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1 Amorphous 1-D nanowires of calcium phosphate/pyrophosphate: a demonstration 2 of oriented self-growth of amorphous minerals

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1 Abstract

2 Amorphous inorganic solids are traditionally isotropic, thus, it is believed that they only grow in a non-preferential way without the assistance of regulators, leading to the 3 4 morphologies of nanospheres or irregular aggregates of nanoparticles. However, in the 5 presence of (ortho)phosphate (Pi) and pyrophosphate ions (PPi) which have synergistic 6 roles in biomineralization, the highly elongated amorphous nanowires (denoted 7 ACPPNs) form in a regulator-free aqueous solution (without templates, additives, 8 organics, etc). Based on thorough characterization and tracking of the formation process 9 (e.g., Cryo-TEM, spherical aberration correction high resolution TEM, solid state NMR, 10 high energy resolution monochromated STEM-EELS), the microstructure and its preferential growth behavior are elucidated. In ACPPNs, amorphous calcium 11 12 orthophosphate and amorphous calcium pyrophosphate are distributed at separated but close sites. The ACPPNs grow via either the preferential attachment of ~2 nm 13 14 nanoclusters in a 1-dimension way, or the transformation of bigger nanoparticles, 15 indicating an inherent driving force-governed process. We propose that the anisotropy of ACPPNs microstructure, which is corroborated experimentally, causes their oriented 16 growth. This study proves that, unlike the conventional view, amorphous minerals can 17 18 form via oriented growth without external regulation, demonstrating a novel insight 19 into the structures and growth behaviors of amorphous minerals.

20

21 Keywords

22 Amorphous inorganic solids; nanowires; calcium phosphate; calcium pyrophosphate;

23 oriented growth.

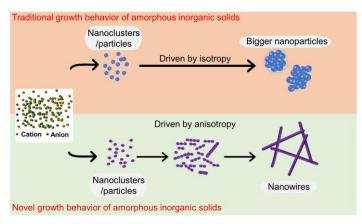
1 1. Introduction

2 As an important inorganic mineral, calcium phosphate is abundant in nature and many organisms. For example, human bone is composed of 70% inorganic mineral 3 4 (mainly apatite) and 30% organic matrix (mainly collagen), while tooth enamel is 97% hydroxyapatite, 1.5% proteins, and 1.5% water ¹⁻⁴. Among the diverse calcium 5 6 phosphates members, calcium orthophosphates (CaPi, where Pi stands for the orthophosphate ion) play the major roles in hard tissue formation or biomedical 7 applications ⁵. They include the amorphous form (amorphous calcium phosphate, 8 9 ACaPi), and crystalline ones such as hydroxyapatite, octacalcium phosphate, brushite, 10 monetite, and (α, β) tricalcium phosphates. In comparison, calcium pyrophosphate 11 (CaPPi, where PPi stands for the pyrophosphate ion), has been much less discussed 12 regardless of its crystalline or amorphous (ACaPPi) forms. CaPPi crystals are normally observed in pathological tissues, especially in cardiovascular and articular cartilage ⁶⁻⁹. 13 14 Moreover, these ectopic calcifications are mostly composed of both CaPPi and CaPi crystals ¹⁰⁻¹⁴. In the process of bone formation, PPi, which is mainly produced by 15 hydrolyzing the phosphodiester bond in nucleotide triphosphates ¹⁵⁻¹⁷, acts as a critical 16 regulator in the formation of CaPi¹⁸⁻²⁴, since they can effectively inhibit nucleation and 17 crystallization of CaPi by antagonizing the binding of calcium with phosphate ^{20-21, 25}. 18 It is believed that Pi and PPi synergistically control bone mineralization ^{24, 26-29}. 19

20 The growth behaviors of biominerals, which govern the specific construction of 21 the resulting materials (including the biomineralized tissues), have been one of the central topics in the field of biomineralization³⁰. It has been established that substances 22 23 prefer to grow into the shapes with minimum surface free energy from the perspective 24 of thermodynamic equilibrium, which is typically described by the Gibbs-Curie-Wulff Theorem ³¹⁻³³. Thus, the crystals, due to the energy differences between their different 25 facets (based on the microstructure of long-range order), favor the growth with certain 26 spatial preferences ^{32, 34}. This thereby leads to corresponding facets exposed on the 27 surface of crystals, forming distinct planes, angles, and edges ^{32, 35-38}. On the contrary, 28

1 in amorphous solids, as the atoms and ions are extremely disordered, or only ordered 2 within a very short range, they are isotropic when viewing them in the size scale of nanometers or longer ^{37, 39}. Therefore, there is usually no energetic driving force for 3 4 amorphous minerals towards a spatially preferential growth in the absence of external 5 regulators (templates, additives, electrical field, magnetic field, etc), resulting in the 6 morphologies of round nanospheres or irregular nanoparticles which have the lowest specific surface area 40-44. Indeed, while a few previous amorphous nanowires of 7 inorganic solids exhibited a preferential growth for their formation, the inductive 8 9 contributions by the applied organics, templates, and electric field can not be ruled out ⁴⁵⁻⁵⁰. Those conclusions are particularly applicable to ACaPi and AcaPPi ⁵¹⁻⁵². 10

However, in this work, we find a 1-D oriented growth behavior of an amorphous 11 12 solid (Schematic 1). Inspired by the fact that Pi and PPi co-exist in the bodily fluids and interact with each other especially during biomineralization, we studied calcium 13 14 phosphate formation in solutions including both of the ions. Surprisingly, we obtained 15 nanowires of amorphous phase with high aspect ratio. The nanowires are composed of ACaPi and ACaPPi and their formation involves the assembly of nanoclusters or 16 transformation of nanoparticles in a 1-D oriented fashion. The amorphous nanowires 17 18 (denoted amorphous calcium phosphate-pyrophosphate nanowires, ACPPN) thus 19 provide a novel perspective on structures and growth behaviors of amorphous minerals.



Schematic 1. Illustration of the key finding of this work: amorphous inorganic solids
can grow in a 1-D oriented way without external regulators, demonstrating a novel
anisotropy-driven growth behavior.

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2 2. Results and Discussion

- 3 2.1 Preparation of ACPPNs
- 4

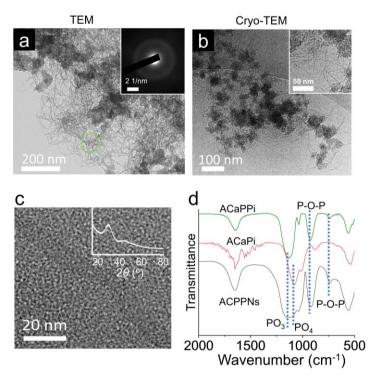
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ACPPNs prepared at high atomic ratio of Ca/P (>0.05) without additives

ACPPNs are prepared by simply mixing the solutions of calcium source (Ca²⁺)
and phosphorus source (Pi and PPi, denoted as Pe), where the amount of Ca²⁺ is fixed
at 1.00 mmol, but that of Pe is varied.

At first, high atomic ratio of Ca/P (>0.05; *i.e.*, amount of P_e <20 mmol) is applied 9 10 and a two-step procedure is involved for ACPPNs formation. Typically, for an atomic 11 ratio of Ca/P = 0.1 with 15% of P_e in the form of PPi (the remaining 85% in the form 12 of Pi), we have obtained ACPPNs by adding 10.0 mmol Pe in two steps, that is, 5.0 13 mmol by 5.0 mmol sequentially. The two-step procedure facilitates the control over the pH of the reaction solution. As shown in Fig. 1a, nanowires with average diameters of 14 15 2.8 nm (n = 100) and lengths of up to hundreds of nanometers are formed, although thicker ones (e.g., diameters >10 nm) are also observed. Besides, nanoparticles with 16 irregular shapes are obtained as well. In cryogenic transmission electron microscopy 17 (Cryo-TEM) micrographs of the sample in the reaction solution, we also observe the 18 19 nanowires, proving that this morphology is formed in the solution, rather than during 20 the subsequent sample preparation (Fig. 1b). The electron diffraction (ED) pattern (inset 21 of Fig. 1a) of the area with nanowires (labeled by dashed circle) exhibits no distinct 22 reflections, indicating the amorphous character of the product, which is also confirmed 23 by spherical aberration correction high resolution TEM (HR-TEM, Fig. 1c) and X-ray 24 diffraction (XRD, inset of Fig. 1c). As we introduced above, nanowire morphology of 25 ACaPi or ACaPPi has never been obtained before without external regulations such as 26 additives, templating, etc., and is not seen in other amorphous inorganic materials either, 27 to the best of our knowledge. Theoretically, when the diameter of nanowire is too thin, 28 organic additives are required to stabilize the shape especially the ones with highly

- 1 disordered microstructure⁵³⁻⁵⁷. In comparison, ACPPNs in this work are additive-free
- 2 nanowires.



3

Fig. 1. Characterization of ACPPNs prepared at Ca/P = 0.1. (a) TEM micrograph and 4 5 ED pattern of the area marked with a dashed green circle. (b) Cryo-TEM micrograph of the sample in the reaction solution with magnified local area in the inset. (c) Spherical 6 7 aberration correction HR-TEM image at a temperature of -180 °C (created by liquid nitrogen) and XRD pattern (inset, two broad bumps at $2\theta = -30$ and -45°) of the 8 9 ACPPNs. No visible beam damage on the sample was observed after ED pattern capture. 10 (d) FTIR spectra with dashed blue line labeling characteristic bands of specific groups as indicated. The assignment of the vibration modes follows the references ⁵⁸⁻⁵⁹. 11

12

13 X-ray photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) (Fig. S1a) and Energy dispersive 14 spectroscopy (EDS) (Fig. S1b) prove the existence of Ca and P elements. Fourier 15 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) further verify the presence of PPi ($P_2O_7^{4-}$) in 16 the ACPPNs due to the asymmetric vibrational bands of P-O-P at wavenumbers of 918 17 and 739 cm⁻¹ and that of PO₃ at 1146 cm⁻¹, which is consistent with $P_2O_7^{4-}$ in ACaPPi 18 (Fig. 1d). The presence of Pi (PO_4^{3-} or HPO_4^{2-}) is also confirmed by the asymmetric stretching frequency of PO₄ at 1097 cm⁻¹, agreeing with the bands of (H)PO₄ in ACaPi
as well (Fig. 1d). In comparison, when adding the same amount of P_e simultaneously
in one step (rather than in two steps as above), more nanoparticles and fewer nanowires
are formed, confirming that the two-step procedure is favorable for the formation of
nanowires (Fig. S2). Also, importantly, the ACPPNs can keep the nanowire morphology
after being stored at 37 °C even for 8 weeks without drying (Fig. S3).

7 To investigate the effect of Pi/PPi ratio on the morphology of ACPPNs, we varied the P_e percentages of PPi (0, 5, 10, 15, 25, 100%; other conditions are kept the same as 8 above). For 0 % PPi, *i.e.*, only Pi as the P_e, a flake-shaped product is obtained and no 9 10 nanowires are observed (Fig. S4a). From 5% (Fig. S4b), 10% (Fig. S4c), 15% (Fig. 11 S4d), to 25% (Fig. S4e), the proportion of nanowires increases. For 100% PPi (Fig. S4f), *i.e.*, only PPi as the Pe, the TEM micrograph presents a typical irregular 12 nanosphere morphology of amorphous calcium pyrophosphate ⁶⁰. Therefore, nanowires 13 14 only form in a certain ratio range of Pi/PPi in the Pe.

15 The initial Ca/P atomic ratio also has an influence on the morphology of the products. When the initial Ca/P increases from 0.1 (Fig. 1) to 1.0, *i.e.*, 1.00 mmol P_e is 16 used (other parameters are not changed), nanowires are still formed in the above-17 described two-step procedure (Fig. S5a). However, only very few nanowires are visible 18 19 when Ca/P=2.0 (Fig. S5b), and no nanowires are observed when Ca/P=5.0 (Fig. S5c). 20 FTIR spectra of these three samples show that Pi/PPi ratios in the products are 21 significantly higher (Fig. S5d) comparing to that prepared with Ca/P=0.1 (Fig. 1d). We 22 also investigated the effects of pH on the structure of the products. Based on a solution 23 of pH=8 as discussed above, we compared the changes of morphology at different pH 24 values. Under weakly acidic conditions (pH=6) (Fig. S6a), still the nanowires form, but 25 they become much fewer under weakly basic conditions at pH=10 (Fig. S6b).

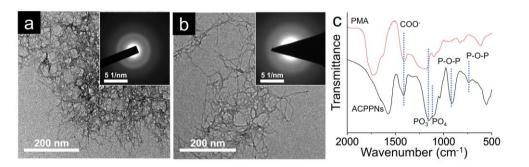
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27 **ACPPNs prepared at high atomic ratio of Ca/P (>0.05) with additives**

28 Anionic polyelectrolytes with abundant carboxylate groups, such as polymaleic

acid (PMA) and sodium polyacrylate (PAA), are normally used to mimic non-1 2 collagenous proteins when studying biomineralization (e.g., inhibitor effects of nucleation and crystallization)⁶¹, which are also typical additives for the preparation of 3 ACP nanospheres⁶². However, the introduction of PMA and PAA into the ACPPNs 4 formation system significantly increases the ratio of nanowires in the sample and even 5 6 results in nearly pure nanowires. As shown in Fig. 2, in the presence of either PMA (Fig. 7 2a) or PAA (Fig. 2b), nanowires with average diameters of 2.8 (n = 100, although 8 thicker ones with diameters >10 nm are also observed), and lengths of up to hundreds 9 of nanometers are prevalent in the products, while nanoparticles are hardly visible by 10 TEM observation. The predominance of nanowires in the products may be attributed to 11 an inhibitory effect of PMA and PAA against nucleation and subsequent solid growth, 12 as precipitation occurs much later than in the absence of PMA and PAA (\sim 5 min vs. 0 min). We verified the amorphous phase by ED and XRD patterns (insets of Fig. 2a and 13 14 2b, Fig. S7), and the presence of Ca and P elements by XPS (Fig. S8). In the FTIR spectra (Fig. 2c), apart from the presence of Pi and PPi corresponding to the same bands 15 as Fig. 1d, the existence of polymer is also proved by the stretching frequency of the 16 carboxy ion (COO⁻) at 1409 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 2c). 17

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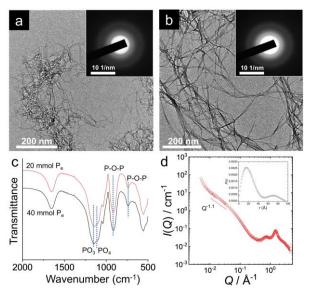
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Fig. 2. Characterization of ACPPNs prepared at Ca/P = 0.1 in the presence of additives.
(a, b) TEM images of ACPPNs prepared in the presence of PMA (a) or PAA (b). (c)
FTIR spectra of ACPPNs prepared with PMA.

23

24 ACPPNs prepared at low atomic ratio of Ca/P (≤ 0.05)

1 We further decreased the atomic ratio of Ca/P to ≤ 0.05 (amount of P_e ≥ 20 mmol, 2 without additives) to investigate nanowire formation in a one-step procedure. Given 3 that the amount of P_e is much higher than that of Ca, the influence of precipitation on 4 pH is minimal due to the buffer effect of the excess P_e, and therefore, it is not necessary 5 to adjust the pH during the reaction as above. Hence, the one-step method can be used 6 in this case. Here, the total Pe content is increased to 20.0 (Ca/P=0.050) and 40.0 mmol 7 (Ca/P=0.025), while maintaining the proportion of PPi the same as above. It is found 8 that the fraction of nanowires increases significantly (Fig. 3). Typically, when the Ca/P=0.025, nearly pure nanowires with a width of 3.0 ± 0.7 nm (n = 100, single 9 10 nanowire or the ones at the edge of aggregates are used for measurements) and lengths 11 of up to tens of nanometers are formed (Fig. 3b). The elemental map recorded by EDS 12 confirms the presence of elements P and Ca (Fig. S9). With such a high Pe concentration, 13 the stepwise addition of Pe seems to have little (or even adverse) influence on the 14 product morphology (Fig. S10). Again, ED and XRD patterns confirm the amorphous phase (insets of Fig. 3a and b, Fig. S11). The FTIR spectra in Fig. 3c show that the 15 intensity ratio of bands at 1146 cm⁻¹ (PO₃ stretching) and 1097 cm⁻¹ stretching (PO₄) is 16 significantly higher than that in Fig. 1d, indicating the increase of PPi percentage in Pe, 17 which is also confirmed by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) measurement as 18 19 discussed in the following.



20

Fig. 3. Characterization of ACPPNs prepared at the atomic ratio of Ca/P \leq 0.050 via a

one-step procedure. (a, b) TEM images of the ACPPNs prepared when the Ca/P is at
0.050 (Pe content 20.0 mmol) (a) and 0.025 (Pe content 40.0 mmol) (b). (c) FTIR spectra
of the ACPPNs with dashed blue line labeling characteristic bands of specific groups
as indicated. (d) One-dimensional integrated SAXS/WAXS profiles of the ACPPNs
(Ca/P=0.025) dispersed in ethanol. The inset of (d) shows the pair distribution function *P*(*r*) obtained from the SAXS scattering curve. *Q*: scattering vector.

7

8 The morphology and phase of the nanowires are also confirmed with small-angle 9 X-ray scattering (SAXS) and wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) (denoted as 10 SAXS/WAXS). As shown in Fig. 3d, within the scattering vector (Q) range spanning from 0.009 Å⁻¹ to 0.5 Å⁻¹, the scattering patterns predominantly stem from nanowires, 11 which is consistent with the TEM observation. The scattering curves exhibit Q^{-1} type 12 scattering at lower O values, indicating that the scatterers are largely constituted of 13 14 flexible nanowires. Within the inset of Fig. 3d, the pair distribution function (p(r))illustrates two distinct maxima within 0-50 Å and 50-100 Å, where the initial maxima 15 is associated with the nanowire's diameter, and the latter one corresponds to their 16 aggregations. Regarding the WAXS segment ($Q > 0.5 \text{ Å}^{-1}$), the findings indicate that 17 18 the nanowires dispersed in ethanol do not exhibit any crystal formation.

- 19
- 20 **ACPPNs prepared with Pi and PPi added in separate steps**

21 The observations above beg the question whether the pre-synthesized ACaPi and 22 ACaPPi can transform into ACPPNs? In order to explore this further, we added Pi and 23 PPi sequentially in two steps with a time interval of 3 s (Ca/P=0.1, Pe is 10.0 mmol, in 24 which Pi and PPi are 8.50 and 0.75 mmol), by which ACaPi or ACaPPi was initially 25 formed by the first added Pi or PPi, then further reacted with the next added PPi or Pi. 26 Like above, nanowires are generated in the presence of both Pi and PPi although they 27 are added in separate steps (Fig. S12a-b). Moreover, there are many more nanowires (Fig. S12a) when the PPi is added in the first step and Pi in the second (denoted as PPi-28

1 and-Pi), than in the case of the reverse sequence of Pe addition (Pi-and-PPi) (Fig. S12b). 2 It should be noted that when PPi or Pi is first added, pure ACaPPi or ACaPi forms primarily, and the next addition of Pi or PPi can only partially substitute PPi or Pi in the 3 4 products. Furthermore, we extended the time interval between PPi and Pi addition and removed the excess Pe source during the interval by washing the precipitates at the first 5 6 addition with a large amount of H_2O to avoid effects of the first-added excessive P_e . 7 Again, nanowires form with PPi added in the first step (PPi-and-Pi, Fig. S12c), but they 8 are nearly invisible with Pe added in reverse sequence (only crystalline CaPi, Fig. S12d). 9 All of the above reveals that ACaPPi or ACaPi can transform into ACPPNs although 10 their performance varies under different conditions. In essence, as discussed above, the 11 nanowire mainly consists of ACaPPi rather than ACaPi, but only the addition sequence 12 of PPi-and-Pi yields nearly pure nanowires (Fig. $S_{12}^{12}c$). This further confirms that, (1) 13 in addition to PPi, Pi is indeed included in nanowires as well; (2) excludes the possibility that PPi acts as the surfactant to induce the nanowire formation because PPi 14 has been consumed in the first step of addition in the PPi-and-Pi sequence. 15

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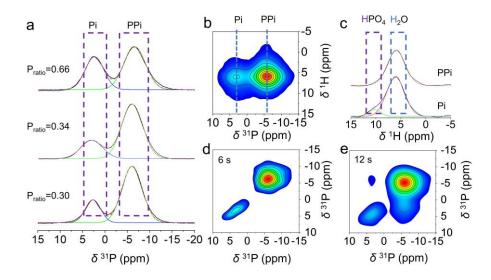
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2.2 Microstructure of ACPPNs

18 We analyzed the typical products by solid state NMR spectroscopy (Fig. 4). The single pulse ³¹P MAS NMR spectra show two resonances with chemical shifts of ~2.6 19 ppm and ~-6.5 ppm, which can be assigned to Pi (PO₄³⁻ or HPO₄²⁻) and PPi (P₂O₇⁴⁻) 20 groups, respectively (Fig. 4a) ⁶³. The molar ratio (P_{ratio}) of P_e in Pi and PPi for the 21 samples is calculated by integrating the corresponding Guassian peaks after 22 23 deconvolution as shown in Fig. 4a. Based on the P_{ratio} value and TEM results, it can be 24 inferred that the increase of the fraction of nanowires is associated with the higher PPi 25 content in the products, indicating that the formed nanoparticles consist of more Pi while the nanowires contain more PPi. In the case of uniform nanowires, the P_{ratio} 26 27 remains ~1:3 regardless of different synthesis procedures (one using PMA, and the 28 other one at Ca/P=0.025 without additives).

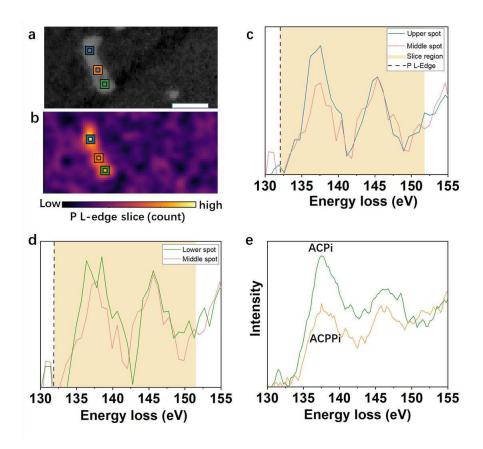
1 Subsequently, we measured the ACPPNs prepared at Ca/P=0.025 via 2D solid state nuclear magnetic resonance (Fig. 4b-e). In the 2D ¹H-³¹P HETCOR CPMAS NMR 2 spectra (Fig. 4b), both Pi and PPi are strongly correlated with H. We further extracted 3 the cross-section spectra at the ³¹P chemical shift of Pi and PPi as indicated in Fig. 4c. 4 They show that the PPi peak correlates with the resonance of H from 5 6 adsorbed/structural H₂O while that of the Pi peak correlates with H of both H₂O and HPO_4^{2-} . This reveals that a certain fraction of phosphates is protonated to yield HPO_4^{2-} , 7 but pyrophosphates are not. As the Ca/P molar ratio determined by ICP-OES analysis 8 9 is 0.98, *i.e.*, very close to 1, we conclude that nearly all of the Pi are protonated in this 10 sample. So, with these results and TG measurement (Fig. S13), the chemical formula 11 of the nanowire is estimated to be CaHPO₄·(Ca₂P₂O₇)_{1.5}·xH₂O (the content of H₂O is 12 flexible depending on the drying conditions).

Further insight into the relationship of Pi and PPi is obtained by ³¹P-³¹P NOESY 13 14 CPMAS NMR spectra (Fig. 4d, e). At a mixing time of 6 s, no exchanges between the Pe from Pi and PPi are observed (Fig. 4d). However, when extending the mixing time 15 to 12 s, which is still very short, exchanges (positive) peaks are clearly observed (Fig. 16 4e). This result shows that Pi and PPi are separately distributed at independent sites, but 17 18 stay very close to each other. This anisotropy can be corroborated by STEM-EELS as 19 well: data obtained on a short rod (Fig. 5, S14) indicates fundamental changes in the coordination of Pe within inner and outer spaces of ACPPNs, which is consistent with 20 21 the spectra of ACaPi and ACaPPi, and thus agree with the anisotropic distribution of Pi and PPi. Therefore, we propose the structural model of ACPPNs as Fig. S15 where 22 ACaPPi is in inner space and is coated by ACaPi on the surface. 23



1

Fig. 4. Solid state nuclear magnetic resonance analysis of ACPPNs. (a) ³¹P MAS NMR 2 spectra. The measured nanowires are prepared at Ca/P=0.1 (top, same as the sample in 3 4 Fig.1), at Ca/P=0.1 with PMA (middle, same as the sample in Fig.2a), and at 5 Ca/P=0.025 (bottom, same as the sample in Fig.3b), respectively. Black solid curve: 6 original spectrum; blue and green curve: Gaussians from the deconvolution of the original spectrum; red dashed curve: the sum of the Gaussians. The Pratio, ratio of Pe in 7 8 Pi and PPi, is shown for the corresponding spectrum of each sample. Dashed rectangles 9 indicate the chemical shifts attributed to Pi and PPi as indicated. (b) 2D ¹H-³¹P 10 HETCOR CPMAS NMR spectra of ACPPNs prepared at Ca/P=0.025. (c) Extracted cross-section ¹H spectra at the ³¹P chemical shifts of Pi and PPi as indicated in the 11 12 dashed line of (b). Dashed rectangles show the resonance of H from H₂O and HPO₄²⁻, respectively. (d, e) ³¹P-³¹P NOESY CPMAS NMR spectra (same sample as b) at mixing 13 14 times of 6s (d) and 12s (e).



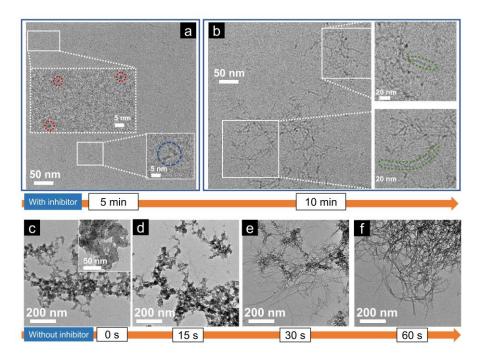


2 Fig. 5. STEM-EELS analysis on ACPPNs. (a) HAADF image (upper) of a short-rod-3 like structure used to acquire P EELS. Due to the low signal intensity of thin nanowires, a thicker rod was selected for measurements (thus, the structural differences between 4 5 thick and thin nanowires can not be ruled out). Scale bar: 50 nm. (b) Background-6 subtracted, smoothed, spectrum image (SI) slice of the PL-Edge on the ACPPN rod. (c, 7 d) Representative EEL spectra from the regions marked in (a) and (b). The relative 8 intensities of the peaks at 138 eV and 146 eV, corresponding to the L₂ and L₃ peaks, 9 vary between the spots. The significant changes of the L₂:L₃ ratio, e.g., upper spot VS 10 middle spot (c) and lower spot VS middle spot (d), indicate fundamental changes in the 11 P bonding of the inner and outer spaces of ACPPNs. (e) EELS of ACPi and ACPPi. The difference of the L₂:L₃ ratio between the two specimens is consistent with that of (b) 12 13 and (c), which thus corroborates the anisotropic distribution of Pi and PPi. We 14 convolved the spectrum image with a gaussian of about 15 pixel diameter to retain the spatial information but obtain a better signal-to-noise ratio. 15

16 **2.3 Formation mechanism of ACPPNs**—oriented growth

1 The formation process of ACPPNs

2 We investigated the formation process of ACPPNs by tracking the evolution of the 3 formed species in the reaction solutions. As the process takes about 5 minutes in the 4 presence of PMA (Ca/P=0.1) to form visible precipitation after adding the Pe source 5 due to its inhibitory effect on the nucleation, which is a much slower reaction than that 6 without polymers (immediate precipitation), it becomes possible to characterize 7 intermediate species of the reaction. Therefore, we first studied the formation process involving inhibitor PMA by cryo-TEM. It shows that, 5 min after Pe addition, 8 9 nanoclusters with a size of $\sim 1-2$ nm are obtained, and some of them begin to aggregate 10 or assemble into short nanorods (Fig. 6a); 10 min after Pe addition (Fig. 6b), nanowires with a diameter of ~2 nm, which is similar to that of the former nanoclusters, are 11 12 predominant in the micrographs. Moreover, in some nanowires, which should be the 13 early formed ones, distinct boundaries in between the nanoclusters are observed. The FTIR spectra show that the ratio of Pi and PPi does not change very much during the 14 ACPPNs formation according to the relative intensities of corresponding bands, which 15 also reveals that Pi and PPi simultaneously react with Ca²⁺ in the solution instead one 16 by one. (Fig. S16a). Therefore, for the formation process, nanoclusters with a size of 1-17 2 nm are formed in the solution first, after adding Pe; then, they aggregate into short 18 19 rods; finally, the rods grow into nanowires by attaching more nanoclusters (Fig. 7).



1

Fig. 6. Study of the ACPPNs formation mechanism. (a, b) Cryo-TEM images of the formed species in the solution at 5 min (a) and 10 min (b) during the PMA (Ca/P=0.1) involved process. The magnified area indicated by dashed circles highlight single nanocluster ⁶⁴, short nanorods (blue), and long nanowires (green) formed by oriented aggregation in 1-D. (c-f) TEM images of the formed species in the solution at different times during the process of Ca/P=0.025 as indicated.

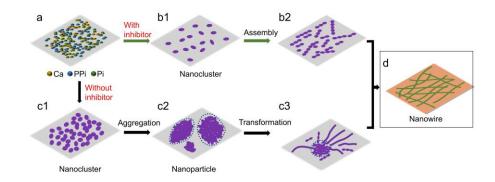
8

The formation of ACPPNs without polymer inhibitors progresses so rapidly that 9 precipitation occurs as soon as Pe is added. Thus, the question whether nanowires are 10 11 formed immediately or after a certain lag time spurs us to investigate the formation 12 progress at Ca/P=0.025. Fig. 6c shows that only nanoparticles, which seem to be built 13 up by nanocluster aggregation, are observed in the sample at 0 s. Over time, nanowires 14 appear at 15 s, with their fraction increasing afterwards, and dominating at 60 s (Fig. 15 6d-f). This indicates that the nanowires are formed at the expense of nanoparticles. Again, FTIR spectra of the samples at different time points do not vary significantly 16 17 over time indicating that the chemical compositions remain largely unchanged (Fig. S<mark>16</mark>b). Therefore, in this system, nanoclusters are formed first, but instead of 18 subsequent aggregating in 1-D (like in the presence of PMA), they then quickly 19

aggregate into nanoparticles. However, the nanoparticles finally transform into nanowires by rearrangement or a dissolution-reprecipitation process (Fig. 7). It is reasonable to understand the aggregation of early formed nanoclusters: without nucleation inhibitor and stabilizer like PMA, a large number of nanoclusters are formed in a very short time, which tend to first randomly aggregate due to the high specific surface area and high surface free energy.

Besides, when tracking the transformation process with P_e addition in the sequence
of PPi-and-Pi by Cryo-TEM, we find that nanowires are formed via the transformation
of nanoparticles as well after adding Pi (Fig. S17).

10 The transformation of nanoparticles into nanowires at later stages indicates that 11 nanowire formation should be controlled by thermodynamics rather than kinetics, that 12 is, the nanowires seem to be more thermodynamically favored than nanoparticles in the 13 long term, although we cannot categorically rule out that also kinetic aspects play a role.



14

Fig. 7. Schematic illustration of possible ACPPNs formation pathways with nucleation
inhibitor (PMA) and without nucleation inhibitor. In the presence of nucleation inhibitor,
ions (a) react to form nanoclusters with a size of 1-2 nm (b1) firstly after adding the Pe
source; then, they aggregate into short rods (b2); and finally grow into nanowires (d).
However, for ACPPNs preparation without nucleation inhibitor, nanoclusters are
formed first (c1), then quickly aggregate into nanoparticles (c2), but finally transform
into nanowires (c3) by rearrangement or a dissolution-reprecipitation process.

22 The cause for the oriented growth of ACPPNs

23 It has been established that, in crystals, the energy differences between different

facets, drives the preferential growth according to Wulff's rule ⁶⁵, leading to certain 1 2 facets exposed on the surface of crystals, forming distinct planes, angles, and edges. 3 However, it is surprising that ACPPNs, with an amorphous phase confirmed by multiple 4 characterizations, grow into this 1-dimensional structure instead of nanospheres or 5 irregular aggregates of nanoparticles without any external regulation. We also exclude 6 the effect of mechanical shear stress of stirring, by obtaining nanowires without stirring after P_e addition (Fig. S<mark>18</mark>). Generally, the amorphous solids exhibit the order in their 7 microstructure only within a very short range ⁵², where the atoms and ions are, on 8 average of nanometer scale and shorter, uniformly distributed in the solids ^{37, 51}. So, 9 10 when the amorphous solids grow by either attaching nanosized particles or atoms/ions, 11 there are no energy differences between each spatial direction, that is, all directions are 12 equally favored by the atoms and ions during attachment. This should, like in the other 13 amorphous solids, lead to the morphologies of nanospheres or irregular aggregates of 14 nanoparticles. Thus, the fact that we obtain nanowires with such high aspect ratio 15 expands this conventional view.

16 Considering that various preparation conditions (high or low Ca/P ratio, one-step, two-step, with or without polymers, Pe addition of PPi-and-Pi), and different 17 18 intermediate states (nanoclusters and nanoparticles with different compositions) all 19 result in ACPPNs formation, the growth of the nanowire should be mainly driven by its 20 inherent properties. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose that the anisotropy of the ACPPNs microstructure causes the oriented growth. As discussed above, the 21 anisotropic distribution of Pi and PPi within the nanowires has been corroborated by 22 23 ³¹P MAS NMR spectra (Fig. 4) and STEM-EELS (Fig. 5, Fig S14), and is consistent 24 with the fact that the specific addition sequence of PPi-and-Pi is important for yielding 25 nearly exclusively nanowires (Fig. S12). Thus, during the growth, the building units 26 (ions or nanoclusters) attach to the nanowire in a preferential rather than random way, 27 depending on the energy differences as shown in Fig. S19. A similar mechanism is also 28 seen in an organic system (but not in amorphous inorganic ones): the core-shell

structured cylindrical micelles, where the inner core and outer shell consist of distinct 1 components and drive the 1-D oriented growth⁶⁶. 2

3 As for the possible anisotropy in the nanoclusters, we can hardly determine it by 4 experimental characterizations due to their transient state in the solution and very small 5 size. Actually, it is believed that some amorphous solids are composed of clusters with 6 specific structures whose sizes are comparable to the short order range, for example, the so-called Posner's cluster or CHPC cluster ⁶⁷. Also, anisotropy of a special ACaPi 7 building block stabilized by a small molecule was indicated by Tang et al. 68-69. In their 8 9 work, linear ion oligomers of amorphous calcium phosphate were prepared, where the 10 chemical environment of ends and middle segments are obviously different. However, 11 oligomer attachment did not occur in 1-dimension during the growth, and nanowires 12 were not observed. As for ACaPPi, its microstructure has been much less studied than that of ACaPi. Although an order range of 8 Å was indicated by the pair distribution 13 14 function pattern¹⁷, potential anisotropy was not studied further. These all indicate that, within the size of short and medium range order, anisotropic nanoclusters could be 15 formed. In the nanoclusters-involved ACPPNs growth, beside the anisotropic 16 nanowires, Ca, Pi, PPi, and H₂O should also have formed anisotropic building blocks, 17 18 *i.e.*, the nanoclusters, with a heterogeneous distribution of components. In this sense, 19 our observations may again resemble the formation of core-shell structured cylindrical micelles⁶⁶. That is, the nanoclusters can be regarded as inorganic analogues of 20 21 amphiphilic organic diblock copolymers, or surfactants, which subsequently self-22 assemble. Please note that the formation of ACPPNs is not dependent on the presence 23 of organic amphiphiles, but an analogous, purely amorphous inorganic phenomenon.

24 Moreover, the rather slow assembly velocity of building blocks seems necessary 25 for the nanowire formation. Otherwise, the building blocks do not have sufficient time 26 for direction selection to form nanowires. In the case of PMA and PAA involved 27 reaction, it takes more than 5 minutes to initiate nucleation and further 10 minutes to finish the assembly; in the case without polymers, 1 min is needed to transform 28

nanoparticles into nanowires. This also inspires us that, a slow transformation from one
 amorphous solid to another amorphous one, may proceed via oriented growth as well
 in other materials.

4

5 **3.** Conclusion

6 The amorphous calcium phosphate-pyrophosphate nanowires (ACPPNs) are formed via an oriented growth in the aqueous regulator-free solution containing Ca²⁺. 7 8 Pi, and PPi. It is composed of amorphous calcium phosphate and amorphous calcium 9 pyrophosphate and displays the morphology of highly elongated nanowires with an 10 average diameter of ~2-3 nm, and lengths of up to hundreds of nanometers. Their amorphous phase are confirmed in multiple ways. Both Pi and PPi are indispensable 11 12 for the formation of nanowires, in which the ACaPi and ACaPPi are distributed at 13 separated sites but stay close to each other. Further studies show that the ACPPNs form via either the preferential attachment of ~2 nm nanoclusters in a 1-dimension fashion 14 15 (in the presence of nucleation inhibitor), or the transformation of bigger nanoparticles (without nucleation inhibitor). An anisotropy of the ACPPNs microstructure should 16 17 cause their preferential growth, which is rarely seen in inorganic amorphous solids. This 18 proves that, unlike the conventional view, amorphous solids can form via oriented 19 growth, expanding the conventional view on the structure and growth behavior of 20 amorphous minerals. This finding may also provide a new perspective for biomineral 21 growth in vivo, which will be studied in the future. On the other hand, given the 22 flectional morphology in the TEM images and the possible micelle-like growth behavior of ACPPNs, they display the characters of organic polymers. This work, along 23 with previous reports such as amorphous inorganic oligomers⁶⁹ and sub-one-nanometer 24 inorganic materials⁷⁰, inspires us to further explore the organics-like behaviors in 25 inorganic substances. 26

Due to technical limitations, characterizing the microstructure of amorphous solidsremains a great challenge. Therefore, the specific arrangements of the ions in ACPPNs

were not determined in this study. We also would like to remind that, during this study,
 we found significant content of impurity PPi in the chemical Na₂HPO₄ (analytical grade)
 from different commercial suppliers, which may have impacted or will further affect
 the results of researches.

5 4. Experimental Procedures

6 4.1 Materials

Sodium pyrophosphate (Na4P2O7, PPi source) was purchased from Aladdin
Biochemical Technology Co., China. Sodium phosphate dibasic (Na2HPO4, Pi source)
was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Calcium chloride dihydrate (CaCl2·2H2O)was
purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., China. Glycerin, sodium
polyacrylate (PAA, 50% in H2O, Mw 3000-5000), and polymaleic acid (PMA, 50% in
H2O, Mw 400-800) were purchased from Macklin Biochemical Co., China. All the
chemicals were used without further processing.

14 4.2 Preparation of calcium phosphate-pyrophosphate nanowires (ACPPNs)

15 ACPPNs are prepared by simply mixing the solutions of calcium source (Ca^{2+}) 16 and phosphorus source (Pi and PPi, denoted as P_e), where the amount of Ca^{2+} is fixed 17 at 1.00 mmol, but that of Pe is varied.

18 Preparation of ACPPNs at high atomic ratio of Ca/P (>0.05) by a two-step procedure

19 Typically, three solutions were prepared as follows: 1.00 mmol of CaCl₂·2H₂O 20 was dissolved in 100 ml of deionized water (solution A, 0.01 M); 5.00 mmol Pe source 21 with 15% in the form of PPi (0.375 mmol Na₄P₂O₇) and 85% in the form of Pi (4.25 22 mmol Na₂HPO₄) was dissolved in 50 ml of deionized water (solution B, 0.1M), and 23 another 5.00 mmol Pe source with same Pi/PPi ratio in 5 ml deionized water (solution 24 C, 1M), respectively. All the pH of the solutions was adjusted to 8.00 using 1M HCl 25 and NaOH solutions. Under vigorous stirring, mix solutions A and B and adjust the pH 26 to 8.00, then add solution C and keep the pH at 8.00 during the reaction. The two-step 27 procedure can facilitate the control over the pH of the reaction solution. After the

reaction, the solution was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 1 min, and the precipitation was
 washed with deionized water for 5 times and absolute ethanol for twice. All procedures
 were conducted at ambient temperature.

The ratio of P_e forms (Pi and PPi) was varied (P_e of PPi: 0, 5, 10, 15, 25, 100%) while other conditions kept the same as above to investigate the effects on the morphology of ACPPNs. For 100% PPi (only PPi as the P_e), as the solubility of PPi source, sodium pyrophosphate, in H₂O is too low to prepare solution C (https://cameochemicals.noaa.gov/chemical/25074), so the saturated PPi solution was used.

For the PAA involved preparation, 0.40 ml PAA (50% in H₂O, Mw 3000-5000)
was added into solution A, and other conditions were the same as above. For the PMA
(50% in H₂O, Mw 400-800) involved in the preparation, 1.20 ml PMA was added into
solution A, and the solvent in solution A was replaced by a mixed one of 80 mL water
+ 20 mL glycerol. Other conditions were the same as above.

15

16 Preparation of ACPPNs at low atomic ratio of Ca/P (≤ 0.05) by a one-step procedure

Based on the procedure above, all of the Pe was dissolved only in solution B, and
the addition of Pe was finished in one step (instead of two). Other conditions remained
the same as above.

As the amount of P_e is much higher than Ca, the effect of chemical reaction on the pH is negligible, and it is not very necessary to adjust pH during the reaction. Therefore, one-step method was used when adding high (≥ 20 mmol) amount of P_e (Ca/P ≤ 0.05).

To investigate the formation progress, at a specific time point, 0.5 mL reaction solution was quenched with 5.0 mL ethylene glycol, then immediately centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 1 min, washed with ethylene glycol for 3 times, and absolute ethanol for 3 times. The samples were characterized for TEM or FTIR (after drying in vacuum).

As the controls for characterizations, ACPi with the P_e in the form of HPO₄⁻(same as this work) was prepared following the previous protocol³⁸: Na₂HPO₄ (0.95 mmol) and Na₃PO₄·12H₂O (0.05 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL deionized water, then quickly
 added into 2 mL CaCl₂ (1.67 mmol) aqueous solution. After 3 s, 80 mL methanol was
 added to quench the reaction; ACPPi was prepared via the protocol same as that of Fig.
 4F.

5

6 ACPPNs formation when adding Pi and PPi in separate steps

7 The protocol follows that of a two-step procedure with modifications. Three 8 solutions were prepared as follows: 1.00 mmol of CaCl₂·2H₂O was dissolved in 100 ml 9 of deionized water (Ca solution, 0.01M); 0.75 mmol PPi was dissolved in 10 ml 10 deionized water (PPi solution, 0.075M); 8.50 mmol Pi was dissolved in 50 ml deionized 11 water (Pi solution, 0.17M). In the Ca solution, Pi and PPi in separate steps: add PPi and 12 Pi solution successively (PPi-and-Pi) with 3 s interval; add Pi and PPi solution successively (Pi-and-PPi) with 3 s interval; add PPi solution, separate the precipitation 13 14 by centrifugation, wash it with H₂O, then add Pi solution (PPi-and-Pi); add Pi solution, separate the precipitation by centrifuge, wash it with H₂O, then add PPi solution. All of 15 the resulting precipitates were separated by centrifugation and washed with deionized 16 water and absolute ethanol. 17

18

19 4.3 Solid state nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy

Solid state nuclear magnetic resonance characterization, including 1D ³¹P and ¹H 20 magic angle spinning (MAS), 2D ¹H-³¹P Heteronuclear Correlation (HETCOR) 21 CPMAS NMR, 2D ³¹P-³¹P Nuclear Overhauser exchange (NOESY) CPMAS NMR 22 were conducted using a Bruker AVANCE-III 400MHz widebore spectrometer. The 23 24 frequency of magic angle spinning was 25 kHz. NH₄H₂PO₄ and adamantane were used as references for ³¹P and ¹H MAS NMR, respectively. Fine powdered samples were 25 filled in the rotor with a diameter of 1.9 mm, and then directly measured. The NMR 26 27 peaks were integrated after deconvolution for quantitative calculations.

28 4.4 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

The samples were dispersed in absolute ethanol, then dropped on a carbon coated
 copper grids, and finally measured with the Transmission electron microscope (JEM 2100F and FEI Tecnai G2 F20).

4

4.5 Cryogenic -transmission electron microscopy (Cryo-TEM)

2 μL aqueous samples solution were taken for cryo-electron microscopy. After
dropping on a plasma treated grid, it was quickly vitrified using automated vitrification
robot (Vitrobot Mark IV/Leica EM GP2) with blot time of 5 s, wait time of 1 s, and
drain time of 0s. The sample was characterized using Thermo-Fisher Transmission
Electron Microscope (Talos L120C G2) for observation.

10 4.6 Electron Energy-Loss Spectroscopy (EELS)

11 The data EELS was acquired on a Nion High Energy Resolution Monochromated 12 STEM-EELS operating at 60 kV equipped with a Dectris ELA direct electron detector. Samples were cooled to a temperature of 100 °K using a Gatan Elsa single tilt holder 13 14 to mitigate beam damage. Light monochromation was used to reduce the fill-width at half-maximum of the electron beam to ~ 100 meV, which resulted in a beam current of 15 ~30 pA. A convergence semiangle of 30 mrad and a collection semiangle of 25 mrad 16 was used for the experiment. Spectra were background fitted with a powerlaw from two 17 18 background fit regions (125-130 eV before P L-Edge, and 270-280 eV before C K-19 Edge). Spectra were also filtered with a Gaussian-averaging-kernel with a sigma of 15 20 pixels to improve signal to noise.

21 4.7 X-ray powder diffraction (XRD)

The XRD patterns were acquired by Rigaku Ultimate IV powder X-ray Cu Ka radiation diffractometer (λ =1.5418A) with voltage of 40 kV, current of 40 mA, scanning angle of 2 θ = 5–80°, and scanning speed of 10°/min.

25 **4.8** Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

FTIR was obtained using a spectrometer (Nicolet IS50, Thermo Scientific; IRSpirit, SHIMADZU) by following the KBr technique. KBr and the sample mixture at a ratio of 100:2 were pressed into plates for measurement.

1

4.9 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

TGA measurements were performed by the analyzer (NETZSCH STA 409 PC/PG)
in the air atmosphere and the heating rate was 10 °C/min. 10-20 mg of powder samples
were used for testing.

5 4.10 X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

KPS was collected by a spectrometer (Thermo Scientific K-Alpha) with Al Kα Xrays (hv = 1486.6 eV) at 12 kV and 6 mA. All high-resolution spectra were recorded at
a pass energy of 1 eV. Sample charging was corrected by setting the lowest BE
component of the C1s spectral envelope to 284.80 eV.

10 4.11 Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES)

The powder samples were dissolved in 1% HNO₃ to determine their elemental
composition using an Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry
(Agilent 5100).

14 4.12 Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) and wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS)

15 The SAXS/WAXS experiments were conducted at the JCNS MLZ using a laboratory-based SAXS-WAXS beamline, KWS-X (XENOCS XUESS 3.0 XL). The 16 sample prepared Ca/P =0.025 (Pe=40 mmol) via a one-step procedure, and dispersed 17 18 ethanol for measurements. A MetalJet X-ray source (Excillum D2+) with a liquid metal 19 anode operated at 70 kV and 3.57 mA, emitting Ga-K α radiation with a wavelength (λ) 20 of 1.314 Å. Solution samples were measured in a sealed glass capillary (2 mm diameter 21 and 0.05mm thickness) at the capillary. The sample-to-detector distances ranged from 22 0.1 m to 1.70 m, covering the scattering vector Q range from 0.003 to 4.5 Å-1 (Q is the 23 scattering vector, $Q = (4\pi/\lambda)\sin(\theta)$, where 2 θ represents the scattering angle). The SAXS 24 patterns were normalized to an absolute scale, and azimuthally averaged to obtain the 25 intensity profiles. Ethanol as background was subtracted.

26

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