



**UNIVERSIDAD DE INVESTIGACIÓN DE TECNOLOGÍA EXPERIMENTAL
YACHAY**

Escuela de Ciencias Físicas y Nanotecnología

**TITLE: PLA a comprehensive review, and the
obtaining of its monomer from sugarcane
bagasse**

Trabajo de integración curricular presentado como requisito para la obtención
del título de Ingeniero en nanotecnología

Autor:

Jamett Cobeña Alex Daniel

Tutor:

PhD. Lobos Juan

Urququí, agosto de 2019

Urcuquí, 22 de agosto de 2019

SECRETARÍA GENERAL
(Vicerrectorado Académico/Cancillería)
ESCUELA DE CIENCIAS FÍSICAS Y NANOTECNOLOGÍA
CARRERA DE NANOTECNOLOGÍA
ACTA DE DEFENSA No. UITEY-PHY-2019-00014-AD

En la ciudad de San Miguel de Urcuquí, Provincia de Imbabura, a los 22 días del mes de agosto de 2019, a las 11:30 horas, en el Aula Sala Capitular de la Universidad de Investigación de Tecnología Experimental Yachay y ante el Tribunal Calificador, integrado por los docentes:

<u>Presidente Tribunal de Defensa</u>	<u>Dr. DÍAZ BARRIOS, ANTONIO , Ph.D.</u>
<u>Miembro No Tutor</u>	<u>Dra. MICHELL URIBE, ROSE MARY RITA , Ph.D.</u>
<u>Tutor</u>	<u>Dr. LOBOS MARTIN, JUAN , Ph.D.</u>

Se presenta el(la) señor(ita) estudiante JAMETT COBEÑA, ALEX DANIEL, con cédula de identidad No. 1311493850, de la ESCUELA DE CIENCIAS FÍSICAS Y NANOTECNOLOGÍA, de la Carrera de NANOTECNOLOGÍA, aprobada por el Consejo de Educación Superior (CES), mediante Resolución RPC-SO-13-No.156-2015, con el objeto de rendir la sustentación de su trabajo de titulación denominado: PLA a comprehensive review, and the obtaining of its monomer from sugarcane bagasse, previa a la obtención del título de INGENIERO/A EN NANOTECNOLOGÍA.

El citado trabajo de titulación, fue debidamente aprobado por el(los) docente(s):

<u>Tutor</u>	<u>Dr. LOBOS MARTIN, JUAN , Ph.D.</u>
--------------	---------------------------------------

Y recibió las observaciones de los otros miembros del Tribunal Calificador, las mismas que han sido incorporadas por el(la) estudiante.

Previamente cumplidos los requisitos legales y reglamentarios, el trabajo de titulación fue sustentado por el(la) estudiante y examinado por los miembros del Tribunal Calificador. Escuchada la sustentación del trabajo de titulación, que integró la exposición de el(la) estudiante sobre el contenido de la misma y las preguntas formuladas por los miembros del Tribunal, se califica la sustentación del trabajo de titulación con las siguientes calificaciones:

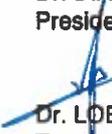
Tipo	Docente	Calificación
Tutor	Dr. LOBOS MARTIN, JUAN , Ph.D.	9,5
Miembro Tribunal De Defensa	Dra. MICHELL URIBE, ROSE MARY RITA , Ph.D.	8,8
Presidente Tribunal De Defensa	Dr. DÍAZ BARRIOS, ANTONIO , Ph.D.	8,9

Lo que da un promedio de: 9 (Nueve punto Cero), sobre 10 (diez), equivalente a: APROBADO

Para constancia de lo actuado, firman los miembros del Tribunal Calificador, el/la estudiante y el/la secretario ad-hoc.


JAMETT COBEÑA, ALEX DANIEL
Estudiante


Dr. DÍAZ BARRIOS, ANTONIO , Ph.D.
Presidente Tribunal de Defensa


Dr. LOBOS MARTIN, JUAN , Ph.D.
Tutor



Dra. MICHELL URIBE, ROSE MARY RITA , Ph.D.
Miembro No Tutor



CIFUENTES TAFUR, EVELYN CAROLINA
Secretario Ad-hoc

AUTORÍA

Yo, **ALEX DANIEL JAMETT COBEÑA**, con cédula de identidad 1311493850, declaro que las ideas, juicios, valoraciones, interpretaciones, consultas bibliográficas, definiciones y conceptualizaciones expuestas en el presente trabajo; así como, los procedimientos y herramientas utilizadas en la investigación, son de absoluta responsabilidad de el/la autora (a) del trabajo de integración curricular. Así mismo, me acojo a los reglamentos internos de la Universidad de Investigación de Tecnología Experimental Yachay.

Urququí, agosto de 2019.



Alex Daniel Jamett Cobeña

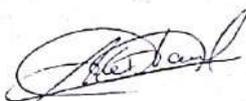
CI: 1311493850

AUTORIZACIÓN DE PUBLICACIÓN

Yo, **ALEX DANIEL JAMETT COBEÑA**, con cédula de identidad 1311493850, cedo a la Universidad de Tecnología Experimental Yachay, los derechos de publicación de la presente obra, sin que deba haber un reconocimiento económico por este concepto. Declaro además que el texto del presente trabajo de titulación no podrá ser cedido a ninguna empresa editorial para su publicación u otros fines, sin contar previamente con la autorización escrita de la Universidad.

Asimismo, autorizo a la Universidad que realice la digitalización y publicación de este trabajo de integración curricular en el repositorio virtual, de conformidad a lo dispuesto en el Art. 144 de la Ley Orgánica de Educación Superior

Urququí, agosto de 2019.



Alex Daniel Jamett Cobeña
Ci: 1311493850

Dedication

I want to dedicate this thesis to God who gave me the wisdom, knowledge, and courage to keep going every time in my life.

I want to dedicate this thesis to my mother, my father, my sister and my brother, who were always with me in the hardest part of my life. They are the ones who know who I am and the ones that are giving me all the support I need to complete my career and this work.

Also, I want to dedicate this thesis to Juan Lobos and Veronica Lobos, who were helping me in every part of my career with words of encouragement.

Acknowledgements

In first instance I would like to acknowledge God, for the health and knowledge he has provided me in order to complete this study.

I want to acknowledge my family due to all the emotional support given, they have been always aware of my efforts, being aware of my well-being as well as giving me advice and tips to continue working every day to fulfill my duties. To my mother (Gloria Cobeña), my father (Alex Jamett), my sister (Zulema Jamett), my brother (Jorge Jamett), and my brother in law (Marco Arteaga), for being fundamentals pillars in my life.

To professor Juan Lobos, without his help this literature review would not have been possible. Also to his wife, Veronica Lobos, because of the support given and the 'day-to-day life' advice, giving me another thought perspective. Thanks for every moment of learning, not only about academic stuff but also for the everyday things.

To professor Cristian Cardenas-Lailhacar, for helping me in the first reviews of this thesis.

To all the professors that accompanied me along the way and who trained me academically.

It makes me really happy to acknowledge my friends too, for being there in the happiest and the saddest moments of my college years. Starting from my High School friends: Bexy Narvaez, Cindy Mera, Daniela Toro, Johan Loor, Luisa Menéndez, María Esperanza Álava, Pedro Vega, from who I learned that it is not necessary to meet every day in order to preserve pure friendship. To my roommates: Antoni Paez, Bernardo Guerrero, Sebastián Cortez, for being my second family. To my college friends: Carlo Magno Solórzano, Charlotte Berrezueta, Cynthia Soto, David García, Diana Pereira, Jaime Sotamba, Lorena Layana, Mayra Jimenez and Sergio Hernán who were always there in the moments of need.

In general, I want to offer recognition towards to all those people who came into my life and make me grow as a person.

Resumen

Poliácido láctico (PLA) es un polímero biodegradable con un gran rango de aplicaciones. Las propiedades del material son severamente afectadas por diferentes condiciones como la pureza del monómero, catalizadores, temperatura y más. Este trabajo presenta una revisión bibliográfica del PLA, la obtención de su monómero, polimerización, propiedades, aplicaciones y caracterización. El bagazo de caña de azúcar es presentado como fuente para la producción de ácido láctico, en el cual el pre-tratamiento recibido juega un papel determinante. Las aplicaciones van a depender de las propiedades del material, como sus propiedades mecánicas o térmicas. La síntesis del PLA fue estudiada por dos rutas diferentes, policondensación y polimerización por rompimiento de anillo; en el cual el peso molecular y el rendimiento fueron analizados bajo los efectos de diferentes parámetros.

Palabras claves: Bagazo de caña de azúcar, ácido láctico, poliácido láctico, PLA, polimerización por rompimiento de anillo, policondensación directa.

Abstract

Poly (lactic acid) (PLA) is a biodegradable polymer with a wide range of applications. The properties of the material are several affected by different conditions as it monomer purity, catalyst, temperature and more. This Work present a bibliographical revision of PLA, its monomer obtaining, polymerization, properties, applications and characterization. Sugarcane bagasse its presented as a source for lactic acid production, in which the pretreatment received plays a determinant role. The applications will be depending on the properties of the material, like mechanical or thermal properties. The synthesis of PLA was studied in two different routes, polycondensation and ring opening polymerization, in which the molecular weight and yield were analyzed under the effect of different parameters.

Keywords: Sugarcane bagasse, lactic acid, Poly(lactic acid), PLA, Ring Opening Polymerization, Direct Polycondensation.

Contents

List of Figures	x
List of Tables	xii
1 Introduction	1
2 Motivation	3
2.1 Problem Statement	3
2.2 Objectives	3
3 Theoretical Framework	5
3.1 Sugarcane bagasse	6
3.2 Lactic Acid	7
3.3 Fermentation of sugarcane bagasse	9
3.4 Poly(lactic acid)	12
3.4.1 Chemical properties	13
3.4.2 Mechanical properties	14
3.4.3 Thermal properties	16
3.4.4 Degradation	18
3.5 Market information of Poly(lactic acid)	21
3.5.1 Market in Ecuador	21
3.6 Applications of Poly(lactic acid)	22
3.6.1 Pharmaceutical Industry	23
3.6.2 Textile Industry	24
3.6.3 Food Industry	25
3.7 Synthesis of poly(lactic acid)	26
3.7.1 Polycondensation	27
3.7.2 Ring opening polymerization	30
3.8 Characterization techniques of Poly(lactic acid)	36

3.8.1	Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)	36
3.8.2	Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA)	37
3.8.3	Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)	38
3.8.4	Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	41
4	Conclusions & Outlook	43
A	Short Appendix 1 Heading for the Table of Contents	45
	Bibliography	49

List of Figures

3.1	Optical isomers of lactic acid	7
3.2	Synthesis of lactic acid	7
3.3	PLA available in the market	12
3.4	PLA Structure (PLLA, PDLA, PDLLA)	13
3.5	Strain stress curve of pure PLLA and PDLA (a) with the addition of a cross linker (triallyl isocyanurate) at 3% irradiated at an energy of 10kGy (b), 20 kGy (c), 30 kGy (d) and 50 KGy (e).	15
3.6	PLA Degradation	18
3.7	photo degradation of PLA	19
3.8	Hydrolysis of PLA	20
3.9	Plastic production by Industrial sector in 2015, obtained from (https://ourworldindata.org/plastic-pollution)	22
3.10	Polycondensation method for PLA	28
3.11	Catalyst used in polycondensation. (a) Molecular weight of final polymer as a function of different catalyst. (b) Time of reaction required for each catalyst to complete the polymerization	31
3.12	Lactide stereocomplex	31
3.13	Ring opening polymerization of lactide with Sn(octoate) ₂ as catalyst	32
3.14	Molecular weight of PLA synthesized by ROP as function of different catalyst	35
3.15	Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy working principle.	36
3.16	Thermogravimetric analysis configuration.	38
3.17	DSC equipment configuration.	39
3.18	Representation of a heating process in DSC analysis	39
3.19	Differential Scanning Calorimetry of PLA reinforced with coir fibers with different temperature ramp in the cooling stage. Cooling temperature ramp at 10 K/min (red), 5 K/min (green) and 3 K/min (blue)	40
3.20	SEM working principle	41
A.1	FTIR spectra of PLA synthesized by Polycondensation with a) γ -Al ₂ O ₃ and b) ZnO	45
A.2	TGA curve of PLLA synthesized by polycondensation	46
A.3	DSC of PLA and PLA composite with banana fibers	47

A.4 Melting point temperature of PLA produced by polycondensation in function of reaction time and temperature of polymerization	48
--	----

List of Tables

3.1	Sugarcane composition	6
3.2	Pre-treatment of sugarcane bagasse for sugar obtention	10
3.3	Data of sugarcane bagasse fermentation by different microorganism	11
3.4	Hildebrand solubility factor	14
3.5	Young modulus values of PLA studied by different autors according its molecular weight	16
3.6	Glass transition temperature and Melting temperature on function of the average molecular weight for PLA	17
3.7	Thermal degradation temperature of PLA samples under different process	19
3.8	Results reported of Polycondensation for PLA with different catalyst	29
3.9	Results reported of ROP for PLA with different catalyst	33
3.10	FTIR absorption peaks of PLA	37
3.11	PLA melting temperature in function of the time and temperature of reaction	41

Chapter 1

Introduction

One of the most common synthetic biopolymer that has been studied is poly(lactic acid) (PLA), since it was first discovered in 1800¹. It can be produced from several kinds of agricultural waste (any lignocellulosic biomass,) like sugarcane bagasse²⁻⁵. The main process to its production can be explained in two parts: The first, related to the fermentation of feedstock into lactic acid; the second being the polymerization of lactic acid into Poly(lactic acid). In the first part, the amount of lactic acid produced will vary according to the pre-treatment received by the feedstock⁶. Then, the fermentation takes place for the transformation of sugar (glucose, xylose, etc) into lactic acid⁷. In the second part, the lactic acid is polymerized, which can be done in two different ways: Polycondensation or Ring Opening Polymerization (ROP)⁸; polycondensation is a relatively simple method, but with the perk of usually obtaining a low molecular weigh polymer⁹ (this problem has been studied in order to be overcome), while for ROP it is needed to have an intermediate product prior to the process (lactide) which will be then polymerized into PLA¹⁰, this method is the most used one because of the facilities to obtain a higher molecular weight polymer¹¹.

PLA has lots of applications: as food packaging, bone implant, drug delivery systems, in the automotive industry, among others¹². One of the most used ones is in the food industry as packaging, increasing the demand of this particular method during the past years¹³. Another industrial interest for the application of PLA is in the textile industry, as in the fabrication of antimicrobial fabrics to be used in hospitals¹⁴. The properties of PLA can be adjusted and controlled, which makes this polymer a good candidate to replace many fuel-based plastics being used nowadays¹⁵

In the following chapter the process for the synthesis of PLA from sugarcane bagasse is explained. The theoretical framework starts with general information about waste management, and a description of sugarcane bagasse. Then follows information about lactic acid and different ways to ferment sugarcane bagasse into lactic acid, PLA properties (chemical, mechanical) and a market studio. Three different applications of PLA are provided for each industry they are relevant for: pharmaceutical, textile and food industries. This thesis will be focusing in two methods of polymerization through a table containing different synthesis parameters that affect the polymer for each method. Furthermore, four different characterization techniques for the analysis of PLA are presented. This article ends with a conclusion of which method can be applied in Ecuador to obtain PLA from the sugarcane bagasse.

Chapter 2

Motivation

2.1 Problem Statement

According to studies, the amount of plastic production is going to double for the next 20 years¹⁶. During 2011, plastic became the most common type of waste¹⁷. South America was placed in the top 5 regions that generate more mismanaged plastic (5.81 Mt/year) waste in 2015¹⁶. It is observed that as plastic production increases, the waste and contamination due to plastics will also increase. This leads to the challenge of finding solutions applicable to this region. One way to manage the contamination due to petroleum based plastics is the use of biodegradable polymers, like poly (lactic acid). This biodegradable polymer can be used as a replacement for many petroleum based plastics, specially in the area of food packaging and disposable plastics. PLA can be obtained from different kinds of agro-industrial waste, one of them being sugarcane bagasse. By learning the process of how to synthesize this material and the characteristic that can be obtained, it can be implemented in Ecuador, been the first in the production of plastics in its primary form in this country.

2.2 Objectives

General objective:

1. To study PLA and the use of sugarcane bagasse for obtaining its monomer.

Specific objectives:

1. To analyze PLA polymerization and its monomer obtaining conditions.
2. To choose a suitable method for PLA synthesis.
3. To analyze the possibilities to implement PLA synthesis in Ecuador.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Framework

Waste management from agro-industries is a topic that has been in development for a long time by implementing a variety of techniques. The main ideas for the different treatments are focused in energy production, bio-polymers or other products of added value^{3,18,19}. The waste from industries can be from either animal or vegetable origin (lignocellulosic biomass), which are not involved in primary production^{3,20,21}. Treatments for these kind of material will depend of the final product that is desired to obtain. Anaerobic Digestion (AD) has been experiencing an increase of attention in the industry during latter years²². This way of waste treatment is usually used to obtain bio gas for energy production²³. AD can be classified according to the technology used: Anaerobic Co-digestion, Solid State Anaerobic Digestion (SS-AD), and Rumen microorganisms (RM)²⁴. Anaerobic Co-digestion is described as the anaerobic digestion of two substrates from different origin (livestock and biomass)²⁵, this method requires achieving a ratio of C/N of 20/1 - 30/1 to obtain a higher production of bio-gas or energy²⁶; the most used main substrate for this process is animal manure, while the industrial waste and agro-industrial waste is used as co-substrate²⁷. Solid State Anaerobic Digestion comes from a classification according to the amount of solid contained in the sample, it can go from Liquid (L-AD), semi-solid (S-AD) and solid state (SS-AD)²⁴. In SS-AD it is found to contain a total 10% to 20% of solid or higher, according to the solids present in lignocellulosic biomass^{28,29}; the main substrates used for this process are corn stover, wheat straw, yard trimmings, forestry waste and energy crops³⁰. SS-AD has an advantage over L-AD due to the reduction of material volume in the reactor, SS-AD can obtain the same yield in bio-gas production than L-AD but in a shorter volume, and requires lower energy demand for heating²⁹. Lastly, Rumen microorganisms (RM) are bacteria specifically present in the ruminant animals which helps with the fermentation of their food³¹, industrially being used to decompose lignin into methane and carbon dioxide³². This way of digestion have shown higher degradation efficiency and conversion rate compared to traditional techniques of AD³³.

3.1 Sugarcane bagasse

Sugarcane bagasse is considered a crop residue³⁴, it is the result of crushing the sugar cane and extracting the liquid contained. The composition of the sugarcane bagasse used in different researches is found in Table 3.1. It was found that cellulose is in the range of 35.00% - 50%, hemicellulose is in the 20.60% - 35.80% range, 16.10 % - 25.15% for lignin and, ashes 1.00% - 2.84%. The components of the bagasse can vary because of many factors, been one of them the geographical location as it is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Sugarcane composition

Sugarcane Bagasse	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Lignin	Others	Reference
Not specified	50.00%	25.00%	25.00%	–	35
Ingenio Azucarero de Mante, Mexico	38.90%	20.60%	23.90%	16.6%	36
Kaset Thai Sugar, Thailand	40.19 %	22.54%	25.15%	12.12%	37
Not specified	35.00%	35.80%	16.10%	13.1%	38
Horacio Rodriguez sugar mill, Cuba	36.10 %	20.80%	17.80%	25.3%	39
Nanning Sugar Industry Co. Ltd., China	44.98%	–	18.45%	36.57%	40
Sugar–alcohol mill, Brazil	45.00%	25.80%	19.10%	10.1%	41
Sugar mill, Brazil	45.50%	27.00%	21.10%	6.4%	42
Sugar and ethanol mills, Brazil	43.10%	25.20%	22.90%	8.8%	43
sugar and ethanol mills, Brazil	42.19%	27.60%	21.56%	8.65%	44

Sugarcane bagasse has been studied for several years, leading to a wide window of applications. For example, it can be used for cellulose film preparation after a chemical process involving the addition of acetyl groups, it was shown that the remaining cellulose acts as a plasticizer for the film preparation⁴⁵. Sugarcane bagasse is usually burned and derives in two products: the steam, which is used for electrical energy co-generation in sugarcane mills, and the ashes, which can be used as fertilizers⁴⁶; the ashes of the biomass can also be used to improve the mechanical properties of compact soil blocks since the ash acts as a stabilizer, making for a promising alternative when energy consumption and pollution issues are considered⁴⁷. Because of the contents of cellulose in sugarcane bagasse, it is used to obtain whiskers that can act as reinforcing elements in polymeric matrices; cellulose nanofibers of 255 ± 55 nm of length in average and 4 ± 2 nm of diameter in average were obtained after a pre-treatment with alkaline peroxide (bleaching), following with acid hydrolysis⁴⁸. Sugarcane bagasse can be used too to produce bio-ethanol, or turned into bio-gas that can be used for energy generation, or in different industrial heating applications^{49,50}; it has shown adsorption properties in cationic dyes such as Rhodamine B (RhB) or Basic Blue 9 (methylene blue), the absorption rate will vary according to the surface area of the bagasse⁵¹. It is possible to ferment the sugarcane bagasse to transform it into diverse products, one of them being the lactic acid which can be transformed by simultaneous hydrolysis and fermentation of the lignocellulosic biomass by using *Bacillus sp.* with a yield of 99%⁵².

According to the research center of sugarcane for Ecuador (CINCAE by its initials in Spanish, "CENTRO DE INVESTIGACIÓN DE LA CAÑA DE AZÚCAR DEL ECUADOR"), the generation of sugarcane bagasse was

estimated to be 1 300 000 tones and 140 000 tones of cachaza (which is basically composed by cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin) in 2008⁵³.

3.2 Lactic Acid

Lactic acid is a three carbon organic acid ($\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(OH)-COOH}$) known chemically as 2-hydroxypropanoic acid⁵⁴. It was first isolated in 1780 by Carl Wilhelm Scheele, and first produced commercially in 1881 by Charles E. Avery⁵⁴. There exists two optical isomers for lactic acid, L-lactic acid (also know as (S)-Lactic acid) and D-Lactic acid (also (R)-Lactic acid), as it is shown in Figure 3.1. L-lactic acid enantiomer has greater demand in pharmaceutical industry due to it is a compound generated by the human body⁵⁵.

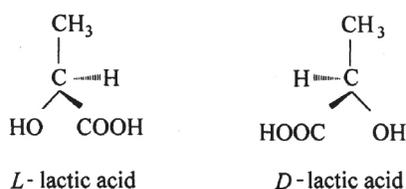


Figure 3.1: Optical isomers of lactic acid

54

In addition, two routes for the synthesis of lactic acid exist: chemical synthesis and biological synthesis (microbial fermentation), as shown in Figure 3.2 .

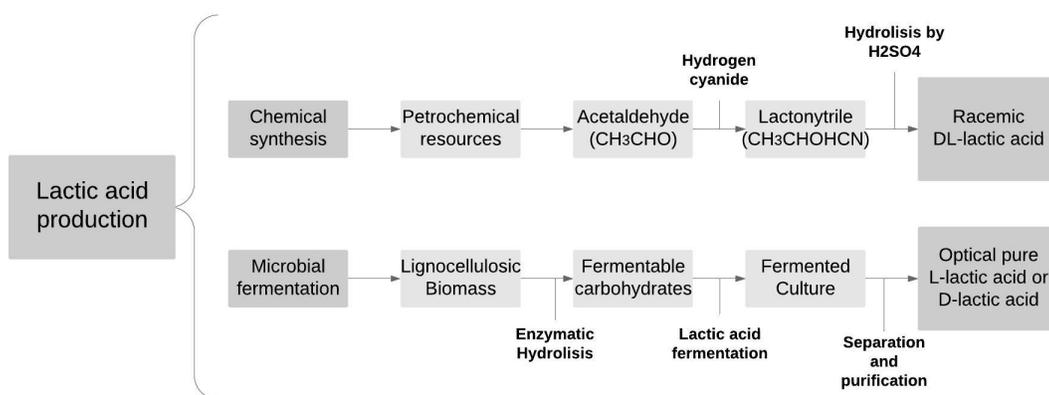


Figure 3.2: Synthesis of lactic acid

56

The chemical synthesis is based on lactonitrile⁵⁷. The process is followed by the following series of reactions⁵⁷:

a) Addition of hydrogen cyanide



b) Hydrolysis by sulphuric acid



c) Esterification



d) Hydrolysis by water



Esterification and hydrolysis by water (step c and d) are the steps of the purification for the prior lactic acid obtained in step b⁵⁴.

The microbial fermentation process is the most used one on the market⁵⁸. This process is based on the transformation of carbohydrates into lactic acid by microorganisms⁵⁸. The process is done in an environment without oxygen (Anaerobic process)⁵⁸. There are some organisms reported in literature capable of producing lactic acid, like *Lactobacillus (Lb.) casei*, *Lb. rhamnosus*, *Lb. delbrueckii*, *Lb. salivarius*, *Lb. zaeae*, *Lb. coryniformis*, *Lb. amylovorus*, *Lb. plantarum*, *Lb. kefir*, *Lb. acidophilus*, *Le. lactis*, *Streptococcus (Str) thermophilus*, *Lactococcus (Lc) lactis* sp. lactis, *Lb. pentosus*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Pediococcus acidilactici*, etc^{59,60}.

The process of microbial fermentation can be spread in four steps: first, a pre-treatment in which the lignocellulosic matrix is breaking down, second, an Enzymatic hydrolysis to depolymerize lignocellulose into fermentation sugars like glucose and xylose, third, fermentation takes place by microorganisms transforming the sugars into lactic acid, and finally, the lactic acid is separated and purified⁶⁰. The reactions for each process are^{54,57}:

a) Fermentation and neutralization



b) Hydrolysis by sulphuric acid



c) Esterification



d) Hydrolysis by water



Step c and d are referred to the purification of lactic acid that was obtained in step b⁵⁴.

Lactic acid has many uses in different industries. The principal application is in food-related industries (85% of the demand)⁶¹; another is the use of lactic acid derivatives as lactate ester which can be used in electronics and precision cleaning, this product was classified by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) as a negligible toxic with a high environmental profile⁶¹. One of the most notorious applications for lactic acid is in the production of polymers, specially a biodegradable polymer known as poly(lactic acid) which has promising properties for its use in several areas, as in surgical sutures, orthopedic implants, drug delivery, and an good alternative for petrochemical derivative plastics^{60,62}.

3.3 Fermentation of sugarcane bagasse

The fermentation of sugarcane bagasse generally requires a process in which the substrate is saccharified or hydrolyzed as a previous treatment⁶³. Hydrolysis can be done by the addition of acid (acid hydrolysis) or the uses of enzymes (enzymatic hydrolysis); that can be combined by different parameters as temperature (steam explosion)⁶³. Acid hydrolysis allows to break the hemicellulose and cellulose chains to transform into fermentable sugars as xylose or glucose^{64,65}. Potential acids in this type of hydrolysis are H₂SO₄ and HCl⁶⁵, which must be at low concentration and used at low temperature to avoid degradation of sugars³⁷. Enzymatic hydrolysis is the process in which enzymes enhance the break of bonds by adding elements of water⁶⁶. One enzymes used to hydrolyze the lignocellulosic substrate is the cellulase⁶⁷. The conditions of temperature of acid hydrolysis can be consider as pre-treatment for the enzymatic hydrolysis³⁷

Both method can be combined with pre-treatments in order to increase the reactivity of acids or enzymes⁶⁸. Two promising pre treatment are steam explosion and wet oxidation⁶⁸. Steam explosion consist in heat the lignocellulosic material by high-pressure steam followed by an explosive decompression⁶⁸. Wet oxidation consist in the treatment of the lignocellulosic material with water and air or oxygen at temperatures above 120°C⁶⁸.

In table 3.2 are presented different pre-treatment for the hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse. As it is shown NH₄OH is very used for lignin removal; the same with HCL and H₂SO₄. Temperature affect the yield of the sugar obtained in the same way that the concentration of the acid; in example too much acid with too much temperature will degrade the bagasse.

Lactic acid bacteria is one of the most studied microorganism for the production of lactic acid^{60,71}. This bacteria is classified in two types, the homofermentative and the heterofermentative⁶³. The homofermentative produces only one single product, while the heterofermentative produces other byproducts like ethanol, acetic acid, diacetyl, etc. in addition to lactic acid⁶³. The formation of lactic acid is the result of piruvic acid truning into lactate by the effect

Table 3.2: Pre-treatment of sugarcane bagasse for sugar obtention

Pre-treatment	Temperature (°C)	Sugar obtained	Yield (% w/w bagasse)	Reference
NH ₄ OH & HCl	100	Glucose Xylose	1,69 25,49	65
C ₂ H ₅ OH & NaOH	90	Glucose Xylose	26,2 8,6	69
Steam explosion & Meicellase (enzymatic hydrolysis)	50	Glucose	73,7	70
NH ₄ OH & H ₂ SO ₄	121	Glucose	32	6

or either D-Lactate dehydrogenase or L-Lactate dehydrogenase enzymes⁶³; depending on which bacteria is chosen, D-Lactic acid or L-lactic acid will be obtained⁶³. The most commonly used homofermentative lactic acid bacteria for lactic acid production are⁶³:

- *Lactococcus lactis*
- *Lactobacillus delbruecki*
- *Lactobacillus helveticus*
- *Lactobacillus casei*

There exist more homofermentative bacteria, such as *Lactobacillus amylophilus* or *Lactobacillus manihotivorans*, that have been studied to directly transform complex carbohydrates like starch or cellulose into lactic acid^{63,72,73}. This gives an additional value to this bacteria because starch is a product that can be digested by humans, while cellulose cannot⁷⁴ (starch appears in higher quantities in a regular diet, cellulose usually is less than the 10% of the starch weight depending on the kind of food, for example, White bread presents 77.5% of starch and 0.13% of cellulose for each 100g of dry matter)⁷⁵. Starch can be used as a energy source by humans because of the presence of amylase, which decomposes starch into glucose^{74,76}; this does not happen with cellulose since the enzyme required for its decomposition is only found in ruminant animals (cellulose breaks the β (1,4) glycosidic linkage)^{74,76}. For these reasons, the use of cellulose for the production of lactic acid is a viable option.

In table 3.3 are presented different results gathered from the literature of lactic acid production. It can be observed that different microorganism have been used in order to ferment the sugars obtained from the sugarcane bagasse. Every substrate was previously treated in order to take out the lignocellulosic biomass and other residues, and to obtain sugars like cellulose or xylose. The pre-treatment for each substrate can be found in the respective reference for each microorganism. The are noted different yields for each microorganism, which can be affected by the reaction time, the amount of sugars present in the sample, and the system used for the fermentation.

Table 3.3: Data of sugarcane bagasse fermentation by different microorganism

Microorganism (Bacteria)	Source	Enantiomer	Time (hours)	System	Yield (%)	Reference
Lactococcus lactis IO-1	Glucose, Xylose	L-lactic acid	64	Batch	71	65
Lactobacillus delbrueckii mutant Uc-3	Cellulose	L-lactic acid	72	Batch	83	77
Lactobacillus lactis NCIM 2368	—	D-Lactic acid	48	Batch	—	78
Lactobacillus lactis NCIM 2368	—	D-Lactic acid	120	Batch	—	78
Lactobacillus casei	Glucose	L-lactic acid	96	Batch	~103	69
Lactobacillus plantarum	Glucose	L-lactic acid	96	Batch	~103	69
Lactobacillus lactis	Glucose	L-lactic acid	96	Batch	~50	69
Lactobacillus delbrueckii	Glucose	L-lactic acid	96	Batch	~42	69
Lactobacillus delbrueckii NBRC 3534	Glucose	D-Lactic acid	72	static incubator	90	79
Bacillus sp. P38	—	L-lactic acid	100	Fed-Batch	99	80
Lactococcus lactis	Glucose, Xylose	L-Lactic acid	72	Fed-Batch	1.4	6
Bacillus coagulans SIM-7	Glucose	L-lactic acid	10	Batch	92	81
Lactobacillus delbrueckii DSM 20073	Glucose	L-lactic acid	24	Batch	86	81
Lactobacillus casei LA-04-1	Glucose	L-lactic acid	84	Batch	88.6	82
Bacillus sp. strain 17C5	—	L-lactic acid	192	Batch	89	83
Bacillus coagulans DSM 2314	Lignocellulosic sugars	L-lactic acid	68	SSF	83	84

SSF (simultaneous saccharification and fermentation)

3.4 Poly(lactic acid)

Poly(lactic acid), or PLA, is a biodegradable polymer first discovered in 1800 by Pelouze when he condensed the lactic acid through distillation obtaining PLA of low molecular weight¹. In this process two different products were obtained, PLA of low molecular weight and lactide (a prepolymer for the polymerization of high molecular weight PLA)¹. Poly(lactic acid) can degrade by different mechanisms, whether chemical or biological, that will be affected by the characteristics of the polymer, like crystallization, molecular weight, melting point, etc.⁵⁴. The polymer will change its properties according to its composition. As it was mentioned before, there are different stereoisomers for PLA (L-lactic acid and D-lactic acid). The polymer can have this conformation also, polymerizing into poly(L-lactic acid) (PLLA), poly(D-lactic acid) (PDLA), or a mixture of both, poly(D,L-lactic acid) (PDLLA)⁵⁸. PLLA and PDLA are mirror images which present semicrystalline structure, while PDLLA is an amorphous polymer⁸⁵. The crystallinity of the material will be affected by the optical isomers presented, for high optical purity the PLA have a higher percentage of crystallinity while for less optical pure material it present an amorphous phase⁸⁶. In Figure 3.3 can be found the available product in the market. For the semicrystalline structure, PDLA and PLLA, the material looks opaque; while for the amorphous phase, PDLLA, the material looks transparent. When different frequencies of light interact with the surface of a material, the atomic response of the subject will be in form of vibrations that can be selectively absorbed, transmitted or reflected⁵⁸. PDLLA looks transparent because the vibrations of the electron are transmitted to the neighboring atoms and them remitted to the opposite side of the material⁵⁸. In the other hand, PDLA and PLLA looks opaque because the vibration of the atoms do not pass to the neighboring atoms, producing in short periods of time vibrations that are remitted as reflected light⁵⁸.



Figure 3.3: PLA available in the market

87

Poly(lactic acid) has been of interest during the former years, showing an exponential growth of publications about this polymer from 1990 to 2009¹. The main reason of this behaviour comes from the variety of applications that this particular polymer has, which can go from the food industry, as in food packaging, to the pharmaceutical industry, like composites for drug delivery systems.^{88,89} Among the biggest companies producing and exporting poly(lactic acid) that can be found in USA there is NatureWorks, which in addition to producing high quality PLA, reduces pollution, decreasing the amount of CO_2 emitted to 0.27 kg CO_2 eq./kg PLA in 2006 (a 85% reduction compared to 2003) and also the amount of fossil energy required to 27.2 MJ/kg PLA on 2006 (50% reduction over

2003)²

3.4.1 Chemical properties

Poly(lactic acid), as forementioned, can be formed in different configurations. According to an specific configuration, the polymer will have different properties. PLA structure is shown in Figure3.4 and the empirical formula is $(C_3H_4O_2)_n$ ⁹⁰. PLLA is polymerized from L-Lactic acid, PDLA is polymerized from D-Lactic acid, and PDLLA is polymerized from D-Lactic acid and L-Lactic acid⁹¹.

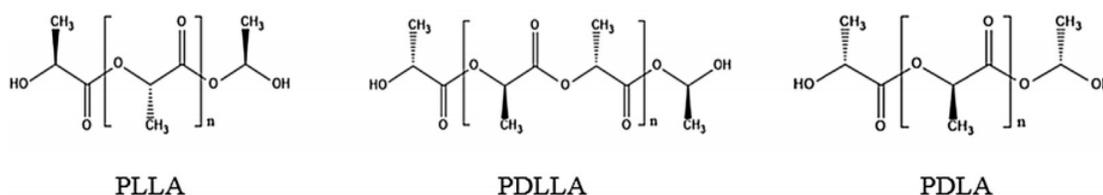


Figure 3.4: PLA Structure (PLLA, PDLA, PDLLA)

91

The solubility of a material will depend on the Hildebrand solubility parameter^{92,93}:

$$\delta = \left(\frac{(\Delta E_V)}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (3.9)$$

where δ is the Hildebrand solubility parameter, ΔE_V is the cohesive energy and V is the molecular volume. When the magnitude of this parameter (for some substances) is equal or similar, it is said that they are miscible or soluble⁹². The Hildebrand solubility factor for PLA and some other substances are presented in table3.4. Poly(lactic acid) in its amorphous phase can be soluble in most organic solvents, for example, Tetrahydrofuran (THF), chlorinated solvents, benzene, acetonitrile and dioxane⁹⁴. Crystalline PLA is soluble in chlorinated solvents and benzene at high temperatures⁹⁴.

Afterwards, a new parameter was introduced linked with properties, like polarity and hydrogen bond system (known as Hansen solubility parameter), which is a sum of δ_D (non polar), δ_p (polar) and δ_h (hydrogen bond)¹. Under this criteria, PLA can only dissolve in a solvent when this parameter is less than 2.5¹. PLA can be used for containers or storage systems for different liquids, as in water, ethanol, hexane, because they have a difference grater than 2.5 in Hansen parameter^{1,95}.

Another important property to keep in mind is the barrier that PLA has over other substances, which is determinant for packaging applications. PLA barrier properties was compared to Low density Polyethylene (LDPE) and polystyrene (PS) with N_2 , O_2 , CO_2 and CH_4 . The permeation of N_2 in LDPE was 1.9 barrers, in PS was 4.1 barrers and in PLA 5.4 barres⁹⁶. PLA shows better permeation of N_2 increasing 184.21% and 31.71% in comparison of LDPE and PS respectively. The permeation of O_2 was 6.9 barrers for LDPE and 9.5 barrers for PS and 12.8 for PLA⁹⁶. PLA shows better permeation of O_2 with respect LDPE (85.51% more) and PS (34.73% more). CO_2

Table 3.4: Hildebrand solubility factor

Substance	Solubility parameter ($cal^{0.5}cm^{-1.5}$)
Toluene	8.9
Ethyl acetate	9.1
Chloroform	9.3
Methylene chloride	9.7
Dioxane	10.0
Acetophenone	10.6
Acetonitrile	10.9
PLA	9.8 - 10.2

permeation was 28 barres for LDPE, 38.5 barrers for PS and 48.7 barrers for PLA⁹⁶. PLA present higher permeation of CO₂ compared to LDPE (73.93% more) and PS (26.49% more). CH₄ has a permeation of 4 barrers for LDPE, 6.3 barrers for PS and 7.3 barrers for PLA⁹⁶. PLA present better permeation of 82.5% more with respect LDPE and 15.87% more with respect PS.

3.4.2 Mechanical properties

Poly(lactic acid) is a plastic, so in general it present in properties of plastics as it is shown in Figure 3.5⁹⁷. Although this generality, PLA vary its mechanical properties according its composition, chirality, molecular weigh, crystallinity, etc.^{1,98,99}. In Figure 3.5 is shown how the addition of crosslinkers change the mechanical properties of PLA without losing its plastic properties⁹⁷. In another example, the elongation at break in tensile tests of PLLA shows that it increases according the molecular weight is increased; for PLLA with a molecular weight of 23 000 g/m the elongation at break is at 1.5%, while for PLLA of a molecular weight of 67 000 g/mol the elongation at break is at 7.0%⁵⁸. The elongation at break for flexural test present that is going to be higher as the molecular weight increase⁵⁸. The tensile strength of PLLA after annealing at 105°C is going to increase as the molecular weight is higher⁵⁸.

In general, semicrystalline PLA has a tensile modulus (Young modulus) around 3000-4000 MPa, a tensile strength around 50-70 MPa, an elongation at break around 2-10%, a flexural strength around 100 MPa and a flexural modulus about 4000-5000 MPa⁵⁸. In table 3.5 the young modulus is observed in function of the molecular weight. Depending on the polymerization conditions, the young modulus will have different behaviour respect the molecular weight¹⁰⁰. It is not a clear tendency that relate the young modulus and the molecular weight, it can be observed in Table 3.5 that the young modulus remain the same for PLLA of a molecular weight of 23000 g/mol and 31000 g/mol. Degradation affect the young modulus, but there is not a tendency¹⁰⁰. After hydrolytic degradation (60 weeks) the young modulus decrease from 1.34 GPa to 0.9 GPa for PLLA with a molecular eight of 490000 g/mol; in the other hand for PLLA with a molecular weight of 122000 the young modulus increase from 0.86 GPa to 1.04 GPa¹⁰⁰.

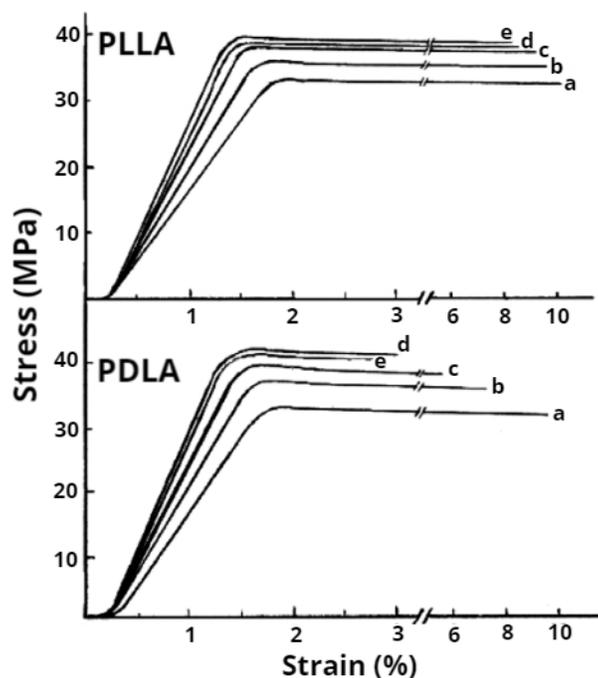


Figure 3.5: Strain stress curve of pure PLLA and PDLA (a) with the addition of a cross linker (triallyl isocyanurate) at 3% irradiated at an energy of 10kGy (b), 20 kGy (c), 30 kGy (d) and 50 KGy (e).

97

By annealing PLA, the crystallinity can increase considerably; as an example a sample of PLLA with a molecular weight of 23000 can have a crystallinity of 9% before annealing, but PLLA with a molecular weight of 20000 can have a crystallinity of 70% after annealing at 150°C⁵⁸. The increment in crystallinity produce a reduction in the elongation at break⁵⁸. Furthermore, a higher degree in crystallization means a lower content of free volume, and in consequence, a general stiffness increase¹⁰⁵.

Toughness of poly(lactic acid) can be improved by four different ways: biaxial stretching, external plasticizing with plasticizers, blending with other polymers, and internal plasticizing by reactive extrusion¹⁰⁶. Biaxial stretching is a technique in which a specific orientation of the polymer is generated by changes in the microstructure¹⁰⁶. Among the techniques used for the orientation of the polymer are found film blowing or cable drawing¹⁰⁶. As an example, it was shown that by producing orientation on PLA, the strength at break goes from 62.9 MPa to 95.4 MPa and the elongation at break goes from $5.4 \pm 0.9\%$ to $114 \pm 5\%$ (the orientation was done by the elongation of PLA at a temperature of 60 °C¹⁰⁷).

Plasticizers as poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) or acetyl tributyl citrate (ATBC) have been studied for the improvement of mechanical properties of PLA¹⁰⁶. It was studied that the addition of PEG and organic montmorillonite (OMMT) to PLA can increase the elongation at break of the polymer from $10.83 \pm 0.50\%$ to $183.09 \pm 15.67\%$; while the

Table 3.5: Young modulus values of PLA studied by different authors according its molecular weight

PLLA origin	Molecular Weight (g/mol)	Young's Modulus (GPa)	Reference
Synthesized by Peregeo et al.	23000	3,55	101
Synthesized by Peregeo et al.	31000	3,55	101
4032D, NatureWorks	52000	1,4	102
Synthesized by Peregeo et al.	58000	3,75	101
Synthesized by Peregeo et al.	67000	3,75	101
3051D, NatureWorks	70000	3,25	103
Synthesized by saha et al.	80700	1,07	100
Unitika Ltd.	122000	0,86	100
Ingeo™2003D, NatureWorks	180000	3,04	104
Polysciences Inc.	409000	1,34	100

thermal stability was improved by the promotion of heat transfer in the matrix of the material¹⁰⁸. Plasticizers also are studied for the improvement of ductility in PLA⁹⁶. For blending polymers with PLA, biodegradable polyesters are the most used¹⁰⁶. It has been studied the addition of poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) (PHB) and poly(butylene succinate) (PBS) to obtain a ternary blend with higher elongation at break. PLA presented an elongation at break of $7.6 \pm 0.5\%$ while the ternary blend presented $49.3 \pm 17.8\%$ ¹⁰⁹. Reactive extrusion consist on the blending of polymers and the reactivity of the hydroxyl and carboxyl group of PLA to improve the compatibility between polymers¹⁰⁶. As an example, the addition of tris(nonylphenyl) phosphite (TNPP) as stabilizer was studied for the blending of PLA with Polyamide11 (PA11). The addition of PA11 shows a improvement in the blend avoiding the degradation of PLA at the moment of the blending, thus mechanical properties as tensile strength and young modulus increased in the blend¹¹⁰.

3.4.3 Thermal properties

The thermal properties of PLA will vary according to its composition, molecular weight, polymerization method, and thermal history among other parameters¹. The crystallinity can be measured with Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) by applying the following equation:

$$X_c(\%) = \frac{\Delta H_m - \Delta H_{CC}}{\Delta H_{mT}} * 100 \quad (3.10)$$

where ΔH_m is the melting enthalpy, ΔH_{CC} is the cold crystallization value (from DSC), and ΔH_{mT} is the melting enthalpy of the totally crystallized sample; that in the case of PLA is 93 J/g .¹¹¹

Commonly used PLA have a low crystallization rate and a crystallinity of 16% with a melting temperature $T_m = 155^\circ\text{C}$ ¹¹². In comparison with PDLLA, the stereoisomers PLLA and PDLA usually are highly crystalline,

which will depend on its purity¹¹². As an example, PLLA with an optical purity of 97% will have a degree of crystallinity approximately of 37% with a melting point (T_m) around 137 °C - 178 °C, and a glass transition temperature (T_g) of 53 °C - 63 °C¹¹². Crystallinity in PLA can be improved by blending PLLA with PDLA, forming an stereocomplex of PLA and increasing too the melting point of the polymer (which is maximized when 50/50 blend is used)¹¹². As a comparison, the melting temperature of PLLA, obtained from Purac, is 188 °C, while their PDLA is amorphous and in consequence its melting temperature is not defined, and lastly, for the stereocomplex of Poly(lactic acid) (scPLA), obtained from Teijin, it shows a melting temperature about 200 °C - 230 °C¹¹².

The molecular weigh has a strong effect in the melting temperatures and the glass transition temperatures as it is shown in Table 3.6⁹⁸. According to the molecular weigh increase, the melting temperature and glass transition temperature will increase too⁹⁸. The highest molecular weight indicate the formation of partly-crystalline structure⁹⁸.

Table 3.6: Glass transition temperature and Melting temperature on function of the average molecular weight for PLA

Average molecular weight (M_n) (g/mol)	Glass transition temperature (T_g) (°C)	Melting temperature (T_m) (°C)
12 930	34,07	112,76
23 363	–	114,69
24 799	42,10	118,65
25 004	42,67	125,95
26 348	–	136,93
28 823	50.92	147,44

Thermal conductivity is an important property for polymers because of its applications in technology as energy dissipators and as electrical insulators¹¹³. Ingeo PLA from NatureWorks presents different values for thermal conductivity. For an amorphous PLA sheet: at -8°C the thermal conductivity is 0.127 J/(mKs); for 25°C, 0.130J/(mKs); for 58°C, 0.131J/(mKs), for 124°C, 0.126J/(mKs); and for 190°C, 0.121J/(mKs). For instance, thermal conductivity crystalline pellets (25% of crystallinity) at 25°C is 0.160J/(mKs) (data obtained from Engineering Properties of Ingeo Biopolymer, technical data sheet from NatureWorks)¹¹⁴. There have been observed that the thermal conductivity can increase significantly by the addition of nanostructures such as graphene or carbon nanotubes¹¹⁵.

The cooling processes can change the properties in the PLA. It was shown that PLA with nanoparticles of coir fibres increase its crystallinity when the cooling temperature ramp is small¹¹¹. When the cooling ramp was 10 k/min the crystallinity was 9%; in the other hand when the cooling ramp was 3 K/min the crystallinity was 48.1%¹¹¹. Shape and dimensional injected part instability is the result of intense cooling in a material which is a result of cold crystallization¹¹¹. By reducing the cooling ramp, it was possible to eliminate the cold crystallization of the composite injected parts¹¹¹.

3.4.4 Degradation

The degradation of PLA is one of the most important properties to study since it is one of the primary functions for this polymer¹¹⁶, this process will vary according to the conditions to which it has been subjected to. It can be described as abiotic degradation and biotic degradation as it is shown in Figure 3.6⁵⁴. For abiotic degradation 4 different mechanisms exist: mechanical degradation, photo degradation, thermal degradation and chemical degradation, while for biotic degradation two mechanisms are studied: microorganism degradation and enzymatic degradation.

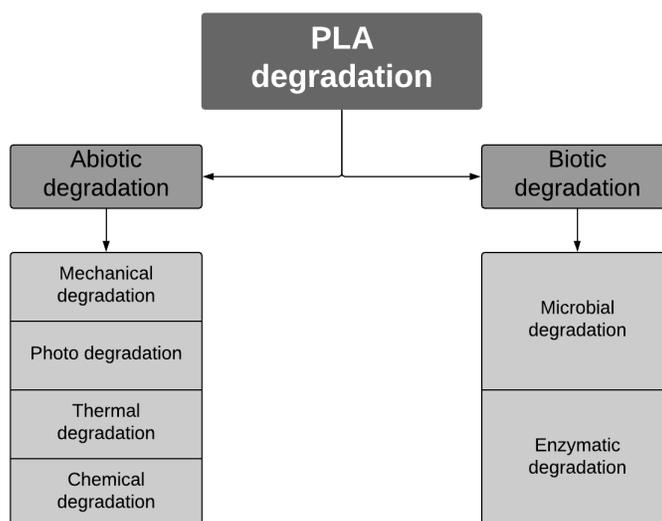


Figure 3.6: PLA Degradation

54

Mechanical degradation

The mechanical degradation is a process involving the application of several forces (compression, tension, shear, agitation, grinding or extrusion) in order to break the plastic and thus obtaining a size reduction^{54,117}. This mechanism of degradation is not the most predominant for Biodegradable polymers, but it can increase the rate of degradation for the previously mentioned methods^{54,117}

Photo degradation

The mechanism of photo degradation is shown in Figure 3.7 which makes reference to the Norris II mechanism of carbonyl polyester¹¹⁸. This process usually leads to a loss of mechanical properties, in particular stiffness and strength¹¹⁸. UV rays are absorbed by the carbonyl groups, which in exchange will generate free radicals leading to

a lower molecular weight kind^{1,117}. The Norris II mechanism shows the chain scission (low molecular weight), and consequent formation of a C=C double bond, and hydroperoxide O-H in the new terminals¹¹⁷

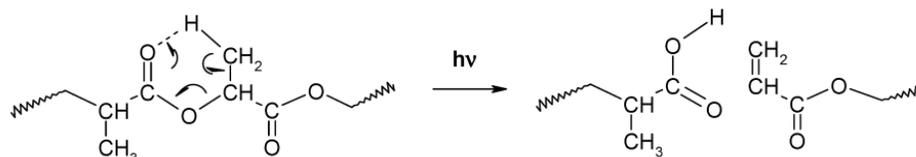


Figure 3.7: photo degradation of PLA

118

For the photo degradation process there are available photo-sensitive additives, under the effect of UV rays these release free radicals, which will attack and break randomly the polymeric bonds⁵⁴. This process can be monitored by Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) allowing an analysis of the differences in absorbance corresponding to the peak of hydroxyl and carbonyl¹¹⁶.

Thermal degradation

Thermal degradation is based on the use of heat to promote oxidation of the carbon in the plastic constituting polymer backbone⁵⁴. For poly(lactic acid) the temperature at which thermal degradation occurs between 159°C and 178°C⁵⁴. The process used to introduce PLA will require to subject it to a different temperature, as it is shown in table 3.7. PLA V is the raw material and presents the maximum degradation temperature required. PLA-I stands for poly(lactic acid) which undergoes injection, PLA-IA for injected and annealed PLA, PLA-EI for extruded and injected poly(lactic acid), PLA-EIA for extruded, injected, and annealed PLA¹.

Table 3.7: Thermal degradation temperature of PLA samples under different process

Sample	T ₅ (°C)	T ₅₀ (°C)	T ₉₅ (°C)	T _p (°C)
PLA-V	331	358	374	362
PLA-I	325	356	374	359
PLA-IA	323	353	370	357
PLA-EI	325	357	374	358
PLA-EIA	324	352	369	356

Chemical degradation

Chemical degradation is related to the interaction of atmospheric pollutants or agrochemicals in order to change the properties of the polymer⁵⁴. Oxygen is considered the most powerful element to cause degradation as it attacks the covalent bonds, producing free radicals⁵⁴.

Hydrolysis is another way of chemical degradation and can be analyzed by Differential scanning calorimetry, thermogravimetric analysis, or Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy¹¹⁷; the mechanism is shown in Figure 3.8⁵⁴. This process is an auto catalyst process in which the lactic acid boosts the catalysis of the hydrolytic reaction¹. There are three possibilities of hydrolysis, one being surface erosion, another bulk degradation and also bulk degradation with auto catalysis¹: in surface erosion the material starts to degrade from the surface to the center of the polymer; for bulk degradation, the whole material degrades at the same rate; in bulk degradation with auto catalysis, the plastic starts to degrade from the inner areas to the surface, generating in first instance a hole in the center of the material. Usually, bulk degradation occurs at a higher rate than the surface erosion since in surface erosion the lactic acid diffuses in the buffer where PLA is located, furthermore, in bulk erosion the lactic acid remains inside the PLA sample, producing a higher auto catalysis and leading to a higher rate of degradation (that was observed in an experiment at 37°C with a buffer at pH of 7.4)^{1,119}

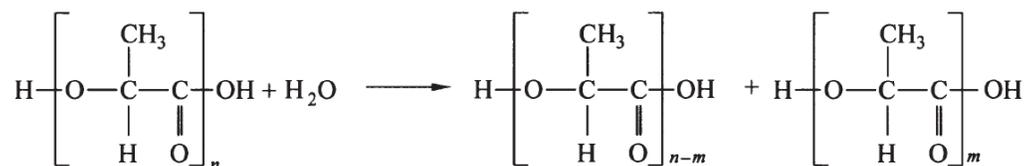


Figure 3.8: Hydrolysis of PLA

54

Microbial degradation

Polymers can be degraded by being exposed to different kinds of microbes, selected depending on the specific polymer being degraded. Environmental conditions will be determinant to the degradation of the material since the microbial degradation rate is highly affected by microbial population, and parameters like humidity, temperature, pH, salinity, oxygen content, and nutrients supply¹²⁰. For the microbial degradation of PLA, most *Amycolatopsis* genus members can degrade it¹²¹. PLA is hard to degrade under its glass transition temperature because of its inactivity, but with *Amycolatopsis sp.* it was shown that PLA can be degraded even at a temperature below the glass transition temperature¹²². Other microorganisms have been used in order to prove the degradation of PLA by microorganism, for example, *Saccharothrix waywayandensis* is an actinomycete that degrades poly(lactic acid)¹²¹, in an study it was shown that mass loss for PLA was of 95% after 4 days¹²¹. The culture conditions are critical at the moment of degradation considering that it can improve the degradation rate of the material, plus crystallinity, which plays an important role at the moment of degradation (PLA with high degree of crystallinity is resistant to biological attack)^{121,121}.

Enzymatic degradation

Hydrolysis is one of the major degradation mechanisms for PLA¹. This process can be improved by the addition of enzymes¹. These enzymes can be secreted by microorganism that are found in the environment¹²³. The enzymatic degradation of polymers can also be observed in the human body: in contact with tissues and body fluids, several enzymes (as horseradish peroxidase, catalase, xanthine oxidase among others,) leads to an oxidative or hydrolysis process¹²³. Depending of the microorganism used during degradation, the process can be classified as aerobic or anaerobic and each will be highly affected by the conditions in which the degradation is taking place¹¹⁷.

For PLA degradation, the key enzymes are protease and lipase, both have been observed to attack the amorphous parts first, and then the crystalline parts¹²³⁻¹²⁵. In particular, for the case of proteinase K, the ester bond connecting the L-Lactyl units is hydrolyzed prior to D-Lactyl units¹²³. Enzymatic action can be also affected by the aging of the polymer: mobility decrease in the polymer chain due to the aging, makes the enzymatic attack less efficient¹²⁴. Additionally, it has been shown that for proteinase K. the rate of degradation can be reduced when PDLA is added to PLLA¹²⁶.

PLA degradation is slow when the crystallinity is high (more than 26%) and if the molecular weigh is high^{99,127}. Normally PLA is attacked by fungi and bacteria that segregate enzymes that brake the polymer in fragments of around 500 g/mol which can be digested by microorganism⁹⁹. In the body, PLA is depolymerized by chemical hydrolysis which leads to loose of molecular weight, then a loss of mass, and finally a decomposition into monomers by macrophages; finally the lactic acid is degrade by lactates and pyruvates to be then eliminated in form of CO₂⁹⁹.

3.5 Market information of Poly(lactic acid)

The annual production of plastic in 2015 was of 381 millions of tonnes, being most commonly used (146 millions of tonnes) in the packaging sector^{128,129}. In Figure 3.9 is shown the amount of plastic produced by different industrial sectors in 2015. Specifically for PLA, the largest industry segment was packaging, with a 37% of the total production destined to it¹³⁰. The second largest segment of the PLA use is in the textile industry¹³⁰.

Poly(lactic acid) market was valued at 247.2 millions of dollars in 2014, with a dominant use in packaging¹³⁰. Compound annual growth rate (CAGR) is estimated at of 19.5% during the period of 2013-2020 (according to Sarah Clark and Ranjan Singh in the report "Polylactic Acid (PLA) Market by Application (Packaging, Agriculture, Electronics, Textiles, Bio-Medical), By Geography (North America, Europe, Asia-Pacific, LAMEA) - Global Opportunity Analysis and Industry Forecast, 2012 - 2020"¹³¹.)

The mayor production of PLA in the world was done by NatureWorks, followed by Pyramid technologies in 2014¹³². The three top countries exporting PLA are the United States, Netherlands, and China¹³².

3.5.1 Market in Ecuador

Ecuador has non production of Poly (lactic acid), this material is imported with a value around \$ 2.55K (approx 0.2% of total importations in Ecuador) according to the Observatory of Economic Complexity (OEC)¹³³. About 0.16% of

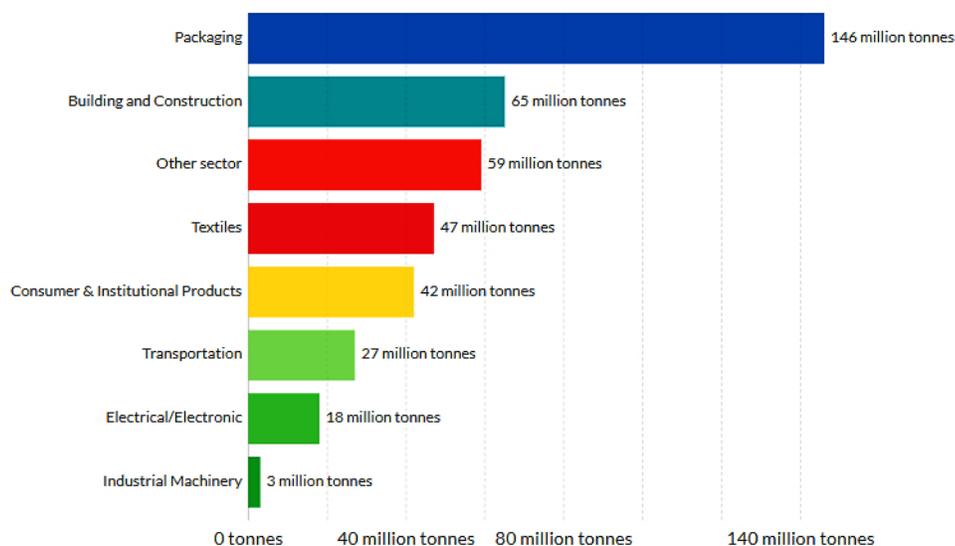


Figure 3.9: Plastic production by Industrial sector in 2015, obtained from (<https://ourworldindata.org/plastic-pollution>)

129

total importations in Ecuador correspond to Lactic Acid with a value of \$ 932K¹³³. Ecuador does not export neither PLA or lactic acid¹³³. This polymer is well used by Ecuadorian companies as "Innova 3D" and "TAICED" in 3D printing as base material for their designs^{134,135}.

According to OEC in 2017, the total importations value for Ecuador in plastic and rubber is \$ 1.28B, from which 16% is occupied by Ethylene polymers (\$ 205M), and 9% by Propylene polymers (\$ 115M)¹³³. Total exports for Ecuador in plastics and rubber is \$ 168M, from which 2.5% is occupied by Propylene polymers (\$ 4.14M), and 0.8% by Ethylene polymers (\$ 1.35M)¹³³.

According to "Cámara de Industrias de Guayaquil" (Guayaquil Chamber of Industries) in 2017, from the total importations of plastics in primary form, 33% correspond to Ethylene polymers and 18% correspond to Propylene polymers¹³⁶. In 2017 Ecuador had not petrochemical Industry, which is the supplier of raw material of the plastic products manufacturing sector¹³⁶. This leads to the country to import all the raw material for plastic products generation which had a total value of \$ 602.92M in 2017.

3.6 Applications of Poly(lactic acid)

PLA have been a material of interest because its characteristics like mechanical properties, thermal properties, chemical properties, degradation, and also its way of manufacture. This material have been proved to replace a

petrochemical based plastics which lead us to a wide options for its use⁹⁶. The most studied applications of PLA are in the Pharmaceutical industry, in the textile industry, and in the food industry. This section is going to review those three industries explained different examples that have been under research.

3.6.1 Pharmaceutical Industry

Because of the biodegradability, bio compatibility and bioresorbable ability of the Poly(lactic acid), is one of the materials that can be leader in this area⁹⁶. There exist many applications in the medical field, since cancer treatment, drug delivery systems, prosthesis, etc.

Along different ways of cancer treatment, Chemotherapy is still used in patients with different type of cancer like ovarian cancer or breast cancer¹³⁷⁻¹³⁹. Fisetin is an natural flavonoids used for cancer treatment of different types like prostate cancer, melanoma (skin cancer), colorectal cancer, bladder cancer, breast cancer, leukemia and cervical cancer¹⁴⁰. It affects multiple molecular and signaling pathways depending on the cancer type¹⁴⁰. It have been studied the possibilities that PLA nanoparticles can encapsulate fisetin in order to delivered controlled in the body¹⁴¹. The nanoparticles were prepared by the spontaneous emulsification solvent diffusion method¹⁴¹. For this method four different parameter will affect the nanoparticles properties, the first is the concentration of poloxamer 188, the second is the oil to water phase ratio, the third is the drug to PLA mass ratio, and the fourth is the acetone to ethanol volume ratio¹⁴¹. The particles were analyzed by Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) in which it was noticed that the particles were spherical and monodispersed¹⁴¹. The PLA nanoparticle filled with fisetine showed a higher anti-tumor effect than the free fisetin solution¹⁴¹.

Another compound for chemotherapy have been reported to be encapsulated by PLA and poly glycolic acid (PGA)¹⁴². L-asparaginase (ASNase) which is a key chemotherapeutic agent for acute lymphoblastic leukemia was loaded into nanospheres of a co polymer compound by PLA and poly glycolic acid¹⁴². The method of preparation was the water-in-oil-in-water solvent evaporation technique¹⁴². The particles prepared were spherical monodispersed with a mean diameter of 390 ± 88 nm¹⁴². It was showed that the release rate for this compound changed according the ratio of PLA and PGA and its molecular weigh¹⁴³. In 14 days, 81.9% of the compound was released when the molecular weigh was 12 Kda (low molecular weigh) whereas 46.3% of the compound was release when the molecular weigh was 30 Kda¹⁴³. Finally it was demonstrated that the specific activity of the encapsulated compound was higher than the compound freely delivered¹⁴². It have been studied also the encapsulation

It have been reported also that encapsulation of baricitinib (drug used for rheumatoid arthritis treatment) into the co polymer of poly(lactic acid - glycolic acid) PLGA¹⁴⁴. The preparation of the nanoparticles loaded with the drug was by precipitation method in which the insoluble drug is precipitated in an aqueous phase with the addition of the polymer mixture slowly in moderated stirring¹⁴⁴. The nanoparticles were spherical and dispersed with a diameter in the scale of nanometers (the diameter will vary according the different conditions of the preparation for the nanoparticles), the smallest diameter obtained was of 88 nm¹⁴⁴. It was demonstrated that the drug was effectively released resulting in 89% of release after 12 hours and 94% of release in 24 hours¹⁴⁴. Those results suggest that this configuration can be used for management of chronic rheumatoid arthritis by reducing the side effects of baricitinib because of its low concentration¹⁴⁴.

Along other application it has been studied the synthesis of PLLA nanofibers for medical applications^{145,146}. The preparation of these nanofibers can be done by using the method of electrospinning¹⁴⁵. Nanofibers of PLA can be combined with polyglutamic acid γ -PGA for treatment of wounds¹⁴⁶. There were tested in-vivo experiment by using the fibers in mice wounds¹⁴⁶. After 14 days of the wound creation, the mice with nanofibers treatment resemble normal skin and the re-epithelialization was significantly increased compared to the control group¹⁴⁶. The resulting nanofibers had a diameter around 120 ± 31 nm¹⁴⁶.

There are also some applications in the macro scale. PLA has been used as a matrix with hydroxyapatite loading with gentamicin¹⁴⁷. This composite was intended to use in dental and orthopedic implants to prevention of bacterial infection¹⁴⁷. The drug (antibiotic) loaded in the composite is released in three different stages. The first stages is in the first week in which the drug is released from the surface of the prosthesis, the second stage (week 1 to 5) the material start to degrade and the liquid medium penetrate the matrix where the drug is stored and them released, in the final stage (week 5 to 15) the drug was released completely with the total degradation of the material¹⁴⁷. The release mechanism of this material is affected by the degradation rate that can be tuneable to specific applications¹⁴⁷.

A lot of different applications exist in the pharmaceutical industry for PLA in the nano, micro and macro scale¹⁴⁸⁻¹⁵⁰. They can go from encapsulating different compounds for its respective delivery^{151,152}, till macro devices for tissue engineering¹⁵³ or prosthesis (3D printing)^{154,155}.

3.6.2 Textile Industry

Another field in which PLA can be applied is in the textile industry⁵⁴. It has been reported the fabrication of cotton fabric by the addition of PLA and chitosan nanoparticles¹⁵⁶. The PLA and chitosan nanoparticles were prepared by the ionic gelation technique¹⁵⁶. The method consisted in dissolve chitosan into acetic acid, then PLA is dissolved in chloroform which was added drop by drop to the chitosan solution; after that, the solution is sonicated and a cross linking agent is added¹⁵⁶. Finally the solution is stirrer vigorously and centrifuged to obtain the desired product¹⁵⁶. The nanoparticles were spherical shape with a average diameter of 88.02 nm¹⁵⁶. Finally the nanoparticles were added to the cotton fabric to analyze its properties¹⁵⁶. The final fabric treated with nanoparticles showed improvement in stiffness, and in the tensile strength compared to the untreated fabric¹⁵⁶. The material also showed antibacterial effects which can opened a way of investigation in textile for cosmetics or agricultural products¹⁵⁶.

PLA have been studied also for the design of flame retardant or heat resistance materials^{157,158}. Polylactic acid exhibit certain flame retardant properties, but are insufficient for some applications; so it is necessary to improve it by making blends or composites with other materials¹⁵⁷. It was reported that PLA can be mixed with Kraft lignin and ammonium polyphosphate in order to improve the flame retardant properties of PLA¹⁵⁷. It was obtained that by mixing 5% of Kraft lignin and 5% of ammonium polyphosphate the flame retardant properties of PLA are increased¹⁵⁷. The material was mixed with a Thermo Haake co-rotating and them extruded to produce finally filaments by melt spinning¹⁵⁷. The results present filaments with an diameter around 100μ when it was composed only by PLA (95%) and Kraft lignin (5%)¹⁵⁷. PLA can be also combined with silicon oxide nanoparticles in order to study the heat resistance of the material¹⁵⁸. The silicon oxide nanoparticles are first mixed with 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane silane to stabilize them and attached to the PLA¹⁵⁸. The treated nanoparticle was mixed

with PLA by a screw extruder and then some filaments were prepared in which the concentration 1% of silicon oxide nanoparticles with respect PLA¹⁵⁸. The structural analysis showed that the nanoparticles were evenly distributed in the polymer staying in the nano scale¹⁵⁸. The results indicates that the thermal decomposing temperature, the glass transition temperature and the melting point temperature increases due to the effect of silicon oxide nanoparticles¹⁵⁸.

Aloe Vera fibers have been recently used in India in the textile industry¹⁵⁹. These fibers can be incorporates into biopolymers as PLA in order to improve their properties¹⁵⁹. In this investigation was remarked the method to remove the non-cellulosic content of the Aloe Vera fibers with sodium bicarbonate replacing the conventional method using sodium hydroxide¹⁵⁹. The composite was prepare by melting the fibers with PLA in a single strew extruder in a ration of 30:70 by weigh of fibers:PLA¹⁵⁹. The reinforced material showed better mechanical properties than pure PLA (tensile strength for pure PLA was 43.9 MPa while for PLA with the fibers was 54.7 MPa)¹⁵⁹. According to Chaitanya S. et al this materials can be used for preparation of automobile interior trims, consumers electronics (phone body parts), non-toxic toys for children, etc¹⁵⁹

It has been also studied the effect of PLA with a layer of titanium oxide (TiO₂) deposited¹⁴. The deposition of Titanium was made by sputtering system in a environment of argon¹⁴. The analysis showed that the nanoparticles of TiO₂ were interacting physically with PLA substrate¹⁴. It was tested the antibacterial effect of the material. As the time in the sputtering increased, the percentage of nanoparticles also increased, which leads to higher antibacterial properties (for 10 min in sputtering the PLA with TiO₂ nanoparticles showed a reduction of 90% for *E. Colli* and 82% for *S.aureus*)¹⁴. This material can be used in the production of textiles for disposable hospital clothing with the additional value of decreasing the energy used for the elimination of hospital clothing¹⁴.

Hydrolysis of PLA have been studied in order to improve properties like hydrophilicity¹⁶⁰. For this, the PLA was treated with the enzyme alcalase from under shaking at 150 rpm *Bacillus licheniformis*. It was obtained that the moisture regain was of $0.72 \pm 0.3\%$ for PLA untreated while the treated PLA fabric was $1.36 \pm 0.17\%$ ¹⁶⁰. It was showed that when the carboxyl groups concentrations increases, the hydrophilicity of PLA also increases¹⁶⁰. SEM images demonstrated that there was not damage in the surface of the sample which allows the use of the material in the textile industry¹⁶⁰.

This industries allows the use of PLA in different ways as it was shown. More investigation have been done in this area as the generation of garnet by 3D printing¹⁶¹ or the green manufacturing of fabrics¹⁶². By using biopolymer in these industries the emission of fossil fuel derived CO₂ dropped representing a clear advantage over petroleum based polymers¹⁶².

3.6.3 Food Industry

An interesting field for PLA uses is the food industry, because as a biodegradable polymer it can offer a huge amount of advantages over petroleum derived plastics. One study before goes to the application is to know if PLA is safe in contact with food. It was shown in 1995 that PLA was safe for the contact with food even if it was short term, or long term, with the only condition that the temperature will no exceed the 60°C¹⁶³. The only migrants from PLA is lactic acid or it dimers and oligomers (which will hydrolyze into lactic acid) that in small quantities are completely safe¹⁶³.

Cellulose nanocrystals have been studied in order to improve the properties of PLA for food packaging^{164,165}. It was found that with only the 3% of nanocellulose content in PLA the water permeability was reduced by a 82% and the oxygen permeability up to 90%¹⁶⁴. PLA reinforced showed good transparency and good reduction of UV light, a critical parameter for materials intended to be used in food packaging¹⁶⁴. Because of the crystallinity of the cellulose nanocrystals, when they are combined with PLA the mechanical properties are improved¹⁶⁴. It was also shown that the migration of compounds were under the allowed limit making an excellent candidate for food packaging¹⁶⁴.

It has been studied about the blending of PLA and poly(butylene adipate-co-terephthalate) (PBAT)¹⁶⁶. The synthesis of the blend was made by extrusion using a single-screw extruder¹⁶⁶. The results showed that the rate of degradation vary according the percentage of PLA, when the amount of PLA was 17% the composite presented a faster deterioration than the composite with an amount of PLA of 40%¹⁶⁶. The biocomposite with 17% of PLA was completely degraded after 42 days¹⁶⁶. It can be concluded that the biocomposite can be used for disposable materials because the degradation rate can be manipulated by varying the amount of PLA in the sample.

PLA fibers has been also used for the encapsulation of allyl isothiocyanate (AITC) to used as food packaging¹³. AITC was added in different volumes to a solution of PLA with dichloromethane¹³. The fibers were prepared by electrospinning which were grafted into PLA films¹³. The amount of AITC plays a important role in the morphology of the fibers, when the content of AITC was low the fibers were of a diameter from 0.5 - 2.5 μm , in the other hand when the content of AITC was high the fibers were of a diameter less that 100 nm¹³. It was reported the antibacterial activity of the film in contact with food. For *E. coli* the cells on grape increased to 3000 CFU/g after 40h without AITC film, while the grapes with AITC film only had 30 CFU/g. Also in turkey meat after 40h without AITC film the cells of the bacteria increased to 63000 CFU/g while the sample with AITC film only reported 630 CFU/g demonstrating that they are good candidates for food packaging¹³.

The polymerization of lactic acid with PEG have been studied Sahan Y. et al¹⁶⁷. The preparation was by opening ring polymerization of lactic acid with Sn(II)-ethyl hexanoate with the addition of PEG¹⁶⁷. The polymer had an organic structure with no negative effect for human health¹⁶⁷. The bioactive polymer presented significant antimicrobial properties¹⁶⁷. Finally it was concluded that because the polymer was not hazardous for the human health and its antimicrobial properties it can be used for the preservation of raw food and processed food¹⁶⁷.

There exist more applications for PLA in different fields. The properties of the polymer as its biodegradability, mechanical properties, thermal properties, and chemical properties allows to use for our daily life. It can be used in the agriculture as pesticides encapsulation or protective clothes for farmers¹⁶⁸. PLA can be applied also in the cosmetic industry as controlled delivery system for essential oils used in the health care^{169,170}. Finally PLA is used for home furnishing as carpets, tiles, rug, curtains, pillow, etc^{171,172}.

3.7 Synthesis of poly(lactic acid)

There exist two general methods of polymerization, the first is the polycondensation and the second is the chain polymerization¹⁷³. PLA can be synthesized by two methods, the first is polycondensation and the second is ring opening polymerization method¹ (which is a method that belongs to chain polymerization¹⁷³).

Polycondensation is defined as "Polymerization in which the growth of polymer chains proceeds by condensation reactions between molecules of all degrees of polymerization"¹⁷⁴. The growth step is represented as:



where P_x and P_y are the chains of degree of polymerization x and y respectively, and L is a lower mass byproduct¹⁷⁴.

ROP is defined as the "polymerization in which a cyclic monomer yields a monomeric unit that is either acyclic or contains fewer rings than the cyclic monomer"¹⁷⁴.

3.7.1 Polycondensation

Polycondensation of PLA is a relative simple and inexpensive process⁹ because not intermediate products need to be formed and it can be done without catalyst or solvents¹⁷⁵. By doing this is very hard to obtain a polymer of high molecular weigh because of the equilibrium between free acids, polyesters and water (It is very difficult to obtain water as a byproduct)¹⁷⁶. In order to obtain a high molecular weight polymer and overcome this problem, the addition of some catalyst (preferable of tin) are needed¹⁷⁷. The process can be done by the same monomer because it has -OH and -COOH groups which are necessary for the polymerization¹⁷⁸.

In this process two different methods can be studied. The first is the solution polycondensation and the second is the melt polycondensation¹⁷⁸. In solution polycondensation an organic solvent capable to dissolve the PLA without interfering in the reaction is used¹⁷⁸. This process allow to obtain a polymer with high molecular weight (more than 200 000 g/mol) but with the problem that some impurities due to the solvent used^{177,178}. The properties of the polymer by this method are very similar to the properties of the polymer synthesized by ROP^{177,178}. In melt polycondensation, no solvent are needed to the polymerization process, it only requires that the temperature is higher than the melting temperature of the polymer¹⁷⁸. Three main factor should be controlled in this process to obtain high molecular weigh, the reaction kinetics, the water formed removal, and the degradation of PLA prevention¹⁷⁸.

The scheme of polycondensation of PLA is shown in Figure 3.10. In step one the distillation allows to obtain low molecular weight oligomers of lactic acid, then the polymerization starts until a higher molecular weight is obtained. Lactide can be formed in any step if parameters as pressure or temperature are not controlled¹⁷⁶.

In Table 3.8 are shown different results that have been obtained from literature for the Polycondensation of PLA. Temperature plays an important parameter because of the equilibrium that exist between the poly (lactic acid) formation and lactide formation. The reaction time also is crucial at the moment of polymerization because it can lead in different molecular weigh polymers. With ZnO as catalyst was observed that when the time was increased a higher molecular weigh polymer was obtained with a higher yield when the temperature was the same. The entries in table 3.8 that are with "—" in the temperature section (entries 6, 7, 9, 10) means that there were different stages in which the temperature was changed along the polymerization. In general it can be observed that polycondensation of lactic acid (LA) or L-lactic acid (L-LA) can result in the polymerization of PLA with high molecular wight.

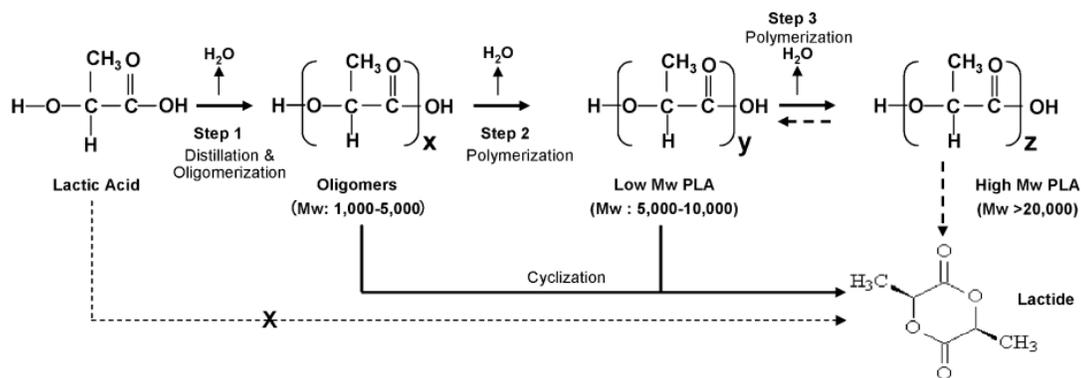


Figure 3.10: Polycondensation method for PLA

Table 3.8: Results reported of Polycondensation for PLA with different catalyst

Monomer	Catalyst	Temperature (°C)	Time (h)	Yield (%)	Average molecular weight M_n (g/mol)	Molecular weight M_w (g/mol)	References
LA	Tin chloride/ phthalic anhydride	160	30	–	6 900	22 100	179
LA	Tin chloride/ maleic anhydride	160	30	–	13 400	61 700	179
LA	Tin chloride/ p-toluene sulfonic acid	160	30	–	18 300	81 500	179
LA	ZnO	180	40	65	–	84 300	180
LA	ZnO	180	30	63	–	79 400	180
L-LA	TSA	—	153	–	133 000	180 000	181
L-LA	EBSA	—	153	–	206 000	247 000	181
L-LA	CSA	180	24	–	5 234	14 875	182
L-LA	TSA	—	15	62.75	14 794	32 400	183
L-LA	TSA	—	53	72.25	11 111	24 000	183

TSA (p-Toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate); EBSA (4-ethylbenzenesulfonic acid); CSA (Cellulose sulfuric acid)

The binary catalyst of Tin Chloride with its respective anhydride or acid allows to have high molecular weight PLA; the best catalyst of those three is Tin chloride/p-toluene sulfonic acid (TSA) which leads to a molecular weight of 81500 g/mol¹⁷⁹.

ZnO catalyst was used to produce high molecular weight PLA, it was shown that molecular weight increase as the time of reaction increase¹⁸⁰. ZnO was compared with the catalytic activity of γ -Al₂O₃ in which was demonstrated that ZnO produced higher molecular weight under the same conditions but with lower conversion percentage¹⁸⁰. This study concluded that pressure also played an important role in the polymerization of PLA by Polycondensation, as the pressure is reduced, more water can be removed and as the water is removed, the polymer chain length increase¹⁸⁰. Finally it was stated that catalyst with higher solubility in water are better to the polymerization of PLA¹⁸⁰.

As it was shown before, organic acids as TSA and 4-ethylbenzen sulfonic acid (EBSA) are promising in the PLA synthesis of high molecular weight¹⁸¹. Organic acids have caught the attention in investigation because they are friendly with environment and only requires 1% of catalyst weight with respect to the monomer, unfortunately it requires a long time for the whole process to be completed¹⁸¹. TSA allowed to obtain a polymer with higher molecular weight in comparison with EBSA, but TSA showed lower efficiency compared to EBSA; this occurs because TSA is more volatile than EBSA¹⁸¹.

The catalyst of cellulose sulfuric acid presented a polymerization of low molecular weight PLA¹⁸². The process involving this catalyst was sensible to change of time and temperature, at higher temperature and longer time, the polymer obtained had higher molecular weight than the polymer at low temperature and shorter time¹⁸². By using this process the polymer presented a crystallinity of 53% and it started to degrade at a temperature of 252,12°C¹⁸².

Finally Polycondensation of PLA was done by TSA¹⁸³. It was demonstrated in this study the scalability from 5g of lactic acid used to 100Kg of lactic acid used¹⁸³. No significant decreasing in molecular weight was present, but at high scale it was shown that longer time is required to obtain a polymer as good as in the laboratory test¹⁸³. Even though the longer time required in the scaled process, this presented a higher yield than in the laboratory test¹⁸³. Also it was found that at higher time and temperature the molecular weight and the melting temperature increase¹⁸³.

It is possible to obtain high molecular weight PLA by polycondensation, but in general it requires long time for the reactions to occur in the best conditions. In Figure 3.11 (a) is shown the different molecular weights as a function of the different catalyst studied. It has been found that in Polycondensation organic acids as TSA or EBSA can be used for the PLA synthesis of higher molecular weight. Also in Figure 3.11 (b) is shown the time necessary for the reaction to occur. For Polycondensation several hours are necessary to complete the process which can be unfavorable at the moment of scaling the process to an industrial process.

3.7.2 Ring opening polymerization

This second method of polymerization requires an extra step. This step consists on the production of a prepolymer called lactide which structure is shown in Figure 3.12. Lactide has its respective stereoisomer that will depend of the source (lactic acid)¹. D-Lactic acid will polymerize into D-Lactide, L-Lactic acid will polymerize into L-Lactide and also it exists the possibility to have meso-lactide that is a combination of D,L-Lactic acid¹. The process to obtain lactide consists in few steps¹:

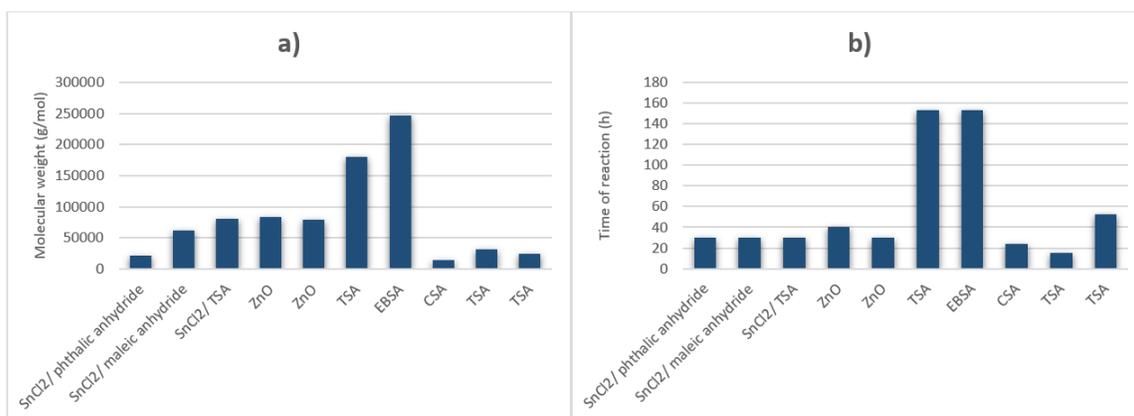


Figure 3.11: Catalyst used in polycondensation. (a) Molecular weight of final polymer as a function of different catalyst. (b) Time of reaction required for each catalyst to complete the polymerization

1. Feeding Lactic acid into a Evaporator
2. Removal of water and solvents from crude lactic acid
3. Feeding the concentrated lactic acid with catalyst into lactide reactor
4. Removal of lactide as vapor from the reactor
5. Condensation of lactide vapor
6. Purification of Lactide by distillation system

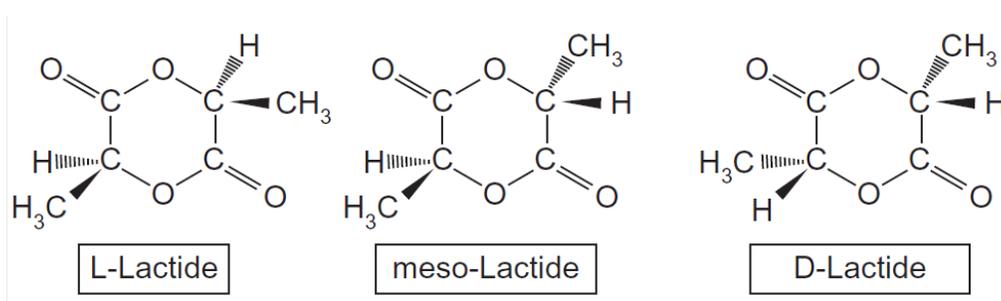


Figure 3.12: Lactide stereocomplex

1

After the lactide is obtained, the polymerization into poly(lactic acid) takes place. ROP can occur in three different ways (anionic, cationic, or through coordination-insertion mechanism) depending of the catalyst used¹⁸⁴. One catalyst

very used in Ring opening polymerization of lactide is the Tin (II) (ethylhexanoate) or $\text{Sn}(\text{octanoate})_2$ ^{185,186} because of its catalytic activity and its solubility in lactide¹⁸⁴. The catalyst mentioned operates in the coordination-insertion mechanism¹⁸⁴. The mechanism of the reaction is shown in Figure 3.13¹⁸⁷. First it is shown a proton migration of from the methanol to the octanoate ligand (the alcohol ligand is converted into alkoxide)¹⁸⁷. Then the insertion process occurs and it is described in two steps, the first is the nucleophilic attack of the alkoxide on the coordination lactide and the second is ring opening¹⁸⁷. This last step results in the insertion of lactide into the O-H bond of a coordinated methanol¹⁸⁷.

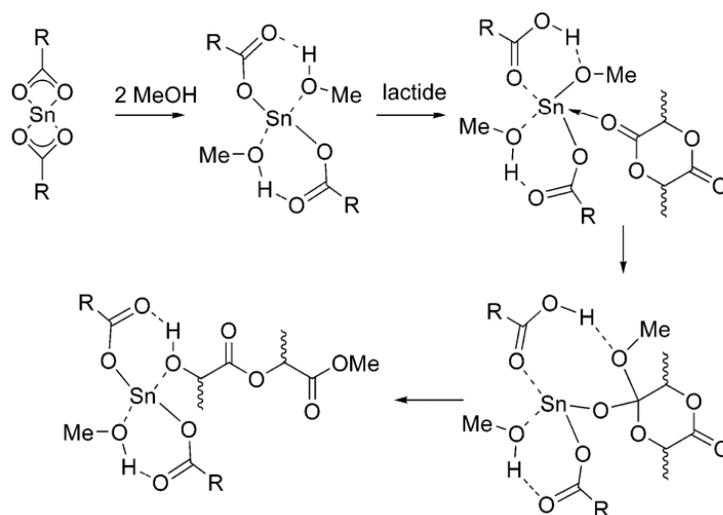


Figure 3.13: Ring opening polymerization of lactide with $\text{Sn}(\text{octanoate})_2$ as catalyst

187

In table 3.9 it is shown different results from the polymerization by ring opening. The table describes the source (L-lactic acid (L-LA); L-Lactide; D-Lactide or D,L-Lactide (rac-Lactide) for the polymerization. It is shown the catalyst used in each process, the polymerization time, the yield, the average molecular weight and the molecular weight.

Table 3.9: Results reported of ROP for PLA with different catalyst

Monomer	Catalyst	Reaction Time (h)	Yield (%)	Average molecular weight Mn (g/mol)	Molecular weight Mw (g/mol)	Reference
L-LA	Magnesium Complex	2	95	16600	24070	188
L-LA	Magnesium Complex	2	98	21300	33228	188
D-Lactide	DBU	1	59	12900	17400	189
D-Lactide	TBD	1	85	19900	33500	189
rac-Lactide	DBU	0.5	94	45181	89006	190
rac-Lactide	Potassium naphthalenolate	0.5	98	70400	82368	191
L-lactide	Sodium Complex	0.5	98	29150	34105	192
rac-Lactide	Sodium Complex	0.5	98	28900	33813	192
L-lactide	Sodium Complex	1.58	–	113900	137819	192
L-lactide	Potassium Complex	1.75	–	108750	139200	192
L-lactide	Lithium Complex	2	–	100560	133744	192
L-LA	Aluminium methyl complex	0.5	99	12800	13696	193
rac-Lactide	Aluminium methyl complex	0.5	99	13700	14659	193
rac-Lactide	Aluminium methyl complex	48	93	106400	118104	193
rac-Lactide	Aluminium methyl complex	60	95	233600	273312	193
L-Lactide	Tin (II) ethylhexanoate	44	84	16000	24000	194
Lactide	Tin (II) ethylhexanoate	0.41	81.09	–	151127	195
Lactide	Tin (II) ethylhexanoate	0.75	82.59	–	127065	195

DBU (1,8-Diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene); TBD (1,5,7-triazabicyclo[4.4.0]dec-5-ene)

Magnesium complexes were studied for the polymerization of poly(lactic acid) with 4-fluorophenol as co-catalyst¹⁸⁸. It was shown that in few hours a high yield was obtained¹⁸⁸. The differences in molecular weight and yield for each one of the complexes is the radical position between CH₃ and H¹⁸⁸.

DBU and TDB were used for mechanochemical ROP, in which at a lower time of polymerization, it was obtained PLA with a molecular weight compared to magnesium complexes, but with a lower yield. It was shown that TDB produce a higher molecular weight polymer with a higher yield than DBU¹⁸⁹. The use of initiator improved the polymerization, giving a polymer with a molecular weight that reach an order of 10⁵ g/mol¹⁸⁹. It was shown that as the time of polymerization increased, the polymer increase its molecular weight and the conversion percentage¹⁸⁹. For DBU with toluene as initiator at one hour was obtained a polymer with a molecular weight of 100 000 with a conversion of 55% while at two hours the molecular weight was 188 000 with a conversion of 81%¹⁸⁹. The liquid-assisted grinding produce a higher molecular weight polymer because it prevent the chain degradation¹⁸⁹.

DBU is also used for the polymerization of rac-lactide. The results will vary according the monomer used, as it is shown in Table 3.9 DBU catalyst better rac-lactide than D-lactide; for rac-lactide the molecular weight was 89 006 g/mol with a yield of 94% while for D-lactide the molecular weight was 17 400 with a yield of 59%¹⁹⁰. In this study was tested the addition of alcohol as macroinitiator. monohydroxy-terminated polyethylene glycol (PEG-OH) was used as initiator for PLA polymerization¹⁹⁰. It was shown that the PEG-OH did not improve the polymerization, as the ratios between the concentration of alcohol and the catalyst ([PEG-OH]:[DBU]) increase, the molecular weight and the yield were reduced¹⁹⁰.

Rac-lactide also can be polymerized with potassium naphthalenolate for the synthesis of PLA with high molecular weight and high yield at room temperature¹⁹¹. In this study it was used the addition of Benzyl alcohol (BnOH) at the same ratio of the catalyst compared to lactide. It was demonstrated that at a ratio between [rac-lactide]:[catalyst]:[BnOH] of 1000:1:1 the higher molecular weight and yield was achieved¹⁹¹. As the time of reaction and the concentration of rac-lactide with respect catalyst and BnOH increase, the molecular weight and yield rises¹⁹¹. Moreover Potassium naphthalenolate was compared with sodium naphthalenolate in which was demonstrated that potassium complex were better for ROP of PLA in comparison of sodium complex. At 3 min for potassium complex it was obtained a molecular weight of 34 450 with a yield of 99% while for sodium complex at 3 min the molecular weight was 4 500 g/mol with a yield of 57%¹⁹¹. At higher temperature Sodium complex works better than potassium complex¹⁹². Swarup Ghosh et al. studied the polymerization of PLA by ROP using sodium, potassium and lithium complexes. It was shown that at a temperature of 140° Sodium complexes worked better than potassium complexes and this last one worked better than lithium complexes¹⁹². It was also tested the activity of BnOH which demonstrated that lowered the molecular weight of the final product. It was demonstrated that when the concentration of the monomer increased, the molecular weight increase too¹⁹². When the ratio of [monomer]:[catalyst] is 200, the molecular weight for the three different complexes were in the order of 10⁴ g/mol¹⁹². When the ratio of [monomer]:[catalyst] is 800, the molecular weight for the three complexes were in the order con 10⁵ g/mol¹⁹². All complexes were used for the polymerization of L-lactide and rac-lactide; and worked with both lactide, obtaining molecular weights of the same order of magnitude¹⁹².

Aluminium methyl complexes were used for PLA synthesis by ROP. As it happen in the last mentioned complexes for PLA polymerization, the molecular weight of the polymer will increase as the concentration of [Lactide]:[catalyst]

increase¹⁹³. When the ratio is 100, the molecular weight is in the order of 10^4 g/mol; while when the ratio is 800 or 1600, the molecular weight is in the order of 10^5 (it requires longer time of polymerization)¹⁹³. Aluminium complexes worked well for the polymerization of rac-lactide and L-lactide resulting in polymers with similar molecular weights¹⁹³.

Tin (II) ethylhexanoate ($\text{Sn}(\text{Oct})_2$) was used for the synthesis of PLA, it was combined with different initiators to observe the effect of them in the polymerization¹⁹⁴. two different initiators were used with $\text{Sn}(\text{Oct})_2$, poly(butylene succinate (PBS) and 1-dodecanol¹⁹⁴. PBS was the best initiator because it was required in less quantity (0.001% of the monomer weight) while 1-dodecanol requires 0.1% of the monomer weight¹⁹⁴. PBS (at 0.001% of monomer weight) presented an increase in molecular weight when the temperature of polymerization was raised; at 120°C and 4 hours the molecular weight was 7700 g/mol, while at 160°C and 4 hours the molecular weight was 24000 g/mol¹⁹⁴. 1-dodecanol was less effective because the PLA synthesized had a molecular weight of 6200 at 160°C and 4 hours¹⁹⁴. It has been studied the use of initiators for $\text{Sn}(\text{Oct})_2$ as polyglycerol-10 or toluene to improve the molecular weight of the final product¹⁹⁵. According to Yunzi Hu et al. toluene was not effective as polyglycerol-10 because using toluene as initiator result in a polymer of molecular weight in the order of 10^4 g/mol while with polyglycerol-10 the molecular weight was in the order of 10^5 g/mol¹⁹⁵. It was shown that molecular weight reduces when time goes more than 25 minutes and less than 25 minutes; but the yield increment when the time is more that 25 minutes¹⁹⁵.

In Figure 3.14 is shown the catalyst studied and the molecular weights of the final product. It can be observed that the highest molecular weigh was reached with Aluminium methyl complex, but it requires too much time of reaction in comparison with other catalyst. Then sodium, potassium and lithium complex with Tin (II) ethylhexanoate are the catalyst which gave higher molecular weight PLA (molecular weight in the order of 10^5)

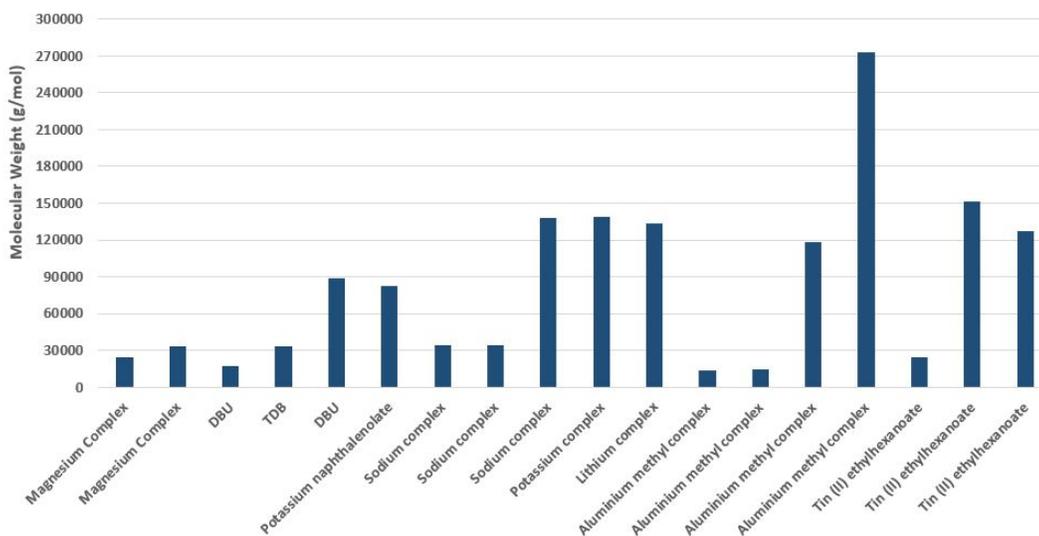


Figure 3.14: Molecular weight of PLA synthesized by ROP as function of different catalyst

3.8 Characterization techniques of Poly(lactic acid)

3.8.1 Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy is a vibrational spectroscopic technique which study the vibrations produced by molecules. The transition between quantized vibrational energy states results into infrared spectra¹⁹⁶. The analysis of Infrared (IR) spectra tells which molecules (functional groups) are present in the sample and its respective concentrations¹⁹⁷. The technique born in 1891 with an interferometer made by A. Michelson¹⁹⁸. Then Rayleigh discover that the interferogram obtained by that equipment was related to the spectrum by a serie of mathematical operations (Fourier transform)¹⁹⁸. In 1949 Peter Fellgett was credited to be the first to transform the interferogram to a spectra in the infrared region¹⁹⁸. This technique is well known to be a non destructive technique, which gives information about functional groups, bonding types and molecular conformations¹⁹⁹. Lately it has been used to analyze surface of polymer after certain treatment or weathering^{200,201}.

The working principle for FTIR is detailed in Figure 3.15. First the source of infrared light goes through an interferogram. The signal obtained from the interferogram is then directed to the sample. The response corresponding to the samples is then detected.

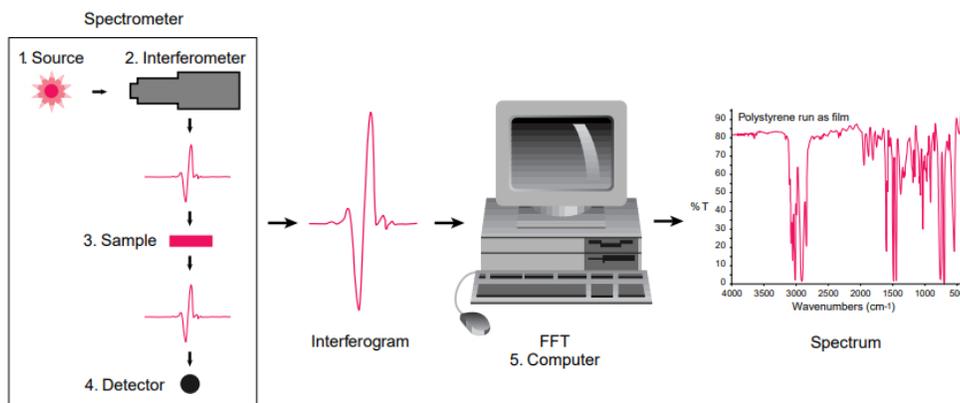


Figure 3.15: Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy working principle.

202

FTIR data of PLA is shown in Table 3.10¹⁸⁰. The data presented are the functional groups vibrations with its respective wavenumber of PLA synthesized by the two methods explained before (Polycondensation and Ring Opening Polymerization). In Figure A.1 is shown the FTIR spectra from which the data was obtained.

Table 3.10: FTIR absorption peaks of PLA

Functional Group	Wave number (cm-1)	
	PLA polycondensation	PLA ROP
-OH stretch	3508.52	3504.66
-CH stretch	2999.31, 2949.16	2995.45, 2945.30
-C=O carbonyl stretch	1755.22	1757.15
-CH ₃ bend	1456.26	1454.33
-CH- deformation	1384.89, 1363.67	1361.74, 1381.03
-C=O bend	1269.16	1267.23
-C-O stretch	1134.14, 1091.71	1186.22, 1130.29, 1091.71
-OH bend	1045.42	1047.35
-C-C- stretch	954.76, 920.05	954.76, 867.97

3.8.2 Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA)

Thermogravimetric analysis is a technique in which the weigh of a material is recorded as a function of temperature²⁰³. According to the International Confederation for Thermal Analysis, TGA is defined as a technique where the mass of a substance is measured as a function of temperature while the substance is subjected to a controlled temperature program²⁰⁴. It is generally used for measure physical and chemical properties, like crystalline transitions, vaporization, sublimation, fusion, oxidative degradation, activation energies of pyrolysis, thermal degradation^{205–207}. Polymers can be used for different application according the thermal degradation they have, so TGA become an ideal technique to analyze them²⁰⁸. From thermogravimetric analysis a curve is obtained called TGA curve in which mass or percentage of mass is plotted against temperature or time²⁰⁹. This output must of the times shows the first derivative of the TGA curve with respect the time or temperature and it is know as differential thermogravimetric (DTG) curve, which represent the rate of the mass change²⁰⁹.

The instrumentation of this equipment is a balance, a furnace, atmosphere control, crucibles, thermocouples as it is detailed in Figure 3.16²¹⁰. The balance is the essential part of the equipment. It should be able to measure difference of mg because in modern equipment it is used samples of 1g²¹¹. The furnace bust work in the range from room temperature until 1100 °C or 1600 °C according the configuration of the equipment²¹¹. The simple way to perform the experiment is under environmental conditions (air), but as it can react oxidizing the sample, a inert gas as nitrogen or argon can be used²¹¹ (normally for polymer, a reducing atmosphere is rarely needed²¹²). The crucible is found between the heaters where the sample is deposited and are normally of platinum due to is lack of interaction with the sample and its fusion point (1769 °C)²¹¹. Thermocouples consist of two metals fused, which produces a fixed and standart EMF across the junction that vary with temperature²¹¹. The measurement can be affected by different parameters, as the heating rate or atmosphere, the morphology of the sample, the material of the crucible, etc.²⁰⁹.

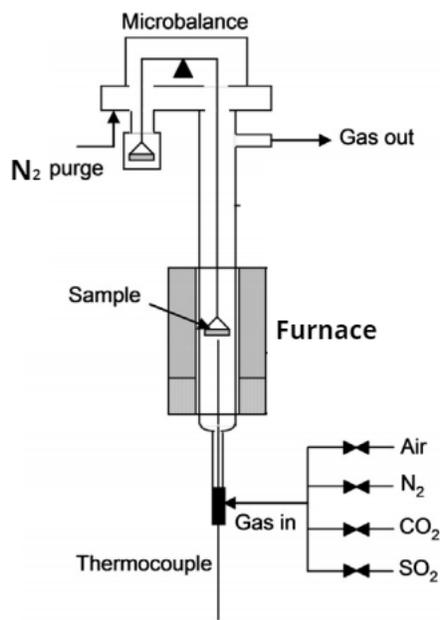


Figure 3.16: Thermogravimetric analysis configuration.

213

The degradation temperature of PLA vary according the method used for its preparation as the monomer used and the parameters applied. As an example PDLA can have a degradation temperature around 255°C - 327°C ^{182,214}. Thermal properties of PLA can be affected by blending it with other materials. PLA 2003D Haake shows a degradation temperature around 356°C while PLA 1 wt% Biosilicate shows a degradation temperature around 319°C ; a decreasing in the degradation temperature of 37°C ²¹⁵. Also, PLA can be mixed with halloysite nanotubes (HNT) and polyethylene glycol (PEG) showing an increasing in the degradation temperature around 24°C (PLA was 346°C and PLA/PEG/HNT was 370°C)²¹⁶

3.8.3 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

Differential Scanning Calorimetry is technique used for the study of thermal behaviour of different materials, like polymers, copolymers, composites²¹⁷. In this technique the heat flux is monitored against the time or the temperature in a specific atmosphere²¹⁸. The configuration of the equipment is shown in Figure 3.17 in which a difference of temperature between the sample and a reference (Aluminum) is recorded to obtain the heat flux of the material²¹⁹. The principal use of this technique is to determine first order transitions (melting) and second order endothermic

transitions (glass transitions)²¹⁷. A heating process analysis in DSC is shown in Figure 3.18²²⁰. In this heating stage, the behaviour in the first point (T_g) indicates that there exist an increase in the heat capacity of the polymer because it has gone through a glass transition²²⁰. The peak observed in the second point of Figure 3.18 (T_c) is an exothermic transition in which the polymer crystallize²²⁰. Finally When a depression is observed as in T_m (Endothermic process) means that a first order transition is happening, in this case the polymer absorbs heat and melts²²⁰.

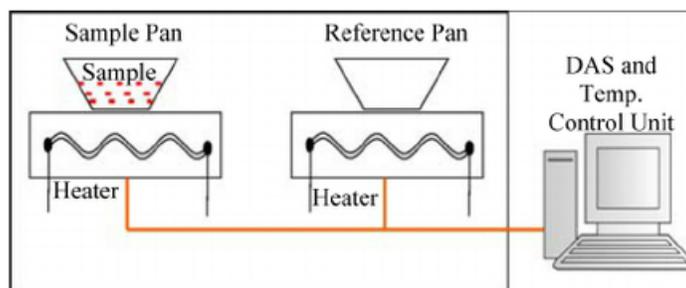


Figure 3.17: DSC equipment configuration.

219

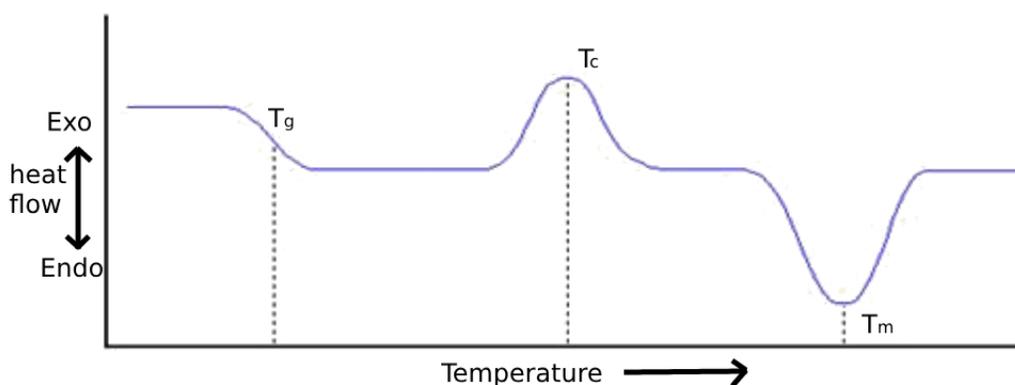


Figure 3.18: Representation of a heating process in DSC analysis

220

The thermal history of a material can be studied by DSC under a series of heating and cooling processes. In Figure A.3 is shown a heating/cooling cycle of PLA and PLA/banana fiber composite (endothermic up, exothermic down)¹¹¹. In the heating stage, PLA exhibit glass transition at a temperature approximately 59° , and a cold crystallization in a temperature interval of 80° to 120° and 150° to 159° ¹¹¹. Also in the heating stage it is presented an endothermic peak at approximately 169° which represent the melting temperature. In the cooling stage it is observed that not exist a clear peak of crystallization for PLA, while the composite exhibit melt crystallization¹¹¹.

In Figure 3.19 is shown how the thermal properties of PLA reinforced with coir fibers change depending on the cooling ramp applied¹¹¹. In the first heating it is shown the glass transition temperature, two exothermic peaks (cold crystallization), and the melting peak¹¹¹. In the cooling process it can be observed in shadow the melt crystallization which vary as the cooling ramp change; for lower cooling ramp the area of the peak becomes larger¹¹¹. In the second heating process, it can be observed that the glass transition peak become smoother and the cold crystallization peaks reduce its areas as the cooling ramp decrease¹¹¹. Also, as the crystallinity of the material is dependent on the enthalpies, by changing it (as the cold crystallization enthalpy), the degree of crystallinity will be altered.¹¹¹.

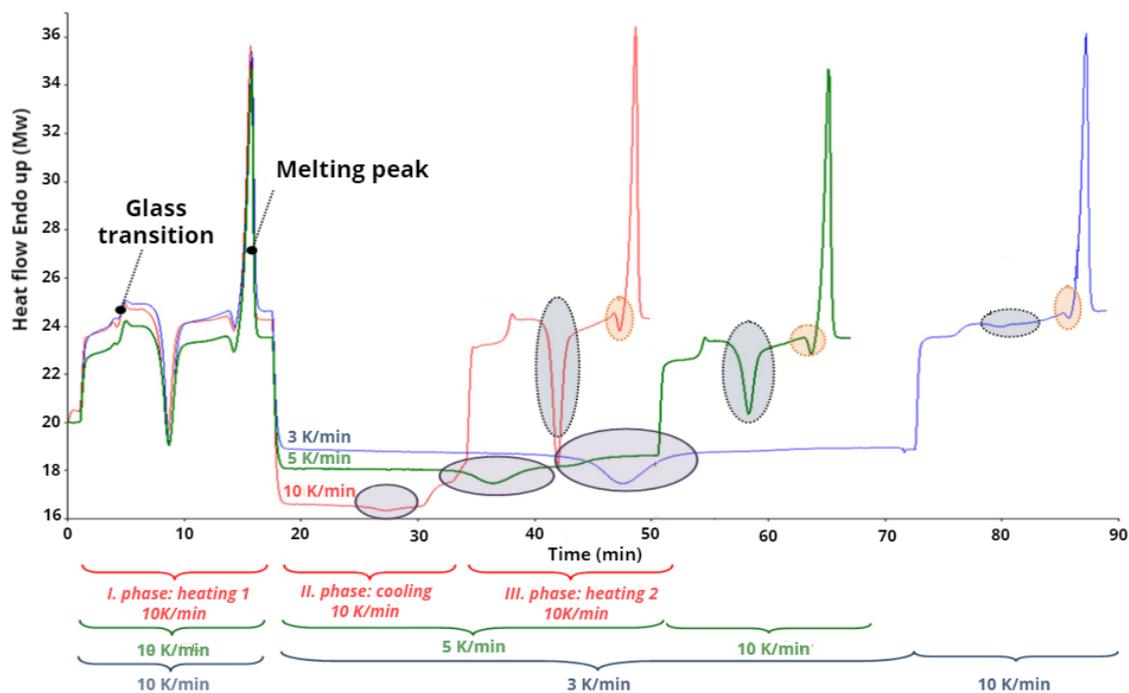


Figure 3.19: Differential Scanning Calorimetry of PLA reinforced with coir fibers with different temperature ramp in the cooling stage. Cooling temperature ramp at 10 K/min (red), 5 K/min (green) and 3 K/min (blue)

111

Glass transition temperature and melting temperature will vary according the method of preparation and also according the parameters like time of reaction, temperature of polymerization or catalyst used²¹⁴.

As an example it is shown in Table 3.11 the variation of melting temperature according the reaction time and the temperature of polymerization²¹⁴. The DSC curve is shown in the Appendix in Figure A.4.

Table 3.11: PLA melting temperature in function of the time and temperature of reaction

Reaction Time (h)	Temperature (°C)	Melting temperature Tm (°C)
5	130	155.98
10	145	163
15	150	164
20	155	169.46
30	—	177.56
>30	—	165.55

3.8.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

Scanning electron microscope is a technique which allow to resolve image in the order of nanometers. Human eyes can resolve images until 0.2mm, while light microscope can do it until $0.2\mu\text{m}$ ²²¹. The working principle is represented in Figure 3.20, where an electron beam (high energy) is generated from a filament and them focused through a lens system to the specimen to analyze²²². The detectors then will acquire the emitted electrons to direct them into a signal amplifier to be finally displayed into an image of the specimen²²².

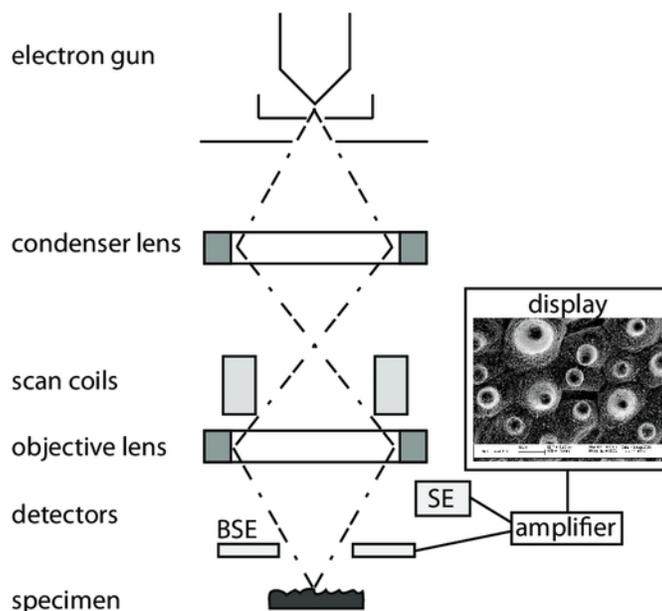


Figure 3.20: SEM working principle

222

It is very useful to analyze structure comparing topography or elemental composition present in the sample^{223–225}.

In this technique, the image system will have a dependence in the nature of the sample (it must be conductive in order to obtain an image from the microscope)²²⁶. If the sample is not conductive, it must be coated by a conductive material, most of the time the sample is covered with a thin layer (some nm) of gold²²⁷. If the sample is in suspended or dispersed in a solution, normally a drop of the sample is dried in the holder and then if it requires (sample not conductive) is coated with gold²²⁸. Several parameters of measurement will matter in the image obtained. The probe size is fundamental for the resolution; the smallest the probe size is, the higher the resolution in the image is obtained (it needs to be considered enough beam current in order to see the image)²²⁹. Electron probe current is another parameter that will affect the quality of the image; higher probe current will give higher quality of the image (small values for probe current can give noise in the image as a result)²²⁹. Electron probe convergence angle will affect the depth of focus; when the angle is shorter, the best depth of focus is obtained which means that features on the surfaces at different heights will appear all in focus²²⁹. Electron beam accelerating voltage will affect the interaction of the electron beam with the sample. When the accelerating voltage is low (Low-Voltage mode) the information acquired will be mostly of the surface (obtaining a surface detailed image)²²⁹. When the accelerating voltage is high, the information obtained will be mostly from the interior of the sample²²⁹.

For polymers, SEM is a technique that allows to follow and confirm several processes in the surface of the material²³⁰⁻²³². In PLA foams, SEM is used to measure the pore size (in average) in which was shown that for poly(lactic acid) foams the average pore size decreases as the concentration of PLA increases²³⁰. PLA foams prepared in a solution of tetrahydrofuran/methanol (THF/MeOH) at different concentrations produce morphological changes in the structure which were analyzed with SEM²³⁰. It was shown that according to the methanol concentration of the solution decreases, larger crystalline structures are obtained²³⁰. PLA properties can be improved by the addition of fillers in its matrix, in which the dispersion on the material can affect the properties²³¹. SEM can be used to analyze the dispersion of fillers in PLA composites as it was demonstrated by Battegazzore et al.²³¹. PLA functionalization can be observed also with scanning electron microscopy. Hila Shalom et al. presented in PLA functionalization with nanotubes of tungsten disulfide that circles appear around the nanotube in the cross-section of the polymer, which indicate a relative poor adhesion between polymer and nanotube²³².

Chapter 4

Conclusions & Outlook

PLA present different properties that can be tuned for specific applications in many fields like in medicine, food industry and textile industry. Mechanical and thermal properties of PLA can be modified by physical or chemical routes, as the addition of different materials or by a serie of heating and cooling process. PLA is a sensible material for enzymatic attack and it have the disadvantage in its glass transition temperature that is around 50°C.

The route for the synthesis of PLA can be simplified in three steps: 1) Sugarcane pre-treatment, 2) Sugars fermentation into lactic acid, 3) Polymerization of lactic acid. Sugarcane bagasse pre-treatment is determinant for the final yield of the polymer. It is normally used acids, like H₂SO₄, or bases, like NaOH, for the lignin removal; but enzymatic hydrolysis has been tasted with the inconvenient of the time (it requires long time). The use of NH₄OH and H₂SO₄ is a good option in this step because it takes a short period of time and high conversion of glucose from the bagasse.

The fermentation into lactic acid will strongly depend on the bacteria used. For each bacteria the optimal conditions were used and the one with higher yield was *Lactococcus lactis*. In the third step (polymerization), two routes were studied with different catalyst under their optimal conditions of time and temperature. Ring Opening Polymerization is the chosen route of polymerization as the most effective, because it can be obtained high molecular weight and the time of reaction is very short in comparison of direct polycondensation. In ROP the best catalyst was Tin (II) ethylhexanoate which allows obtaining a polymer with high molecular weight in a period of time less than an hour.

In Ecuador, because of the generation of sugarcane bagasse, the production of Poly (lactic acid) can be implemented in the sugars mills. It is well known that sugarcane bagasse is used for co-generation of energy, but as not all the sugarcane bagasse is used with that purpose, it can be tapped for the production of a high value material as it is the PLA. The synthesis of PLA can be done in Ecuador because it is a country that generates millions of tones of sugarcane bagasse. Some mechanical properties of PLA are comparable with polyethylene and polypropylene; even the disadvantage of the glass transition temperature and the sensibility to enzymatic attack, the implementation of PLA manufacturing in sugars mills will open a new window for the production of plastic products in Ecuador

which will be able to obtain the raw material for different products without the need to import. In addition, as it was shown in the market information, there is not petrochemical industry in Ecuador which provides raw material for the production of plastics products; this give the opportunity to start the production of raw material in a environmental friendly way.

Appendix A

Characterization techniques

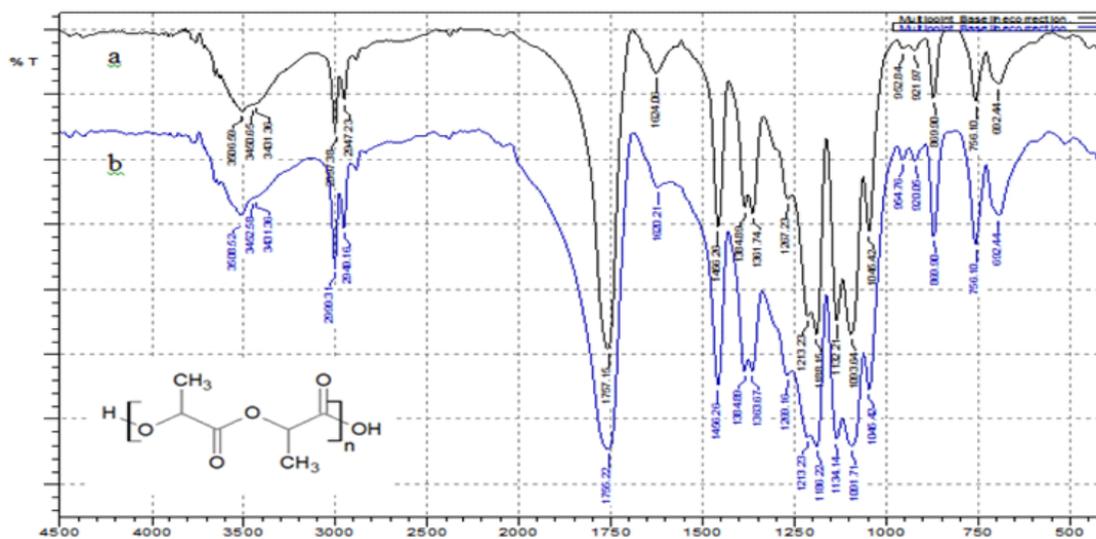


Figure A.1: FTIR spectra of PLA synthesized by Polycondensation with a) γ -Al₂O₃ and b) ZnO

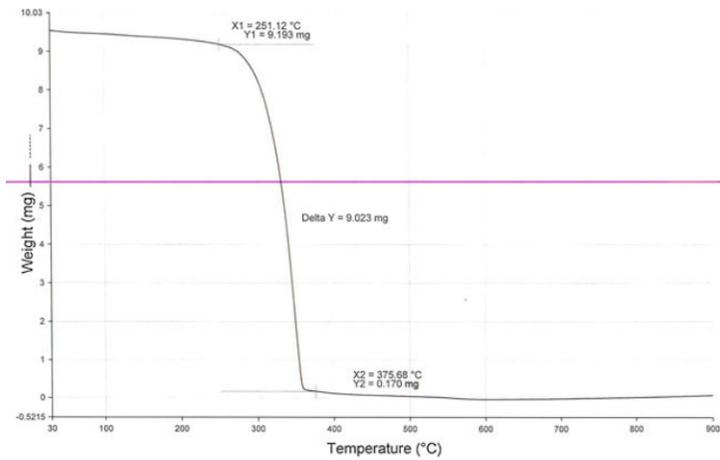


Figure A.2: TGA curve of PLLA synthesized by polycondensation

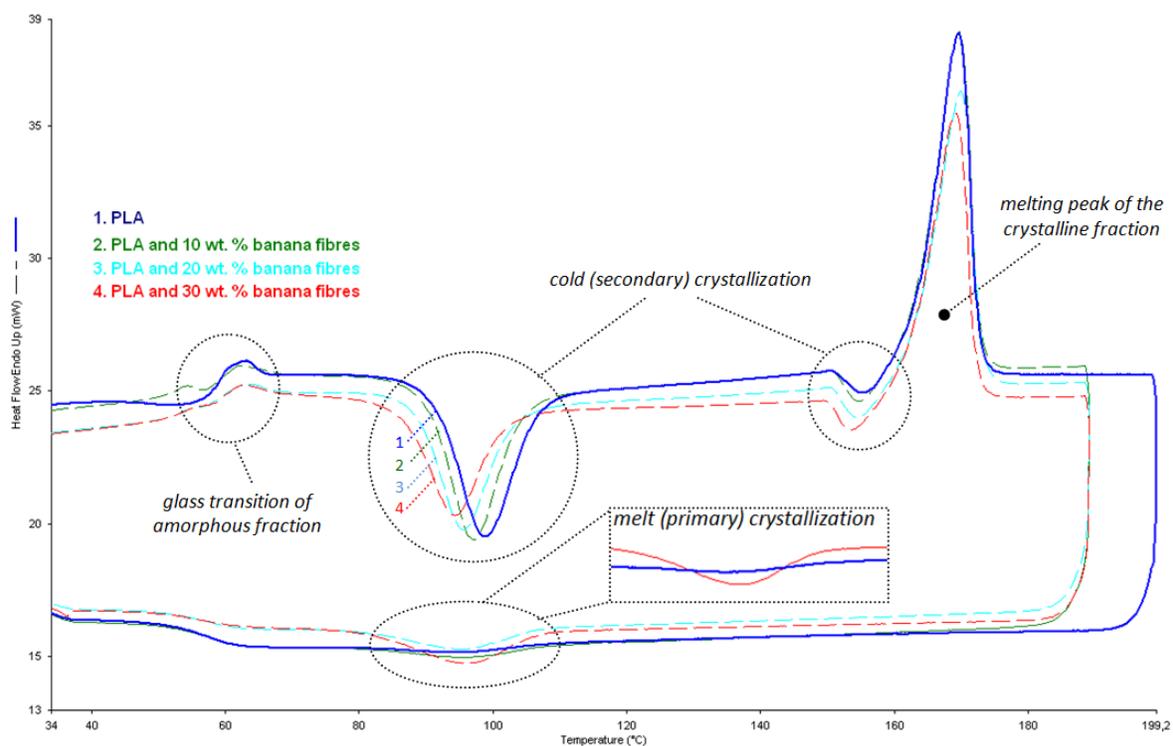


Figure A.3: DSC of PLA and PLA composite with banana fibers

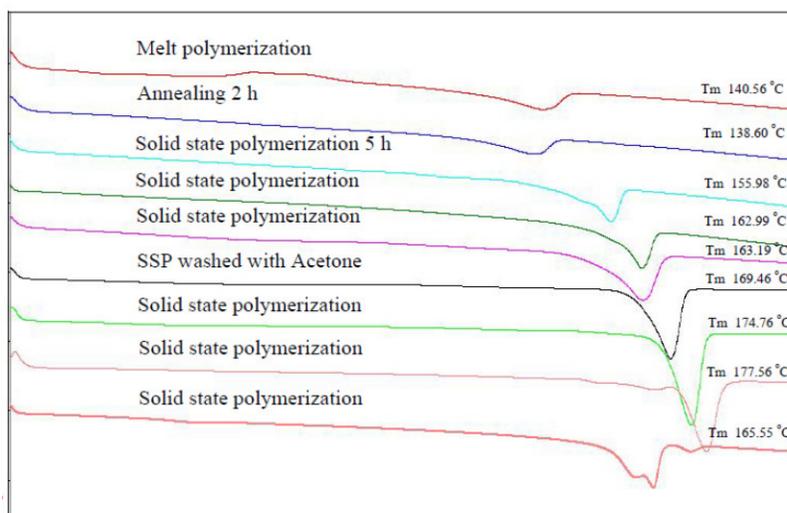


Figure A.4: Melting point temperature of PLA produced by polycondensation in function of reaction time and temperature of polymerization

Bibliography

- [1] Sin, L. T. *Polylactic acid: PLA biopolymer technology and applications*; William Andrew, 2012.
- [2] Vink, E. T.; Glassner, D. A.; Kolstad, J. J.; Wooley, R. J.; O'Connor, R. P. The eco-profiles for current and near-future NatureWorks® polylactide (PLA) production. *Industrial Biotechnology* **2007**, *3*, 58–81.
- [3] Garcia-Galindo, I.; Gómez-García, R.; Palácios-Ponce, S.; Ventura, J.; Boone, D.; Ruiz, H. A.; Sepúlveda, L.; Sabu, A.; Aguilar-González, C. N. *Enzymes in Food Biotechnology*; Elsevier, 2019; pp 535–550.
- [4] Munilla, M. H.; Carracedo, G. B. Ácido láctico y poliláctico: Situación actual y tendencias. *ICIDCA. Sobre los Derivados de la Caña de Azúcar* **2005**, *39*, 49–59.
- [5] Singhvi, M.; Gokhale, D. Biomass to biodegradable polymer (PLA). *RSC Advances* **2013**, *3*, 13558–13568.
- [6] Jonglertjunya, W.; Pranrawang, N.; Phookongka, N.; Sridangtip, T.; Sawedrungreang, W.; Krongtaew, C. Utilization of sugarcane bagasses for lactic acid production by acid hydrolysis and fermentation using *Lactobacillus* sp. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology* **2012**, *66*, 173–178.
- [7] John, R. P.; Nampoothiri, K. M.; Pandey, A. Solid-state fermentation for L-lactic acid production from agro wastes using *Lactobacillus delbrueckii*. *Process Biochemistry* **2006**, *41*, 759–763.
- [8] Singla, P.; Kaur, P.; Mehta, R.; Berek, D.; Upadhyay, S. Ring-opening polymerization of lactide using microwave and conventional heating. *Procedia Chemistry* **2012**, *4*, 179–185.
- [9] Zhu, X.; Zhang, J.; Chen, B. Study on Synthesis and Thermal Properties of Polylactic Acid. 2019.
- [10] Cheng, M.; Attygalle, A. B.; Lobkovsky, E. B.; Coates, G. W. Single-site catalysts for ring-opening polymerization: Synthesis of heterotactic poly (lactic acid) from rac-lactide. *Journal of the American Chemical Society* **1999**, *121*, 11583–11584.
- [11] Stanford, M. J.; Dove, A. P. Stereocontrolled ring-opening polymerisation of lactide. *Chemical Society Reviews* **2010**, *39*, 486–494.
- [12] Sumrith, N.; Rangappa, S. M.; Dangtungee, R.; Siengchin, S.; Jawaid, M.; Pruncu, C. I. *Bio-based Polymers and Nanocomposites*; Springer, 2019; pp 255–272.

- [13] Kara, H. H.; Xiao, F.; Sarker, M.; Jin, T. Z.; Sousa, A. M.; Liu, C.-K.; Tomasula, P. M.; Liu, L. Antibacterial poly (lactic acid)(PLA) films grafted with electrospun PLA/allyl isothiocyanate fibers for food packaging. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **2016**, *133*.
- [14] Saffari, M.-R.; Kamali Miab, R. Antibacterial property of PLA textiles coated by nano-TiO₂ through eco-friendly low-temperature plasma. *International Journal of Clothing Science and Technology* **2016**, *28*, 830–840.
- [15] Wagner Jr, J. R. *Multilayer flexible packaging*; William Andrew, 2016.
- [16] Lebreton, L.; Andrady, A. Future scenarios of global plastic waste generation and disposal. *Palgrave Communications* **2019**, *5*, 6.
- [17] Letcher, T. M.; Vallero, D. A. *Waste: A handbook for management*; Academic Press, 2019.
- [18] Kivaisi, A. K.; Rubindamayugi, M. The potential of agro-industrial residues for production of biogas and electricity in Tanzania. *Renewable Energy* **1996**, *9*, 917–921.
- [19] Liguori, R.; Amore, A.; Faraco, V. Waste valorization by biotechnological conversion into added value products. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* **2013**, *97*, 6129–6147.
- [20] Castro, C.; Zuluaga, R.; Putaux, J.-L.; Caro, G.; Mondragon, I.; Gañán, P. Structural characterization of bacterial cellulose produced by *Gluconacetobacter swingsii* sp. from Colombian agroindustrial wastes. *Carbohydrate Polymers* **2011**, *84*, 96–102.
- [21] García, A.; Gandini, A.; Labidi, J.; Belgacem, N.; Bras, J. Industrial and crop wastes: A new source for nanocellulose biorefinery. *Industrial Crops and Products* **2016**, *93*, 26–38.
- [22] Carlini, M.; Mosconi, E.; Castellucci, S.; Villarini, M.; Colantoni, A. An economical evaluation of anaerobic digestion plants fed with organic agro-industrial waste. *Energies* **2017**, *10*, 1165.
- [23] Siciliano, A.; Limonti, C.; Mehariya, S.; Molino, A.; Calabrò, V. Biofuel Production and Phosphorus Recovery through an Integrated Treatment of Agro-Industrial Waste. *Sustainability* **2019**, *11*, 52.
- [24] Sawatdeenarunat, C.; Surendra, K.; Takara, D.; Oechsner, H.; Khanal, S. K. Anaerobic digestion of lignocellulosic biomass: challenges and opportunities. *Bioresource Technology* **2015**, *178*, 178–186.
- [25] Hagos, K.; Zong, J.; Li, D.; Liu, C.; Lu, X. Anaerobic co-digestion process for biogas production: Progress, challenges and perspectives. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* **2017**, *76*, 1485–1496.
- [26] Esposito, G.; Frunzo, L.; Giordano, A.; Liotta, F.; Panico, A.; Pirozzi, F. Anaerobic co-digestion of organic wastes. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Bio/Technology* **2012**, *11*, 325–341.

- [27] Mata-Alvarez, J.; Dosta, J.; Romero-Güiza, M.; Fonoll, X.; Peces, M.; Astals, S. A critical review on anaerobic co-digestion achievements between 2010 and 2013. *Renewable and sustainable energy reviews* **2014**, *36*, 412–427.
- [28] Li, Y.; Park, S. Y.; Zhu, J. Solid-state anaerobic digestion for methane production from organic waste. *Renewable and sustainable energy reviews* **2011**, *15*, 821–826.
- [29] Yang, L.; Xu, F.; Ge, X.; Li, Y. Challenges and strategies for solid-state anaerobic digestion of lignocellulosic biomass. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* **2015**, *44*, 824–834.
- [30] Ge, X.; Xu, F.; Li, Y. Solid-state anaerobic digestion of lignocellulosic biomass: Recent progress and perspectives. *Bioresource Technology* **2016**, *205*, 239–249.
- [31] Hobson, P. N.; Stewart, C. S. *The rumen microbial ecosystem*; Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- [32] Yue, Z.-B.; Li, W.-W.; Yu, H.-Q. Application of rumen microorganisms for anaerobic bioconversion of lignocellulosic biomass. *Bioresource technology* **2013**, *128*, 738–744.
- [33] Hu, Z.-H.; Yue, Z.-B.; Yu, H.-Q.; Liu, S.-Y.; Harada, H.; Li, Y.-Y. Mechanisms of microwave irradiation pretreatment for enhancing anaerobic digestion of cattail by rumen microorganisms. *Applied energy* **2012**, *93*, 229–236.
- [34] Cardona, C.; Quintero, J.; Paz, I. Production of bioethanol from sugarcane bagasse: status and perspectives. *Bioresource technology* **2010**, *101*, 4754–4766.
- [35] Pandey, A.; Soccol, C. R.; Nigam, P.; Soccol, V. T. Biotechnological potential of agro-industrial residues. I: sugarcane bagasse. *Bioresource technology* **2000**, *74*, 69–80.
- [36] Aguilar, R.; Ramirez, J.; Garrote, G.; Vázquez, M. Kinetic study of the acid hydrolysis of sugar cane bagasse. *Journal of Food Engineering* **2002**, *55*, 309–318.
- [37] Neureiter, M.; Danner, H.; Thomasser, C.; Saidi, B.; Braun, R. Dilute-acid hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse at varying conditions. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* **2002**, *98*, 49–58.
- [38] Sasaki, M.; Adschiri, T.; Arai, K. Fractionation of sugarcane bagasse by hydrothermal treatment. *Bioresource Technology* **2003**, *86*, 301–304.
- [39] Martin, C.; Alriksson, B.; Sjöde, A.; Nilvebrant, N.-O.; Jönsson, L. J. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*; Springer, 2007; pp 339–352.
- [40] Zhao, X.; Peng, F.; Cheng, K.; Liu, D. Enhancement of the enzymatic digestibility of sugarcane bagasse by alkali-peracetic acid pretreatment. *Enzyme and Microbial technology* **2009**, *44*, 17–23.

- [41] Canilha, L.; Santos, V. T.; Rocha, G. J.; e Silva, J. B. A.; Giuliatti, M.; Silva, S. S.; Felipe, M. G.; Ferraz, A.; Milagres, A. M.; Carvalho, W. A study on the pretreatment of a sugarcane bagasse sample with dilute sulfuric acid. *Journal of industrial microbiology & biotechnology* **2011**, *38*, 1467–1475.
- [42] de Moraes Rocha, G. J.; Martin, C.; Soares, I. B.; Maior, A. M. S.; Baudel, H. M.; De Abreu, C. A. M. Dilute mixed-acid pretreatment of sugarcane bagasse for ethanol production. *Biomass and Bioenergy* **2011**, *35*, 663–670.
- [43] Rocha, G. d. M.; Gonçalves, A. R.; Oliveira, B.; Olivares, E.; Rossell, C. Steam explosion pretreatment reproduction and alkaline delignification reactions performed on a pilot scale with sugarcane bagasse for bioethanol production. *Industrial Crops and Products* **2012**, *35*, 274–279.
- [44] de Moraes Rocha, G. J.; Nascimento, V. M.; Gonçalves, A. R.; Silva, V. F. N.; Martín, C. Influence of mixed sugarcane bagasse samples evaluated by elemental and physical–chemical composition. *Industrial Crops and Products* **2015**, *64*, 52–58.
- [45] Shaikh, H. M.; Pandare, K. V.; Nair, G.; Varma, A. J. Utilization of sugarcane bagasse cellulose for producing cellulose acetates: Novel use of residual hemicellulose as plasticizer. *Carbohydrate Polymers* **2009**, *76*, 23–29.
- [46] Sales, A.; Lima, S. A. Use of Brazilian sugarcane bagasse ash in concrete as sand replacement. *Waste Management* **2010**, *30*, 1114–1122.
- [47] Alavez-Ramirez, R.; Montes-Garcia, P.; Martínez-Reyes, J.; Altamirano-Juárez, D. C.; Gochi-Ponce, Y. The use of sugarcane bagasse ash and lime to improve the durability and mechanical properties of compacted soil blocks. *Construction and Building Materials* **2012**, *34*, 296–305.
- [48] de Morais Teixeira, E.; Bondancia, T. J.; Teodoro, K. B. R.; Correa, A. C.; Marconcini, J. M.; Mattoso, L. H. C. Sugarcane bagasse whiskers: extraction and characterizations. *Industrial Crops and Products* **2011**, *33*, 63–66.
- [49] Rabelo, S.; Carrere, H.; Maciel Filho, R.; Costa, A. Production of bioethanol, methane and heat from sugarcane bagasse in a biorefinery concept. *Bioresource technology* **2011**, *102*, 7887–7895.
- [50] Jorapur, R.; Rajvanshi, A. K. Sugarcane leaf-bagasse gasifiers for industrial heating applications. *Biomass and Bioenergy* **1997**, *13*, 141–146.
- [51] Zhang, Z.; O'Hara, I. M.; Kent, G. A.; Doherty, W. O. Comparative study on adsorption of two cationic dyes by milled sugarcane bagasse. *Industrial Crops and Products* **2013**, *42*, 41–49.
- [52] Kawaguchi, H.; Hasunuma, T.; Ogino, C.; Kondo, A. Bioprocessing of bio-based chemicals produced from lignocellulosic feedstocks. *Current opinion in biotechnology* **2016**, *42*, 30–39.
- [53] CINCAE | Centro de Investigación de la Caña de Azúcar del Ecuador. <http://cincae.org/utilizacion-de-subproductos-de-la-cana-de-azucar-y-de-la-industria-alcoholera-ecuatoriana-para-> (Accessed on 05/05/2019).

- [54] Ren, J. *Biodegradable poly (lactic acid): synthesis, modification, processing and applications*; Springer Science & Business Media, 2010.
- [55] Lipsa, R.; Tudorachi, N.; Vasile, C. Poly (α -hydroxyacids) in biomedical applications: synthesis and properties of lactic acid polymers. *e-polymers* **2010**, *10*.
- [56] Di Lorenzo, M. L.; Androsch, R. *Synthesis, Structure and Properties of Poly (lactic acid)*; Springer, 2018.
- [57] Narayanan, N.; Roychoudhury, P. K.; Srivastava, A. L (+) lactic acid fermentation and its product polymerization. *Electronic journal of Biotechnology* **2004**, *7*, 167–178.
- [58] Auras, R. A.; Lim, L.-T.; Selke, S. E.; Tsuji, H. *Poly (lactic acid): synthesis, structures, properties, processing, and applications*; John Wiley & Sons, 2011; Vol. 10.
- [59] Hofvendahl, K.; Hahn-Hägerdal, B. Factors affecting the fermentative lactic acid production from renewable resources1. *Enzyme and microbial technology* **2000**, *26*, 87–107.
- [60] Abdel-Rahman, M. A.; Tashiro, Y.; Sonomoto, K. Lactic acid production from lignocellulose-derived sugars using lactic acid bacteria: overview and limits. *Journal of biotechnology* **2011**, *156*, 286–301.
- [61] Datta, R.; Henry, M. Lactic acid: recent advances in products, processes and technologies—a review. *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology: International Research in Process, Environmental & Clean Technology* **2006**, *81*, 1119–1129.
- [62] Okino, S.; Suda, M.; Fujikura, K.; Inui, M.; Yukawa, H. Production of D-lactic acid by *Corynebacterium glutamicum* under oxygen deprivation. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology* **2008**, *78*, 449–454.
- [63] John, R. P.; Nampoothiri, K. M.; Pandey, A. Fermentative production of lactic acid from biomass: an overview on process developments and future perspectives. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology* **2007**, *74*, 524–534.
- [64] Lavarack, B.; Griffin, G.; Rodman, D. The acid hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose to produce xylose, arabinose, glucose and other products. *Biomass and bioenergy* **2002**, *23*, 367–380.
- [65] Laopaiboon, P.; Thani, A.; Leelavatcharamas, V.; Laopaiboon, L. Acid hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse for lactic acid production. *Bioresource technology* **2010**, *101*, 1036–1043.
- [66] Szekely, G.; Didaskalou, C. *Molecularly Imprinted Catalysts*; Elsevier, 2016; pp 121–158.
- [67] Mesa, L.; González, E.; Cara, C.; González, M.; Castro, E.; Mussatto, S. I. The effect of organosolv pretreatment variables on enzymatic hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse. *Chemical Engineering Journal* **2011**, *168*, 1157–1162.
- [68] Martin, C.; Marcet, M.; Thomsen, A. B. Comparison between wet oxidation and steam explosion as pretreatment methods for enzymatic hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse. *BioResources* **2008**, *3*, 670–683.

- [69] Sakdaronnarong, C.; Srimarut, N.; Lucknakhul, N.; Na-Songkla, N.; Jonglertjunya, W. Two-step acid and alkaline ethanolysis/alkaline peroxide fractionation of sugarcane bagasse and rice straw for production of polylactic acid precursor. *Biochemical engineering journal* **2014**, *85*, 49–62.
- [70] Sasaki, C.; Okumura, R.; Asakawa, A.; Asada, C.; Nakamura, Y. Production of D-lactic acid from sugarcane bagasse using steam-explosion. 2012.
- [71] John, R. P.; Anisha, G.; Nampoothiri, K. M.; Pandey, A. Direct lactic acid fermentation: focus on simultaneous saccharification and lactic acid production. *Biotechnology advances* **2009**, *27*, 145–152.
- [72] Altaf, M.; Naveena, B.; Venkateshwar, M.; Kumar, E. V.; Reddy, G. Single step fermentation of starch to L (+) lactic acid by *Lactobacillus amylophilus* GV6 in SSF using inexpensive nitrogen sources to replace peptone and yeast extract—optimization by RSM. *Process biochemistry* **2006**, *41*, 465–472.
- [73] Son, M.-S.; Kwon, Y.-J. Direct fermentation of starch to l (+)-Lactic acid by fed-batch culture of *Lactobacillus manihotivorans*. *Food Science and Biotechnology* **2013**, *22*, 289–293.
- [74] Cavallini, E. R. *Bacteriología general: Principios y prácticas de laboratorio*; Editorial Universidad de Costa Rica, 2005.
- [75] Englyst, H. N.; Anderson, V.; Cummings, J. H. Starch and non-starch polysaccharides in some cereal foods. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* **1983**, *34*, 1434–1440.
- [76] Martínez Anaya, C.; López Munguía, A. La Celulosa: Fibra y Energía | Academia de Ciencias de Morelos. <https://www.acmor.org.mx/?q=content/1a-celulosa-fibra-y-energ%C3%ADa>, 2015; (Accessed on 04/30/2019).
- [77] Adsul, M. G.; Varma, A. J.; Gokhale, D. V. Lactic acid production from waste sugarcane bagasse derived cellulose. *Green Chemistry* **2007**, *9*, 58–62.
- [78] Joshi, D.; Singhvi, M.; Khire, J.; Gokhale, D. Strain improvement of *Lactobacillus lactis* for D-lactic acid production. *Biotechnology letters* **2010**, *32*, 517–520.
- [79] Sasaki, C.; Okumura, R.; Asakawa, A.; Asada, C.; Nakamura, Y. Effects of washing with water on enzymatic saccharification and d-lactic acid production from steam-exploded sugarcane bagasse. *Journal of Material Cycles and Waste Management* **2012**, *14*, 234–240.
- [80] Peng, L.; Xie, N.; Guo, L.; Wang, L.; Yu, B.; Ma, Y. Efficient open fermentative production of polymer-grade L-lactate from sugarcane bagasse hydrolysate by thermotolerant *Bacillus* sp. strain P38. *PLoS one* **2014**, *9*, e107143.
- [81] Michelson, T.; Kask, K.; Jõgi, E.; Talpsep, E.; Suitso, I.; Nurk, A. L (+)-Lactic acid producer *Bacillus coagulans* SIM-7 DSM 14043 and its comparison with *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* ssp. *lactis* DSM 20073. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology* **2006**, *39*, 861–867.

- [82] Ding, S.; Tan, T. L-lactic acid production by *Lactobacillus casei* fermentation using different fed-batch feeding strategies. *Process Biochemistry* **2006**, *41*, 1451–1454.
- [83] Patel, M.; Ou, M.; Ingram, L.; Shanmugam, K. Fermentation of sugar cane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate to L (+)-lactic acid by a thermotolerant acidophilic *Bacillus* sp. *Biotechnology letters* **2004**, *26*, 865–868.
- [84] van der Pol, E. C.; Eggink, G.; Weusthuis, R. A. Production of L (+)-lactic acid from acid pretreated sugarcane bagasse using *Bacillus coagulans* DSM2314 in a simultaneous saccharification and fermentation strategy. *Biotechnology for biofuels* **2016**, *9*, 248.
- [85] Tsuji, H.; Hyon, S. H.; Ikada, Y. Stereocomplex formation between enantiomeric poly (lactic acid) s. 4. Differential scanning calorimetric studies on precipitates from mixed solutions of poly (D-lactic acid) and poly (L-lactic acid). *Macromolecules* **1991**, *24*, 5657–5662.
- [86] Domingues, R. C. C.; Pereira, C. C.; Borges, C. P. Effect of stereoisomerism of poly (lactic acid) during neural guide conduit membrane synthesis. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **2018**, *135*, 46190.
- [87] BMG Inc. | BioDegmer®. http://www.bmg-inc.com/en/prod_and_res/bio_degmer/index.html, (Accessed on 04/30/2019).
- [88] Aznar, M.; Ubeda, S.; Dreolin, N.; Nerín, C. Determination of non-volatile components of a biodegradable food packaging material based on polyester and polylactic acid (PLA) and its migration to food simulants. *Journal of Chromatography A* **2019**, *1583*, 1–8.
- [89] Churilov, L.; Korzhikov-Vlakh, V.; Sinitsyna, E.; Polyakov, D.; Darashkevich, O.; Poida, M.; Platonova, G.; Vinogradova, T.; Utekhin, V.; Zabolotnykh, N.; Zinserling, V.; Yablonsky, P.; Urtti, A.; Tennikova, T. Enhanced Delivery of 4-Thioureidoiminomethylpyridinium Perchlorate in Tuberculosis Models with IgG Functionalized Poly (Lactic Acid)-Based Particles. *Pharmaceutics* **2019**, *11*, 2.
- [90] Cipriano, T. F.; Silva, A. L. N. d.; Silva, A. H. M. d. F.; Sousa, A. M. F. d.; Silva, G. M. d.; Rocha, M. G. Thermal, rheological and morphological properties of poly (lactic acid)(PLA) and talc composites. *Polímeros* **2014**, *24*, 276–282.
- [91] Rivero, C.; Hu, Y.; Kwan, T.; Webb, C.; Theodoropoulos, C.; Daoud, W.; Lin, C. *Current Developments in Biotechnology and Bioengineering*; Elsevier, 2017; pp 1–26.
- [92] Siemann, U. The solubility parameter of poly (DL-lactic acid). *European polymer journal* **1992**, *28*, 293–297.
- [93] Karst, D.; Yang, Y. Using the solubility parameter to explain disperse dye sorption on polylactide. *Journal of applied polymer science* **2005**, *96*, 416–422.
- [94] Garlotta, D. A literature review of poly (lactic acid). *Journal of Polymers and the Environment* **2001**, *9*, 63–84.
- [95] Adamska, K.; Voelkel, A.; Berlińska, A. The solubility parameter for biomedical polymers—Application of inverse gas chromatography. *Journal of pharmaceutical and biomedical analysis* **2016**, *127*, 202–206.

- [96] Farah, S.; Anderson, D. G.; Langer, R. Physical and mechanical properties of PLA, and their functions in widespread applications—A comprehensive review. *Advanced drug delivery reviews* **2016**, *107*, 367–392.
- [97] Quynh, T. M.; Mitomo, H.; Nagasawa, N.; Wada, Y.; Yoshii, F.; Tamada, M. Properties of crosslinked polylactides (PLLA & PDLA) by radiation and its biodegradability. *European Polymer Journal* **2007**, *43*, 1779–1785.
- [98] Karande, R. D.; Abitha, V.; Rane, A. V.; Mishra, R. K. Preparation of polylactide from synthesized lactic acid and effect of reaction parameters on conversion. *Journal of Materials Science and Engineering with Advanced Technology* **2015**, *12*, 1–37.
- [99] Serna, L.; Rodríguez, A.; Albán, F. Ácido poliláctico (PLA): Propiedades y aplicaciones. *Ingeniería y competitividad* **2011**, *5*, 16–26.
- [100] Saha, S. K.; Tsuji, H. Effects of molecular weight and small amounts of d-lactide units on hydrolytic degradation of poly (l-lactic acid) s. *Polymer Degradation and Stability* **2006**, *91*, 1665–1673.
- [101] Perego, G.; Cella, G. D.; Bastioli, C. Effect of molecular weight and crystallinity on poly (lactic acid) mechanical properties. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **1996**, *59*, 37–43.
- [102] Abdelwahab, M. A.; Flynn, A.; Chiou, B.-S.; Imam, S.; Orts, W.; Chiellini, E. Thermal, mechanical and morphological characterization of plasticized PLA–PHB blends. *Polymer Degradation and Stability* **2012**, *97*, 1822–1828.
- [103] Kimble, L. D.; Bhattacharyya, D. In vitro degradation effects on strength, stiffness, and creep of PLLA/PBS: a potential stent material. *International Journal of Polymeric Materials and Polymeric Biomaterials* **2015**, *64*, 299–310.
- [104] Gigante, V.; Canesi, I.; Cinelli, P.; Coltelli, M. B.; Lazzeri, A. Rubber toughening of polylactic acid (PLA) with Poly (butylene adipate-co-terephthalate)(PBAT): mechanical properties, fracture mechanics and analysis of ductile-to-brittle behavior while varying temperature and test speed. *European Polymer Journal* **2019**, *115*, 125–137.
- [105] Sarasua, J.; Arraiza, A. L.; Balerdi, P.; Maiza, I. Crystallinity and mechanical properties of optically pure polylactides and their blends. *Polymer Engineering & Science* **2005**, *45*, 745–753.
- [106] Domemek, S.; Fernandes-Nassar, S.; Ducruet, V. *Synthesis, Structure and Properties of Poly (lactic acid)*; Springer, 2017; pp 303–341.
- [107] Chen, Y.; Han, L.; Ju, D.; Liu, T.; Dong, L. Disentanglement induced by uniaxial pre-stretching as a key factor for toughening poly (l-lactic acid) sheets. *Polymer* **2018**, *140*, 47–55.
- [108] Chen, W.; Chen, H.; Yuan, Y.; Peng, S.; Zhao, X. Synergistic effects of polyethylene glycol and organic montmorillonite on the plasticization and enhancement of poly (lactic acid). *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **2019**, *136*, 47576.

- [109] Garcia-Campo, M.; Quiles-Carrillo, L.; Sanchez-Nacher, L.; Balart, R.; Montanes, N. High toughness poly (lactic acid)(PLA) formulations obtained by ternary blends with poly (3-hydroxybutyrate)(PHB) and flexible polyesters from succinic acid. *Polymer Bulletin* **2019**, *76*, 1839–1859.
- [110] Gug, J.; Soule, J.; Tan, B.; Sobkowicz, M. J. Effects of chain-extending stabilizer on bioplastic poly (lactic acid)/polyamide blends compatibilized by reactive extrusion. *Polymer degradation and stability* **2018**, *153*, 118–129.
- [111] Běhálek, L.; Maršálková, M.; Lenfeld, P.; Habr, J.; Bobek, J.; Seidl, M. Study of crystallization of polylactic acid composites and nanocomposites with natural fibres by DSC method. *Proceedings of NANOCON* **2014**, *6*.
- [112] Niaounakis, M. *Biopolymers: applications and trends*; William Andrew, 2015.
- [113] Zhuo, Q.; Harris, R. M.; Skovran, D. C.; Lightner, L. F.; Randall, M. S.; Stygar, V. E. Thermally conductive thermoplastic. 2000; US Patent 6,162,849.
- [114] NatureWorks | 2 Series for Extrusion & Thermoforming. <https://www.natureworksllc.com/Products/2-series-for-extrusion-thermoforming>, (Accessed on 04/30/2019).
- [115] Mortazavi, B.; Hassouna, F.; Laachachi, A.; Rajabpour, A.; Ahzi, S.; Chapron, D.; Toniazzo, V.; Ruch, D. Experimental and multiscale modeling of thermal conductivity and elastic properties of PLA/expanded graphite polymer nanocomposites. *Thermochimica Acta* **2013**, *552*, 106–113.
- [116] Kalia, S.; Avérous, L. *Biopolymers: biomedical and environmental applications*; John Wiley & Sons, 2011; Vol. 70.
- [117] Niaounakis, M. *Biopolymers: reuse, recycling, and disposal*; William Andrew, 2013.
- [118] Bocchini, S.; Fukushima, K.; Blasio, A. D.; Fina, A.; Frache, A.; Geobaldo, F. Polylactic acid and polylactic acid-based nanocomposite photooxidation. *Biomacromolecules* **2010**, *11*, 2919–2926.
- [119] De Jong, S.; Arias, E. R.; Rijkers, D.; Van Nostrum, C.; Kettenes-Van den Bosch, J.; Hennink, W. New insights into the hydrolytic degradation of poly (lactic acid): participation of the alcohol terminus. *Polymer* **2001**, *42*, 2795–2802.
- [120] Pandey, A.; Negi, S.; Soccol, C. R. *Current developments in biotechnology and bioengineering: production, isolation and purification of industrial products*; Elsevier, 2016.
- [121] Jarerat, A.; Tokiwa, Y.; Tanaka, H. Poly (L-lactide) degradation by *Kibdelosporangium aridum*. *Biotechnology letters* **2003**, *25*, 2035–2038.
- [122] Pranamuda, H.; Tokiwa, Y.; Tanaka, H. Polylactide degradation by an *Amycolatopsis* sp. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1997**, *63*, 1637–1640.

- [123] Banerjee, A.; Chatterjee, K.; Madras, G. Enzymatic degradation of polymers: a brief review. *Materials Science and Technology* **2014**, *30*, 567–573.
- [124] Cai, H.; Dave, V.; Gross, R. A.; McCarthy, S. P. Effects of physical aging, crystallinity, and orientation on the enzymatic degradation of poly (lactic acid). *Journal of Polymer Science Part B: Polymer Physics* **1996**, *34*, 2701–2708.
- [125] Luzi, F.; Fortunati, E.; Puglia, D.; Petrucci, R.; Kenny, J.; Torre, L. Study of disintegrability in compost and enzymatic degradation of PLA and PLA nanocomposites reinforced with cellulose nanocrystals extracted from *Posidonia Oceanica*. *Polymer degradation and stability* **2015**, *121*, 105–115.
- [126] Fundador, N. G. V.; Takemura, A.; Iwata, T. Structural properties and enzymatic degradation behavior of PLLA and stereocomplexed PLA nanofibers. *Macromolecular Materials and Engineering* **2010**, *295*, 865–871.
- [127] Li, S.; McCarthy, S. Influence of crystallinity and stereochemistry on the enzymatic degradation of poly (lactide) s. *Macromolecules* **1999**, *32*, 4454–4456.
- [128] Geyer, R.; Jambeck, J. R.; Law, K. L. Production, use, and fate of all plastics ever made. *Science advances* **2017**, *3*, e1700782.
- [129] Ritchie, H.; Roser, M. Plastic Pollution - Our World in Data. <https://ourworldindata.org/plastic-pollution>, 2018; (Accessed on 04/21/2019).
- [130] Global Polylactic Acid Market Size & Share | PLA Industry Report, 2025. <https://www.grandviewresearch.com/industry-analysis/polylactic-acid-pla-market>, 2018; (Accessed on 04/21/2019).
- [131] Clark, S.; Singh, R. Polylactic Acid (PLA) Market Size and Share by Application. <https://www.alliedmarketresearch.com/polylactic-acid-market>, 2013; (Accessed on 04/21/2019).
- [132] Polylactic Acid Production, Price and Market. <https://www.plasticsinsight.com/resin-intelligence/resin-prices/polylactic-acid/#tradebalance>, (Accessed on 04/21/2019).
- [133] OEC: The Observatory of Economic Complexity. <https://atlas.media.mit.edu/en/>, (Accessed on 05/05/2019).
- [134] Innova 3D. <http://innova3d.net/>, (Accessed on 06/18/2019).
- [135] Impresión 3D | Ecuador | TAICED - Construyendo Ideas. <https://www.taiced.com/>, (Accessed on 06/18/2019).
- [136] Andrade, X.; Quinde, L.; Pisco, I.; Asencio, M. Estudio Sectorial Plásticos. *Cámara de Industrias de Guayaquil* **2018**,
- [137] Board, P. A. T. E. *PDQ Cancer Information Summaries [Internet]*; National Cancer Institute (US), 2019.

- [138] Zhao, Y. *et al.* Losartan treatment enhances chemotherapy efficacy and reduces ascites in ovarian cancer models by normalizing the tumor stroma. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **2019**, *116*, 2210–2219.
- [139] Bar-Sela, G.; Tauber, D.; Mitnik, I.; Sheinman-Yuffe, H.; Bishara-Frolova, T.; Aharon-Peretz, J. Cannabis-related cognitive impairment: a prospective evaluation of possible influences on patients with cancer during chemotherapy treatment as a pilot study. *Anti-cancer drugs* **2019**, *30*, 91–97.
- [140] Lall, R. K.; Adhami, V. M.; Mukhtar, H. Dietary flavonoid fisetin for cancer prevention and treatment. *Molecular nutrition & food research* **2016**, *60*, 1396–1405.
- [141] Feng, C.; Yuan, X.; Chu, K.; Zhang, H.; Ji, W.; Rui, M. Preparation and optimization of poly (lactic acid) nanoparticles loaded with fisetin to improve anti-cancer therapy. *International journal of biological macromolecules* **2019**, *125*, 700–710.
- [142] de Brito, A. E. M.; Pessoa Jr, A.; Converti, A.; de Oliveira Rangel-Yagui, C.; da Silva, J. A.; Apolinário, A. C. Poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) nanospheres allow for high L-asparaginase encapsulation yield and activity. *Materials Science and Engineering: C* **2019**, *98*, 524–534.
- [143] Gaspar, M. M.; Blanco, D.; Cruz, M. E. M.; Alonso, M. J. Formulation of L-asparaginase-loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles: influence of polymer properties on enzyme loading, activity and in vitro release. *Journal of Controlled Release* **1998**, *52*, 53–62.
- [144] Ansari, M. J.; Alshahrani, S. M. Nano-encapsulation and characterization of baricitinib using poly-lactide-glycolic acid co-polymer. *Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal* **2019**,
- [145] Ramesh, B.; Cherian, K. M.; Fakoya, A. O. J. Fabrication and Electrospinning of 3D Biodegradable Poly-L-Lactic Acid (PLLA) Nanofibers for Clinical Application. **2019**,
- [146] Fang, Y.; Zhu, X.; Wang, N.; Zhang, X.; Yang, D.; Nie, J.; Ma, G. Biodegradable core-shell electrospun nanofibers based on PLA and γ -PGA for wound healing. *European Polymer Journal* **2019**,
- [147] Macha, I. J.; Karacan, I.; Ben-Nissan, B.; Cazalbou, S.; Müller, W. H. Development of antimicrobial composite coatings for drug release in dental, orthopaedic and neural prostheses applications. *SN Applied Sciences* **2019**, *1*, 68.
- [148] Armentano, I.; Bitinis, N.; Fortunati, E.; Mattioli, S.; Rescignano, N.; Verdejo, R.; Lopez-Manchado, M.; Kenny, J. Multifunctional nanostructured PLA materials for packaging and tissue engineering. *Progress in Polymer Science* **2013**, *38*, 1720–1747.
- [149] Betancourt, T.; Byrne, J. D.; Sunaryo, N.; Crowder, S. W.; Kadapakkam, M.; Patel, S.; Casciato, S.; Brannon-Peppas, L. PEGylation strategies for active targeting of PLA/PLGA nanoparticles. *Journal of Biomedical Materials Research Part A: An Official Journal of The Society for Biomaterials, The Japanese Society for*

- Biomaterials, and The Australian Society for Biomaterials and the Korean Society for Biomaterials* **2009**, *91*, 263–276.
- [150] Kang, E. Y.; Choi, B.; Park, W.; Kim, I. H.; Han, D. K. One step bulk modification of poly (L-lactic acid) composites with functional additives to improve mechanical and biological properties for cardiovascular implant applications. *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces* **2019**,
- [151] Sheng, Y.; Yuan, Y.; Liu, C.; Tao, X.; Shan, X.; Xu, F. In vitro macrophage uptake and in vivo biodistribution of PLA–PEG nanoparticles loaded with hemoglobin as blood substitutes: effect of PEG content. *Journal of Materials Science: Materials in Medicine* **2009**, *20*, 1881–1891.
- [152] Campardelli, R.; Della Porta, G.; Gomez, L.; Irusta, S.; Reverchon, E.; Santamaria, J. Au–PLA nanocomposites for photothermally controlled drug delivery. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B* **2014**, *2*, 409–417.
- [153] Singh, S.; Prakash, C.; Singh, M.; Mann, G. S.; Gupta, M. K.; Singh, R.; Ramakrishna, S. *Biomanufacturing*; Springer, 2019; pp 69–87.
- [154] Fiqrianti, I.; Widiyanti, P.; Manaf, M.; Savira, C.; Cahyani, N.; Bella, F. Poly-L-lactic Acid (PLLA)-Chitosan-Collagen Electrospun Tube for Vascular Graft Application. *Journal of functional biomaterials* **2018**, *9*, 32.
- [155] Cui, Y.; Hu, M.; Hu, K.; Yan, J.; Yang, G.; Zhang, C.; Wang, X.; Xue, P.; Wei, Y.; Li, L.; Zhang, F. *Advances in Graphic Communication, Printing and Packaging*; Springer, 2019; pp 1016–1021.
- [156] Ali Raza, Z.; Anwar, F.; Hussain, I.; Abid, S.; Masood, R.; Shahzad Maqsood, H. Fabrication of PLA incorporated chitosan nanoparticles to create enhanced functional properties of cotton fabric. *Pigment & Resin Technology* **2019**, *48*, 169–177.
- [157] Cayla, A.; Rault, F.; Giraud, S.; Salaün, F.; Fierro, V.; Celzard, A. PLA with intumescent system containing lignin and ammonium polyphosphate for flame retardant textile. *Polymers* **2016**, *8*, 331.
- [158] Wu, G.; Liu, S.; Jia, H.; Dai, J. Preparation and properties of heat resistant polylactic acid (PLA)/nano-SiO₂ composite filament. *Journal of Wuhan University of Technology-Mater. Sci. Ed.* **2016**, *31*, 164–171.
- [159] Chaitanya, S.; Singh, I. Ecofriendly treatment of aloe vera fibers for PLA based green composites. *International Journal of Precision Engineering and Manufacturing-Green Technology* **2018**, *5*, 143–150.
- [160] Lee, S. H.; Yeo, S. Y. Improvement of hydrophilicity of polylactic acid (PLA) fabrics by means of a proteolytic enzyme from *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Fibers and Polymers* **2016**, *17*, 1154–1161.
- [161] Spahiu, T.; Al-Arabiyyat, M.; Martens, Y.; Ehrmann, A.; Piperi, E.; Shehi, E. Adhesion of 3D printing polymers on textile fabrics for garment production. 2018.
- [162] Alay, E.; Duran, K.; Korlu, A. A sample work on green manufacturing in textile industry. *Sustainable Chemistry and Pharmacy* **2016**, *3*, 39–46.

- [163] Conn, R.; Kolstad, J.; Borzelleca, J.; Dixler, D.; Filer Jr, L.; LaDu Jr, B.; Pariza, M. Safety assessment of polylactide (PLA) for use as a food-contact polymer. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* **1995**, *33*, 273–283.
- [164] Arrieta, M.; Peltzer, M.; López, J.; Peponi, L. *Industrial Applications of Renewable Biomass Products*; Springer, 2017; pp 265–300.
- [165] Arrieta, M.; Fortunati, E.; Burgos, N.; Peltzer, M.; López, J.; Peponi, L. *Multifunctional Polymeric Nanocomposites Based on Cellulosic Reinforcements*; Elsevier, 2016; pp 205–252.
- [166] Musioł, M.; Sikorska, W.; Janeczek, H.; Wałach, W.; Hercog, A.; Johnston, B.; Rydz, J. (Bio) degradable polymeric materials for a sustainable future—part 1. Organic recycling of PLA/PBAT blends in the form of prototype packages with long shelf-life. *Waste Management* **2018**, *77*, 447–454.
- [167] Sahan, Y.; Gurbuz, O.; Goncagul, G.; Kara, A.; Ozakin, C. Antimicrobial effect of PEG–PLA on food-spoilage microorganisms. *Food science and biotechnology* **2017**, *26*, 1123–1128.
- [168] Noruzi, M. Electrospun nanofibres in agriculture and the food industry: a review. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* **2016**, *96*, 4663–4678.
- [169] Carvalho, I. T.; Estevinho, B. N.; Santos, L. Application of microencapsulated essential oils in cosmetic and personal healthcare products—a review. *International journal of cosmetic science* **2016**, *38*, 109–119.
- [170] Ruiz-Ruiz, F.; Mancera-Andrade, E. I.; Parra-Saldivar, R.; Keshavarz, T.; Iqbal, H. Drug delivery and cosmeceutical applications of poly-lactic acid based novel constructs—A review. *Current drug metabolism* **2017**, *18*, 914–925.
- [171] Jiménez, A.; Peltzer, M.; Ruseckaite, R. *Poly (lactic acid) science and technology: processing, properties, additives and applications*; Royal Society of Chemistry, 2014.
- [172] Ebnesajjad, S. *Handbook of biopolymers and biodegradable plastics: properties, processing and applications*; William Andrew, 2012.
- [173] Penczek, S.; Pretula, J. Ring-opening polymerization. **2016**,
- [174] Penczek, S.; Moad, G. Glossary of terms related to kinetics, thermodynamics, and mechanisms of polymerization (IUPAC Recommendations 2008). *Pure and Applied Chemistry* **2008**, *80*, 2163–2193.
- [175] Achmad, F.; Yamane, K.; Quan, S.; Kokugan, T. Synthesis of polylactic acid by direct polycondensation under vacuum without catalysts, solvents and initiators. *Chemical Engineering Journal* **2009**, *151*, 342–350.
- [176] Kim, K. W.; Woo, S. I. Synthesis of High-Molecular-Weight Poly (L-lactic acid) by Direct Polycondensation. *Macromolecular chemistry and physics* **2002**, *203*, 2245–2250.
- [177] Ajioka, M.; Enomoto, K.; Suzuki, K.; Yamaguchi, A. Basic properties of polylactic acid produced by the direct condensation polymerization of lactic acid. *Bulletin of the Chemical Society of Japan* **1995**, *68*, 2125–2131.

- [178] Xiao, L.; Wang, B.; Yang, G.; Gauthier, M. *Poly (lactic acid)-based biomaterials: synthesis, modification and applications*; InTech, 2012.
- [179] Anthony, P. High molecular weight polylactic acid synthesized by applying different binary catalyst. *Int. J. Chem, Pharm, Sci* **2016**, *4*, 517–521.
- [180] Lee, H. W.; Insyani, R.; Prasetyo, D.; Prajitno, H.; Sitompul, J. P. Molecular Weight and Structural Properties of Biodegradable PLA Synthesized with Different Catalysts by Direct Melt Polycondensation. *Journal of Engineering and Technological Sciences* **2015**, *47*, 364–373.
- [181] Hwang, S. Y.; Oh, D. Y. X.; Park, J. Y. Synthesis of High Molecular Weight Poly (L-Lactic Acid) s by Direct Polycondensation with Organic Acids as Catalyst. 2018.
- [182] Choubisa, B.; Patel, M.; Dholakiya, B. Synthesis and characterization of polylactic acid (PLA) using a solid acid catalyst system in the polycondensation method. *Research on Chemical Intermediates* **2013**, *39*, 3063–3070.
- [183] Pivsa Art, S.; Niamlang, S.; Pivsa-Art, W.; Pavasupree, S.; Ishimoto, K.; Ohara, H. The Production of Poly (L-lactic acid) from 2-Steps Direct Polycondensation in 100 Kg Scale. 2012.
- [184] Van Wouwe, P.; Dusselier, M.; Vanleeuw, E.; Sels, B. Lactide synthesis and chirality control for polylactic acid production. *ChemSusChem* **2016**, *9*, 907–921.
- [185] Robert, J. L.; Aubrecht, K. B. Ring-opening polymerization of lactide to form a biodegradable polymer. *Journal of chemical education* **2008**, *85*, 258.
- [186] Rapp, G.; Samuel, C.; Odent, J.; Raquez, J.-M.; Dubois, P.; Bussiere, P.-O.; Gardette, J.-L.; Therias, S. Peculiar effect of stereocomplexes on the photochemical ageing of PLA/PMMA blends. *Polymer degradation and stability* **2018**, *150*, 92–104.
- [187] Dechy-Cabaret, O.; Martin-Vaca, B.; Bourissou, D. Controlled ring-opening polymerization of lactide and glycolide. *Chemical reviews* **2004**, *104*, 6147–6176.
- [188] Slattery, R. M.; Stahl, A. E.; Brereton, K. R.; Rheingold, A. L.; Green, D. B.; Fritsch, J. M. Ring opening polymerization and copolymerization of L-lactide and -caprolactone by bis-ligated magnesium complexes. *Journal of Polymer Science Part A: Polymer Chemistry* **2019**, *57*, 48–59.
- [189] Ohn, N.; Shin, J.; Kim, S. S.; Kim, J. G. Mechanochemical Ring-Opening Polymerization of Lactide: Liquid-Assisted Grinding for the Green Synthesis of Poly (lactic acid) with High Molecular Weight. *ChemSusChem* **2017**, *10*, 3529–3533.
- [190] Sherck, N. J.; Kim, H. C.; Won, Y.-Y. Elucidating a unified mechanistic scheme for the DBU-catalyzed ring-opening polymerization of lactide to poly (lactic acid). *Macromolecules* **2016**, *49*, 4699–4713.

- [191] Xiong, J.; Zhang, J.; Sun, Y.; Dai, Z.; Pan, X.; Wu, J. Iso-selective ring-opening polymerization of rac-lactide catalyzed by crown ether complexes of sodium and potassium naphthalenolates. *Inorganic chemistry* **2015**, *54*, 1737–1743.
- [192] Ghosh, S.; Chakraborty, D.; Varghese, B. Group 1 salts of the imino (phenoxide) scaffold: Synthesis, structural characterization and studies as catalysts towards the bulk ring opening polymerization of lactides. *European Polymer Journal* **2015**, *62*, 51–65.
- [193] Tabthong, S.; Nanok, T.; Sumrit, P.; Kongsaree, P.; Prabpai, S.; Chuawong, P.; Hormnirun, P. Bis (pyrrolidene) schiff base aluminum complexes as isoselective-biased initiators for the controlled ring-opening polymerization of rac-lactide: Experimental and theoretical Studies. *Macromolecules* **2015**, *48*, 6846–6861.
- [194] Pholharn, D.; Srithep, Y.; Morris, J. Ring opening polymerization of poly (L-lactide) by macroinitiator. 2019.
- [195] Hu, Y.; Daoud, W. A.; Fei, B.; Chen, L.; Kwan, T. H.; Lin, C. S. K. Efficient ZnO aqueous nanoparticle catalysed lactide synthesis for poly (lactic acid) fibre production from food waste. *Journal of cleaner production* **2017**, *165*, 157–167.
- [196] Griffiths, P. R.; Haseth, J. A. *Fourier transform infrared spectrometry*; John Wiley Sons, 2007.
- [197] smith, B. C. *Fundamentals of Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy*; CRC press, 2011.
- [198] Perkins, W. Fourier transform-infrared spectroscopy: Part I. Instrumentation. *Journal of Chemical Education* **1986**, *63*, A5.
- [199] Movasaghi, Z.; Rehman, S.; ur Rehman, D. I. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy of biological tissues. *Applied Spectroscopy Reviews* **2008**, *43*, 134–179.
- [200] Pandey, K. A study of chemical structure of soft and hardwood and wood polymers by FTIR spectroscopy. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **1999**, *71*, 1969–1975.
- [201] Stark, N. M.; Matuana, L. M. Surface chemistry changes of weathered HDPE/wood-flour composites studied by XPS and FTIR spectroscopy. *Polymer Degradation and Stability* **2004**, *86*, 1–9.
- [202] Corporation, T. N. Introduction to Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometry. **2001**,
- [203] Doyle, C. D. Estimating thermal stability of experimental polymers by empirical thermogravimetric analysis. *Analytical Chemistry* **1961**, *33*, 77–79.
- [204] Mackenzie, R. C. Nomenclature in thermal analysis, part IV. *Thermochimica acta* **1979**, *28*, 1–6.
- [205] Coats, A. W.; Redfern, J. P. Thermogravimetric analysis. A review. *Analyst* **1963**, *88*, 906–924.
- [206] Ceylan, S.; Topçu, Y. Pyrolysis kinetics of hazelnut husk using thermogravimetric analysis. *Bioresource technology* **2014**, *156*, 182–188.

- [207] Ramiah, M. V. Thermogravimetric and differential thermal analysis of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* **1970**, *14*, 1323–1337.
- [208] Cervantes-Uc, J. M.; Cauich-Rodríguez, J. V.; Vázquez-Torres, H.; Licea-Claveríe, A. TGA/FTIR study on thermal degradation of polymethacrylates containing carboxylic groups. *Polymer degradation and stability* **2006**, *91*, 3312–3321.
- [209] Gabbott, P. *Principles and applications of thermal analysis*; John Wiley & Sons, 2008.
- [210] Missak Swarup Raju, K. Infiltration growth processing of YBCO nanocomposites shape forming microstructural and magnetic studies. **2012**,
- [211] Gaisford, S.; Kett, V.; Haines, P. *Principles of thermal analysis and calorimetry*; Royal society of chemistry, 2016.
- [212] Menczel, J.; Prime, R. Thermal analysis of polymers: fundamentals and applications. **2014**,
- [213] Alonso, M.; Criado, Y.; Abanades, J.; Grasa, G. Undesired effects in the determination of CO₂ carrying capacities of CaO during TG testing. *Fuel* **2014**, *127*, 52–61.
- [214] Pivsa-Art, S.; Tong-ngok, T.; Junngam, S.; Wongpajan, R.; Pivsa-Art, W. Synthesis of poly (D-lactic acid) using a 2-steps direct polycondensation process. *Energy Procedia* **2013**, *34*, 604–609.
- [215] Backes, E. H.; Pires, L. d. N.; Costa, L. C.; Passador, F. R.; Pessan, L. A. Analysis of the Degradation During Melt Processing of PLA/Biosilicate® Composites. *Journal of Composites Science* **2019**, *3*, 52.
- [216] Sharma, S.; Singh, A. A.; Majumdar, A.; Butola, B. S. Tailoring the mechanical and thermal properties of polylactic acid-based bionanocomposite films using halloysite nanotubes and polyethylene glycol by solvent casting process. *Journal of materials science* **2019**, *54*, 8971–8983.
- [217] Gregorova, A. *Applications of Calorimetry in a Wide Context-Differential Scanning Calorimetry, Isothermal Titration Calorimetry and Microcalorimetry*; IntechOpen, 2013.
- [218] Groenewoud, W. M. *Characterisation of polymers by thermal analysis*; Elsevier, 2001.
- [219] Khurana, D.; Agarwal, A. K. Oxidation stability, engine performance and emissions investigations of karanja, neem and jatropha biodiesel and blends. *SAE International Journal of Fuels and Lubricants* **2011**, *4*, 76–83.
- [220] Kodre, K.; Attarde, S.; Yendhe, P.; Patil, R.; Barge, V. Differential scanning calorimetry: A review. *Research and Reviews: Journal of Pharmaceutical Analysis* **2014**, *3*, 11–22.
- [221] Ul-Hamid, A. *A Beginners' Guide to Scanning Electron Microscopy*; Springer, 2018.
- [222] Spori, D. M. Structural influences on self-cleaning surfaces. Ph.D. thesis, ETH Zurich, 2010.

- [223] Bodas, D.; Khan-Malek, C. Hydrophilization and hydrophobic recovery of PDMS by oxygen plasma and chemical treatment—An SEM investigation. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical* **2007**, *123*, 368–373.
- [224] Grafov, A.; Vuorinen, S.; Repo, T.; Kemell, M.; Nieger, M.; Leskelä, M. New Sn (IV) and Ti (IV) bis (trimethylsilyl) amides in d, l-lactide polymerization, SEM characterization of polymers. *European Polymer Journal* **2008**, *44*, 3797–3805.
- [225] Matei, A.; Cernica, I.; Cadar, O.; Roman, C.; Schiopu, V. Synthesis and characterization of ZnO–polymer nanocomposites. *International Journal of Material Forming* **2008**, *1*, 767–770.
- [226] Echlin, P. *Handbook of sample preparation for scanning electron microscopy and X-ray microanalysis*; Springer Science & Business Media, 2011.
- [227] Yen, M.-T.; Yang, J.-H.; Mau, J.-L. Physicochemical characterization of chitin and chitosan from crab shells. *Carbohydrate Polymers* **2009**, *75*, 15–21.
- [228] Denkbas, E. B.; Kilicay, E.; Birlikseven, C.; Ozturk, E. Magnetic chitosan microspheres: preparation and characterization. *Reactive and Functional Polymers* **2002**, *50*, 225–232.
- [229] Goldstein, J. I.; Newbury, D. E.; Echlin, P.; Joy, D. C.; Lyman, C. E.; Lifshin, E.; Sawyer, L.; Michael, J. R. *Scanning electron microscopy and X-ray microanalysis*; KLUWER ACADEMIC & PLENUM PUBLISHERS, 2003.
- [230] Onder, O. C.; Yilgor, E.; Yilgor, I. Critical parameters controlling the properties of monolithic poly (lactic acid) foams prepared by thermally induced phase separation. *Journal of Polymer Science Part B: Polymer Physics* **2019**, *57*, 98–108.
- [231] Battegazzore, D.; Noori, A.; Frache, A. Natural wastes as particle filler for poly (lactic acid)-based composites. *Journal of Composite Materials* **2019**, *53*, 783–797.
- [232] others,, *et al.* Nanocomposite of Poly (l-Lactic Acid) with Inorganic Nanotubes of WS₂. *Lubricants* **2019**, *7*, 28.