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1 **Elaboration and properties of plasticised chitosan-based exfoliated nano-**
2 **biocomposites**

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 A series of plasticised chitosan-based materials and nanocomposites were successfully
19 prepared by thermomechanical kneading. During the processing, the montmorillonite (MMT)
20 platelets were fully delaminated. The nanoclay type and content and the preparation method
21 were seen to have an impact on the crystallinity, morphology, glass transition temperature,
22 and mechanical properties of the samples. When higher content (5%) of MMT–Na⁺ or either
23 content (2.5% or 5%) of chitosan-organomodified MMT (OMMT–Ch) was used, increases in
24 crystallinity and glass transition temperature were observed. Compared to the neat chitosan,
25 the plasticised chitosan-based nano-biocomposites showed drastically improved mechanical
26 properties, which can be ascribed to the excellent dispersion and exfoliation of nanoclay and
27 the strong affinity between the nanoclay and the chitosan matrix. The best mechanical
28 properties obtained were Young’s modulus of 164.3 MPa, tensile strength of 13.9 MPa,
29 elongation at break of 62.1%, and energy at break of 0.671 MPa. While the degree of
30 biodegradation was obviously increased by the presence of glycerol, a further increase might
31 be observed especially by the addition of unmodified nanoclay. This could surprisingly
32 contribute to full (100%) biodegradation after 160 days despite the well-known antimicrobial
33 property of chitosan. The results in this study demonstrate the great potential of plasticised
34 chitosan-based nano-biocomposites in applications such as e.g., biodegradable packaging
35 materials.

36

37 *Keywords:*

38 Chitosan; Nano-biocomposite; Montmorillonite; Nanoclay; Biodegradation

39

40 1. Introduction

41 In the last years, polymers from renewable resources have attracted great attention due to
42 their large availability, renewability, biocompatibility, and biodegradability (Yu, Dean, & Li,
43 2006). Among this group of polymers, chitosan, a linear polysaccharide consisting of (1,4)-
44 linked 2-amino-deoxy- β -D-glucan, is a deacetylated derivative of chitin, which is the second
45 most abundant polysaccharide found in nature after cellulose (Rinaudo, 2006). Chitosan has
46 been found to be nontoxic, biodegradable, biofunctional, and biocompatible in addition to
47 having antimicrobial characteristics, and thus has a great potential in packaging applications
48 (Dutta, Tripathi, Mehrotra, & Dutta, 2009). These films have been reported to be able to form
49 a barrier against moisture (Caner, Vergano, & Wiles, 1998), oxygen, and CO₂ (Hosokawa,
50 Nishiyama, Yoshihara, & Kubo, 1990). The film properties depend on several parameters
51 such as chitosan molecular weight and the degree of deacetylation, organic acid used, and the
52 possible presence of plasticiser.

53 Recently, along with the exponential momentum of the development in polymer
54 nanocomposites (Alexandre, & Dubois, 2000; Avérous, & Pollet, 2012; Bordes, Pollet, &
55 Avérous, 2009; Pavlidou, & Papispyrides, 2008; Sinha Ray, & Okamoto, 2003), much
56 attention has been focused on the use of nano-sized fillers (at least one dimension in the
57 nanometer range, i.e. 1–100 nm) in improving the performance of and adding new
58 functionalities to polysaccharide-based materials. Chitosan-based nano-biocomposites have
59 recently been reported with montmorillonite (MMT) (Depan, Kumar, & Singh, 2006; Depan,
60 Kumar, & Singh, 2008; Wang et al., 2005b), carbon nanotubes (Lau, Cooney, & Atanassov,
61 2008; Wang, Shen, Zhang, & Tong, 2005a), metal oxide nanoparticles (Al-Sagheer, &
62 Merchant, 2011; Kaushik et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2008; Li, Wu, & Zhitomirsky, 2010),
63 cellulose nanofibres (Azeredo et al., 2010), nano-hydroxyapatite (Thein-Han, & Misra, 2009a,
64 b) etc. as the reinforcements. These nanocomposites displayed improved properties such as

65 mechanical properties, thermal stability, moisture resistance and new properties such as
66 electrical conductivity, and were aimed at various applications such as packaging, biosensors,
67 tissue engineering (e.g., scaffolds) etc..

68 It is worth noting that, for preparing chitosan-based materials or nanocomposites, only
69 solution casting or similar methods involving chemical reactions have been used in all the
70 past studies. Solution casting is known to have the disadvantage in low efficiency and
71 difficulty in scaling-up towards industrial applications. In addition, a great amount of
72 environmentally unfriendly chemical solvents are used and released to the environment in
73 this method. The reason for not using a melt processing method like extrusion or kneading in
74 the past studies is that chitosan, like many other polysaccharides such as starch, has very low
75 thermal stability and degrades prior to melting (infusibility). Therefore, even if the melt
76 processing method is more convenient and highly preferred for industrial production, its
77 adaptation for polysaccharide-based materials remains very difficult. While the processing
78 issues of starch has been emphasised to some extent ([Avérous, & Pollet, 2011](#); [Chivrac,
79 Pollet, & Avérous, 2009](#); [Li et al., 2011](#); [Liu, Xie, Yu, Chen, & Li, 2009](#); [Xie, Halley, &
80 Avérous, 2012](#)), there has been very limited focus on the melt processing of chitosan-based
81 materials/nanocomposites.

82 In the current study, we aim to develop a new method by melt processing to fabricate
83 plasticised chitosan-based nano-biocomposites. Our recent study ([Epure, Griffon, Pollet, &
84 Avérous, 2011](#)) has demonstrated the successful use of an innovative melt processing method
85 (internal mixer) as an alternative route to solution casting, for preparing plasticised chitosan-
86 based materials. This current work followed the same processing protocol but focused on the
87 development of chitosan-based nano-biocomposites. Montmorillonite (MMT), which
88 possesses some strong advantages such as wide availability, low cost, versatility, eco-
89 friendliness, and low toxicity and has been frequently used in other polymer nanocomposite

90 systems (Alexandre, & Dubois, 2000; Avérous, & Pollet, 2012; Bordes et al., 2009; Pavlidou,
91 & Papaspyrides, 2008; Sinha Ray, & Okamoto, 2003), will be used as the nanofiller. The
92 effects of nanoclay content, organomodification, preparation method on the structure,
93 properties, and biodegradation of the plasticised chitosan-based nano-biocomposites were
94 examined.

95

96 **2. Materials and methods**

97 *2.1. Materials*

98 Two types of chitosan were used in the experimental work and their characteristics are
99 shown in Table 1. ChitoClear™ was provided as a white powder with particle diameter lower
100 than 1 mm (100% through mesh 18). The original moisture content of ChitoClear was 8.7 wt.%
101 (wet basis). KiOnutrime-Cs® was provided as a powder in sandy brown colour and in even
102 finer particle size. The original moisture content of KiOnutrime-Cs was 8.3% (wet basis).
103 Considering the difference in molecular chain length, ChitoClear was used as the matrix of
104 the chitosan-based nano-biocomposites, while KiOnutrime-Cs was used as the
105 organomodifier for the nanoclay. The Dellite® LVF sodium montmorillonite (MMT–Na⁺)
106 was supplied by Laviosa Chimica Mineraria S.p.A. (Italy) and has a cationic exchange
107 capacity (CEC) of 1050 µequiv/g. Glycerol (99.5% purity, from Novance, France), acetic
108 acid (Fluka, Sigma-Aldrich), and sodium hydroxide (Carlo Erba Réactifs – SdS, France), and
109 sodium bromide (Sigma-Aldrich) were used as received. Deionised water was used for the
110 sample preparation.

111

112 Table 1 Two chitosans used in the experimental work (the data are provided by the
113 suppliers).

Commercial name	KiOnutrime-Cs®	ChitoClear™
-----------------	----------------	-------------

Supplier	KitoZyme	Primex
Source	Aspergillus niger (mushroom)	Pandalus borealis (shrimp)
Molecular mass	1.5×10^7 Da	$2.5 \times 10^8 - 3.0 \times 10^8$ Da
Deacetylation degree	78–80%	96%

114

115 2.2. Sample preparation

116 2.2.1. Organomodification of montmorillonite

117 Chitosan solution was prepared by adding 4.754 g (dry basis) of the KiOnutrime-Cs
118 Chitosan to 500 mL of 1% (v/v) acetic acid (AcOH). The solution was stirred at room
119 temperature overnight. The pH of the solution was then adjusted to 4.9 with NaOH solution.
120 In parallel, a stock of well-dispersed clay suspension was prepared by adding 20 g of MMT–
121 Na⁺ into 500 mL of water and treating with sonication at 60 °C for 4 h. Then, the chitosan
122 solution and the MMT–Na⁺ suspension were mixed together and the mixture was stirred at
123 60 °C for 24 h. The mixture was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 15 min, and then the
124 supernatants were discarded. The precipitate was washed with distilled water and centrifuged
125 again at the same condition, which was repeated twice to make it free from acetate. Hence,
126 the final paste of chitosan-organomodified MMT (OMMT–Ch) was obtained with moisture
127 content of 94.6%. Part of the paste was oven-dried (50 °C, overnight) into powder for use
128 later. Here, the mass ratio of chitosan and clay were thus determined to achieve a monolayer
129 of chitosan absorbed into the nanoclay interlayer spacing through a cationic procedure with
130 respect to the CEC of the nanoclay (Darder, Colilla, & Ruiz-Hitzky, 2003).

131

132 2.2.2. Preparation of chitosan-based nanocomposites

133 The preparation procedure for the chitosan-based nanocomposites used here was similar
134 to that in our previous work (Epure et al., 2011), with modifications especially regarding the

135 addition of nanoclay. Seven samples with different formulation and/or preparation method
 136 were prepared, with the details and the sample codes listed in Table 2. As a typical procedure,
 137 glycerol was first introduced into the chitosan powder and manually mixed, followed by the
 138 addition of nanoclay (in the form of either paste or dried powder) with further manual mixing.
 139 Then, acetic acid aqueous solution (3%, v/v) was added dropwise to the chitosan–glycerol–
 140 nanoclay mixture with continuous manual mixing to obtain a paste with a final chitosan
 141 concentration of 25 wt.%. In some formulations where no glycerol or clay was used, the
 142 above procedure was accordingly adjusted. Also the amounts of the added 3% acetic acid
 143 solution listed in Table 2 were adjusted by taking into account the moisture content with the
 144 OMMT–Ch paste. However, this would hardly vary the effect of acetic acid solution because
 145 the pH value just changes from 2.53 to 2.68 even when the concentration of acetic acid varies
 146 from 3.0% to 1.5% (v/v).

147

148 Table 2 Formulations of the chitosan-based materials/nanocomposites ^a.

Sample code	Chitosan ^b	Glycerol	3% AcOH solution ^c	MMT	OMMT–Ch ^d
G0	100	0	300	–	–
G10	90	10	270	–	–
G25	75	25	225	–	–
G25M2.5	75	25	225	2.5	–
G25M5.0	75	25	225	5.0	–
G25O2.5p	75	25	225 (167.7)	–	2.5 (paste)
G25O5.0p	75	25	225 (110.4)	–	5.0 (paste)
G25O2.5d	75	25	225	–	2.5 (dried)
G25O5.0d	75	25	225	–	5.0 (dried)

149 ^a The numbers stand for the portions in weight; ^b Listed are the values of dry chitosan; ^c The
150 numbers in brackets indicate the actual additions after subtracting the water content in the
151 OMMT–Ch paste; ^d Listed are the values of the corresponding inorganic part (MMT) of
152 OMMT–Ch.

153 The mixtures with different formulations obtained above were then thermo-mechanically
154 kneaded in a Haake Rheocord 9000 internal batch mixer with twin roller rotors at 80 °C for
155 15 min, with a rotor speed of 100 rpm. Finally, the resulting materials were compression
156 moulded at 110 °C temperature and 160 bar pressure for 15 min (with a venting process after
157 8 min), immediately following by cooling at room temperature for 5 min. After compression
158 moulding, the chitosan sheets of 2 mm thickness were obtained.

159 The sheets were then conditioned in desiccators at 57% relative humidity (achieved with
160 saturated NaBr solution) and ambient temperature. Toluene was also placed in desiccators for
161 preventing the growth of microorganisms in the samples. The samples were thus conditioned
162 for one month before any characterisation work.

163

164 2.3. Characterisation

165 2.3.1. X-ray diffraction analysis

166 X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on the chitosan sheets after conditioning. XRD
167 patterns were obtained at room temperature on a powder diffractometer Siemens D5000
168 (Germany). Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) at 35 kV and 25 mA was used. Both small-angle
169 and wide-angle tests were carried out for each formulation. In small-angle tests, the scattering
170 range was $2\theta = 1.5\text{--}9^\circ$ by step size of 0.01 and a scanning speed of 4 sec/step. The clay inter-
171 layer spacing (also called *d*-spacing) values (d_{001}) were calculated from the nanoclay
172 diffraction peak using the Bragg's law:

$$173 \quad 2d_{001} \sin \theta = n\lambda \quad (1)$$

174 where, d_{001} is the spacing between the planes in the atomic lattice, θ is the angle between the
175 X-ray ray and the scattering planes, n is an integer, and λ is the wavelength of X-ray wave. In
176 wide-angle tests, a range of $2\theta = 8\text{--}30^\circ$ by step size of 0.02° per 3 sec was used.

177

178 2.3.2. *Transmission electron microscopy*

179 Samples for microscopy were embedded in epoxy resin which was cured for 2 days at
180 60°C . Sections $60\text{--}70\text{nm}$ thick were cut from the blocks on a Leica M80 Ultra Microtome
181 using a diamond knife. The sections were transferred onto 400 mesh copper grids which were
182 stained with a 0.1% aqueous solution of RuO_4 for 5 min. TEM images were obtained using a
183 JEOL 1010 transmission electron microscope at 100kV using spot size 6.

184

185 2.3.3. *Dynamic mechanical thermal analysis*

186 Dynamic mechanical thermal analysis (DMTA) was performed on rectangular tensile bars
187 of the conditioned plasticised chitosan samples by using a Rheometric Scientific™ DMTA
188 IV machine with dual cantilever bending mode from -100 to 110°C , with a heating rate of
189 $1.5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$, a frequency of 1 Hz, and a strain value of 0.05%. The dynamic storage modulus
190 (E'), loss modulus (E''), and loss tangent ($\tan \delta = E''/E'$) were obtained from the tests. To
191 prevent water evaporation during the tests, the specimens were coated with Vaseline grease.
192 No swelling of the specimens was observed, suggesting no adverse effect of Vaseline.

193

194 2.3.4. *Thermogravimetric analysis*

195 Thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) were performed on a SDT Q600 apparatus from TA
196 Instruments (USA). The analyses were carried out under either air or helium environment.
197 The samples (ca. 3 mg placed in a platinum pan) were heated from 20 to 700°C at $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$.

198 The degradation temperature was determined from the peak temperature of the derivative
199 weight loss curve.

200

201 2.3.5. *Tensile tests*

202 Tensile tests were performed with an MTS[®] 2/M universal testing machine on dumbbell-
203 shaped bars cut from the sheets with a constant deformation rate of 5 mm/min. The testing
204 section of the bar was 30 mm in length and 5 mm in width. The testing temperature was
205 maintained at 23 °C with an environment chamber used with the testing machine. Young's
206 modulus (E), tensile strength (σ), elongation at break (ϵ_b), and energy at break (U_b) were
207 determined from 7 specimens for each chitosan sample.

208

209 2.3.6. *Compost characterisation*

210 Approximately 2–3 month mature compost samples were collected from a commercial
211 composting facility (Natural Recovery Systems, Victoria, Australia) and sieved through a
212 sterile brass sieve (8-mm aperture size). To determine the dry weight of the compost, 25 g of
213 the fresh compost sample was weighed in an analytical balance and placed in a hot air oven at
214 105 °C for 3–5 days or until constant weight. The conversion factor of fresh to dry weight for
215 the compost was calculated, and the results were expressed per gram (dry weight) of the
216 compost. The pH of the compost was determined by mixing the compost in deionised water
217 (ratio 1:5). Volatile solids were calculated by subtracting the residue (left after incineration at
218 550 °C) from total dry solids of the same sample. Volatile solids were expressed as per gram
219 (dry weight) of the compost. Total organic carbon and total nitrogen were determined by
220 HRL Technology (Mulgrave, Victoria, Australia) using the methods APHA 5310B and
221 APHA 4500 TKN respectively. The compost characteristics were pH 7.5, dry weight 52%,
222 volatile solids 44% (dry weight), and C/N ratio 10 (on oven-dried basis).

223

224 2.3.7. Biodegradation tests

225 The biodegradability of the chitosan samples was determined according to the Australian
226 Standard AS ISO 14855. The test material was reduced in size to achieve maximum surface
227 area of each individual piece of the test material, approximately 2 cm × 2 cm. Each
228 composting vessel contained 100 g of the test material and 600 g of the compost inoculum,
229 both on dry weight basis. Each material was tested in triplicate including the blank (the
230 compost only) and positive (a mixture of cellulose and the compost) references. All
231 composting vessels were then placed inside an in-house built respirometer unit (Way, Wu,
232 Dean, & Palombo, 2010) and the temperature was maintained at 58±2 °C for a period of 160
233 days. During this degradation period, the compost moisture content was maintained at 48–
234 50% and the pH at 7.8–8.5 to ensure favourable conditions for the compost microorganisms
235 involved in the biodegradation process. Aerobic conditions were maintained by continuous
236 supply of sufficient airflow to the bioreactors and the contents of each of the bioreactors were
237 mixed once a week to ensure uniform distribution of air throughout the compost. The evolved
238 CO₂ and flow rate data were continually data-logged by computer for each respective
239 bioreactor. The theoretical amount of CO₂ produced by the test and reference materials was
240 assessed and the degree of biodegradation, D_t , was calculated (for the test and reference
241 materials) using following equation, as described in the Australian Standard AS ISO 14855:

$$242 \quad D_t = \frac{(CO_2)_T - (CO_2)_B}{THCO_2} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

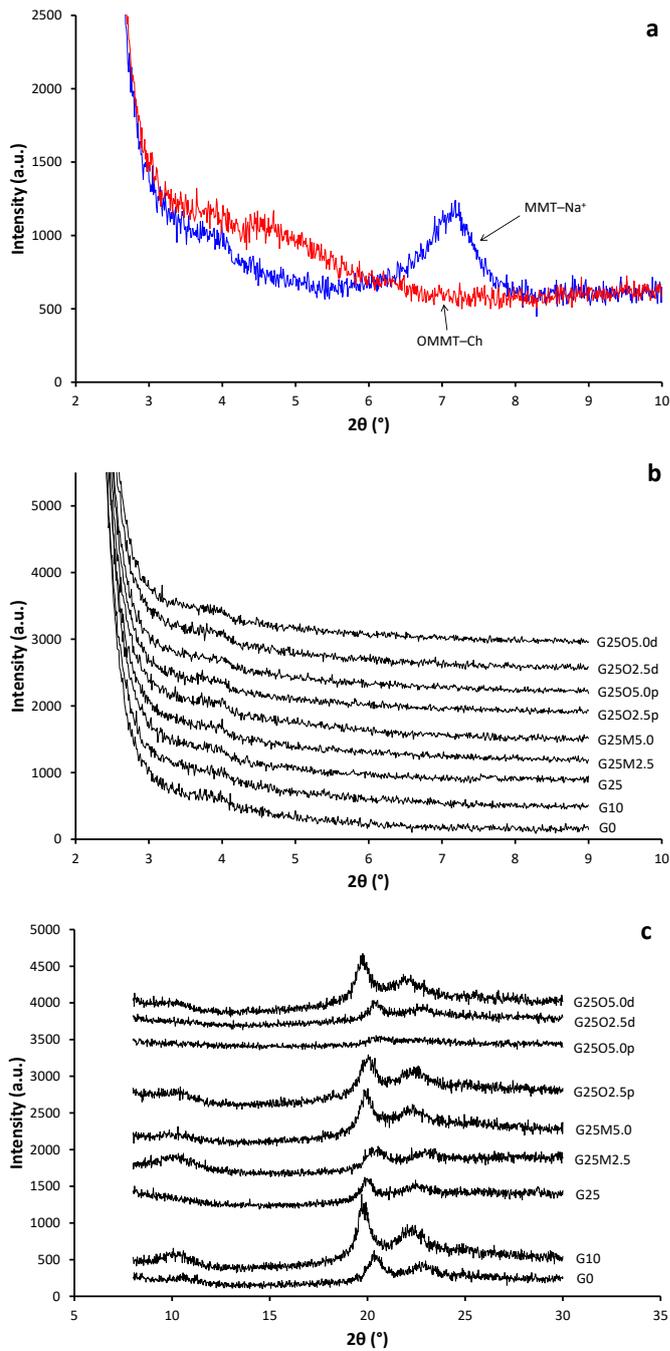
243 where (CO₂)_T is the cumulative amount of carbon dioxide evolved in each bioreactor
244 containing the test material (in grams per bioreactor), and (CO₂)_B is the mean cumulative
245 amount of carbon dioxide evolved in the blank vessel (in grams per bioreactor)

246

247 3. Results and discussion

248 3.1. Nanostructure and morphology

249 **Figure 1** shows the XRD patterns of MMT–Na⁺, OMMT–Ch, and the different chitosan
250 samples after conditioning. From **Figure 1a**, it can be seen that MMT had a sharp peak at 2θ
251 of 7.18°, which corresponds to the original d_{001} of 12.3 Å. After organomodification with
252 chitosan, this peak disappeared and only a slight shoulder appeared at 2θ of around 4.48°,
253 which corresponds to a d_{001} of 19.7 Å. According to [Darder et al. \(2003\)](#), this d_{001} value
254 demonstrates the uptake of at least one chitosan layer by the clay. This indicates that the
255 chitosan with relative smaller molecular mass (KiOnutrime-Cs) had been successfully
256 intercalated into the interlayer spaces of MMT–Na⁺. From **Figure 1b**, it is interesting to see
257 that there was no sharp peak for all the samples. Even G25M2.5 and G25M5.0 only showed a
258 very slight peak at 2θ of around 3.96°, corresponding to a d_{001} of 22.3 Å. It could be that the
259 intensive thermomechanical treatment during processing induced the intercalation of the
260 matrix chitosan (ChitoClear) into the interlayer spaces of MMT–Na⁺, thus well dispersing the
261 nanoclay. Overall, irrespective of the formulation and preparation method, the nanoclay was
262 well dispersed into the plasticised chitosan matrix, forming exfoliated nanocomposites.
263



264

265 Figure 1 XRD results of both MMT-Na⁺ and OMMT-Ch in small angle range (1.5–9°) (a),

266 the different chitosan samples in small angle range (1.5–9°) (b), and the different

267 chitosan samples in wide angle range (8–30°) (c).

268

269 In order to confirm to the dispersion of nanoclay in the samples and also to give definitive

270 conclusions about the defined structure, TEM was also carried out and the morphological

271 results are shown in [Figure 2](#). It can be seen from [Figure 2](#) that, while G25M5.0, G25O5.0p,
272 and G25O5.0d all showed good dispersion of the nanoclay, the morphological patterns of
273 these samples were completely different. As far as non-modified clay was concerned,
274 G25M5.0 showed an exfoliated morphology containing individually separated silicate layers,
275 which was similar to the results reported before ([Wang et al., 2005b](#)). However, some clay
276 stacks could also exist, which might correspond to the slight peak in XRD. When OMMT–Ch
277 was used as a paste, G25O5.0p displayed a well exfoliated structure but corrugations were
278 also shown along with the silicate layers. This corrugation pattern has also been observed
279 before by [Darder et al. \(2003\)](#) for the nanocomposites resulting from the intercalation of
280 chitosan into MMT through a cationic exchange process, and is indicative of the constrained
281 action of the chitosan organomodifier interacting with the nanoclay substrate. In contrast, if
282 OMMT–Ch was added after drying, a well exfoliated morphology was obtained which no
283 longer displayed corrugation but showing instead a more flocculated or cloud-like pattern.
284 This could be due to the edge-edge interaction of the OMMT–Ch silicate layers ([Sinha Ray,
285 Okamoto, & Okamoto, 2003](#)). After drying, the silicate layers might come closer with the
286 chitosan organomodifier, which, together with the water molecules removal, may lead to
287 enhanced interactions between silicate layer surfaces and the chitosan organomodifier,
288 resulting in some stacking of silicate layers as observed on the G25O5.0d TEM pictures. In
289 spite of the delamination by the thermo-mechanical process, the edge-edge interaction of the
290 silicate layers could remain forming the flocculated morphology.

291



292

293 Figure 2 TEM images of the different chitosan samples.

294

295 3.2. Crystalline structure

296

297

The crystalline structure of the different chitosan samples can be described from the wide-angle XRD results in [Figure 1c](#). Typically, there are three main peaks at around 10° , 20°

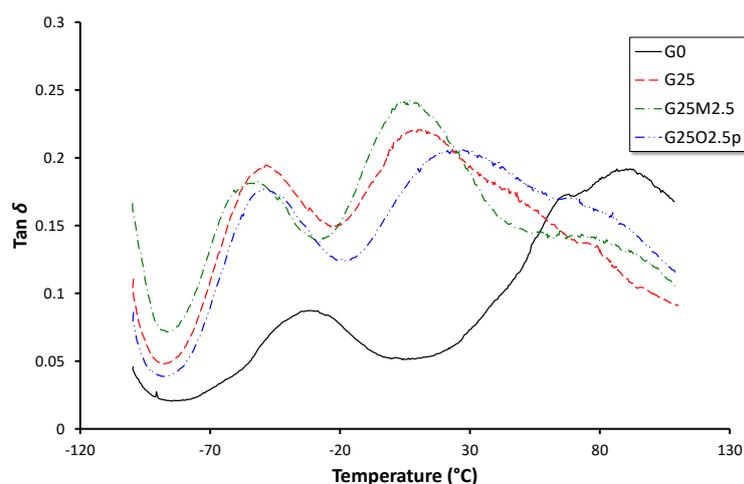
298 and 22°. The peak at 10° (020 reflection) is assigned to the hydrated crystals due to the
299 integration of water molecules in the crystal lattice and the peaks located at 20° (100
300 reflection) and 22° (110 reflection) are attributed to the regular crystal lattice of chitosan
301 (Kittur, Vishu Kumar, & Tharanathan, 2003). The intensities of these peaks are much inferior
302 to those of raw chitosan which displays a very high crystallinity (ca. > 80%) (Epure et al.,
303 2011). This is not unexpected since processing could destroy the crystalline structure of
304 chitosan, which has also been observed in other studies (Epure et al., 2011; Kittur et al.,
305 2003). Besides, it can be observed that there are some differences in these peaks among the
306 different samples. Particularly, G10 displayed a relatively higher crystallinity. This sample
307 might have a right amount of glycerol, facilitating recrystallisation. However, when the
308 glycerol content was even higher (25%), a large amount of glycerol exists between the
309 chitosan molecules, making the recrystallisation less easy, as evidenced by the XRD result of
310 G25. With the addition of nanoclay (either MMT-Na⁺ or OMMT-Ch), the intensities of the
311 peaks at 20° and 22° generally became larger (except for G25O2.5p), indicating that the
312 existence of nanoclay facilitated the chitosan recrystallisation. The XRD pattern of G25O5.0p
313 was largely compressed, indicating a more amorphous structure. This can be possibly
314 explained by the less chance for the chitosan to interact with the nanoclay which was initially
315 bound with water and thus recrystallisation being less significant.

316

317 3.3. DMTA results

318 Considering the semi-crystalline structure of the chitosan samples after processing and
319 conditioning, DMTA was also carried out to investigate the relaxation temperatures. Figure 3
320 shows the typical results from the DMTA study. It can be seen that two peaks are easily
321 identified for the samples. Previous studies have generally shown that the peak at higher
322 temperature is related to α relaxation, which could be linked to the glass transition of the

323 chitosan, and the one at lower temperature corresponds to the secondary relaxation (β
 324 relaxation) of the plasticiser-rich domains (Quijada-Garrido, Laterza, Mazón-Arechederra, &
 325 Barrales-Rienda, 2006; Quijada-Garrido, Iglesias-González, Mazón-Arechederra, & Barrales-
 326 Rienda, 2007). However, the current work shows that the two peaks appear even without
 327 glycerol. Thus, the peak at lower temperature could be more appropriately attributed to the
 328 motions of the side chains or lateral groups of chitosan interacting with small molecules of
 329 water and/or glycerol by hydrogen bonding. In addition, for some of the samples especially
 330 G0, there is another peak/shoulder at even higher temperature (ca. 80 °C). This peak has also
 331 been observed by Quijada-Garrido et al. (2006) and has been attributed to the transformation
 332 of chitosonium acetate units formed during the sample preparation.
 333



334
 335 Figure 3 DMTA results of the different chitosan samples.

336
 337 The maxima (T_{β} and T_{α}) that correspond to the β - and α -processes (respectively) obtained
 338 from DMTA curves of all the samples are given in Table 3. The results show that an increase
 339 in glycerol content from nil to 25% decreased both the T_{α} and T_{β} , indicating an increase in
 340 molecular mobility of the chitosan samples. Surprisingly, the addition of 2.5% of MMT- Na^{+}
 341 (G25M2.5) further decreased these two temperatures. One possible reason could be that the

342 distribution of MMT–Na⁺ allows more homogeneous distribution of water and glycerol
 343 across the system, resulting in better plasticisation effect. Interestingly, higher amounts (5%)
 344 of MMT (G25M5.0) showed slightly higher values of both T_α and T_β compared with those of
 345 G25M2.5, indicating an extra restriction effect on the movement of the chitosan molecules.
 346 When OMMT–Ch, which may have better affinity with the chitosan matrix due to its
 347 organomodification than MMT–Na⁺, was used, G25O2.5p, G25O5.0p, G25O2.5d, and
 348 G25O5.0d showed increased T_α and T_β values, with the increase in T_α more significant.
 349 Furthermore, it is noticed that the T_α values of G25O5.0d was higher than that of G25O5.0p,
 350 indicating that the addition of the nanoclay in dry form allowed a greater chance to interact
 351 with the chitosan and thus a greater restriction effect. However, this was not case when the
 352 loading level was lower (the T_α values of G25O2.5d was lower than that of G25O2.5p),
 353 because the restriction effect might not be strong enough at this content level while water still
 354 mostly interacted with the chitosan.

355

356 Table 3 Relaxation temperatures (T_α and T_β , obtained from $\tan \delta$ curves), thermal
 357 decomposition temperatures ($T_{d, \text{air}}$ and $T_{d, \text{He}}$, obtained from derivative weight loss
 358 curves), and degree of biodegradation (DB) after 160 days (with cellulose for
 359 comparison purposes), of plasticised chitosan-based materials/nanocomposites after
 360 conditioning.

Sample	T_β (°C)	T_α (°C)	$T_{d, \text{air}}$ (°C)	$T_{d, \text{He}}$ (°C)	DB (%) ^a
G0	–31	67.8	302.5	307.7	64
G10	–44.4	41.4	305.0	312.8	95
G25	–48.5	10.5	302.9	308.3	98
G25M2.5	–54.1	4.5	300.3	300.8	101
G25M5.0	–52.4	6.7	296.7	307.2	105

G25O2.5p	-49.5	23.3	300.1	307.3	100
G25O5.0p	-52.3	23.6	297.1	304.0	95
G25O2.5d	-50.0	19.5	302.4	305.7	-
G25O5.0d	-50.7	24.6	302.2	305.8	-
Cellulose	-	-	-	-	90

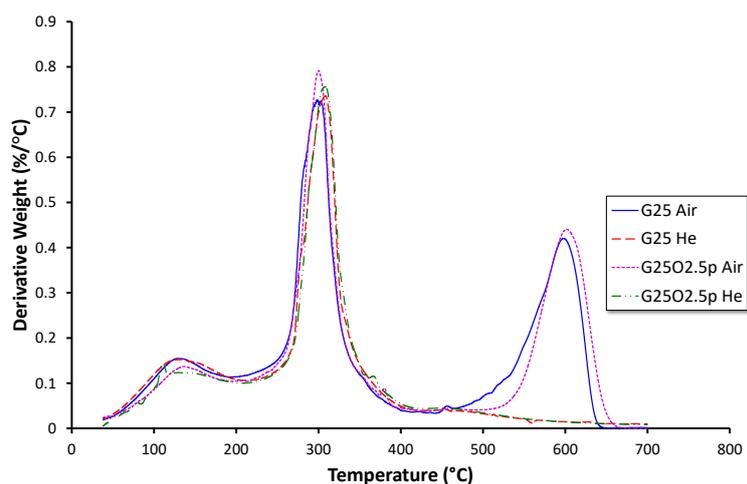
361 ^a Co-variance of biodegradation values at the end of testing was up to $\pm 7\%$.

362

363 3.4. Thermal stability

364 In order to investigate the thermal stability of the different samples, TGA experiments
365 were carried under either air or helium environment, and the results of derivative weight loss
366 are shown in [Figure 4](#). From this figure, three thermal decomposition peaks can be easily
367 identified when air was used as the environmental gas; however, only the first two peaks are
368 observed if helium gas was used. According to the previous study ([Wang et al., 2005b](#)), the
369 first peak before 200 °C was mainly due to the evaporation of water; the peak ranged from
370 200 °C to 450 °C could be ascribed to both the evaporation of glycerol and the thermal
371 decomposition and deacetylation of chitosan; and the third peak ranged from 450 °C to 700 °
372 at even higher temperature (only under air environment) might be assigned to the oxidative
373 degradation of the carbonaceous residue formed during the second step.

374



375

376 Figure 4 TGA results of the different chitosan samples.

377

378 The thermal decomposition temperatures (the second step) (at maximum decomposition

379 rate) of chitosan under air ($T_{d, \text{air}}$) or helium ($T_{d, \text{He}}$) environment for all the samples are listed

380 in Table 3. It can be seen that the $T_{d, \text{He}}$ is generally higher than the $T_{d, \text{air}}$ for each sample.

381 This is reasonable considering that the oxygen in the air could accelerate the thermal

382 decomposition of chitosan. It can also be observed that the addition of the nanoclay did not

383 show a positive impact on the thermal stability of the materials, irrespective of the

384 preparation method, the type of nanoclay, and the addition content. The hydrophilic groups of

385 MMT could even deteriorate the thermal stability of the plasticised chitosan-based materials

386 especially under air environment, as evidenced by the $T_{d, \text{air}}$ values of G25M5.0 and

387 G25O5.0p. Of course, the thermal decomposition results could also be related to the

388 crystallinity of the materials. As shown in Table 3, the higher $T_{d, \text{air}}$ and $T_{d, \text{He}}$ of G10 could be

389 ascribed to its higher crystallinity as observed from the XRD results.

390

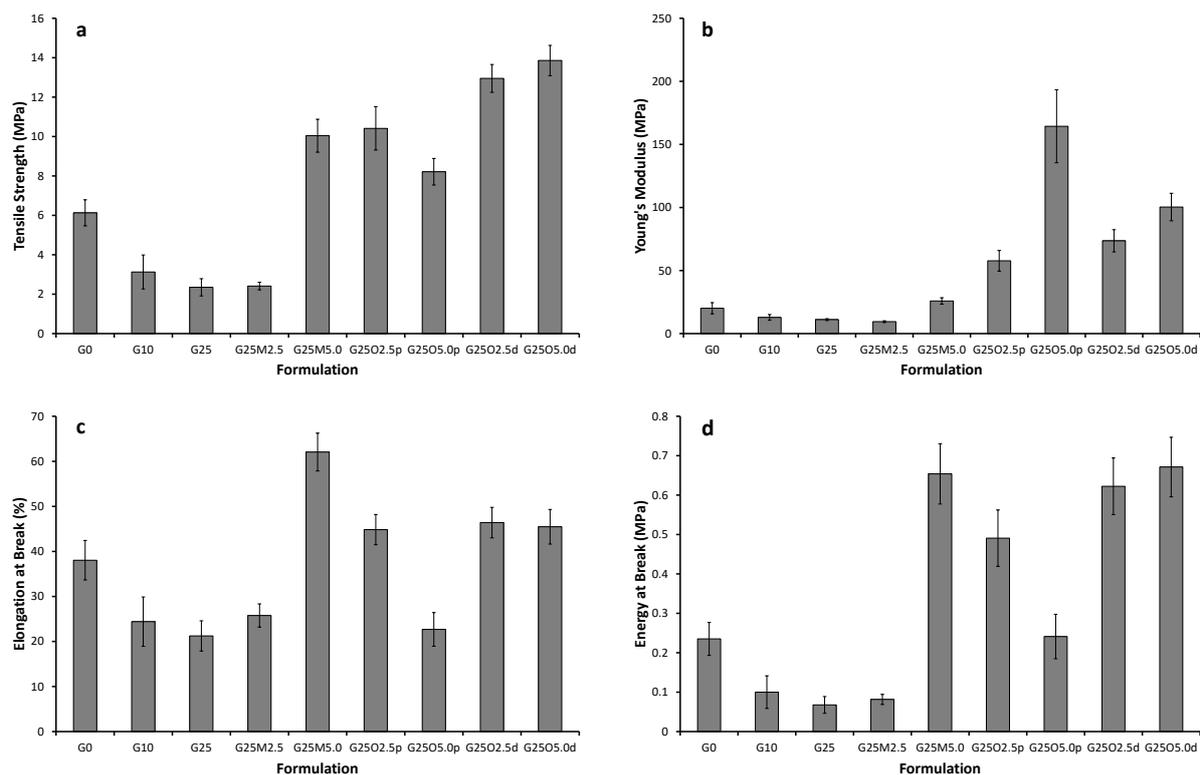
391 3.5. Mechanical properties

392 From Figure 5a and b, the formulation and preparation method influenced the E and σ in a

393 similar way, with the only exception of G25O5.0p. The mechanical properties of the unfilled

394 samples (G0, G10, and G25) were quite low. With higher glycerol content, the E and σ were
395 reduced to lower values, which is as expected and is similar to the results in our previous
396 study (Epure et al., 2011). Although the addition of 2.5% of MMT–Na⁺ (G25M2.5) showed
397 little improvement (which can be attributed to the low crystallinity and the facilitation of
398 plasticisation as discussed before), higher amounts of MMT–Na⁺ or the addition of OMMT–
399 Ch generate increased E and σ . Comparing with the neat matrix (G25) which had a E of
400 11.1 MPa and a σ of 2.4 MPa, the values of G25O5.0d were significantly increased to
401 100.4 MPa and 13.9 MPa, respectively. This can be attributed to the homogeneous dispersion
402 of the nanoclay as well as the favourable interaction between the organomodified nanoclay and
403 the chitosan matrix. Besides, addition of dried OMMT–Ch powder at 2.5% loading level
404 could generate higher values of both E and σ than addition of the OMMT–Ch paste at the
405 same loading level. Again, this could be due to a greater chance for the nanoclay to interact
406 with the chitosan when it was not initially bound with water. However, it is interesting to
407 observe that G25O5.0p showed the highest E among all the samples, but a lower σ comparing
408 to other OMMT–Ch filled samples. The low σ could be ascribed to the low crystallinity,
409 although the reinforcing effect of the nanoclay still contributed to the dramatically increased
410 stiffness.

411



412

413 Figure 5 Young's modulus (a), tensile strength (b), elongation at break (c), and energy at
 414 break (d) values of the different chitosan samples. The error bars stand for the
 415 standard deviations.

416

417 It can be seen from Figure 5c and d that the formulation and preparation method affected
 418 the ϵ_b and the U_b in a similar way as well. As that of E and σ , the pattern of change in ϵ_b and
 419 U_b among G0, G10, and G25 can be related to the plasticisation by glycerol. When the
 420 nanofiller was incorporated, it is quite interesting to note that the ϵ_b and U_b were not reduced
 421 (even though the reverse trend normally is observed for a wide range of polymer
 422 nanocomposites). This is especially the case when higher content (5%) of MMT- Na^+ was
 423 used and/or addition of dried nanofiller was used. G25M5.0 displayed the highest ϵ_b (62.1%),
 424 which was twice higher than that (21.2%) of its neat matrix (G25). Besides, addition of 5% of
 425 MMT- Na^+ /OMMT-Ch drastically increased the U_b from 0.068 MPa of G25 to 0.654 of
 426 G25M5.0 and to 0.671 MPa of G25O5.0d. Again, this can be attributed to the better

427 reinforcing effect at higher nanoclay addition level and the better interaction between the
428 nanoclay and chitosan when the nanoclay was added in dry form. When the paste of OMMT–
429 Ch was added, the reinforcing effect of the nanofiller became less significant due to a less
430 chance for the nanoclay to interact with the chitosan which was bound with water.
431 Consequently, G25O2.5p and G25O5.0p (especially the latter) showed reduced ε_b and U_b
432 values than G25O2.5d and G25O5.0d.

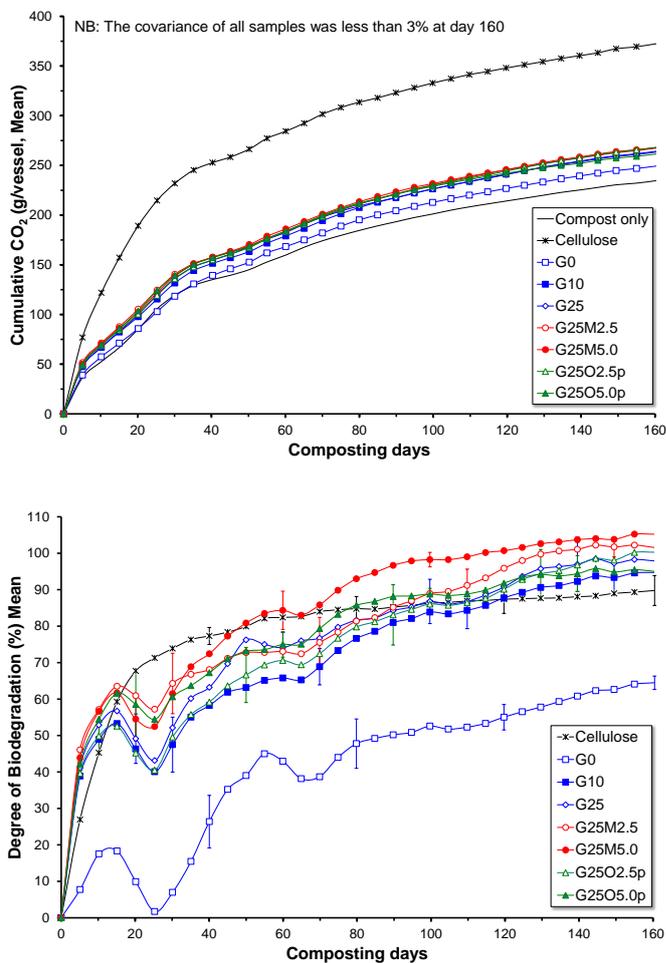
433

434 3.6. Biodegradation

435 The cumulative CO₂ and percentage biodegradation profiles for each test sample are
436 shown in [Figure 6a and b](#) respectively. Steady rates of carbon dioxide evolution from each
437 composting vessel indicate that test materials were actively metabolised by microbial
438 population present in the compost ([Figure 6a](#)). Similar results were observed by [Xu,](#)
439 [McCarthy, Gross, & Kaplan \(1996\)](#) during their biodegradation studies on acetylated chitosan
440 films. It was observed that the biodegradation of the plasticised chitosan samples, with or
441 without the addition of nanoclay (i.e. G10, G25, G25M2.5, G25M5.0, G25O2.5p, and
442 G25O5.0p) was initiated immediately after incubation in compost, without any lag phase,
443 whereas the unmodified chitosan (G0) degraded relatively much slower ([Figure 6b](#)). All
444 plasticised samples achieved more than 50% biodegradation within the first two weeks of
445 composting. In comparison, G0 had an initial lag phase (~3 days) and it reached
446 approximately 18% biodegradation at the end of second week. The increased susceptibility of
447 the plasticised chitosan to biodegradation was probably due to the presence of glycerol.
448 During week 3, a significant drop in degree of biodegradation was observed for all the
449 chitosan samples (but not in the positive reference, cellulose). Previous studies have reported
450 that alkyl amides and their corresponding *N*-derivatives alkyl amines have antimicrobial
451 properties ([Kabara, Conley, & Truant, 1972](#)). Chitosan, a deacetylated form of chitin, is a

452 polymer with repeating units of disaccharides having amino groups (1,4)-2-amino-2-deoxy,
453 β -D-glucan, and it is reported to have antibacterial effect (Guo et al., 2006; Kean, & Thanou,
454 2010). The degradation mechanism of chitosan in compost is not clearly understood.
455 Therefore, we hypothesise that, in the composting vessels containing the chitosan samples,
456 microbial activity was significantly influenced in the presence of certain inhibitory
457 substances produced as a by-product during the chitosan biodegradation (Badawy, & Rabea,
458 2011; Tikhonov et al., 2006). As a result, the amount of CO₂ produced in the bioreactors
459 containing the chitosan samples was dramatically reduced as compared to the blank compost,
460 resulting in the significantly reduced biodegradation values. As time progressed (i.e. during
461 week 4), the inhibitory substances were presumably further degraded into products which
462 were less effective in inhibiting microbial activity, or easily susceptible to microbial
463 degradation. As a result, a steady rate of biodegradation was observed for all test samples
464 until week 8. After 2 months of composting, G0 achieved 45% biodegradation whereas the
465 plasticised chitosan samples biodegraded by 60–80%. During week 9, a slight decrease in the
466 level of biodegradation was observed for all the chitosan samples but not as significant as
467 observed during week 3. It is likely that this slight decrease was caused by a similar
468 mechanism (as seen in week 3), but less severe due to a further decrease in the chain-length
469 in the degradation by-products. A steady progress of biodegradation was observed thereafter.
470 The overall degree of biodegradation of the samples G25M2.5, G25M5.0, G25O2.5p, and
471 G25O5.0p did not seem to be dramatically affected by addition of nanoclay (Table 3) as
472 shown in Figure 6b. Exfoliated clay creates torturous path for oxygen permeation and water
473 absorption thus should influence the rate of biodegradation. In the present study, the samples
474 containing the modified nanoclay (G25O2.5p and G25O5.0p) demonstrated no such effect on
475 biodegradation due to the sample thickness and high surface area for microbial attack. The
476 unmodified nanoclay samples (G25M2.5 and G25M5.0) showed a slight increase in their

477 relative degree of biodegradation (relative to G25) due to the inherent defects in the samples
 478 by MMT–Na⁺. Interestingly, despite the antimicrobial nature of chitosan, 100%
 479 biodegradation was achieved for G25M2.5, G25M5.0, and G25O2.5p after 160 days of
 480 composting. More than 100% biodegradation observed for samples G25M 2.5 and G25M5.0
 481 was probably due to an increased rate of respiration of microorganisms metabolising the
 482 available test material i.e. carbon-source (Funabashi, Ninomiya, & Kunioka, 2009).
 483 Nevertheless, the detailed biodegradation mechanism of chitosan and plasticised chitosan-
 484 based nanocomposites needs further investigation.
 485



486
 487 Figure 6 The cumulative CO₂ data (a) and the degrees of biodegradation (b) as a function of
 488 composting time for cellulose and the different chitosan samples.

489 4. Conclusion

490 In this study, a novel processing method has been developed in the preparation of
491 chitosan-based nano-biocomposites. Comparing to a typical solution casting method which
492 has been used in many other studies of chitosan-based materials, this process demonstrates
493 the high efficiency and great ability in well dispersing the nanoclay into the chitosan matrix.
494 The XRD and TEM results showed that MMT could be largely exfoliated in the chitosan
495 matrix during thermal kneading, no matter organomodification of MMT with chitosan was
496 carried out.

497 Nevertheless, the formulation and preparation method could have an impact on the
498 characteristics of the samples, such as crystallinity and glass transition temperature.
499 Particularly, the addition of 2.5% MMT–Na⁺ might result in greater distribution of glycerol
500 and water and thus better plasticisation. In contrast, when higher content (5%) of MMT–Na⁺
501 was added or either content (2.5% and 5%) of OMMT–Ch was used, increases in crystallinity
502 and glass transition temperature were observed. When OMMT–Ch was added in paste form,
503 which means the nanoclay was initially bound with water, the interaction between the
504 nanoclay and chitosan could be weaker and thus a less reinforcing effect of the nanoclay was
505 shown. In contrast, addition of dry OMMT–Ch resulted in a better interaction of the
506 nanofiller with the chitosan matrix. The plasticised chitosan-based nanocomposites showed
507 obviously improved E , σ , ε_b , and U_b . The best mechanical properties obtained were E of
508 164.3 MPa, σ of 13.9 MPa, ε_b of 62.1%, and U_b of 0.671 MPa. This can be ascribed to the
509 excellent dispersion of nanoclay and strong affinity between the nanoclay and the chitosan
510 matrix. Nevertheless, the highest performance in different mechanical properties could be
511 different regarding the formulation and preparation method. While the degree of
512 biodegradation was obviously increased by the addition of glycerol, a marginal increase was
513 observed by the further addition of the unmodified nanoclay. This led to complete

514 biodegradation after 160 days despite the well-known antimicrobial property of chitosan.
515 Consequently, this study demonstrates the great potential of plasticised chitosan-based nano-
516 biocomposites in applications such as biodegradable packaging.

517

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