak [21, 68-69]. This can be associated with the formation of compact clusters and an increase of interactions between NPs. The magnetization intensity of the 9NC samples is greater than the 6NC samples due to the difference in concentration of magnetite NPs used in the synthesis.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Superparamagnetic ferrogels with high X_{cr} , T_m , T_p and high swelling ability could be obtained using a non-toxic and environmentally friendly procedure based on physical crosslinking of aqueous dispersions of PVA/PAA-coated magnetite NPs by freezing-thawing.

Ferrogels prepared with PAA-coated NPs show a much more homogeneous distribution of the filler (organized in diffuse NPs clusters) than samples prepared with non-coated NPs, as demonstrated by FESEM and SAXS experiments. Both magnetic and structural characterization evidenced that PAA coating promotes interaction between NPs and the matrix (probably by hydrogen bonding) improving homogeneity of the ferrogels. More important, the presence of PAA-coated NPs induced an increase in the swelling capacity of the ferrogel at physiological pH, respect to the neat hydrogel, without precluding their thermal properties. This effect could be of importance in the design of new solvent absorbers and stimuli-responsive drug delivery devices formed through a non-toxic and environmentally friendly procedure. This approach could be extended to other NPs and polyelectrolytes systems, enhancing the range of applications of functional nanocomposites.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1: Photograph of a) NC-ferrogels (left *6NC*, right *9NC*) d) PAA-ferrogels (left *6PAA*, right *9PAA*) and FESEM images of b) *6NC* c) *9NC* e) *6PAA* and f) *9PAA*.

Figure 2: *Log-Log* plot of small angle X-ray scattering curves of the four samples (a) *6PAA* and *9PAA* (b) *6NC* and *9NC*. Inset $I(q) q^4$ vs. q for the four samples is shown in the inset.

Figure 3: (a) - (d) show the magnetization vs. field (M vs. H) hysteresis loop at 5, 200 and 300 K for (a) *6PAA*, (b) *9PAA*, (c) *9NC* and (d) *6NC* samples. The insets of the all figures show a zoom in the region $-400 \text{ Oe} \leq H \leq 400 \text{ Oe}$ to observe the difference in the coercive field at $T = 5 \text{ K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$.

Figure 4: Experimental coercive field versus temperature for a *6NC* and *6PAA* samples.

Figure 5: Zero field cooled and field cooled measured for *6PAA* and *9PAA* samples.

Figure 6: Zero field cooled and field cooled measured for *6NC* and *9NC* samples.

Table 1. Values of radius of gyration R_g and size D of the structures inside the PVA matrix

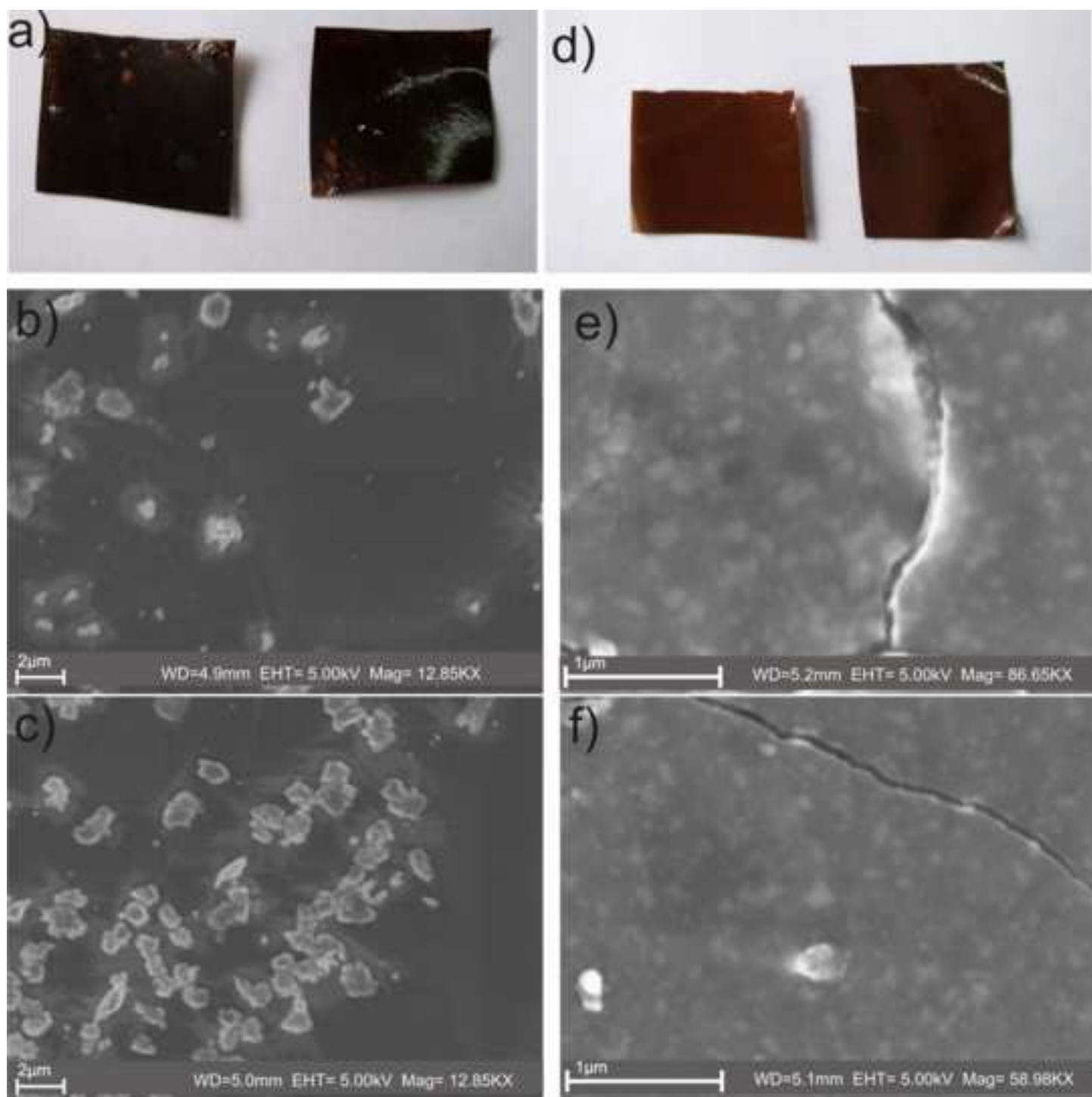
	6PAA	9PAA	6NC	9NC
R_g (nm)	19.0 ± 0.5	19.0 ± 0.5	11.0 ± 0.6	11.0 ± 0.6
D (nm)	49.0 ± 0.5	49.0 ± 0.5	28.0 ± 0.6	28.0 ± 0.6

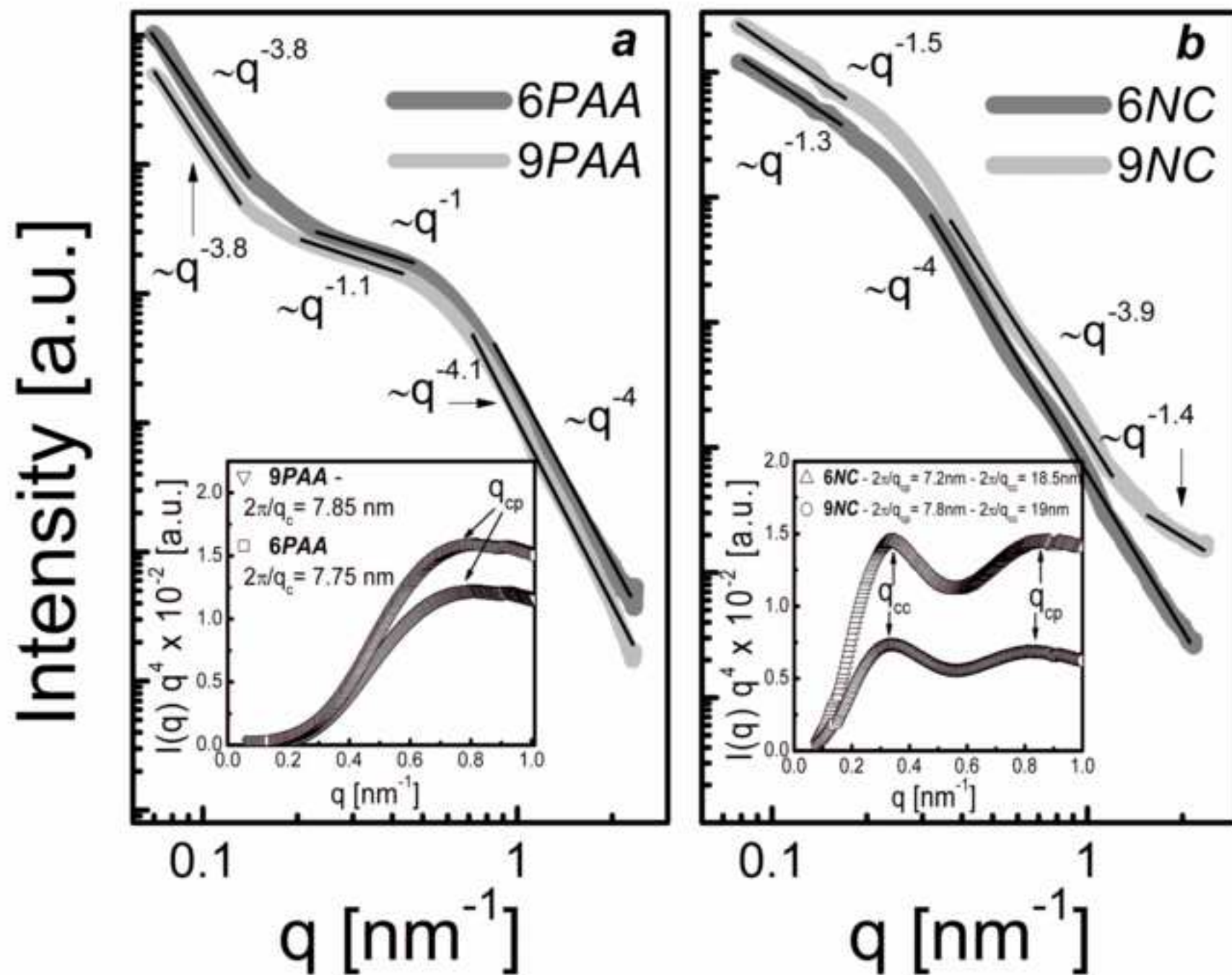
Table 2. Thermal and swelling properties of ferrogels.

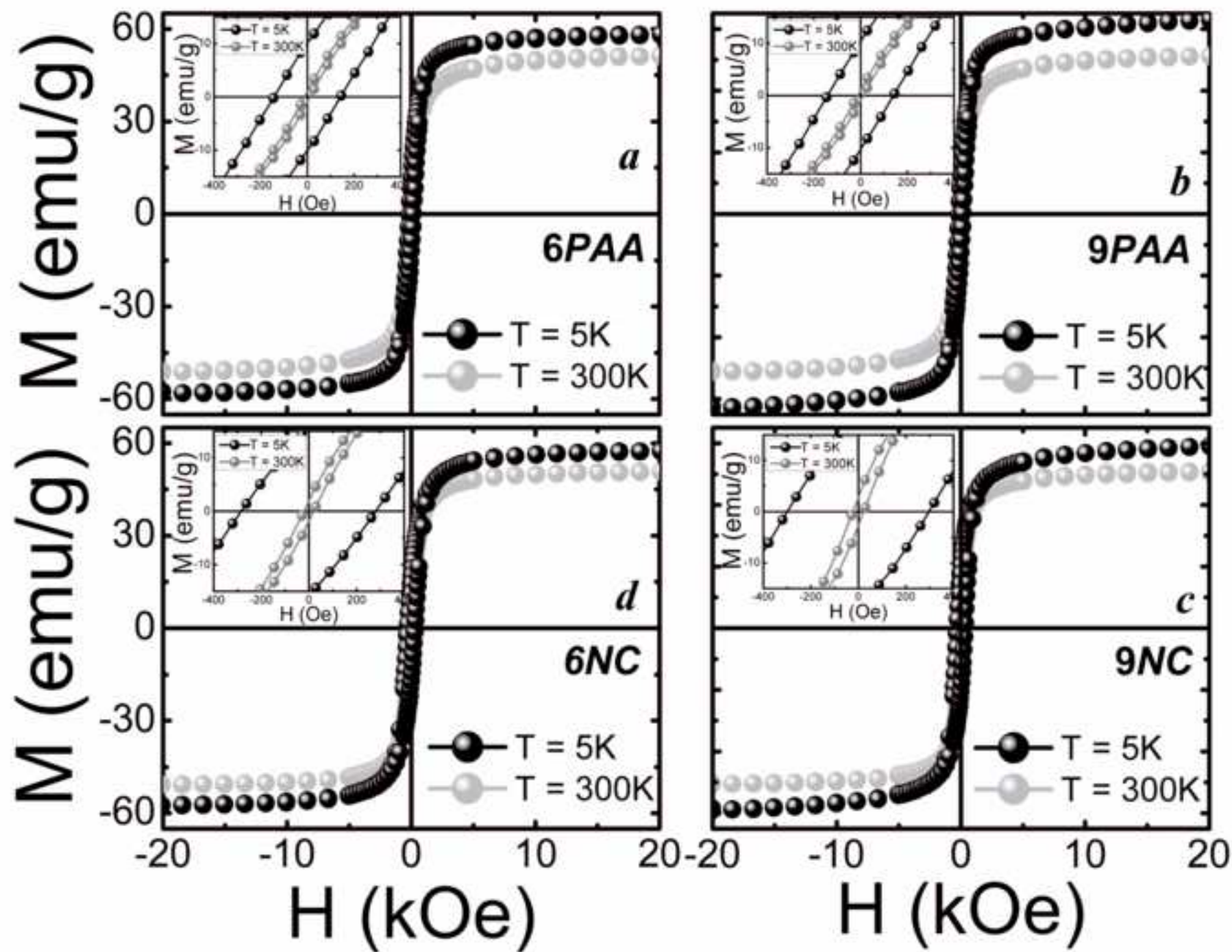
Gel	Fe_2O_3 % TGA	T_p °C TGA	T_m °C DSC	X_{cr} % DSC	M_∞ %	GF %
<i>matrix</i>	0	284.3±5.3	220.5±0.3	31.80±3.22	221.50±5.36	67.30±3.55
<i>9PAA</i>	15.95±0.04	331.5±5.1	227.3±0.7	45.90±5.0	332.21±32.5	67.32±2.00
<i>6PAA</i>	11.05±0.10	323.5±4.6	226.6±0.2	55.04±4.23	323.02±11.5	68.30±1.15
<i>6NC</i>	11.84±1.05	262.0±6.1	217.8±0.9	25.24±1.60	158.7±3.18	88.37±1.05
<i>9NC</i>	24.9±2.20	255.4±8.8	218.3±0.2	19.07±0.20	204.3±11.3	82.32±2.10

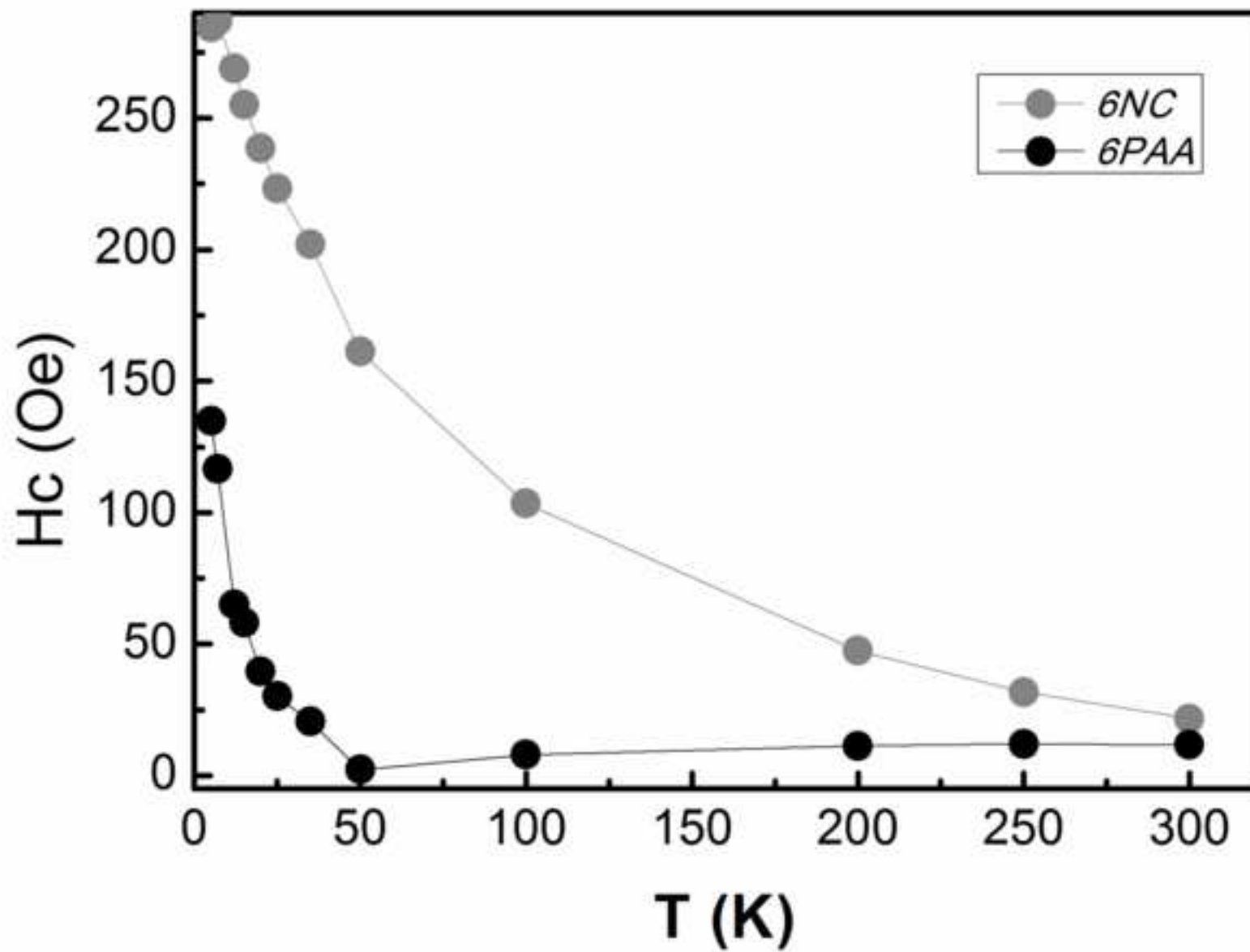
Table 3. H_c and M_s values in samples 6PAA, 9PAA, 9NC and 6NC for 5 and 300 K

<i>Sample</i>	<i>6PAA</i>		<i>9PAA</i>		<i>9NC</i>		<i>6NC</i>	
<i>T (K)</i>	5	300	5	300	5	300	5	300
<i>H_c (Oe)</i>	140.2	11.6	139.5	12.2	298.9	21.0	282.9	19.3
<i>M_s (emu/g)</i>	57.2	50.1	58.1	50.0	57.2	50.0	56.5	50.1









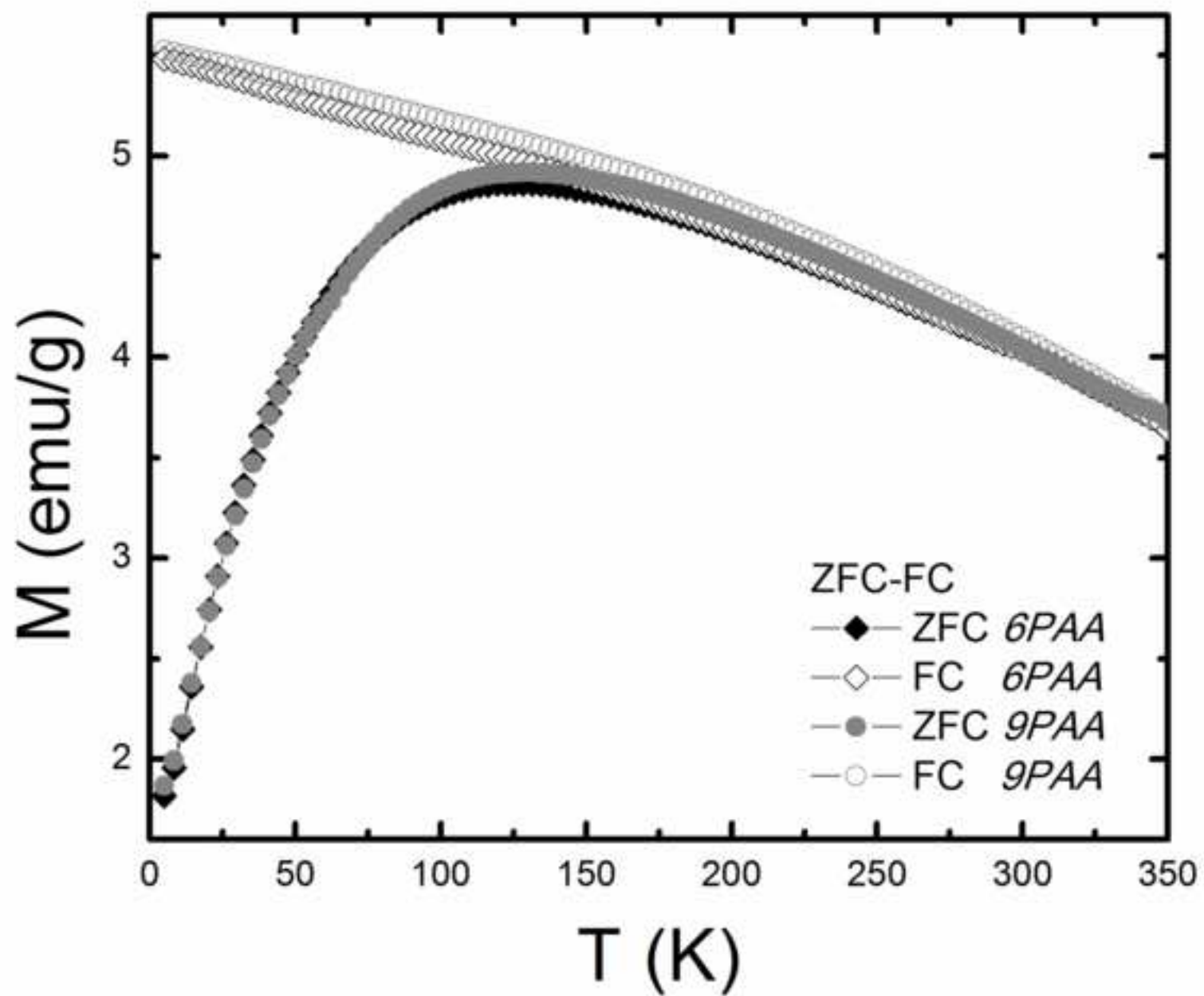
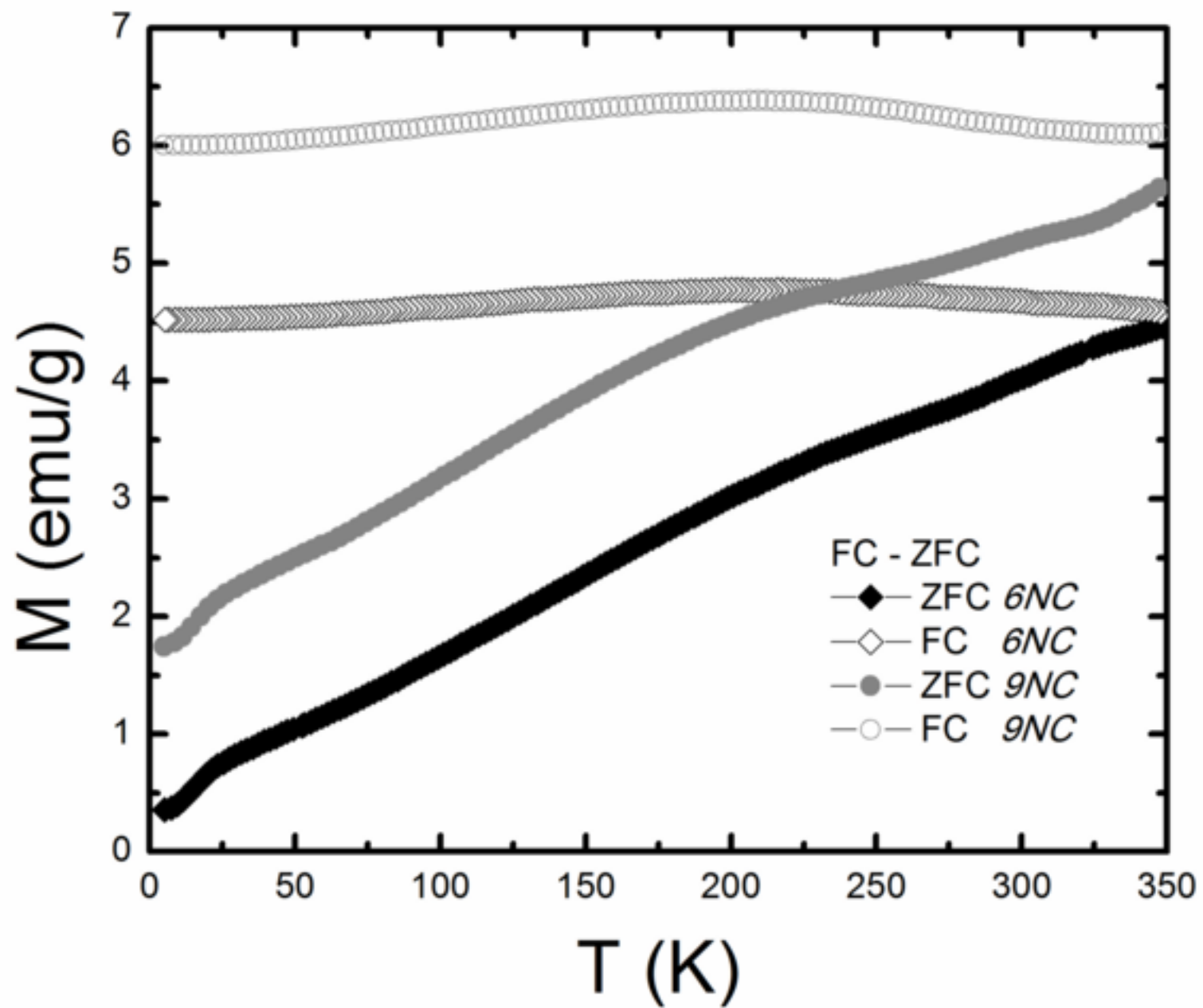
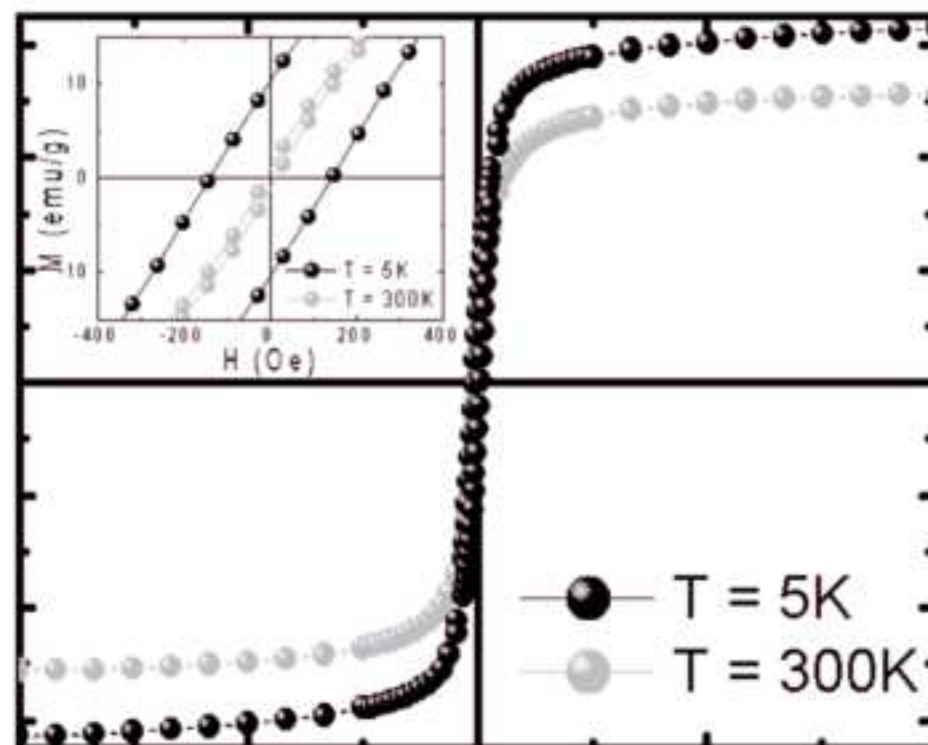
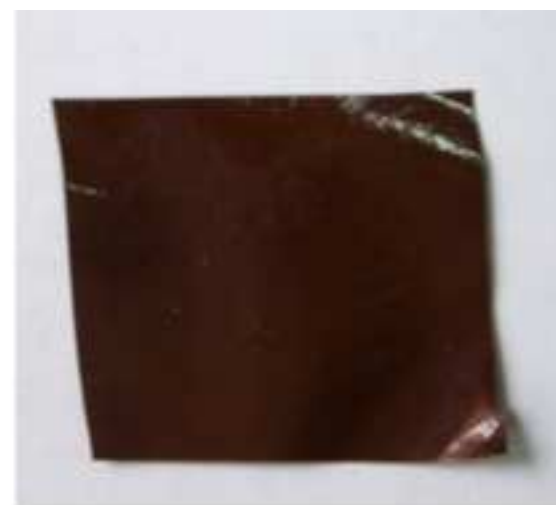
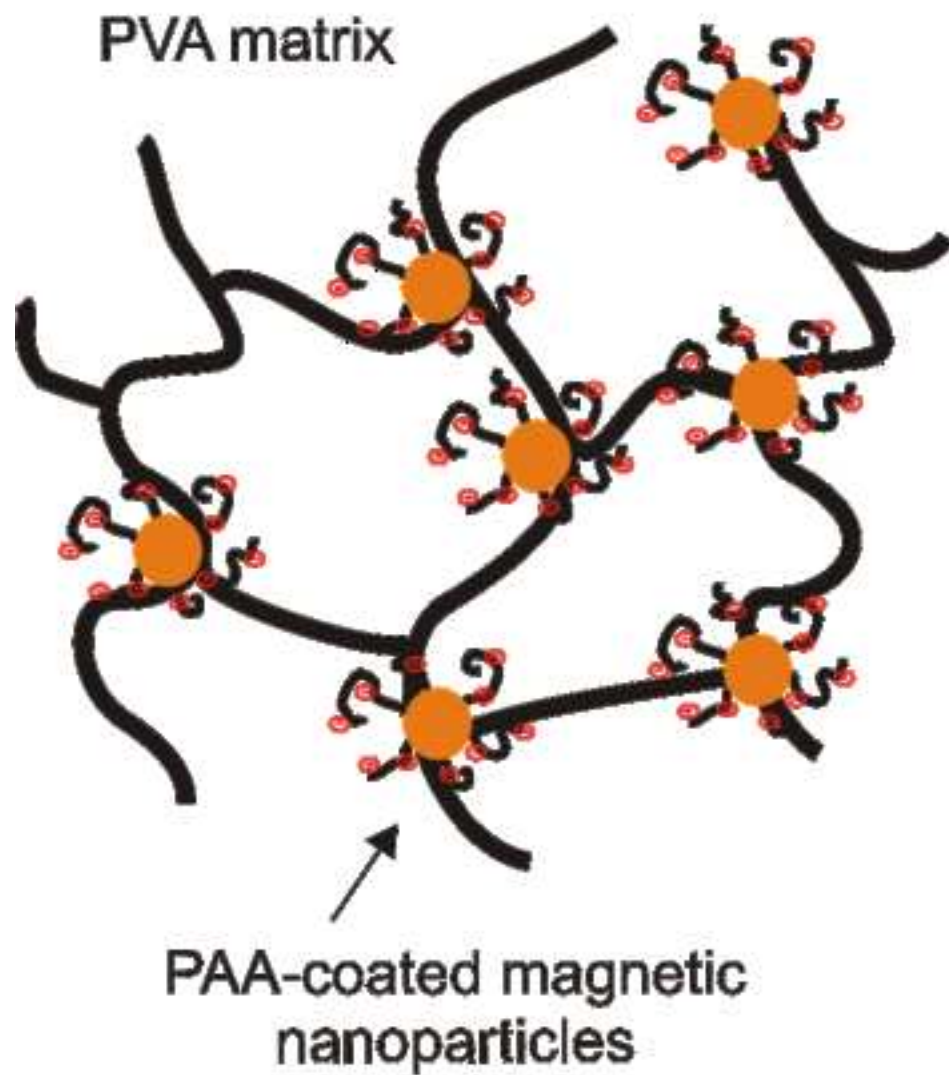


Figure 6





Highlights: > Ferrogels were obtained by freezing thawing of PVA/PAA-coated magnetic NPs > Strong H-bonding between PAA-PVA allowed homogeneous dispersion of NPs in the matrix > Polyelectrolyte nature of the coating increased swelling of the ferrogels > Magnetic and physical properties make these gels promising for biomedical applications.