Green Chemistry





Plastics to Fertilizers: Chemical Recycling of a Bio-based Polycarbonate as a Fertilizer Source

Journal:	Green Chemistry
Manuscript ID	GC-ART-07-2021-002327.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	21-Sep-2021
Complete List of Authors:	Abe, Takumi ; Tokyo Institute of Technology Takashima, Rikito ; Tokyo Institute of Technology Kamiya, Takehiro; The University of Tokyo Foong, Choon; Kyoto University Numata, Keiji ; Kyoto University Aoki, Daisuke; Tokyo Institute of Technology, Chemical Science and Engineering Otsuka, Hideyuki; Tokyo Institute of Technology, Department of Chemical Science and Engineering



ARTICLE

sReceived 00th January 20xx, Accepted 00th January 20xx

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Plastics to Fertilizers: Chemical Recycling of a Bio-based Polycarbonate as a Fertilizer Source

Takumi Abe,^a Rikito Takashima,^a Takehiro Kamiya,^b Choon Pin Foong,^c Keiji Numata,^c Daisuke Aoki,^{*ad} and Hideyuki Otsuka^{*a}

Commodity polymer materials are now required to be environmentally friendly due to problems associated with resource depletion and low recycling rates, which has promoted the development of circular material systems. Herein, a novel concept is introduced, where a polymer is used as a source of a fertilizer. To demonstrate the viability of this concept, the chemical recycling of poly(isosorbide carbonate) (PIC) is presented as a model for the next generation of plastic-recycling systems. PIC, a bio-based polymer known for its excellent physical properties, undergoes a degradation reaction with aqueous ammonia. Monitoring the degradation behavior by ¹H NMR and FT-IR spectroscopy as well as gel-permeation chromatography revealed that PIC completely decomposes within 6 h at 90 °C to afford isosorbide and urea. The utility of isosorbide and urea obtained from the degradation of PIC as fertilizers was demonstrated via plant-growth experiments. The generation of fertilizers via polymer degradation in the present study is expected to lead not only to innovative chemical recycling systems to address the environmental problems associated with polymer materials, but also to provide solutions to the food-production problems associated with the growth of the global population.

1 Introduction

Over the past century, humanity has immensely benefited 2 from the durable and versatile polymeric materials that have 3 emerged as a result of the development of synthetic chemistry. 4 However, synthetic polymers also contribute to many 5 6 environmental problems, such as the destruction of ecosystem 7 pollution, and resource depletion. In particular, polymer 8 materials are associated with two critical environmental problems: (i) The use of large quantities of petrochemical 9 10 compounds to manufacture polymer materials and (ii) the disposal of large quantities of often non-biodegradable polymé 11 12 materials without recycling after use.¹ To solve problem (f'n 13 resource-saving strategies such as restrictions on plastic bag 14 and the use of biomass to manufacture polymer materials have been implemented. To address problem (ii), recycling of 15 polymer materials, including reuse via reprocessing (mechanical 34 16

Department of Chemical Science and Engineering, Tokyo Institute of Technology, 2-12-1 Ookayama, Meguro-ku, Tokyo 152-8550, Japan.

recycling), chemically decomposing and re-synthesis (chemical recycling), as well as the use of polymer materials as an energy source (thermal recycling) have been introduced.²⁻⁶ Among these approaches, polymeric materials are recycled by the mechanical recycling or chemical recycling, but mechanical recycling accompanies with the deterioration of the material due to decreasing the molecular weight during the process⁷, which cannot be permanent recycling. In contrast, polymeric materials are re-synthesized in the case of chemical recycling, which is not accompanied by deterioration of the material and can be permanent recycling as long as collecting the waste plastics. Because of this reason, chemical recycling has been focused as more environmentally friendly recycling process. Among the chemical recycling approaches, the combination of using biomass as a source of plastic and recycling plastic after use represents an ideal circular system that could contribute to a sustainable material supply and decrease the environmental load. To further improve the environmental compatibility of polymer materials, it is necessary to incorporate as many circular systems as possible in this area.8 However, at present, only 14% of plastic waste are recycled, while another 14% are incinerated for energy recovery; the remaining 72% are discarded.⁹ As the global standard of living increases and the global population continues to grow, the demand for polymeric materials is increasing, concurrently increasing the scale of the problem of polymer recycling. On the other hand, solutions to

17

18

35

3

)

)

L

2

^{b.} The Laboratory of Plant Nutrition and Fertilizers, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo, 1-1-1, Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8657, Japan.

^c Department of Material Chemistry, Graduate School of Engineering, Kyoto University, Kyoto 615-8510, Japan.

^d JST-PRESTO, 2-12-1 Ookayama, Meguro-ku, Tokyo 152-8550, Japan.

^{*}D. Aoki: aoki.d.aa@m.titech.ac.jp

^{*}H. Otsuka: otsuka@mac.titech.ac.jp

Journal Name

ARTICLE

the problem of producing sufficient food for the increasi4g
 global population are also required.¹⁰ One solution to tH49
 problem is promoting the growth of plant crops, i.e., the use 50

4 fertilizers. 51 5 The Haber–Bosch process is referred to as the "bread-from-a2" 6 process, as the urea and ammonium sulfate synthesized from3 7 ammonia act as fertilizers that have greatly alleviated looming food-supply problems. Based on investigations by Yara 8 9 InternationalTM, even today, more than a century after the discovery of the Haber–Bosch process, nitrogen-bas $\overline{\mathbf{b}}$ 10 11 fertilizers account for >50% of the global fertilizer production/

i.e., most food production is promoted using nitrogen-base
 fertilizers.^{11,12} Obtaining such fertilizers via polymer recycling
 would represent an ideal system, not only for the recycling

15 polymeric materials, but also for the issue of global-food16 production.62

In this study, a novel concept is presented, wherein a polymel
 serves as a fertilizer source. To demonstrate the viability of this

19 concept, which could become a game changer in simultaneously

19 concept, which could become a game changer in simultaneously

20 solving the problems of plastic recycling and food production 5

21 we focused on a bio-based polycarbonate (PC). Poly(isosorbi

22 carbonate) (PIC), a bio-based PC synthesized using non-toxi

and biodegradable¹⁴ isosorbide (ISB) derived from glucose **68**

the diol monomer,¹⁵ has attracted interest as an alternative **69**

25 conventional petroleum-based PCs on account of its superio

26 thermal stability and transparency^{16–25}, which is actua \mathbb{M}_{2} 27 commercially available as an ISB-based copolycarbonate for

27 commercially available as an ISB-based copolycarbonate for
 28 various fields such as the construction, automotive industries

various fields such as the construction, automotive industries
and optical material. It is well known that the carbonate linkage

obtained via the degradation of PIC as a fertilizer was tested using plant-growth experiments. The PIC recycling process does not require organic solvents and yields the monomeric diols and urea, both of which are expected to act as fertilizers, i.e., all the degradation products are circulated in the system.

Experiments

Materials

All reagents and solvents were purchased from Tokyo Chemical Industry (Tokyo, Japan), Kanto Chemical (Tokyo, Japan), FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation (Tokyo, Japan), and Sigma-Aldrich (MO, USA). All reagents except for isosorbide (ISB) and diphenyl carbonate (DPC) were used without further purification. Prior to use, ISB was recrystallized from a mixture of ethyl acetate and hexane, while DPC was recrystallized from ethanol.

Measurement

¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded in dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6 (DMSO- d_6) or chloroform-d (CDCl₃) on a Bruker topspin AVANCE III HD500 spectrometer at 25 °C. For diffusion-ordered NMR spectroscopy (DOSY), the LED method was used (pulse program: ledbpgp2s; diffusion time: 40 ms; diffusion gradient length: 2000 µs; maximum gradient strength: 51 g/cm in DMSO- d_6 at 25 °C).⁴² Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded using a JEOL FT/IR-4100 spectrometer on a KBr crystal plate. As for the sample of FT-IR, characterization was conducted after a portion of suspension or solution was



Scheme 1. Synthesis of PIC via melt-polycondensation and its ammonolysis. PIC is converted into ISB and urea, which are used as fertilizers.

30 can be hydrolyzed by ammonia (ammonolysis) to give urea.²⁶7531 In the system we envisaged, the ammonolysis of PIC would 32 33 reaction proceeds completely. Although there have been ma \overline{a} 34 reports on the degradation of polymers, most of these have 35 focused on the monomer structure and its function, as well 80 36 the origin of the monomers, whether bio-based or not. $^{26-37}$ 81 37 However, only few reports that focus on the use and potent 82 38 of the carbonyl source after polymer degradation have be 39 published.³⁸⁻⁴¹ In the present study, we have focused on t 40 structure and utility of the degradation product from the 41 carbonyl source in the polymer repeating units as well as the use of bio-based monomers (Scheme 1). Specifically, the 42 43 chemical recycling of PIC, which is expected to be a promising alternative to petroleum-based plastics on account of igg 44 45 superior properties, was conducted using ammonia treatmegy 46 in water. The degradation reaction and its products wege 47 quantitatively characterized. The utility of the products

collected and then freeze dried. Gel-permeation chromatography (GPC) was performed at 40 °C using a JASCO HSS-1500 system with a refractive index (RI) detector. *N*,*N*dimethylformamide (DMF) with lithium bromide (5 mM) were used as the eluent at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min. Polystyrene standards (number average molecular weight (M_n): 4,430– 3,242,000 g mol⁻¹; polydispersity index (PDI): 1.03–1.08) were used to calibrate the GPC system. Electro-ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-TOF-MS) measurements were carried out using a Bruker micrOTOF II.

Synthesis of PIC

PIC was synthesized using a one-pot melt-polycondensation method, in which the transesterification and polycondensation reactions were conducted in the same reactor continuously. ISB (9.63 g, 65.9 mmol), DPC (14.1 g, 65.9 mmol), and zinc acetate (6.00 mg, 31.9 μ mol, 0.05 mol%) were placed in a two-necked round-bottomed

66

67

76 77

86

87

Journal Name

1 flask (100 mL) equipped with a mechanical stirrer. In t**b**e 2 transesterification stage, the reactants were heated to 160 °C und 4 3 a nitrogen atmosphere and stirred for 30 min. The temperature w55 4 then gradually increased to 200 °C and maintained there for 30 mb6 5 In the polycondensation stage, the temperature was gradua $B\gamma$ 6 increased to 220 °C and maintained there for 30 min under vacuum8 7 (13.5 mmHg) to remove phenol. The temperature was then furth 59 8 increased to 240 °C and maintained there for 1 h under high vacuum 9 (< 0.2 mmHg). The reaction system was then cooled to rocon1 10 temperature under a nitrogen atmosphere. The product wa2 dissolved in chloroform, followed by precipitation into methan 63 11 12 After drying under vacuum, PIC was obtained as a white solid (yie 64 13 11.0 g, 96.7%; *M*_n = 14,300; PDI = 1.75). 65

14 Ammonolysis of PIC

A round-bottomed flask (50 mL) was charged with PIC (250 m§8
and aqueous ammonia (14.8 mol/L) to give the desire
stoichiometric ratio of ammonia. The reaction mixture w39
stirred at 10-90 °C, and at reaction times of 1, 3, 6, 12, and 24 7,1
an aliquot (2 mL) of the reaction mixture was collected ar
freeze-dried to remove the ammonia and water. The drie
degradation product was used for characterization. Oth 74

22 ammonolysis experiments were conducted in the same mann $\overline{e}5$

23 Calculation of the yield of the degradation products

A round-bottomed flask (50 mL) was charged with PIC (250 mg) 24 25 and aqueous ammonia (14.8 mol/L) to give the desired stoichiometric ratio of ammonia. In the case of the reaction $\frac{80}{41}$ 26 90 °C, the reaction mixture was stirred, and at various reaction 27 times 1.00 mL of the reaction mixture was collected and freeze $\frac{82}{2}$ 28 dried. Then, DMSO- d_6 (1.00 mL) and toluene (50.0 μ L; internal 29 standard) were added to the dried sample to prepare a solution $\overset{84}{10}$ 30 85 for ¹H NMR measurements (sample: 0.500 mL). 31

32 Plant growth test

88 The seeds of Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Col-0 were surfaces 33 serialized with bleach and sown onto medium (Table S-ab 34 solidified with 1% Gellan Gum supplemented with 1% sucrose 135 The concentration of each nutrient, except for nitrogen source 36 was based on Fujiwara et al.43 After incubation for two days at 37 4 °C, the plates were placed vertically and grown at 22 °C fg $_{\rm H}$ 38 39 two weeks under 16h light/8 h dark condition. 95 40

41 **Results and discussion**

42 Synthesis of PIC

43 We synthesized PIC for the ammonolysis investigation via 44 melt-polycondensation using ISB as the diol monomer and 45 diphenyl carbonate as the carbonyl source in the presence of 46 zinc acetate, which is known to be an efficient polymerization catalyst for PIC (Scheme 1).²² PIC was obtained in 96.7% yield as 47 48 a white solid with a number-average molecular weight (M_n) of 49 14,300 and a polydispersity index (PDI) of 1.75, which was 50 determined by GPC using DMF as the eluent. ¹H and ¹³C NMR 51 measurements were conducted to characterize the polymeric 52 product. The signals in the ¹H NMR spectrum were in good

agreement with those of the protons in the PIC molecular chain and its end groups (**Figure S-2**). The M_n calculated using ¹H NMR (8,300) was smaller than the value obtained from GPC. This could be due to the difference between the hydrodynamic radii of PIC and the polystyrene standard in the DMF solution. Furthermore, the signals in the ¹³C NMR spectrum were also in good agreement with the carbon atoms in PIC (**Figure S-3**). Three different carbonyl-carbon signals were observed around 154 ppm, in accordance with the bonding behavior of the ISB monomer. These results confirmed the synthesis of PIC.

Ammonolysis of PIC

The synthesized PIC was then used for ammonolysis. The ammonolysis was conducted in water, which is a more environmentally friendly solvent than other typical organic solvents. For the initial investigation, we added 20 equivalents of ammonia per repeating unit of PIC ($[NH_3]_0/[PIC]_0 = 20$) and chose atmospheric pressure and 30 °C as the initial ammonolysis reaction conditions in order to prevent the thermal decomposition of urea under harsher conditions.²⁷ The ammonolysis was conducted heterogeneously during the initial stage of the reaction given the poor solubility of PIC in water. The reaction mixture became gradually homogeneous and was completely transparent after 24 h (Figure S-4). As the ammonolysis of PIC would afford hydrophilic degradation products such as ISB and urea, this result visually suggested that the ammonolysis was proceeding as expected. The degradation products were collected at different reaction times and characterized using GPC and ¹H NMR measurements to monitor the reaction behavior. The GPC results showed that the molecular weight of PIC gradually decreased, and the PIC peak completely disappeared after 24 h (Figure 1a). Similarly, in the ¹H NMR spectra (Figure 1b), the signals corresponding to the methylene protons adjacent to the carbonate groups in the polymer main chain (4.95–5.10 ppm, highlighted as gray square) gradually decreased and completely disappeared after 24 h. In the ¹H NMR spectrum of the degradation product after 24 h of reaction, signals corresponding to the ISB (red letters in the ¹H NMR spectrum after 24 h in Figure 1b) and urea (5.39 ppm) were observed. These results strongly support the potential of the ammonolysis of PIC to afford urea as a degradation product under these mild reaction conditions.

1 2

8



3 **Figure 1**. (a) GPC profiles of the degradation products during 4 ammonolysis (eluent: DMF; detector: RI; polystyreng 5 standards). (b) ¹H NMR spectra of the degradation products 6 during the ammonolysis (500 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO- d_6). 7

9 Although the presence of signals corresponding to ISB and 10 urea was confirmed in the ¹H NMR spectrum, other signals 11 corresponding to unassigned products were also detected (fen 12 example, the signals at 4.6-4.7, 3.8-3.9, and 3.5-3.7 ppm 55 13 Figure 1b, highlighted as blue square). These signals web \overline{b} 14 tentatively assigned to ISB derivatives with carbamate esters 57 15 both hydroxyl groups of ISB, as the general ammonolysis of PC proceeds via a nucleophilic substitution of an amine at the \hbar^{8} 16 17 carbonate groups.³¹ To confirm the formation of carbama $\frac{1}{2}$ 18 ester derivatives of ISB, isosorbide dicarbamate (**ISB-DC**) where \mathbb{R}^{2} 19 synthesized as a model compound to compare its ¹H NMR 20 spectra with those of the degradation products. Signals for the methylene protons adjacent to the carbamate and amine? 21 protons on the carbamate groups similar to those in the ISB-be 22 spectrum were observed in the ¹H NMR spectrum of the 23 24 degradation products, which suggests that ISB-DC is present 25 the degradation products (Figure 2). However, there were also 26 other unassigned signals that do not correspond to ISB-De (marked with an asterisk in Figure 2). We then conducted the 27 28 ammonolysis of ISB-DC in the same manner as that of Ple (Scheme S-3) and analyzed the degradation products using $\frac{74}{14}$ 29 NMR spectroscopy. In the resulting spectrum, signals that dd30 not correspond to urea, ISB, or ISB-DC were observed at the 31 same chemical shifts as those in the spectrum of the 32 33 ammonolysis of PIC (Figure S-5). This result suggests that the 35

Journal Name

signals correspond to degradation products that do not contain a carbonate bond. The degradation products of PIC after 24 h were then analyzed using mass spectrometry. In the mass spectrum, in addition to the peaks corresponding to ISB (m/z =143.13, [M-H]⁻) and **ISB-DC** (m/z = 255.06, [M+Na]⁺), a peak at m/z = 212.05 ([M+Na]⁺) was observed (**Figure S-6, S-7**). This peak was tentatively assigned to ISB derivatives with a carbamate ester substituted on one of the hydroxy groups of ISB (isosorbide mono-carbamate; **ISB-MC** in **Scheme 2**). These results indicate that the ammonolysis proceeded via the generation of ISB carbamate derivatives, i.e., **ISB-DC, ISB-MC**, and **ISB-MC**, as intermediates to subsequently afford urea and ISB as the final degradation products (**Scheme 2**).



Figure 2. Comparison of the ¹H NMR spectrum of the degradation products with those of the expected products.



Scheme 2. Reaction mechanism for the ammonolysis of PIC

Quantitative evaluation of the ammonolysis of PIC

To further investigate the details of the ammonolysis of PIC, the degradation products were analyzed using FT-IR. Figure 3a shows the FT-IR spectra of the degradation products. The C=O stretching absorption peak at 1753 cm⁻¹ gradually shifted to lower wavenumbers. Since the carbonyl-stretching absorption of carbamate bonds is observed at lower wavenumbers than that of carbonate bonds, this result suggests that carbamate bonds were gradually generated as the ammonolysis progressed, indicating that ISB-DC and ISB-MC are generated as intermediates during the degradation process of PIC. As the C-H stretching absorption of isosorbide at 2881 cm⁻¹ remained unchanged during the ammonolysis, i.e., the number of C-H bonds in the reaction system remained constant, the fraction of carbonate bonds remaining, i.e., the conversion of the carbonate bonds, can be estimated from the transmittance of the C=O stretch at 1753 cm⁻¹ relative to that of the C–H stretch at 2881 cm⁻¹, which allows a quantitative evaluation of the 1

2

Journal Name

3 reaction condition because it is impossible to conduct the 4 reaction in the NMR sample tube and analysis the reaction $\delta \theta$

5 mixture directly. 51

6 A calibration curve for estimating the conversion of tb2 7 carbonate group based on the peak intensities in the IR spect 53 8 $(D_{C=O}/D_{C-H})$ was prepared by changing the mixing ratios of P54 9 and isosorbide (for details, see the ESI and Figure S-8a)5 10 Consequently, the percentage of remaining carbonate bonds 56 11 each reaction was calculated and plotted as a function of $tb \overline{d}$ 12 reaction time (Figure 3b). The carbonate groups remaining 58 13 the PIC gradually decreased and became nearly zero after 24 59 14 The residual polymer ratio $([M_p]_t/[M_p]_0)$, i.e., the ratio of the 15 peak top molecular weight at a given reaction time ($[M_p]$ 16 relative to the initial value ($[M_p]_0$), where $[M_p]_t/[M_p]_0 = 0$ would 17 indicate no polymer in the degradation product, was alford 18 estimated from the GPC profiles during the reaction a for 19 compared with the remaining carbonate bonds estimated usi 65 20 the FT-IR spectra. The results showed good agreementing 21 demonstrating the successful quantitative evaluation of the 22 ammonolysis. 68



24 25

26 Figure 3. (a) FT-IR spectra of the degradation products during 27 the ammonolysis (KBr). (b) Remaining carbonate bonds 28 estimated based on the FT-IR data (black) and remaining mass 29 $([M]_t/[M]_0)$ calculated based on GPC data (orange) during the 30 ammonolysis. 31

Optimization of the reaction conditions for the ammonolysisy2 32 33 Under the initial conditions used for the ammonolysis of PIZ3 34 PIC was degraded to small molecules within 24 h, b24 35 intermediates such as ISB-MC and ISB-DC were still present 75 addition to urea (Figure 2). Although urea was obtained und 26 36 37 these reaction conditions, complete degradation of PIC was not

38 achieved, not even after 24 h. Therefore, we furth 28 39 investigated the optimization of the degradation reaction of P79 40 80 with ammonia. First, we studied the effect of the initial ammoned 41 concentration ($[NH_3]_0/[PIC]_0 = 0$ to 50) on the ammonolysis \$42

43 PIC without changing the reaction temperature (30 °C). The 44 degradation products obtained from the ammonolysis we

45 analyzed using both FT-IR and GPC (Figures S-9 and S-10), and 46 both the residual polymer ratio $([M_p]_t/[M_p]_0)$ and remaining ARTICLE

carbonate bonds during the ammonolysis were plotted as a function of the reaction time (Figure 4a and 4b). Both sets of results show that, except for the case of $[NH_3]_0/[PIC]_0 = 0$, where PIC was not degraded, the degradation of PIC to small molecules depends on the initial ammonia concentration. For [NH₃]₀/[PIC]₀ \geq 30, the degradation was complete after 12 h; this degradation is faster than at [NH₃]₀/[PIC]₀ = 20. Conversely, at [NH₃]₀/[PIC]₀ = 10, complete degradation to small molecules was not achieved, not even after 24 h. These results show that the degradation is accelerated with increasing initial ammonia concentration. However, the degree of acceleration between 30 eq. and 50 eq. was not as high as that between 10 eq. and 30 eq., which implies that the acceleration of the ammonolysis with increasing initial ammonia concentration reaches a threshold where ammonia is saturated relative to the PIC solid interface, i.e., a reaction-rate-determining state predominates for $[NH_3]_0/[PIC]_0 > 30$. Therefore, the ammonolysis proceeded most efficiently when 30 eq. of ammonia was applied. Based on this result, we calculated the ISB yield using ¹H NMR (reaction conditions: 30 °C; $[NH_3]_0/[PIC]_0 = 30$; Figure S-13). The resulting ISB yield after 24 h was only 45.3%. This result implies that although the degradation of PIC was accelerated by adjusting the initial ammonia concentration, the degradation was still incomplete after 24 h.



Figure 4. a) $[M_p]_t/[M_p]_0$ (residual polymer ratio) and b) carbonate bonds remaining in the degradation products during ammonolysis using different ammonia concentration conditions. c) $[M_p]_t/[M_p]_0$ (residual polymer ratio) and d) carbonate bonds remaining in the degradation products during ammonolysis using different reaction temperatures.

The low yield of ISB was attributed to the low reactivity of ammonia toward the carbonate bonds at 30 °C. Thus, we subsequently investigated the dependance of the yield on the reaction temperature. The degradation products obtained at various reaction temperatures were analyzed using FT-IR and

10	urnal		
	urrai	INGIII	

ARTICLE

1 GPC (Figures S-11 and S-12), and the results are plotted 57 2 Figure 4c and 4d as the residual polymer ratio $[M_p]_t/[M_p]_0$ and 3 remaining carbonate bonds during the ammonolysis. The rate 4 of the degradation reaction increased in proportion to the 5 temperature. When the reaction was conducted at 90 °C, the 6 PIC was completely degraded to the corresponding small molecules within 3 h, which is much faster than when the 7 8 reaction is carried out at 30 °C (24 h). The ISB yield in the 9 ammonolysis with reaction conditions of 90 °C and [NH₃]₀/[PIC]₀ 10 = 30 was monitored using ¹H NMR spectroscopy, which revealed 11 that the concentration of ISB increased with increasing reaction 12 time to afford ISB in 97.4% yield after 6 h (Figure S-14). The urea 13 yield was calculated in a similar manner (for details, see the ESI). 14 After 6 h, urea was generated in 69.4% yield, which is lower than 15 the yield of ISB. It seems that the hydrolysis reaction also 16 occurred as a side-reaction in the aqueous ammonia solution 17 and resulted in a small amount of the carbonyl source in the 18 polymer being converted into CO₂ instead of urea (Scheme S-4). 19 The ¹H DOSY NMR spectrum revealed that the degradation 20 product is a mixture of urea and ISB without any other 21 compounds, i.e., **ISB-MC** and **ISB-DC** were not present after 64 22 (Figure S-16). Thus, complete degradation to the target ed-23 degradation products was achieved by simply increasing the 24 reaction temperature. Furthermore, the reaction proceed 25 without any catalyst, demonstrating that the ammonolysis 64 26 PIC can be easily performed using aqueous ammonia a 27 heating. Thus, the ammonolysis of PIC is operationally simple 28 and environmentally friendly from the viewpoint of chemica? 29 recycling. From the viewpoints of sustainability, reuse of exceeds 30 ammonia after the reaction was evaluated. Specifically, file? 31 ammonolysis reaction was conducted in the same manner $\overline{a9}$ 32 the optimized condition and then further PIC was added in 70-33 the reactor. Consequently, second shot PIC was completely degraded to ISB and urea within 6 h (Figure S17). The titratized 34 measurement of the residual ammonia after second 35 ammonolysis experiment was performed to show the effecti $\sqrt{25}$ 36 37 use of ammonia in this study. The ammonia in reactor remained 38 almost theoretically (Figure S 18), demonstrating that the 39 residual ammonia can be used for further ammonoly 3879 40 experiment. 80

41 Plant growth using the PIC-degradation products

Finally, a plant-growth test was conducted using the 42 43 degradation products obtained from the ammonolysis of Ple3 44 Urea, which is a component of the degradation products, is 45 well-known fertilizer used worldwide to promote plant growt 46 on the other hand, ISB is not used as a fertilizer. However, ISB 47 a non-toxic and sugar-based compound, so it would not \$248 expected to exert a negative impact on plant growth. Given the the degradation products contained only urea and ISB, th \$49 50 could be used directly as a fertilizer without purification. The P51 purpose of the plant-growth test was to demonstrate wheth 52 the degradation products from PIC have a negative impact \Re^2 93 53 plant growth or not. 94 54 95 55 96

56

Table 1. Fertilizers used in the plant growth experiment



Figure 5. a) Fresh weight of Arabidopsis thaliana. Values represent mean values ± standard deviation (n = 10). Different letters indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD, p < 0.05), and b) photographs of the Arabidopsis thaliana in each plantgrowth test.

Arabidopsis thaliana, which was used as model plant, was grown for 2 weeks (for details, see the ESI). Three aqueous solutions, i.e., a solution of commercially available urea (Entry 1), a solution of commercially available urea and ISB (Entry 2), and a solution of the degradation products from PIC (conditions: 90 °C and [NH₃]₀/[PIC]₀ = 30; Entry 3), were prepared as shown in Table 1 (for details, see Table S2) and applied in the plantgrowth test using A. thaliana. The fresh weights and photographs of A. thaliana after 2 weeks using the different solutions are presented in Figure 5. A. thaliana grew well in all the solutions, demonstrating that the degradation products from PIC did not have any negative impact on plant growth. A. thaliana exhibited more growth than in the control experiment with only urea (Entry 1), indicating that ISB has a positive rather than a negative impact on the plant growth. To further investigate the effect of ISB as fertilizer, only ISB was added to the plant. Consequently, when only ISB was added, the effect as a fertilizer was not observed (Trial 4, Figure 19, Table S2 entry 4-6). However, when ISB was added combining with urea, which is same condition as degradation products, the fertilizer effect was better than the case of adding only urea. This result implied that ISB has the promotion effect for plant growth of A. thaliana in the presence of urea. Although investigations into the plant growth using urea and ISB remain ongoing, e.g., uptake of the degradation products by the plants, the present results are sufficient to serve as proof-of-concept for our hypothesis, i.e., that the degradation products from PIC can successfully be used as fertilizers without purification. This chemical recycling of a polycarbonate using ammonia is operationally simple and

81

1	environmentally friendly and thus represents an innovatise (fertilizer-from-plastics' system 51	4
3	52 52	5
4	Conclusions 54	6
5 6	5 We have demonstrated a novel concept based on using plastics as a source of fertilizers to address global environmental and	
7 8 0	food-supply issues via the chemical recycling of poly(isosorbide carbonate) (PIC), a bio-based polycarbonate that functions as a	
9 10	model for next-generation plastics. The chemical recycling 60 method for PIC, which has carbonate bonds in its repeating	
11 12 13	units, used ammonia as a reagent to afford urea as 62 degradation product. The optimal reaction conditions were found to be 90 °C and [NH ₃] ₀ /[PIC] ₀ = 30. The complete	10
14 15	degradation of PIC to afford only ISB and urea via simple heating	11
16	the absence of any catalyst. Furthermore, we examined the use	
17 18	of the degradation products as a fertilizer, which revealed that the untreated degradation products could be used without and	
20 21	chemicals in the world, and many researchers have been	14
22	NH_3 , which will make the production of ammonia simpler and	15
23 24 25	more affordable. ⁴⁴ Therefore, this method of chemical polymer recycling is revolutionary in terms of the usefulness of the	16
25 26 27	degradation products of the plastics and the convenience of the reaction. Various types of bio-based polycarbonates have been reported so far $^{45-53}$ and their degradation products might also	17
28 29 30	 Be effective fertilizers. We are convinced that the present study represents a milestone toward developing sustainable and recyclable polymer materials in the near future. The era of 	
31 32	"bread from plastics" is just around the corner. 82 83	19
22	Sanflista of interact 85	20
27 21	There are no conflicts to declare	
54	87 88	21
25	Acknowledgements 89	
36	This work was supported by the IST in the form of PPESTO graft	22
37 38	JPMJPR18L1 (to D.A.). The authors thank Prof. O. Haba f92 fruitful discussions. The authors also thank the Suzukaked 33	
39 40	Materials Analysis Division, Technical Department, Tok 9 4 () Institute of Technology, for the FAB and ESI-TOF M95	
41 42	measurements. 96	25
42	97 98 99	26
43	Notes and references 100	
44 4	101	28
45 46	<i>Ind. Chem.</i> , 2013, 4 , 34. 103	20
47	2 M. E. Grigore, <i>Recycling</i> , 2017, 2(4) , 24. 104	29
48 49	3 K. Ragaert, L. Delva and K. Van Geem, <i>Waste Manag.</i> , 105 2017, 69 , 24–58.	

ARTICLE
M. Okan, H. M. Aydin and M. Barsbay, J. Chem. Technol.
V. Sinha, M. R. Patel and J. V. Patel, <i>J. Polym. Environ.</i> ,
2010, 18 , 8–25. R. Gever, J. R. Jambeck and K. L. Law. <i>Sci. Adv.</i> . 2017. 3 . 25–
29.
T. Yamamoto, S. Kato, D. Aoki and H. Otsuka, <i>Angew.</i> <i>Chem., Int. Ed.</i> , 2021, 60 , 2680–2683.
R. M. O'Dea, J. A. Willie and T. H. Epps, <i>ACS Macro Lett.</i> ,
<i>The New Plastics Economy: Rethinking the future of</i>
plastics, World Economic Forum, 2016.
C. Wahlen, M. Rauschenbach, J. Blankenburg, E. Kersten, C.
P. Ender and H. Frey, <i>Macromolecules</i> , 2020, 53 , 9008– 9017.
YARA, Yara Fertilizer Industry Handbook, 2018.
J. W. Erisman, M. A. Sutton, J. Galloway, Z. Klimont and W.
Winiwarter, <i>Nat. Geosci.</i> , 2008, 1 , 636–639.
W. T. Tsai, J. Environ. Sci. Heal Part C Environ. Carcinog. Ecotoxicol. Rev., 2006. 24 , 225–255.
M. Okada, Y. Okada and K. Aoi, J. Polym. Sci. Part A Polym.
Chem., 1995, 33 , 2813–2820.
R. C. Hockett, H. G. Fletcher, E. L. Sheffield, R. M. Goepp
and S. Soltzberg, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1946, 68, 927–930.
Y. S. Eo, H. W. Rhee and S. Shin, <i>J. Ind. Eng. Chem.</i> , 2016, 37 , 42–46.
Z. Zhang, F. Xu, H. He, W. Ding, W. Fang, W. Sun, Z. Li, S.
Zhang, Z. Yang, X. Li, W. Wang, Y. Shi, Z. Zhang, W. Fang, L.
Liu and S. Zhang, Green Chem., 2019, 21 , 3891–3901.
W. Qian, X. Ma, L. Liu, L. Deng, Q. Su, R. Bai, Z. Zhang, H.
Gou, L. Dong, W. Cheng and F. Xu, <i>Green Chem.</i> , 2020, 22 , 5357–5368.
M. Zhang, W. Lai, L. Su, Y. Lin and G. Wu, Polym. Chem.,
2019, 10 , 3380–3389.
W. Qian, L. Liu, Z. Zhang, Q. Su, W. Zhao, W. Cheng, L.
Chem 2020 22 2488–2407
L R Ochoa-Gómez S Gil-Río B Maestro-Madurga O
Gómez-Jiménez-Aberasturi and F. Río-Pérez. Arab. J.
Chem., 2019, 12 , 4764–4774.
C. Ma, F. Xu, W. Cheng, X. Tan, Q. Su and S. Zhang, ACS
Sustain. Chem. Eng., 2018, 6 , 2684–2693.
Q. Li, W. Zhu, C. Li, G. Guan, D. Zhang, Y. Xiao and L. Zheng,
J. Polym. Sci. Part A Polym. Chem., 2013, 51 , 1387–1397.
M. Yokoe, A. O. I. Keigo and M. Okada, J. Polym. Sci. Part A
Polym. cnem., 2003, 41 , 2312–2321.

- H. R. Kricheldorf, S. J. Sun, A. Gerken and T. C. Chang, *Macromolecules*, 1996, **29**, 8077–8082.
- 26 R. Arai, K. Zenda, K. Hatakeyama, K. Yui and T. Funazukuri, Chem. Eng. Sci., 2010, 65, 36–41.
- K. Hatakeyama, T. Kojima and T. Funazukuri, J. Mater.
 Cycles Waste Manag., 2014, 16, 124–130.
 - J. Zhu, J. Cai, W. Xie, P. H. Chen, M. Gazzano, M. Scandola and R. A. Gross, *Macromolecules*, 2013, **46**, 796–804.
 - A. Rizzo, G. I. Peterson, A. Bhaumik, C. Kang and T. L. Choi, Angew. Chem., Int. Ed., 2021, **60**, 849–855.

Journal Name

1	30	E. V. Antonakou and D. S. Achilias, Waste Biomass
2		Valorization, 2013, 4 , 9–21.
3	31	J. G. Kim, Polym. Chem., 2020, 11 , 4830–4849.
4	32	C. Jehanno, I. Flores, A. P. Dove, A. J. Müller, F. Ruipérez
5		and H. Sardon, <i>Green Chem.</i> , 2018, 20 , 1205–1212.
6	33	A. Kazama and Y. Kohsaka, <i>Polym. Chem.</i> , 2019, 10 , 2764–
7		2768.
8	34	S. Mete, P. Mukherjee, B. Maiti, S. Pal, P. K. Ghorai and P.
9		De, Macromolecules, 2018, 51 , 8912–8921.
10	35	J. P. Macdonald and M. P. Shaver, Polym. Chem., 2016, 7,
11		553–559.
12	36	D. V. Palaskar, A. Boyer, E. Cloutet, C. Alfos and H. Cramail,
13		Biomacromolecules, 2010, 11 , 1202–1211.
14	37	M. Hong and E. Y. X. Chen, Angew. Chem., Int. Ed., 2016,
15		55, 4188–4193.
16	38	K. Fukushima, G. O. Jones, H. W. Horn, J. E. Rice, T. Kato
17		and J. L. Hedrick. <i>Polvm. Chem.</i> , 2020. 11 , 4904–4913.
18	39	K. Fukushima, J. M. Lecuver, D. S. Wei, H. W. Horn, G. O.
19		Jones, H. A. Al-Megren, A. M. Alabdulrahman, F. D.
20		Alsewailem, M. A. McNeil, J. E. Rice and J. L. Hedrick.
21		Polym. Chem., 2013. 4 , 1610–1616.
22	40	S Hata H Goto E Yamada and A Oku Polymer 2002 43
23	10	2109–2116
24	41	K Saito C Jehanno I. Meabe I I. Olmedo-Martínez D
25	71	Mecerreves K Fukushima and H Sardon J Mater Chem
26		A 2020 8 13021–13026
20	12	D H Wu A Chen and C S Johnson / Magn Reson Ser A
27	42	1005 115 260 264
20	40	1995, 115, 200–204. T. Fujiwara, M. V. Hirai, M. China, V. Kamada and S. Naita
20	45	Plant Dhysial, 1002, 00, 262, 269
21	4.4	T N Vo S M Dark V Lu L Li M Sasasa M Kitana T
27	44	T. N. Fe, S. W. Park, F. Lu, J. Li, IVI. Sasase, IVI. Kitalio, T.
52 22	45	Tada and H. Hosono, <i>Nature</i> , 2020, 583 , 391–395.
22 24	45	S. Tempelaar, L. Mespoulle, O. Coulembler, P. Dubois and
54 25	40	A. P. Dove, Criem. Soc. Rev., 2013, 42, 1312–1336.
35	46	K. Mikami, A. I. Lonnecker, T. P. Gustatson, N. F. Zinnel, P.
30		J. Pai, D. H. Russell and K. L. Wooley, J. Am. Chem. Soc.,
3/		2013, 135 , 6826–6829.
38	47	O. Hauenstein, S. Agarwal and A. Greiner, Nat. Commun.,
39		2016, 7, 1–7.
40	48	G. L. Gregory, G. Kociok-Köhn and A. Buchard, <i>Polym</i> .
41		Chem., 2017, 8 , 2093–2104.
42	49	G. L. Gregory, L. M. Jenisch, B. Charles, G. Kociok-Köhn and
43		A. Buchard, Macromolecules, 2016, 49, 7165–7169.
44	50	O. Bonjour, I. Liblikas, T. Pehk, T. Khai-Nghi, K. Rissanen, L.
45		Vares and P. Jannasch, Green Chem., 2020, 8–10.
46	51	X. Chen and R. A. Gross, <i>Macromolecules</i> , 1999, 32 , 308–
47		314.
48	52	Y. Shen, X. Chen and R. A. Gross, Macromolecules, 1999,
49		32 , 2799–2802.
50	53	O. Haba, H. Tomizuka and T. Endo, Macromolecules, 2005,
51		38 , 3562–3563.
52		

ARTICLE

.