

Ramie fibers in a comparison between chemical and microbiological retting proposed for application in biocomposites

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Abstract

Due to light weight, renewability, sustainability and generally moderate costs, natural fibers are addressed for the production of composites for application in packaging, automotive and other industries. Several approaches are under investigation to improve compatibility with polymer matrices and improve mechanical performances of composites with natural fibers. The retting process is the major limitation to efficient and high-quality natural fiber production. The conventional retting is normally done chemically by treatment of decorticated fibers with hot alkaline solutions. Such a process requires high energy input and produces hazardous wastes. Microbiological and enzymatic methods represent a reliable replacement, however their application on ramie (*Boehmeria nivea* (L.) Gaud.) has not yet been optimized and tuned for use on a large scale. Consequently, the aim of this work was to evaluate the role of microbiological retting on the morphological, chemical and physical-mechanical properties of the derived ramie fibers for

29 application in biocomposites. The decorticated ramie fibers, obtained by mature crop stands grown
30 at the experimental station of the Department of Agriculture, Food and Environment (DAFE) of the
31 University of Pisa, were subjected to a water based microbiological degumming performed with the
32 use of two selected strains of *Clostridium felsineum* L. at 30°C for 7 days. The results obtained with
33 this method were compared with those recorded adopting the conventional chemical process with
34 NaOH water solution at 100°C for 2 hours. The morphological, chemical (hemicellulose, cellulose,
35 lignin and ash) and physico-mechanical (tensile strength, elastic modulus and elongation at break)
36 properties of retted ramie fibers were investigated. The fibers produced were evaluated for the
37 production of composites by using Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) as polymeric matrix, as targeted
38 in the EC running project OLI-PHA.

39 Significant differences were observed between the two types of degumming in terms of yield and
40 quality of the fibers. Even if the highest fiber yields were recorded with chemical retting, the
41 performances of fibers modified by microbiological treatments were comparable with those of the
42 composite prepared with fibers modified by chemical treatment. Scanning electron microscopy
43 analysis revealed a good removal of non-cellulosic gummy material from the surface of ramie
44 fibers. According to the mechanical properties, the ramie fibers obtained by both degumming
45 processes, were suitable for use in PHAs composites.

46

47 **Keywords:** *Boehmeria nivea* (L.) Gaud., *Clostridium felsineum* L., Fiber characteristics,
48 Pectinolytic bacterial strains, Polyhydroxyalkanoates biocomposites.

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50

51 **1. Introduction.**

52 Development of synthetic polymers, used to produce plastics such as polyethylene, polypropylenes,
53 polyesters and polyamides (including nylon), has brought about environmental concerns for over
54 the past two or three decades (Nkwachukwu et al., 2013). In fact, most of these polymers are not
55 biodegradable, and the wastes produced are solid, visible, and usually quite persistent. In addition,
56 plastic wastes can also impose negative externalities such as greenhouse gas emissions or ecological
57 damage, posing risks to human health and the environment (Nkwachukwu et al., 2013). These
58 concerns include also composite materials, where plastic is the continuous matrix and fibers are
59 used as filler or as reinforcing phase. Consequently, scientific efforts toward the design, synthesis,
60 and production of sustainable or green materials have expanded tremendously in the last two
61 decades (Miller, 2013). Currently, the demand of fibers is met mainly by the production of man-
62 made fibers (Kozłowski et al., 2008). The most dominant reinforcing fibers for polymers are glass,
63 aramid, and carbon fibers, and their applications are found in construction, automotive, aerospace,
64 leisure and sporting industries (Terzopoulou et al., 2015). These fibers have environmental
65 problems both during the production and disposal (Wambua et al., 2003). Due to the above, natural
66 resources are being exploited substantially as an alternative to synthetic ones, thanks to the
67 renewability of the raw materials and due to non-renewable resource savings. A good alternative is
68 represented by natural fibers, and the agricultural production of plant fibers is an interesting
69 opportunity for many Mediterranean countries (Alexopoulou and Shouwei, 2014). Natural fibers
70 have many remarkable advantages over synthetic fiber such as light weight, low cost and
71 biodegradability (Terzopoulou et al., 2015). Nowadays, various types of natural fibers, including
72 flax (*Linum usitatissimum* L.), hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.), jute (*Corchorus capsularis* L., *Corchorus*
73 *olitorius* L.), wood, rice husk, sugarcane (*Saccharum* spp.), bamboo (*Bambusa* spp.), kenaf
74 (*Hibiscus cannabinus* L.), ramie (*Boehmeria nivea* (L.) Gaud.), sisal (*Agave sisalana*), coconut coir
75 (*Cocos nucifera* L.), kapok (*Ceiba pentandra* L.), paper mulberry (*Broussonetia papyrifera* L.),

76 banana pseudo-stem fiber (*Musa sapientum* L.), pineapple leaf fiber (*Ananas comosus* (L.) Merr.)
77 and papyrus (*Cyperus papyrus* L.) (Taj et al., 2007; Saxena et al., 2011) have been investigated for
78 use in environmental-eco-friendly composites in order to substitute the conventional non-
79 degradable plastics.

80 Among those fibers ramie, a member of the Urticaceae, has several interesting features. In fact, this
81 herbaceous perennial plant, native to China, but widespread in Asia (Kirby, 1963; Pignatti and
82 Anzalone, 1982), presents good prospects for introduction in Mediterranean area, according to long-
83 term agronomic field evaluation (Oggiano et al., 1997; De Mastro, 1999; Di Bene et al., 2011;
84 Angelini and Tavarini, 2013). Furthermore, the ramie's bast fibers are considered of excellent
85 quality and are the longest and most durable bast fiber known (Xu et al., 2001; Nishino et al., 2004;
86 Liu et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2006). The ramie fibers are commonly used for the production of textiles
87 due to the characteristics of comfort of the finished product (Shihong et al., 1994; Cengiz and
88 Babalik, 2009). Even in technical applications, such as the production of composite materials, ramie
89 has excellent performance, as demonstrated by many studies (Angelini et al., 2000; Chen et al.,
90 2005; Levita et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2014).

91 Retting is the process necessary for the separation of fibers from non-cellulosic tissues in phloem.
92 In ramie, the elementary fibers are bound by gums and pectins (Jarman et al., 1978; Batra, 1981).
93 Currently, the separation of the fiber from the stem occurs mainly through the use of chemical
94 methods (Bhattacharya and Shah, 2007). Microbiological and enzymatic methods, although
95 reported in the literature, have not yet been optimized and tuned for use on a large scale (Pandey,
96 2007). This is due to a lack of knowledge relating to the optimization of the different parameters
97 involved, and the effects of these parameters on the chemical and physical-mechanical properties of
98 the fibers. Therefore, our specific objectives were to evaluate the morphological, chemical and
99 physical-mechanical properties of ramie fibers subjected to two methods of retting. The first method
100 is a chemical retting with NaOH water solution, the second one is water based microbiological

101 method performed with the use of *Clostridium felsineum* L. The fibers produced, were evaluated for
102 the production of composites by using Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) as polymeric matrix, as
103 targeted in the EC running project OLI-PHA (European Community's Seventh Framework
104 Programme (FP7/2007-2013) under NMP grant agreement n. 280604 Oli-PHA “A novel and
105 efficient method for the production of polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) polymer-based packaging from
106 olive oil waste water”). The properties of composites prepared with fibers treated with NaOH and
107 with microbiological methods were compared.

108

109 **2 . Materials and methods**

110 *2.1 Plant material and sampling*

111 A long-term field trial was set up from 1996 to 2013 at the Experimental Centre of Department of
112 Agriculture, Food and Environment (DAFE) of the University of Pisa (San Piero a Grado, Pisa
113 countryside, Italy 43°40'N latitude; 10°19'E longitude; 10 m elevation). The crop was cultivated on
114 an alluvial deep loam soil, Typic Xerofluvent (Soil Survey Staff, 2006). It was representative of the
115 lower Arno River plain, with a good fertility and water retention capacity, and a fairly high water
116 table (0.12 m deep in driest conditions) as reported in Angelini and Tavarini (2013). The crop was
117 planted in April 1996 with a density of 55,000 plants/ha (0.5 m between rows and 0.4 m intra row)
118 on experimental plots (plot size 32 m², 8x4 m) with four replications. The plants were maintained
119 under identical fertilizer regimes. Mineral fertilizer was applied at pre-planting at the rates of
120 50/100/100 kg ha⁻¹ of N (as urea), P (as triple superphosphate) and K (as potassium sulphate),
121 respectively. A further amount of nitrogen (50 kg N ha⁻¹, as ammonium nitrate) was supplied in
122 late-spring of the same year. From the second growing season onward, plots received 100/65/165 kg
123 ha⁻¹ of N/P/K at the end of winter and further 50 kg N ha⁻¹ were supplied after the first harvest.
124 Starting from the second year, the plants were harvested twice a season (approx. in June and

125 October). Plots were kept weed free by hand hoeing. No crop diseases were detected during the
126 experimental period and there was no need of irrigation treatment.

127 The plants were harvested in June 2013 on a minimal area of 10 m² in the inner part of each plot by
128 cutting 10-15 cm above ground level and weighed to determine fresh weight. The fresh stems were
129 manually decorticated, in order to remove the outer bark/epidermis and the bast from the inner
130 woody core of the stem. The stem was cut into three equal parts, and the bark and the adhering fiber
131 were separated from the third median part of the stem. The weight ratio of bast to stem was
132 measured. The sub-samples were placed in a forced-draft oven at 75°C for 72 h to determine the dry
133 matter percentage. The bark obtained from the central part of the stem was utilized for subsequent
134 analysis.

135

136 2.2 Degumming

137 The microbiological retting of the bast - obtained from pre-decorticated ramie stems - has been
138 realized into tanks, testing two bacterial strains of *Clostridium felsineum*, NCIMB 10690 (MIC
139 10690) and NCIMB 9539 (MIC 9539), previously selected for their high pectinolytic activity.
140 Isolation and characterization of NCIMB 10690 has been already reported (Tamburini et al. 2001).
141 The pure culture, on yeast extract-pectate agar medium (YP-agar) were kindly supplied by Prof
142 Giorgio Mastromei from University of Florence, Italy. For retting experiment each organism was
143 grown separately in a liquid growth medium composed by 5 g L⁻¹ yeast extract, 5 g L⁻¹ peptone, 10
144 g L⁻¹ tryptone, 20 g L⁻¹ glucose. Each liquid substrate was inoculated with the specific strain of
145 *Clostridium felsineum*. Then the liquid was transferred into a 17 L capacity jar in which were laid
146 n.5 sachets of AnaeroGen AG35 to create anaerobiosis. The jar was placed at 37 °C for 96 h to
147 achieve a reasonable development of microorganisms. Each retting treatment was carried out with
148 100 g dry weight of bast samples, replicated four times, placed in 9 L plastic tanks. Each replicate
149 was put into separated bags (prepared with a meshed net of polymer), inside the plastic tank. The

150 dilution obtained was 1:8 (500 mL culture broth of 4000 mL demineralised water). The ratio
151 between the weight of the plant sample and water was 1:50. The retting parameters were 30°C for 7
152 days.

153 The chemical retting (CHEM) was performed according to Bredemann method (Bredemann, 1942)
154 used for hemp and Dasgupta and Sen (1971) and Dasgupta et al. (1976), carried out on decorticated
155 ramie fiber, first boiled in aqueous alkaline solution and then washed in water.

156 Samples of bast, gathered in bundles, were placed in glass containers airtight, filled with a 2%
157 NaOH solution until complete coverage of the bundles. The containers were placed in boiling water
158 for 2 h.

159 After completion of the retting, the retted raw fiber samples were washed properly in cold running
160 water and dried. The raw fibers were then combed through the use of special combs of different
161 dimensions (distance between the teeth) in order to separate the long fibers (called also line fibers)
162 for quality assessment.

163

164 *2.2 Determination of morphological, chemical and physic-mechanical properties of retted ramie*
165 *fibers.*

166 The surface of the long fibers was characterized by scanning electron microscopic (SEM),
167 performed with a FEI QUANTA 200. The diameter of the fibers was not uniform, therefore suitable
168 samples were selected with the aid of a microscope (200×magnification); the diameter of each fiber
169 was measured at different places by an ocular micrometer and the average value was used. The
170 number of samples analysed was 360 for each retting method.

171 Fiber's chemical characterization was performed according to Van Soest's method (Van Soest,
172 1963) using ANKOM Fiber Analyzer, model A200. This method consists of the gravimetric
173 determination of residues previously treated with acid and neutral detergent solutions.
174 Hemicellulose and cellulose contents were calculated from acid detergent fiber (ADF), neutral

175 detergent fiber (NDF) and acid detergent lignin (ADL) measurements, as (NDF-ADF) and (ADF-
176 ADL) for hemicellulose and cellulose, respectively.

177 The ash content was determined in a muffle furnace at $525 \pm 25^\circ\text{C}$ for 60 minutes according to the
178 method TAPPI (Technical Association of the Pulp and Paper Industry) T 211 om -12. Experiments
179 were performed on three replicates.

180 The tensile properties of selected filaments were determined with an Instron 5500 universal testing
181 machine (load cell 10 N) with a cross-head speed of 1 mm/min at room temperature ($20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) and
182 $70 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity. Since the diameter of ramie fibers was not circular and uniform,
183 selection of suitable samples was made with the help of a low magnification microscope. The
184 diameter for each fiber was taken at different places with the help of a precision gauge meter and
185 the average value was used. Data were acquired and processed with Merlin calculation software
186 V.4.42 of Instron Corporation

187 Tensile strength, elastic modulus and elongation at break, have been calculated for each batch of
188 long fiber. The strength was evaluated by using different length, in the range 10-50 mm, with 45
189 filaments for each gauge length to give to the data a statistical meaning. The elastic modulus was
190 measured by the slope of the stress-strain curve, taking the distance between grips as the gauge
191 length.

192

193 *2.3 Production of composites*

194 The composites were prepared by processing Polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) PHI 002 from
195 Natureplast, Ifs, France, it is a polyhydroxybutyrate valerate, with 1.25 density, 10-20 g/10 min melt
196 flow rate, processed with 10% by weight of polyethyleneglycol 400 (Aldrich) as plasticizer, and
197 10% by weight of ramie fibers modified by respectively chemical retting, and microbiological
198 retting. Processing was performed in a MiniLab II Haake Rheomex CTW 5 conical twin-screw
199 extruder at 180°C with a screw speed of 90 rpm. After extrusion, the molten materials were

200 transferred through a preheated cylinder to a Haake MiniJet II mini injection molder to obtain
201 Haake type 3 specimen (557-2290) dog-bone tensile bars used for measurements and analysis. The
202 dog-bone shape is able to avoid the fracture outside the gauge section The injection mould
203 temperature was 176 °C for the cylinder and 35 °C for the mould, the pressure was 30 MPa and the
204 time was 5 seconds. The specimens were stored at 50% humidity. Tensile tests were performed at
205 room temperature, at a crosshead speed of 10 mm/min, by means of an Instron 5500 universal
206 testing machine (Canton MA, USA) equipped with a 1 kN load cell, in order to ensure an
207 appropriate measuring range, interfaced with a computer and data were acquired with Merlin
208 calculation software V.4.42

209

210 *2.4 Statistical analysis*

211 The results for the yields of retted raw fibers and long fiber, as well the data concerning the
212 chemical composition, were subjected to the analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the statistical
213 software CO-STAT Cohort V6.201 (2002). Means were separated on the basis of Least
214 Significance Difference (LSD) test only when the ANOVA *F*-test per treatment was significant at
215 the 0.05 or 0.01 probability level (Gomez and Gomez, 1984). Linear regression analyses were
216 performed using GraphPad PRISM V4.0 (2003). Fiber's strength has been analysed in terms of
217 Weibull's statistics.

218

219 **3. Results and discussion**

220

221 The manual decortication of the stems of *B. nivea* provided the bast for retting. The percentage of
222 bast on stem dry weight varied between 27.8 and 32.2% of the stem dry weight. These data are in
223 agreement with those reported by Angelini and Tavarini (2013). The yields of water based chemical
224 and microbiological retted fibers are reported in Table 1, expressed as a percentage of the bast dry

225 weight. The retting method significantly affected the fiber yield, with the highest values recorded
226 for both raw fibers, that are fibers with no treatment, and long fibers which are those obtained by
227 chemical retting. Between the two microbial strains, the strain NCIMB 9539 has provided higher
228 yield in raw fiber but not in the long fiber, which was greater with the use of NCIMB 10690 strain.
229 In a previous study carried out on Spanish broom vermenes, NCIMB 10690 strain provided higher
230 fiber yield than NCIMB 9539 (Angelini et al., 2013).

231 The diameter of combed fibers was measured with the aid of an optical microscope (200x
232 magnification) (Fig. 1). Fibers from microbial retting had an average diameter greater than those
233 obtained by chemical maceration (32 μm). No significant differences were found between the fibers
234 obtained with the two strains of *C. felsineum* (47 μm and 51 μm , for strain 10690 and 9539,
235 respectively).

236 To investigate the morphology changes of ramie fibers treated with different retting methods, SEM
237 pictures were examined and compared with those of untreated fibers (Fig 2a). The SEM analysis
238 showed the surface of the ramie retted fibers, composed of a single cell elongated in accordance to
239 Ilvessalo-Pfaffli (1995). These appeared smooth and uniform, with the presence of some material
240 arranged irregularly over the entire length (Fig 2b-d). The main components of these encrustations
241 are lignin and pectin that have the function of intercellular glue (Fan et al., 2010) and that were
242 removed, in a more or less efficient way, by retting. The diameter range is between 30.8 and 51.5
243 μm , similarly to that reported by Pandey (2007). The diameters of ramie fibers are highly variable
244 due to different factors but the influence of the retting method is not clear. According with Boruah
245 et al. (2002), fibers present a reduction in diameter with the intensity of the treatment. The fibers
246 present a spontaneous wrap on itself, known as crimp.

247 In Table 2 the composition in cellulose, hemicelluloses, lignin and ash of fibers has been reported.
248 From the results obtained it is possible to observe how the type of maceration significantly affected
249 the chemical composition. Fibers from chemical retting had the highest percentage content in

250 cellulose. The most effective capacity to remove hemicellulose was achieved by chemical method,
251 even if a wide variability was observed. The microbial retting showed no difference in the reduction
252 of hemicellulose between the two strains, in accordance with the results obtained on Spanish broom
253 (Angelini et al., 2013). The chemical method was more effective than the microbial one in lignin
254 removal, furthermore no statistical differences had been found between the two strains.
255 Microbiological retting is generally less efficient than the chemical method in hemicellulose and
256 lignin removal as demonstrated in other crop such as kenaf (Ramaswamy et al., 1994). The removal
257 of the pectic material is important since allows the separation of the fiber bundles from the
258 surrounding cells of the stem. In addition, Yu and Yu (2010), evaluating the influence of different
259 retting methods on kenaf fiber properties, concluded that the chemical retting was the most effective
260 methods yielding the least gum, while microbe retting induced higher residual gum content.
261 Mooney et al. (2001) and Kawahara et al. (2005) reported that the chemical retting was generally
262 more efficient and produced clean and consistent long and smooth surface bast fibers within a short
263 time. Our results seem to confirm these findings, being the chemical retting more effective in the
264 removing the non-cellulosic materials, consisting mainly of pectin and hemicellulose, attached to
265 fibers. On the other hand, Kapoor et al. (2001) carried out a degumming of bast fibers using a
266 combination of chemical (2% NaOH) and enzymatic treatment, showing a degumming efficiency in
267 terms of gum removal up to 37 and 56% from ramie and sunn hemp bast fibers, respectively.
268 Fibers obtained by microbiological retting with NCIMB 10690 strain showed the lower ash content,
269 while, on the other hand, the chemical retting showed the higher content. The lower the ash content,
270 the better the quality of the fiber (Pandey, 2007).

271 Ramie fibers present stress-strain diagrams almost linear until fracture. Irregularities may occur for
272 a failure of some of the individual fibrils, of which filaments are made up, prior to the final
273 cumulative rupture, or for an internal rearrangement of fiber subunits under the action of the tensile
274 stress.

275 The mean elastic module did not varied among the retting treatments and averaged 6.08, 5.02 and
 276 7.54 GPa for the MIC 10690, MIC 9539 and CHEM retting, respectively. Within each treatment,
 277 great variability in the data was observed. The brittle behaviour of ramie fibers allowed their
 278 strength to be analyzed in terms of Weibull's statistics. As a natural product, vegetable fibers
 279 present variability in the tensile data (Fidelis et al., 2013). Broad distributions in tensile strength of
 280 fibers is usually attributed to flaws or defects that can naturally exist or be introduced during
 281 handling or processing or, finally, resulting from surface ageing. It is widely accepted that these
 282 defects are the main cause of premature failure of the fiber under tensile load (Curtin, 1994). The
 283 Weibull's distribution function (Weibull, 1951) is a statistical model that can represent the random
 284 variability of the natural fibers. In the two parameter models, the cumulative probability of failure
 285 $P_n(\sigma)$, i.e. the fraction of filaments having tensile strength not exceeding σ , is given by:

$$286 \quad P_n(\sigma) = 1 - e^{-l(\sigma/\gamma)^\alpha}$$

287 where α and γ are the parameters that characterize the fiber and experimentally-derived, σ is the
 288 stress at break and l is the gauge length.

289 The previous equation can be written as:

$$290 \quad f(P_n, l) = \ln [\ln(1 - P_n(\sigma))^{-1}] - \ln l = \alpha \ln \sigma - \alpha \ln \gamma$$

291 So that a plot of $f(P_n(\sigma), l)$ versus $\ln(\sigma)$ is linear; α and γ are thus obtained by the slope and the
 292 intercept, respectively. For each gauge length, a plot was created in order to obtain the slope and the
 293 intercept. Once that α and γ are known, the mean fiber strength (σ_m) at a given gauge length can be
 294 calculated by the following equation:

$$295 \quad \log \sigma_m(l) = \alpha^{-1} \log(l) + \log(\gamma) + \log[\Gamma(1 + \alpha)\alpha^{-1}]$$

296 with Γ as the complete Gamma function. A plot of $\log \sigma_m$ versus $\log(l)$ is again expected to be
 297 linear. The mean tensile strength at the gauge lengths required in the fragmentation analysis is
 298 experimentally inaccessible and it is evaluated by extrapolation of such plots. The plots of \log
 299 (mean stress) versus \log (gauge length) of the different retted ramie fibers are reported in Figure 3.

300 The solid line represents the regression line. In each case, it was observed that the fibers strength
301 increased with a decrease of the gauge length. The strength of microbial retted fibers was in the
302 range of 58-25 MPa for the 10690 strain, and 56-23 MPa for the 9539 strain. The chemical retted
303 fibers had strength between 164-88 MPa. These values are lower than data reported from different
304 authors (Mwaikambo, 2006; Angelini et al., 2000). Anyway, elastic modulus and strength data were
305 large enough for present fibers to be proposed as reinforcing means of PHA matrices.

306 The slopes of lines in Figure 3 showed that fibers from chemical retting were more reliable than the
307 fibers from microbial retting, which presented the same slope in both involved strains. In each case,
308 the slope was comparable with those from man-made fibers, like E-glass and carbon. This was
309 somehow stunning since one would expect natural fibers to exhibit a much wider variability and a
310 more pronounced effect of filament length on fracture stress, instead all fibers appeared to be very
311 similar in this respect.

312 As for the strength, gauge length influences also the elongation at break (ϵ_B). In Figure 4 the
313 behaviour of fibers is reported. The behaviour was almost linear so that $\sigma_B \approx \epsilon_B$. Since there is no
314 influence of gauge length on elastic module (fluctuation of elastic modulus values was independent
315 of gauge length), it follows that the gauge length dependence of strength has to be paralleled by that
316 of elongation.

317 Breaking elongation is directly correlated with the presence of lignin in fibers (Zhang and Yan,
318 2013). Long fibers from chemical retting, which presented a lower level of lignin, had a higher
319 elongation than microbiological one.

320 Ramie fibers can be proposed for application in bio-composites production where the presence of
321 fibers can have both benefit of increasing tensile strength, and elastic modulus of the materials, as
322 well as lowering cost, since most biodegradable polymers are pretty expensive (Marsyahyo, 2011;
323 Choi 2012; Kumar et al., 2012). For example, polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) are interesting
324 biodegradable polymers proposed for production of composites since compostable, but also

325 degradable in soil and marine environment. The cost of PHAs ranges between 5-10 Euro
326 (Bugnicourt, 2014); furthermore, the addition of natural fibers in materials produced with these
327 polymers lowers the cost and promotes the disintegration in compost test, that is an important factor
328 for materials with consistent thickness ($> 2\text{mm}$), such as rigid packaging (Seggiani 2015).
329 Composites based on a plasticised polymeric matrix of PHA and PEG400 (90/10), with 10% by
330 weight of ramie fibers were easily prepared by extrusion and injection moulding in the mini lab
331 extruder and minijet. The materials were homogeneous and fibers were well distributed in the
332 polymeric matrix. Mechanical properties of the samples prepared with fibers respectively modified
333 by microbiological and chemical treatment are reported in Table 3. The results of mechanical
334 properties are compared with those of the plasticised polymeric matrix based on PHA (90%) and
335 PEG400 (10%), as well as with a similar composite prepared with 10% by weight of good quality
336 commercial fibers of micro cellulose (CMC, that were Arbocell BE 600-30, natural cellulose fibers
337 with average fibers length $40\ \mu\text{m}$, and average fibers thickness $20\ \mu\text{m}$.
338 The higher strength and modulus observed in composites versus the polymeric matrix attest for
339 good dispersion and reinforcement of the matrix. This is expected for fibers treated by alkali since,
340 in general, alkali-treatment onto the natural fibers is an effective treatment in terms of improving its
341 hydrophilicity by breaking the extensive hydrogen bond network in the fiber structure and creating
342 many free reactive hydroxyl groups (Goda et al., 2006). The performance of ramie fibers are
343 comparable with those of commercial micro cellulose, and most interesting. The performances of
344 composites prepared with fibers modified by microbiological treatments were comparable with
345 those prepared with fibers modified by chemical treatment. Foulk et al. (2011) found that flax
346 enzyme retting via the pectinase PL-BRI was capable to produce consistent high-strength renewable
347 fibers for use in novel resins developed for natural fiber agricultural feedstock composites.
348 Our findings assess the potential value of microbiological treatment versus the chemical one,
349 allowing achieving composites with similar mechanical properties, eventually even better

350 properties, using fibers modified with a treatment that is more sustainable and based on a green
351 chemistry approach.

352

353 **5 Conclusions**

354 The present work contributes to the development of natural fiber supply in pursuit of greater
355 sustainability. This investigation has shed some light on the influence of the retting process on
356 ramie fibers in terms of morphological, chemical and physical-mechanical characteristics, with the
357 aim to evaluate the microbial retting as an alternative to the chemical one. Chemical retting method
358 has serious environmental implications, with high energy consumption and heavy release of caustic
359 residue in waters. Significant differences were observed between the two types of retting in terms of
360 yield and quality of the fibers. In particular, from the viewpoint of the hemicelluloses removal,
361 cellulose content and fibers tenacity, the chemical retting appeared to be the most effective one. On
362 the contrary, microbiological retting gave fibers characterised by lower tenacity and lower quality.
363 The microbiological retting was conducted without varying process parameters, such as time and
364 temperature that can influence the results. Therefore, there are possibilities for optimization, and
365 further studies are needed in order to increase the process yield and quality characteristics of the
366 fibers obtained by this method. Nevertheless, the performances of the two kind of fibers (by
367 chemical and microbiological retting), when used in composites production, based on biodegradable
368 polymeric matrices, such as polyhydroxyalkanoates, were comparable.

369

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373

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566 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

567 **Figure 1.** Diameter (mean values \pm standard deviation) of combed fibers from different retting
568 processes.

569 **Figure 2.** Ramie fibers before degumming (A); fibers after degumming with *C. felsineum* 10690
570 (B); fibers after degumming with *C. felsineum* 9539 (C); fibers after retting with NaOH (D).
571

572 **Figure 3.** Comparison of the influence of gauge length on strength of different retted ramie fibers.

573

574 **Figure 4.** Influence of gauge length on breaking elongation of retted ramie fibers.

575

576

577

Table 1. Percentages of raw and long fibers to bast dry weight obtained by microbiological (MIC) (*Clostridium felsineum* 10690 and 9539) and chemical (CHEM) retting.

Retting	Raw fibers (% dw)	Long fibers (% dw)
MIC 10690	24.3 ± 0.7 c	13.2 ± 1.9 b
MIC 9539	26.7 ± 0.8 b	8.8 ± 0.8 c
CHEM	42.9 ± 0.2 a	22.0 ± 1.3 a
<i>Significance</i>	***	***

For each column, mean values followed by the same letters are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level (LSD test).

*** $P < 0.001$

Table 2. Lignin, hemicellulose, cellulose and ash (mean values \pm standard deviation) percentages of the fibres from different retting treatments.

Treatments	Cellulose (% dw)	Hemicellulose (% dw)	Lignin (% dw)	Ash (% dw)
MIC10690	84.67 \pm 0.40 b	5.93 \pm 0.54 a	1.84 \pm 0.48 a	1.71 \pm 0.08 c
MIC9539	81.29 \pm 0.94 c	5.74 \pm 0.14 a	2.36 \pm 0.43 a	3.07 \pm 0.14 b
CHEM	87.49 \pm 0.88 a	1.50 \pm 0.68 b	0.61 \pm 0.19 b	4.16 \pm 0.70 a
Mean	84.48	4.39	1.60	2.98
<i>Significance</i>	*	**	*	***
Not retted bast fibres [†]	61.85-73.21	5.27-7.58	4.6-9.06	7.51-9.34

For each column, mean values followed by the same letters are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level (LSD test). * P <0.05; ** P <0.01; *** P <0.001.

[†]Angelini and Tavarini, 2013.

Table 3. Mechanical properties of composite based on PHA and fibers treated with MIC10690, MIC9539, and NaOH (CHEM).

Fiber Treatments	Elongation at Break (%)	Tensile Strength at Break (MPa)	Young's Modulus (GPa)
MIC10690	3.5	28.8	2.6
MIC9539	2.8	26.8	3.0
CHEM	2.2	25.1	2.9
<i>Significance</i>	<i>n.s.</i>	<i>n.s.</i>	<i>n.s.</i>

n.s. not significant ($P>0.05$).

Figure 1

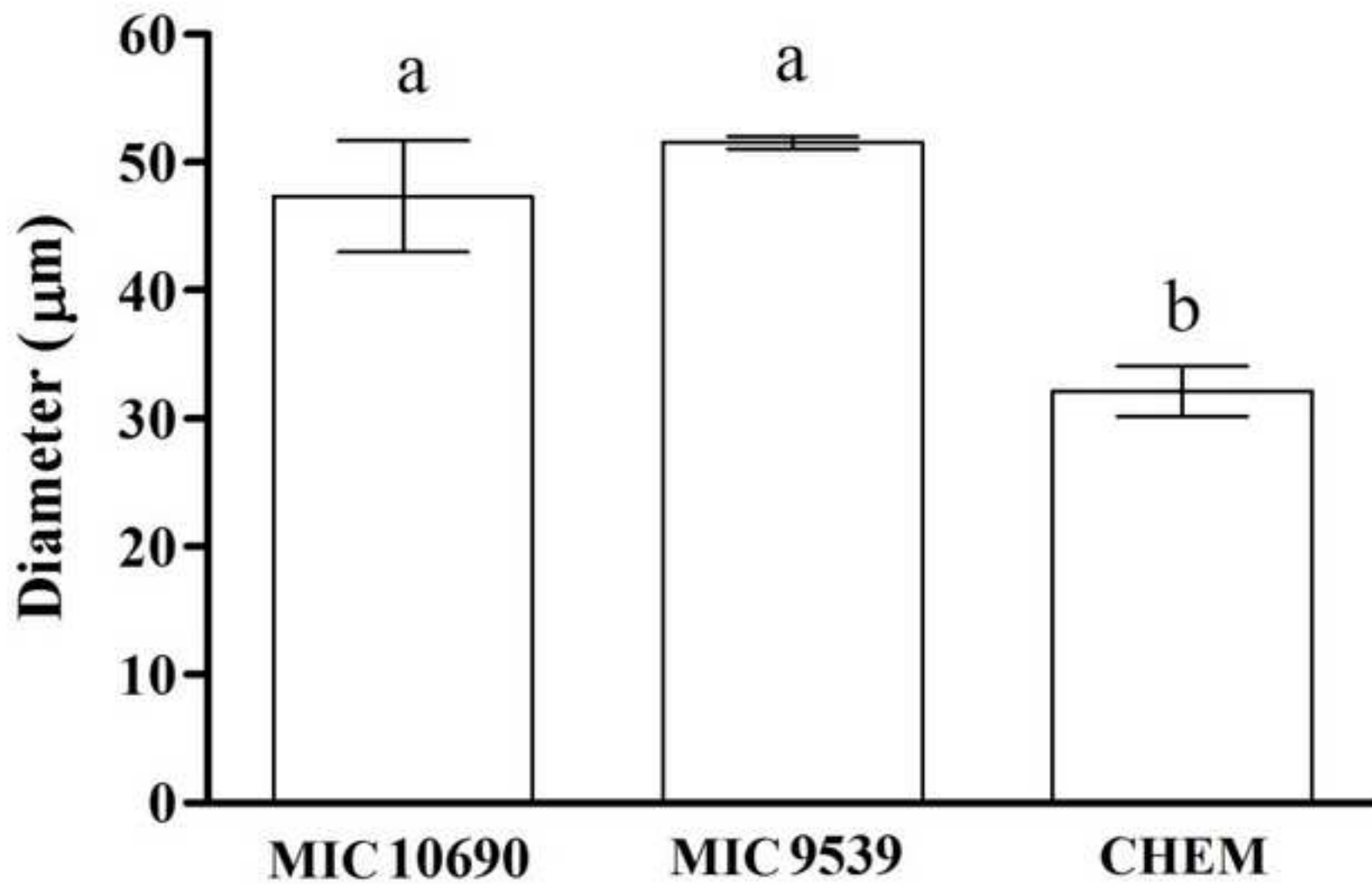
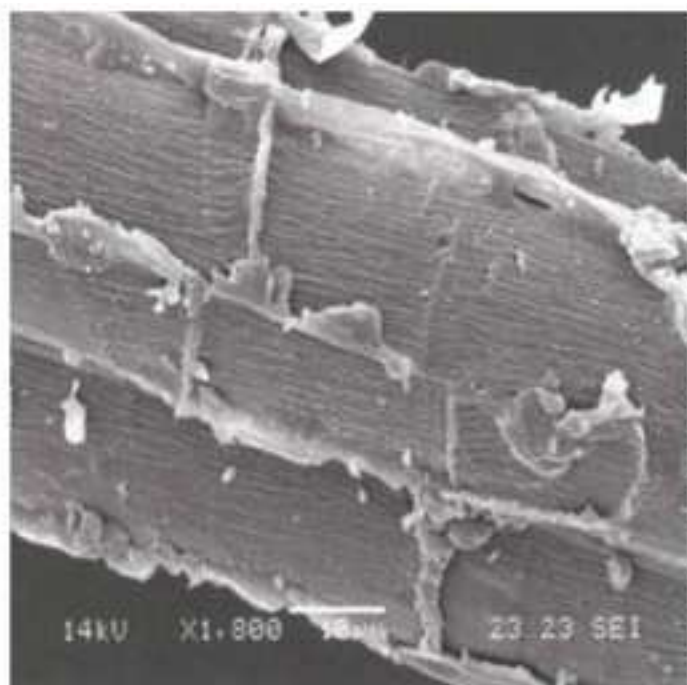
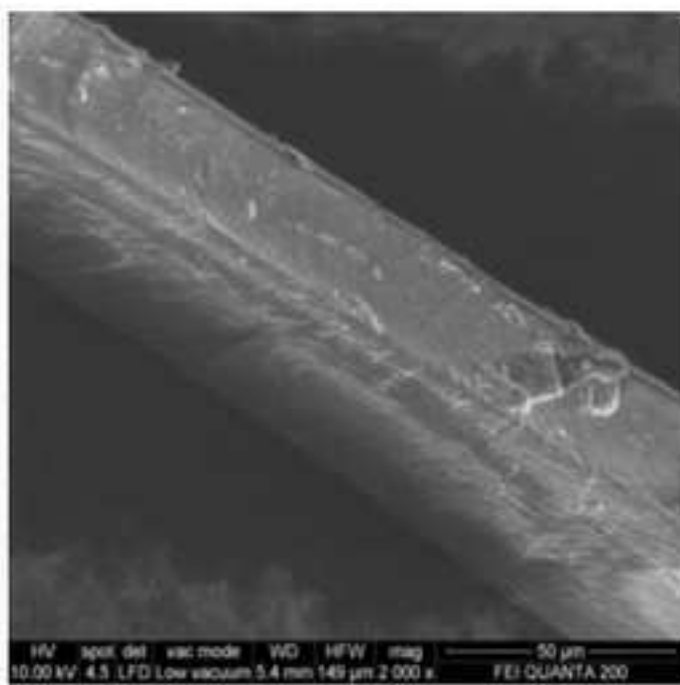


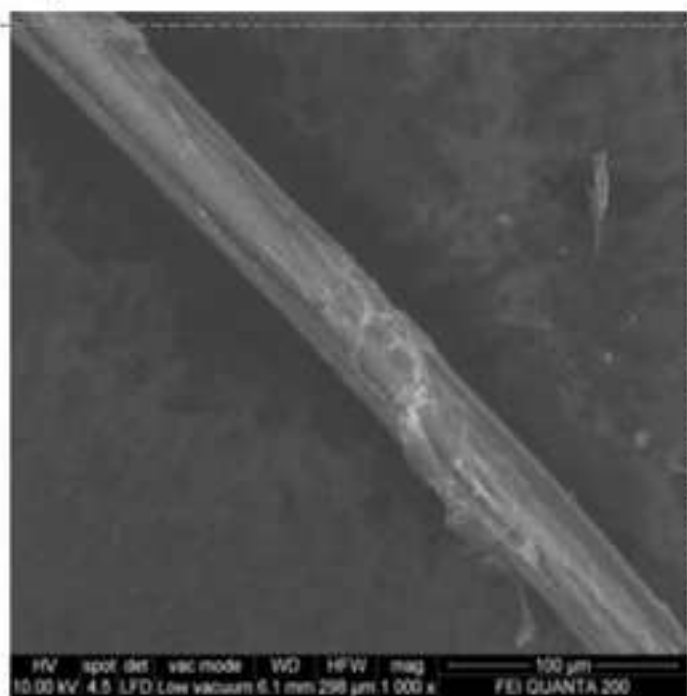
Figure 2



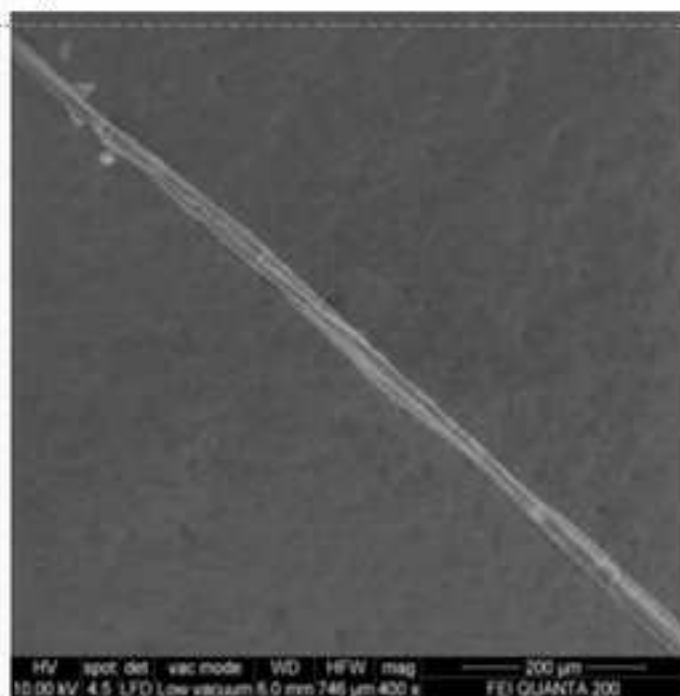
A)



B)



C)



D)

Figure 3

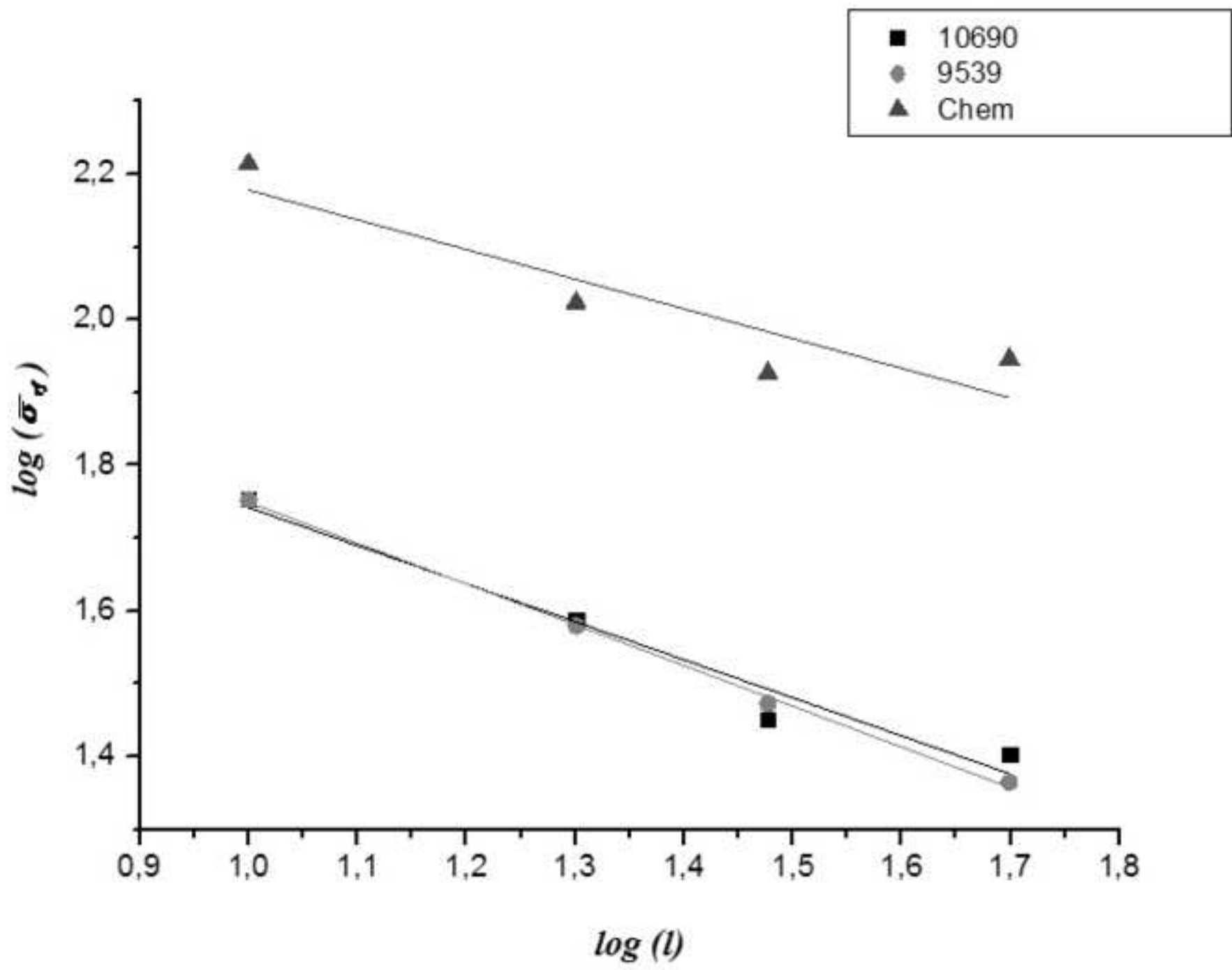


Figure 4

