

1 **Improving the Recyclability of Polymer Composites with Cellulose Nanofibrils**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Cellulose nanofibers (CNFs) have been widely studied for their reinforcing potential in high-
21 performance composites. While there are numerous publications on CNF-reinforced composites
22 in a variety of polymer matrices, few have considered the recyclability of such thermoplastic
23 composites and whether the incorporation of CNFs deteriorates or improves their performance

24 upon reprocessing. In this study, two thermoplastic resins, poly(lactic acid) (PLA), and glycol-
25 modified polyethylene terephthalate (PETg), were prepared with CNF reinforcement and
26 thermomechanically recycled to investigate the effect of CNF inclusion on the composite
27 properties after reprocessing as well as their effect on the composites' number of useful life cycles.
28 Changes in mechanical, thermal, rheological, molecular, and microstructural properties of the
29 composites and/or base resins were monitored as a function of cycle numbers. As is typical, the
30 polymers' molecular weight and mechanical performance deteriorated with continued processing.
31 However, the addition of spray dried CNF was found to better maintain the mechanical
32 performance of both polymers throughout multiple recycling steps as compared to neat samples.
33 For example, the tensile strength of PETg with 20 wt.% CNF after 6 processing cycles was found
34 to exceed that of virgin neat PETg, and higher loadings of CNF were found to preserve a higher
35 yield strength during multiple rounds of reprocessing compared to PETg composites with lower
36 CNF loadings. Ultimately this study indicates that the addition of CNF to some thermoplastic
37 materials can increase both their sustainability by offsetting the use of high-embodied energy
38 resins and their circularity by enabling performance retention over more use cycles.

39

40 **Keywords:** nanocellulose, cellulose nanofibrils (CNFs), nanocomposite, biocomposite,
41 poly(lactic acid) (PLA), polyethylene terephthalate-glycol (PETg)

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 The growing global dependence on plastics for applications from single use packaging to high-
45 performance composites has led in recent years to a sharp increase in public awareness on the
46 detrimental effects of plastic pollution on global climates and ecosystems. Without the

47 development of more sustainable materials and recycling practices, the amount of plastic waste
48 entering the world's waterways is predicted to reach 90 million tons per year by 2030.[1] The
49 United States alone generated an estimated 35.7 million tons of plastic waste in 2018, only 8.5%
50 of which was recycled.[2] Increasing pressure from the public as well as government entities has
51 influenced many industries to reduce their dependence on virgin plastic and their output of plastic
52 waste. For this reason, natural fiber-filled thermoplastic composites have gained increasing interest
53 as potential alternatives to common petroleum-based plastics in both commodity and high-
54 performance applications.

55 Lignocellulosic fibers from a wide variety of sources such as wood, flax, bagasse, hemp, and
56 bamboo, to name a few, have been long studied as reinforcing agents in various polymer
57 matrices.[3-9] These fibers are typically high aspect ratio, being tens of microns to millimeters in
58 length with diameters in the micron range.[10] Cellulose nanofibrils (CNFs) can be extracted from
59 lignocellulosic biomass and have attracted much attention in recent years as reinforcing agents for
60 a new class of high performance, sustainable composite materials. CNFs are most often obtained
61 from wood or other natural fiber sources using existing pulp making equipment and processes, but
62 they can also be derived from such exotic sources as fruit and vegetable skins, shells, and hulls,
63 plant stalks and stems, and even waste cardboard and natural textiles.[11-20] The high aspect ratios
64 ($>1 \mu\text{m}$ in length and $<100 \text{ nm}$ in diameter [21]) and accordingly high surface areas along with
65 excellent mechanical properties (modulus typically 20-80 GPa and stiffness around 150 GPa [22,
66 23]) and widespread abundance of CNF sources have made them very appealing for use in
67 composites.[2]

68 One popular resin reported in literature regarding natural fiber-reinforced composites is polylactic
69 acid (PLA). PLA is a biopolymer typically synthesized from corn or sugarcane products. It has

70 gained popularity attributable to both its inherent sustainability and its superior mechanical
71 performance and processability.[7, 24] Numerous studies have been reported on the development
72 and optimization of fully bio-based composites using PLA and CNFs [25-29], but few have
73 considered the end-of-life and recyclability of these new materials. A second widely available resin
74 whose recyclability has been well-documented is glycol-modified polyethylene terephthalate
75 (PETg). PETg is a petroleum-derived copolyester of polyethylene terephthalate (PET) that is
76 synthesized by replacing some ethylene glycol with 1,4-cyclohexane dimethanol (CHDM).[30]
77 PETg has been shown to be easily recyclable and can retain its desirable properties over multiple
78 cycles of thermomechanical processing.[31-33] Additionally, there have been numerous reports of
79 recycling PETg-based composites, but these typically employ synthetic fibers such as carbon fiber.
80 [33, 34] Finally, there are no reports to the authors' knowledge that address CNF-reinforced PETg
81 composites and their recyclability.

82 Recycling of any fiber-reinforced composite is a complicated process, as the fibers and the polymer
83 matrix can degrade after multiple thermomechanical cycles, while other factors such as fiber
84 dispersion, the fiber-polymer interface, and polymer crystallinity may improve.[35-38] The effects
85 of mechanical recycling on the performance of CNF-reinforced composites warrants further
86 investigation before these materials can be widely promoted as sustainable, eco-friendly
87 composites. In this study, the effects of multiple grinding and injection molding (IM) processes on
88 the mechanical, thermal, rheological, and morphological properties of CNF-reinforced
89 thermoplastic composites using PLA and PETg were evaluated. The performance of both neat and
90 CNF-reinforced PLA and PETg after repeated reprocessing steps is herein compared to assess the
91 recyclability and overall sustainability of both composite materials.

92

93 **2. Materials and Methods**

94 **2.1. Materials**

95 Poly(L-lactide) (Ingeo 4043D), referred to as PLA in this work, was purchased from NatureWorks,
96 LLC (Minnetonka, Minnesota), and PETg (HiFill PETg 1704 3DP) was purchased from Techmer
97 PM, LLC (Clinton, TN). CNF slurry was provided by the University of Maine's Process
98 Development Center. The CNFs were refined to 90% fines (amount of material in the sample with
99 dimensions <200 μm) from northern bleached softwood Kraft pulp on a single disk refiner and
100 spray dried on the pilot scale (GEA-Niro, Germany) using methods previously reported.[39]

101

102 **2.2. Composite preparation**

103 **2.2.1. Compounding and grinding**

104 Before compounding, spray dried CNFs were oven dried at 105 °C, and PETg/PLA pellets were
105 oven dried at 60 °C for a minimum of 4 hours. A masterbatch containing 20 wt.% CNFs was
106 prepared by feeding a mixture of spray dried fibrils and PETg or PLA granulate into a twin screw
107 co-rotating extruder (herein referred to as PETg20CNF and PLA20CNF, respectively; C. W.
108 Brabender Instruments, South Hackensack, NJ) attached to a drive system (Intelli-Torque Plastic-
109 Corder). The extruder was operated at 180 °C for all heat zones and a 30-rpm screw speed for
110 PLA/CNF mixtures, while PETG/CNF mixtures were processed at 230 °C with a 30-rpm screw
111 speed. The extrudate was granulated by a grinder. Some of the granulate was then mixed with neat
112 PETg or PLA pellets to dilute the mixtures and produce new materials containing 5 wt.% CNFs
113 (PETg5CNF and PLA5CNF, respectively). The 5 wt.% CNF composites were subjected to
114 extrusion and grinding at the same conditions as their 20 wt.% CNF composite counterparts.

115

116 **2.2.2. Injection molding and recycling**

117 Prior to IM, granulate from the four composite formulations as well as neat PLA and PETg was
118 oven dried at 60 °C for 4 hours. Each formulation was formed into flexural and tensile bars
119 (flexural bars machined to impact bars according to ASTM D256-10, tensile bars according to
120 ASTM D638, Type I) using a Mini-Jector Model #50 injection molder (Miniature Plastic Molding,
121 Farmington Hills, MI) with a ram pressure of 17 MPa at 190 °C for PLA and PLA/CNF and 230
122 °C for PETg and PETg/CNF. The mold was kept at 30 °C, and samples were held 10 seconds
123 before demolding (cycle #1). After the first IM cycle, samples were allowed to cool for two days
124 while the remaining material from each formulation was ground, oven dried, and injection molded
125 using identical conditions described previously. This process was repeated for each formulation
126 up to 6 times (7 cycles total). However, on the 7th IM cycle using PLA20CNF, the material was
127 observed to be flowing continuously out of the injection nozzle before the cycle started, indicating
128 that the material viscosity was too low to be processed effectively at the given conditions. The
129 temperature of the IM unit was thus lowered to 175 °C for the 7th cycle performed with
130 PLA20CNF. Both PLA and PETg were subjected to 3 cycles for neat resins and composites with
131 5 wt.% CNF. Since the effect of recycling on fiber-reinforced composites is typically more
132 pronounced with increased fiber loading, composites with 20 wt.% CNF were subjected to addition
133 cycles (7 cycles total) to elicit the most distinct effects. In each characterization step, all samples
134 (neat and composite) from all 3 cycles were tested, and additional samples from 7th processing
135 cycle were tested for composites with 20 wt.% CNF.

136 137 **2.3. Characterization**

138 **2.3.1. Mechanical Properties**

139 **2.3.1.1. Tensile**

140 Tensile tests were performed using an electromechanical testing machine according to the
141 procedures outline in ASTM D 638-14. Before the test, the samples were kept in a temperature
142 ($23\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) and humidity ($50\pm 10\%$ RH) controlled room for 1-2 days. The original dimensions of
143 the tensile bars were recorded before the start of each test and an extensometer was connected after
144 the sample was clamped to measure the dimensional changes as the test was performed. Tests
145 using neat and composite PLA samples were performed until the sample broke, while tests using
146 neat and composite PETg samples were performed until the stress-strain curves plateaued and
147 significant yielding was observed. At least 8 samples were tested for each formulation and
148 processing cycle, and average values of tensile strength and modulus and their standard deviation
149 were reported for each property.

150

151 **2.3.1.2. Impact**

152 Impact tests were performed using a Ceast pendulum impact tester (Model Resil 50B). The molded
153 flexural bars were cut into impact bars and notched according to ASTM D256-10 (Izod Pendulum
154 impact). The original dimensions of each sample were recorded, and the impact bars were kept in
155 a temperature-controlled room for 1-2 days before testing was performed. Samples from the first
156 3 cycles of each specimen type along with samples from the 7th cycle of the composites with 20
157 wt.% CNF were subjected to impact testing. At least 7 samples from each formulation were tested
158 to calculate their average and standard deviation.

159

160 **2.3.2. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)**

161 The fracture surfaces of composites samples with 20 wt.% CNF from the first and 7th processing
162 cycles after tensile testing were sputtered with iridium and imaged with a Zeiss Merlin field
163 emission SEM in secondary electron mode at an accelerating voltage of 1kV.

164

165 **2.3.3. Molecular weight measurements (GPC and NMR)**

166 Gel permeation chromatography (GPC) was carried out to determine the molecular weights of
167 PLA in samples. Samples were cut into small pieces and placed into scintillation vials with
168 tetrahydrofuran (THF) overnight with magnetic stirring and then passed through a 0.22 μm PTFE
169 filter. GPC was carried out on an Agilent Technologies 1260 Infinity Series GPC/SEC system
170 with three Phenogel columns in series with 50, 103, and 106 \AA pore sizes and a refractive index
171 detector at 35 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. THF was used as the mobile phase with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. The system
172 was calibrated with linear polystyrene standards, and the baseline correction and peak integration
173 were performed using the Agilent GPC/SEC Polymer Analysis software.

174 PETg samples were analyzed by a trichloroacetyl isocyanate (TAI) derivatization nuclear magnetic
175 resonance (NMR) technique.[40] Samples were dissolved in deuterated chloroform (CDCl_3)
176 overnight, and then 5 μL of TAI was added to 600 μL of NMR solvent. ^1H NMR was carried out
177 using 90 $^{\circ}$ pulse in Bruker Avance 500 MHz NMR with a broadband cryoprobe for 1024 scans.
178 Number-average molecular weights were calculated based on the ratio of the concentration of
179 aromatic protons and OH and COOH end groups.

180 For both polymer matrices, the molecular weight of composite samples with 20 wt.% CNF from
181 cycles 1-3 and cycle 7 was measured. The molecular weight of the neat polymer after the initial
182 processing cycle (cycle 1) was also measured for reference.

183

184 **2.3.4. Rheology**

185 Rheological analyses were conducted using a Discovery HR-3 (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE)
186 with 25 mm parallel plates at a gap of 1 mm. A temperature of 180 °C was used with neat and
187 composite PLA samples while a temperature of 220 °C was used with neat and composite PETg
188 samples. Oscillatory strain amplitude sweeps were first performed on each type of sample to
189 identify a strain value within its linear viscoelastic region. Frequency sweeps were then performed
190 on each type of sample using the corresponding temperature and strain values. The storage and
191 loss moduli and complex viscosity of each sample were recorded at a frequency range of 1 to 100
192 rad/s. Steady shear tests were also performed on each sample. The viscosity was recorded for each
193 material at a shear rate of 0.1 to 1000 s⁻¹ at 180 °C for PLA samples and 220 °C for PETg samples.
194 Samples from the first 3 cycles of each specimen type along with samples from the 7th cycle of the
195 composites with 20 wt.% CNF were subjected to rheological testing. Each test was performed
196 twice to ensure repeatability.

197

198 **2.3.5. Thermal**

199 **2.3.5.1. Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)**

200 DSC tests were performed on a DSC 2500 (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE) using a heat-cool-
201 heat-cool method. The test samples were cut from tensile or flexural bars, each weighing 6-9 mg.
202 The neat and composite PLA and PETg samples were equilibrated at 40 °C, heated to 180 °C at a
203 rate of 10 °C/min., held isothermally for 1 minute, cooled to 40 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min, held
204 isothermally for 1 minute, and finally heated back to 180 °C at 10 °C/min. The same procedure
205 was followed for neat and PETg samples with an upper temperature of 220 °C.

206 The glass transition temperature (T_g), melting temperature (T_m) enthalpy of cold crystallization
207 (ΔH_{cc}), (cold) crystallization temperature (T_c), and enthalpy of melting (ΔH_m) were obtained from
208 the second heating curve of each sample. The crystallization temperature (T_c) and enthalpy of
209 crystallization (ΔH_c) were obtained from the first cooling curve of PETg samples. In samples
210 exhibiting crystallization, the degree of crystallization was calculated using the first and second
211 heating curves and equation:

$$212 \quad X_c = \frac{\Delta H_m - \Delta H_{cc}}{w * \Delta H_0} \quad (1)$$

213 in which ΔH_m is the melting enthalpy and ΔH_{cc} is the cold crystallization enthalpy, while ΔH_0 is
214 the melting enthalpy for 100% crystalline PLA or PETg. The value of ΔH_0 used in these
215 calculations for PLA samples 93 J/g, while 88 J/g was used for PETg samples.[30, 41] Finally, w
216 is the weight fraction of PLA or PETg in the sample. Samples from the first 3 cycles of each
217 specimen type along with samples from the 7th cycle of the composites with 20 wt.% CNF were
218 tested (20 samples total). Each test was performed twice to ensure repeatability.

219

220 **2.3.5.2. Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA)**

221 TGA experiments were carried out on a TGA Q500 (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE). Test
222 samples weighing 3-5 mg were placed in platinum pans and heated from room temperature to 600
223 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min in a nitrogen atmosphere. Samples from the first 3 cycles of each
224 specimen type along with samples from the 7th cycle of the composites with 20 wt.% CNF were
225 tested. Each test was performed twice to ensure repeatability.

226

227 **2.3.6. Degradation analyses (NMR and XRD)**

228 **2.3.6.1. NMR**

229 PLA and PETg composites with 20 wt.% CNF from process cycles 1 and 7 were dissolved in
230 CDCl_3 (7.26 ppm ^1H , 77.16 ppm ^{13}C) overnight. The liquid phase was filtered and put into 5 mm
231 NMR tubes. NMR spectroscopy was carried out using a Bruker Avance 500 MHz NMR with a
232 cryoprobe. Shifts were calibrated using solvent residual peaks. ^1H spectra were acquired with zg
233 90° pulse, 14.99 ppm spectral width, 2.18 sec acquisition time, 4 sec delay time and 128 scans. ^{13}C
234 spectra were acquired with zgpg pulse, 233.8 ppm spectral width, 0.557 sec acquisition time, 1 sec
235 delay time and 6144 scans.

236

237 **2.3.6.2. X-ray Diffraction (XRD)**

238 XRD was performed on PETg20CNF composites from process cycles 1 and 7 using a Panalytical
239 Empyrean diffractometer with copper $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation operating at 45 kV and 40 mA in the range of
240 $5\text{-}90^\circ 2\theta$.

241

242 **3. Results and discussion**

243 The effects of recycling on the mechanical performance of a polymer or polymer composite can
244 often be related to fiber attrition and a loss of aspect ratio, enhanced fiber dispersion, and changes
245 in polymer/fiber interactions, crystallinity, and the polymer's molecular weight, among others.
246 These factors can negatively or positively impact the material's mechanical performance, and at
247 times can effectively counteract one another resulting in no measurable change in mechanical and
248 other properties. The relationships between the aforementioned composite properties and its
249 performance after recycling can be complex but have been thoroughly documented and discussed
250 in literature in the field of natural fiber-reinforced composites.[36, 42-45] The recycling of
251 thermoplastic composites reinforced with spray dried CNF, however, has not yet been studied.

252 To evaluate the effects of thermomechanical recycling on PLA and PETg composites reinforced
253 with spray dried CNF, the mechanical performance (impact and tensile properties) of neat and
254 composite samples at 5 and 20 wt.% loading of CNF was first measured after initial extrusion and
255 two successive recycling steps. Composites with the higher CNF concentration were further
256 probed to determine the number of cycles either composite could withstand before significant
257 property loss. Samples were continuously reprocessed until a 30% deterioration in any of their
258 mechanical properties was measured, which was determined to be four additional recycling steps.

259

260 **3.1. Mechanical properties**

261 Neat and composite PLA and PETg samples with varying loading levels of CNF were subjected
262 to tensile testing after IM (cycle 1) and recycling via grinding and IM (cycles 2-7). Results of
263 tensile tests are shown Figure 1, and the changes in yield strength and modulus of each sample
264 after 3 and 7 processing steps are quantified in

265 Table 1. Impact testing results are shown in Figure S1 of the supporting information (SI).

266

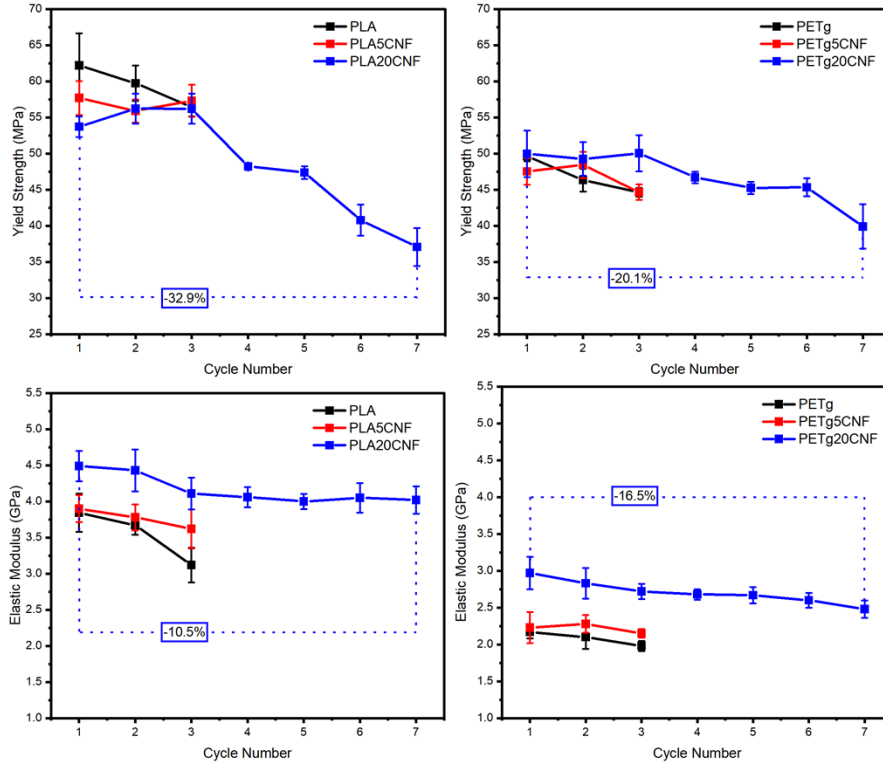


Figure 1. Tensile performance of neat and composite samples

Table 1. Changes in tensile performance of neat and composite samples after 3 and 7 processing cycles

Sample	Δ Yield strength after 3 cycles (%)	Δ Yield strength after 7 cycles (%)	Δ Elastic modulus after 3 cycles (%)	Δ Elastic modulus after 7 cycles (%)
Neat PLA	-9.3		-0.1	
PLA5CNF	-0.6		-7.2	
PLA20CNF	+4.6	-31.0	-8.5	-10.5
Neat PETg	-10.1		-8.8	
PETg5CNF	-6.0		-3.6	
PETg20CNF	+0.2	-20.1	-8.4	-16.5

The mechanical performance of both the neat and composite samples generally deteriorates with recycling, which is most evident in the samples subjected to 7 thermomechanical cycles. A loss in tensile performance upon recycling is commonly seen in thermoplastics and thermoplastic composites and is primarily attributed to degradation of the polymer matrices, changes in fiber aspect ratios or their dispersion, and deterioration of the polymer/fiber interface.[42] Polymer

278 degradation or a loss in molecular weight after mechanical recycling has been demonstrated in
279 natural and synthetic polymers both semicrystalline and amorphous.[3, 35, 37] Furthermore, the
280 presence of fibers or fillers in a composite result in higher shear forces within the material during
281 thermomechanical processing, which can exacerbate the degradation of the polymer matrix.[42,
282 46] An increase in the stiffness and accompanying decrease in tensile strength upon addition of
283 spray dried CNF has been previously reported.[47-49] Spray drying of CNF leads to agglomeration
284 to particles with a low aspect ratio and wide size distribution, and the incorporation of the
285 hydrophilic CNF aggregates into a hydrophobic PLA matrix can result in areas of stress
286 concentration, leading to premature failure under tensile stress and a lower yield strength with
287 increased particle loading.[49-52]

288 In the neat and composite PLA samples, the elastic modulus steadily decreases upon reprocessing.
289 The yield strength of the neat PLA similarly decreases with successive recycling steps.
290 Deterioration of the elastic modulus and strength of the neat polymer samples is attributable to a
291 degradation of the polymer matrices resulting from thermomechanical cycling. The tensile strength
292 of the PLA/CNF composite samples, on the other hand, initially remains constant (within error) in
293 the sample with the higher CNF concentration. The spray dried CNF aggregates are unlikely to
294 have broken up to smaller particles or individual fibrils during reprocessing because of the high
295 degree of hydrogen bonding within the particles, but the retention of tensile strength during the
296 initial recycling stages could signify improved mixing or distribution of the CNF particles that
297 mitigates the negative effects of a deteriorating polymer matrix on the composite strength.
298 However, a significant loss of tensile strength is observed after 7 processing cycles of the
299 PLA20CNF samples, again likely attributable to excessive polymer degradation.

300 The trends in tensile elastic modulus and strength of PETg and PETg/CNF composites after
301 recycling are similar to that of their PLA counterparts. Neat PETg exhibited yielding and necking
302 before fracture, while all the PETg composite samples exhibited brittle fracture. The tensile
303 strength of the composite samples remains nearly constant in the first three thermomechanical
304 cycles while the strength of the neat polymer decreases; essentially, the CNF concentration and
305 mechanical property retention is directly related, again indicating a reinforcing effect of the CNF
306 particles. The tensile strength of PETg20CNF is lowered by approximately 20% after 7 processing
307 cycles. However, the strength of this composite after 6 processing cycles is nearly identical to that
308 of neat PETg after only 3 processing cycles, indicating that the addition of CNF improves the
309 recyclability of the material, extending its number of functional lifetimes or use cycles.
310 Additionally, the tensile elastic modulus of both PLA and PETg composites with 20 wt.% CNF
311 after 7 process cycles remains higher than that of the neat resins. Depending on the application,
312 this data suggests that PETg can withstand recycling better than PLA in terms of mechanical
313 performance, and the effects of thermomechanical recycling on either resin can be diminished with
314 the addition of spray dried CNF.

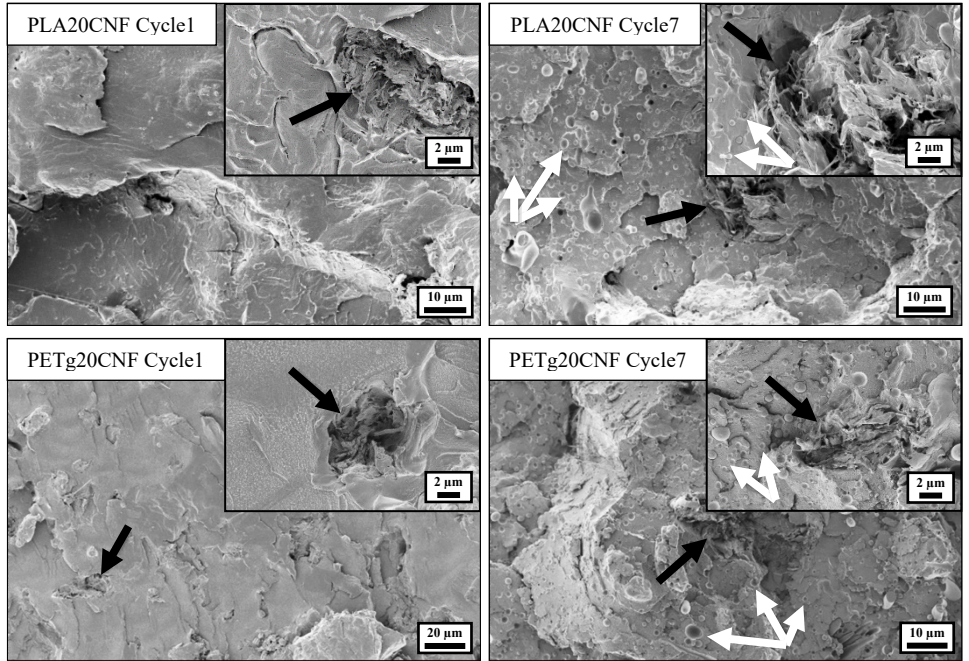
315 The impact strength of each neat and composite sample, shown in the SI (Figure S1), remains
316 relatively stable throughout recycling, even up to seven cycles. Recycling of natural fiber-
317 reinforced composites has been shown by some researchers to improve their impact strength,
318 theorizing that deterioration of a polymer matrix and fiber breakup render the composite more
319 ductile and able to absorb more energy upon impact.[38, 42, 46] Competing factors such as
320 increased ductility and improved particle dispersion throughout recycling steps could have led to
321 the retention in impact strength observed in both PLA and PETg samples.

322

323 **3.2. SEM**

324 The fracture surfaces of the PLA and PETg composites with 20 wt.% of CNF particles were each
325 imaged using SEM after the first and seventh process cycles to visualize morphological changes
326 in the most heavily processed samples. Images of each sample are shown in Figure 2.

327



328

329 Figure 2. Fracture surfaces of PLA and PETg composites with 20 wt.% CNF particles (black arrows
330 indicate CNF particles, white arrows indicate porosity)

331

332 Each image shown in Figure 2 displays agglomerated CNF particles embedded in the composites,
333 indicated by black arrows. These particles appear similar to other thermoplastic composites with
334 spray dried CNF seen in literature.[47, 53] The polymer matrix does not appear to have penetrated
335 the fibril bundles, regardless of the polymer type or number of processing cycles. Additionally,
336 the particles appear to have remained intact throughout the recycling process, indicating that the
337 shear imposed on the CNF particles during thermomechanical processing was not sufficient to

338 overcome the interfibrillar bonds formed during spray drying attributable to hornification of the
339 nanofibrils.[50-52] As such, the aspect ratio and dispersion of the particles likely remained
340 constant throughout recycling.

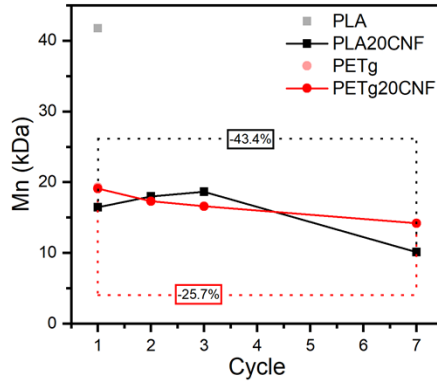
341 The most noticeable difference between the images of both composites from the first and seventh
342 processing cycles is the appearance of a high degree of porosity after recycling, indicated by white
343 arrows in Figure 2. This porosity could be indicative of degradation of each polymer matrix as
344 reflected in the tensile properties shown above. Chain scission during thermomechanical
345 processing can form byproducts such as carbon dioxide and water, among others, which could
346 offgas and result in the pores seen in Figure 2.[32] Additionally, as some macro- or microscale
347 porosity can be introduced during IM, repeated cycling and reinjection of materials causes porosity
348 to build up in the samples. This porosity is also likely a significant contribution to the deterioration
349 of the tensile strength in both the PLA- and PETg20CNF samples after 7 processing cycles, as
350 pores act as further points of stress concentration and early failure under tensile strain.[54]

351

352 **3.3. Molecular weight and rheological behavior**

353 The molecular weight of the neat polymers and composite samples with 20 wt.% CNF at cycles 1,
354 2, 3, and 7 were measured using GPC for PLA samples and NMR for PETg samples. NMR was
355 used for PETg samples because of compatibility issues between the GPC and the solvent needed
356 to dissolve PETg. As such, only the number-average molecular weight (M_n) of the PETg samples
357 were measured in this study. M_n of each sample measured is plotted as a function of cycle number
358 in Figure 3. These values along with the weight-average molecular weight (M_w) and dispersity
359 index (\mathcal{D}) of the PLA samples are given in the SI (Table S1).

360



361

362

Figure 3. Number-average molecular weight of select neat and composite samples

363

364 An initial loss in molecular weight can be observed between the neat and composite samples after

365 IM (and compounding for the composite sample, cycle 1), significantly more so in PLA than in

366 PETg. PLA experiences a reduction from 41.8 to 16.5 kDa between the neat IM sample and the

367 composite IM sample (both cycle 1), while PETg only changes from 19.3 to 19.1 kDa (neat IM

368 and composite IM, respectively, which is difficult to see in Figure 3, as the points for the first cycle

369 of PETg and PETg20CNF are nearly identical). Reduction of a polymer's molecular weight upon

370 thermomechanical processing is attributed to chain scission and can be exacerbated if the material

371 is not fully dried before compounding. PLA is known for being particularly susceptible to

372 hydrolytic degradation at high temperatures.[55, 56] Additionally, natural fibers such as cellulose

373 are hygroscopic and can retain moisture even after rigorous drying before compounding.[42, 55,

374 57, 58] The drastic reduction in M_n in PLA between the neat and composite samples in cycle 1

375 could be attributed to residual moisture in the CNF present during compounding, which adversely

376 affected the PLA more than the PETg. With repeated recycling, the molecular weight of both

377 composites continuously decreases. The trends in the M_n of both composites are nearly linear,

378 although the loss of molecular weight in PLA is more rapid than that of PETg, signifying that the

379 molecular structure of PETg is more stable and can withstand more thermomechanical processing

380 than PLA. The steady decrease in M_n of both composites with successive reprocessing cycles also
381 reflects the declining tensile behavior shown in Figure 1.

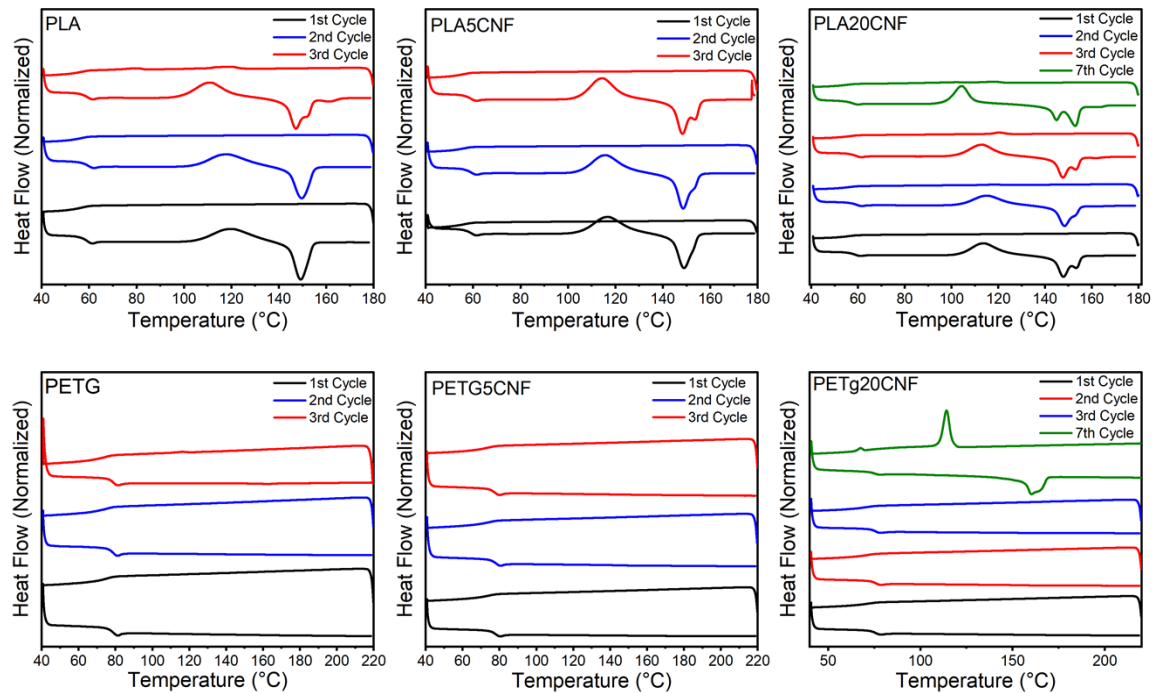
382 The frequency- and rate-dependent viscoelastic behavior of neat and composite samples was then
383 measured using a parallel plate rheometer. Plots of the frequency-dependent storage and loss
384 moduli and complex viscosity as well as the shear rate-dependent viscosity are given in the SI
385 (Figures S2 and S3). The rheological behavior of the neat and composite samples generally follows
386 the trends of decreasing molecular weight and mechanical performance with repeated recycling.
387 The storage and loss moduli and complex and shear viscosities of each sample show a decreasing
388 trend, which can be attributed to the loss in molecular weight after each process cycle. All samples
389 exhibited shear thinning behavior, and in both materials the highest degree of shear thinning (*i.e.*,
390 steepest slope in viscosity vs. shear rate in the shear thinning region) is observed in the composites
391 with a higher particle loading. Inflections in the curves of viscosity as a function of shear rate can
392 be observed at higher shear rates in both PLA and PETg with increasing filler content, indicating
393 that the inclusion of fillers slightly stabilizes the materials against shear thinning.

394

395 **3.4. Thermal properties**

396 The thermal behavior of neat and composite samples was then measured using DSC and TGA.
397 Results from DSC tests including thermal transition temperatures and the degree of crystallinity in
398 each sample are shown in Figure 4. The thermal transition temperatures and crystallinity of each
399 sample as well as TGA plots found in the SI (Table S2 and Figure S4, respectively).

400



401

402

403

Figure 4. DSC traces of neat and composite samples

404

405 In all PLA samples, the thermal transitions shift to lower temperatures with repeated reprocessing.

406 This trend is most noticeable in the cold crystallization temperatures. The temperature at which

407 the glass transition, cold crystallization, and melting occurs in a polymer sample depends on the

408 energy required for polymer chains to diffuse. A reduction in the molecular weight upon recycling,

409 as seen above, increases the mobility of polymer chains and can allow them to crystallize or melt

410 at lower temperatures.[42, 59, 60] The degree of crystallinity within each neat and composite PLA

411 sample, listed in Table S2, also increases upon recycling, which can again be attributed to a loss

412 in molecular weight leading to increased mobility of polymer chains. These trends are similar in

413 both the first and second heats. The crystalline content of the 20 wt.% composite PLA samples is

414 higher than their neat and 5 wt.% composite counterparts. The higher filler content of the 20 wt.%

415 CNF samples would have caused more shear and hydrolysis within the samples during

416 thermomechanical processing and accelerated the degradation of PLA, leading to a higher

417 crystallinity in the PLA20CNF samples as compared to PLA5CNF. The increase in crystallinity
418 upon recycling likely positively impacted the materials' mechanical performance, facilitating a
419 retention of mechanical properties during successive reprocessing cycles. A higher degree of
420 polymer degradation and accompanying crystallinity in polymer composites with higher filler
421 loading has also been noted by numerous researchers.[42, 61]

422 As depicted in Figure 4, the melting peaks of the neat and 5 wt.% CNF composites PLA samples
423 splits into two peaks upon recycling, indicating the emergence of a second crystalline phase or the
424 formation of more stable or perfect crystals (i.e., melt recrystallization). This phenomenon has
425 been documented by numerous authors and can be related to the decrease in the molecular weight
426 of PLA upon recycling.[8, 55, 62] Shorter polymer chains within the sample are more mobile and
427 therefore able to organize themselves into more stable crystals that require a higher temperature to
428 melt. PLA20CNF exhibits a double melting peak at each cycle number, but the magnitude of the
429 second peak increases relative to that of the first upon recycling, reflecting the molecular weight
430 data in Figure 3 **Error! Reference source not found..**

431 The TGA traces of each PLA and PETg sample (SI, Figure S4) show little change after recycling.
432 The onset of degradation can be observed to shift to slightly lower temperatures with successive
433 reprocessing steps, with the largest change noticeable in both the PLA and PETg samples with 20
434 wt.% CNF after 7 processing cycles. The onset of degradation shifts to lower temperatures with
435 increasing CNF content, reflecting the lower thermal stability of cellulose in comparison to that of
436 PLA and PETg. While the majority of the neat PLA sample degrades by 350 °C, the addition of
437 CNF to the samples results in a second degradation step between 350 and 450 °C. The residual
438 weight at 350 °C also increases with increasing CNF content. In neat PETg, approximately 90%
439 of the sample degrades in a single degradation step between 360 and 420 °C. In the composite

440 PETg samples, a small, initial degradation step beginning around 300 °C can be observed,
441 corresponding to an approximate 5 and 20% weight loss in the PETg samples with 5 and 20 wt.%
442 CNF, respectively, clearly indicating the degradation of cellulose prior to the degradation of PETg.
443 The initial weight loss step in the PETg20CNF sample after 7 processing steps exceeds 20%,
444 however, which could be attributable to the degradation of lower molecular weight species
445 generated during successive recycling steps.

446 PETg is an amorphous polymer and, as such, shows no crystallization or melting transitions in a
447 typical DSC scan.[31] The neat and 5 wt.% CNF composite PETg samples show no activity on
448 DSC scans up to 220 °C aside from a glass transition, and the T_g of both sample sets stays relatively
449 constant throughout three thermomechanical cycles. PETg20CNF, however, shows a significant
450 decrease in T_g as well as clear melting and crystallization peaks in the sample reprocessed 7 times.
451 Crystallization within PETg is rarely reported in literature, even in studies on repeated recycling
452 of PETg and its composites for 3D printing.[32, 33] Furthermore, most reported crystallization in
453 PETg in literature is induced via chain alignment under strain [30, 31, 63] or by altering its
454 composition (namely, the ratio of ethylene glycol to CHDM used in synthesis).[64, 65] The
455 reported crystallinity of the PETg sample with 20 wt.% CNF after 7 processing cycles was
456 calculated using melting enthalpy for 100% crystalline PETg from literature calculated via XRD
457 and DSC comparison of strain-induced crystalline PETg samples.[30, 41] It was shown through
458 NMR measurements that the molecular weight of the PETg composites decreases throughout
459 recycling, so it is possible that some polymer chains gained sufficient mobility upon shortening to
460 be able to crystallize. Vidakis, et al., also observed potential crystallization of PETg after multiple
461 recycling steps indicated by a reduction in the intensity of Raman bands attributed to a conversion
462 of amorphous gauche ethylene glycol group conformers to crystalline trans conformers.[32]

463 Further characterization was performed on PETg20CNF samples from cycles 1 and 7 to investigate
464 this unexpected crystallization.

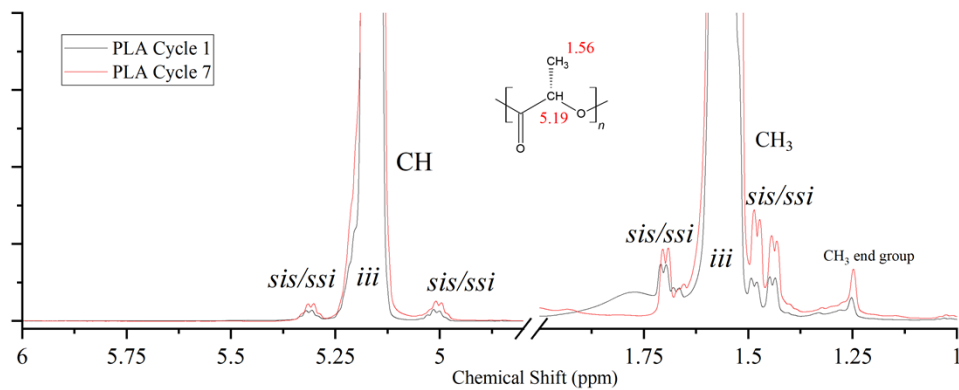
465

466 **3.5. NMR and XRD**

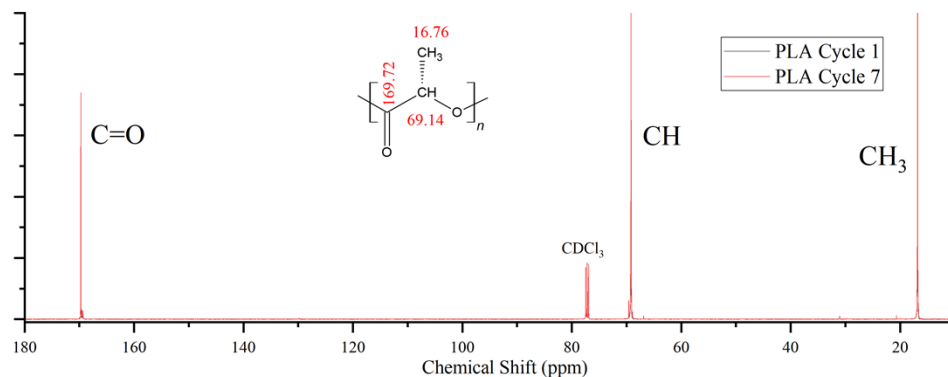
467 Composite samples with 20 wt.% CNF from cycles 1 and 7 were further analyzed using x-ray
468 diffraction and NMR. ^1H spectra from NMR analyses of PLA from composites at process cycles
469 1 and 7 are shown in Figure 5. For PLA cycle 1 and cycle 7, peaks at 1.56 (CH_3) and 5.19 ppm
470 (CH) represent poly(L-lactide) polymer (PLLA). Because of the presence of minor quantities of
471 D-lactide isomer, peaks on either side of the main methyl and methine peaks were observed in ^1H
472 spectra.[66] The CH_3 , CH and $\text{C}=\text{O}$ carbon peaks in ^{13}C spectra appeared at 16.76, 69.14 and
473 169.72 ppm, respectively, which is shown in Figure S6 of the SI. Comparison between the traces
474 of cycle 1 and 7 indicate that recycling cleaved ester bonds in PLA into $-\text{COOH}$ and $-\text{OH}$ end
475 groups.[67]

476

477



478

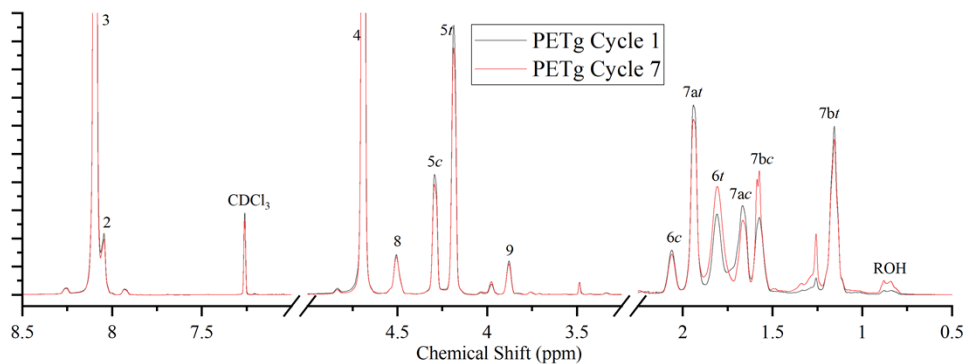


479 Figure 5. Top: ^1H NMR spectra of PLA with $\sim 4\%$ poly(D-lactide). iii represents main signal from L-
480 lactide repeating units from isotactic pairwise relationship sis/ssi satellite signals represent syndiotactic
481 and isotactic pairwise relationships due to presence of PDLA. Bottom: ^{13}C spectra of PLA

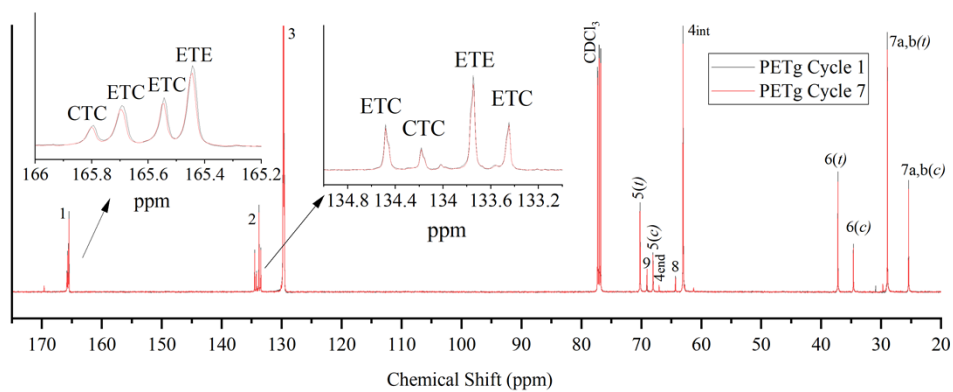
482

483 ^1H and ^{13}C spectra from analysis of PETg from composites at process cycles 1 and 7, shown in
484 Figure 6, identified peaks corresponding to terephthalic acid (TA), ethylene glycol (EG) and
485 cyclohexanedimethanol (CHDM) monomers. The ratio of cis(c)/trans(t) PETg isomers, calculated
486 from oxymethylene protons of CHDM ($5(c)/5(t)$ at 4.29/4.18 ppm) was 32/68 which is close to
487 the 30/70 molar ratio for commercial PETg. Furthermore, the ratio of CHDM/EG from $5(c)+5(t)/4$
488 $((4.29+4.18)/4.69$ ppm) was 31/69 which is close to the 30/70 ratio reported for commercial
489 PETg.[68]

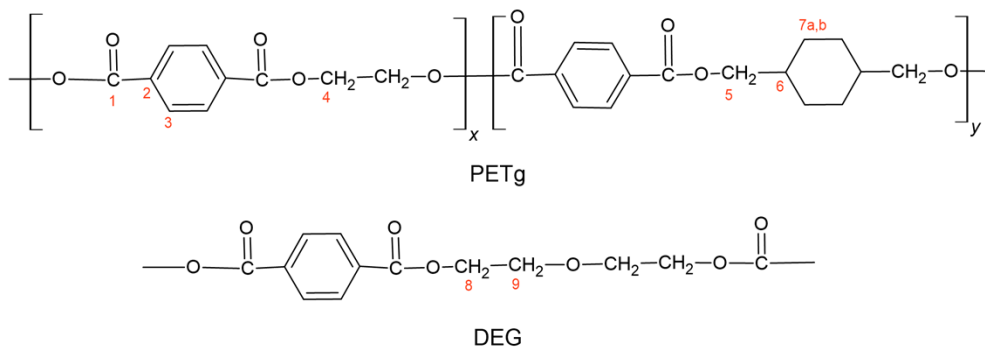
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492



493

494 Figure 6. Top: ¹H NMR spectra of PETg. Middle: ¹³C spectra of PETg. Bottom: chemical structures of

495 PETg. DEG=diethylene glycol

496

497 The dyad sequence of ethylene (E) terephthalate (T) and glycol (C (CHDM)) terephthalate

498 monomers in the PETg samples was determined using the following equations:

499

500
$$\eta_{ET} = \frac{I_{ETE} + I_{ETC}/2}{I_{ETC}/2} \quad (2)$$

501
$$\eta_{CT} = \frac{I_{CTC} + I_{ETC}/2}{I_{ETC}/2} \quad (3)$$

502
$$R = 1/\eta_{ET} + 1/\eta_{CT} \quad (4)$$

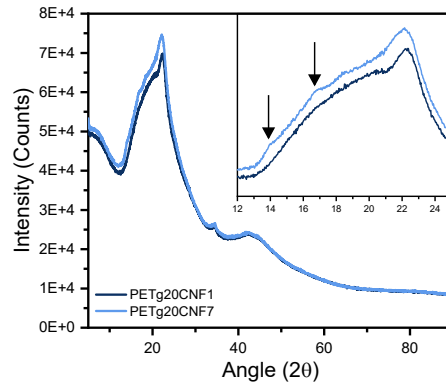
503

504 In the above equations, η_{ET} and η_{CT} refer to the average sequence lengths of ET and CT monomers,
505 respectively, R refers to the degree of randomness, and I_{ETE} , I_{ETC} , and I_{CTC} are integrals of
506 quaternary carbons of TA (133.45–134.48 ppm).[69] The values of η_{ET} , η_{CT} and R were 3.09, 1.48
507 and 0.993 for cycle 1 and 2.98, 1.47 and 1.00 for cycle 7, which are close to the 3.5, 1.4 and 1
508 theoretical values for 30/70 ratio of CHDM/EG.[69] The R value close to 1 indicates that the PETg
509 used in this study is a random copolyester. The absence of peaks at 100.4 and 140.8 ppm in the
510 ^{13}C spectra of Cycle 7 reveals that vinyl end groups were not formed due to recycling degradation,
511 and cleavage only resulted in formation of –COOH and –OH end groups. Finally, the peaks at 4.50
512 and 3.88 ppm in the ^1H spectra and 64.3 and 69.3 ppm in the ^{13}C spectra indicate presence of
513 diethylene glycol (DEG) group that is commonly found in commercial PET and PETg
514 polymers.[68, 70] The chemical shifts and corresponding assignments from analysis of the PETg
515 samples are listed in Table S3 of the SI.

516 XRD spectra of PETg composite samples are shown in Figure 7. The XRD spectra of composite
517 PETg/CNF samples from process cycles 1 and 7 appear similar. CNF typically exhibits
518 characteristic peaks of cellulose I around 15° , 22° , and 35° , making other peaks in that range
519 difficult to discern.[71, 72] However, two peaks close to 14° and 17° are observed in the heavily
520 recycled PETg composite sample. These peaks have also been reported in XRD spectra of PET,
521 suggesting that the degraded crystalline product of heavily recycled PETg is similar in structure to

522 PET.[64, 73, 74] The low intensity of these peaks is expected, as the crystallinity calculated from
523 DSC measurements, listed in **Error! Reference source not found.**, is also low.

524



525

526 Figure 7. XRD spectra of PETg/20 wt.% CNF from cycles 1 and 7

527

528 4. Conclusions

529 Deterioration of the tensile performance of PLA and PETg composites with 5 and 20 wt.% CNF
530 was observed after thermomechanical recycling. These changes in performance were explained by
531 both SEM, in which porosity is observed to increase with recycling, and molecular weight analyses
532 showing decreases in both polymers' molecular weights upon reprocessing. In the PETg samples,
533 crystallinity was surprisingly exhibited in the composite sample with 20 wt.% CNF after 7
534 thermomechanical cycles, which prompted further study via NMR and XRD. These studies
535 indicated that the degradation of PETg upon recycling enabled crystallization within the typically
536 amorphous polymer, likely from degraded polymer chains with structures similar to that of PET.
537 Based on the mechanical performance of the neat and composite samples in this study, it can be
538 inferred that the addition of spray dried CNF maintains the mechanical performance of both
539 polymers during recycling, particularly in the first 3 thermomechanical cycles. For example, the
540 yield strength of PETg20CNF after 6 thermomechanical cycles is nearly identical to that of neat

541 PETg and PETg with 5 wt.% CNF after 3 thermomechanical cycles, meaning the number of useful
542 lifetimes of PETg could be doubled with sufficient CNF inclusion for applications in which tensile
543 strength is an important performance metric. This study indicates that the addition of CNF to some
544 polymer materials can not only increase their sustainability (*e.g.*, offsetting the use of petroleum-
545 derived resins), but also increases their circularity by enabling performance retention over more
546 numerous life cycles.

547

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