



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduate Studies**



# **Characterization of the Commercial Ice-cream Stabilizer E466 Sodium Carboxymethyl Cellulose**

**E466 تشخيص مثبت الأيسكريم التجاري**

**صوديوم كاربوكسي ميثيل سيليلوز**

A Dissertation Submitted in partial Fulfillment of  
the Requirements of the Degree of M.Sc in Chemistry

**By**

**Fatima Mahmoud Ahmed Adam (B.Sc. honors Chemistry)**

**Supervisor**

**Dr. Kamal Mohammed Saeed**

2017

## *Dedication*

I dedicate this Research to:

MY supervisor **Dr.Kamal Mohammed Saeed**

MY Mother

MY father

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

First of all I would like to thank ALMIGHTY ALLAH for giving me patience and help to complete this work

I would not have been possible to write this thesis without and support of the kind people around me, to only some of whom it is possible to give particular mention here.

Above all, I would like to gratefully and sincerely thank Dr. **Kamal Mohammed Saeed** for his guidance, understanding, patience and encouragement

Through all the study.

## **Abstract**

This study focuses on determine of the percent of carboxymethyl cellulose in ice-cream stabilizer which has been used under the number E466 it was determined to be 98.92%. First the percent of sodium chloride determined by Volhard method it was found to be 0.48% then freeflycolate were determined by U.V spectroscopic method the percent was found to be 0.59%. Finally the degree of substitution Ds were determined gravimetrically it was found 0.2. FT-IR spectroscopy also were used to indicated found of carboxymethy species.

## مستخلص البحث

هذه الدراسة تركز على تقدير النسبة المئوية لصوديوم كربوكسي ميثيل سليلوز الذي يستخدم كمثبت في صناعة الايسكريم برقم تجاري 466. أولاً تم تقدير النسبة المئوية لكوريد الصوديوم باستخدام طريقة فولهارد والتي وجدت 0.48% ثم قدرت نسبة الجلايكوليت الحر باستخدام مطيافية الاشعة المرئية فوق البنفسجية حيث وجدت 0.59%. أخيراً تم تقدير درجة الاستبدال وزنياً حيث وجدت 0.2 استخدمت مطيافية الاشعة تحت الحمراء للتأكد من وجود مجموعة كربوكسي ميثيل.

## Table of content

Subject	Page No
الإستهلال	I
Dedication	II
Acknowledgement	III
Abstract	IV
مستخلص البحث	V
Table of contents	VI
List of Tables	VIII
List of Figures	IX
List of Abbreviations	X
<b>Chapter one</b>	
<b>Introduction</b>	
1.1 General Introduction	1
1.1 Formulation of different stabilizer	2
1.1.1 Gelatin	2
1.1.2 Guar gum	3
1.1.3 Locust Bean Gum	4
1.1.4 Carrageenan	5

1.1.5 Alginates	6
1.1.6 Xanthan gum	6
1.1.7 Carboxymethyl cellulose	7
1.1.7.1 Cellulose structure and its source	7
1.1.7.2 Hydrogen bonding	9
1.1.7.3 Crystal structure	11
1.1.7.4 Morphology	12
1.2 Extraction of cellulose from its natural source	14
1.2.1 Isolation	14
1.2.2 Etherification of cellulose	15
1.2.3 Acetylation	15
1.3 Synthesis of carboxymethylcellulose (CMC)s	15
1.4 Applications of purified CMC	16
1.5 previous study	20
1.6 Objectives	24
<b>Chapter two</b>	
<b>Materials and method</b>	
2.1 Materials	25
Methods	25
Foam Test	25
Precipitate formation	25
Color reaction	25
2.2. Purity	25
2.2.1 Materials	25
2.2.2.1 Sodium chloride	26
2.2.2.2 Free glycolate	26

2.2.2.3 Degree of substitution	28
<b>Chapter three</b>	
<b>Results and discussion</b>	
3.1 Characteristics of CMC by infrared (IR)	30
3.2 Sodium chloride percent	31
3.3 Free glycolate percent	32
3.4 Degree of substitution	33
3.5 Assay: (percent of CMC)	33
3.6 Conclusion	34
References	35



### List of Tables

<b>Table</b>	<b>Page No</b>
(1.1): Applications of CMC in cosmetics industries	17
Application of CMC in pharmaceuticals industries	18
Applications of CMC in aerial drop fluids and coatings industries	18
Applications of CMC in foods industries	19
Applications of CMC in detergents and lithography and tobacco industries	20

### List of Figures

<b>Figure</b>	<b>No</b>
(1.1): Chemical structure of guar gum	4
(1.2): Chemical structure of locust Bean gum	5
(1.3): Chemical Structure of Xanthan Gum	7
(1.4): The chemical constitution of cellulose	8
(1.5): Hydrogen bond system of cellulose I	10
(1.6): Most probable bond pattern of cellulose I	11
(1.7): Various models of the supramolecular structure of cellulose micro fibrils	13
(1.8): Carboxymethylation reaction	16

### List of Abbreviations

<b>Term</b>	<b>Page No</b>
CMC	Carboxyl methyl cellulose
LBG	Locust bean gum
WAXS	Wide angle X-ray scattering
DMSO	Dimethyl sufoxide
DMF	Dimethyl formaide
MCAA	Monochloro acetic acid
DS	Degree of substitution
DP	Degree of polymerization
JECFA	Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives

# *Chapter one*

# Introduction

## Introduction

### 1.0 General Introduction

Ice cream and related products are generally classified as frozen desserts which include ice cream, frozen custard, frozen confectionaries, ice milk, ice lollies, and sherbet etc., which are popular among all age group of people. Ice cream is a frozen dairy product made by freezing a mix with agitation to incorporate air and ensure uniformity of consistency. The complex physical structure of ice cream presents a challenge for food chemists. Simply stated, overall goal of designing the ice cream is to incorporate several different insolubles (air bubbles, ice crystals and fat globules) into an aqueous phase in the smallest sizes and in the greatest numbers possible.

The basic role of a stabilizer is to reduce the amount of free water in the ice cream mix by binding it as “water of hydration”, or by immobilizing it within a gel structure. Also it is the ability of small percentage of stabilizer to absorb and hold large amounts of bound water, which produces good body, smooth texture, slow melt down and heat shock in the resultant product. [Keeney, 1983]

Stabilizers maintain homogeneity and control ice crystal growth during the freezing/aeration process. During storage, stabilizers play crucial role in resisting structural changes during “heat shock” (the inevitable temperature during storage and distribution that creates ice crystal growth and other types of deterioration, leading to structural changes). During serving and consumption, stabilizers contribute to uniform melt down, mouth feel and texture of ice cream. A stabilized ice cream is one that

resists or retards structural changes in a dynamic environment. (Goff, 1997)

## **1.1 Formulation of different stabilizer**

In ice cream manufacturing, it is always difficult to get all the properties of ice cream using a single stabilizer. Today dairy/food technologists have found a new technique of blending these stabilizers in different proportions to get excellent properties in ice cream.

Most ice cream stabilizers based on polysaccharides influence the rheological properties of the continuous phase. Some stabilizers form a complex with ice cream constituents, example, carrageenan complexes with casein and prevents whey separation during mixing. However, when used alone, stabilizers including locust bean gum (LBG), guar gum, carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) and xanthan gum promote whey separation, due to their tendency to precipitate proteins during heating at neutral pH. Ice cream stabilized with locust bean gum and carrageenan contains significantly smaller ice crystals than ice cream made under identical conditions without stabilizers. [Arbuckl, 1986]

Though alike in many ways, these stabilizers also have many differences with respect to their property and compatibility. Knowing the characteristics of each allows product designers to incorporate the correct ingredient or ingredient blend in a particular application. The choices require consideration of the entire product spectrum from mixing and processing, through finished product attributes, storage and end use.

### **1.1.1 Gelatin**

A high molecular weight polypeptide, gelatin consists of chains of 300 to 4,000 amino acids (primarily glycine and proline/hydroxyproline). It is

derived from animal collagen, mainly pork or beef, but other sources are available, most notably fish. Boiling hydrolyzes the collagen, and converts it into gelatin. Two processes are used, an acid process gives type A gelatin and an alkaline process gives type B gelatin. Their properties are similar, but type A can negatively interact with other anionic polymers, such as carrageenan. A thermo reversible gel starts to form when a hot gelatin solution is cooled to below 30° to 35 °C. At refrigeration temperatures (5°C), gelatin takes 5 to 8 hours to reach maximum gel strength (measured in Bloom). Because the gels dissolve at low temperature, they “melt in the mouth” with good flavor release. Levels for a 250 Bloom gelatin are between 0.25% and 0.50% of the mix.

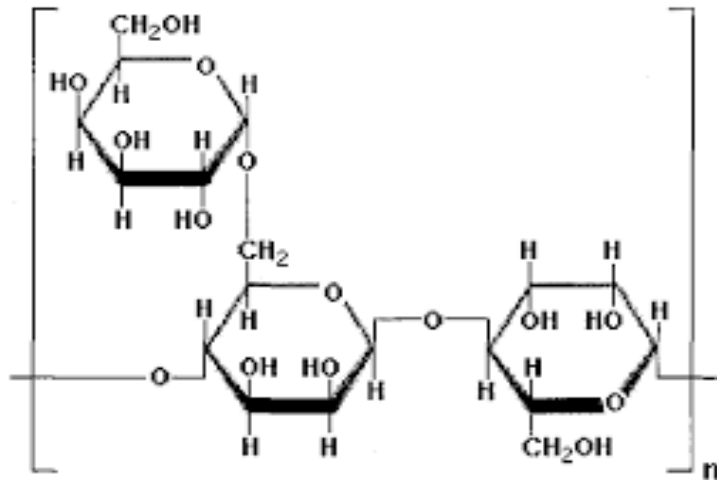
In ice cream industry gelatin forms a gel in the mix as well as during ageing, preventing large ice crystals formation during freezing. [Rawford, 1981, Pyen, 1838, Young, 1986]

### **1.1.2 Guar Gum**

Derived from guar (*Cyamopsis tetragonolobus*) seeds, this long, rigid, linear molecule of beta-1,4-D-galactomannans with alpha 1,6-linked D-galactose has a molecular weight of approximately 1,000,000, giving it a high viscosity in solution. Guar gum is an economical thickener and stabilizer. It hydrates fairly rapidly in cold water to give highly viscous pseudoplastic solutions of generally greater low shear viscosity when compared with other hydrocolloids and much greater than that of locust bean gum. High concentrations (~ 1%) are very pseudo plastic but lower concentrations (~0.3%) are far less so. Guar gum is more soluble than locust bean gum and a better emulsifier as it has more galactose branch points. Unlike locust bean gum, it does not form gels but does show good stability to freeze-thaw cycles. Guar gum shows high low shear viscosity but is strongly shear thinning in nature. Being non ionic, it

is not affected by ionic strength or pH but will degrade at pH extremes at temperature (e.g. pH 3 at 50°C). It shows viscosity synergy with xanthan gum. Levels used are up to 0.20%, and depend on the usage level of other added gums. [Adinugraha, 2005]

Today guar gum is widely used as ice cream stabilizer. Guar is preferred for its relatively low cost and the body it contributes to the product. It hydrates well in cold water, and often used in combination with carrageenan and locust bean gum to impart excellent properties to ice cream.



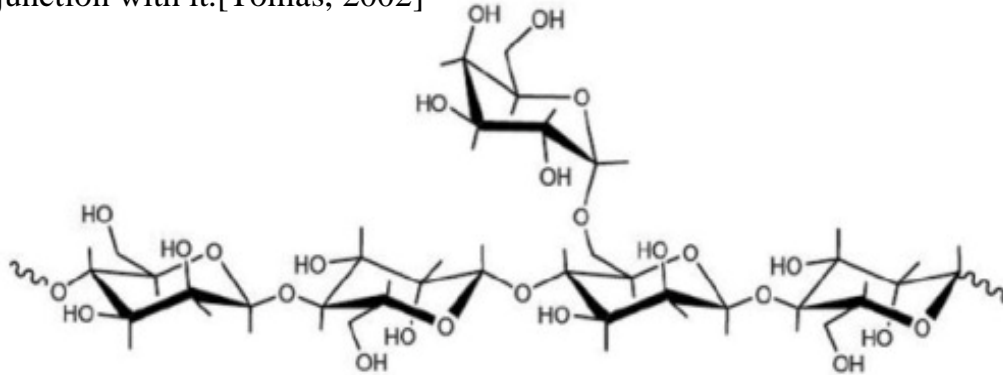
**Fig (1.1): Chemical Structure of Guar Gum**

### 1.1.3 Locust Bean Gum

Also called carob gum, as it is derived from carob (*Ceratonia siliqua*) seeds. Locust bean gum (LBG) has an irregularly shaped molecule with branched beta-1,4-Dgalactomannan units. This neutral polymer is only slightly soluble in cold water and requires heat to achieve full hydration and maximum viscosity. LBG does not form a gel, and creates a less gummy texture than guar. It requires heating to 170°F for full hydration, usually achieved during pasteurization. LBG is inert to acid and calcium. Locust bean gum enhances aeration, and imparts good body to ice cream. Used alone, it can cause whey-off during processing, so it is



usually used in combination with carrageenan and guar gum. LBG can act synergistically with kappa-carrageenan and xanthan gum. Usage levels are similar to guar, again depending on which other gums are used in conjunction with it. [Tomas, 2002]



**Fig (1.2): Chemical Structure of Locust Bean Gum**

#### 1.1.4 Carrageenan

Extracted from Irish moss and other species of red seaweed of the class rhodophyceae, carrageenan is a sulfated linear polysaccharide, which reacts with casein by forming ionic linkages between sulfate groups and charged amino acids.

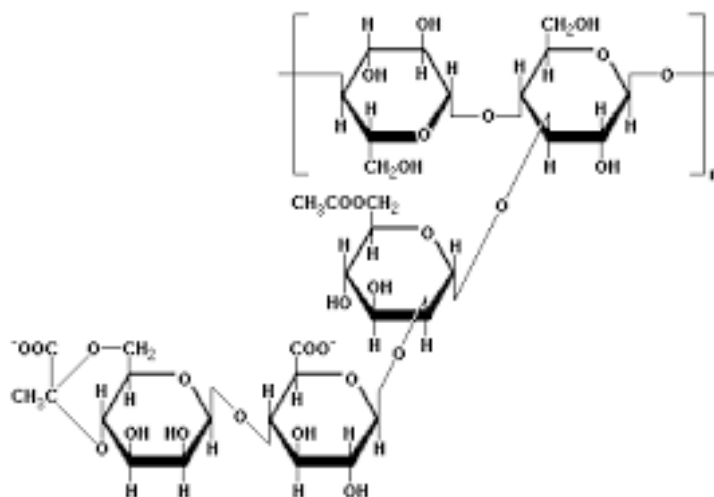
Carrageenan is available in several types, the most common of which are kappa, iota and lambda. For low fat and soft serve ice cream compositions, kappa often is used for its gel forming functionality and its reactivity with casein, which prevents whey separation. It's mandatory to add carrageenan if an aging step exists in the manufacturing process. A kappa-iota blend is sometimes preferred, to keep kappa from forming a brittle gel. Lambda blends can be used for ice creams with sufficient fat to stabilize without gelling. Kappa and iota solutions require heating for proper hydration. Carrageenan levels can be used up to 0.05% of the blend. [O'sullivan, 1997]

### **1.1.5 Alginates**

Alginates add a type of body and texture to ice cream that other gums don't easily duplicate. Extracted from ocean kelp, this natural gum dissolves best at 155° to 160°F. Combined with sodium or phosphate salts, it forms gels at levels from 0.18% to 0.25%. Because it binds calcium, it will reduce the amount of free calcium in the mix. Precipitation of sodium alginate will occur at high calcium levels, making it difficult to hydrate without adding sequesterant.

### **1.1.6 Xanthan Gum**

A product of bacterial fermentation, this giant glucomannan polymer (2 million daltons) makes an excellent emulsion/stabilizer because its suspending properties keep emulsions dispersed. It's a popular ingredient in low fat compositions. It can be dispersed by blending with skim milk, corn syrups or nonfat milk solids. Xanthan is cold water soluble, hydrates quickly once dispersed and provides water binding. It is always used in combination with other gums. It is synergistic with locust bean gum, which reduces the levels of locust bean gum and guar required. Xanthan gum is heat and pH resistant and also has a cleaner flavor when compared to other gums. It possesses pseudoplastic properties and exhibit shear thinning, a useful property for pumping and extrusion in soft serve ice creams. Overuse can cause excessive gelation, an overly viscous mix, and a chewy ice cream. Usage levels range from 0.015 to 0.040%. However, its cost limits its usage.



**Fig (1.3): Chemical Structure of Xanthan Gum**

## 1.1.7 Carboxymethyl Cellulose

### 1.1.7.1 Cellulose Structure and its source

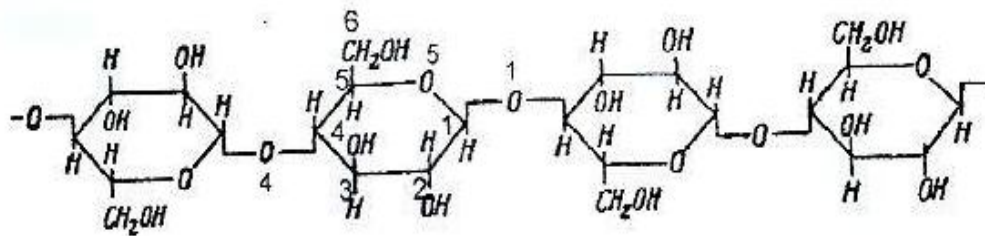
The chemical formula of Cellulose was first determined in 1838 by the French chemist Anselme Payen, who isolated it from plant matter [Rawford, 1981, Pyen, 1838, Young, 1986]

Cellulose is a linear and high molecular weight polymers as well as natural renewable and biodegradable material. Due to the hydrogen bonds associated with structure of molecular cellulose, it is neither melted nor dissolved readily in common solvents, [Adinugraha, 2005] but its water soluble usually occurs in the cell wall of plants, it is generally distributed with other substances such as lignin and hemicellulose, which makes it difficult to find in pure form plants contain on a dry basis between 40-55% cellulose, 15-35% lignin and 25-40% hemicelluloses. [Tomas, 2002]

There are two inter convertible polymorphs of cellulose known as cellulose(I) and cellulose (II) X ray crystallography studies of the different cellulose types have showed that cellulose(I) has two chains

that lie parallel to one another in the unit cell. Cellulose(II) has the direction of the chains in the unit cell in an anti parallel orientation.

Cellulose (Fig1.4) can be regarded as a semi-flexible linear chain of 1-4-linked B-D glucopyranose units with a high degree of polymerization(DP) in native fibers (up to  $6 \times 10^3$  in cotton linters [O'sullivan, 1997]). This is drastically lowered by processing the native fibers of wood pulp.



**Fig (1.4): The chemical constitution of cellulose**

### **There are three molecular levels of cellulose**

The molecular level

In this level cellulose is treated as single macro-molecule and the concepts are considered: chemical constitution molecular mass distribution.

The super molecular level

In level 2, cellulose molecules interact with other cellulose chains in the form of packing to form larger structures, the concepts are of importance: aggregation of the molecular chain to form elementary crystals and fibers.

The morphological level:

The existence of distinct cell wall layers in native cellulose fibers or in the skin core structures in man-made cellulosic fibers. [M.Marx, 1969]

Cellulose has many uses as emulsifier, stabilizer, dispersing agent, thickener, Kraft' Parmesan cheese to prevent caking inside the tube. In

the laboratory cellulose is used as stationary phase for thin layer chromatography and powder cellulose are used as inactive fillers in tablets. Some cellulose derivative material such as methylcellulose and carboxymethylcellulose, are used as water-soluble adhesives and binders as well as constituent of wallpaper paste.[Krassig, 1996]

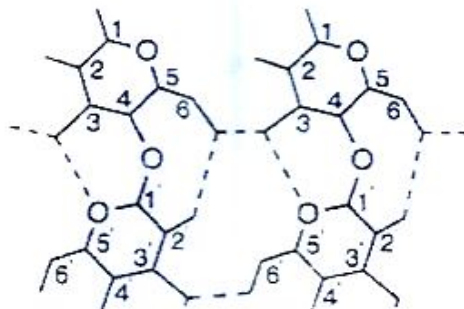
Cellulose is found in plant as micro-fibrils (2-20 nm DIAMETER AND 100-4000 nm long) these form the strong structure of the cell walls. Cellulose is mostly prepared from wood pulp. It is also produced in highly hydrated form by some bacteria (for example, acetobacteraxylum). The important natural source of cellulose is cotton; it is composed of 91% pure of cellulose, flax, straw, wood, mesquite (40%) and calotropis (42%). [Caoetal, 2009]

#### **1.1.7.2 Hydrogen Bonding**

Three hydroxyl groups are available for reaction in each repeating unit of cellulose, the structure of cellulose being largely affected by hydrogen bonds and vander Waals forces. Hydrogen bonding within neighboring cellulose chains may act to determine the straightness of the chain, and impart improved mechanical properties and thermal stability to the cellulose fibers. Inter-chain hydrogen bonds might introduce order or disorder into the system depending on their irregularity. So, understanding hydrogen bonding within the I $\alpha$  and I $\beta$  structures is important as it governs the stability and properties of these polymorphs and of cellulose itself. With the hydroxyl groups being equatorial to the cellulose ring plane, intra- and inter chain hydrogen bonding is most prevalent within the (110) plane in the triclinic structure and within the (200) plane in the monoclinic structure, hence the name "hydrogen-bonded" plane. On the other hand, intra-chain hydrogen bonding is dominated by strong O3-H $\cdots$ O5 bonds, As shown in (Fig1.5).

Inter-chain hydrogen bonding within the other planes (010), (100) in the triclinic structure and the planes (110) and (110) in the monoclinic structure is substantially lower and attractive van der Waals forces are believed to dominate the cohesion forces between cellulose chains. Within these planes, the number of weak inter-chain hydrogen bonds in the I $\beta$  structure is believed to be larger than in the I $\alpha$  polymorph and it has been suggested that it would contribute to the higher stability of the I $\beta$  form, as compared to the I $\alpha$  form. The I $\alpha$  hydrogen bonds thermally degrade at lower temperatures, contributing to the lower I $\alpha$  thermal stability. [Moon et al, 2011]

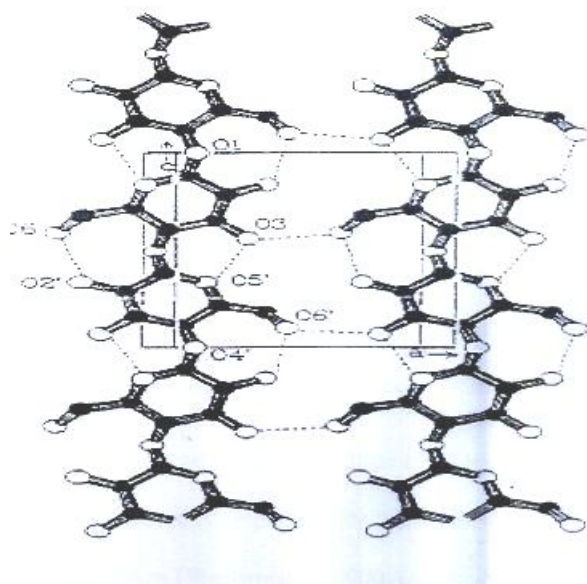
In this way, this study focuses on the characterization of structure and thermal properties of cellulose I, sometimes referred to as native cellulose. This work investigates the relationship between chemical structure, hydrogen bond interactions, crystallite size and crystallinity and the influence of these parameters on the thermal stability and decomposition kinetics of cellulose fibers obtained by two different pulping processes.



**Fig(1.5): Hydrogen bond system of cellulose I**

### 1.1.7.3 Crystal Structure

The order of the macromolecules in a cellulose fiber is not uniform throughout the whole structure. There exist regions of low order (so-called amorphous regions) as well as of very high crystalline order. The experimental evidence available today is inadequately interpreted by a two-phase model, the fringed fibril model, assuming low order (amorphous) and high-order (crystalline) regions and neglecting the rather small amount of matter with an intermediate state of order. The relative amount of polymer within the highly ordered regions is usually assessed from wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) patterns or from the evaluation of a  $^{13}\text{C}$  CP-MAS NMR spectrum. The degree of crystallinity of cellulose (usually in the range of 40% to 60%) covers a wide range and depends on the origin and pretreatment of the sample. [Klemm et al, 2005]



**Figure (1.6): Most Probable Bond Pattern of Cellulose I**

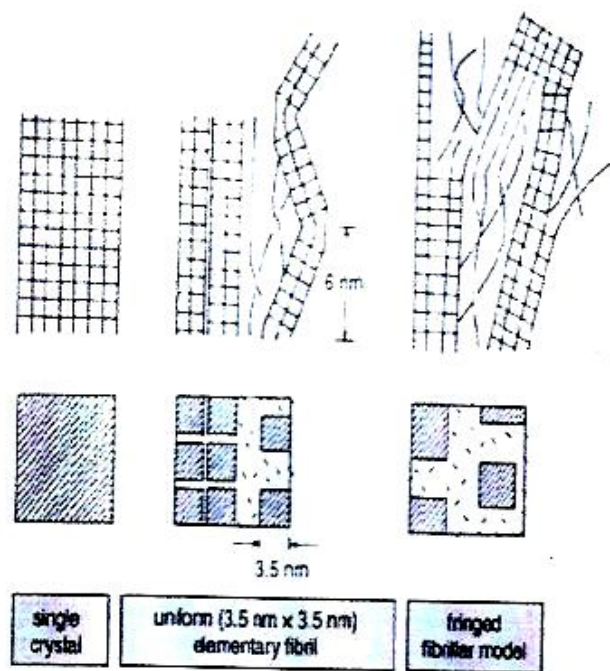
#### **1.1.7.4 Morphology**

The biological function and numerous applications of cellulose are based on its distinct fiber morphology. The morphological hierarchy is defined by elementary fibrils, microfibrils, and microfibrillar bands. The lateral dimensions of these structural units are between 1.5 and 3.5 nm (elementary fibrils), between 10 and 30 nm (microfibrils), and on the order of 100 nm (microfibrillar bands). The length of the microfibrils is on the order of several hundred nm.

The fringed fibrillar model with crystalline regions of varying dimensions (crystallites) and monocrystalline regions have been proven successful for the description of the structure of microfibrils and the partial crystalline structure of cellulose in connection with the reactivity of this polymer. The degree of crystallinity of cellulose and the dimensions of the crystallites have been the subject of extensive investigations for many years. Some results of X-ray diffraction measurements of native celluloses have been compiled in notably, the lateral crystallite dimensions of regenerated cellulose (cellulose II) are in the range of 4–5 nm regardless of the production process whereas in native celluloses, values of up to 20 nm have been observed. The reasons for the formation of nearly uniform cross-sectional dimensions of these cellulose II crystallites from different structure-forming processes still have to be clarified.

The pore structure can be considered the counterpart to the fibril morphology of cellulose. It is considerably important for the accessibility in chemical reactions and enzymatic degradation. The controlled variation of pore structures enables cellulose products to meet the needs of a wide range of applications, from highly specialized membrane and carrier materials to consumer goods, such as nonwovens, with excellent absorption properties.





**Fig(1.7):** Various models of the supramolecular structure of cellulose micro fibrils.

## **1.2 Extraction of cellulose from its natural source**

### **1.2.1 Isolation**

Isolation based on acidified sodium chloride is frequently applied to delignify wood materials as an initial step in the isolation of cellulose. [Loader et al., 1997] Alkali extraction to dissolve hemicelluloses before or after delignification is the common method. Treatment of the lignocelluloses materials with chlorite can remove almost all lignin at room temperature. [buchala and Fraser, 1972]

#### **There are three methods of isolation**

Delignification and alkali extraction method: This method is considered as the most efficient method for separating cellulose from straws and by releasing large amounts of lignin and hemicellulosic polysaccharides, respectively in particular, most of the lignins can be removed in a delignification step using chloride. Delignification can significantly facilitate the extraction of the hemicelluloses during alkali treatment and therefore result in the residues of cellulosic polymers having. [Josefsson et al., 5001]

Steam explosion method: In this method the significant amounts of hemicelluloses are partially hydrolyzed and lignins are depolymerized resulting in sugars and phenolic compounds that are soluble in water. Therefore, this process generally followed by fraction step such as alkaline extraction to separate the main cellulose components. [Sun et al., 2003]

Alkaline peroxide extraction method: This method exhibits good performance in isolation of cellulose. It is recently used to isolate complex from straws. [Graenacher, 1934]

### **1.2.2 Etherification of cellulose:**

In the etherification of cellulose, N-alkylpyridinium halides is used, especially N-ethylpyridinium chloride and N-benzylpyridinium chloride. These solvents are used because of their high melting points, and were therefore diluted with organic solvents, such as dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and dimethylformamide (DMF) pyridine.[Zloang et al., 2004]

### **1.2.3 Acetylation**

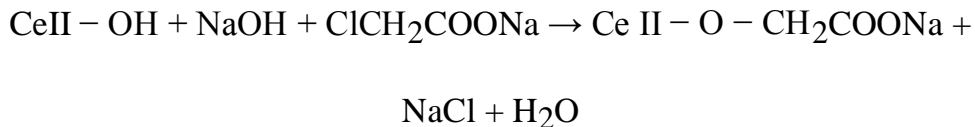
Acetylation of cellulose is carried out either in the presence or absence of base[Lewin, 2006]using acetic anhydride or acetic chloride as acetylating reagent. Cellulos acetates are produced by reaction of cellulose with an excess of sulphuric acid or perchloric acid as the catalyst.[Myllmaki and Alcsela, 2005]

Acetylation of cellulose can also be found without a catalyst

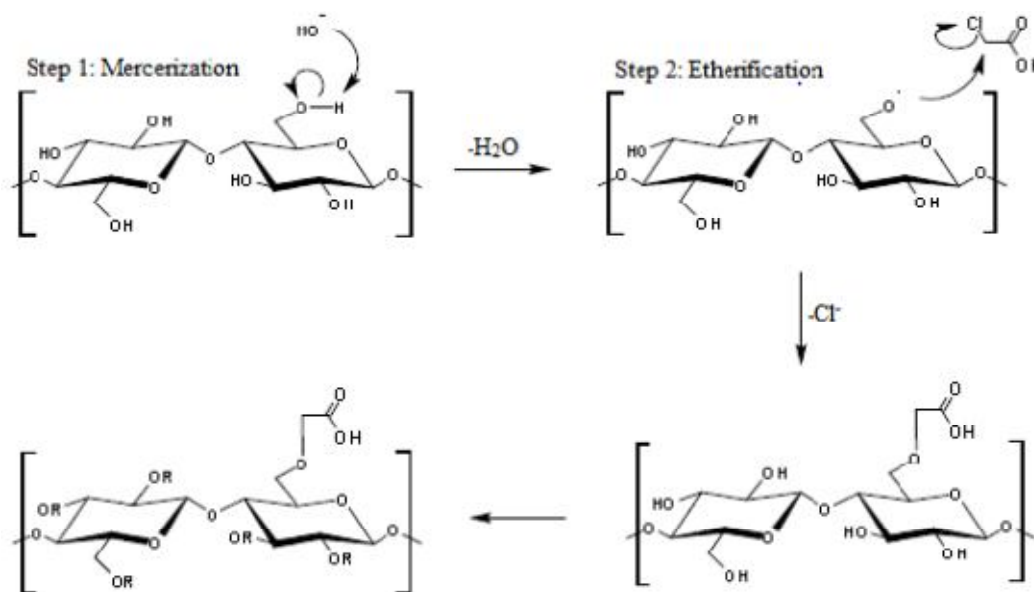
## **1.3 Synthesis of Carboxymethylcellulose (CMC)s**

Sodium carboxymethylcellulose (Na-CMC) was produced by conversion of alkali cellulose wollen in aqueous NaOH and a surplus of organic solvent (e.g. isopropanol, ethanol) with monochloro acetic acid (MCAA) or its sodium salt. The hydroxyl groups in cellulose are usually replaced by the carboxymethyl groups in the order of C2>C6> C3. [Heinze et al., 2005]

In practice, the manufacturing of CMC involves two steps (Scheme 1.5). In the first step, the cellulose is treated with NaOH, often in the presence of inert solvent, which act as both swelling agent and a dilatant and thus facilitate good penetration of NaOH into the cellulose structure. The alkali cellulose is accessible and reactive toward MCA, which is added to reaction in the second step. The reaction between alkali cellulose and the etherification agent carried out in aqueous system. According to the following reaction:



A considerable amount of the etherifying agent, up to 30%, is consumed in side reaction with the aqueous NaOH forming predominantly sodium glycolate by hydrolysis of chloroacetate. The CMC can be neutralized and dried immediately to give a technical grade or neutralized and washed to give a purified grade.



**Fig (1.8):Carboxymethylation reaction**

#### 1.4 Applications of purified CMC

Cellulose derivatives being of natural origin have diverse physicochemical properties because of substituents DS, Molecular weight and degree of polymerization (DP) are reversed for their large scale use mainly as additives of fine / special chemicals in textile, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, Food and backing industries.

CMC is non-toxic and it is currently finding an increasing number of applications in pharmaceutical, medical and food industries. It is a key component in control drug –release pills and in the manufacture of personal care products. It is also used in gels applied as protecting agent during heart throat and cornea surgery, most of the CMC application based on it is rheological properties. The ability of CMC to function as a thickener or flow-controlled agent depends largely on its degree of substitution, molecular weight and stiffness of the cellulose back bone.

Applications of CMC span wide range of products and industries. CMC is used as thickening agent and purified CMC is used as a stabilizer in foods, particularly in dairy products such as ice cream, yogurt, and milk drinks, other food applications include beverages, syrups, baked goods, and pet foods. Other major industrial consumers that use purified CMC for its properties as a binder and thickener include producers of paper, the ceramics industry, and the textiles industry. Crude/unrefined CMC is used in laundry detergents as soil antired position aid, tobacco, cosmetics, foods, pharmaceuticals, adhesives, Aerial-drop fluids, Coatings and lithography.

Some applications for purified CMC illustrated in the following tables .

**Table (1.1): Applications of CMC in Cosmetics industries**

<b>Specific application</b>	<b>Properties utilized</b>
Toothpaste	Thickener; flavor stabilizer; suspending aid; binder
Shampoos; foamed	Suspending aid; thickener; foam stabilizer; high water- binding capacity
Creams; lotions	Emulsion stabilizer; film former; thickener
Gelled products	Thickener; gelling agent; film-former
Denture adhesives	Wet tack; long-lasting adhesion

**Table (1.2): Application of CMC in Pharmaceuticals industries**

<b>Specific application</b>	<b>Properties utilized</b>
Ointments; creams; lotions	Stabilizer; thickener; film-former
Jellies; salves	Thickener; gelling agent; protective colloid; film-former
Tablet binder; granulation aid	High-strength binder
Bulk laxatives	Physiologically inert; high water-binding capacity
Syrups	Thickener
Suspensions	Thickener; suspending aid

**Table (1.3): Applications of CMC in Aerial drop fluids and Coatings industries**

<b>Specific application</b>	<b>Properties utilized</b>
Insecticides	Thickener; binder; suspending aid
Drift-control agent	Thickener
Latex paints; paper coatings	Rheology control; suspending aid; protective colloid
Foundry core wash	Binder; thickener; suspending aid

**Table (1.4): Applications of CMC in Foods Industries**

<b>Specific Application</b>	<b>Properties Utilized</b>
Frozen desserts; soft-serve	Controls ice crystal growth; improves mouthfeel; body; and texture
Pet food	Water binder; gravy thickener; extrusion aid; binder of fines
Protein foods	Retains water; improves mouthfeel
Baked goods	Batter viscosifier; improves moisture retention and texture
Beverages	Suspending aid; rapid viscosifier; improves mouthfeel and body; protein stabilizer in acidified drinks
Desserts; icings; toppings	Odorless and tasteless; thickens; controls sugar crystal size; improves texture; inhibits syneresis
Low-calorie foods	No caloric value (2); thickens; imparts body and mouthfeel
Syrups	Clear; thickens; imparts favorable mouthfeel and body
Dressings; sauces	Thickener and suspending aid; imparts mouthfeel
Animal feed; extrusion Products	Lubricant; binder; film-former

**Table (1.5): Applications of CMC in Detergents and Lithography and Tobacco Industries**

<b>Specific application</b>	<b>Properties utilized</b>
Laundry	Whiteness retention through soil suspension
Fountain and gumming solutions	Hydrophilic protective film
Water-based inks	Binder; rheology control; suspending aid
Cigar and cigarette adhesive	Good wet tack; high film strength
Reconstituted sheet	High -strength binder and suspending aid

### **1.5 previous study**

Many studies were handled for converting cellulose extracted from different natural resources to carboxymethylcellulose (CMC). Many parameters were considered to optimize the yields, Degree of substitution (DS) value and rheological behavior of the synthesized CMC material.

Pushpamalaret *al.*, (2006) isolated cellulose from sago waste and converted it to CMC by etherification using sodium monochloroacetate in the presence of sodium hydroxide. The reaction was optimized against temperature, concentration of NaOH and reaction time. The optimized product has a large value of DS of 0.821. The optimized DS value was obtained using pure isopropyl alcohol as the solvent medium, reaction period of 180 min, 6.0 g of sodium monochloroacetate, 10 mL of 25% NaOH aqueous solution and a reaction temperature of 45 °C. Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectra were used to characterize the CMC product.



Adinugraha and Marseno, (2005) studied the synthesis and characterization of Na-CMC from Cavendish banana pseudo stem. The cellulose powder was extracted using an aqueous solution of 8% NaOH at 100 °C for 3.5 h, and then bleached with an aqueous solution of 5% NaOCl at 30 °C for 3 h. The cellulose was then alkalinized with 5–30% NaOH at 25 °C for 1 h then variable quantities of 3-7 g of ClCH<sub>2</sub>COONa were added per 5 g cellulose. The results showed that the cellulose alkalinized by 15% NaOH gave CMC of the optimum properties, i.e. DS of 0.75, viscosity of 4033 cps, purity of 98.63 % and crystallinity of 38.33 %.

Aguir and M'henni, (2006) studied the production of CMC from bleached cellulose pulps obtained from *Posidoniaoceanica*. The carboxymethylation reaction was carried out with NaOH and monochloro acetic acid (MCA) as the reagent. The highest DS (2.75) was obtained with *n*-butanol at an optimum temperature of 80 °C. The best molar ratios of cellulose/NaOH and cellulose/MCA were 1/3.

Hutomoet *al.*, (2012) studied the synthesis and characterization of Na-CMC from pod husk of Cacao. The optimum conditions used to produce CMC of higher DS value of 0.75 were 15% NaOH, temperature 55.93°C, 4g NaMCA and 3h reaction period. The aqueous solution of CMC of the highest DS value (0.75) exhibited viscosity of 206.10 cps.

Varshneyet *al.*, (2006) synthesized CMC from cellulose isolated from *Lantana camara*, using optimized set of conditions include 20% NaOH aqueous solution, an amount of MCA of 2.05 mol/AGU, carboxymethylation time of 3.5 h, temperature of 55 °C and isopropyl alcohol as a solvent medium. The resulting CMC had a viscosity of 600 cps (1% solution) and 7500 cps (2% solution) and DS value of 1.22.

Haleemet *al.*, 2014 studied the synthesis of CMC from waste of cotton ginning (CGW) industry. The isolated cellulose was converted to CMC by etherification reaction using Na-MCA and different concentrations of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) (5 – 40 g/100 mL). The optimum NaOH concentration for the carboxymethylation reaction was found to be 20 g/100 mL NaOH which provided the highest DS value (0.874). The aqueous solution of optimized CMC exhibited the highest viscosity.

Mat Som, (2004) studied the preparation and characterization of CMC from oil palm empty fruit bunch fibers. The work involved manipulation of three variable parameters namely, reaction temperature (55, 60 and 70 °C), time of reaction (4, 6, 8, 16, 18 and 20 h) and concentration of sodium hydroxide (2.6 moles and 3.4 moles per mole of monochloro acetic acid). Thirty-six grades of CMC material were produced and characterized. The findings showed that the percent yield of CMC, moisture content, DS, purity, viscosity and ash content were in the range of 49.76 – 58.62%, 7.3 – 8.8%, 0.74 – 0.95, 85.5 – 99.5%, 116 – 2217 cps and 15.2 – 20.2%, respectively.

Overall judgment on the selection of the best processing conditions was preferably of 55 °C, 2.6 moles NaOH and 4 h reaction time. The conversion of cellulose to CMC material was indicated from the FT-IR spectra of as-synthesized and commercial CMC materials. Both materials exhibited similar patterns with the presence of peaks at the fingerprint regions between 1300 and 1580 cm<sup>-1</sup> due to the presence of carboxymethyl group.

Latifet *al.*, (2007) studied the synthesis and characterization of CMC from rayon grade wood pulp and cotton linter. The dried cellulose was alkalized using 40% NaOH solution at 25 °C for 1.5 hour. The carboxymethylation reactions were conducted using various amounts of

Na-MCA (5-7g) per 5 g of cellulose, a temperature of 55 °C, reaction time of 3.5 h and isopropyl alcohol solvent. The optimum DS value of the synthesized CMC was found to be 1.9.

Heydarzadehet *et al.*, (2009) studied the catalyst-free conversion of alkalized cellulose to fine CMC at mild conditions. The preparation of CMC was conducted using sodium hydroxide solution in sequential reactions involve MCA species at desired conditions. CMC has been successfully synthesized in a batch reactor with DS value of 0.15 to 0.7 and excellent purity of 99.3% at pH 7. The maximum DS of 0.7 was obtained using 40% monochloroacetate (MCA) and 30% NaOH. The samples of CMC were characterized by SEM and FT-IR spectroscopic techniques. The synthesized CMC was easily dissolved in water and was found to be of pharmaceutical and food grade.

Joshi *et al.*, (2015) studied the synthesis and characterization of CMC from mixed office waste papers (MOW). After deinking, the cellulosic pulps of MOW papers were functionalized with carboxymethyl group to give CMC of high value of DS. The carboxymethylation process was completed using NaOH and ClCH<sub>2</sub>COONa in an alcoholic medium. Maximum DS value of 1.07 was obtained by conducting the reaction process at 50 °C for 3 hours using solutions of 0.094 M NaOH and 0.108 M ClCH<sub>2</sub>COONa.

## **1.6 Objectives**

The objectives of this study were to:

- Investigate and characterize the stabilizer.
- Determine sodium chloride percent.
- Determine free glycolate percent.
- Determine CMC percent in the stabilizer.

# *Chapter Two*

## **Materials and Methods**

## **Chapter two**

### **Materials and Methods**

#### **2.1 Materials**

Stabilizer sample, copper sulfate, distilled water naphthol TS and sulfuric acid.

##### **2.1.1 Methods**

###### **2.1.1.1 Foam test**

A 0.1% solution of the sample was vigorously shaken. No layer of foam appeared.

###### **2.1.1.2 Precipitate formation**

5 ml of a 5% solution of copper sulfate was added to 5 ml of a 0.5 % solution of the sample . A precipitate appeared.

###### **2.1.1.3 Color reaction**

0.5 g of powdered carboxymethylcellulose sodium were added to 50 ml of water, while stirring to produce a uniform dispersion. Stirred until a clear solution was produced. 1 ml of the solution, diluted with 1 ml of water, put in a small test tube, 5 drops of 1-naphthol TS were added to the diluted solution. The test tube was inclined, and 2 ml of sulfuric acid were carefully introduced down the side of the tube so that it forms a lower layer. A red-purple colour develops at the interface.

#### **2.2. Purity**

##### **2.2.1 Materials**

Stabilizer sample, nitric acid, silver nitrate, ammonium thiocyanate glacial acetic acid, distilled water, acetone, sulfuric acid and ammonium carbonate.

### 2.2.2.1 Sodium chloride

5 g of the sample was heated, in porcelain crucible, first with a small flame so that the sample does not ignite and then, when the charring is complete, then heated further in an electric oven for 15 min at about 500C°. After cooling, the ashes were pulverized thus obtained and extracted several times with warm water. The extracts were but into a 500-ml volumetric flask, acidified with nitric acid and diluted to the mark. The NaCl content of 100 ml of this extract was determined by the method of Volhard, using 0.02 N silver nitrate and 0.02 N ammonium thiocyanate. Each ml of 0.02 N silver nitrate is equivalent to 1.169 mg of NaCl. The sodium chloride content was calculated by the formula:

$$\%NaCl = \frac{a \times 0.001169 \times 5}{b} \times 100$$

Where a is ml of 0.02 N silver nitrate used

b is dry weight of 5 g of the sample

### 2.2.2.2 Free glycolate

0.5 g of the sample were weighed, and transferred to a 100-ml beaker. The sample was moistened thoroughly with 5 ml of glacial acetic acid, followed by 5 ml of water, and stirred with a glass rod for about 15 minutes until the solution is complete. Then 50 ml of acetone were slowly added while stirring and then approximately 1 g of sodium sulfate. Then stirred for several minute till a complete precipitation of the carboxymethyl cellulose was noted. Then filtered through a soft, open-texture paper, previously wetted with a small amount of acetone, the filtrate was then collected in a 100-ml volumetric flask. 30 ml of acetone was used to facilitate the transfer of the solids and to wash the filter cake. A volume with acetone and mix was made up.

A blank solution containing 5 ml of water, 5 ml of glacial acetic acid and acetone was prepared in another 100-ml volumetric flask. 2 ml of the sample solution and 2 ml of the blank solution were pipet into two 25-ml volumetric flasks. The acetone was removed by heating the uncovered flasks upright in a boiling water bath for exactly 20 min. Cooled to room temperature then 5 ml of 1-naphthol were added, mixed thoroughly, then 15 ml more of the TS were added and mixed. The mouth of the flask was then Covered with a small piece of aluminum foil and heated upright in the boiling water bath for 20 min. Cooled to room temperature and made up to volume with 1- naphthol.

The absorbance of sample solution was measured against blank solution at 540 nm using 1-cm cells. The corresponding mg of glycolic acid from the calibration curve obtained as follows:

0, 1, 2, 3 and 4-ml aliquots of standard glycolic acid solution (1mg per ml, prepared by weighing accurately 0.100 g of glycolic acid, previously dried in a vacuum pipet for at least 16 h, and then dissolving in 100 ml of water; do not keep the solution longer than 30 days) were introduced into a series of five 100-ml volumetric flasks. Water was added to each flask to a volume of 5 ml, then 5 ml of glacial acetic acid was added and made up with acetone to mark and mix. 2 ml of each solution (containing, respectively, 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 mg of glycolic acid per 100 ml) were pipet into a series of five 25-ml volumetric flasks and proceeded in the same manner as described for the Test Solution. The mg of glycolic acid in the original 100 ml of solution plotted against absorbance gave a calibration curve. The sodium glycolate (free glycolate) content was calculated by the formula:

$$\% \text{ sodiumglycolate} = \frac{a \times 0.0129}{b}$$



Where  $a$  is mg of glycolic acid read from the calibration curve

$b$  is g of dry-weight of the sample

### **2.2.2.3 Degree of substitution**

#### **Sample preparation**

5 g of the sample were weighed and transferred into a 500-ml conical flask. 350 ml of methanol (80% by volume) were added. The suspension was shaken mechanically for 30 min. Decanted through a tared glass filtering crucible under gentle suction. The treatment was repeated with the extraction liquid until the test for chloride ions with a solution of silver nitrate TS was negative. The sodium carboxymethyl cellulose was transferred into the same crucible. The extraction liquid that adheres to the substance with acetone was displaced. The crucible was dried in an oven at 110° cooled and weighed repeatedly until constant in weight.

#### **Procedure**

2g were weighed, of the bone dry substance, obtained with the above-mentioned alcohol-extraction procedure, in a tared porcelain crucible. Initially, charred carefully with a small flame and afterwards for 10 min, with a large flame. The residue was cooled and then moistened with 3-5 ml of concentrate sulfuric acid. Heated cautiously until the fuming is finished. After some cooling about 1 g of ammonium carbonate was added, by distributing the powder over the whole contents of the crucible. Heated again, initially with a small flame until the fuming is finished and heated then at a dull red heat for 10 min. The crucible was placed for 1 h in an oven at about 600C°.

The sodium content of the alcohol-extracted sample was calculated by the formula:

$$\% \text{ sodium} = \frac{a \times 32.38}{b}$$

Where  $a$  is the weight of residual sodium sulfate

$b$  is the weight of the alcohol-extracted dry sample

Calculate the degree of substitution by the formula:

$$\text{Degree of substitution} = \frac{162 \times \% \text{ sodium}}{2300 - (80\% \times \% \text{ sodium})}$$

### **Method of assay**

The percentage of sodium carboxymethyl cellulose in the sample was calculated by subtracting from 100% the sum of the percentages of sodium chloride and sodium glycolate (free glycolate), determined separately by the procedures above.

$$\text{Content\%} = 100 - (\% \text{ NaCl} + \% \text{ sodium glycolate})$$

# *Chapter three*

## **Results and discussion**

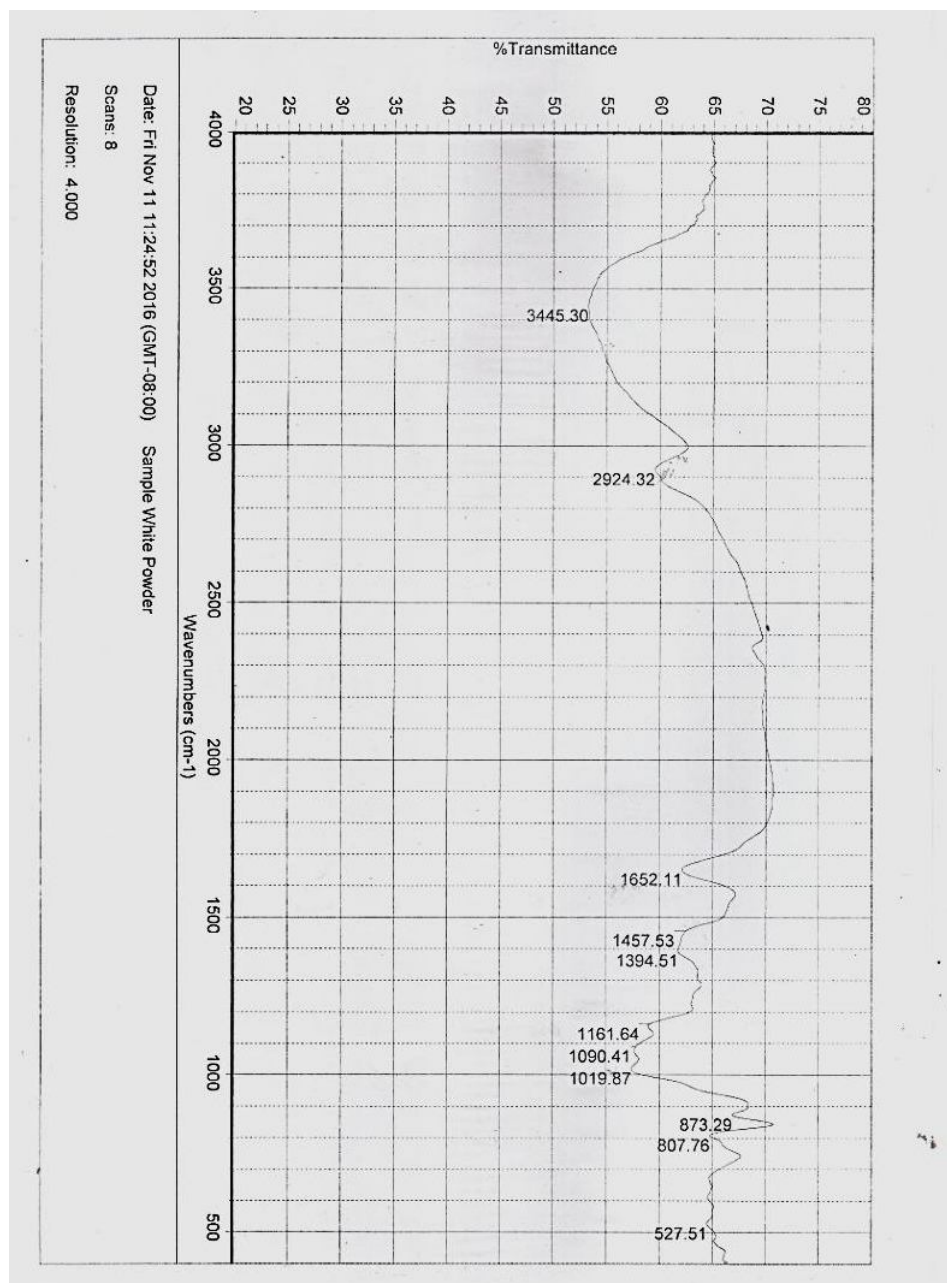
## **Chapter three**

### **Results and Discussion**

#### **3.1 Characteristics of CMC by Infrared (IR)**

FT-IR spectroscopy was used to indicate the presence of carboxymethyl group, it was also used to examine other group in the product.

The notable peak at  $3445\text{ cm}^{-1}$  O-H st vib as intramolecular and intermolecular hydrogen bond,  $2924\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is C-H st vib, peak from  $1457\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $1652\text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicate of presence of carboxymethyl cellulose, peak, at  $1393\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is OH bending peak at  $1090\text{ cm}^{-1}$  OCH-O-CH<sub>2</sub> st.



Infrared spectrum CMC with DS of 0.2 was shown above, The peaks at wave number of 1652 and 1457 indicated of presence of carboxymethyl cellulose. According to Djagaw.Marseno (2005), carboxyl group, peaks appear at wave number of 1652 cm<sup>-1</sup> And 1394-1457 cm<sup>-1</sup> the peaks at wave numbers of 2924 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3445 cm<sup>-1</sup> here attributed to contamination from impurities or combination band from water.

### 3.2 Sodium Chloride Percent

$$\%NaCl = \frac{a \times 0.001169 \times 5}{b} \times 100$$

Where

$$a = 4.15 \text{ cm}^3$$

$$b = 5 \text{ g}$$

Therefore

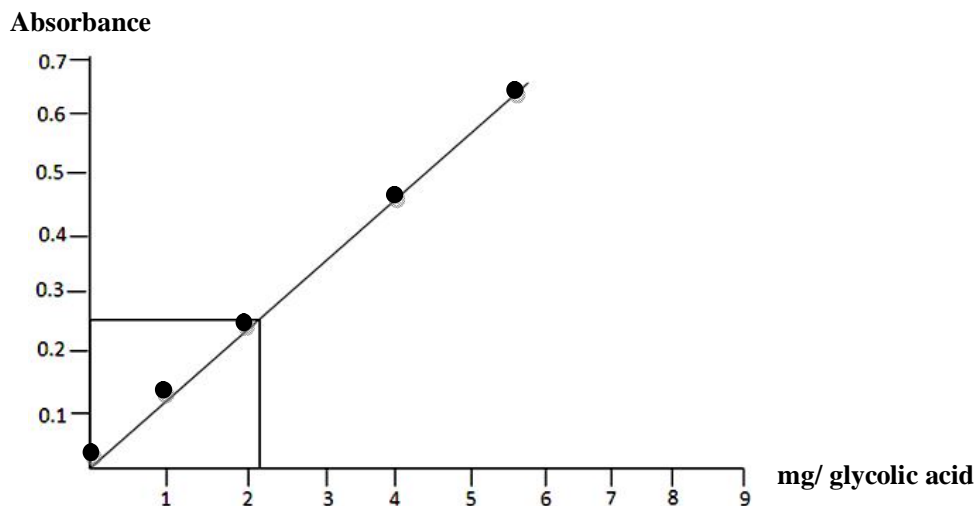
$$\begin{aligned} \% \text{ NaCl} &= \frac{4.15 \times 0.001169 \times 5}{5} \times 100 \\ &= 0.4851\% \end{aligned}$$

### 3.3 Free Glycolate Percent

**Absorbance of the sample = 0.268**

<b>Mg of glycolic acid</b>	<b>absorbance</b>
0	0.000
1	0.110
2	0.260
3	0.467
4	0.668

## mg of Glycolic acid Vs absorbance



Sodium glycolate (free glycolate) content calculated by the formula:

$$\% \text{ Sodium glycolate} = \frac{a \times 0.129}{b}$$

Where:

a is mg of glycolic acid read from the calibration curve (0.268 g)

b is g of dry – weight of the sample (0.5g)

there fore:

$$\% \text{ sodium glycolate} = \frac{2.3 \times 0.129}{0.5} \times 100\% = 0.5934\%$$

### 3.4 Degree of Substitution

Firstly the sodium content of the of the alcohol extracted sample by the formula

$$\% \text{ sodium} = \frac{a \times 32.38}{B} \times 100$$

Where

a= 0.2118

b= 2.7831

Therefore

$$\% \text{ sodium} = \frac{0.2118 \times 32.38}{2.7831} = 2.4642\%$$

Degree of substitution

$$= \frac{162 \times \% \text{ sodium}}{2300 - (80 \times \% \text{ sodium})}$$

$$\frac{162 \times 2.4642}{2300 - (80 \times 2.4642)} = 0.1898$$

### 3.5 Assay: (Percent of CMC)

Content % = 100 - (NaCl + % sodium glycolate)

There fore

$$= 100 - (0.4851 + 0.5934)$$

$$= 98.9215\%$$



### **3.6 Conclusion**

The present of Sodium Carboxymethy cellulose was characterize Successfully it was found to be 98.92%, sodium chloride and sodium free glycolate were determined it was found to be 0.48, 0.59% respectively. Ds value were determined it was found to be 0.2.

## References

Adinugraha, M.P; Marseno, D.W; (2005). Haryadi, Synthesis and characterization of sodium carboxymethyl cellulose from cavendish banana pseudo stem (*Musa cavendishi* LAMBERT). Carbohydrate Polymers, **62**; **164-169**.

Arbuckle, W.S. Ice cream, IV , ED. The Avi pub .co., New York, USA (1986).

Buchala, A.J; Fraser C.G; Wilkie , K.C.B; (1972). Extraction of hemicelluloses from oat tissues during the process of delignification *Phytochemistry* ,**11** ,**1249-1254**.

CaO, Y; Wu, J; Zhang, J; Zhang, H.Q.Li.Y; He, J.S; (2009). Room Temperature Ionic Liquids (RTILs): a new and versatile platform for cellulose processing and derivatization , *chem. Eng. J.* **147**, **13-21**.

Cellulose, 4, 173-207.

Goff, H.D. Colloidal aspects of ice cream – a review. *Int. Dairy J.* **7**:**363-373**(1997).

Graenacher, C; (1934) . US patent **1943176**.

Hattori, K.E; Abe, T; Yoshida, J ;(2004). New solvents for Cellulose II ethylenediamine/thiocyanate salt system. *Polymer.*,**36** ,**2**, **123-130**.

Keeney, P.G. Development of frozen emulsions. *Food Technol.* **36**(**11**): **65 – 70** (1982).

Krassig, H; (1996), Cellulose, Polymer Monographs Volume , Gordon & Breach Science Publisher; Amsterdam. **11** , **6-42**.

Lewin, M; (2006). Handbook of Fiber Chemistry, CRC press.

Loader, N.J; Robertson I; Barker , A; Switsur V.R; Waterhouse, J.S ;(1997) . An improved technique for the batch processing of small wholewood samples to alpha-cellulose , Chem. Geol, **136**, **313-317**.

M.Marx- Figini,J; (1969). Polym.Sci.,**28**, **57** .

Myllymaki, V; Aksela, P; (2005). Macromol .Biosci.,**5**, **520**.

O'Sullivan, A.C; (1997). Cellulose: The structure slowly unravels.

Payen, A ;(1838). Memoir on the composition of the tissue of plants and of woody (material), BrongniartandGuillemain; Paris,France,**7**,**1052-1056**.

Rawford, R.L; (1981).Lignin biodegradation Wiley-Sons ; New York. **0-05743-6**.

Sherif, M.A.S; Kask, [www.wikipedia.com](http://www.wikipedia.com), **31/7/2012 at 1:30 pm**.

Sun, X.F., Sun , R.C, Tomkinson, J. and Baird , M.S; (2003). Isolation and characterization of lignin, hemicelluloses from wheat straw by alkaline peroxide treatment . Cellulose chemistry and technology, **37(3-4)**, PP. **283-304**.

Sun, X.F; Xu,F; R.C; Fowier, P. and Baird , M,S; (2005). Characteristics of degraded cellulose obtained from steam . exploded wheat straw. Carbohydrate research, **340(1)**, PP. **97-106**.

Sun,X.F; Sun ,R.C; Tomkinson, J; Baird, M.S; (2003) . Isolation and characterization of lignins, hemicelluloses, and celluloses from wheat straw by alkaline peroxide treatment , Cellul. Chem. Technol. **37**, **283-304**.

Thomas, G.M., Paquite , E.M; Thomas, J.P; (2002). Cellulose ethers. Encyclopedia of polymer science and technology. New York: Wiley (online posting).

Wu, J; Zhang, He, J; Ren, Q; Guo, M. (2004).

Xu, F; Sun, J.X. and Sun, R.C; (2005). Characteristics of Cellulose isolated by totally chlorine- Free method from fast –growing poplar wood , oil palm frond fiber and cereal straws. Cellulose chemistry and technology , **39 (1-2)**, PP. **3-23**.

Young, Raymond (1986) Cellulose structure modification and hydrolysis. New York: Wiley. ISBN**0471827614**.