



HAL
open science

Effects of oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma treatments on mechanical and interfacial properties of flax yarns in thermoset matrix composites

Maria Carolina Seghini, Fabienne Touchard, Fabrizio Sarasini, Laurence Chocinski-Arnault, Jacopo Tirillo, Maria Paola Bracciale, Milan Zvonek, Vladimir Cech

► To cite this version:

Maria Carolina Seghini, Fabienne Touchard, Fabrizio Sarasini, Laurence Chocinski-Arnault, Jacopo Tirillo, et al.. Effects of oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma treatments on mechanical and interfacial properties of flax yarns in thermoset matrix composites. *Cellulose*, 2020, 10.1007/s10570-019-02785-3 . hal-02336823

HAL Id: hal-02336823

<https://hal.science/hal-02336823>

Submitted on 16 Nov 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 **Effects of oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma treatments on**
2 **mechanical and interfacial properties of flax yarns in thermoset**
3 **matrix composites**

4
5 Maria Carolina Seghini^{1,2,*}, Fabienne Touchard², Fabrizio Sarasini¹, Laurence Chocinski-
6 Arnault², Jacopo Tirillò¹, Maria Paola Bracciale¹, Milan Zvonek³, Vladimir Cech³

7
8
9 ¹*Department of Chemical Engineering Materials Environment and UdR INSTM, Sapienza-*
10 *Università di Roma, Via Eudossiana 18, 00184 Rome, Italy*

11 ²*Institut PPRIME, CNRS-ENSMA-Université de Poitiers, Département Physique et*
12 *Mécanique des Matériaux, ENSMA, 1, Av. Clément Ader, B.P. 40109, 86961 Futuroscope*
13 *Cedex, France*

14 ³*Institute of Materials Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, Brno University of Technology,*
15 *Purkynova 118, CZ-612 00 Brno, Czech Republic*

16 *Corresponding author: M.C. Seghini, mariacarolina.seghini@uniroma1.it,
17 mariacarolina.seghini@ensma.fr

18
19
20 **Abstract**

21 This work is focused on the assessment of the effect of oxygen and polymer plasma
22 tetravinylsilane (pp-TVS) treatments on the adhesion of flax yarns with epoxy and vinylester
23 thermoset matrices. These low temperature plasma processes have been selected as more
24 environmentally friendly alternatives to traditional chemical treatments. Tensile tests performed on
25 single flax yarns revealed a reduction in their mechanical properties after plasma treatments. In
26 particular, a tensile strength reduction of 36.4% was detected after the oxygen plasma treatment
27 using 100W of plasma power. The morphological analysis highlighted that this result is mainly
28 ascribed to the ablation action produced by oxygen plasma process. In the case of pp-TVS, both
29 morphological and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis (FT-IR) confirmed the
30 presence of a homogeneous tetravinylsilane film on the surface of the yarns. The interfacial
31 adhesion of untreated, oxygen plasma treated, and plasma-polymer coated flax yarns has been
32 determined by single fibre fragmentation test (SFFT). The plasma polymer deposition can produce
33 a significant improvement of the adhesion property of flax yarns with both epoxy and vinylester
34 matrices. An increase of the interfacial shear strength (IFSS) values of 114% and 71% was found
35 after the TVS film deposition in epoxy and vinylester composites, respectively. These results were
36 confirmed by high-resolution micro-CT, photoelasticity analysis and FE-SEM observations.

37
38 **Keywords:** Plant fibres, Interface/interphase, Fragmentation, Plasma treatment, micro-CT

39
40 **1. Introduction**

41 In the last two decades, the development of natural fibre reinforced polymer matrix composites has
42 attracted great interest due to their properties and environmentally friendly character, with their
43 global market that is forecast to grow at a CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate) of 8.2% from
44 2015 to 2020, especially driven by automotive, building and construction applications (Lucintel,

2015). In particular, lignocellulosic fibres such as flax, hemp, jute, sisal and abaca have been proposed as substitutes of traditional glass fibres (Koronis, Silva, and Fontul, 2013)(Kiruthika, 2017). This growing attention towards the application of lignocellulosic fibres as reinforcement in polymers is not surprising as lignocellulosic fibres offer several advantages over conventional synthetic ones, such as low density, low cost, good specific mechanical properties, wide availability and biodegradability. Despite these benefits, the poor compatibility with polymer matrices still represents a major limitation for the industrial exploitation of this kind of fibres. In fact, their peculiar chemical composition, hydrophilic properties and surface characteristics prevent them from achieving a proper interfacial adhesion with hydrophobic polymer matrices, which results in composites with poor mechanical properties. To this purpose, various surface treatments have been proposed over the years, which have been the subject of extensive and detailed reviews (George et al., 2001; John and Anandjiwala, 2008; Kalia, Kaith, and Kaur, 2009; Li, Tabil, and Panigrahi, 2007; Mohanty, Misra, and Drazal, 2001). These treatments can be divided in physical (stretching, ultrasound, thermal and non-thermal plasma, electric discharge method, etc.) (De Almeida Mesquita et al. 2017; Ke et al. 2007; Molina 2016; Ragoubi et al. 2012; Yachmenev, Blanchard, and Lambert 1998) and chemical (alkaliation, acetylation, benzooylation, acrylation, bleaching, coupling agents etc.) methods (Amiandamhen, Meincken, and Tyhoda, 2018; Bulut and Aksit, 2013; Fiore, Scalici, and Valenza, 2017; Liu et al., 2016, 2017; Mukhopadhyay and Fanguero, 2009; Ng, Shahid, and Nordin, 2018; Shanmugasundaram, Rajendran, and Ramkumar, 2018; B. Wang et al., 2003). Many of these techniques induce modifications of the surface chemistry of the fibres, while other treatments consist of a selective removal of fibre components that do not contribute to the reinforcement of the composite but have a negative effect on the adhesion quality. However, a large amount of hazardous chemicals is involved in these treatments to increase the hydrophobicity of natural fibres. Because of the stricter environmental legislation, process effluents must be handled and disposed of appropriately and, at this point, they represent a major cost contributor (Baltazar-y-Jimenez et al., 2008). For this reason, there is a need to develop more environmentally safe and effluent-free processes able to promote the adhesion between natural fibres and the polymeric matrices. In this framework, the plasma treatment represents a clean and environmentally friendly superficial modification technique. More specifically, plasma treatment does not employ harmful chemicals or gases, it leaves limited or no waste and it is able to modify only the surface of the fibre without affecting its internal properties. In addition, a limited amount of input precursor is needed, thus being an ultimately green process (Yasuda and Matsuzawa, 2005). In literature several studies have investigated the use of plasma treatment on natural fibres to improve the fibre/matrix adhesion. Scalici et al. (Scalici, Fiore, and Valenza, 2016) studied the effects of plasma treatment on the properties of *Arundo Donax L.* leaf fibres. From the remarkable enhancements of mechanical properties of the resulting composites, this study concluded that the plasma treatment can enhance the fibre/matrix adhesion. Low pressure plasma has been used by de Farias et al. (De Farias et al., 2017) to modify coir fibres. An increase in the surface roughness of fibres and an exposition of the crystalline cellulose were the main outcomes using air and oxygen gases, which resulted in improved mechanical properties of the composites. Baltazar-y-Jimenez et al. (Baltazar-y-Jimenez et al., 2008) reported that the atmospheric air pressure plasma treatment produced an increase in the interfacial shear strength values for flax, sisal and hemp fibres with cellulose acetate butyrate matrix, despite a decrease in mechanical properties of the fibres with increasing treatment duration. This increase was ascribed to the introduction of functional groups, the cleaning of contaminant substances and the enhanced surface roughness able to promote the mechanical interlocking between the fibre and the matrix. The effects of argon and air atmospheric pressure plasma on woven flax fibres have been explored by Bozaci et al. (Bozaci et al., 2013). The study showed that argon treatment is effective in increasing the roughness and so the adhesion of flax fibres with high density polyethylene (HDPE) matrix by mechanical interlocking. On the contrary, air plasma was found to strongly affect the oxygen/carbon ratio on the fibre surface thus promoting the adhesion with unsaturated polyester matrices. Most of the available studies in literature on surface modification of natural fibres used plasma treatment for surface etching and/or functionalization. In this context, the aim of the present work is to investigate the effects of two

99 different plasma treatments on the adhesion quality of flax yarns to different thermoset resins. In
100 particular, an oxygen plasma and a plasma polymerization treatment have been performed on flax
101 yarns. The oxygen plasma has been selected as it is able to increase the surface roughness and
102 introduce functional groups such as -OH, C-O, C=O and O-C=O in the surface of flax fibres, thus
103 resulting in improved wettability. The plasma polymerization treatment consists in a plasma
104 polymerized film deposition (Plasma Enhanced Chemical Vapor Deposition - PECVD) that can
105 increase the wettability and consequently the fibre/matrix adhesion through an engineered
106 deposition of a compatible interlayer on the fibre surface (Cech et al., 2014). Monomer and gas
107 molecules are fragmented and ionized in plasma producing excited species, free radicals and ions.
108 Adsorbed activated fragments recombine forming a thin plasma polymer film onto the fibre
109 surface. In this study a tetravinylsilane monomer has been selected to produce a thin plasma
110 polymer tetravinylsilane film (pp-TVS). Unlike the most common coating processes, such as
111 silanization or polymer grafting, through the plasma polymerization process it is possible to obtain
112 very thin films reducing the amount of chemical species used. Another positive feature of the
113 selected plasma polymerization process is its suitability for industrial scale-up, as recently
114 demonstrated on glass fibres (Cech et al., 2019).

115 In this paper, the impact of plasma treatment on the mechanical properties of flax yarns has been
116 determined by performing single yarn tensile tests. The influence of plasma on the functional
117 groups and the analysis of the thermal stability of untreated and plasma treated flax yarns have
118 been assessed by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and thermogravimetric (TGA)
119 analysis, respectively. In this study the single fibre fragmentation test (SFFT) has been transferred
120 to the scale of single flax yarn specimens to investigate the effect of plasma treatment on the
121 adhesion quality of flax with two different types of thermoset matrices, namely epoxy and
122 vinylester (Seghini et al., 2018). The quality of the interfacial adhesion between flax yarns and
123 both matrices has been assessed in terms of critical fragment length, debonding length and
124 interfacial shear strength (IFSS). High-resolution microtomography (1.5 μm), photoelasticity and
125 FE-SEM observations allowed a better understanding of the interfacial adhesion phenomena.

126

127 **2. Materials and methods**

128

129 *2.1 Materials*

130 Individual flax yarns were carefully extracted by hand from the Biotex flax fabric supplied by
131 Composites Evolution, which is an untreated 2 \times 2 twill fabric with an areal weight of 200 g/m².
132 The epoxy matrix consisted of the Epoxy Prime 27 infusion resin and PRIME 20 slow hardener by
133 GURIT. The curing process was carried out with a mixing ratio of 100:28 by weight. The Advalite
134 VH-1207 styrene free vinylester resin, supplied by Reichhold, was selected as the second
135 thermoset matrix. The Norpol Peroxide P MEC N24 catalyst, supplied by Reichhold, was used as
136 curing agent (mixing ratio of 1 phr).

137

138 *2.2 Plasma Modification Treatments of Flax Surface*

139

140 Plasma surface treatments were carried out in a reactor consisting of a glass tube 100 cm long and
141 with an inner diameter of 40 mm. The plasma system was first evacuated to a basic pressure of
142 about 5×10^{-4} Pa. Argon gas (99.999%) was used to clean the plasma reactor and vacuum
143 chambers. A first oxygen plasma treatment has been performed. Plasma was excited at powers of
144 2, 10, 20, 50 and 100 W. The flax surfaces were exposed to a continuous oxygen plasma ablation
145 for 30 min at 5.8 Pa. Subsequently, a plasma polymerization treatment has been performed on flax
146 yarns. The polymer deposition treatment has been divided in two steps: a first non-polymerising
147 gas plasma step, a pre-treatment with oxygen plasma for 30 min to remove contaminants and

148 improve film adhesion, and a second step of polymerising gas plasma, in which tetravinylsilane
149 monomer $\text{Si}(-\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2)_4$ (purity 97%, Sigma Aldrich) was fragmented and ionized in plasma
150 producing excited species, free radicals and ions which were recombined forming a thin plasma
151 polymer film onto the yarns surface. Tetravinylsilane plasma was employed for 15 min. In order to
152 assess the effect of the oxygen pretreatment step on the deposition quality, oxygen plasma was
153 excited using two different power conditions, 2 W and 100 W, respectively at 5.8 Pa. In both
154 cases, the plasma deposition step was carried out using a power of 10 W at 3.8 Pa.

155

156 *2.3 Optical and FE-SEM observations*

157

158 The flax yarn diameters and all the fragment lengths were measured by using a ZEISS Axio
159 Imager optical microscope. A morphological investigation of the surface of plasma treated and
160 untreated flax yarns has been carried out using a field-emission gun scanning electron microscope
161 (FE-SEM) Zeiss Auriga. After single fibre fragmentation tests, the morphology of the single yarn
162 composite fracture surfaces was investigated by a FE-SEM JEOL JSM-7000F. All specimens were
163 sputter coated with chromium prior to FE-SEM observation.

164

165 *2.4 Tensile testing*

166 Tensile properties of untreated and plasma treated flax yarns have been determined by single yarn
167 tensile tests in accordance with ASTM C-1557 (Seghini et al., 2018). Individual yarns were glued
168 onto card tabs with a central window cut out to match the desired gauge length for the test. For
169 each family, at least thirty tests have been performed using a gauge length of 40 mm. Tensile tests
170 were carried out at room temperature with a Zwick/Roell Z010 equipped with a 1 kN load cell.
171 Tests were performed in displacement control with a cross-head speed of 2 mm/min. Before
172 testing, all the yarns were conditioned at 45 °C for 24 h for moisture elimination.

173

174 *2.5 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis (FT-IR)*

175 The chemical composition of the as-received and plasma treated flax fibres has been studied by
176 Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) analysis. Infrared measurements were carried out with a Bruker
177 Vertex 70 spectrometer (Bruker Optik GmbH) equipped with a single reflection Diamond ATR
178 cell. Spectra were recorded with a 3 cm^{-1} spectral resolution in the mid infrared range ($400\text{--}4000$
179 cm^{-1}) using 512 scans.

180

181 *2.6 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)*

182 Analysis of the mass loss of untreated and plasma treated flax yarns with temperature has been
183 carried out using a SetSys Evolution (Setaram Instrumentation) thermogravimetric analyser. The
184 different yarns were placed in an alumina pan and heated at a rate of 10 °C/min to a maximum
185 temperature of 800 °C in nitrogen atmosphere.

186

187 *2.7 Photoelasticity analysis*

188 To study the distribution of interfacial stresses in the single yarn reinforced composites, a
189 photoelasticity analysis has been performed for the untreated flax yarn/epoxy and the
190 tetravinylsilane plasma treated flax yarn/epoxy systems. During single fibre fragmentation tests,
191 specimens were placed into a circular polariscope in order to reveal the stress state near yarn
192 breaks and at the interface between the yarn and the matrix by photoelasticity. An AVT-Dolphin
193 high resolution camera, focusing on the reduced gauge section of the specimens, has been used
194 during tests. To ensure a continuous recording, pictures have been taken every 2 s.

195

196 *2.8 Single yarn fragmentation tests*

197

198 The single fibre fragmentation test has been used in a previous experimental work to assess the
199 interfacial properties of untreated flax yarns with epoxy and vinylester matrices (Seghini et al.,
200 2018). A metallic mould has been used for the manufacture of composite specimens reinforced
201 with a single flax yarn aligned along the load direction. Each flax yarn was positioned in the
202 mould and held in place by adhesive tape. Before casting, flax yarns were conditioned at 45 °C for
203 24 h for moisture elimination. A dog bone specimen, characterised by a reduced gage section with
204 a length of 15 mm, a thickness of 2 mm and a width of 3 mm, has been produced. The
205 fragmentation testing was performed with an Instron E1000 ElectroPuls test machine with a load
206 cell of 2 kN and using a crosshead speed of 0.005 mm/min. For each specimen, the yarn diameter
207 has been measured in at least ten points along the gauge length by optical microscopy before each
208 test. During tests, the loading phase was stopped if the specimen failed, or when the fragmentation
209 saturation level was achieved, which was defined as the point when no new yarn breaks appeared
210 during a subsequent strain increase by 0.5%. In order to be sure to reach the saturation level,
211 epoxy- and vinylester-based specimens were loaded up to failure at strains higher than 9 and 11%,
212 respectively.

213

214 *2.9 Micro-CT apparatus*

215 An UltraTom CT scanner manufactured by RX Solutions (France) has been used for the image
216 acquisition. High resolution micro-CT observations have been performed for both epoxy and
217 vinylester composites with untreated and PECVD flax yarns. A resolution of 1.5 µm has been used
218 in this work, with an accelerating voltage of 50 kV and a beam current of 157 µA. A volumetric
219 reconstruction has been performed for both epoxy and vinylester systems with the untreated and
220 the 100W oxygen-PECVD treated flax yarns. For 3D reconstruction, images were acquired from
221 1120 rotation views over 360° of rotation (0.32 rotation step). The analysis of the micro-CT
222 pictures has been performed by the Avizo 9.0 software.

223

224 **3- Results and discussion**

225

226 *3.1 Characterization of flax yarns*

227 A morphological analysis was carried out on the surface of flax yarns treated by oxygen plasma.
228 Figure 1 shows the SEM micrographs of the lateral surface of untreated flax yarns and oxygen
229 plasma treated flax yarns using the power of 2, 10, 20, 50 and 100 W. As the plasma power
230 increases, an enhancement in the surface roughness of the flax yarns can be observed, which is
231 essentially linked to the ability of the reactive plasma gas to perform a surface ablation of the flax
232 fibres. Ablation occurs by a chemical etching process during the plasma treatment. In fact, the
233 oxygen plasma is a chemically reactive plasma in which the inorganic oxygen gas is not able to
234 form any polymeric deposition. The ionization and dissociation reactions of oxygen gas are
235 reported in equations 1 and 2:

236



238

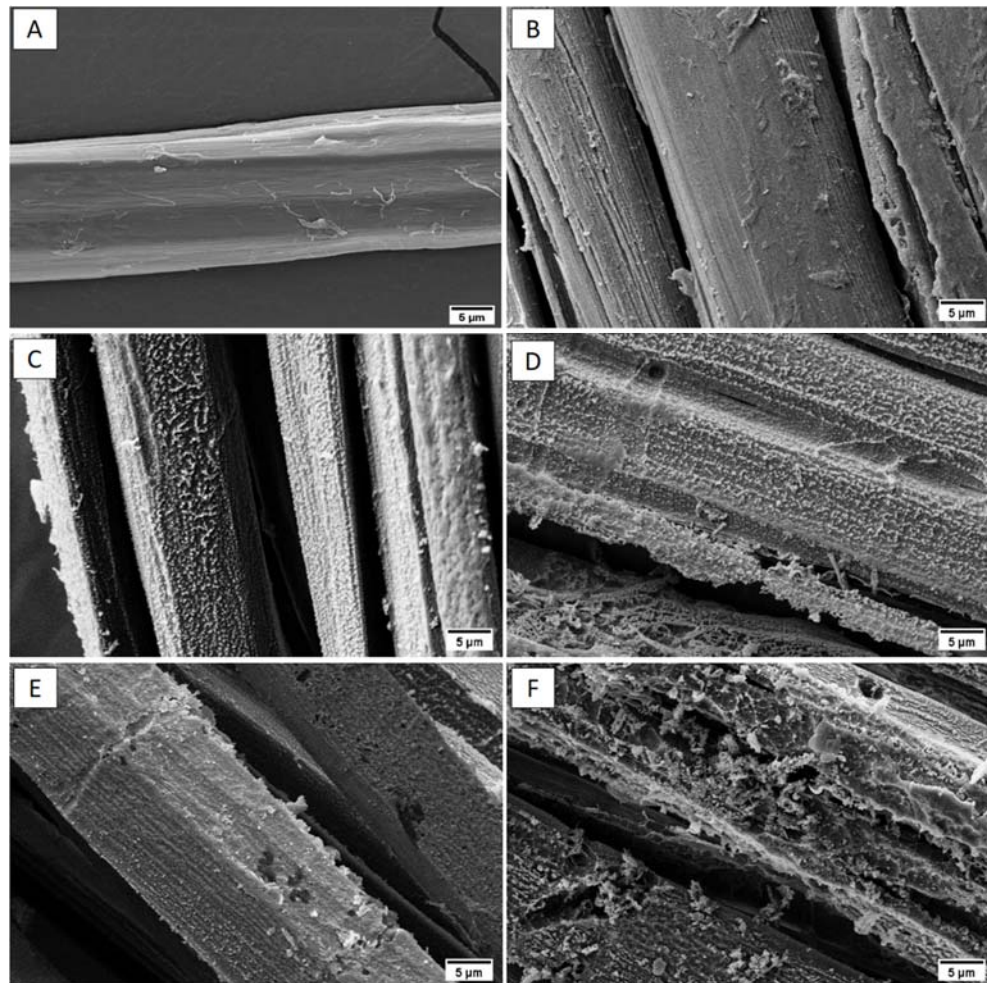


240

241 The reaction of these high energy oxygen ions with the flax surface is able to produce changes in
242 the surface morphology. As reported by Sun and Stylios (Sun and Stylios, 2006), after the oxygen
243 plasma treatment, fibre surface became rougher with the presence of pits, voids and spaces. This

244 effect is clearly visible by comparing the micrograph of the untreated flax fibres (Figure 1-A) with
245 that of the treated fibres using an oxygen plasma power of 100 W (Figure 1-F).

246



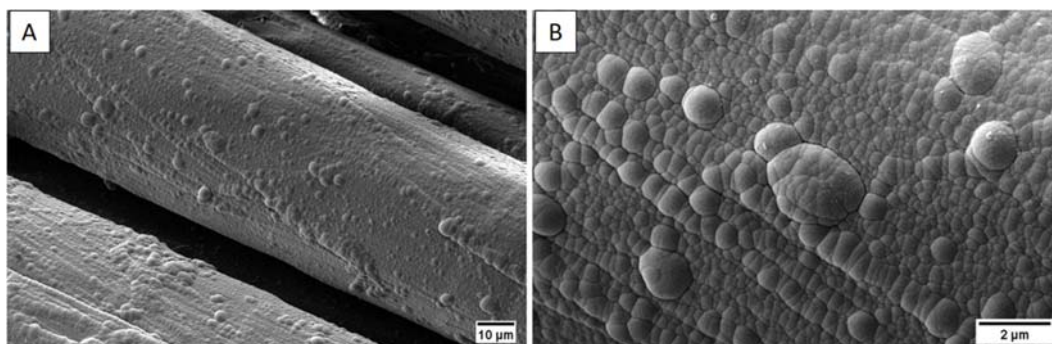
247
248

249 **Figure 1** SEM micrographs detailing the lateral surface of untreated flax yarn (A) and oxygen
250 plasma treated flax yarn using a power of 2 W (B), 10W (C), 20 W (D), 50 W (E) and 100 W (F).

251

252 Similar results were found by De Farias et al. (De Farias et al., 2017). This study showed that the
253 oxygen plasma treatment of coir fibres led to a partial removal of the surface amorphous layer,
254 revealing the inner structure with long valleys and peaks. The same morphological analysis has
255 been carried out after the plasma deposition of the polymeric TVS film. This analysis showed that
256 the quality of the polymeric coating strictly depends on the plasma power used during the first
257 oxygen non-polymerising gas plasma step. Oxygen power values of 100 W and 2 W have been
258 tested. By comparing the SEM micrographs reported in Figures 2-A, 2-B and Figures 3-A, 3-B, it
259 can be seen that the oxygen pre-treated flax yarns with a plasma power of 2 W are characterized
260 by the presence of a very homogeneous polymeric layer. A much more uneven coating was
261 obtained for the flax yarns treated using a power of 100 W. The morphological analysis confirms
262 that the final characteristics of the polymer film strongly depend on the finishing of lateral surface
263 of flax yarn as a result of the oxygen pre-treatment. The higher the plasma oxygen power used, the
264 greater the roughness of the flax fibres and so the lower the homogeneity of the polymeric film.

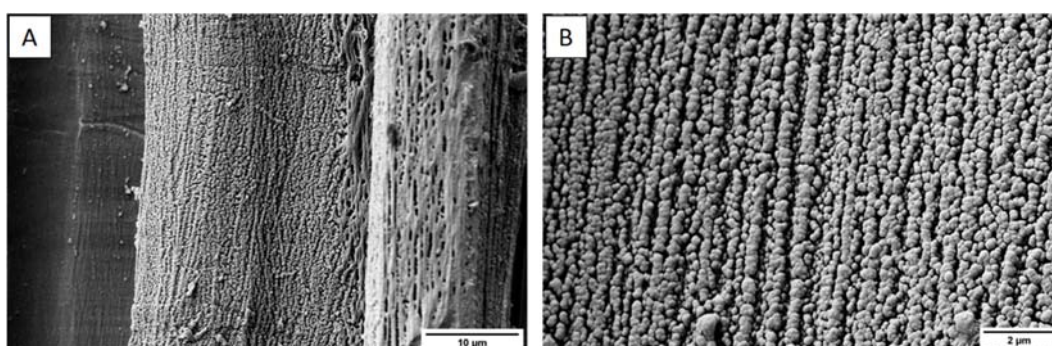
265



266
267

268 **Figure 2** SEM micrographs of flax yarns after the plasma polymer tetravinylsilane deposition, using
269 a plasma power of 2 W for the oxygen pre-treatment. Lateral surface of treated flax fibres (A) and a
270 detailed view of the polymer film (B).

271



272
273

274 **Figure 3** SEM micrographs of flax yarns after the plasma polymer tetravinylsilane deposition using
275 a plasma power of 100 W for the oxygen pre-treatment. Lateral surface of treated flax fibres (A) and
276 a detailed view of the polymer film (B).

277

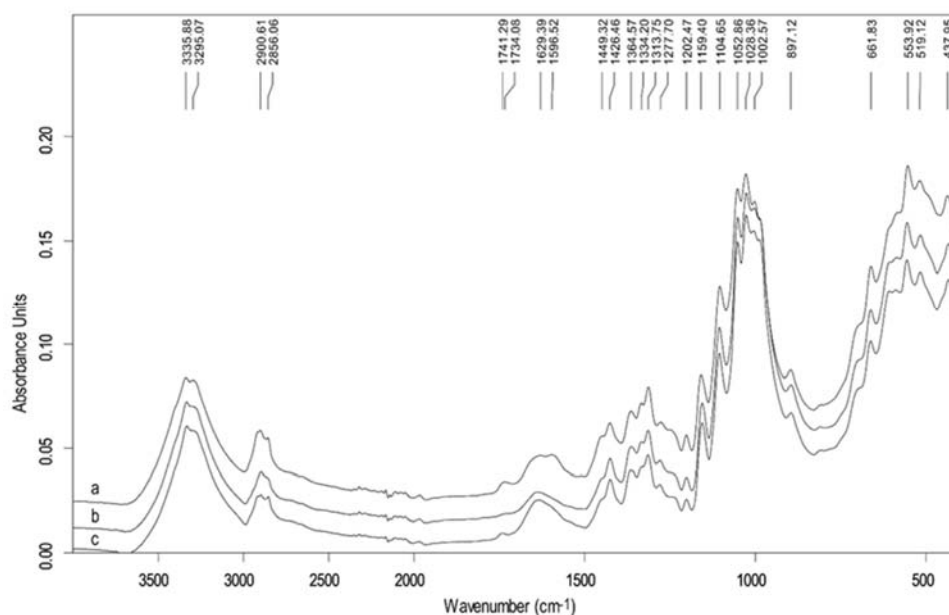
278 The effect of the different plasma treatments on the chemical composition of flax fibres has been
279 studied by Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) analysis. FT-IR spectra in Figure 4 show the
280 untreated and the oxygen plasma treated flax fibres using 2W and 100W power values. It can be
281 observed that untreated flax fibre consists of alkene, esters, aromatics, ketone and alcohol
282 belonging to cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin (Bozaci et al., 2013; Reddy et al., 2015; Titok et
283 al., 2010), as reported in table 1.

284

285 **Table 1** Assignment of the main ATR-FTIR bands.

Wavenumber (cm ⁻¹)	Band Assignments*
3700-3000	ν OH
2990-2754	ν CH of cellulose and hemicellulose
1734	ν C=O of hemicellulose
1629	δ HOH of water in crystalline cellulose
1597, 1511, 1450	ν C=C and d CH in methyl, methylene and methoxyl groups of lignin
1426, 1365, 1314	δ CH ₂ , δ CH of cellulose and ω CH ₂ in cellulose and hemicellulose
1278	τ C-H ₂ of cellulose
1251, 1159, 1105, 1028	ν C-O-C and ν C-C of polysaccharide components (mainly cellulose)
1053	ν C-OH of cellulose and hemicellulose
897	β -glycosidic linkages between the sugars units in cellulose

286 * ν = stretching; δ = bending; d = deformation; ω = wagging; τ = twisting.



288

289

290

Figure 4 Infrared spectra of different flax yarns: untreated (a), O₂-plasma treated at 2W (b) and 100W (c).

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

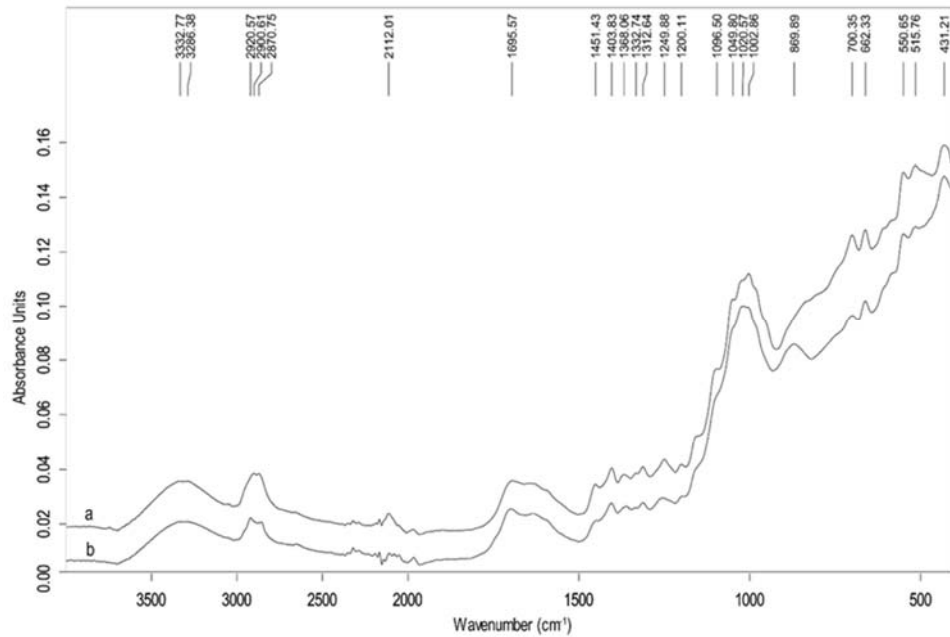
314

315

316

317

Upon plasma pre-treatment, the bands in the range 1780-1520 cm⁻¹ changed, indicating that hemicelluloses and lignin in the fibres were degraded as shown by the decrease of the bands at 1734 and 1597, 1511 cm⁻¹, respectively. This is in agreement with previous studies, which demonstrated that the amorphous regions are more susceptible to chemical and ion etching (Donaldson and Frankland 2004; Jamali and Evans 2011; De Souza Lima and Borsali 2004; Warner, Uhlmann, and Peebles Jr. 1975). In addition, with O₂ pre-treatment at 100W, an increase at \approx 1630 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the breakage of the β -1,4 glycosidic bonds of cellulose macromolecules in the oxidation reaction of the cellulose as confirmed by the reduction of the integrated intensity of the band at 897 cm⁻¹ (2W: 0.085; 100W: 0.076). Indeed this latter, as previously reported, was found to be linearly correlated with the percentage of cellulose (Noureddine Abidi, Cabrales, and Haigler, 2014) and degree of crystallinity (N Abidi and Manike, 2017). Moreover, a new band at 1741 cm⁻¹, probably due to the formation of oxidized species rich in hydroxyl, carbonyl, carboxyl groups and phenoxy radicals, appeared after O₂ plasma treatment at 100W (DemirKir, Colak, and Ozturk, 2017). The presence of the polymeric layer has been confirmed also by infrared spectroscopy analysis. Typical infrared bands of plasma-polymerized tetra vinylsilane (pp-TVS) film deposited on flax fibres are shown in Figure 5. In the wavenumber range 3700-3200 cm⁻¹ a significant band of -OH and harmonic vibration of C=C in vinyl group at 3286 cm⁻¹ occurs. Following, wide bands in the range 3100-2750 cm⁻¹ can be ascribed to vibrations of -CH₂ groups. Significant bands are the ones related to Si-H and C=O vibration at 2112 cm⁻¹ and 1696 cm⁻¹, respectively. Four bands contribute to Si-CH=CH₂ vibrations, such as: -CH₂ scissoring (1451 cm⁻¹), =CH₂ deformation in vinyl group (1404 cm⁻¹), -CH₂ wagging in Si-CH₂-R (1250 cm⁻¹) and =CH (1021 cm⁻¹), CH₂ wagging (shoulder at 950 cm⁻¹) of =CH₂ bond. Finally, a multiband in the range 1100-1000 cm⁻¹ belongs to Si-O-Si stretching (1097 cm⁻¹), Si-O-C stretching (1050 cm⁻¹) and Si-O (869 cm⁻¹) bending (V Cech et al., 2007, 2014; Davidson, 1971).

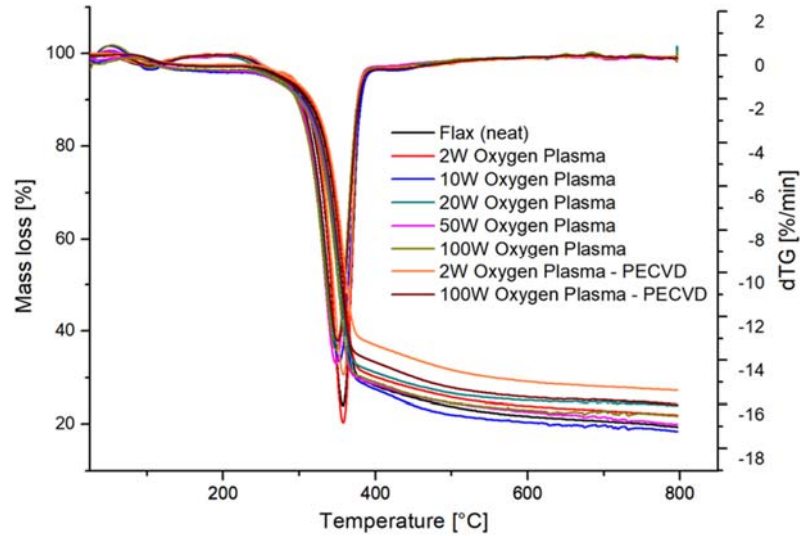


318
319 **Figure 5** Infrared spectra of pp-TVS films deposited on pre-treated flax yarns at 2W (a) and 100W (b).

320

321 Thermogravimetric analysis has been used to assess the thermal stability of untreated and both
 322 oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma treated flax yarns. Weight changes versus temperature and the
 323 derivative of weight changes versus temperature have been measured (Figure 6). Thermographs
 324 reveal three peaks in the derivative curves for the different flax fibres: the first mass loss, at about
 325 60-160°C, is related to the release of water, the second peak, at about 240-280°C, is attributed to
 326 the decomposition of the non-cellulosic components such as pectin and hemicellulose and the third
 327 mass loss peak, at about 340-360°C, is due to the cellulose degradation (Mazian et al., 2018).
 328 From the results reported in table 2, it can be noticed that the flax fibres treated using an oxygen
 329 plasma power of 2W show similar behaviour to the untreated one. A strong influence on thermal
 330 stability of flax can be instead detected starting from oxygen plasma power of 10W. De Oliveira et
 331 al. (De Oliveira et al., 2017) highlighted as the oxygen plasma exposure can be able to perform a
 332 partial removal of non-cellulosic substances like hemicellulose, lignin, pectin, waxes and
 333 impurities from coconut surfaces. Different studies in the literature reported as removal of non-
 334 cellulosic components from the fibres surface through chemical treatments can produce an
 335 increase in their thermal stability (Dong et al., 2015; Mazian et al., 2018; Velde and Baetens,
 336 2001). The decrease in both decomposition peak temperature and 10 % weight loss temperature of
 337 flax after the oxygen plasma exposure may be explained in an excessive value of plasma power
 338 used. In fact, the surface etching produced by oxygen can generate an overall degradation of flax
 339 fibres, with a consequent reduction in their thermal stability. By comparing the results found for
 340 the neat and the treated flax yarns using an oxygen plasma power of 100W, a 10 °C reduction can
 341 be observed for the two representative temperatures.

342



343
344

345 **Figure 6** Mass loss and derivative of the mass loss as a function of temperature for the untreated
346 and plasma treated flax yarns.

347

348 A positive effect on the thermal stability of the flax fibres has been observed after the pp-TVS
349 deposition. Similar decomposition peak temperature values may be found for the 2W and the 2W-
350 PECVD treated flax yarns, whereas an increase has been measured for the 100W-PECVD treated
351 yarns with respect to the 100W oxygen treated ones.

352

353 **Table 2** Results of the thermogravimetric analysis for the different kinds of flax yarns.

	Peak maximum Temperature [°C]	Temperature of 10 % weight loss [°C]
<i>Flax yarn (neat)</i>	357.2	311.3
<i>Flax yarn 2W Oxygen Plasma</i>	357.7	314.7
<i>Flax yarn 10W Oxygen Plasma</i>	352.5	304.3
<i>Flax yarn 20W Oxygen Plasma</i>	349.6	303.4
<i>Flax yarn 50W Oxygen Plasma</i>	348.0	301.0
<i>Flax yarn 100W Oxygen Plasma</i>	347.9	299.7
<i>Flax yarn 2W Oxygen Plasma- PECVD</i>	357.9	316.9
<i>Flax yarn 100W Oxygen Plasma- PECVD</i>	350.3	308.1

354

355 In order to evaluate the effects of the different surface modification treatments on the mechanical
356 performance of the single flax yarns, a mechanical characterization has been carried out by single
357 yarn tensile tests. A brittle behaviour under tensile loading has been found for all the different
358 families of flax yarns. From the results reported in table 3, it is possible to notice a decrease in the
359 maximum force and strength values with increasing power of oxygen plasma.

360

361 **Table 3** Tensile properties of flax yarns after different oxygen plasma power conditions and plasma
 362 deposition processes. In the table are also reported the parameters of the Weibull distribution for the
 363 tensile strength.

	F_{max} [N]	Diameter [μm]	σ_f [MPa]	ϵ_{max} [%]	Characteristic strength σ_0 [MPa]	Weibull Modulus m
<i>Flax yarn neat</i>	19.8 ± 4.8	327 ± 95	236 ± 57	3.4 ± 0.42	257.4	5
<i>Flax yarn 2W Oxygen Plasma</i>	20.9 ± 2.8	319 ± 60	262 ± 35	3.67 ± 0.33	277	8.8
<i>Flax yarn 10W Oxygen Plasma</i>	17 ± 3.4	330 ± 85	199 ± 39	3.39 ± 0.33	215	6.1
<i>Flax yarn 20W Oxygen Plasma</i>	17.9 ± 4.5	314 ± 90	231 ± 58	3.49 ± 0.44	253.6	4.5
<i>Flax yarn 50W Oxygen Plasma</i>	10.6 ± 4	307 ± 97	143 ± 54	2.71 ± 0.5	160	3.1
<i>Flax yarn 100W Oxygen Plasma</i>	9.2 ± 2.9	280 ± 69	150 ± 48	2.62 ± 0.56	167.1	3.4
<i>Flax yarn PECVD (2W O₂)</i>	21 ± 3.9	355 ± 87	212 ± 39	2.96 ± 0.35	228.8	6
<i>Flax yarn PECVD (100W O₂)</i>	14.7 ± 4.1	277 ± 63	244 ± 68	2.81 ± 0.59	272.5	3.6

364

365 For the 2W oxygen plasma, the measured strength value can be considered similar to the one
 366 obtained for untreated flax yarns because of the large scattering. Then, for higher power, the
 367 strength values decrease, until a reduction of 36.4% for the 100W condition. This result can be
 368 explained by the outcomes of the morphological analysis (Figure 1): the oxygen plasma carries out
 369 a surface ablation of flax fibres, generating defects such as pits, voids and spaces. Moreover, as
 370 shown in the thermogravimetric analysis, exposure of flax fibres to increasing plasma powers
 371 leads to a removal of hemicellulose, pectin and waxes but also to a strong degradation of structural
 372 components such as lignin and cellulose. The mechanical performance of flax yarns is thus closely
 373 linked to the oxygen plasma treatment. Concerning the results obtained for flax yarns treated with
 374 the TVS plasma, the average strength value measured for the yarns pretreated at 2W is very similar
 375 to the one obtained for the yarns only treated with the 2W power oxygen plasma. On the contrary,
 376 significantly higher strength values have been found for the 100W pretreated flax (244 MPa ± 68
 377 MPa) than the yarns treated only with the 100W power oxygen plasma (150 MPa ± 48 MPa). This
 378 enhancement of the mechanical properties of the TVS plasma treated flax yarn may be related to
 379 the filling and healing process of superficial defects by the polymeric layer deposited on flax
 380 yarns. The experimental results were statistically analysed using a two-parameter Weibull
 381 distribution, according to the equation 3 (Sarasini, Tirillò, and Seghini, 2018):

382

$$383 \Pr(\sigma) = 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0}\right)^m\right] \quad (3)$$

384

385 where $\Pr(\sigma)$ is the probability of survival of the tensile strength, m is the Weibull modulus (related
 386 to the dispersion of the data) and σ_0 is the characteristic strength. Equation 4 gives the estimator,
 387 P_f , used for the probability of failure evaluation:

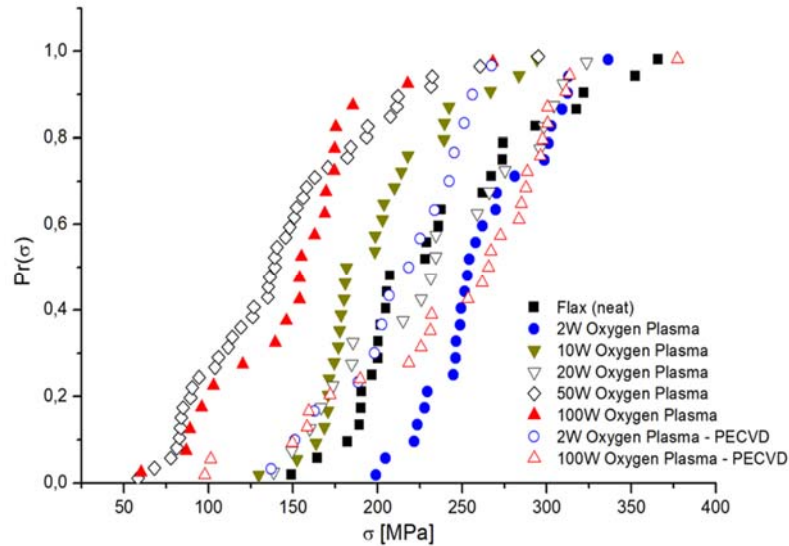
388

$$389 P_f = \frac{i-0.5}{N} \quad (4)$$

390

391 where N is the number of filaments tested and i is the rank of data point for each filament. In table
 392 3 are reported all the Weibull moduli and the characteristic strength values found for the treated
 393 and untreated flax yarns. The curves reported in Figure 7 represent the results of the two-parameter
 394 Weibull distribution applied to all the analysed flax yarns. The data appear to be well-fitted by a
 395 two-parameter Weibull distribution.

396



397

398 **Figure 7** Cumulative distributions of the tensile failure probability values measured for the different
 399 families of flax yarns.

400

401 *3.2 – Determination of critical fragment length and debonding length*

402 Fragmentation tests have been performed for the untreated flax yarns and for the flax yarns treated
 403 using oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma with both epoxy and vinylester resins. In order to assess
 404 the effect of the plasma process on the adhesion quality of flax yarn, fragmentation tests have been
 405 performed only on yarns treated with the maximum and minimum oxygen plasma power values,
 406 100 W and 2 W, respectively. The critical fragment length value reflects the stress transfer
 407 efficiency between the fibre and the matrix at the interface. For this reason, the critical fragment
 408 length estimation plays a crucial role in the assessment of the adhesion quality in a composite
 409 material. As reported by Ohsawa et al. (Ohsawa et al., 1978), the critical fragment length may be
 410 evaluated using equation 5 :

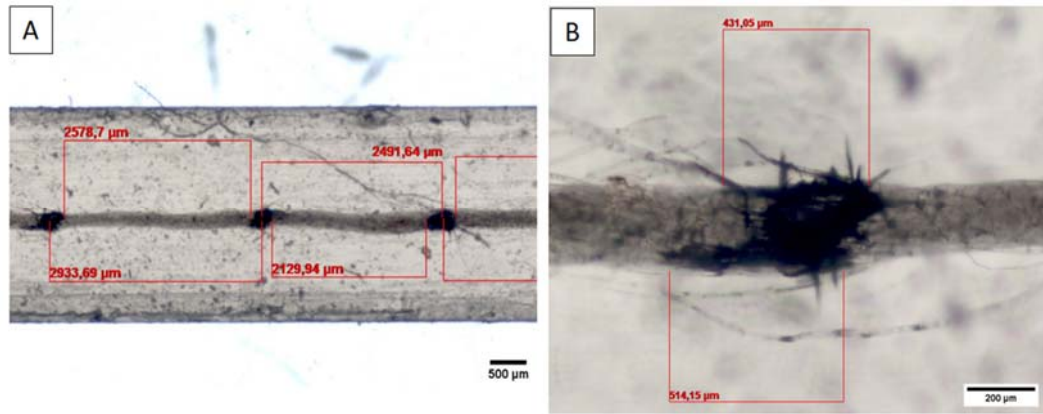
411

412
$$l_c = \frac{4}{3} \cdot \bar{l} \tag{5}$$

413

414 where \bar{l} is the average value of the fragment length. In figure 8 are reported examples of optical
 415 micrographs obtained for a fragmented flax yarn. For each sample, the yarn diameter and fragment
 416 lengths have been measured in the gauge length zone. As it is possible to see in Figure 8-A, the
 417 fragment lengths have been determined as the average values between the internal and the central
 418 points of the breaking zones. As it has been demonstrated in a previous experimental work through
 419 the micro-CT analysis (Seghini et al., 2018), the black area around each yarn break corresponds to
 420 the debonding length ($l_{\text{debonding}}$) between flax yarn and the polymer resin. These lengths have been
 421 measured by optical microscopy (Figure 8-B) and all the values found for the different systems are
 422 reported in table 4.

423



424

425 **Figure 8** Typical optical micrographs of a fragmented flax yarn: measurement of the yarn fragment
 426 length l (A) and of the debonding length $l_{\text{debonding}}$ (B).

427

428 When comparing the results found for the untreated flax yarns with those for the oxygen plasma
 429 treated yarns in epoxy resin systems, only the 100W process is able to reduce the critical and
 430 debonding length values. The oxygen plasma treatment performed at a power of 2W seems to be
 431 able to decrease the length of the debonding zone between the flax yarn and the epoxy matrix at
 432 the expense of an increased critical length. These results could lead to the conclusion that only an
 433 oxygen plasma treatment with a power of 100 W is able to effectively modify the surface of flax
 434 yarns and increase the adhesion with the epoxy matrix. For the flax yarn/vinylester systems, it can
 435 be seen that debonding and critical length values are significantly higher than those obtained for
 436 the epoxy resin. These results show that the flax yarn/epoxy system is characterized by a better
 437 interface quality than the flax/vinylester one.

438

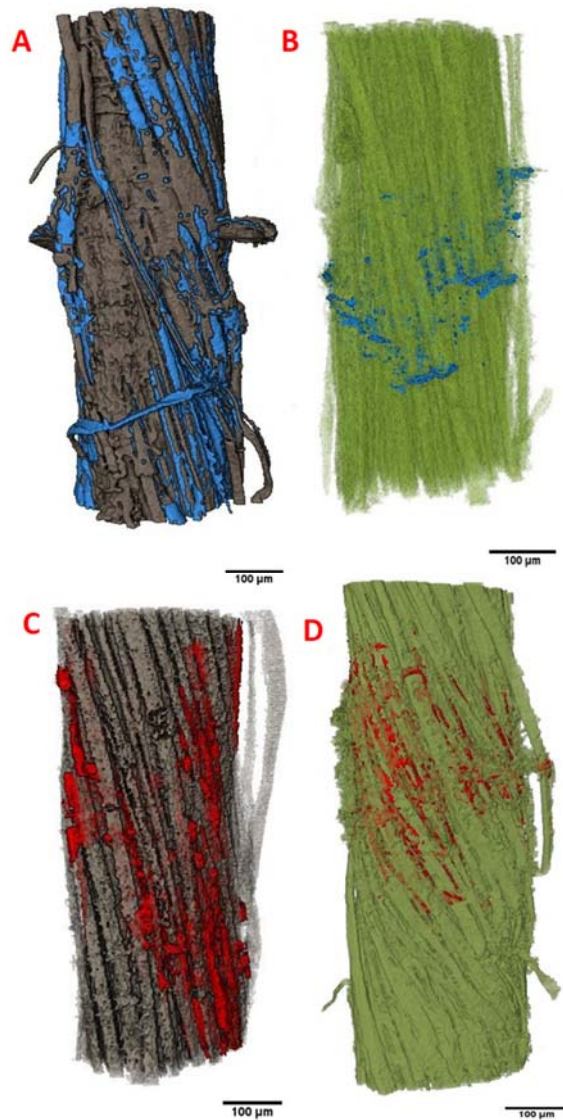
439 **Table 4** Critical fragment length and debonding length values for the different single yarn
 440 composites.

Matrix	Flax yarn	$l_{\text{debonding}}$ [μm]	l_c [μm]
<i>Epoxy</i>	Neat	444 \pm 49	2687 \pm 631
	2W Oxygen Plasma	335 \pm 41	2950 \pm 731
	100W Oxygen Plasma	317 \pm 44	1885 \pm 204
	2W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	355 \pm 30	2473 \pm 399
	100W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	247 \pm 63	1899 \pm 377
<i>Vinylester</i>	Neat	830 \pm 343	3938 \pm 804
	2W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	680 \pm 182	4175 \pm 702
	100W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	460 \pm 116	3075 \pm 600

441

442 Results also show that, for both thermoset matrices, the best results have been found for the TVS
 443 deposition after the 100W oxygen pretreatment, indicating a strong enhancement of the
 444 yarn/matrix interfacial adhesion. This tendency has been confirmed by micro computed
 445 tomography. Using the AVIZO 9.0 software, it was possible to perform a post- mortem 3-D
 446 reconstruction of the fracture zone distribution along the flax yarn. Raw images were segmented
 447 and the black voids (breaking zone) were identified from the background (the rest of flax yarn) on
 448 the basis of the different grey threshold values. This analysis has been performed for both epoxy
 449 and vinylester systems with untreated or 100W oxygen - PECVD treated flax yarns (Figure 9). In
 450 order to simplify the identification, the dark gray and the green colors have been used for yarn
 451 representation, and the blue and red colors have been chosen for damage reconstruction.

452



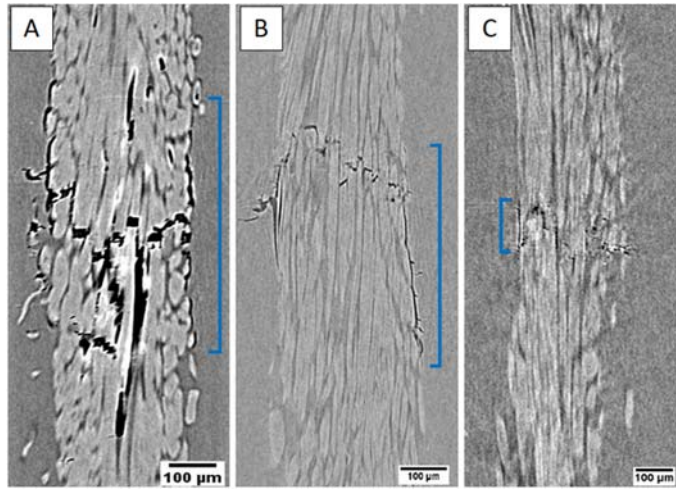
453

454 **Figure 9** Volumetric reconstruction of the flax yarn and the fracture zone for neat flax/epoxy (A),
 455 100W oxygen - PECVD flax/epoxy (B), neat flax/vinylester (C), 100W oxygen - PECVD
 456 flax/vinylester (D) systems.

457

458 The 3D reconstructions for both epoxy and vinylester composites highlight the decrease in the
 459 debonding length thanks to the pp-TVS film deposition treatment. By comparing the volumetric
 460 reconstructions reported in Figure 9-B and Figure 9-D, it is possible to see that the flax yarn/epoxy
 461 system shows a better interface quality than the flax/vinylester one. High resolution micro-CT
 462 observations allowed a precise measurement of the yarn/matrix debonding zone. The debonding
 463 length has been identified by the black voxels corresponding to voids between the periphery of the
 464 flax yarn and the matrix (Figures 10 and 11).

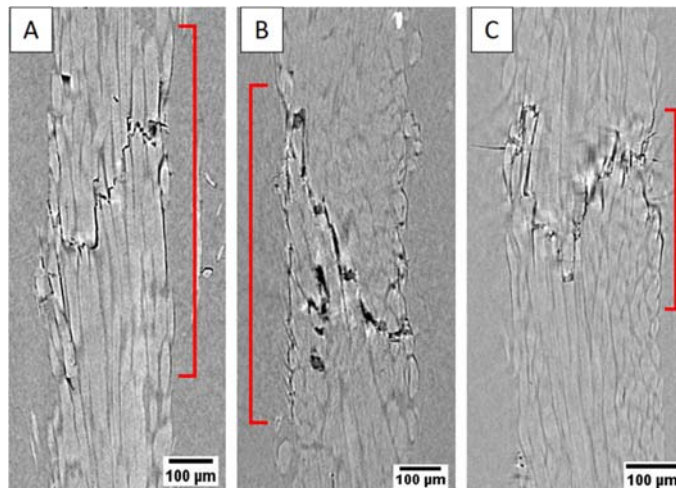
465



466

467 **Figure 10** Debonding length observation by micro computed tomography for: neat flax/epoxy (A),
 468 2W oxygen - PECVD flax/epoxy (B) and 100W oxygen - PECVD flax/epoxy (C) samples.

469



470

471 **Figure 11** Debonding length observation by micro computed tomography for: neat flax/vinylester
 472 (A), 2W oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester (B) and 100W oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester (C).

473

474 Comparison of debonding lengths confirms that for both thermoset matrices, the polymer
 475 deposition on flax yarn after the 100W oxygen pre-treatment allows a significant increase of the
 476 yarn/matrix interfacial adhesion. Comparison of Figure 10-C and Figure 11-C also confirms that
 477 the flax yarn/epoxy monofilament composite shows a better interface quality than the
 478 flax/vinylester one.

479

480 3.3 – Calculation of interfacial shear strength

481

482 According to Kelly and Tyson (Kelly and Tyson, 1965), the interfacial shear strength value (IFSS)
 483 may be estimated using equation 6:

484

$$485 \quad IFSS = \frac{\sigma_f(l_c) \cdot d}{2 \cdot l_c} \quad (6)$$

486

487 where d is the fibre diameter, l_c is the critical fragment length and $\sigma_f(l_c)$ is the fibre strength at a
 488 length equal to the critical filament length. Due to the impossibility to determine directly the

489 tensile strength of a single yarn at a length equal to the critical fragment length, an extrapolation of
 490 strength at critical length l_c has been performed by using the Weibull cumulative distribution
 491 function (Guillebaud-Bonafous et al., 2012; R. Joffe, Andersons, and Wallström, 2005; Roberts
 492 Joffe, Andersons, and Wallström, 2003; Zafeiropoulos, 2007). Using the obtained two-parameter
 493 Weibull distribution, the strength values at critical length have been evaluated by equation 7:

$$495 \quad \sigma_f(l_c) = \sigma_f(L_0) \left(\frac{L_0}{l_c} \right)^{-\frac{1}{m}} \quad (7)$$

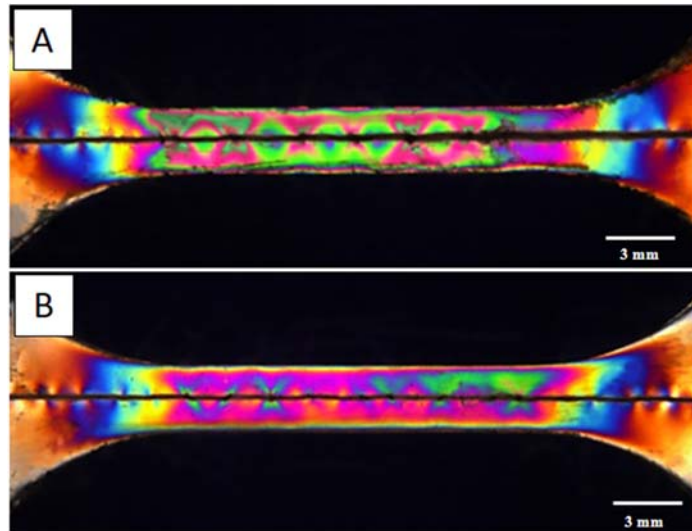
496
 497 where m is the shape parameter of Weibull distribution for the tested gauge length L_0 of 40 mm, l_c
 498 is the critical fragment length and $\sigma_f(L_0)$ is the strength value at the gauge length. In table 5 are
 499 reported all the $\sigma_f(l_c)$ values and the IFSS results obtained.

500
 501 **Table 5** Strength values at critical fragment length and IFSS values for the different flax/epoxy and
 502 flax/vinylester systems.

Matrix	Flax Yarn	$\sigma_f(l_c)$ [MPa]	IFSS [MPa]
Epoxy	Neat	406 ± 18	19.3 ± 3.7
	2W Oxygen Plasma	353 ± 9	20 ± 3.8
	100W Oxygen Plasma	363 ± 11	24.8 ± 2.8
	2W Oxygen Plasma – PECVD	336 ± 8	21.2 ± 1.6
	100W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	573 ± 31	41.3 ± 11.6
Vinylester	Neat	376 ± 15	13.9 ± 2.8
	2W Oxygen Plasma – PECVD	309 ± 8	12.4 ± 2.1
	100W Oxygen Plasma - PECVD	501 ± 26	23 ± 6.7

503
 504 The oxygen plasma treatment increases the IFSS values and this is particularly true in the case of
 505 the 100W plasma power. This reflects the results already found by comparing the critical length
 506 and the debonding length values. Concerning the PECVD process, from the results reported in
 507 table 5 it may be observed that, for both thermoset matrices, a significant increase in the values of
 508 IFSS was produced due to the deposition of the polymeric film after the 100W oxygen pre-
 509 treatment. Comparing the IFSS values found for the epoxy and vinylester systems with the 100W
 510 oxygen-PECVD treated flax yarns, it is possible again to conclude that the flax yarn/epoxy system
 511 has a better interface quality than the flax/vinylester one. In order to better understand the
 512 interfacial phenomena, a photoelasticity analysis has also been performed. It allowed to carry out a
 513 qualitative study of stress state near yarn breaks and at the interface between the yarn and the
 514 matrix. This analysis has been performed for the untreated flax yarn/epoxy and the 100W oxygen-
 515 PECVD treated flax yarn/epoxy systems. The vinylester resin used in this work does not exhibit
 516 birefringence phenomena, therefore no photoelasticity analysis has been carried out. Figure 12
 517 presents the different isochromatic patterns observed for the two different yarn/epoxy systems at
 518 the saturation of the fragmentation process.

519



520

521 **Figure 12** Comparison of experimental photoelastic patterns after yarn fragmentation test for the
 522 neat flax yarn/epoxy (A) and the 100W oxygen-PECVD treated flax yarn/epoxy (B) composite
 523 specimens.

524

525 Around each yarn break, the stress redistribution occurs at 45° of the tensile loading, showing a
 526 cross-shape profile. This type of stress transfer at the interface has been also observed in
 527 carbon/epoxy composites (X. Wang et al., 2010). Isochromatic patterns exhibit different fringe
 528 orders in Figure 12-A and 12-B. Fringes are more pronounced, with a higher stress level, in the
 529 case of the untreated flax yarn than in the case of the PECVD treated one. This dissimilar stress
 530 distribution confirms the lower interface quality and the lower IFSS value measured for the
 531 untreated specimen.

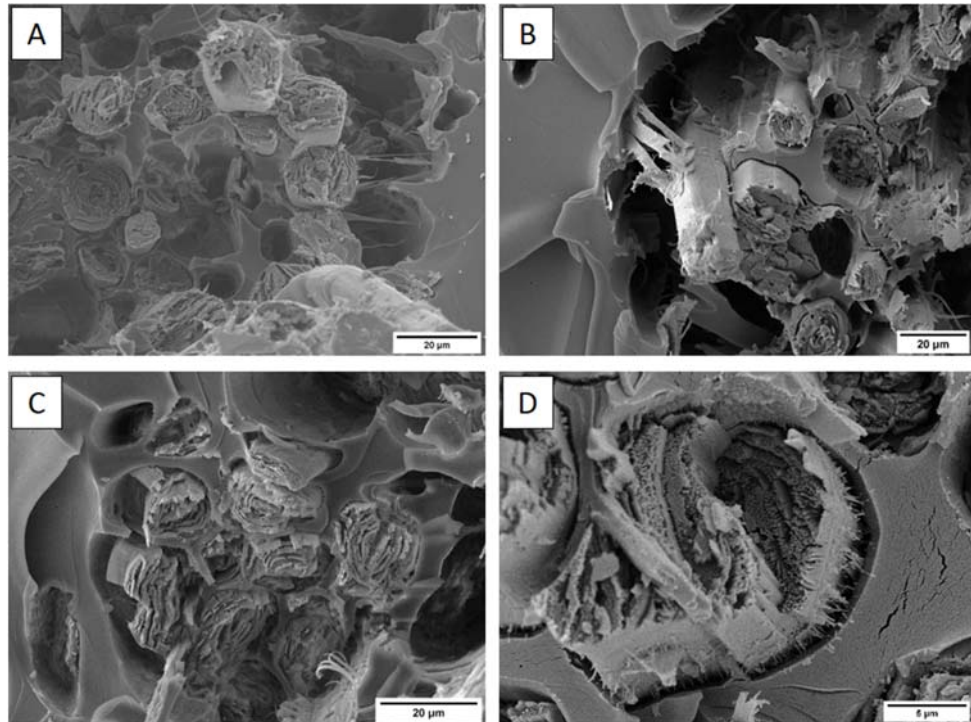
532

533 3.4 – Fractographic analysis

534

535 A post mortem morphological investigation of the fracture surface has been performed using the
 536 FE-SEM. The fracture surfaces of both single flax yarn samples with epoxy and vinylester resins
 537 have been investigated. Figure 13 presents a comparison of the FE-SEM-micrographs showing the
 538 fracture surface for the untreated and the different oxygen plasma treated flax/epoxy systems.
 539 Observations show that there is a gap in the yarn/matrix interfacial adhesion for both untreated and
 540 2W oxygen plasma treated specimens. Indeed, extensive flax fibre debonding can be seen in
 541 Figures 13-A and 13-B. On the contrary, for the 100 W oxygen plasma treated flax/epoxy system,
 542 it is possible to notice an increase in the yarn/matrix interfacial adhesion (Figure 13-C). These
 543 results are completely in agreement with the critical yarn lengths, the debonding lengths and the
 544 IFSS values found. A possible explanation of this behaviour may be found in the plasma oxygen
 545 capacity to modify the superficial morphology and the chemical composition of flax.

546

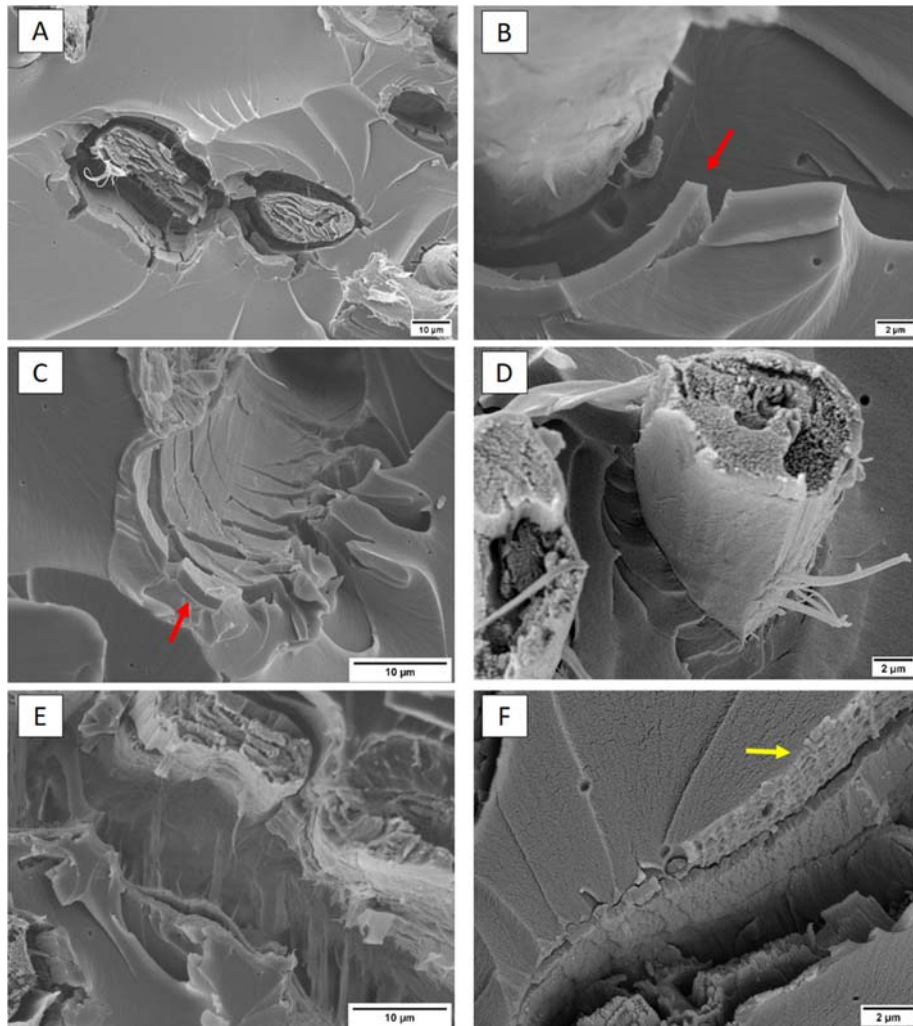


547

548 **Figure 13** FE-SEM-micrographs showing the fracture surface for the different flax/epoxy single
 549 yarn composites: neat flax/epoxy (A), 2W oxygen plasma flax/epoxy (B), and 100W oxygen plasma
 550 flax/epoxy (C-D).

551

552 As discussed previously, oxygen plasma treatment is able to perform a surface ablation of the flax
 553 fibres and to enhance their surface roughness (Figure 1). Different studies in literature have
 554 analysed the influence of frictional forces on the interfacial adhesion between the synthetic fibres
 555 and the polymeric matrices (Beggs et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2015; Thomason, Yang,
 556 and Minty, 2018). These studies showed that the mechanical interlocking action between the fibres
 557 surface and the polymer matrix may lead to an increase in the interfacial strength. The increase in
 558 mechanical interlocking after plasma treatment can have a great effect on the load transfer between
 559 the matrix and the fibres (Bozaci et al., 2013)(De Oliveira et al., 2017)(Kafi, Magniez, and Fox,
 560 2011). For this reason, it is possible to state that the roughness enhancement produced by the
 561 oxygen plasma treatment may increase the surface energy of the fibres, increasing the contact area
 562 with the polymer matrix and creating static frictional stresses able to enhance the adhesion quality
 563 of flax. It is important to highlight also the effect of the oxygen plasma on the chemical
 564 composition of flax fibres. During the chemical and ion etching performed by the oxygen plasma
 565 treatment, hydrophilic species like hemicelluloses may be degraded. Moreover, the FT-IR analysis
 566 has shown that the oxygen plasma treatment performed at 100W may promote the formation of
 567 oxidized species rich in hydroxyl, carbonyl, carboxyl groups and phenoxy radicals. All these
 568 modifications of the surface chemistry of the fibres induced by the oxygen plasma process may
 569 have a positive effect on the flax/epoxy adhesion quality. For example, the presence of little resin
 570 ligaments between the epoxy matrix and the 100W oxygen treated flax fibres can be observed in
 571 Figure 13-D. These little connections may further explain the better adhesion of the 100W oxygen
 572 treated flax fibres than the 2W treated ones. After fragmentation tests, a morphological
 573 investigation of the fracture surface has been performed also for the epoxy and vinylester
 574 composite samples with PECVD treated flax yarns (Figures 14 and 15, respectively). From an in-
 575 depth analysis of the different fracture surfaces, it is possible to confirm the higher adhesion of the
 576 100W oxygen plasma-PECVD treated flax (Figure 14-D) with respect to the 2W oxygen plasma-
 577 PECVD treated one (Figure 14-A) with the epoxy resin. The morphological analysis shows that
 578 the pp-TVS film, deposited on the flax yarn surface after an oxygen pre-treatment at a plasma
 579 power of 2W, has a good adhesion with epoxy matrix but is completely detached from the surface
 580 of the flax fibre (red arrows in Figures 14-B and 14-C). On the opposite, for the 100W oxygen
 581 plasma-PECVD treated flax, not only the pp-TVS film is attached to the surface of the epoxy
 582 matrix but an improvement in adhesion between the polymeric film and the treated flax fibre
 583 surface may be also observed (Figure 14-E).



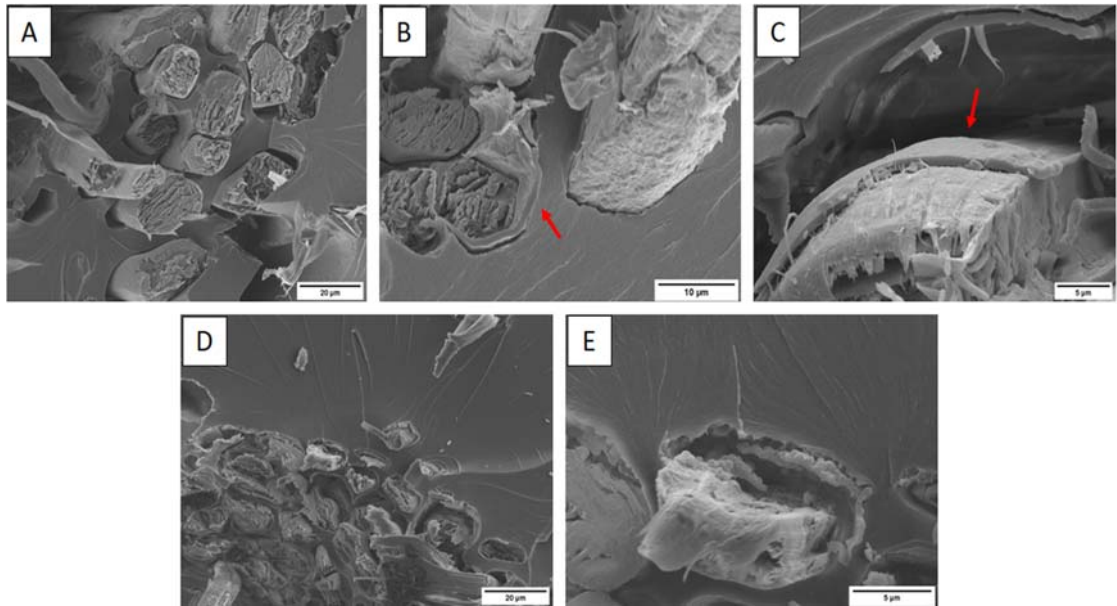
585

586 **Figure 14** FE-SEM-micrographs showing the fracture surface for the different flax/epoxy single
 587 yarn composites: 2W oxygen - PECVD flax/epoxy (A-B-C) and 100W oxygen - PECVD flax/epoxy
 588 (D-E-F).

589

590 From this result, it may be concluded that the oxygen pretreatment plays a fundamental role in the
 591 adhesion between the deposited pp-TVS film and the flax surface. Only the 100W oxygen plasma
 592 treatment is really able to remove contaminants and improve film adhesion. The morphological
 593 analysis allowed to highlight also the effect of the flax yarn roughness on the adhesion with epoxy
 594 resin. The higher the plasma oxygen power used, the greater the roughness of the flax fibres. In
 595 Figure 14-F, it is possible to see that the epoxy surface that has been directly in contact with the
 596 pp-TVS film is highly irregular (yellow arrow) and it may increase the frictional force and the
 597 mechanical interlocking between the fibres surface and the polymer matrix. By comparing the
 598 fracture surfaces found for the neat flax/vinylester (Figure 15-A) and for the 100W oxygen -
 599 PECVD flax/vinylester (Figure 15-D) systems, it is possible to see once again that the plasma
 600 polymer deposition process is able to produce a strong increase in the fibre/matrix adhesion.
 601 Concerning the 2W oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester system, contrary to what has been found for
 602 the epoxy resin, the deposited polymer film shows a good adhesion with the fibre surface but, on
 603 the contrary, a decohesion towards vinylester resin (red arrows in Figures 15 B-C). This behaviour
 604 may explain the lower interfacial adhesion of the 2W oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester composite
 605 compared to the 100W oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester system.

606



607

608 **Figure 15** FE-SEM-micrographs showing the fracture surface for the different flax/vinylester single
 609 yarn composites: neat flax/vinylester (A), 2W oxygen -PECVD flax/vinylester (B-C) and 100W
 610 oxygen - PECVD flax/vinylester (D-E).

611

612 4. Conclusions

613

614 The effect of oxygen and tetravinylsilane plasma treatments on the adhesion of flax yarns with
 615 epoxy and vinylester thermoset matrices was evaluated. These low temperature plasma processes
 616 represent a more environmentally friendly alternatives to traditional chemical treatments to
 617 improve the adhesion of flax yarns with thermoset matrices. The main conclusion of this study is
 618 that the plasma polymer deposition is able to produce a significant improvement of the adhesion
 619 property of flax yarn with both epoxy and vinylester matrices. Despite a reduction in mechanical
 620 properties, a morphological and compositional analysis showed that the oxygen plasma can
 621 increase the surface roughness and introduce functional groups in the surface of flax fibres. These
 622 effects are important for the enhancement of the fibre/matrix wetting properties and play a key role
 623 in promoting the plasma polymer film deposition. In particular, it has been found that the greater
 624 the plasma power used during oxygen treatment, the better the adhesion of the polymeric film to
 625 the surface of flax fibre. The values of debonding, critical fragment length and IFSS found prove
 626 that flax yarns with pp-TVS deposition after the 100W plasma oxygen pretreatment exhibit a
 627 significant enhancement of the yarn/matrix interfacial adhesion especially for the epoxy matrix.
 628 These results open new perspectives of flax treatment by PECVD for better interfacial adhesion in
 629 composite materials.

630

631 **Acknowledgements:**

632 The plasma treatments were supported by the Czech Science Foundation, grant no. 16-09161S.

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640 **References**

- 641 Abidi N. and Manike M. (2017), X-ray diffraction and FTIR investigations of cellulose deposition
642 during cotton fiber development. *Text. Res. J.* 88:719–730.
- 643 Abidi N., Cabrales L., and Haigler C. H. (2014), Changes in the cell wall and cellulose content of
644 developing cotton fibers investigated by FTIR spectroscopy. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 100:9–16.
- 645 Amiandamhen S. O., Meincken M., and Tyhoda L. (2018), The effect of chemical treatments of
646 natural fibres on the properties of phosphate-bonded composite products. *Wood Sci. Technol.*
647 52:653–675.
- 648 Baltazar-y-Jimenez A., Bistriz M., Schulz E., and Bismarck A. (2008), Atmospheric air pressure
649 plasma treatment of lignocellulosic fibres: Impact on mechanical properties and adhesion to
650 cellulose acetate butyrate. *Compos. Sci. Technol.* 68:215–227.
- 651 Beggs K. M., Servinis L., Gengenbach T. R., Huson M. G., Fox B. L., and Henderson L. C. (2015),
652 A systematic study of carbon fibre surface grafting via in situ diazonium generation for
653 improved interfacial shear strength in epoxy matrix composites. *Compos. Sci. Technol.* 118:31–
654 38.
- 655 Bozaci E., Sever K., Sarikanat M., Seki Y., Demir A., and Ozdogan E. (2013), Effects of the
656 atmospheric plasma treatments on surface and mechanical properties of flax fiber and adhesion
657 between fiber – matrix for composite materials. *Compos. Part B* 45:565–572.
658 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesb.2012.09.042>.
- 659 Bulut Y. and Aksit A. (2013), A comparative study on chemical treatment of jute fiber : potassium
660 dichromate, potassium permanganate and sodium perborate trihydrate. *Cellulose* 20:3155–
661 3164.
- 662 Cech V. et al. (2014), Enhanced interfacial adhesion of glass fibers by tetravinylsilane plasma
663 modification. *Compos. Part A* 58:84–89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesa.2013.12.003>.
- 664 Cech V., Marekb A., Knobc A., Valterb J., Branecykya M., Plihalb P., Vyskocil J. (2019),
665 Continuous Surface Modification of Glass Fibers in a Roll-to-Roll Plasma-Enhanced CVD
666 Reactor for Glass Fiber/Polyester Composites, *Compos. Part A: Applied Science and*
667 *Manufacturing* 121: 244–53.
- 668 Cech V., Studynka J., Janos F., and Perina V. (2007), Influence of oxygen on the chemical structure
669 of plasma polymer films deposited from a mixture of tetravinylsilane and oxygen gas. *Plasma*
670 *Process. Polym.* 4:S776–S780.
- 671 Davidson G. (1971), The vibrational spectrum of tetravinylsilane. *Spectrochim. Acta Part A Mol.*
672 *Spectrosc.* 27A:1161–1169.
- 673 De Almeida Mesquita R. G. et al. (2017), Polyester Composites Reinforced with Corona-Treated
674 Fibers from Pine, Eucalyptus and Sugarcane Bagasse. *J. Polym. Environ.* 25:800–811.
- 675 De Farias J., Cavalcante R., Canabarro B., Viana H., Scholz S., and Simao R. (2017), Surface lignin
676 removal on coir fibers by plasma treatment for improved adhesion in thermoplastic starch
677 composites. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 165:429–436.
- 678 De Oliveira D. M., Cioffi M. O. H., De Carvalho Benini K. C. C., and Voorwald H. J. C. (2017),
679 Effects of plasma treatment on the sorption properties of coconut fibers. *Procedia Eng.* 200:357–
680 364.
- 681 De Souza Lima M. M. and Borsali R. (2004), Rodlike Cellulose Microcrystals: Structure,
682 Properties, and Applications. *Macromol. Rapid Commun.* 25:771–787.
- 683 Demirkir C., Colak S., and Ozturk H. (2017), Effects of plasma surface treatment on bending
684 strength and modulus of elasticity of beech and poplar plywood. *Maderas. Cienc. y Tecnol.*
685 19:195–202.

- 686 Donaldson L. and Frankland A. (2004), Ultrastructure of iodine treated wood. *Holzforschung*
687 58:219–225.
- 688 Dong Z., Ding R., Zheng L., Zhang X., and Yu C. (2015), Thermal properties of flax fiber scoured
689 by different methods. *Therm. Science* 19:939–945.
- 690 Fiore V., Scalici T., and Valenza A. (2017), Effect of sodium bicarbonate treatment on mechanical
691 properties of flax-reinforced epoxy composite materials. *J. Compos. Mater.* 52:1061–1072.
- 692 Fu J. et al. (2019), Applied Surface Science Enhancing interfacial properties of carbon fi bers
693 reinforced epoxy composites via Layer-by-Layer self assembly GO / SiO₂ multilayers fi lms
694 on carbon fi bers surface. *Appl. Surf. Sci.* 470:543–554.
- 695 Gao X., Jr J. W. G., Jensen R. E., Li W., Haque B. Z. G., and Mcknight S. H. (2015), Effect of fiber
696 surface texture on the mechanical properties of glass fiber reinforced epoxy composite. *Compos.*
697 Part A 74:10–17.
- 698 George J., Sreekala M. S., Thomas S., George J., Sreekala M. S., and Thomas S. (2001), A Review
699 on interface modification and characterization of natural fiber reinforced plastic composites.
700 *Polym. Eng. Sci.* 41:1471–1485.
- 701 Guillebaud-Bonafous C., Vasconcellos D., Touchard F., and Chocinski-Arnault L. (2012),
702 Experimental and numerical investigation of the interface between epoxy matrix and hemp yarn.
703 *Compos. Part A* 43:2046–2058. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesa.2012.07.015>.
- 704 Jamali A. and Evans P. D. (2011), Etching of wood surfaces by glow discharge plasma. *Wood Sci.*
705 *Technol.* 45:169–182.
- 706 Joffe R., Andersons J. A., and Wallström L. (2003), Strength and adhesion characteristics of
707 elementary flax fibres with different surface treatments. *Compos. Part A Appl. Sci. Manuf.*
708 34:603–612.
- 709 Joffe R., Andersons J., and Wallström L. (2005), Interfacial shear strength of flax fiber/thermoset
710 polymers estimated by fiber fragmentation tests. *J. Mater. Sci.* 40:2721–2722.
- 711 John M. J. and Anandjiwala R. D. (2008), Recent Developments in Chemical Modification and
712 Characterization of Natural Fiber-Reinforced Composites. *Polym. Compos.* 29:187–207.
- 713 Kafi A. A., Magniez K., and Fox B. L. (2011), A surface-property relationship of atmospheric
714 plasma treated jute composites. *Compos. Sci. Technol.* 71:1692–1698.
- 715 Kalia S., Kaith B. S., and Kaur I. (2009), Pretreatments of Natural Fibers and their Application as
716 Reinforcing Material in Polymer Composites — A Review. *Polym. Eng. Sci.* 49:1253–1272.
- 717 Ke G., Yu W., Xu W., Cui W., and Shen X. (2007), Effects of corona discharge treatment on the
718 surface. *J. Mater. Process. Technol.* 7:125–129.
- 719 Kelly A. and Tyson W. R. (1965), Tensile properties of fibre-reinforced metals: Copper/Tungsten
720 and Copper/Molybdenum. *J. Mech. Phys. Solids* 13:329–350.
- 721 Kiruthika A. V (2017), A review on physico-mechanical properties of bast fi bre reinforced polymer
722 composites. *J. Build. Eng.* 9:91–99.
- 723 Koronis G., Silva A., and Fontul M. (2013), Green composites: A review of adequate materials for
724 automotive applications. *Compos. Part B* 44:120–127.
- 725 Li X., Tabil L. G., and Panigrahi S. (2007), Chemical Treatments of Natural Fiber for Use in Natural
726 Fiber-Reinforced Composites: A Review. *J. Polym. Environ.* 15:25–33.
- 727 Liu M. et al. (2016), Effect of pectin and hemicellulose removal from hemp fibres on the mechanical
728 properties of unidirectional hemp / epoxy composites. *Compos. Part A* 90:724–735.
- 729 Liu M. et al. (2017), Oxidation of lignin in hemp fibres by laccase: Effects on mechanical properties
730 of hemp fibres and unidirectional fibre / epoxy composites. *Compos. Part A* 95:377–387.

- 731 Lucintel (2015), Growth Opportunities in the Global Natural Fiber Composites Market, Lucintel
732 Insights that Matter, 1–170.
- 733 Mazian B., Bergeret A., Benezet J., and Malhautier L. (2018), Influence of field retting duration on
734 the biochemical, microstructural, thermal and mechanical properties of hemp fibres harvested
735 at the beginning of flowering. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* 116:170–181.
- 736 Mohanty A. K., Misra M., and Drazal L. T. (2001), Surface modifications of natural fibers and
737 performance of the resulting biocomposites: An overview. *Compos. Interfaces* 8:313–343.
- 738 Molina S. (2016), Modification of Natural Fibers Using Physical Technologies and Their
739 Applications for Composites., in *Lignocellulosic Fibers and Wood Handbook: Renewable*
740 *Materials for Today's Environment*, N. Belgacem and A. Pizzi, Eds. 2016.
- 741 Mukhopadhyay S. and Fanguero R. (2009), Physical Modification of Natural Fibers and
742 Thermoplastic Films for Composites – A Review. *J. Thermoplast. Compos. Mater.* 22:135–162.
- 743 Ng Y. R., Shahid S. N. A. M., and Nordin N. I. A. A. (2018), The effect of alkali treatment on
744 tensile properties of coir/polypropylene biocomposite., in *The Wood and Biofiber International*
745 *Conference (WOBIC 2017)*, 1–7.
- 746 Ohsawa T., Nakayama A., Miwa M., and Hasegawa A. (1978), Temperature dependence of critical
747 fiber length for glass fiber - reinforced thermosetting resins. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* 22:3203–3212.
- 748 Ragoubi M. et al. (2012), Effect of corona discharge treatment on mechanical and thermal
749 properties of composites based on miscanthus fibres and polylactic acid or polypropylene
750 matrix. *Compos. Part A* 43:675–685.
- 751 Reddy K. O., Maheswari C. U., Reddy K. R., Shukla M., Muzenda E., and Rajulu A. V. (2015),
752 Effect of Chemical Treatment and Fiber Loading on Mechanical Properties of Borassus (Toddy
753 Palm) Fiber/Epoxy Composites. *Int. J. Polym. Anal. Charact.* 20:612–626.
- 754 Sarasini F., Tirillò J., and Seghini M. C. (2018), Influence of thermal conditioning on tensile
755 behaviour of single basalt fibres. *Compos. Part B* 132:77–86.
- 756 Scalici T., Fiore V., and Valenza A. (2016), Effect of plasma treatment on the properties of Arundo
757 Donax L. leaf fibres and its bio-based epoxy composites: A preliminary study. *Compos. Part B*
758 94:167–175.
- 759 Seghini M. C., Touchard F., Sarasini F., Chocinski-arnault L., Mellier D., and Tirillò J. (2018),
760 Interfacial adhesion assessment in flax/epoxy and in flax/vinylester composites by single yarn
761 fragmentation test : Correlation with micro-CT analysis. *Compos. Part A* 113:66–75.
- 762 Shanmugasundaram N., Rajendran I., and Ramkumar T. (2018), Characterization of untreated and
763 alkali treated new cellulosic fiber from an Areca palm leaf stalk as potential reinforcement in
764 polymer composites. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 195:566–575.
- 765 Sun D. and Stylios G. K. (2006), Fabric surface properties affected by low temperature plasma
766 treatment. *Mater. Process. Technol.* 173:172–177.
- 767 Thomason J. L., Yang L., and Minty R. F. (2018), Are silanes the primary driver of interface
768 strength in glass fibre composites?: exploring the relationship of the chemical and physical
769 parameters which control composite interfacial strength., in *ECCM18 - 18th European*
770 *Conference on Composite Materials Athens, Greece, 24-28th June 2018*, 1–8.
- 771 Titok V., Leontiev V., Yurenkova S., Nikitinskaya T., Barannikova T., and Khotyleva L. (2010),
772 Infrared Spectroscopy of Fiber Flax. *J. Nat. Fibers* 7:61–69.
- 773 Velde K. Van De and Baetens E. (2001), Thermal and Mechanical Properties of Flax Fibres as
774 Potential Composite Reinforcement. *Macromol. Mater. Eng.* 286:342–349.

- 775 Wang B., Panigrahi S., Tabil L., Crerar W., Sokansanj S., and Braun L. (2003), Modification of
776 flax fibers by chemical treatment., in CSAE/SCGR 2003 Meeting Montréal, Québec July 6 - 9,
777 2003, 1–15.
- 778 Wang X., Zhang B., Du S., Wu Y., and Sun X. (2010), Numerical simulation of the fiber
779 fragmentation process in single-fiber composites. *Mater. Des.* 31:2464–2470.
780 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.matdes.2009.11.050>.
- 781 Warner S.B., Uhlmann D.R., and Peebles Jr L.H. (1975), Ion etching of amorphous and
782 semicrystalline fibres. *J. Mater. Process. Technol.* 10:758–764.
- 783 Yachmenev V. G., Blanchard E. J., and Lambert A. H. (1998), Use of Ultrasonic Energy in the
784 Enzymatic Treatment of Cotton. *Mater. Interfaces* 37:3919–3923.
- 785 Yasuda H., Matsuzawa Y., (2005), Economical Advantages of Low-Pressure Plasma
786 Polymerization Coating. *Plasma Process. Polym.* 2:507–512.
- 787 Zafeiropoulos N. E. (2007), On the use of single fibre composites testing to characterise. *Compos.*
788 *Interfaces* 14:807–820.