1	Study on Properties of New Biodegradable Plant Fiber (Agave Decipiens) for Polymer
2	Reinforcement
3	
4	Aravinth K <sup>1*</sup> , Ramakrishnan T <sup>2</sup>
5	<sup>1</sup> Research Scholar, Department of Mechanical Engineering, Sri Eshwar College of Engineering,
6	Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu-641202, India.
7	<sup>2</sup> Associate Professor, Department of Mechanical Engineering, Sri Eshwar College of Engineering,
8	Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu-641202, India.
9	*Corresponding author:
10	E-mail: aravinth.k2021ftscholar@sece.ac.in, tel: +91 - 9025614583
	CERTEDMAN

# 11 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



## 27 ABSTRACT

28 The article involves in the process of study on novel plant fiber from agave plant species known as 29 agave decipiens. The fiber was mechanically extracted from their leaves and fiber was chemically 30 treated using sodium hydroxide by 5% (w/v). Using various analyses, the fiber was characterized and its properties were obtained. From chemical constituent analysis it was confirmed that hemicellulose, 31 32 amorphous lignin, and other impurities were removed to some extent, and using x-ray diffraction 33 (XRD), an improvement in crystallinity index (CrI) was observed (i.e. from 47.99% to 52.29%). 34 Increased crystallinity provides better tensile stress from 479.302 MPa to 494.172 MPa, which was 35 confirmed by single fiber tensile test. A change in physical diameter was observed using a digital 36 microscope, the outer diameter was reduced to 117.66µm from 121.84µm. Change in chemical components was identified by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR). Alkaline-treated 37 (AT) fiber sustains a temperature of about 240°C during thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). Study 38 39 on surface morphology was conducted with help of scanning electron microscope (SEM). Concluding that alkaline treatment made some impact on fiber characteristics and made it suitable for 40 41 reinforcement.

42 Keywords: Biomaterial, Natural Fiber, Agave Decipiens, Alkaline Treatment, Cellulose,
43 Crystallinity

### 44 **1. Introduction**

Materials having excellent mechanical property and less impact on the environment has prompted a slew of studies into bio-sourced polymer composites. Plant-based fibers attract the most scientific interest of any natural fiber because they are abundant, cost-effective, bio-degradable, and they possess reasonable mechanical strength (Santos et al., 2022). Characteristics of natural fibers are primarily influenced depending on fiber constituents like hemicellulose, amorphous lignin, cellulose, and other impurities say wax and dust particles. Fiber strength and stiffness were determined by the presence of these chemical components (Krika et al., 2021; Ramakrishnan et al., 2022).

Mostly all plant fibers were made-up of intricate structure, which contains a center channel as a lumen 52 53 and covered by the cell wall. Lumen layer is used to transport food and water. The cell wall is made up of 3 layers: primary wall, secondary wall, and middle lamella. Primary wall consists of lignin, 54 cellulose, pectin, and hemicelluloses. Crystalline cellulose will present in the secondary wall and it 55 56 was surrounded by other chemical constituents. Hemicelluloses are adhered around the cellulose using hydrogen bonding, while the intermediate wall/lamella offers structural properties to the fiber. 57 In plant fiber percentage of micro-fibril angle, cellulose, and hemicelluloses rules the strength of the 58 59 natural fibers, which also differs from plant to plant (Latif et al., 2019). The fiber strength can be improved by various surface modifications, and an altered fiber surface has less attractive to moisture. 60 61 That is hydroxyl group gets eliminated from the fiber which lowers the hydrophilic property (Kabir 62 et al., 2012).

Komal et al., (2018) took 5% (m/v) sodium hydroxide solution for treating the banana fiber about 5 hours. The author confessed that fiber resin interfacial bonding and thermal stability were improved after chemical modification. Fractography justifies the change in the percentage of chemical components in untreated (UT) fiber and alkaline-treated (AT) fiber. Guo et al., (2019) modified kenaf fiber using 5% sodium hydroxide followed by other oxidizing agents. The reduction of chemical constituents in the fiber was evident by chemical composition analysis, TGA, and FTIR tests. The author noticed that after chemical treatment, the fiber had less moisture absorption and improved 70 crystalline index and tensile strength. The author confirmed that solely alkaline treatment itself 71 removes most of the chemical constituents from the fiber, if much improvement is required alkaline 72 followed by hydrogen peroxide treatment was suggested. Hamidon et al., (2019) concludes that surface modification increases the bonding between fiber and resin. Such treatment also reduces water 73 74 adsorption i.e. hydrophilic property gets diminished. Mostly all surface treatments aided to improve 75 fiber properties, fiber suitability, and fiber-resin adhesion. Mentioned that chemical treatment up to 76 certain concentrations increased the mechanical properties and also provides better bonding between 77 fiber and resin. Over the optimum concentration, alkaline treatment reduces mechanical 78 characteristics. Water absorption also gets reduced because of the chemical treatment. Changes in 79 fiber characteristics are observed using SEM and FTIR analysis and thermal behavior using 80 TGA/DTG analyses (Venkatachalam et al., 2016).

Neto et al., (2019) carried out alkaline and saline treatment for hybrid fibers (jute, sisal, ramie, 81 82 curaua). Used 2g of NaOH in 100ml of water and soaked the fibers for one hour and followed by a saline solution maintained under a pH of 5. The author admits that alkaline treatment increases fiber 83 roughness and chemical treatment improves the fiber's thermal stability. Sgriccia et al., (2008) 84 experimented with kenaf, flax, and hemp fibers by treating them using 5% sodium hydroxide solution 85 for about an hour and followed by saline treatment. Author noted that lignin and hemicellulose are 86 87 removed from the fiber, and traces of saline coating was observed using SEM. Thespesia Lampas plant fiber was immersed in a 2% (w/v) alkaline solution and left for one day. The finding revealed 88 89 that mechanical strength of alkaline-treated (AT) fiber was better than untreated (UT) fiber. Fiber 90 roughness was examined using SEM micrographs. Other analyses like chemical analysis, FTIR, 91 XRD, and TGA support the chemical treatment done (Reddy et al., 2014). Prithiviraj and 92 Muralikannan, (2022) performed a surface modification using 5% NaOH alkaline solution for perotis 93 indica fiber under different soaking times say, 1min, 30mins, 45mins, 60mins, and 75mins. The 94 author concluded that fiber tensile value was improved in 60mins of soaking time compared to other 95 timings. From TGA and DTG curves, thermal property of the fiber increased to 20°C. XRD analysis 96 proves that the crystalline index got raised from 48.3% to 55.43%. Presence of cellulosic components 97 was proved by the FTIR spectrogram. The survey indicates that alkaline treatment can affect the 98 surface of the fiber by eliminating undesirable substances, leading to a higher percentage of cellulose. 99 This ultimately increases the fiber's strength, making it a viable material for polymer reinforcement. 100 So, it is an indeed requirement to alter the fiber properties through chemical treatment mostly by 101 alkaline solution.

Natural fiber-reinforced composite opens up new opportunities for all scientists and researchers, with 102 103 an emphasis on the advantages of generating bio-degradable materials. From decades to the current 104 scenario, enormous novel plant fiber varieties like abutilon indicum, saccharum bengalense grass, 105 vernonia elaeagnifolia, purple bauhinia, furcraea foetida, juncus effusus L., cryptostegia grandiflora, fibers from stems of leucasaspera, cardio spermum halicababum, derris scandens, grewia damine, 106 107 cissus vitiginea, barks of vachellia farnesiana, areca palm leaf stalk, calotropis gigantea fruit bunch, 108 fiber from ficus religiosa tree roots, etc., were identified, characterized, and providing an alternative 109 resource for composite reinforcement instead of synthetic fibers.

The study introduces a novel fiber (agave decipiens plant fiber) to the list of discovered novel fibers. The properties of agave decipiens fiber were not discovered or studied by any researchers and no significant research had examined predominantly in field of natural fiber composites. The study involves in the process of investigating the vital properties of untreated (UT) and alkaline-treated (AT) agave decipiens fiber to find its reinforcing capability in polymer composites

- 115 2. Resources and Techniques
- 116 2.1. Extraction of Fiber

Large, mature, fresh agave decipiens leaves were identified and obtained from the rural areas of Coimbatore district, Tamil Nadu, which was shown in figure 1. At first, agave decipiens leaves were cut down from the plant, then the thrones at the two edges of the leaves were removed using a normal knife. Fibers were extracted using mechanical decortication method. By feeding the leaves inside a fast-rotating cylindrical roller, the pulps from the leave were removed by leaving the fiber alone.

- 122 Next, the fiber was washed 2-3 times to remove the contaminates and it was allowed to dry in open
- 123 sunlight. Figure 2, shows the extraction of agave decipiens fiber (Kathirselvam et al., 2019; Kumar
- 124 and Sekaran, 2014; Thirumalaisamy and Subramani, 2018).



Figure 1. Agave Decipiens plant



127

125

126

128

Figure 2. Extraction of fiber from leaves

- 129 2.2. Surface Treatment
- 130 The extracted raw fiber contains impurities and unwanted chemical substances over the fiber surface.
- 131 So it cannot be directly used for reinforcement. If raw fiber was utilized for reinforcement without
- 132 chemical processing there occurs a poor interlocking between fiber and resin, which obviously

decreases the laminate strength. Water absorbance will easily take place because of the presence of
hydroxyl functional group (–OH) in the form of hemicellulose. Considering these negative impacts,
it is preferred to perform a chemical treatment. There are various types of fiber chemical treatment
available and from which alkali treatment provides better results (Hamidon et al., 2019; Ramshankar
et al., 2023; Venkatachalam et al., 2016).

For this research work, based on the literature study alkaline (NaOH) chemical treatment was performed for the new cellulosic agave decipiens plant fiber. At first, the fiber was cleaned with fresh water and immersed in a sodium hydroxide solution prepared with 5% (w/v) concentration and allowed to soak for up to 3 hours. Figure 3 demonstrates the alkaline treatment for agave decipiens fiber. The fiber was then rinsed once again with fresh water to eliminate any remaining sodium hydroxide traces, and dried at 100°C for half an hour. (Guo et al., 2019; Komal et al., 2018; Prithiviraj and Muralikannan, 2022; Sgriccia et al., 2008).



145

146

Figure 3. Alkali (NaOH) Treatment 5% (w/v)

- 147 2.3. Experimental Analysis
- 148 2.3.1. Diameter Measurement

Fiber diameter measurement is an essential function by which change in the diameter after alkaline treatment can be observed and it was very useful in calculating the fiber tensile value based on equation 1 (Guo et al., 2019; Puspita et al., 2023). A digital microscope was used for diameter measurement. Measurement was taken at various points and the average value can be calculated. To 153 do this 25 samples of fibers each from both untreated (UT) and alkaline-treated (AT) fibers were

154 used.

155 2.3.2. Single Fiber Tensile Test

As per ASTM D3822-07 (Ding et al., 2022; Moshi et al., 2020), tensile strength of agave decipiens fiber (ADF) was tested using Zwick Roell Z010 tensile tester. 25 numbers of single fiber were randomly taken in both UT and AT fibers. Maintained a gauge length of around 75mm by constantly moving the crosshead at 5mm/min. The tensile test results provide the maximum load at which the fiber fails with respect to % of elongation.

161 Tensile stress = 
$$\frac{\text{Maximum Load at Failure}}{\text{Area of the fiber}}$$

162 Tensile stress = 
$$\frac{F_{max}}{\frac{1}{4}\pi d^2}$$

163 Where  $F_{max}$  is the maximum force at fiber failure and d denotes the diameter or cross-section 164 (considering fiber has a circular cross-section)

#### 165 2.3.3. X-Ray Diffraction analysis

Fiber crystallinity was evaluated by Rigaku Ultima IV X-Ray diffractometer having Cu as target element used for the XRD measurement. The radiation was measured at 2θ between 5° and 60° under the rate of 2°/min with 0.001° step size. Equation 2 is known as Segal empirical method (Ding et al., 2022; Prithiviraj and Muralikannan, 2022; Vijay et al., 2020) which was used to calculate the CrI based on the peak intensities observed in the XRD chart. Using Debye–Scherrer equation 3 (Babu et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2019) the crystalline size (CrS) of the fiber was calculated.

172 % of CrI = 
$$\left(\frac{I_{200} - I_{100}}{I_{200}}\right) X \, 100$$
 (2)

173 Where, 
$$I_{200}$$
 – Amorphous Peak Intensity,  $I_{100}$  – Crystalline Peak Intensity

174 
$$\operatorname{CrS} = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta\cos\theta}$$
 (3)

175 Where,  $I_{200}$  – Amorphous Peak Intensity,  $I_{100}$  – Crystalline Peak Intensity. In equation (3), the 176 Scherrer constant (0.89) is provided for k,  $\lambda$  known as X-ray radiation's wavelength (0.154 nm),  $\beta$  is

(1)

177 referred to as full width at half maximum (FWHM) diffraction peak obtained from XRD peak, Bragg 178 angle was denoted by  $\theta$ .

#### 179 2.3.4. Physico-Chemical Analysis

Chemical composition analysis of fiber is important to predict the presence of various chemical 180 181 components, which gives the percentage of constituents that have been removed through alkali 182 treatment. Based on the survey, pycnometer was used to measure the fiber density, where liquid 183 toluene a known density (0.866 g/cc) was used as an immersion liquid (Kathirselvam et al., 2019; Ravindran et al., 2020). Cellulose was identified by Kursher and Hoffer's method and Conrad method 184 185 was performed to identify the wax content (Manimaran et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2021; Rajeshkumar et al., 2021; Udhayakumar et al., 2023; Vijay et al., 2022). Hemicellulose and lignin were predicted 186 using NFT 12-008 (Ganapathy et al., 2019; Rajeshkumar et al., 2021; Vijay et al., 2022) and Klason 187 method respectively (Shanmugasundaram et al., 2018; Vijay et al., 2021). Finally, Sartorius MA45 188 189 moisture analyzer was used to find the moisture content and ash content known by ASTM E1755-01 190 (Khan et al., 2021; Moshi et al., 2020; Vinod et al., 2021).

191 2.3.5. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

192 Chemical components in the form of chemical/functional bonds were observed using Schimazu IR 193 Affinity 1S FTIR spectroscopy. With the help of functional group identification, change in the 194 chemical components before and after alkaline treatment was identified using FTIR spectroscopy. To 195 do this 2mg of fiber was crushed and mixed with zinc selenide (ZnSe) crystal for spectrum absorbance 196 in a pallet shape and size. The spectral wavelength was measured between 4000cm<sup>-1</sup> to 400cm<sup>-1</sup> with 197 a resolution of 0.5cm<sup>-1</sup>.

198 2.3.6. Thermogravimetric Analysis

SDT Q600 analyzer (TA Instruments) was used to investigate the thermal stability of agave decipiens fiber. A platinum crucible containing 2.5mg of powdered fiber was used for TG analysis, experiment was conducted between the temperature of 25°C and 700°C maintaining a constant heating rate of 10°C/min under the influence of nitrogen environment. Due to change in the temperature, constituents present in the fiber gets decomposed, which results in weight reduction.

# 204 2.3.7. Differential Scanning Calorimetry

DSC Q20 (TA Instruments) was utilized to investigate the different thermal transition phases in untreated (UT) and alkaline treated (AT) agave decipiens fiber. To perform this analysis, fiber measuring of 2mg was taken in an aluminum pan and a heating rate of 10°C/min was maintained. The complete heat flow study was done under a nitrogen gas atmosphere within the temperature range of 209 20°C to 400°C.

210 2.3.8. Scanning Electron Microscope

Outer structure, presence of porosity, and fiber surface roughness were observed using scanning electron microscope (SEM). Micrographs of UT and AT fiber were obtained using ZESSIS FESEM SIGMA VP 03-04 scanned at 2 kV. Meanwhile, natural fiber is a non-conductive material before conducting SEM analysis sputtering coating was performed to get clear views of micrographs.

# 215 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 216 *3.1. Diameter measurement*

Sample measurement of fiber diameter using a digital microscope was given in figure 4. Alkali treatment will have an impact on the fiber diameter. After alkaline treatment, fiber diameter gets reduced due to the elimination of unwanted impurities, cellulosic components, and waxy substances present over the fiber's outer surface (Chakravarthy et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2019; Maache et al., 2017; Moshi et al., 2020; Udhayakumar et al., 2023). Diameter values of UT and AT of the agave decipiens fiber were given in table 1.





224



225 3.2. Single Fiber Tensile Test

As mentioned in the methods session, output of tensile test for a single fiber was obtained in the form

of maximum load at fiber failure with respect to % of elongation. From the experimental values of

228 UT and AT fiber, the average maximum force and percentage of elongation at break were statistically

calculated and tabulated in table 1.

Fiber Type	Diameter (µm)	The maximum force (F <sub>max</sub> ) (N)	% of	elongation
UT fiber	121.84	5.5 N	2.8	
AT fiber	117.66	5.3 N	2.3	

Fiber tensile strength can be calculated using equation 1 and using hook's law, the elastic modulus of

the fiber can be calculated, which was given in table 2.

233 **Table 2.** Mechanical property of the UT and AT fiber

Fiber Type	Strain	Tensile Strength (MPa)	Elastic modulus (GPa)
UT fiber	1.028	479.302	0.466
AT fiber	1.023	494.172	0.483

From table 2, it can be clearly understood that untreated fiber possesses less tensile value and less elastic modulus compared to alkaline-treated fiber. By the removal of unwanted substrates after chemical treatment, new hydrogen bonds are created with cellulose elements which results in the tight packing of elements between the interfibrillar region. Thus making the fiber more resistant to the load applied (Maache et al., 2017; Reddy et al., 2014; Udhayakumar et al., 2023).

239 3.3. X-Ray Diffraction analysis

Using diffractogram, it was observed that there are two peak curves one is at minimum called amorphous peak ( $I_{100}$ ) which contains cellulose, hemicellulose, amorphous lignin, and other impurities, and another peak at a maximum value called crystalline peak ( $I_{200}$ ) which contains  $\alpha$ cellulose (Ding et al., 2022; Prithiviraj and Muralikannan, 2022; Vijay et al., 2020). Figure 5 provides the diffractogram of UT and AT fiber. From the analysis, it was noted that  $I_{100}$  (Intensities) for UT and AT fiber was 5591.67 ( $2\theta$ =16.12°) and 10473.3 ( $2\theta$ =16.06°) respectively, then I<sub>200</sub> (Intensities)

for UT and AT fiber was 10751.7 ( $2\theta$ =22.16°) and 21,955 ( $2\theta$ =22.24°) respectively. Calculated values

- of CrI and CrS were tabulated in table 3.
- 248 **Table 3.** Calculated values of CrI and CrS for UT and AT fiber

Type of Fiber	Crystallinity Index	Crystalline Size (nm)	
Untreated Fiber	47.99%	2.980	
Treated Fiber	52.29%	4.721	

Using equation 1, The crystallinity index of UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber (ADF) was 249 250 determined to be 47.99% and 52.29%, respectively. From the graph, it can be noted that untreated ADF has a lesser intensity peak compared to alkaline-treated ADF, which proves that after alkali 251 treatment mostly all amorphous constituents were removed and the crystallinity of fiber gets 252 improved due to the increase in cellulose percentage. An increase in CrI is directly proportional to 253 the increase in fiber mechanical properties and this could be the cause for the increase in tensile value 254 255 of the AT fiber. Higher CrI indicates the reduction in moisture due to the absence of -OH molecules, which was proved by the crystalline size (CrS). Untreated fiber has 2.980nm and alkaline-treated 256 fiber has 4.721nm of CrS. The crystalline size was increased after alkali treatment which signifies 257 258 that the hydrophilic property gets reduced (Babu et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2019).





Figure 5. Diffractogram of UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber

#### 261 *3.4. Physico-Chemical Composition Analysis*

Every plant fiber consists of cellulosic (cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin) and non-cellulosic (wax and impurities) substances. Depending on the type of plant, the climate, the soil in which the plant is grown, etc., the distribution of these components will change. Based on these components fiber properties like mechanical strength and thermal stability were determined (Jaiswal et al., 2022; Vijay et al., 2022). Table 4 gives the percentage distribution of chemical components in agave decipiens fiber.

268 After alkaline treatment, it can be seen that the decrease in hemicellulose was from 27.82% to 23.67%. 269 Since hemicellulose readily reacts with NaOH (alkaline treatment) and gets detached from the fiber. 270 Lignin has less sensitive to the action of sodium hydroxide so the removal of lignin was less which 271 is about from 12.36% to 10.23%. The elimination of hemicellulose and some percentage of lignin after alkaline treatment decreases moisture absorption property of the fiber that is from 15.73% to 272 10.58%, in other words, hydrophilic characteristics get diminished, and fiber is now well suited for 273 reinforcement with a matrix. Due to the elimination of contaminates after alkali treatment, the overall 274 percentage of cellulose gets increased which is from 61.79% to 69.10%. An increase in cellulose 275 percentage will significantly improve the fiber crystalline property that directly increases the fiber's 276 277 mechanical strength.

Raw agave decipiens have higher cellulose content compared to other novel fibers like saccharum bengalense grass, Ficus religiosa, Grewia damine, phoenix pusilla, and thespesia lampus. Phaseolus vulgaris, Derris scandens, Calpotropis gigantean fruit, Cissus vitiginea, and perotic indica have higher cellulose than raw agave decipiens fiber. Table 5 compares the density and presence of various chemical components of agave decipiens with other natural fibers.

During reinforcement, wax content may lead to poor bonding between fiber and resin, that lower the mechanical property as well as the tribological property of the composite. After alkaline treatment, wax content was reduced to 0.25%. The percentage of components present in the fiber was likely removed after chemical treatment, as evidenced by the decrease in ash content from 3.71% to 3.22%.

Chemical constitutions	UT Fiber	AT Fiber
Cellulose %	61.79	69.10
Hemicellulose %	27.82	23.67
Lignin %	12.36	10.23
Wax %	0.48	0.25
Ash %	3.71	3.22
Moisture %	15.73	10.58
Density (g/cc)	0.89	1.17

Finally, fiber density was increased from 0.890 (g/cc) to 1.17 (g/cc) after chemical modification. This is because of the removal of non-cellulosic particles having smaller density values and the filling of chemical molecules in between the voids and pores on the fiber surface. Agave decipiens fiber has lesser density, so it can be employed in lightweight applications. All of the preceding statements disclose that the alkaline treatment has an influence on the agave decipiens fiber and that it is appropriate for reinforcing in polymer composites.

294	Table 5. Comparison of density and various chemical compositions of agave decipiens fiber with
295	other fibers from different sources

Different natural fiber		Cellulose %	Hemicellulose %	Lignin %	Wax %	Moisture %	Density (g/cc)	Reference	
Agave	UT Fiber	61.79	27.82	12.36	0.48	15.73	0.890	0 1	
Decipiens	AT Fiber	69.10	23.67	10.23	0.25	10.58	1.170	Current work	
Saccharum bengalense grass		53.45	31.45	11.7	1.3	2.1	1.165	Vijay et al., 2020	
Ficus religiosa		55.58	13.86	10.13	0.72	9.33	1.246	Moshi et al., 2020	
Grewia damine		57.78	14.96	16.65	0.59	-	1.378	Ravindran et al., 2020	
Phoenix pusilla		59.46	18.56	8.28	0.33	-	0.211	Madhu et al., 2019	
Thespesia lampus		60.63	26.64	12.70	0.76	10.83	1.412	Reddy et al., 2014	

Phaseolus vulgaris	62.17	7.04	9.13	0.36	6.1	0.934	Babu et al., 2022
Derris scandens	63.3	11.6	15.3	0.81	6.02	1.430	Sarala et al., 2020
Calpotropis gigantean fruit	64.47	9.64	13.56	1.93	7.27	0.457	Narayanasamy et al., 2020
Cissus vitiginea	65.43	14.61	10.43	0.39	8.47	1.287	Chakravarthy et al., 2020
Perotic indica	68.4	15.7	8.35	0.32	9.54	-	Prithiviraj and Muralikannan, 2022

296 3.5. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

297 FTIR was analyzed for both UT and AT fiber which was given in figure 6 and various absorbance 298 peaks with respective functional groups was tabulated in table 6. The wave absorbance between 3800cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3000cm<sup>-1</sup> shows the existence of (-OH) hydroxyl functional group, which indicates that 299 300 moisture content was available in both AT and UT fiber (Madhu et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2020; Manimaran et al., 2018; Narayanasamy et al., 2020; Ravindran et al., 2020). Two peak absorbances 301 say 2924.08cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2860.43cm<sup>-1</sup> were noticed between the wave band 3000cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2500cm<sup>-1</sup>. This 302 peak occurrence happened by stretching of methyl functional groups that are (CH-) and (CH<sub>2</sub>-). In 303 304 alkaline-treated fiber, less absorbance was noticed in the respective two peaks because of the 305 elimination of hemicellulose after alkaline treatment (Babu et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2019; Madhu et 306 al., 2019; Narayanasamy et al., 2020; Sarala et al., 2020). Stretching vibration of alkyne functional group (C=C) can be absorbed in the peak wavenumber 2158.35 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which relates to the wax 307 substance present in the fiber (Madhu et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2020; Moshi et al., 2020; Sarala et 308 309 al., 2020).

Peak absorbance between 1750cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1500cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1730.14cm<sup>-1</sup> peak was exhibited in UT fiber which shows the stretching of carboxyl and ester functional groups (–COO), indicating the existence of hemicellulose and lignin. Meanwhile, this peak absorbance was zero in AT fiber because of the elimination of hemicellulose and some amount of lignin (Ding et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2019; Shaker et al., 2020; Vijay et al., 2020). The peak absorbance noticed at 1653cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1656.85cm<sup>-1</sup> in the UT fiber and AT fiber respectively signifies the vibration of carbonyl and acetyl functional groups (C=O), from this presence of some percentage of hemicellulose and lignin, can be confirmed (Babu et al., 2022; Moshi et al., 2020; Ravindran et al., 2020;). Stretching of alkene functional group (C=C) occurs at the wavelength of 1529.55cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1517.97cm<sup>-1</sup> in the AT and UT fiber respectively, which indicates the presence of aromatic lignin (Ding et al., 2022; Vijay et al., 2020).

Three peaks absorbance say, 1402.25cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1317.38cm<sup>-1</sup>, and 1261.45cm<sup>-1</sup> were noticed between the 320 wavelength 1500cm<sup>-1</sup> to 1250cm<sup>-1</sup>, which attributes to methyl and acetyl functional groups. This 321 322 indicates the existence of cellulose (CH2-) and aromatic lignin, hemicellulose (C-O) respectively (Sgriccia et al., 2008; Shaker et al., 2020). Peak absorbance at 1317.38cm<sup>-1</sup> was present only in 323 324 alkaline-treated fiber indicating the increase in cellulose percentage after alkali treatment. Wavelength absorbance between 1250cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1000cm<sup>-1</sup>, a sharp narrow peak absorbance can be 325 seen in untreated fiber at 1122.57cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1022.27cm<sup>-1</sup>, which attributes to the bending of (C-O-C) 326 and (C-O) which indicates the existence of polysaccharides of cellulose and pyranose ring of cellulose 327 respectively. A board peak absorbance was noticed at 1138cm<sup>-1</sup> wavelength because of the 328 improvement in cellulose percentage in AT fiber (Guo et al., 2019; Moshi et al., 2020). 329

330 The  $\beta$ -glucosidic linkage between the monosaccharide of cellulose occurs at the peak wavelength of 806.25cm<sup>-1</sup> and 887.26cm<sup>-1</sup> (Chakravarthy et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019; Reddy et al., 2014; Maache 331 et al., 2017). Final peak can be witnessed at 607.58cm<sup>-1</sup> which was accredited to (C-OH) and occurs 332 due to out-of-plane bending of cellulose (Ding et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2019; Sarala et al., 2020). FTIR 333 analysis confirmed the presence of chemical components in the fiber with the aid of functional groups 334 It was also possible to determine how the chemical composition changed in proportion followed by 335 alkaline treatment. FTIR inference proves that cellulose percentage was increased due to chemical 336 337 treatment.

**Table 6.** Wavenumber and presence of functional groups identified using FTIR analysis

Wavenumber	Absorbance			Eurotica el cuerre	
(cm <sup>-1</sup> )	UT Fiber	AT Fiber	Chemical composition	Functional groups	



- 339
- 340

Figure 6. FTIR spectroscopy for UT and AT fiber

341 3.6. Thermogravimetric Analysis

342 Decomposition of elements and fiber's thermal stability can be studied using thermogravimetric 343 analysis. Figure 7 and figure 8 gives the detailed interpretation of TGA and DTG curves for UT and 344 AT agave decipiens fiber and summarized values of TGA results were tabulated in table 7. Thermal

stability can be identified by the percentage of weight loss at an increasing order temperature(Narayanasamy et al., 2020; Shaker et al., 2020).

347 The curve can be divided into 4 regions. In the first region viz., presence of moisture in the fiber 348 absorbs the temperature and evaporates which results in slight weight reduction, which can be seen in the curve from a to b and x to y (Rajeshkumar et al., 2021; Udhayakumar et al., 2023; Vijay et al., 349 350 2021). At this stage, weight loss will be around 4% to 6% for the temperature rise from 25°C to 80°C. 351 When the temperature was raised to above 80°C, the fiber has very negligible weight loss which can 352 be considered as a straight line that is from point b to c and y to z, showing that fiber was thermally 353 stable between 80°C to 200°C. When compared to untreated fiber, alkaline-treated fiber has greater 354 thermal stability and can withstand temperatures up to 240°C. (Arun Ramnath et al., 2023; Binoj et 355 al., 2016; Jebadurai et al., 2019).

Next in 3<sup>rd</sup> region viz., from c to e and z to v heavy weight loss can be noticeable which was about 356 60% for the temperature rise of 200°C to 380°C. During this phase hemicellulose, α-cellulose, and 357 lignin gets decomposed. Most decomposition of cellulose occurs above 320°C (Ganapathy et al., 358 2019; Rajeshkumar et al., 2021; Vinod et al., 2021). Alkaline-treated fiber consumes an additional 359 20°C to 30°C of temperature to decompose compared to UT fiber, this is because of the elimination 360 of non-cellulosic contaminates using alkaline treatment. This was also evidenced by DTG curve as 361 362 shown in figure 7. UT fiber takes 340°C of temperature to get weight loss, whereas treated fiber takes up to 360°C of temperature, which proves that thermal performance was improved after alkaline 363 364 treatment (Ganapathy et al., 2019; Kathirselvam et al., 2019; Manimaran et al., 2018).

Final decomposition takes place at the temperature range of 380°C to 700°C, where the remaining amorphous lignin and waxy substances get decomposed. The weight loss was found to be 14% and 11% for UT and AT fiber respectively. The elimination of an undesirable component from the fiber during the alkaline treatment accounts for the variation in weight loss (Vijay et al., 2021; Vinod et al., 2021). As a result, both TGA and DTG curves were very useful in finding the thermal stability for both fibers.

Curve	points	- Tomporatura	% of woight	
Untreated Treated Fiber Fiber		(°C)	loss	Decomposition
a to b	x to y	25 to 80	6% and 4%	Moisture removal
b to c	y to z	80 to 200 and 80 to 240	Negligible	Thermally stable
c to e	z to v	200 to 340 and 240 to 380	60%	Cellulose decompose
e to f	v to t	above 360	14% and 11%	Wax and amorphous lignin



Figure 7. Thermogravimetric analysis of UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber





#### 376 *3.7. Differential Scanning Calorimetry*

377 Figure 9 shows the DSC curvature for untreated and alkaline-treated agave decipiens fiber. DSC curve 378 is used to support the TGA analysis for the same fiber. From figure 9 it can be noted that an endothermic peak occurs between 60°C to 80°C in both fibers. During this phase, the moisture absorbs 379 380 the heat supplied to the fiber and gets evaporated (Madhu et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2020; 381 Narayanasamy et al., 2020). Temperature around 150°C to 170°C is known as glass transition phase. 382 Fiber starts changing its phase to crystallinity where most of the hemicellulose and other unwanted 383 substances get degraded. The curve moves upward at the temperature above 250°C, where the 384 crystallinity peak occurs. At this phase, a small amount of amorphous lignin and cellulose were 385 removed And above 350°C, the exothermic peak occurs during which all the constituents get burnt 386 up (Ganapathy et al., 2019; Kathirselvam et al., 2019; Madhu et al., 2020; Zakikhani et al., 2014). The DSC curve well agrees with the TGA results for UT and AT fiber. 387



- 388
- 389

Figure 9. Differential Scanning Calorimetry for UT and AT fiber

# 390 *3.8. Scanning Electron Microscope*

391 SEM micrographs for both UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber were obtained from examination, 392 which was shown in figures 10 and 11. SEM morphology is a good method to understand and study 393 the outer structure of the fiber, mainly it is useful in investigating the change in the outer surface 394 before and after surface modification.

In the UT fiber small micro-fibrils and other surface impurities can be clearly visualized in figure 10 (a) & (b). Absence of micro-fibrils and non-cellulosic impurities was prominently able to be seen in the micrograph (i.e.) in figure 11 (a). Compared to UT fiber, AT fiber looks clean and roughness has been developed on the fiber surface which was given in figure 11 (b).
Presence of roughness over the surface helps the fiber to properly merges with the resin during

400 reinforcement (Arun Ramnath et al., 2023; Manimaran et al., 2018; Manimaran et al., 2022;
401 Shanmugasundaram et al., 2018). From SEM micrographs it was able to understand that alkaline
402 treatment made some impact on the agave decipiens fiber.



404

403

405

Figure 10. Fiber with impurities and micro-fibrils



407 408

406

Figure 11. Fiber with a clean and rough surface

### 409 **4.** Conclusion

410 Agave decipiens a new plant fiber was successfully extracted by mechanical decortication method 411 and imparted to chemical treatment using sodium hydroxide with 5% (w/v) concentration. In this 412 research work characterization of both UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber was executed. Amount 413 of chemical components present in both fibers was obtained using chemical composition analysis, in 414 which the cellulose content gets improved due to the deduction of unwanted cellulosic components 415 and impurities. This change in chemical composition was supported by FT-IR spectroscopy analysis. 416 An increase in cellulose content directly increases the crystallinity in the fiber which was proved by 417 the X-Ray diffractogram. Tensile test on single fiber confirms the increase of tensile modulus in 418 alkaline-treated fiber. The thermal decomposition of UT and AT of agave decipiens fiber was studied using TGA, in which fiber treated with alkaline solution withstands higher temperature than untreated 419 fiber. Using SEM micrographs the morphology of the fiber was studied. In untreated fiber, small 420 micro-fibrils and impurities were able to be identified. Meanwhile, in alkaline treated fiber, the 421 surface looks clean and roughness was created because of the impact produced by the NaOH reaction 422 423 with fiber. This change was able to identify by outer diameter measurement from that reduction of diameter can be witnessed in alkaline treated fiber. From this research study, various properties of 424 newly identified plant fiber (agave decipiens fiber) were successfully characterized for both untreated 425 426 and alkaline-treated fiber. Experimental results proved that the agave decipiens fiber can be used as 427 a reinforcement after performing chemical treatment. In a future study, the impact of varying 428 concentrations of alkaline solution or different chemical treatments can be investigated and compared.

- 429 Conflict of Interest
- 430 Declaring no conflict of interest.

431 References

- Arun Ramnath R., Murugan S., Sanjay M.R., Vinod A., Indran S., Elnaggar A.Y. and Siengchin S.
  (2023), Characterization of novel natural cellulosic fibers from abutilon indicum for potential
  reinforcement in polymer composites, *Polymer Composites*, 44(1), 340-355.
- 435 Babu B.G., Princewinston D., Saravanakumar S.S., Khan A., Aravind Bhaskar P.V., Indran S. and
- 436 Divya D. (2022), Investigation on the physicochemical and mechanical properties of novel alkali-
- 437 treated phaseolus vulgaris fibers, *Journal of Natural Fibers*, **19(2)**, 770-781.
- Binoj J.S., Raj R.E., Sreenivasan V.S. and Thusnavis G.R. (2016), Morphological, physical,
  mechanical, chemical and thermal characterization of sustainable Indian areca fruit husk fibers
  (Areca catechu L. as potential alternate for hazardous synthetic fibers, *Journal of Bionic Engineering*, 13(1), 156-165.
- Chakravarthy S., Madhu S., Raju J.S.N. and Md J.S. (2020), Characterization of novel natural
  cellulosic fiber extracted from the stem of cissus vitiginea plant, *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 161, 1358-1370.
- Ding L., Han X., Cao L., Chen Y., Ling Z., Han J. and Jiang S. (2022), Characterization of natural
  fiber from manau rattan (calamus manan) as a potential reinforcement for polymer-based
  composites, *Journal of Bioresources and Bioproducts*, 7(3), 190-200.
- Ganapathy T., Sathiskumar R., Senthamaraikannan P., Saravanakumar S.S. and Khan A. (2019),
  Characterization of raw and alkali treated new natural cellulosic fibres extracted from the aerial
  roots of banyan tree, *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 138, 573-581.
- Guo A., Sun Z. and Satyavolu J. (2019), Impact of chemical treatment on the physiochemical and
  mechanical properties of kenaf fibers, *Industrial Crops and Products*, 141, 111726.
- Hamidon M.H., Sultan M.T., Ariffin A.H. and Shah A.U. (2019), Effects of fibre treatment on
  mechanical properties of kenaf fibre reinforced composites: a review, *Journal of Materials*
- 455 *Research and Technology*, **8(3)**, 3327-3337.

456	Jaiswal D., Devnani G.L., Rajeshkumar G., Sanjay M.R. and Siengchin S. (2022), Review on
457	extraction, characterization, surface treatment and thermal degradation analysis of new cellulosic
458	fibers as sustainable reinforcement in polymer composites, Current Research in Green and
459	Sustainable Chemistry, 5, 100271.
460	Jebadurai S.G., Raj R.E., Sreenivasan V.S. and Binoj J.S. (2019), Comprehensive characterization of
461	natural cellulosic fiber from cocciniagrandis stem, Carbohydrate Polymers, 207, 675-683.
462	Kabir M.M., Wang H., Lau K.T. and Cardona F. (2012), Chemical treatments on plant-based natural
463	fibre reinforced polymer composites: an overview, <i>Composite B Engineering</i> , <b>43(7)</b> , 2883-2892.
464	Kathirselvam M., Kumaravel A., Arthanarieswaran V.P. and Saravanakumar S.S. (2019),
465	Characterization of cellulose fibers in thespesiapopulnea barks: influence of alkali treatment,
466	Carbohydrate Polymers, 217, 178-189.
467	Khan A., Vijay R., Singaravelu D.L., Sanjay M.R., Siengchin S., Verpoort F. and Asiri A.M. (2021),
468	Extraction and characterization of natural fiber from eleusine indica grass as reinforcement of
469	sustainable fiber reinforced polymer composites, Journal of Natural Fibers, 18(11), 1742-1750.
470	Komal U.K., Verma V., Ashwani T., Verma N. and Singh I. (2018), Effect of chemical treatment on
471	thermal, mechanical and degradation behavior of banana fiber reinforced polymer composites,
472	Journal of Natural Fibers.
473	Krika F., Krika A. and Azizi A. (2021), Impact of NaOH-surface treatment on emerging pollutant
474	biosorption performance using marine algua, Posidonia Oceanica, Global Nest Journal, 23(1),
475	127-136.
476	Kumar K.P. and Sekaran A.S.J. (2014), Some natural fibers used in polymer composites and their
477	extraction processes: a review, Journal of Reinforced Plastics and Composites, 33(20), 1879-

478

1892.

- 479 Latif R., Wakeel S., Zaman Khan N., Noor Siddiquee A., Lal Verma S. and Akhtar Khan Z. (2019),
- 480 Surface treatments of plant fibers and their effects on mechanical properties of fiber-reinforced
  481 composites: a review, *Journal of Reinforced Plastics and Composites*, **38(1)**, 15-30.
- 482 Liu Y., Lv X., Bao J., Xie J., Tang X., Che J. and Tong J. (2019), Characterization of silane treated
- and untreated natural cellulosic fibre from corn stalk waste as potential reinforcement in polymer
  composites, *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 218, 179-187.
- Maache M., Bezazi A., Amroune S., Scarpa F. and Dufresne A. (2017), Characterization of a novel
  natural cellulosic fiber from juncus effusus L., *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 171, 163-172.
- 487 Madhu P., Sanjay M.R., Jawaid M., Siengchin S., Khan A. and Pruncu C.I. (2020), A new study on
- 488 effect of various chemical treatments on agave americana fiber for composite reinforcement:
  489 physico-chemical, thermal, mechanical and morphological properties, *Polymer Testing*, **85**,
  490 106437.
- Manimaran P., Senthamaraikannan P., Sanjay M.R., Marichelvam M.K. and Jawaid M. (2018), Study
  on characterization of furcraea foetida new natural fiber as composite reinforcement for
  lightweight applications, *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 181, 650-658.
- Manimaran P., Vignesh V., Khan A., Pillai G.P., Nagarajan K.J., Prithiviraj M. and Asiri A.M.
  (2022), Extraction and characterization of natural lignocellulosic fibres from typhaangustata
  grass, *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 222, 1840-1851.
- Madhu P., Sanjay M.R., Pradeep S., Bhat K.S., Yogesha B. and Siengchin S. (2019), Characterization
  of cellulosic fibre from phoenix pusilla leaves as potential reinforcement for polymeric
  composites. *Journal of Materials Research and Technology*, 8(3), 2597-2604.
- Moshi A.A.M., Ravindran D., Bharathi S.S., Indran S., Saravanakumar S.S. and Liu Y. (2020),
   Characterization of a new cellulosic natural fiber extracted from the root of ficus religiosa tree.
   *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 142, 212-221.

503	Narayanasamy P., Balasundar P., Senthil S., Sanjay M.R., Siengchin S., Khan A. and Asiri A.M.
504	(2020), Characterization of a novel natural cellulosic fiber from calotropis gigantea fruit bunch
505	for eco-friendly polymer composites, International Journal of Biological Macromolecules, 150,
506	793-801.

- 0.2

- Neto J.S.S., Lima R.A.A., Cavalcanti D.K.K., Souza J.P.B., Aguiar R.A.A. and Banea M.D. (2019),
  Effect of chemical treatment on the thermal properties of hybrid natural fiber-reinforced
  composites, *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 136(10), 47154.
- Prithiviraj M. and Muralikannan R. (2022), Investigation of optimal alkali-treated perotis indica plant
  fibers on physical, chemical, and morphological properties, *Journal of Natural Fibers*, 19(7),
  2730-2743.
- Puspita A.S., Budihardjo M.A. and Samadikun B.P. (2023), Evaluating coconut fiber and fly ash
  composites for use in landfill retention layers, *Global Nest Journal*, 25(4), 1-7.
- Rajeshkumar G., Devnani G.L., Maran J.P., Sanjay M.R., Siengchin S., Al-Dhabi N.A. and
  Ponmurugan K. (2021), Characterization of novel natural cellulosic fibers from purple bauhinia
  for potential reinforcement in polymer composites, *Cellulose*, 28(9), 5373-5385.
- Ramakrishnan T., Senthil Kumar S., Samuel Chelladurai S.J., Gnanasekaran S., Geetha N.K.,
  Arthanari R. and Debtera B. (2022), Effect of moisture content on mechanical properties of AAM
  natural fiber-reinforced isophthalic polyester composites, *Advances in Materials Science and Engineering*, 1-10.
- Ramshankar P., Sashikkumar M., Ganeshan P. and Raja K. (2023), Experimental investigation of
   hybrid composites using biowastes and Calotropis gigantea: an eco-friendly approach, *Global Nest Journal*, 25(4), 70-76.
- Ravindran D., Sundara Bharathi S.R., Padma S.R., Indran S. and Divya D. (2020), Characterization
   of natural cellulosic fiber extracted from grewia damine flowering plant's stem, *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 164, 1246-1255.

- 528 Reddy K.O., Ashok B., Reddy K.R.N., Feng Y.E., Zhang J. and Rajulu A.V. (2014), Extraction and
- 529 characterization of novel lignocellulosic fibers from thespesia lampas plant, *International*530 *Journal of Polymer Analysis and Characterization*, 19(1), 48-61.
- 531 Santos J.C.D., Oliveira P.R., Freire R.T.S., Vieira L.M.G., Rubio J.C.C. and Panzera T.H. (2022),
- 532 The effects of sodium carbonate and bicarbonate treatments on sisal fibre composites, *Materials*533 *Research*, 25.
- Sarala R. (2020), Characterization of a new natural cellulosic fiber extracted from derris scandens
  stem, *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 165, 2303-2313.
- 536 Sgriccia N., Hawley M.C. and Misra M. (2008), Characterization of natural fiber surfaces and natural
- 537 fiber composites. *Composites A: Applied Science and Manufacturing*, **39(10)**, 1632-1637.
- Shaker K., Khan R.M., Jabbar M., Umair M., Tariq A., Kashif M. and Nawab Y. (2020), Extraction
  and characterization of novel fibers from vernonia elaeagnifolia as a potential textile fiber, *Industrial Crops Products*, 152, 112518.
- Shanmugasundaram N., Rajendran I. and Ramkumar T. (2018), Characterization of untreated and
  alkali treated new cellulosic fiber from an areca palm leaf stalk as potential reinforcement in
  polymer composites, *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 195, 566-575.
- Thirumalaisamy R. and Subramani S.P. (2018), Investigation of physico-mechanical and moisture
  absorption characteristics of raw and alkali treated new agave angustifolia marginata (AAM)
  fiber, *Materials Science*, 24(1), 53-58.
- 547 Udhayakumar A., Mayandi K., Rajini N., Devi R.K., Muthukannan M. and Murali M. (2023),
- 548 Extraction and characterization of novel natural fiber from cryptostegia grandiflora as a potential
- 549 reinforcement in biocomposites, *Journal of Natural Fibers*, **20(1)**, 2159607.

- 550 Venkatachalam N., Navaneethakrishnan P., Rajsekar R. and Shankar S. (2016), Effect of pretreatment
- methods on properties of natural fiber composites: a review, *Polymers and Polymer Composites*,
  24(7), 555-566.
- 553 Vinod A., Vijay R., Singaravelu D.L., Sanjay M.R., Siengchin S., Yagnaraj Y. and Khan S. (2021),

554 Extraction and characterization of natural fiber from stem of cardio spermum halicababum,

555 *Journal of Natural Fibers*, **18(6)**, 898-908.

- Vijay R., Singaravelu D.L., Vinod A., Paul Raj I.F., Sanjay M.R. and Siengchin S. (2020),
  Characterization of novel natural fiber from saccharum bengalense grass (Sarkanda), *Journal of Natural Fibers*, **17(12)**, 1739-1747.
- 559 Vijay R., Manoharan S., Arjun S., Vinod A. and Singaravelu D.L. (2021), Characterization of silane-
- treated and untreated natural fibers from stem of leucasaspera, *Journal of Natural Fibers*, 18(12),
  1957-1973.
- Vijay R., James Dhilip J.D., Gowtham S., Harikrishnan S.B.M.A., Chandru B., Amarnath M. and
  Khan A. (2022), Characterization of natural cellulose fiber from the barks of vachellia farnesiana, *Journal of Natural Fibers*, 19(4), 1343-1352.
- Zakikhani P., Zahari R., Sultan M.T.H. and Majid D.L. (2014), Extraction and preparation of bamboo
  fibre-reinforced composites, *Materials & Design*, 63, 820-828.