

## Study of Extraction and Characterization of lignin from different Sources

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**ABSTRACT:** Plant cell walls contain lignin, a complex aromatic polymer that is vital for maintaining structural integrity and resistance to deterioration. In this work, lignin is extracted and characterized from a variety of biomass sources, such as wood and agricultural waste. Lignin is isolated using a variety of extraction techniques, including kraft pulping, organosolv procedures, and enzymatic treatments, with an emphasis on comprehending how these techniques affect yield and characteristics. The structural characteristics and functional groups of the extracted lignin are examined using characterization techniques such as Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. The findings show notable differences in the molecular weight, solubility, and chemical makeup of lignin obtained from various sources.

**KEYWORDS:** Nanoparticles, lignins, nanolignins, nanofilms, acid precipitation, organosolvents, antimicrobial, antioxidant

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### I. INTRODUCTION:

Ten to twenty-five percent of lignocellulosic biomass is made up of lignin, the second the most abundant natural polymer after cellulose. Coniferyl, sinapyl, and p-coumaryl alcohols are the three types of substituted phenols that make up this highly cross-linked, three-dimensional macromolecule. Enzymatic polymerization produces a large number of functional groups and connections. Numerous materials, such as jute, hemp, cotton, and wood pulp, contain lignin. One of the most plentiful and renewable resources on the planet is lignin, an amorphous natural polymer made from phenylpropane. Because lignin is difficult to isolate, analyze compositionally, and characterize structurally, its definition has never been as simple as that of other natural polymers like cellulose. Instead of being a single molecule, lignin is a collection of naturally occurring phenolic polymers with a diverse variety of compositions and interunit connections. Lignin's intrinsic complexity and the fact that its composition and structure vary depending on where it comes from make it challenging to define precisely. One important step in the conversion process involving lignocellulosic biomass is pretreatment, which aims to break down the lignocellulosic matrix. Three-dimensional, irregular, hydrophobic, non-toxic, and biodegradable, lignin is a macromolecule. Lignin has gained increased recognition as a low-cost byproduct of the pulp and paper industry. According to Argopoulos and Menachin (1998), there are an estimated 300 billion metric tonnes of lignin in total on Earth, of which 20 billion metric tonnes are created each year through biosynthesis. As a result, lignin is anticipated to be a key raw material in the worldwide bio-based economy, particularly in the production of biofuels and bioproducts. Increased interest

lignin in herbaceous plants is mostly due to two factors: (a) their capacity for yearly regeneration and (b) the fact that herbaceous plants accumulate the most biomass annually. Growing interest in lignocellulosic material as a source for energy, chemical, and material production has resulted from the persistent oil shortage. The main function of lignin is to bond fibers, giving them structural stiffness and shielding trees from physical and chemical dangers.

Historically, lignin was predominantly seen as a challenge to industries that sought to extract cellulose and hemicellulose from plant biomass. Its robust and complex structure, interwoven with aromatic rings and irregular linkages, posed obstacles to facile processing. Consequently, lignin was relegated to a secondary role, often incinerated or relegated to lower-value applications. However, the paradigm surrounding lignin has been rapidly evolving, and researchers are now recognizing its immense potential to address environmental challenges.

Lignin's resurgence is underscored by its ubiquity in nature and its pivotal role in carbon cycling within ecosystems. As a fundamental component of plant cell walls, lignin contributes to the support and structural integrity of terrestrial vegetation. Its degradation, orchestrated by a consortium of microorganisms, facilitates the recycling of carbon back into the soil, perpetuating the delicate balance of nutrient cycling. This inherent capacity of lignin to undergo biodegradation forms the basis for its potential as an environmentally benign material for diverse applications, including environmental remediation. Indeed, lignin's unique properties make it an attractive candidate for a variety of applications, particularly in the realm of environmental remediation. As a polyphenolic compound, lignin possesses a high density of functional groups that lend themselves to interactions with a broad spectrum of pollutants. The development of lignin nanoparticles, harnessing the power of nanotechnology, has further expanded its application potential. These nanoparticles, with their high surface area to volume ratio and enhanced reactivity, hold promise for revolutionizing the way we approach environmental cleanup.

Lignin is a complex polyphenolic macromolecule that is part of the lignocellulosic biomass, and represents one of the most abundant aromatic biopolymers found on Earth.<sup>1</sup> It is primarily composed of three basic monomeric units, *p*-hydroxyphenyl (H), guaiacyl (G), and syringyl (S), which are interconnected by  $\beta$ -O-4 linkages, among others.<sup>1</sup> The proportion of both monomeric units and the type of linkages in the lignin structure can vary according to the biomass source, that is, whether the lignin is isolated from softwoods, hardwoods, or grasses, which ultimately affect the mechanical and physicochemical properties of the lignin polymer. Despite the high abundance, only around 2% of the annually extracted lignin has been utilized, mainly as dispersants, additives, and adhesives, while most of the lignin is directly combusted to generate heat and electricity. During the past years, lignin has gained increased attention from the research community and has shown tremendous potential for advanced applications due to its unique features, such as antioxidant and antimicrobial properties, UV-blocking ability, biodegradability, and biocompatibility. However, the lignin valorization has been hampered by its complex and heterogeneous molecular structure, which is highly dependent on the source and extraction method. One way to overcome these limitations is to transform raw lignin into lignin nanoparticles (LNPs), enabling the typically water-insoluble lignin to form stable colloidal dispersions in water, and increasing the antioxidant activity due to the higher specific surface area. Furthermore, the LNP surface can be easily chemically modified due to the large availability of different functional groups, including aliphatic and phenolic hydroxy and carboxy groups.<sup>11</sup> Therefore, the development of LNPs allowed them to be employed in several high value-added applications, including drug delivery, antibacterials, and emulsion stabilizers, among others.

Lignin is the second-largest lignocellulosic biopolymer (after cellulose) on earth and one of the main components of the plant cell wall. Three phenylpropane monomers make up lignin's three-dimensional network structure. They are para-coumaryl alcohol, sinapyl alcohol, and coniferyl alcohol. These are linked together by carbon-carbon and ether linkages. A variety of functional groups differentiate the aromatic ring that makes up the polymeric structure of lignin. It contains aliphatic and methoxyl groups, carboxylic, carbonyl, and phenolic hydroxyl groups, as well as a propanoid chain. It functions as a physical barrier to stop the spread of diseases and their toxins because of its heterogeneity, hydrophobic nature, and insolubility in aqueous environments. As a result, efforts are being made in both research and industry to use lignin in the manufacturing of polymeric drug encapsulation and scaffold materials. The lignin's physical and chemical behavior will be different according to the plant source and extraction conditions, temperature, and residue/solvent ratio due to variations in the basic compound of lignin.

## **II. PHYTOCHEMICAL STRUCTURE OF LNPs:**

Lignin's three-dimensional network structure is made up of three phenylpropane monomers (para-coumaryl alcohol, sinapyl alcohol, and coniferyl alcohol, Figure 1) connected by carbon-carbon and ether bonds (1). Numerous active functional groups, including hydroxyl, aromatic, and aliphatic groups, are present in it.

The different types, extraction techniques, purifying procedures, and sources of lignin are the

primary elements that contribute to its complexity and diversity (2). As a result of various pulping and extraction techniques, the structures and properties of lignin influence its future advances and applications.

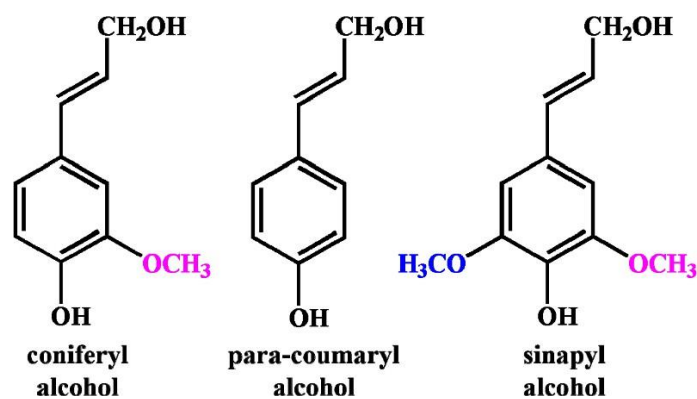


Fig.no.01 Three monomers of lignin

The chemical structures of lignin are complex and consist of various functional groups within the molecules, including phenolic, methoxy, and an aliphatic hydroxyl group. The pure form of natural lignin is colorless, however, its color changes to brown or dark brown after acid or alkali treatment. The properties of lignin rely on these functional groups, and the most abundant hydroxyl group in lignin is the aliphatic hydroxyl group. Different sources of lignin can have different proportions of hydroxyl groups.<sup>24</sup> Lignin can be classified as native lignin and technical lignin. Original lignin structure without any modification is called native lignin, whereas lignin extracted from industrial by-product is known as technical lignin. Technical lignin can be of different types depending upon the sources and extraction methods. Lignin acts as a binder to assemble the plant cell walls by associating with the cellulose and hemicellulose in the plant cell. This phenomenon provides mechanical strength to the plant cell wall and also regulates the water conduction as well as protecting other components from enzymatic degradation. Therefore, lignin can be termed as a “building element” in the design of biomaterials (e.g. lignin-based materials, epoxy, or polyurethane). It is resistant to most of the biological attacks in comparison to hemicelluloses/cellulose. Moreover, the biomedical properties of the lignin-based materials also depend on their structure, type of active functional groups, molecular weight, type of lignin obtained from the plant sources, isolation methods, etc.

### III. SYNTHESIS METHODS OF LNP's:

Lignocellulose's physical and chemical properties, such as its antibacterial, antioxidative, corrosion-resistant, and non-toxic properties, are receiving increasing attention (3,4). The creation of nanoparticles using cheap and abundant lignin raw materials is essential to increasing their high-value-added application. These days, self-assembly, progressive addition, anti-solvent precipitation, and mechanical procedures are the main ways employed to manufacture nano-lignin. The numerous sizes and shapes of lignin nanoparticles that can be created with these different methods and conditions would be highly advantageous for their potential use in a variety of industries in the future.

#### 3.1 Anti-Solvent Precipitation

Although lignin is soluble in typical organic solvents such as THF and DMF, it is frequently insoluble in acidic or aqueous solutions (5). In the process of making lignin nanoparticles, THF and DMF are commonly used as organic solvents to dissolve lignin due to their excellent performance and incapacity to change the structure of lignin.

### **3.1.1 Water as Anti-Solvent**

Because lignin is not as soluble in water as it is in organic solvents, adding water reduces the solubility of the nanoparticles, which leads to their precipitation out of the solution.

Li and colleagues [14] used self-assembly to produce spherical hollow nanocapsules with a diameter of approximately 63 nm by incorporating water into a simple kraft lignin/ethanol solution mixture. The diameter of the nanocapsules increased with increasing lignin concentration and decreasing water addition rate.

Using an ethylene glycol solution, Richter et al. (6) produced kraft lignin nanoparticles (45–250 nm) using  $\text{HNO}_3$  flash-precipitation. Applying a cationic polyelectrolyte to the nanoparticles' surface changed their surface properties and increased their stability in high pH conditions.

Chen et al. (7) obtained quasi-spherical lignin nanoparticles around 100 nm by introducing deionized water into lignin dispersed aqueous sodium *p*-toluenesulfonate (pTsONa) solution. Various types of lignin (kraft lignin, sulfonate lignin and alkaline lignin) could be completely dissolved in the pTsONa solution at room temperature. The nanoparticle diameter could be controlled by varying the pH of the solution. The size of nanoparticle decreased as the pH value increased, which could be explained by the synergistic dissociation of pTsONa and the phenolic OH and COOH functional groups of lignin nanoparticles. This method avoids some limitations of the solubility of lignin species and the use of organic solvents. Nevertheless, the revealed irregularity of nanoparticle morphology and the instability in different pH solutions are drawbacks.

Camargos et al. (7) and Yearla et al. (8) utilized a solution of acetone/water to dissolve lignin extracted from corn biomass, hardwood lignin and softwood alkali lignin, respectively. The spherical lignin nanoparticles around 100 nm were obtained by controlling the solution pH and dropping double-distilled water rapidly.

### **3.1.2 Acid Solution as Anti-Solvent**

The method used to produce lignin nanoparticles, acid precipitation, is similar to using water as an anti-solvent because lignin is insoluble in both organic solvents and acid solutions. Moreover, the electrical double layer theory claims that the precipitation of lignin nanoparticles is facilitated by the high  $\text{H}^+$  concentration in the acid solution (9)(10)

Richter et al. (11) obtained kraft lignin nanoparticles (45–250 nm) through  $\text{HNO}_3$  flash-precipitation from ethylene glycol solution. The surface of the nanoparticles was coated with a cationic polyelectrolyte, which made their surface properties adjustable and increased their stability in high pH system.

Beisl et al. (12,13) designed three different precipitation setups (batch, T-fitting, static mixer) with different mixing speeds to generate lignin nanoparticles, introducing  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution into ethanol aqueous mixture. The smallest nanoparticles (almost 100 nm) could be produced by static mixer setup with the highest mixing speed. The molecular weight and chemical structure of lignin nanoparticles did not change during the precipitation process.

### **3.1.3 Supercritical $\text{CO}_2$ as Anti-Solvent**

Because of the many distinct physical and chemical properties that occur, supercritical flow technology has been widely used in the fabrication of nanoparticle materials (12)(13). Supercritical antisolvent precipitation method is based on the idea that lignin dissolves more readily in a solvent than in a supercritical fluid. Lignin becomes less soluble in the original solvent when the supercritical fluid dissolves into the solution. (14) High saturation lasts only a short time until high-purity lignin nanoparticles precipitate. Because of the supercritical fluid's low viscosity and minimal surface tension, the produced nano-lignin has a narrow distribution and small particle size, which is one of the benefits of the supercritical process. The commonly used  $\text{CO}_2$  is also inexpensive and non-toxic.

Myint et al. (15) successfully prepared the quasi-spherical lignin nanoparticles (38 nm) through introducing compressed  $\text{CO}_2$  into kraft lignin/DMF solution, which exhibited high monodispersity and uniform size. The size of nanoparticles increased as the temperature increased and the pressure decreased. Furthermore, the influence of two different solution flow rates (0.03 and 0.06 kg/h) on the size was discussed: lower flow rates showing an increasing trend on nanoparticle diameter. These effects on the nanoparticles formation were attributed to the change in solubility between DMF and  $\text{CO}_2$ . Moreover, the nanoparticles exhibited excellent properties, for instance, favorable thermal degradation, outstanding dispersion stability, excellent UV absorption and non-cytotoxicity.

A similar process with supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  was used by Lu et al. (18) to prepare spherical nanoparticles around 144 nm in size. Lignin was dissolved in an acetone solution and  $\text{CO}_2$  was added at 35 °C and 30 MPa. No change in the amorphous chemical structure was confirmed by FTIR analysis and XRD analysis in the supercritical antisolvent process. The nanoparticles possessed significantly improved solubility in water and antioxidant activity as a result of the enhanced specific surface area, compared with original lignin.

The above three anti-solvent precipitation methods are often used to prepare lignin nanoparticles, but there are some disadvantages. For example, lignin cannot be completely uniformly dispersed in the solvent, and agglomeration may occur in some cases. In the subsequent process, the solvent has to be removed by rotary evaporation or freeze-drying, which is unfavorable for precise control of the size and morphology of the nanoparticles.

### **3.2 Physicochemical Method**

By avoiding the use of harsh chemicals or organic solvents, the physicochemical creation of lignin nanoparticles may contribute to less environmental harm. In order to effectively avoid complicated after-treatment, the methodology mainly entails preparing nano-lignin using mechanical force or

ultrasound, which includes the high shear homogenization method, ultrasonication, and a variety of mechanical methods. (16)

#### **3.2.1. Ultrasonication**

Even though high size dispersion has its disadvantages, the ultrasonication technique and other mechanical treatments are still commonly employed to reduce the particle size to the nanoscale scale due to their convenience and ease of usage.

Nanoparticles are already synthesized via ultrasonication from biopolymers like chitosan and cellulose (17). Because ultrasonic cavitation generates high temperatures and pressures, it can lead to polymer breakdown, chemical bond breaking, and the generation of free radicals (18). To break the molecular bonds in lignin, the ultrasonic method employs ultrasonic radiation (19). The macromolecular lignin disintegrates into small molecular lignin, resulting in lignin particles that are smaller in size. The ultrasonic approach produces more stable and less sedimenting lignin nanoparticles.

Solid and hollow spherical lignin colloids were synthesized through ultrasonic spray-freezing (1.7 MHz) of an alkaline lignin/DMSO solution on a liquid nitrogen-cooled copper plate by Mishra et al. This process consisted of droplet and particle formations, which were determined by the frequency of ultrasonic nebulizer and the diffusional nature of solution. The hollow particles and solid ones were formed through peripheral or volumetric precipitation, respectively. The enhanced UV absorption ability because of layer by layer deposition was obviously observed.

Tortora et al. developed ultrasound irradiation driven assembly of kraft lignin into spherical microcapsules (300–1100 nm) at the water/oil interface. The mechanism of microcapsules formation was explained by emulsification and cross-linking during the ultrasound treatment. Specifically, this was because ultrasound irradiation induced the formation of -OH radicals and the combination of -OH radicals and the phenolic groups on lignin. The excellent biocompatibility and non-cytotoxicity of lignin microcapsules were exhibited by encapsulation and further delivery of the hydrophobic molecule Coumarin-6 in vitro.

The alkali lignin nanoparticle dispersion (200 nm) and nanocomposite hydrogels were generated by Chen et al. [80] via ultrasonication using an ultrasonic homogenizer at 25 kHz frequency for 1 h. Although there are no separated nanoparticles and no research on stability in different medium, the simple operation and environmental protection are obvious advantages.

#### **3.2.2. Homogenization**

The lignin particles in a suspension or emulsion solution are dispersed and homogenized using the high shear homogenization method. In contrast to the ultrasonic technique, a strong shear force breaks the lignin's chemical connections. Nair et al. (20) used a high shear homogenization process at 15,000 rpm for 4 hours to mechanically prepare the kraft lignin nanoparticles in deionized water.

Rao et al. (21) produced the colloidal spherical lignin nanoparticles by homogenizing the organosolv lignin residues/ethanol/water mixtures for 45 minutes. The interaction of the hydrophilic moieties of organosolv lignin residues and ethanol may account for the more homogeneous size of the colloidal spheres in solutions with higher ethanol contents.

### **3.3. Acid Precipitation Method**

Frangville et al. (22) developed a new method for preparing acids to make lignin nanoparticles. The work presented two alternative approaches.

In the first way, lignin nanoparticles were formed as precipitates that were stable across a wide pH range by adding hydrochloric acid to the lignin's ethylene glycol solution, followed by cross-linking and water dialysis.

To produce lignin nanoparticles, the second technique included rapidly adding HNO<sub>3</sub> solution to high pH aqueous



lignin solutions, which were only stable at low pH. Gupta et al.(23) used an acid precipitation approach to create lignin nanoparticles, which were then examined by TEM and DLS, just like Frangville et al. Additionally, Pan et al.(24) produced nanoparticles from alkaline lignin using the acid precipitation method.

### **3.4. Solvent exchange/solvent shifting**

Another technique for creating high-quality LNPs with diameters ranging from 80 to 360 nm is solvent exchange/solvent shifting, which has outstanding stability(25). The use of costly and hazardous chemicals is required for this process. In addition to other biomass, Jiang et al. (26) produced LNPs from corn cob, pine, birch, pubescens, and vinasse. These effluents were converted into LNPs via a solvent shifting technique, producing spherical, evenly sized nanoparticles. The experimental results indicate that a range of industrial applications can make use of nanoparticles with diameters ranging from 300 nm to 4  $\mu\text{m}$ . Even though the solvent exchange/shifting technology is easier to produce, it also makes dialysis membranes more expensive, which ultimately increases the cost of the operation.

### **3.5. Polymerization Method**

Early in 2006, Barakat et al.(27) reported employing the polymerization technique to turn the synthetic lignin polymer arabinoxylan-dehydrogenation polymer into nanoparticles. In the presence of heteroxylans, coniferyl and sinapyl alcohols were polymerized to produce the arabinoxylan-dehydrogenation polymer nanoparticles. In order to describe the shape of the produced nanoparticles, TEM and multi-detected size exclusion chromatography were employed. Using atom transfer radical polymerization (ATRP), Qian et al.(28) developed a novel method for producing lignin-based nanoparticles by grafting 2-(diethylamino)ethyl methacrylate (DEAEMA) on alkali lignin. The resulting nanoparticles were used as surfactants for  $\text{CO}_2/\text{N}_2$ -switchable Pickering emulsions, which was a creative way to develop a high-value usage of lignin products.

### **3.6. Crosslinking Method**

Yiamsawas et al. (29) first synthesized the biodegradable hollow nanocontainers with a hydrophilic core from sodium lignosulfonate and alkali lignin. For the preparation of lignosulfonate nanocontainers, sodium lignosulfonate was first dissolved in aqueous NaCl solutions to generate the dispersed phase, which was subsequently mixed with cyclohexane containing the biocompatible surfactant PGPR (polyglycerol polyricinoleate). The obtained pre-emulsion was then ultrasonicated so as to form a stable mini-emulsion. The polyaddition reaction occurred at the interface of the mini-emulsion droplets, which was initiated by dropwise adding toluene diisocyanate (TDI)/cyclohexane solutions into the mini-emulsion. After keeping at room temperature overnight, the lignosulfonate nanocapsule dispersions were successfully formed, which could still remain stable when being transferred into aqueous dispersions because of the presence of sulfonic groups. The preparation process of alkali lignin nanocapsules is basically the same, but sodium dodecyl sulfate should be added if the nanocapsules are required to redisperse in water. These obtained lignin nanocontainers had a particle size in the range of 150–200 nm and could keep stable in aqueous or organic dispersions over a long period (several weeks or even months). Tortora et al.(30) created a novel synthesis of kraft lignin microcapsules by first preparing oil-in-water emulsions followed by ultrasound-assisted crosslinking of lignin at the oil/water interface. Taking the ultrasound preparations of lignin microcapsules in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  as an example, the specific process was described as follows. Firstly, olive oil and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  were added into lignin alkali solutions, and then the whole mixing system was sonicated. Next, lignin microcapsules were obtained by centrifuging and washing. The finally formed lignin microcapsules had an average particle size of 0.3–1.1  $\mu\text{m}$  with a spherical configuration. The formation mechanism was also revealed by means of GPC and NMR measurements.

### **3.7. Self-assembly**

It is a process in which an ordered or organized structure is generated due to some specific intermolecular noncovalent interactions such as hydrophobic, electrostatic, hydrogen-bonding and Van der Waals interactions in the absence of any external directions. This is a frequently-used method to prepare nanoparticles, which we would put emphasis on in this section. Qian et al. (31) used the self-assembly method to produce the uniform lignin-based colloidal spheres. After acetylation, the alkali lignin (AL) was transformed into acetylated lignin (ACL) and then dissolved into THF. With the gradual addition of water into the ACL/THF solutions, the ACL molecules started to associate to form colloidal spheres through the hydrophobic interaction.

After rotary evaporation to remove THF, colloidal spheres with a hydrodynamic radius of 110

nm were successfully obtained. This study gives important enlightenment on how to convert the irregular lignin-based polymers into the ordered colloidal spheres. Qian et al. also reported a novel approach to fabricate lignin reverse micelles (LRMs) via self-assembly. In this method, LRMs were formed by adding cyclohexane into the alkali lignin/dioxane solutions. With the increasing amount of cyclohexane, LRMs were separated from the solutions in the form of precipitation. Deng et al. proposed a simple and feasible method in the formation of hollow lignin azo colloids. They first modified alkali lignin (AL) into the lignin-based azo polymer (AL-azo-H). Then, water was gradually added dropwise into the AL-azo-H/THF solutions. With the further addition of water above 53 vol%, AL-azo-H colloidal dispersions were obtained, and the average particle size of the formed spheres was approximately 170 nm. Li et al. prepared lignin hollow microspheres from the esterified organosolv lignin modified with maleic anhydride using the self-assembly method in the mixed solvent of THF and water. Richter et al. provided a simple self-assembly method for the synthesis of biodegradable lignin nanoparticles using organosolv lignin as raw material. Specifically, organosolv lignin nanoparticles were obtained by gradually dropwise adding water into organosolv lignin/acetone solutions. Nanoparticles obtained from the above-mentioned preparation process showed a spherical shape and relatively uniform size (except organosolv lignin nanoparticles produced by Richter et al. (2016) due to the broad molecular weight distribution of organosolv lignin and inhomogeneous mixing, etc). However, there also are some limitations. They all utilized hazardous and expensive chemical reagents, such as acetyl bromide, cyclohexane, dioxane,  $\text{NaNO}_2$ , maleic anhydride, THF, and acetone, or involved complicated chemical modification reactions. Li et al. (32) in their work, presented a simple, green, and low-cost preparation of nanocapsules through self-assembly from kraft lignin (KL) without any chemical reactions. During the process, water was added dropwise into the KL/ethanol solution by the peristaltic pump until the water content reached 90 vol%, at which the formation of KL nanocapsules was completed. The particle sizes of KL nanocapsules could be easily adjusted by changing the dropping speed of the water.

### **Other Preparations**

There are some disadvantages in the preparation of lignin nanoparticles by organic solvent-based self-assembly. For example, the additional separation steps and the treatment of residual organic solvents are required. The morphology and size of lignin nanoparticles are affected by the amount of organic solvents. In addition to the above-mentioned relatively mature methods for preparing nano-lignin, some new methods have been explored based on the characteristics of the raw materials selected and the specific applications of nano-lignin (33).

### **Ice Segregation-Induced Self-Assembly**

Spender et al. presented an ice-segregation-induced self-assembly process to produce kraft lignin nanofibers (diameter < 100 nm) in aqueous solution. Specifically, the lignin solution was dispersed on a steel surface tempered with liquid nitrogen to 77 K through syringe. The nanofibrous morphology and the phenomenon of priority alignment on the frozen front were obviously observed by SEM. The high and uniform freezing rates and low solution concentrations played an extremely important role in forming much smaller and more uniform nanofibers. Furthermore, the carbon nanofiber network structure was generated after carbonization of lignin fibers at 1000 °C. This reproducible methodology could be employed for preparation of carbon nanofibers from other water-soluble polymers.

### **Aerosol-Flow Synthesis**

Ago et al. (34) developed an aerosol-flow method to synthesize the spherical particles (30 nm–2  $\mu\text{m}$ ) with different lignins from the respective  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or DMF solution via *in situ* size fractionation. The lignin droplets were transported to the laminar flow reactor by a nitrogen stream, and then dried to form solid particles. Although the fractional yields were affected by the solution concentrations and types of lignin, the total yield could reach more than 60%. The increase in size and narrower distribution of the lignin particle could be observed as the concentration of lignin solution increased. In addition, the lignin particles could be uniformly and stably re-dispersed in different oil/water media and polar/non-polar solutions under shear or heating, even in Pickering emulsions. This novel and high-yield method through aerosol flow reactor will benefit from large-scale production of lignin nanoparticles with controllable size and morphology.

### **Electrospinning of Solutions**

Electrospinning is a process of forming a jet stream of lignin solution under high-voltage electrostatic stretching and spraying from the spinneret hole to form polymer nanofibers. During electrospinning, the positive electrode is placed on the syringe containing the lignin solution and the negative electrode is connected to a collection plate. When there is no external voltage applied, the lignin solution

fluid forms droplets suspended at the needle mouth under the action of gravity and surface tension. When turning on high voltage, the droplets spray a fine stream from the needle under the action of electric field force. As the solvent evaporates, the fine stream solidifies on the collection device to form lignin fibers.

Ruiz-Rosaset al. employed the electrospinning of Alcell lignin/ethanol solution to generate lignin submicron fibers (400 nm–1  $\mu$ m). A 76% yield of lignin fibers after the stabilization treatment and the 40% yield of carbon fiber after the carbonization treatment could be obtained, respectively. Weight-loss owing to the release of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  could be illustrated by the cleavage of hydroxyl and carboxyl groups in the lignin degradation. The smooth surface without any defects in lignin submicron fibers was characterized by SEM and TEM images. The microporous structure of the carbon fibers was confirmed by  $N_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherms at  $-196^\circ C$ . Furthermore, the carbon fibers possessed the favorable stability in air at low temperature and excellent oxidation resistance.

The similar electrospinning method was utilized by Ago et al. to prepare lignin-based nanofibers reinforced with cellulose nanocrystals. The effect of electrical conductivity and surface tension of solutions on the electrospinnability and morphology of lignin-based nanofibers was investigated by SEM images. Additionally, the nanofiber composite possessed the enhanced thermal stability due to hydrogen bonding interaction between lignin and cellulose nanocrystals.

#### **IV. EXTRACTION PROCESS:**

##### **4.1 Formic acid/acetic acid treatment**

In order to extract lignin from different types of biomass, the first step was pulping, which entailed slicing the biomass into tiny pieces and placing them in a conical flask. In order to bring the biomass in the flask to a boil on a hot plate for two hours, it was combined with 85% organic acid (the formic acid/acetic acid ratio was 70:30 by volume) at a fiber to liquid ratio of 1:8. Two hours were spent for the flask and its contents to cool to room temperature. The fibers were filtered through a Buchner funnel and then cleaned with 80% formic acid and hot distilled water.

##### **4.2 Peroxyformic acid/peroxyacetic acid (PFA/PAA) treatment**

Pulp treated with FA/AA were further delignified after pulping by exposing them to a PFA/PAA solution mixture for two hours in a hot water bath that was set at  $80^\circ C$ . For the PFA/PAA solution, an 85% formic acid/acetic acid mixture was mixed with 8 cc of 35%  $H_2O_2$ . To separate cellulose from cooking liquor, a mixture of lignin and hemicellulose with formic acid, the delignified fibers were filtered and then rinsed with hot water.

##### **4.3 Bleaching**

A hot water bath set at  $8^\circ C$  for two hours was used to bleach the delignified fibers using 14 milliliters of a 35%  $H_2O_2$  solution (pH 11–12). Finally, distilled water was used to rinse the pulp and remove any final bits of lignin. This process was repeated to remove the lignin completely.

##### **4.4 Isolation of lignin**

To isolate lignin, the procedure suggested by Nuruddin et al. and shown in Fig. 2(35) was employed. The spent liquor was heated to  $105^\circ C$  after the pulping and delignification process. Using distilled water five times the volume of concentrated liquor, the lignin was dissolved in formic acid, and the precipitate was filtered using a Buchner funnel. The precipitated lignin was washed with distilled water and vacuum-dried on  $P_2O_5$ .





Fig.no.02 Isolation of lignin

## V. CHARACTERIZATION OF LNP's:

### 5.1 Size and morphology

Using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), the size and shape of LNPs were examined.

A spin coater was used to spin a drop of LNP onto a glass slide for 10 seconds at 4000 rpm in order to conduct SEM examinations. The LNP-containing slide underwent a three-minute gold sputter coating to provide electron beam conductivity. By applying high-tension voltage (3–5 kV) to a Carl Zeiss Ultra 55 apparatus with a 30  $\mu\text{m}$  aperture, SEM micrographs were created.

For TEM studies, a drop of nano suspension (DLNP/ALNP) was spin-coated onto a copper grid mesh substrate coated with carbon. This substrate was immediately used for TEM analysis at a 200 kV accelerating voltage without any additional processing.

ImageJ software (version 1.45) was used to calculate the size of LNP from TEM and SEM micrographs. At least 150 nanoparticles on average were recorded from three to four different experiments (either triplicates or duplicates) carried out on different days.

### 5.2 Structural Analysis (FT-IR)

Chemical functional groups were examined in the zinc selenide attenuated total reflection process (ATR) cell of an infrared spectrometer using a spectrum FT-IR Prestige-21 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Chiyodaku, Tokyo, Japan). Before FT-IR testing, 10 mm by 10 mm films were made, trimmed, and oven-dried at 60  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24 hours. We measured the spectra in the transmittance mode, recording the wavenumber of each film between 400 and 4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

### 5.3 UV Spectroscopy

UV spectroscopy is absorption spectroscopy in the UV range (200–400 nm). In practical use, a spectrophotometer contrasts the intensity of light traveling through the sample ( $I$ ) with the intensity of light preceding its passage ( $I_0$ ). The formula for transmittance, often known as the  $I/I_0$  ratio, is (%T). To calculate absorbance ( $A$ ), transmittance ( $A$ ) is utilized. Transmittance is measured by placing samples in a UV-Vis spectrophotometer.

A solvent is typically used to dissolve lignin because the majority of samples are liquids. Because of its ease of use, UV spectrophotometric analyses are widely employed to analyze lignin. The spectra may be altered by solvent effects, so caution must be used while selecting the appropriate solvent. Potential solvents include pyridine, water, ethanol, 2-methoxyethanol, dioxane, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), dichloroethane, cellosolve,

hexafluoropropanal, and dimethylformamide. According to Wegener et al. (1983), the polysaccharide breakdown products have no effect on the solvent's strong UV transmittance properties. The significant absorption of lignin in the UV spectrum is due to its aromatic nature.

## **VI. APPLICATIONS:**

Growing interest has been shown in lignin nanoparticles because of their renewable, abundant, and environmentally friendly characteristics as well as their biodegradability, biocompatibility, and antioxidant, antibacterial, or UV absorption properties (36). In many applications, such as food packaging, biomedicine, adsorbent materials, drug release and control (37), environmental restoration, and nanocarriers (38), they are excellent substitutes for partially hazardous nanomaterials. As per the development principles of green chemistry, this not only enhances the value-added uses of lignin nanoparticles but also tackles the potential safety hazards of conventional nanomaterials from their source.

### **6.1 Antibacterial Effect**

Lignin's phenol units and benzene ring structure provide it with antibacterial properties. The inhibitory impact of the phenolic unit on bacterial growth has been extensively studied by earlier researchers (39)(40). They found that different methods of extracting lignin showed different bactericidal properties, mainly because of the diversity of phenolic chemicals. Nano-lignin's increased specific surface area and phenolic side chain count provide it superior antibacterial qualities over regular lignin.

Richter et al. developed lignin-based- $\text{Ag}^+$  ions nanocomposites coated with a cationic polyelectrolyte in aqueous solution. The antibacterial experiments showed that the nanocomposites could kill common Gram-positive and Gram-negative pathogenic bacteria and quaternary amine-resistant bacteria. Furthermore, the amount of silver nanoparticles used in the nanocomposites was 10 times less than that used in traditional methods. This was attributed to the dual bactericidal properties of lignin nanoparticles and silver ions. However, the reduction of the silver ion content in the nanocomposite resulted in a decrease in the antibacterial effect. It was really necessary to solve the problem of silver ions release from lignin nanoparticles. The preparation of biodegradable nano-lignin-silver ions nanocomposites will lighten the emergence of more nanomaterials loaded with various metal ions. The lignin nanoparticles are promising high-value biological additives for polymer nanocomposite films, which can be used in the field of advanced food packaging. The nanocomposite films of lignin nanoparticles (LNP), chitosan (CH) and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) were successfully prepared by Yan et al. (41) through solvent casting. Two bacterial plant pathogens, *Xanthomonas arboricola* pv. *pruni* and *Pectobacterium carotovorum* subsp. *odoriferum*, were used to evaluate the antibacterial properties of the nanocomposite films. The results indicated that binary (PVA/LNP and CH/LNP) and ternary (PVA/CH/LNP) nanocomposite films could significantly inhibit the growth of bacterial plant pathogens. More importantly, the ternary composite system exhibited higher antibacterial activity than others. Although the addition of lignin nanoparticles reduced the transparency of nanocomposite films, it obviously increased thermal stability.

### **6.2 Reinforcing Materials**

Since lignin nanoparticles are inexpensive, low in density, renewable, degradable, and exhibit surface-active qualities, they have drawn a lot of interest as nanofillers. Jiang et al. reported the impact of residual lignin on the structure, content, and characteristics of cellulose films and fibrils (42). It was discovered that lignin enhanced the hydrophobicity and thermal stability of the film made of cellulose fibrils.

Lignin's high carbon content makes it suitable for use as a precursor in the production of carbon nanofiber composites. Following the carbonization and thermal stabilization of lignin, carbon nanoparticles were created and used as reinforcing materials (43).

The composite films of lignin nanoparticles and polylactide (PLA) were prepared by Lintinen et al. The lignin nanoparticles could be uniformly and stably dispersed in PLA matrix and no changes in size and zeta potential were observed. Moreover, the tensile tests confirmed that the composite films possessed enhanced mechanical properties due to the loading of nano-lignin. Yang et al. compared the tensile properties of nano-lignin/PLA bionanocomposites synthesized by melt extrusion and solvent casting. The results indicated that the tensile strength and modulus of melt-extruded films were higher than that of solvent-cast films. When the addition of nano-lignin was increased from 1 wt.% to 3 wt.%, the elongation at break of melt-extruded films enhanced while the tensile strength and modulus decreased.

Lignin nanoparticles and carbon fibers were used as additives to produce ternary hybrid

nanocomposites in the poly(trimethylene terephthalate) (PTT) matrix by Gupta et al.. Compared with pure PTT matrix, the tensile flexibility and impact performance of nanocomposites significantly improved due to the addition of 1.5wt.% nano-lignin. Additionally, the impact strength of the ternary hybrid nanocomposites was higher than that of nanolignin/PTT nanocomposites.

In order to improve the thermal stability and mechanical properties of natural rubber and styrene butadiene rubber, Jiang et al.(44) introduced nano-lignin into the rubber matrix to prepare the nanocomposites. The nanocomposites of natural rubber and poly(diallyldimethylammonium chloride)modifiedcolloidalligninweresuccessfullyproduced.Thesignificantlyimprovedtensile strength and shear strength were observed as the content of nano-lignin in the rubber matrix increased. Compared with pure natural rubber, the increased decomposition temperature of the nanocompositeswasattributedtotheinteractionofnano-ligninwiththerubbermatrix.Afterthat, thelignin-based nanosheets wereused to reinforce styrene-butadienerubber. Theglass transition temperatureand storagemodulus of thenanocomposites obviously increased duo to theexcellent compatibility of nano-lignin and rubber matrix. Therefore, lignin nanoparticles are a renewable alternative to carbon black for preparing various rubber products.

### **6.3 Anti-Ultraviolet Effect**

Functionalgroupslikephenolandketoneinligninhaveexceptionalantioxidantandantiultraviolet properties because they effectively absorb a range of UV light and reduce UV radiation(45). In severalapplications,nano-lignincanbeemployed inplaceofsomeinorganicnanoparticlesdueto its renewable nature, environmental friendliness, and degradability(46).

### **6.4 Food Packaging Films**

Free radical polymerization and masterbatch techniques were combined for the first time to produce lignin nanoparticle and poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) nanocomposites(47). The higher UV resistance of the nanocomposite films over pure films was due to the homogenous dispersion in the polymer matrix and the ultraviolet absorption capabilities of nanosized lignin. This masterbatch method demonstrated exceptional processability for the production of nanolignin-based composites, even though the addition of nanolignin caused the composite films to lose a significant amount of their deformation.

### **6.5 Sunscreens and Cosmetics**

A lot of active molecules are created and oxidative stress mechanisms are initiated when the skin is exposed to UV light for a long time. Oxidative damage and problems with cell metabolism result

from this(48). The use of chemical sunscreen to prevent cell aging is becoming more and more common. Lignin is appropriate for use in cosmetic sunscreen compositions due to its exceptional antioxidant and UV-absorbing qualities. The natural polyphenol extract from lignin not only effectively blocks UV rays but also repairs damaged DNA(49). Qian et al.(50) reported that lignin-based broad-spectrum sunscreens were made by mixing lignin colloidal spheres with pure skin cream.

The spherical lignin nanoparticles were isolated from elephant grass by antisolvent precipitation and then added to a neutral cream to produce lignin-based sunscreens. Compared with commercial sunscreens, the creams with 10% lignin nanoparticles exhibited lower light transmittance. Lee et al. mixed light-colored lignin nanoparticles from rice husks into a moisturizing cream to produce broad-spectrum sunscreens. The higher sun protection factor was demonstrated comparing with non-nanoparticles. In addition, the synergistic effect of lignin nanoparticles and organic UV-filter sunscreens enhanced the UV resistance performance. The applications of lignin nanoparticles in cosmetic sunscreens play an important role in the development of high-value lignin.

### **6.6 Nanocarriers**

Among the many functional groups found in the lignin structure are hydroxyl, carboxyl, methoxy, and benzene rings (51). Its range of applications is greatly expanded by the fact that lignin can be chemically modified by a variety of substances due to these functional groups. Due to their diverse spectrum of shapes and high level of biocompatibility, lignin nanoparticles are interesting drug delivery systems.

The effect of three different morphologies lignin nanocarriers on the release capacity for UV-active cargo 2-propylpyridine was illustrated by Yiamsawas et al. [91]. The release efficiency of solid nanoparticles, porous structures and hollow nanocapsules reached 10%, 25% and 40%, respectively. In addition, a significantly increased release efficiency was observed due to the degradation of nanolignin in the presence of enzyme laccase. The drug delivery in biomedicine will benefit from the lignin-based nanocarriers with morphology-controlled release ability.

Three other drugs were used to determine the loading and release abilities of the lignin nanoparticles (LNPs) by Figueiredo et al.. The poorly water-soluble sorafenib (SFN) and cytotoxic benzazulene (BZL) could be efficiently loaded on nanoparticles, whereas hydrophilic capecitabine (CAP) could not be loaded. The release efficiency of SFN-LNPs and BZL-LNPs both reached

about 100% at pH of 7.4 through the enzymatic degradation of LNPs. It turned out that BZL-LNPs had an increased anti-proliferation effect on cancer cells comparing with the free BZL.

Sipponen et al. fabricated renewable biocatalysts of hydrolases-cationic lignin nanosphere composites for butyl butyrate synthesis in aqueous medium. Firstly, the lignin nanoparticles were coated with hydrolytic enzymes (cutinase and lipase). Afterwards, the biocatalysts were synthesized through entrapment of hydrolases-coated nanospheres by calcium alginate hydrogel beads. It turned out that butyl butyrate in the water/hexane mixture under enzyme catalysis was effectively synthesized. The lignin-based biocatalysts without chemical modification will benefit aqueous ester synthesis.

The high specific surface area and porous structure of lignin nanoparticles make them excellent carriers for loading metal ions. The potential applications of lignin-based metal ion nanocomposites, such as biocatalysts and nano-adsorbents, will be further developed and utilized.

The structural diversity of metal-organic nanocomposites formed by lignin nanoparticles and iron isopropoxide in THF solution was investigated. The different morphology, such as network structure, solid nanoparticles, uniform spheres and hollow nanospheres, was prepared under different hydrolysis reaction conditions. Moreover, the obviously higher magnetization of  $\text{Fe}(\text{O}i\text{Pr})_3$ -lignin nanocomposites was exhibited, compared with  $\text{Fe}(\text{O}i\text{Pr})_2$ -lignin nanoparticles.

Metal alkoxides nanocomposites have been widely used in rubber composite materials, directional polymerization catalysts, ceramics and metal oxide films. Ni nanoparticles were supported on lignin-based carbon nanofibers as catalysts to depolymerize lignin in supercritical ethanol/water. The results showed that the catalysts accelerated the depolymerization of lignin and increased the yields of phenols and lignin fragments. The loading of Ni nanoparticles on nanofibers did not change significantly after three cycles of catalysis.

## 6.7 Hybrid Nanocomposites

Lignin nanoparticles are often blended with polymers as reinforcing agents, which make the obtained copolymers exhibit better mechanical, thermal, and biocompatible properties than the original polymers. Chung et al. transformed lignin into a lignin-g-poly(lactic acid) (PLA) copolymer by grafting lactide onto lignin using triazabicyclodecene (TBD) as a catalyst so as to improve its miscibility with other bioplastics. The chain length of PLA could be adjusted by preacetylation treatments or changing the ratio of lignin and lactide. When 10% lignin-g-PLA copolymers were added, both the UV absorbance and mechanical properties of PLA composites improved. Jiang et al. prepared nano-lignin from lignin and poly (diallyldimethylammonium chloride) (PDADMAC) complexes (LPCs) through self-assembly. The obtained lignin particles had an average size of less than 100 nm and could stably disperse in aqueous solutions. When the nano-lignin was blended with natural rubber (NR) latex, it could be homogeneously dispersed in the NR latex at the nanoscale, which resulted in the improved thermal stability and mechanical properties of LPCs/NR composites. Nair et al. presented a novel method to convert large micron-sized kraft lignin particles to nanolignin particles using a simple high shear homogenizer, which would not cause any chemical composition changes. When these nanolignin particles were blended with polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), the thermal stability of obtained nanolignin/PVA composites increased in comparison with the original lignin/PVA composites. Qian et al. (52) introduced the formed lignin reverse micelles (LRMs) into high-density polyethylene (HDPE). Taking the LRM addition of 5 wt % as an example, it was observed that the elongation at break increased to 1030% from 671% and Young's modulus increased to 2104 MPa from 1066 MPa, respectively. This indicated that the incorporation of LRMs could cause an obvious improvement in the mechanical properties of HDPE (elongation at break and Young's modulus).

## 6.8 Antioxidant Agents

The functional groups such as methoxy and phenolic hydroxyl groups in lignin are able to cause the termination of oxidative propagation reactions through hydrogen donation. Therefore, lignin nanoparticles could be introduced into various materials to produce antioxidant products with different applications. Lu et al. developed nanoscale lignin through the supercritical antisolvent (SAS) method employing supercritical carbon dioxide as the antisolvent and acetone as the solvent. Due to the increased solubility in water, the resulting nanoscale lignin had a higher antioxidant activity, which exhibited enhanced superoxide radical scavenging activity, DPPH radical scavenging activity, and reducing power. In another study performed by Ge et al., nanolignin was prepared through the alkaline solution precipitation method. Free Radical Scavenging (FRS) activity analysis displayed that nanolignin showed a 3.3-fold higher activity in contrast to the control sample. According to the 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) antioxidant assay, the IC<sub>50</sub> value increased to  $2.70 \pm 0.17$  mg/mL for nanoscale lignin from



32.21 ± 0.1 mg/mL for microscale lignin, suggesting a higher antioxidant activity of nanoscale lignin. Yang et al. (53) introduced the obtained lignin nanoparticles (LNP) via acid precipitation into a poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA)/chitosan (CH) mixture. DPPH radical scavenging activity measurement results showed that LNP exhibited a synergic effect with CH in antioxidant responses of the resulting PVA/CH/LNP nanocomposites. Together with the antimicrobial activity, PVA/CH/LNP nanocomposites could be potential candidates for use in various biomedical applications such as tissue engineering, drug delivery, and wound healing. Yearla et al. fabricated two different kinds of alkali lignin nanoparticles (ALNP) and dioxane lignin nanoparticles (DLNP). Compared to the original alkali lignin and dioxane lignin polymers, both ALNP and DLNP showed higher antioxidant activity according to the radical scavenging activity analysis. Additionally, DLNP could provide more pronounced protection for *Escherichia coli* against UV than ALNP. On account of these good antioxidant and UV protection properties, DLNP can be therefore further applied in pharmaceutical, food, and cosmetic industries. Tian et al. prepared two types of LNP via self-assembly from ethanol-organosolv and deep eutectic solvent (DES) extracted lignins, respectively. When these lignin nanoparticles were incorporated into PVA, the resulting copolymer obtained additional antioxidant functionalities. He et al. firstly produced LNP through an acid precipitation method, which was then esterified and etherified by citric acid to form modified LNP (MLNP). When LNP and MLNP were also separately blended with PVA through the solvent casting approach, the antioxidant property of the obtained MLNP based nanocomposite films was superior to that of LNP based nanocomposite films, which provided potential for these materials as environmental friendly antioxidant additives in the food and packaging industry.

## 6.9 Biocompatible Applications

In the domains of in vivo biology and medicine, nanotechnology has been gaining more interest due to its numerous potential applications (54). Nanolignin's phenylpropane skeleton contains polar phenolic and aliphatic hydroxyl groups, which make it suitable for usage in the production of micelles or capsules. Furthermore, the biomedical and pharmaceutical industries stand to benefit greatly from the remarkable qualities of biocompatibility, adsorption of biological macromolecules, and absence of cytotoxicity (55).

## 6.10 Drug delivery

The resultant lignin-based nanomaterials can be used as high-value-added materials for potential applications in various biomedical domains, particularly in drug/gene delivery and tissue engineering due to synergistic interactions from both organic lignin and inorganic nanocomposites. The binding ability of lignin with nanomaterials or other multivalent metal ions involves active functional groups (phenol, hydroxyl, and carboxyl groups), which act as both chelating and reducing agents to the metal center. (56) The chelating ability of lignin depends on the type of lignin and its chemical structure. Lignin is used as a wood adhesive to improve the mechanical properties of thermoplastic polymer composites. For example, the phenol in phenol-formaldehyde resin was replaced with lignin to improve its compatibility and mechanical properties. (57) Recently, it has been reported that the lignin nanoparticles that are dispersible in water can be used to stabilize Pickering emulsions and also used as a silver ion carrier in antimicrobial applications. They have also been utilized successfully in drug delivery and tissue engineering applications.

## 6.11 Lignin Nanoparticles in Cancer Drug Delivery

The alarming increase in the mortality incurred due to cancer urged the researchers all over the world to develop robust therapeutic approaches to combat the cancer. It is well known that surgery and radiotherapy are the conventional therapeutic ways to fight against tumours. In recent times, nanomedicine has revolutionised the field of cancer therapy. In this case, NPs have emerged as an intriguing carrier to deliver drugs specifically to tumor cells, owing to their small size, high surface area, controlled drug release and low toxicity. Although, a wide range of NP systems have been thoroughly investigated for cancer treatment. Nano-sized lignin particles are fundamentally amphiphilic NPs, having its affinity towards both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs. In a particular study, Siddiqui and his team fabricated blank LNPs using kraft lignin. When LNPs were administered intravenously, the percent haemolysis was 0.08 ± 0.03% for 100 µg/mL dose which was increased to 1.56 ± 0.33% for the dosage of 1000 µg/mL. Furthermore, NPs failed to exert any toxic effects over normal cells (HEK-293), which indicates its role as safe drug carriers. Secondly, significant cytotoxicity was observed with folate receptor (FR)+ve cell line, i.e., MCF-7, which could be useful in targeting FR+ve tumors and improve the effectiveness as an antineoplastic agent. Moreover, NPs were loaded with irinotecan to assess the drug-carrying potential of LNPs. Drug-loaded NPs displayed a mean size of 163.87 ± 2.81 nm and entrapment efficiency of 67.65 ± 1.95%. Interestingly, sustained drug release was



observed from NPs, releasing about  $86.72 \pm 7.05\%$  of the drug over 72 h, while the cytotoxicity studies showed that NPs were three times more potent than the drug solution

### Other Applications

In addition to the above, lignin-based nanoparticles have also been exploited for other industrial applications, such as antibacterial agents, adsorbents to remove heavy metal ions, and dyes as well as anticorrosive nanofillers.

The presence of phenolic components endows an antimicrobial characteristic to lignin, which therefore could be utilized as an antimicrobial agent. Kim et al. (58) developed nanoparticles combining chitosan and lignosulfonates for the first time. When lignosulfonate was incorporated into chitosan nanoparticles, the obtained composite nanoparticles showed greater antimicrobial activity in comparison with chitosan nanoparticles alone.

Additionally, lignin could also act as an adsorbent to remove heavy metal ions and dyes. Li et al. utilized the obtained porous lignosulfonate spheres (PLS) through a feasible gelation-solidification method, which possessed a total pore volume of  $0.416 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$  and high porosity of 87.66%, to adsorb lead ions. The adsorption experiments showed that the adsorption efficiency of PLS for lead ions reached up to about 95.6% at the initial concentration of 25.0 mg/L, suggesting an excellent adsorption capacity of PLS. Therefore, PLS could be applied for the continuous treatment of industrial wastewater rich in heavy metals. Azimvand et al. studied the removal of Safranin-O from aqueous solutions using lignin nanoparticles and lignin nanoparticle-g-polyacrylic acid as adsorbents, respectively. In this work, lignin nanoparticles (LN) were fabricated by first dissolving the alkali lignin (AL) in polyethylene glycol and then slowly adding hydrochloric acid into AL/polyethylene glycol solutions, and lignin nanoparticle-g-polyacrylic acid (LN-g-PAA) was prepared through the copolymerization reactions between polyacrylic acid and lignin nanoparticle using potassium persulfate as a radical initiator. Results indicated the adsorption capacity of LN-g-PAA copolymer increased nearly 1.4-fold in LN. Therefore, LN-g-PAA was considered to be proper for removing Safranin-O dye from wastewater.

Ultimately, Rahman et al. reported the use of lignin nanoparticles as anticorrosive nanofillers. In this research, they evaluated the anticorrosive behavior of three kinds of lignin nanoparticles (LNP) via acid precipitation in different mediums (castor oil, ethylene glycol, and water). Results showed that all three kinds of lignin nanoparticles could be dispersed in the epoxy matrix-forming nanocomposite coatings to protect the carbon steel (CS) from corrosion in a highly saline environment. Moreover, the LNP-dispersed epoxy coatings could provide better protection compared to the bare epoxy coating.

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