

1     **Assessing the thermoformability of poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) / poly(acid**  
2                                   **lactic) blends compatibilized with diisocyanates**

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10    **Abstract**

11        Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) (PHBV) is a renewable alternative to conventional barrier  
12    packaging polymers due to its thermoplastic properties, biodegradability and gas barrier performance but its  
13    potential industrial applications are limited by its high price and difficult processability. A thorough study  
14    concerning the thermoforming ability of PHBV, and blends with poly(lactic acid) (PLA) incorporating three  
15    different diisocyanates as compatibilizers (hexamethylene diisocyanate, poly(hexamethylene) diisocyanate  
16    and 1,4-phenylene diisocyanate) is herein presented after component melt blending. A straightforward  
17    universal qualitative method is proposed to assess the thermoformability, based on a visual inspection of a  
18    thermoformed specimen and the ability to reproduce the mold shape, and the thermoforming window of  
19    the material. The results reveal a significant improvement in the thermoforming capacity and a widening of  
20    the thermoforming windows as the correct amounts of diisocyanates are incorporated. The barrier  
21    properties and the biodisintegrability of the blends was also studied, confirming a predictable slight decrease  
22    of the barrier performance when PLA is added, but without negatively affecting the disintegrability under  
23    composting conditions with respect to pristine PHBV.

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## 1 1. INTRODUCTION

2 Many of the most widely used rigid packaging products (such as trays, containers, cases or blister  
3 packages) are obtained by thermoforming thin thermoplastic sheets. The process is also widely used for  
4 preparation of multilayer polymer materials, which are commonly used as high barrier materials in the food  
5 packaging industry. Polystyrene (PS), polypropylene (PP), polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and polyethylene  
6 terephthalate (PET) are the most widely used polymers for such applications. However, these materials are  
7 derived from non-biodegradable fossil fuel resources, which entails environmental problems derived from  
8 the large amounts of discarded plastic and their waste management. Biopolymers here arise as a good  
9 alternative to replace those commodities, with a special interest in those that come from renewable  
10 resources. Poly(lactic acid) (PLA) and some polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs), specifically poly(hydroxybutyrate-  
11 co-valerate) (PHBV), provide a good alternative to PVC, PP or PET, with the advantage of being 100%  
12 biodegradable, and compostable [1–3]. These biopolymers are already being commercialized for packaging  
13 applications, such as cosmetic containers, shampoo bottles, covers, milk cartons, among others (reviewed by  
14 Keshavarz et al. [4] and Aditi et al. [5]). Nevertheless, these biopolymers still present a number of drawbacks  
15 that limit their use in the packaging sector.

16 PHBV has interesting properties compared to other biopolymers, such as being thermoplastic, presenting  
17 high tensile strength, high service temperature (similar to that of PP) [6] and barrier properties to oxygen  
18 (close to those of PET and much higher than PLA) [7] [8]. However, its high crystallinity, which is responsible  
19 of the excellent barrier performance, restricts its processability by thermoforming. In fact, PHBV can be  
20 thermoformed only within a very narrow range of temperatures close to the melting point of the polymer,  
21 which leads to sagging phenomenon of the sheet prior to the drawing process, which stems from the sudden  
22 loss of mechanical stability. This characteristic limits the geometries and its suitability for thermoformed  
23 products in comparison with other conventional polymers, and despite of the importance of the  
24 thermoforming process in the packaging sector, few works address this issue in the scientific literature.  
25 Among them, Gimenez et al. [9,10] improved the thermoformability of ethylene-vinyl alcohol copolymer  
26 (EVOH) by means of blending it with an amorphous polyamide and a compatibilized-ionomer. The ternary

1 blend resulted in an improved forming capacity with a much wider forming window than neat EVOH due to  
2 a blend composition showing improved dimensional stability during the thermoforming and reduced  
3 sensitivity towards sagging.

4 In the same vein of that reported by Gimenez et al., in the present work, blending PHBV with an  
5 amorphous biopolymer (PLA) is presented as an approach for fostering the thermoformability of PHBV. PLA  
6 shows an excellent thermoformability because of its amorphous state at normal processing conditions [11].  
7 However, the PHBV/PLA blends have some disadvantages: the two biopolyesters exhibit an immiscible  
8 behavior when melt blended [12-14] thus yielding to a drop-in-matrix morphology with a poor interface  
9 adhesion, and the gas barrier properties decrease by incorporating PLA into PHBV, especially when the PLA  
10 content exceeds 25% [13]. These detrimental drawbacks limit the PLA blends for application in high barrier  
11 thermoformed packages, which currently are manufactured from PET [15].

12 In a previous work [16], blends of PHBV with PLA were compatibilized by reactive extrusion blending  
13 using three diisocyanates as compatibilizer agents (hexamethylene diisocyanate (HMDI),  
14 poly(hexamethylene) diisocyanate (PolyHMDI) and 1,4-phenylene diisocyanate (PDI)). PolyHMDI and PDI  
15 resulted in a higher compatibilizing effect, when compared with HMDI. Besides, the rheological behavior of  
16 the compatibilized blends suggested that the thermoformability of such systems could improve that of PHBV.  
17 In light of those results, the aim of this work is to assess the effect of blending PHBV with 25 wt.% PLA while  
18 using the different diisocyanates as compatibilizers, on the thermoforming processability, service properties  
19 (barrier to oxygen and water vapor) and biodisintegrability, as compared to neat PHBV.

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## 21 **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

### 22 **2.1. Materials**

23 PHBV with 3 mol.% hydroxyvalerate content was purchased from the Tianan Biologic Material Co.  
24 (Ningbo, P.R. China) in pellet form (ENMAT Y1000P). PLA Ingeo™ Biopolymer commercial grade 2003D was  
25 supplied by the NatureWorks® Co. LLC, USA. The three compatibilizers used, hexamethylene diisocyanate

1 (HMDI), poly(hexamethylene) diisocyanate (PolyHMDI) and 1,4-phenylene diisocyanate(DPI) were supplied  
2 by Sigma Aldrich.

### 3 **2.2. Blend preparation**

4 The PHBV and PLA used in this study were dried at 80 °C for 2 h before using by a Piovan DPA 10 (Santa  
5 Maria di Sala VE, Italy), while the compatibilizers were used as received. Considering the limited gas barrier  
6 properties of PLA with respect to PHBV and in agreement with our previous works [10,11], a fixed PHBV/PLA  
7 ratio of 75/25 in weight was kept in all the samples. The PHBV blends were obtained by mixing different  
8 amounts of pellets of both polymers and the compatibilizer in an internal mixer (Rheomix 3000P  
9 ThermoHaake, Karlsruhe, Germany). To avoid thermal degradation of the biopolyesters during blending, the  
10 mixing time was done in less than 4 min, the temperature was set at 180 °C and the rotor speed at 100 rpm.  
11 According to the melt temperature sensor during mixing, the polymers were always at temperatures below  
12 195 °C.

13 The batches were subsequently processed into thin sheets (thickness of 200 and 300 µm) by compression  
14 molding, using a hot-plate hydraulic press (Carver 4122, USA) at 180°C, 3 MPa and 4 min. The 300 µm sheets  
15 were prepared the same day as they were used in the thermoforming study. In contrast, the 200 µm films  
16 were stored in a vacuum desiccator at ambient temperature for 2 weeks to allow full crystallization to take  
17 place [17] and subsequently used for full characterization.

18 Samples of both neat PHBV and PLA were processed under identical conditions as the blends, for the  
19 sake of comparison. The nomenclature used for the blends is as follows: PHBV/PLA for the blend system  
20 without compatibilizer, and HMDI, polyHMDI and PDI for the compatibilized blends. The compatibilizer  
21 content was adjusted to 1:20 molar ratio between the functional polymer reactive sites (end groups) and the  
22 compatibilizer ones (isocyanates) [18], according to the available Mn and molecular weight data of polymers  
23 and isocyanates. Table I summarizes the nomenclature and compositions of all the samples studied.

### 24 **2.3. Characterization**

25 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) of all the samples was conducted using a high-resolution field-  
26 emission JEOL 7001F microscope. The samples were fractured in liquid nitrogen and then were coated by

1 sputtering with a thin layer of Pt prior to SEM observation. The size of the dispersed phase (i.e. diameter of  
2 the spheres) was measured in the SEM microphotographs by using Fiji® software (the number of spheres  
3 measured for each sample was never below 400).

4 The oxygen permeability (OP) of the films was measured in duplicate by using Oxtran 100 equipment  
5 (Modern Control, Minneapolis, MN) at 80% relative humidity (RH) and 24 °C. RH was generated by a built-in  
6 gas bubbler and was checked with a hygrometer placed at the exit of the detector. Prior to the  
7 measurements, the samples were purged with nitrogen for a minimum 20h in the previously relative  
8 humidity equilibrated samples. The oxygen flow during the experiments was fixed at 10 ml/min. the  
9 measurements were performed through a 5cm<sup>2</sup> samples area by using an in-house development mask. To  
10 obtain the oxygen permeability, film thickness was considered in each case.

11 The water vapor permeability (WVP) of the PHBV/PLA blends was measured according to the ASTM E96  
12 (2011) gravimetric method, using Payne permeability cups (Elcometer SPRI, Hermelle/s Argenteau, Belgium).  
13 Measurements were taken in duplicates. The samples were placed between the aluminium top (open O-ring)  
14 and bottom part (deposit for the permeant) with a Viton rubber ring between the film and the top part of  
15 the cups to ensure their complete sealing. The cups were placed inside a desiccator at 0% RH and the water  
16 weight loss through a film area of 0,001 m<sup>2</sup> was monitored and plotted as a function of time. Water vapor  
17 permeability rate was estimated from the slope of the linear part of this plot, thus ensuring the steady-state  
18 conditions. Cups with aluminum films were used as control samples to estimate water vapor losses thought  
19 the sealing. Water weight loss was calculated as the total cell loss minus the loss through the sealing. Water  
20 vapor permeability was obtained multiplying the water vapor permeability by the average film thickness.

21 Disintegrability of films of neat PHBV, neat PLA and PHBV/PLA compatibilized blends and non-  
22 compatibilized blend was assessed by means of a disintegration test under lab scale composting conditions  
23 according to the ISO 20200 standard, "Determination of the degree of disintegration of plastic materials  
24 under simulated composting conditions in a laboratory-scale test" [19]. For the preparation of solid synthetic  
25 waste, 10% of activated mature compost (VIGORHUMUS H-00, purchased from Buras Professional, S.A.,  
26 Girona, Spain) was mixed with 30% rabbit food, 10% starch, 5% sugar, 1% urea, 4% corn oil and 40% sawdust.

1 The water content of the substrate was around 55 wt% and the aerobic conditions were guaranteed by gently  
2 mixing the compost and periodically adding water according to the standard. The samples were cut from hot  
3 pressed plates (10x10x0.2 mm<sup>3</sup>) and buried inside plastic mesh bags to simplify their extraction and allow  
4 the contact of the compost with the specimens, and were incubated at 58 °C for 31 days. At different  
5 composting times samples were recovered for analysis, washed with distilled water, dried at 40 °C under  
6 vacuum for 24 h, and weighed. The degree of disintegration was calculated by normalizing the sample weight,  
7 at different days of incubation, to the initial weight with Equation (1), where  $m_i$  is the initial dry mass of the  
8 test material and  $m_f$  is the dry mass of the test material recovered at different incubation stages.

$$9 \quad D = \frac{m_i - m_f}{m_i} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

10 The disintegration study was completed by photographs for visual evaluation of the samples and their  
11 morphologies were further inspected by SEM analysis.

## 12 **2.4. Thermoforming setup**

13 The thermoforming pilot plant facility (SB 53c, Illig, Helmut Roegele, Germany) presented in Figure 1 was  
14 used for the vacuum assisted thermoformability study. The heating device is a platform equipped with 15  
15 long waves infrared emitters which slides forward upon the thermoforming chamber during the heating step  
16 prior to the forming (see Figure 1b). For all the experiments the emitters were set to 600°C, while the heating  
17 time was changed in order to control the temperature of the polymer sheet. The sheet surface temperature  
18 was measured at different locations (both in the upper and the lower surface) as function of heating time,  
19 thus obtaining relation between the heating time and the sheet temperature (Figure 1d). As shown in Figure  
20 1d, the temperature of the sheet follows a logarithmic trend with respect to the heating time, therefore the  
21 dependence of the sheet temperature with the heating time is much higher for lower times, being almost  
22 constant for times beyond 50 min, reaching a maximum temperature of ca. 130°C with the current setup.

23 Sheets having 300 µm thickness were used for the thermoforming study. Before the thermoforming of  
24 the sample specimen, a square grid pattern (1x1 cm) was stamped on each sheet in order to track the  
25 deformation of the sheet occurring during its mold conformation. The mold used was a female rectangular  
26 tray having 40 x 60 x 20 mm (width x length x depth) (see Figure 1c). Thus the maximum draw ratio of the

1 mold was determined by the ratio between the final and the initial area of the stamped squares, resulting in  
2 a maximum value of 5.2. A minimum of three trays were obtained for every heating time in order to obtain  
3 representative information from their thermoforming ability.

### 4 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 5 **3.1. Morphology**

6 Figure 2 presents SEM micrographs of all the PHBV/PLA blends studied as a function of the diisocyanate  
7 type. The micrographs reveal that the blends present a two-phase morphology microstructure can be  
8 described as PLA homogeneously dispersed within a PHBV continuous matrix, thus revealing a characteristic  
9 discrete-phase structure (DPS, or drop-in matrix). This microstructure proves that the PHBV/PLA blends  
10 prepared with high molecular weight commercial polymer grades are immiscible and not fully compatible.  
11 The addition of isocyanates to the PHBV/PLA blend was previously studied by our group and we showed that  
12 their addition to the blend leads to a decrease in the droplet size of the dispersed phase, as well as decrease  
13 on the amount of detached particles.[18] The high compatibilization effect by adding small amounts of  
14 diisocyanates, with an improvement in the interfacial adhesion between the two biopolyesters, was herein  
15 confirmed.

16 Image analysis of cryo-fractured specimens was performed to reveal the average droplet size of the  
17 PLA droplets in the blends. These results summarized in the histogram plots of Figure 2.e. The average droplet  
18 diameter for the uncompatibilized PHBV/PLA blend is 1.15  $\mu\text{m}$  with a clear detachment phenomenon  
19 between both phases, as can be seen in Figure 2.a. However, the incorporation of diisocyanates to the blend  
20 (in a 1:20 molar ratio of isocyanates with respect to polymer end-groups) led to a reduction in the PLA  
21 domains, with most pronounced results for polyHMDI and PDI. Hence, an average PLA domain size of 0.84,  
22 0.45 and 0.57  $\mu\text{m}$  was determined for the HMDI, polyHMDI and PDI blends, respectively. A similar trend was  
23 also found considering the amount of completely detached PLA particles from the matrix, which is in  
24 agreement with an increase in the interfacial adhesion and compatibility between PLA and PHBV in the  
25 samples containing HMDI, polyHMDI and PDI.

#### 26 **3.2. Barrier performance**

1 The assessment of the barrier performance of the polymers and their blends in this work is of utmost  
2 interest, since one of the main advantages of the PHBV copolymer is its higher barrier performance,  
3 particularly to oxygen, when compared to other biopolyesters such as PLA. The gas barrier properties to  
4 water and oxygen of neat PHBV, neat PLA and the PHBV/PLA blends are summarized in Figure 3. The best  
5 barrier performance corresponds to PHBV, whereas the incorporation of 25 wt.% PLA results in a drop in  
6 oxygen and water vapor barrier performance by more than 85 % (86 and 89 % for water and oxygen,  
7 respectively). This can be attributed to the lower barrier properties of the PLA, derived from its amorphous  
8 state, in agreement with previous studies performed by Zembouai et al. [13], and to some extent the  
9 formation of phase interfaces in the two-phase morphology microstructure. The incorporation of the  
10 different isocyanates only altered the barrier properties to a small extent in relation to the uncompatibilized  
11 blend of PHBV/PLA (see Fig. 3). However, the values of the obtained blends, compatibilized and non-  
12 compatibilized, were still in the same order of magnitude than those of the neat PHBV.

### 13 3.3. Thermoforming study

14 The present work is framed in a project that aims improving the thermoformability of the PHBV while keeping  
15 both the gas barrier performance and the biodisintegrability. For doing so, blends of PHBV with PLA and  
16 compatibilization agents were obtained and their barrier performance, thermoformability and  
17 disintegrability assessed and compared to that of the pristine PHBV.

18 To evaluate the thermoforming ability of the compositions prepared, the setup and mold shown in Figure  
19 1 was employed. To the best of our knowledge, no standard procedure for assessing thermoformability has  
20 been published and/or is being widely used. Generally, the assessment of the thermoformability consist only  
21 of a simple visual inspection or, in some cases, in a thickness distribution measurement [20–24]. The absence  
22 of a standardized method to compare the thermoformability and process window of the materials has led us  
23 to develop a thermoformability evaluation procedure by screening different heating times (i.e. different  
24 sheet temperatures), while keeping constant the other processing parameters, which were independently  
25 optimized for the specific mold and sheet thickness. Visual inspection of the thermoformed structures was  
26 performed and photographs taken for the record.

### 1 3.3.1 Assessment of the thermoformability and thermoforming window of the PHBV.

2 We herein define thermoformability as the ability of a material to be successfully thermoformed into a  
3 specimen with the shape of the mold and reproducible and controlled thickness distribution. The  
4 thermoforming process window is further related to the combination of parameters that allows good  
5 thermoformability, being the temperature range the most critical for a particular material. The  
6 thermoformability and the determination of the thermoforming temperature range (process window) for  
7 PHBV (and all the blends) were accordingly assessed based on screening of the process conditions, visual  
8 inspection of the obtained samples, and comparison with the original mold. The method consisted firstly of  
9 thermoforming the sheets with the grid drawn on them. After this process, with the aid of the deformed grid,  
10 three parameters were related to the reproducibility of the mold's shape, and the thickness distribution of  
11 the molded specimen was assessed (both local and overall). These three parameters are summarized in  
12 Figure 4.a) and described as follows:

- 13 a) Edge inspection: it assesses the linearity in the joint section between the flat surface of the original  
14 sheet and the onset of the deformation (for the particular case of a tray-shaped mold, this would be  
15 the line defined by the intersecting planes of the original flat sheet and the vertical sides of the tray).
- 16 b) Corner inspection: it provides information about the mold reproducibility at the corners of the tray.
- 17 c) Thickness inspection: it evaluates the uniformity in the path and span of the squares in the grid (the  
18 shape of the grid elements are related to the local draw ratio and to the thickness distribution; high draw  
19 ratios result in high span and low thickness. On the other hand, even square-grid deformation is related  
20 to a uniform thickness distribution).

21 As a comparison, Figure 4.b presents two thermoformed trays from PLA and PHBV under the most optimal  
22 conditions for each biopolyester. It can be appreciated that PLA reproduces accurately the mold's geometry  
23 and keeps a regular thickness distribution. On the other hand, the PHBV specimen exhibits an irregular final  
24 shape, which differs from that of the mold. With respect to the thickness distribution, the PHBV presents a  
25 non-symmetric and completely irregular path in the grid, in agreement with a random thickness distribution.  
26 In order to determine the thermoforming temperature range of PHBV, identical sheets of PHBV were



1 thermoformed varying the heating time. The resulting trays were observed, paying attention to the “edge”,  
2 “corners” and “thickness” (as stated previously). Each parameter was classified as “bad” (red color, cross  
3 sign), “intermediate” (blue color, wave sign) or “good” (green color, tick mark), as depicted in Figures. 4b and  
4 4c. The upper and lower limits of the temperature range (that is, the heating time range) were established  
5 as those at which all the studied compositions resulted in a poor thermoformability. For the present setup,  
6 they were 30 and 44 seconds, respectively, using a step of 2s for the screening (see inset Fig. 1.d). When  
7 evaluating the thermoformability of the neat PHBV, according to the method proposed in this work, none of  
8 the conditions yielded in a good thermoformed tray, as shown in Figure 4.c. Thus, it could be concluded that  
9 neat PHBV showed poor thermoformability. The overall poor thermoforming behavior of the PHBV, including  
10 its narrow thermoforming temperature range, can be ascribed to its high crystallinity, which results in an  
11 abrupt loss of mechanical stability when the softening temperature is reached, thus leading to sagging effect  
12 prior to the thermoforming step [9,10]. The sagging effect results in considerable redistribution of material  
13 within the molded sheet. Nevertheless, a slight improvement in the shape of the samples was accounted for  
14 heating times of 36 and 38s. Under these conditions, the so-obtained thermoformed trays are considered as  
15 intermediate (blue color). Figure 4.d summarizes the thermoformability of the PHBV trays (represented by  
16 the color code) as a function of the thermoforming temperature within the analyzed time range.

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### 20 3.3.2 Thermoformability of the PHBV/PLA blends

21 Figure 5 summarizes the evaluation of the thermoforming ability for all the PHBV/PLA blends studied  
22 (with and without the compatibilizers) as a function of the heating time, including representative pictures of  
23 the thermoformed trays. From the figure, it can be deduced that the incorporation of the PLA to the PHBV  
24 resulted in a slight improvement with respect to the thermoformability of the PHBV. However, neither a  
25 more limited thickness variation nor an increase in the thermoforming temperature range could be observed.  
26 The limited effect of the addition of the PLA was assigned to the lack of compatibility between the two

1 polymers. The absence of compatibility was reported in a previous work [18] by SEM observations as well as  
2 by DSC and DMA, where two independent glass transition temperatures were clearly observed. However, as  
3 the compatibilizers were added to the blend, it greatly improved the thermoformability of the PHBV/PLA,  
4 with thermoforming enhancements as a function of the used compatibilizer.

5 The incorporation of HMDI to the PHBV/PLA blend resulted in a wider thermoforming temperature  
6 window, although the overall thermoformability of the blend was still classified as intermediate even in the  
7 best temperature range (30 to 40s heating). All the HMDI thermoformed trays showed poor reproducibility  
8 in the round corners of the mold. A small improvement in the thickness distribution, as determined from a  
9 more homogenous and predictable path of the square-grid, was observed. With respect to the samples  
10 containing polyHMDI and PDI, both compositions allowed a wider thermoforming temperature window,  
11 when compared to the neat PHBV and PHBV/PLA. Moreover, a good thermoformability (green color) was  
12 achieved for the first time in the samples obtained in the temperature range from 112 to 122 and from 112  
13 to 124 °C for the polyHMDI and PDI, respectively. The samples processed at the limits of the studied  
14 temperature range showed however intermediate thermoforming compliance, according to the  
15 methodology used. Interestingly, the thickness distribution of the obtained samples was repetitive for all the  
16 samples and compositions, thus being predictable and controllable, and the samples resulted in trays that  
17 perfectly reproduced the geometry of the mold.

18 The positive outcome in terms of thermoformability when PLA with the compatibilizers were  
19 incorporated to the PHBV, and the expanded thermoforming temperature range can be ascribed to two  
20 phenomena: 1. an enhancement in the sheet stability during heating prior to thermoforming and, 2. an  
21 increase in the elasticity of the molten blend during the thermoforming. The former phenomenon is  
22 attributed to an improved interaction between the dispersed amorphous phase and the continuous  
23 crystalline phase. Such interactions are important at temperatures close to the softening point of the  
24 crystalline phase, and leads to an increase in the overall viscosity of the system [18]. This higher viscosity  
25 results in a reduction of the sagging effect and therefore, a better control of the thickness distribution during  
26 the distribution of the thermoplastic in the mold. Increasing thermoformability of highly crystalline polymers

1 by blending them with amorphous polymers was previously reported by Gimenez et al. [9,10]. The increase  
2 in the stability of the polymer system during the heating stage, prior to the deformation, and an increase in  
3 the elasticity of PHBV blends when compared to the pure PHBV was also reported for processing of PHVB  
4 blends in injection molding [25,26]. The higher elasticity, on the contrary, enables more extensive  
5 deformation of the sheet and therefore better definition of the geometry of the mold used.

6 Overall, both the enhanced stability and the improved elasticity are positive for the thermoforming outcome.  
7 Thus, the improvement in the thermoformability and in the thermoforming process windows in this work  
8 was a combined effect of enhanced sheet stability, counteracting a sudden drop in viscosity during  
9 thermoforming, and an improved phase interaction due to the use of diisocyanates.

### 10 **3.4. Degradation in composting conditions**

11 PHBV and PLA are well known for undergoing biodegradation in composting conditions within a short  
12 time, being this one of the main advantages of these materials for short time applications, such as packaging.  
13 Therefore, the melt blending of both polymers should, in principle, result in a completely biodegradable  
14 material. However, as in this work the blends of the two biopolyesters have been compatibilized with  
15 diisocyanates, the possibility of the isocyanates to interfere with the biodegradation was explored.  
16 Disintegration tests under composting conditions of all the compositions were therefore performed,  
17 monitoring the weight loss of the samples over time according to the ISO 20200 standard [19]. Results are  
18 summarized in Figure 6.

19 Figure 6.a shows the evolution of disintegration (% of weight loss vs. time) for neat PHBV, neat PLA,  
20 PHBV/PLA and the compatibilized blends (HMDI, polyHMDI and PDI). All tests were performed in lab-scale  
21 composting conditions. When compared the Neat PLA and Neat PHBV curves, some differences arise. Neat  
22 PLA shows a very short induction time in combination with fast disintegration, being fully disintegrated within  
23 the first two weeks. Neat PHBV, on the other hand, did not undergo significant weight variations during the  
24 first 8 days, in agreement with other reported works performed with the same grade of PHBV [27,28].  
25 Additionally, although both disintegration vs. time curves present an exponential trend, the maximum slope  
26 of the Neat PLA is higher than the Neat PHBV one. To visually assess the impact over time of the composting

1 process on the tested samples, images of the studied blends were taken at different time points (Figure 6.b).  
2 The first sample of Neat PLA taken out from the compost reactor at the 8<sup>th</sup> day was already broken into pieces  
3 showing loss of transparency. According to Arrieta et al. and Fortunati et al. [29,30], this effect is the result  
4 of changes in the refraction index, water sorption and/or the presence of hydrolytic products during bacterial  
5 biodegradation. With respect to the PHBV-based materials, a noticeable surface roughness can be observed  
6 for composting times over 15 days. This surface roughness indicates the onset of the disintegration, since the  
7 biodegradation of PHAs takes place by means of a surface erosion by the microorganisms[31,32].

8 The differences in biodegradation onset time and rate of disintegration for PLA and PHBV can be ascribed  
9 to the accessibility of the microorganism involved in the biodegradation to the available amorphous polymer  
10 chains, which act as nourishment. Accordingly, the biodegradation takes place in the amorphous fraction of  
11 the biopolyesters rather than on the crystals. Therefore, the biodegradation of the amorphous PLA is favored  
12 over the highly crystalline PHBV as reported by Arrieta et al. [33]. This reasoning is consistent with the  
13 behavior observed for the PHBV/PLA blends, where the degradation takes place in two steps. The first one,  
14 with a weight loss up to 25%, is the fastest one and can be ascribed mostly to the PLA content of the blend,  
15 whilst the second one would correspond mainly to the PHBV fraction. On the other hand, during the step  
16 attributed to the PHBV fraction, an increase of the disintegration rate is detected when compared with the  
17 neat PHBV, which can be related with an increase in the specific surface derived from the voids resulting from  
18 the disintegration of the PLA droplets. The differences observed among the biodesintegration curves of the  
19 blends can be explained by the accessibility of the microorganisms to the PLA fraction, which results in a  
20 delay in the degradation onset with respect to neat PLA and also in variations in the initial disintegration rate,  
21 which in turn is faster as is larger the average size of the dispersed phase (c.f Fig. 2).

22 In order to corroborate all the above reasoning, a morphological study of the samples after 20 days in  
23 composting conditions has been carried out. Figure 6.c presents SEM micrographs of the surface of PHBV and  
24 PHBV/PLA blends. The neat PHBV sample shows a uniform rough surface, but the blends show some voids in  
25 the surface. The size of these voids is bigger for the uncompatibilized PHBV/PLA blend, following the same  
26 order for the rest of the blends as their average particle size decrease. According to our previous assumptions

1 based on weight loss, after 20 days most of the PLA phase should have been already biodegraded, leaving  
2 those voids in the samples. In Figure 6.d and 6.e it is presented a higher magnification detail of the surface  
3 of the neat PHBV and the PDI samples, respectively, where the voids in the PDI sample are clearly visible.  
4 Indeed, the bacterial growth and the surface erosion of the samples are noticeable in these images. All of the  
5 above leads us to the conclusion that the incorporation of diisocyanates as compatibilizers in PHBV/PLA  
6 blends in the present dosage does not negatively affect the biodisintegrability, with only small variations  
7 related with the size of the dispersed PLA domains within the PHBV matrix.

#### 8 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

9 PHBV is a potential good candidate to replace petroleum-based polymers in the packaging sector due to  
10 its excellent barrier properties and biodisintegrability. However, PHBV copolymers present some  
11 shortcomings for its direct implementation in this sector. One of the main shortcoming arises from its poor  
12 thermoformability (defined as the ability to be successfully reproduce the shape of a mold with a controlled  
13 thickness distribution) and its narrow thermoforming window (defined as the temperature range at which  
14 good thermoformability is achieved). In this work, blends of PHBV with PLA and three different  
15 compatibilizers (hexamethylene diisocyanate, (HMDI), poly(hexamethylene) diisocyanate (polyHMDI) and  
16 1,4-phenylene diisocyanate (PDI)) diisocyanates have been obtained by melt blending. The  
17 thermoformability, barrier properties and biodisintegrability of the so-obtained were investigated. In order  
18 to assess the thermoformability of the materials, a simple method for assessing qualitatively the  
19 thermoforming capacity of any polymeric film is proposed. Slight enhancement in the thermoforming  
20 capacity of PHBV is observed when HMDI is incorporated to the PHBV/PLA blend. On the other hand, good  
21 mold reproducibility is accomplished for a wide range of temperatures for both the polyHMDI and PDI blends,  
22 being the best ones obtained with PDI. Besides, the addition of diisocyanates did not substantially change  
23 the barrier properties of the PHBV/PLA blends, nor does negatively affect the biodisintegration with respect  
24 to PHBV. Overall, the use of diisocyanate-type compatibilizers has proven to be a convenient approach to  
25 improve thermoformability of PHBV/PLA blends, thus extending the usability of PHBV in thermoformed  
26 packaging applications.

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1 Figure captions:

2 Fig. 1: Image of the a) thermoforming facility, b) thermoforming chamber, c) mold and d) Sheet temperature  
3 as a function of the heating time.

4 Fig. 2: SEM micrographs of a) PHBV/PLA blend, b) HMDI, c) polyHMDI, d) PDI and e) diameter distribution of  
5 PLA domains of PHBV/PLA blend and compatibilized blends.

6 Fig. 3: a) Water vapor and b) oxygen permeability of the neat materials and their blends.

7 Fig. 4: a) parameters defined in the method on a thermoformed PLA tray, b) an example of the thermoformed  
8 trays for PLA and PHBV, c) thermoformed PHBV trays at different heating times evaluated according to the  
9 method and d) thermoforming temperature range according to the method.

10 Fig. 5: Photographs of the thermoformed structures depending on the processing temperature and  
11 thermoforming temperature range for Neat PHBV, PHBV/PLA blend and the PHBV/PLA compatibilized  
12 blends.

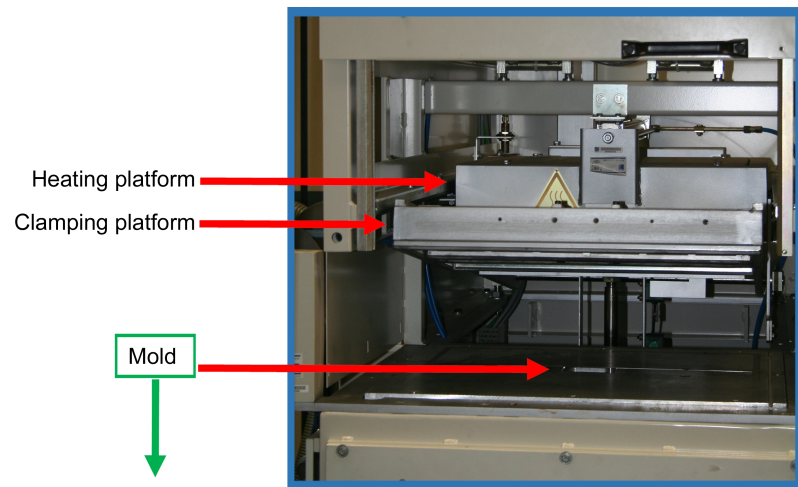
13 Fig. 6: a) Disintegration curve, b) photographs of the disintegrated samples at different times, c) SEM  
14 micrographs of eroded surfaces after 20 days under composting conditions, d) and e) SEM micrographs of  
15 bacteria colonies after 20 days of composting of PHBV/PLA blend and PDI, respectively.

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1 Table 1: Nomenclature and composition of studied PHBV, PLA and PHBV/PLA blends.

SAMPLE	Weigh percentage		Molar ratio			Compatibilizer (phr)
	PHBV	PLA	HMDI	polyHMDI	PDI	
Neat PHBV	100					
Neat PLA		100				
PHBV/PLA	75	25				
HMDI	75	25	1:20			1,26
polyHMDI	75	25		1:20		2,27
PDI	75	25			1:20	1,20

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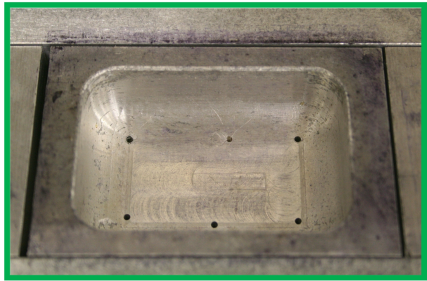


Heating platform

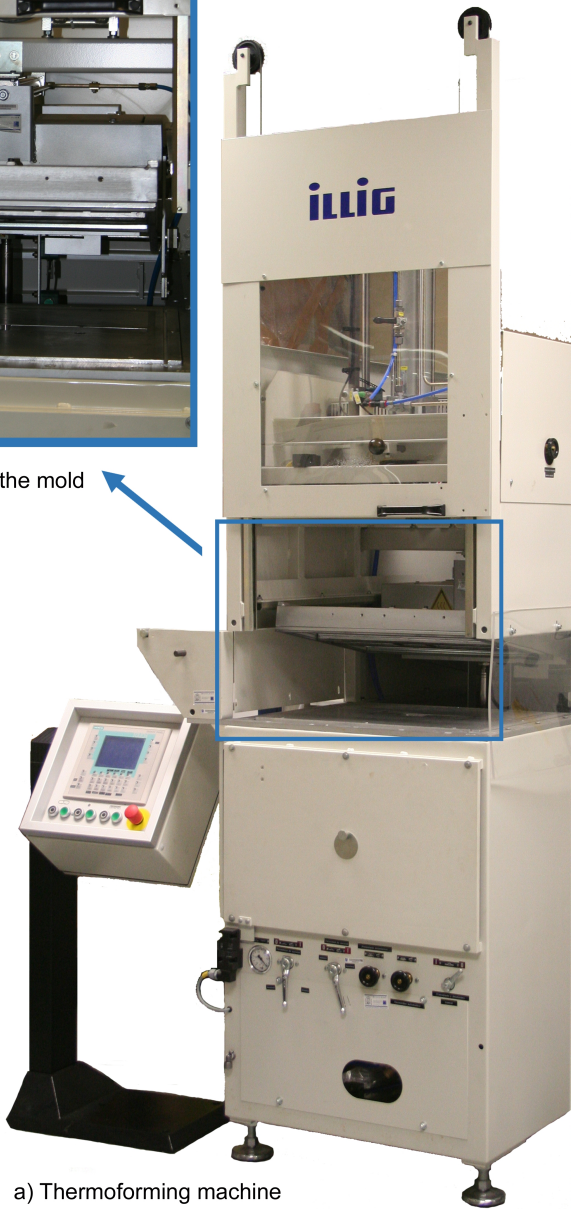
Clamping platform

Mold

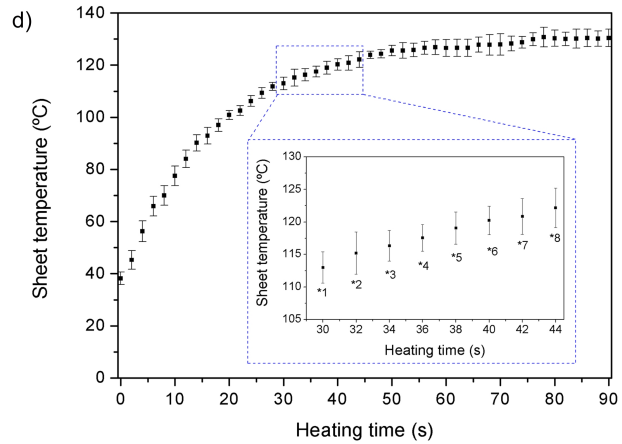
c) Tray-like mold shape (40x60x20 mm)



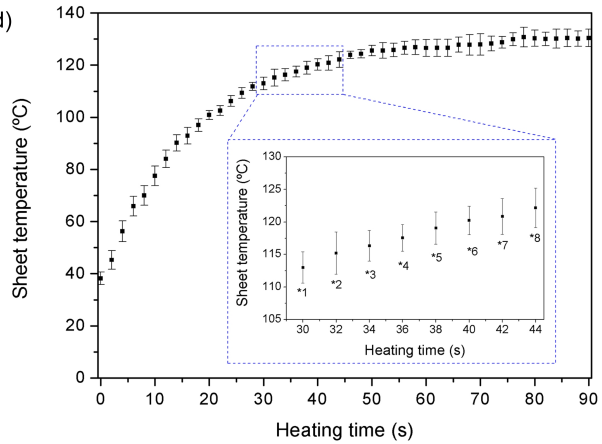
b) Detail of the platforms and the mold

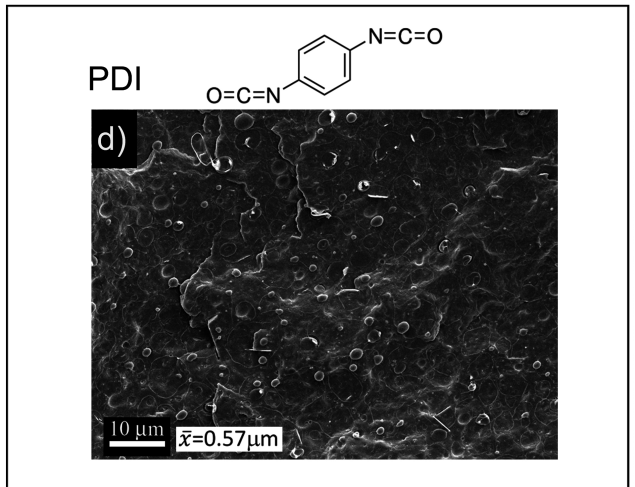
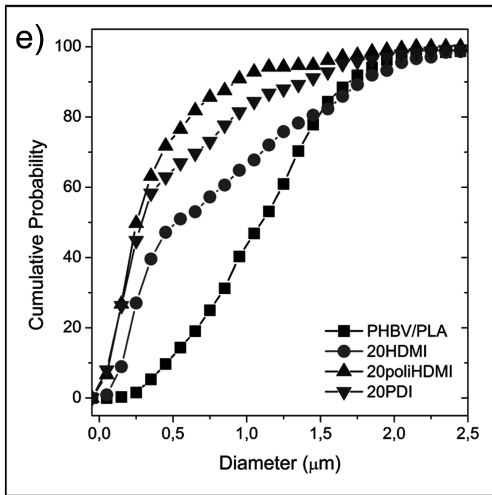
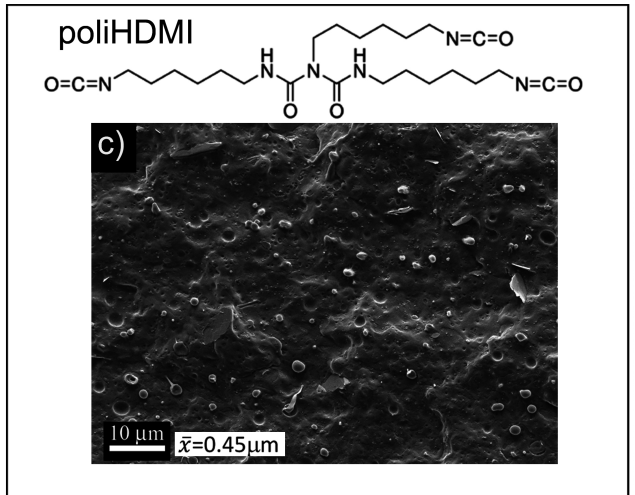
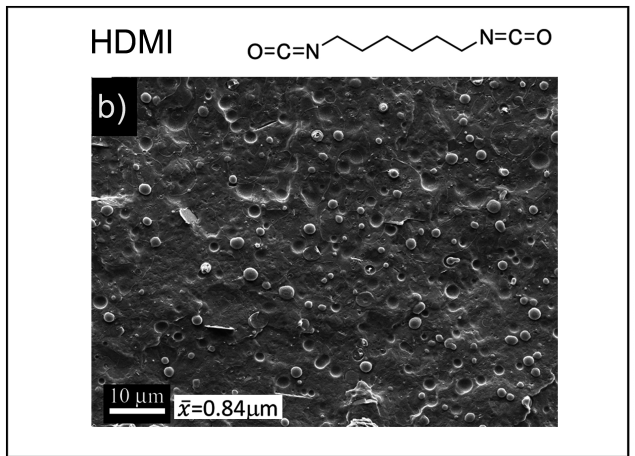
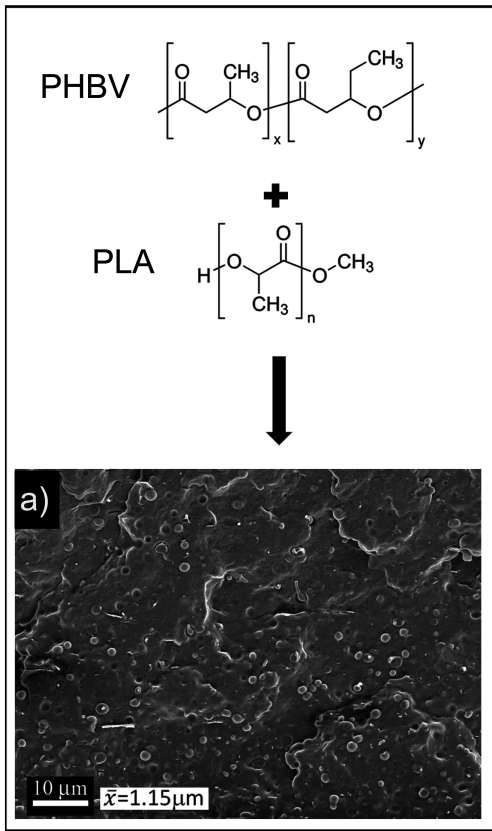


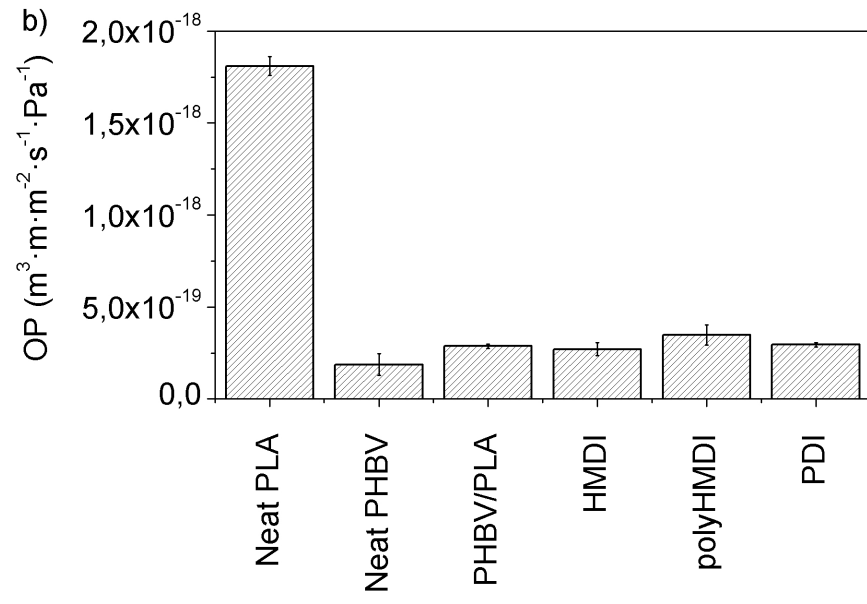
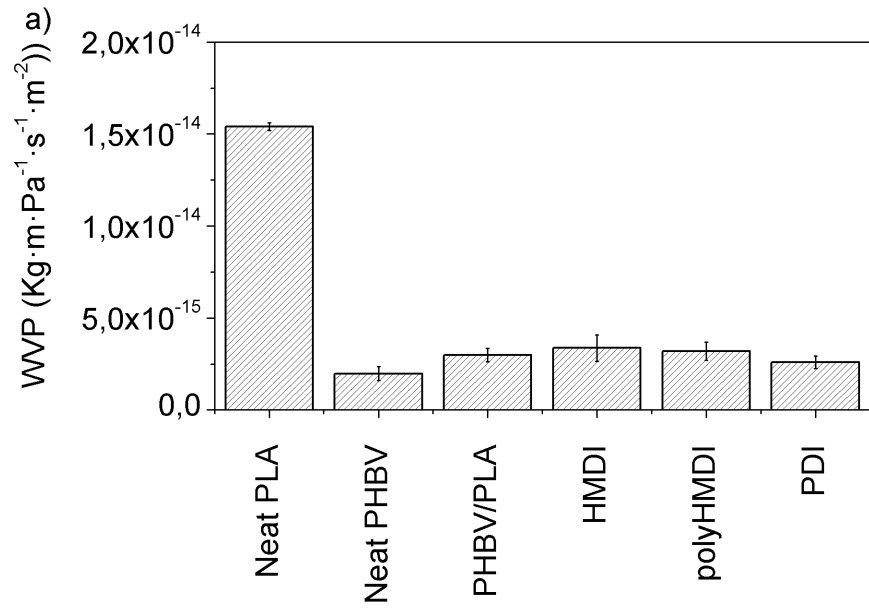
a) Thermoforming machine



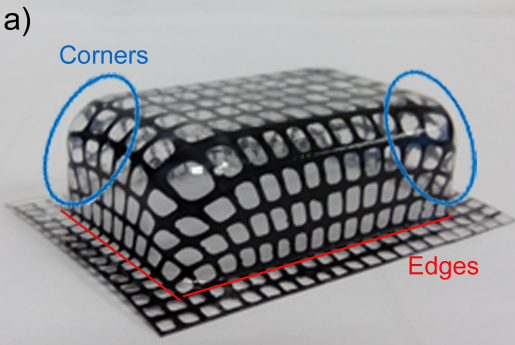
d)







a)



Corners

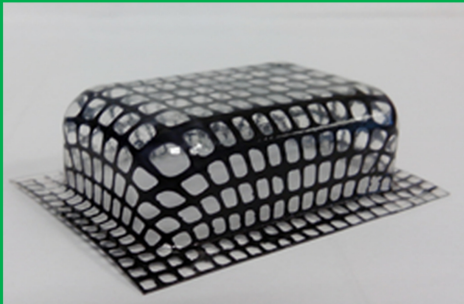
Edges

Parameters to define a good thermoformed structure:

- \* mold reproducibility
  - linearity in the junction area between the horizontal and vertical sides of the mold
  - curvature in the rounded corners
- \* distribution of thickness
  - path of squares stamped


b)

PLA



edge ✓
corner ✓
thickn. ✓

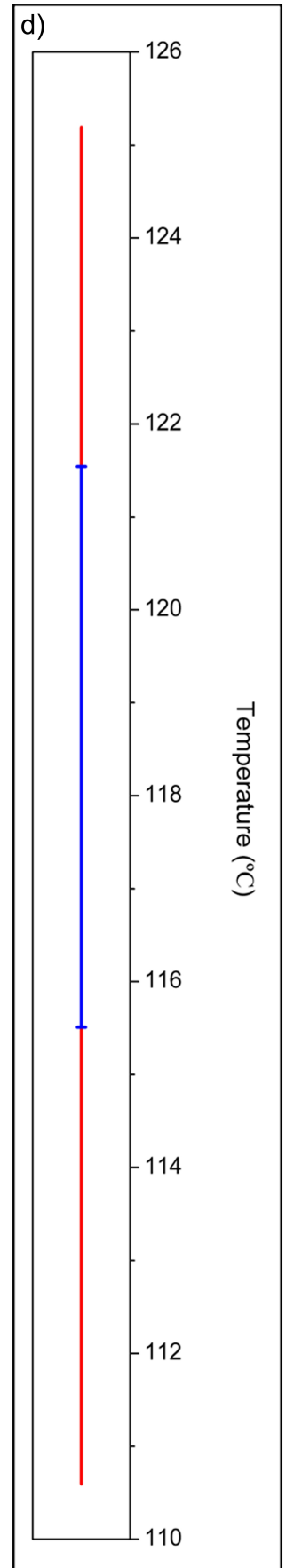
PHBV



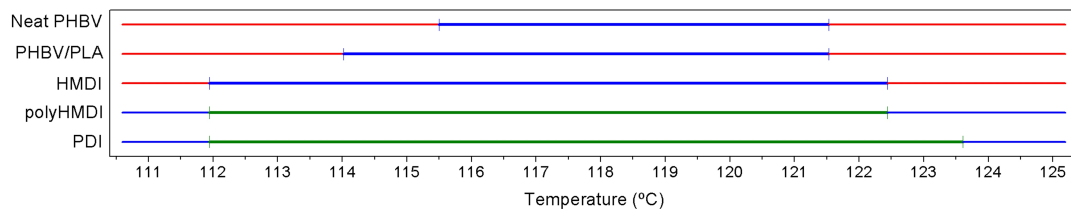
edge ✗
corner ✗
thickn. ✗

c) PHBV

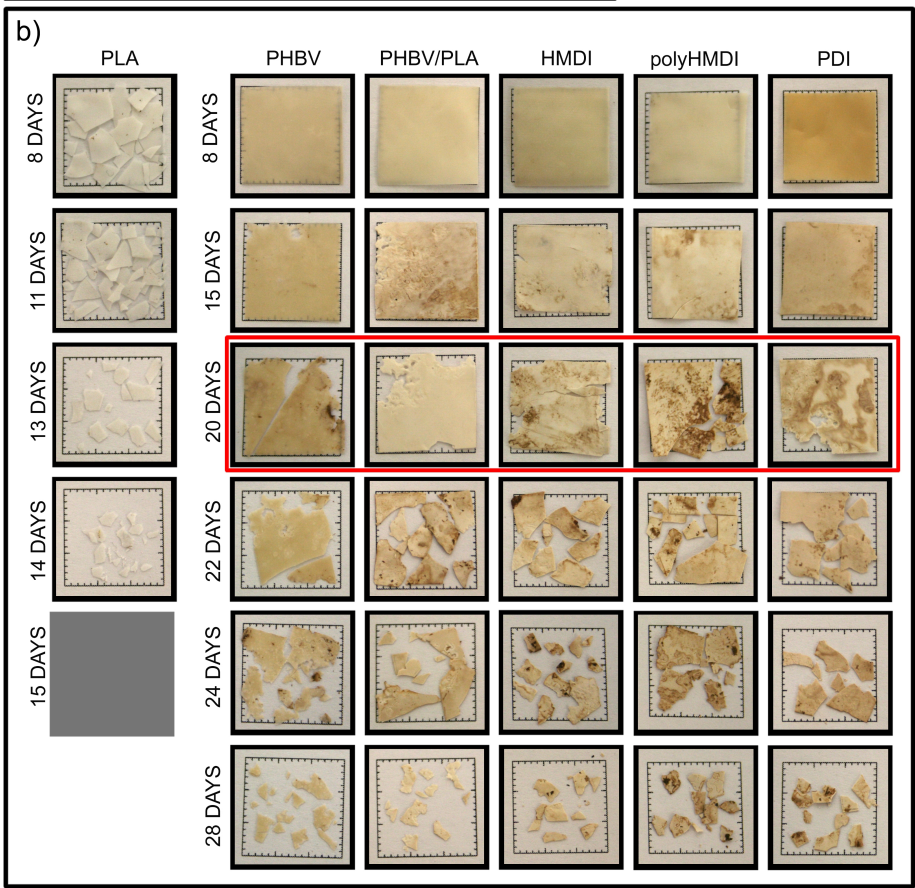
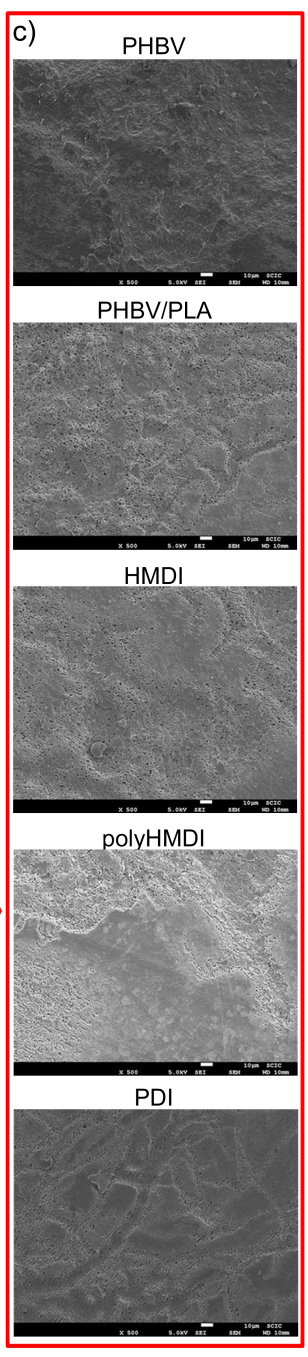
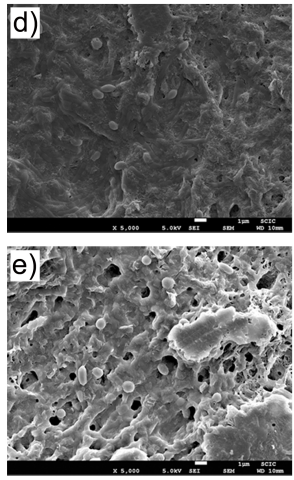
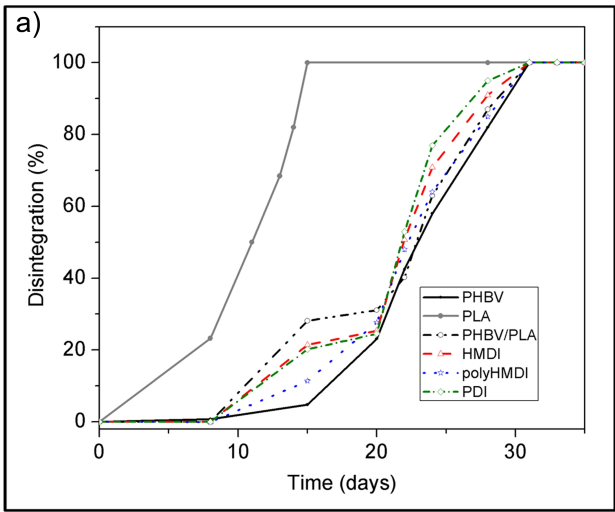
30s		edge ✗	corner ✗	thickn. ✗
32s		edge ✗	corner ✗	thickn. ✗
34s		edge ✗	corner ≈	thickn. ✗
36s		edge ≈	corner ≈	thickn. ≈
38s		edge ≈	corner ≈	thickn. ≈
40s		edge ✗	corner ✗	thickn. ✗
42s		edge ✗	corner ✗	thickn. ✗
44s		edge ✗	corner ✗	thickn. ✗

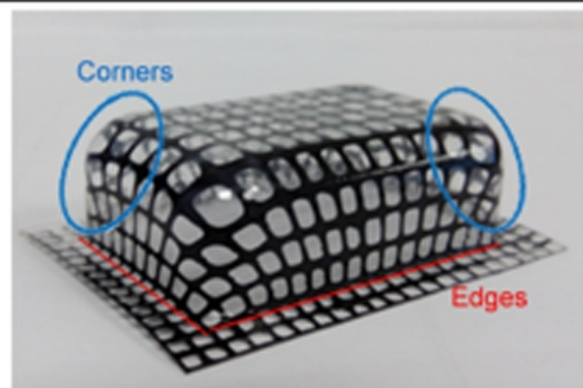








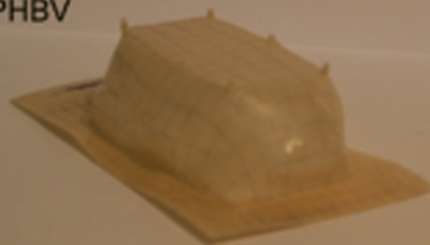




Parameters to define a good thermoformed structure:

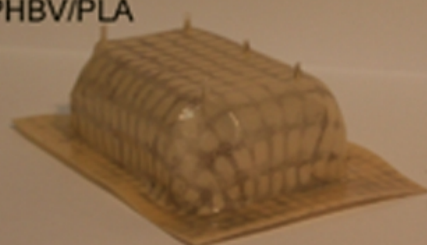
- \* mold reproducibility
  - linearity in the junction area between the horizontal and vertical sides of the mold
  - curvature in the rounded corners
- \* distribution of thickness
  - path of squares stamped

PHBV



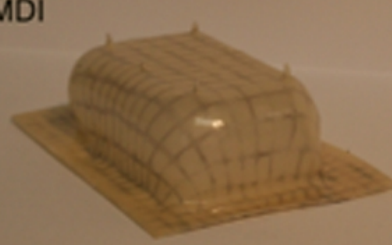
edge ❌ corner ❌ thickn. ❌

PHBV/PLA



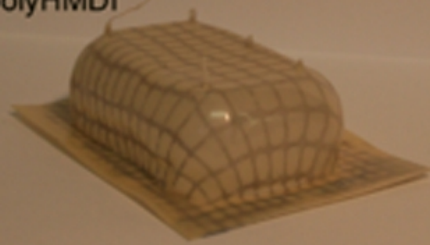
edge ✅ corner ❌ thickn. ≈

HMDI



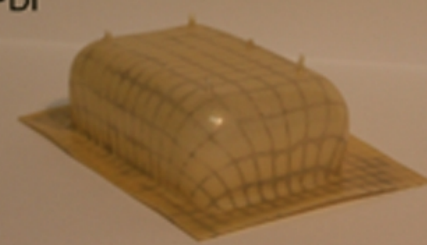
edge ✅ corner ≈ thickn. ✅

polyHMDI



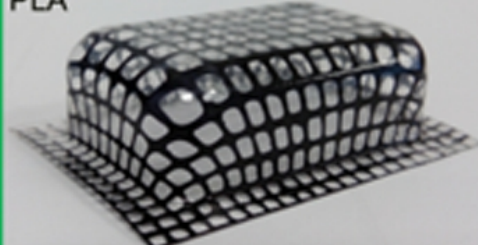
edge ✅ corner ✅ thickn. ✅

PDI



edge ✅ corner ✅ thickn. ✅

PLA



edge ✅ corner ✅ thickn. ✅