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8 Keywords

9 3D printing; Biocomposite; Mechanical properties; Particle-reinforcement

10 Abstract

11 Greener and more mechanically robust 3D-printed structures were obtained by adding 12 tannin to acrylate resin. Mimosa tannin particles (5-25wt.%) were incorporated into an 13 acrylate resin formulated and 3D-printed to fabricate tannin-reinforced composites using 14 stereolithography. FTIR spectroscopy and printing parameters highlighted the photoblocking 15 behavior of the tannin particles by adsorption in the UV range and a reddening phenomenon characteristic of phenolic compounds. Tannin-containing samples showed a low penetration 16 17 depth (from 322 to 127 μ m), thus improving the resolution control in the resin tank. The glass 18 transition temperature decreased with the incorporation of stiff tannin microparticle, 19 evidencing change in relaxation time, while mechanical properties improved with increasing 20 tannin content. For instance, the inclusion of 10 wt.% tannin improved tensile strength, 21 ductility, and Young's modulus by 110, 80, and 32%, respectively. The high resolution and 22 improved mechanical performance demonstrate the promising use of tannin as a bio-based 23 ingredient to produce accurate and reinforced structures.

24

1. Introduction

Additive manufacturing, also known as rapid prototyping or 3D printing, enables on-25 demand production of complex architectures from digital model designs (ISO/ASTM, 2016; 26 27 Thakar et al., 2022). Among the many 3D printing technologies, laser stereolithography (SLA) 28 is a versatile and accurate method for printing complex parts with high resolution (as low as 29 10 µm), fast printing time, and simple post-processing requirements (Cingesar et al., 2022; Oliaei and Behzad, 2019; Pagac et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2020). Evolving rapidly since the 30 31 1980s, stereolithography has become an essential tool for research and industry, be it 32 aerospace, automotive, healthcare or even art (Quan et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 33 2020, p. 3). Consequently, this leads to an increased demand to develop new materials and 34 continuously improve their properties and accuracy to meet the needs of various applications.

Commercial photocurable resins used in SLA are usually based on (meth)acrylate polymer formulations. Nevertheless, these particularly brittle thermosets have sometimes poor mechanical properties (Anastasio et al., 2019; Manapat et al., 2017a). Research has therefore turned to the development of polymer composites in which the incorporation of a rigid filler (carbon fiber, glass fiber, silica, or graphene oxide, to name a few) improves the properties of the matrix (Blyweert et al., 2021; Manapat et al., 2017a; Palaganas et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020).

In the context of climate change and the search for more sustainable approaches, significant efforts have been devoted to the development of 3D printing materials containing abundant renewable resources or agro-residues such as chitin, cellulose, vegetable oils, or lignin (Feng et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2012; Maalihan et al., 2020, 2022; Romero-Ocaña et al., 2022; Sutton et al., 2018; S. Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2022). For example, Maalihan *et al.* (Maalihan et al., 2020) showed that chitin nanowhiskers improved the tensile strength of SLA-printed composites, and that their functionalization could 49 strengthen and toughen the printed items at the same time (Maalihan et al., 2022). Sutton *et al.*50 (Sutton et al., 2018) and Zhang *et al.* (S. Zhang et al., 2019) studied the effectiveness of lignin
51 reinforcement of commercial photoreactive resins and found that the inclusion of a few
52 percent lignin increased tensile and flexural strength while improving printing accuracy.

53 Among the many bio-based fillers available, condensed tannin has received much less 54 attention than its counterparts as a reinforcing filler. Generally used as raw material for the 55 preparation of gels, foams, adhesives, and composite materials (Braghiroli et al., 2019; Celzard and Fierro, 2020; V. Dhawale et al., 2022), Mimosa tannin, a low-cost natural and 56 57 abundant polyphenolic resource, has more recently gained attention as a promising additive 58 for the 3D printing of carbon parts (Blyweert et al., 2023, 2022b, 2022a). However, the 59 literature on the use of condensed tannin as a filler material has mainly been limited to certain thermoplastic composites prepared by extrusion (Ambrogi et al., 2011; Anwer et al., 2015; 60 61 Liao et al., 2020), giving a first glimpse of the fillers' potential for additive manufacturing. 62 Herein, we propose the first study of stereolithographically-printed acrylate-tannin composite 63 parts, ensuring high resolution and improved mechanical properties. Samples printed with 64 blends of tannin and acrylate resin were prepared, and it was determined that even high loading (up to 25 wt.%) of tannin could significantly improve the mechanical performance of 65 66 the fabricated parts. This research not only expands the use of mimosa tannin in the 3D printing field, but also proves that tannin can act as a multitask filler for SLA resins. 67

68

2. Experimental section

69 2.1. Materials

Hexanediol diacrylate (HDDA, SR238), pentaerythritol tetraacrylate (PETA, SR295), and
acrylate oligomer (CN154 CG) were supplied by Sartomer (Arkema Group, France).
Bis(2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl)phenylphosphine oxide (BAPO) was purchased from Lambson

(Arkema Group, England). Mimosa (*Acacia Mearnsii*) tannin extract was kindly provided by
SilvaChimica (St Michele Mondovi, Italy) and used as a bio-based precursor. All products
were used as received.

76 2.2. Preparation and 3D printing of tannin-acrylate composites

Tannin-acrylate composites were prepared by adding varying amounts of tannin to an acrylate-based resin (containing HDDA, PETA, CN154 and BAPO, see Table S1) using a tip sonicator for 10 min to ensure homogeneous dispersion in the resin. The relative proportions between the different acrylate resin ingredients being constant, the samples were therefore named T-x accordingly, where x = 0, 5, 10, 15, 20 or 25 wt.% is the mass fraction of tannin in the final mixture.

The samples were then printed as 30-µm slices using a DWS 28J (DWS, Italy), a highresolution (17 µm horizontally, 10 µm vertically) SLA 3D printer operating with a 405 nm laser. The printed samples were then rinsed in isopropanol and post-cured in a UV oven (same wavelength as the laser of the 3D printer) for 20 min at room temperature.

87

2.3. Characterisation techniques

88 2.3.1. Viscosity, polymerization kinetics and printability

A Brookfield DVII+ PRO viscometer with cone-plate geometry (spindle CPE-51, gap
0.013 mm) was used to measure the viscosity of the resins at room temperature.

91 FTIR spectra were obtained using a Frontier Spotlight 400 spectrometer (Perkin Elmer, 92 UK) in ATR mode in the 4000-600 cm⁻¹ wavenumber range. The photopolymerization 93 reactivities of the tannin-acrylate resins were determined by monitoring of the acrylate 94 characteristics peak (C=C stretching, at 1635 cm⁻¹) after several irradiation times in a UV 95 oven at 405 nm (Lee et al., 2003). Four cumulative scans with a resolution of 1 cm⁻¹ were 96 collected. Equation (1) was used to determine the C=C conversion (α).

$$\alpha (\%) = \frac{A_0 - A_t}{A_0} \times 100 \tag{1}$$

97 where A_0 is the absorbance of the system at the characteristic peak (1635 cm⁻¹) before 98 irradiation and A_t is the corresponding absorbance at a given irradiation time *t*. The derivative 99 of α with respect to time allows the polymerization rate ($d\alpha/dt$) to be obtained.

The working curve model for laser stereolithography (SLA), *i.e.*, the so-called Jacobs model (Jacobs, 1992), which is fundamental for determining the operating parameters, is described by equation (2), derived from the Beer-Lambert law (Lee et al., 2001):

$$C_d = D_p \ln\left(\frac{E_{max}}{E_c}\right) \tag{2}$$

103 where C_d (µm) is the curing depth of a single laser-cured layer, D_p (µm) is the depth of 104 penetration, *i.e.*, the depth at which the irradiance I (W·m⁻²) is about 37% (i.e., 1/e, with ln(e) 105 = 1) of the irradiance I_0 at the resin surface, E_c (mJ·cm⁻²) is the exposure required for the resin 106 to reach its gel point, and E_{max} (mJ·cm⁻²) is the maximum exposure at the resin surface. D_p 107 and E_c are the characteristic parameters for a given resin in a 3D printer and were estimated 108 for the different tannin contents by varying the exposure of the resin and measuring the 109 resulting curing depth.

110 The maximum exposure is determined from equation (3): (Jacobs, 1992)

$$E_{max} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{P_L}{W_0 \cdot V_s} \tag{3}$$

111 where P_L (W) is the laser power, W_0 (m) is the beam width and V_s (m·s⁻¹) is the scan speed. P_L 112 and W_0 for the printer used in this work were 0.032 W and 17 µm, respectively. The different 113 exposures were obtained at varying speeds between 0.25 and 2 m·s⁻¹.

114 2.3.2. Thermal stability and physical properties

115 Thermogravimetric measurements of the photocured resins were carried out under argon 116 atmosphere using a Netzsch STA 449 F3 Jupiter thermobalance with a heating rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ from room temperature to 800 °C. A Netzsch 402 F1 Hyperion® 117 118 thermomechanical analyzer (TMA) was used in dynamic mode (DTMA) to evaluate the 119 viscoelastic properties of the cured resins. A three-point bending geometry with a frequency 120 of 0.1 Hz, an amplitude of 30 mN and a constant offset force of 50 mN were used. Samples 121 were printed with appropriate dimensions (25 mm \times 5 mm \times 1 mm) and were tested following McAninch et al. (McAninch et al., 2015) with a temperature ramp of 10 °C·min⁻¹ from 20 to 122 123 200 °C.

Tensile tests were carried out on printed dogbone specimens (ISO 527-2, 5B sample, 35 mm length and 2 mm thickness) using an Instron universal testing machine with a 2 kN load cell and a tensile speed of 5 mm \cdot min⁻¹ in accordance with ASTM ISO 527. The samples were printed such that the printed layers were parallel to the direction of the tensile stress.

128

3. Results and discussion

129 *3.1. Characterisation of tannin-acrylate resins*

130 Viscosity is a crucial parameter for 3D printing with a stereolithography machine. In 131 general, low viscosities are desired to allow for fast and fluent recoating of the liquid resin 132 between the last printed layer and the surface of the resin tank; thus, the viscosity of 133 photocurable resins is generally preferred below 3 Pa·s (Weng et al., 2016; Zakeri et al., 134 2020). The viscosity of uncured acrylate-tannin resins was determined as a function of shear 135 rate (Figure 1a). Newtonian behavior was observed for the unfilled resin (T-0), while shear-136 thinning behavior at low shear rate was obtained for the resin containing tannin. This behavior, 137 typical of particle-loaded suspension (see Figure 1c), is related to particle-particle and 138 particle-fluid interactions under shear (Lobry et al., 2019; Mangesana et al., 2008; Mewis,

139 1980). The viscosity at low shear increased from 1.9 to 11.9 Pa·s, with tannin content 140 increasing from 0 to 25 wt.%. Nonetheless, at a high shear rate of 100 s⁻¹ (commonly achieved 141 during the recoating step), the viscosity of the different resins tended towards 1.3 Pa·s, thus 142 demonstrating adequate viscosity for stereolithography printing. It is important to note that 143 above a 30 wt.% loading, the viscosity of the formulation increases significantly until it forms 144 a paste, making the resin unprintable.



145

Figure 1. (a) Viscosity versus shear rate of acrylate resin containing different weight fractions of tannin (from 0 wt.% for T-0 to 25wt.% for T-25); (b) FTIR spectra of uncured acrylate resin, acrylate-tannin composite containing 15 wt.% of filler and pure Mimosa tannin powder (c) tannin-based acrylate resin with different tannin contents.

150 FTIR spectroscopy was conducted to investigate the chemical structure of the composites.151 The spectra of tannin powder, neat acrylate resin, and their nanocomposites with 15 wt.%

152 filler are presented in Figure 1b. The spectrum of the acrylate resin reveals the characteristics bands of a typical photocurable (meth)acrylate formulation designed for SLA: 2920 cm⁻¹ (C-153 H asymmetric stretching), 1720 cm⁻¹ (C=O stretching in ester groups), 1635 cm⁻¹ (ethylenic 154 C=C stretching), 1180 cm⁻¹ (C-O-C stretching in ester groups) and 810 cm⁻¹ (ethylenic C=C 155 bending) (Manapat et al., 2017b; X. Zhang et al., 2019). Peaks related to -OH stretching in 156 phenolic moieties (3500 cm⁻¹) can also be noted in the resin spectra and are related to the 157 158 CN154 oligomer. The spectrum of mimosa tannin powder highlights the characteristic bands of condensed tannin with a broad band at 3250 cm⁻¹ assigned to -OH stretching in phenolic 159 160 structures; multiple signals related to aromatic vibrations (mainly C=C stretching at 1605 and 1510 cm⁻¹) and a strong band around 1020 cm⁻¹ attributed to C-O stretching of methoxy 161 162 groups (Tondi and Petutschnigg, 2015). Meanwhile, in the spectrum of the nanocomposite, 163 the characteristics of both acrylate matrix and tannin powder remain discernible and the 164 characteristics bands useful for monitoring the polymerization barely overlap.

165 The photopolymerization reactivities of the resins in ambient air were evaluated by monitoring the C=C band of the acrylate moieties (at 1635 cm^{-1} as seen by FTIR) after 166 167 different irradiation times. The acrylate resin showed a C=C conversion of over 55% after 3s 168 of irradiation (Figure 2a), and the addition of tannin filler in the photoreactive acrylate resin 169 led to the reduction of the polymerization rate (Figure 2b). Acrylate conversion results 170 measured at 1635 cm⁻¹ agree with conversions obtained by monitoring the acrylate C=C band at 810 cm⁻¹. The materials require a longer irradiation time (up to 200 s in the UV oven) to 171 172 reach their critical conversion/gel point, which remained unchanged compared to the unfilled 173 resin (about 57%). The increase in curing time can be attributed not only to the UV-absorbing 174 moieties of the flavonoids (mostly the aromatic rings) but also to the reddening of the mimosa 175 tannin (Roux et al., 1975). This phenomenon results from the absorption of a photon and 176 subsequent quenching of radical species by oxidation of phenols to quinones, thus hindering 177 free radical polymerization. This phenomenon was observed during FTIR monitoring with the attenuation of the -OH deformation at 3250 cm⁻¹ and, at the same time, in the increase of C=O 178 179 vibrations (1720 cm⁻¹ peak) for the resin containing tannin after 300 s of light exposure, while 180 no significative changes were observed for the neat acrylate resin (Figure 2c and d).



181 182

Figure 2. (a) C=C bond conversion, α , and (b) polymerization rate of the tannin-based resins 183 as a function of time with a zoom of the boxed area of the graph; FTIR monitoring of (c) -OH bond stretching (3250 cm⁻¹) and (d) C=O bond stretching (1720 cm⁻¹) of T-0 acrylate resin, 184 185 and T-15 acrylate-tannin nanocomposite.

186 *3.2. Printing performance*

The working curve is a semi-empirical model used to formulate photocurable resins designed for SLA. It provides the threshold energy required to initiate polymerization (E_c , mJ·cm⁻²) and helps to evaluate printing parameters (such as maximum slice thickness at a given laser speed, related to D_p), allowing favorable control of resolution and uniformity of geometry. A resin surface bounded by a 5 mm square was cured in the resin tank using different laser speeds, *i.e.*, different maximum exposures determined from equation (3).

The values of critical energy (E_c) and the depth of penetration (D_p) are presented in Table S2 and were estimated by regression of the curing depth (C_d) against the natural logarithm of E_{max} . The plots of the working curve model and results are shown in Figure 3.



197 **Figure 3.** (a) Working curves showing the curing depth (C_d) as a function of the natural 198 logarithm of the maximal exposure for the different acrylate-tannin resin formulations; (b) 199 Curing depth (D_p) and critical energy (E_c) versus tannin content.

As expected, the curing depth decreased with the addition of mimosa tannin, with values ranging from 339 μ m to 127 μ m. The critical exposure (E_c) determined for the neat acrylate formulation, with a relatively low value of 17 mJ·cm⁻², is comparable to that of previously reported resins (Bassett et al., 2020; Sutton et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2022). E_c increases significantly with tannin content, with values of 67 and 151 mJ·cm⁻² for T-5 and T-25 resins, respectively. These results are in agreement with the kinetic observations. It is important to note that the formulated resin does not contain commercial photoblockers commonly used to control the resolution by reducing D_p . Thus, the working curves measurements confirmed that tannin also limits the penetration of light through the resin, thus preventing any unintentional polymerization of additional surfaces, and that tannin can therefore be considered a photoinhibitor.

211 *3.3. 3D printing of acrylate-tannin composites*

From the working curves, the laser speed and printing slice thickness could be optimized for all formulations. Figure 4 shows a CAD model of a complex cellular structure, which has been printed using the different tannin based resins. The layer thickness was set to 30 μm.



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Figure 4. (a) Digital model of a complex structure (far left of figure), and photographs of the corresponding 3D-printed composites containing 0, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 wt.% tannin; (b) Photographs of various 3D-printed architectures obtained with T-25 resin.

As can be seen in Figure 4a, the addition of tannin filler to the resin led to a more or less intense reddish-brown coloration. Structures printed with resins containing at least 15 wt.% tannin showed remarkable resolution contrasting with structures based on resins containing few tannin particles and in particular the T-0 based structure, displaying larger strands in spite of using the same laser speed. The excellent resolution of the T-25 resin could be illustrated
by several complex structures, such as the Eiffel Tower or Kelvin cells (Figure 4b).

3.4.Thermal behavior

226 Although the SLA technique has the advantage of operating at low temperatures (from 227 room temperature to 35 °C), it is fundamental to study the thermal stability of the composite 228 at high temperature in the context of its possible applications. It is, likewise, necessary to 229 establish the influence of the bio-based filler on this stability. TGA experiments were thus 230 performed to evaluate the influence of mimosa tannin fillers on the thermal properties of the 231 cured acrylate composite. Thermograms of the different 3D-printed specimens, shown in 232 Figure 5a, demonstrated good thermal stability up to 170 °C, a temperature at which the 233 acrylate oligomers start to depolymerize, leading to a loss of the lateral and terminal vinyl 234 chain units. The main degradation step, between 300 °C and 680 °C, accounts for a significant 235 weight loss of about 80% and is associated with the carbonization of the polymeric structures. 236 While the thermal degradation events for both neat and composite resin were nearly similar, the former exhibited more significant weight loss at higher temperatures than the latter; tannin 237 238 is indeed known to have a significant carbon yield close to 45% (Celzard and Fierro, 2020). 239 Although the acrylate-tannin resin displayed slightly lower thermal stability, with a thermal 240 degradation starting a bit earlier than the neat acrylate resin, the addition of the bio-based 241 component led to an increase in carbon yield (Figure 5b). The experimental values obtained 242 by TGA are in agreement with the expected carbon yield, calculated as the weighted average 243 of the pyrolysis yields of the acrylate resin on the one hand and the tannins on the other hand. 244 These results suggest the possibility of printing high-yield carbon structures (an example of 245 which is presented in Figure 5c) in a reduced number of steps with the precision of SLA 246 (Blyweert et al., 2022b, 2022a).



247

Figure 5. (a) Weight loss of cured acrylate and tannin-based materials; (b) Carbon yield versus tannin content; and (c) an example of 3D-printed carbon architecture derived from acrylate-tannin composite.

251 *3.5.Thermomechanical properties*

The viscoelastic behaviors of the printed composites with different tannin content were characterized by DTMA, and the corresponding data are summarized in Table S3.



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Figure 6. (a) Storage modulus, (b) Loss modulus and (c) Loss angle tangent, $\tan \delta$ as a function of temperature; (d) Storage modulus at 25 °C; (e) Loss modulus at 25 °C; and (f) Glass transition temperature as function of tannin content.

258 The plots of storage modulus versus temperature for the nanocomposites and the neat 259 acrylate polymer are shown in Figure 6a and Figure S1a. Between 20 °C and 200 °C, three 260 main zones were revealed: (1) the glassy region, (2) the transition region, and (3) the rubbery 261 plateau. In the glassy region, the bio-based composites exhibit typical highly crosslinked 262 thermoset behavior with relatively high storage modulus (E') values. At 25 °C, E' increased 263 from 211.1 MPa for the pristine resin to 639.9 MPa with the addition of 25 wt.% tannin. The 264 mechanical improvement can be attributed to the stiffness of the tannin particles. In addition, 265 the storage modulus decreased with temperature to reach the rubbery plateau. As the 266 nanocomposites started to degrade around 170 °C, no cold crystallization zone was observed.

The viscous response of the composites described by the loss modulus (E'') is represented in Figure 6b and Figure S1b. As expected, due to a greater free movement of the polymer chains, E'' decreased with temperature. Moreover, with the increase in internal friction between the matrix polymer chains and the tannin particle, a positive shift of the maximum loss modulus peak to higher temperatures for the acrylate-tannin composites was observed.

The glass transition temperature (T_g) values, obtained from the maximum of tan δ (ISO/ASTM, 2012; Maalihan et al., 2022) in Figure 6c and Figure S1c, decreased from 128 °C for the neat acrylate resin to 103 °C for the T-25 composite. These results are consistent with a previous study using the same printed material but with T_g measurements performed by DSC analysis (Blyweert et al., 2022b). The shift in T_g to lower temperatures suggests an increase in interfacial interactions and a change in apparent relaxation time resulting from the addition of stiff microparticles (Bashir, 2021; Wood et al., 2016).

279 *3.6. Mechanical properties at room temperature*

280 Tensile tests at room temperature were performed to determine the effect of tannin on the 281 properties of acrylate and composite resins in their glassy state. Figure 7 shows representative 282 stress-strain curves for the different tannin contents and the evolution of Young's modulus 283 and stress at break with tannin content. The neat acrylate resin has a tensile strength of 6.5 284 MPa, which improves by 110% upon the addition of 10 wt.% tannin powder (13.7 MPa) 285 while decreasing to 9.3, 6.8 and 7.4 MPa with the addition of 15, 20 and 25 wt.% tannin, 286 respectively (see Table S4 and Figure 7b). The Young's modulus of the pristine acrylate resin 287 (1225.3 MPa) was also significantly increased by the addition of 10 wt.% tannin. Unlike the 288 tensile strength, only a slight decrease is observed with the addition of more tannin particles 289 (Figure 7c).



Figure 7. (a) Stress-strain curves; (b) Tensile strength and (c) Young's modulus of cured acrylate and tannin-based materials.

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293 Overall, the tensile strength and Young's modulus of acrylate-tannin composites were 294 improved compared to the neat acrylate polymer, which is important enough to be highlighted. 295 In fact, due to the reduced interaction between the matrix and the filler, limited reinforcement 296 at high loading is commonly observed in biomass-derived resins for SLA (Zhang et al., 2021). 297 It was also observed that the elongation at break (*i.e.*, ductility) increased from 0.8 to 1.4 % 298 with the addition of 10 wt.% tannin particles and decreased slightly to 0.85 % for T-20 and T-299 25 resins. Although the structure remains brittle, the addition of tannin demonstrated the 300 ability to deform plastically with the matrix without debonding, leading to improved ductility 301 compared to that measured on the neat formulated polymer. Therefore, the mechanical 302 properties of 3D acrylate-tannin composites are comparable to those obtained using wood- or lignin-based resins for SLA, as shown in Table 1 (Sutton et al., 2021, 2018; Yao and
Hakkarainen, 2023; Zhang et al., 2021)

Table 1. Mechanical performances of the materials in this study and other bio-based SLA printed composites reported in the literature.

Tensile strength (MPa)	Young's modulus (MPa)	Ref.
13.7	1616	This work – 10 wt.% tannin
		(Yao and Hakkarainen, 2023) –
3.0	71	10 wt.% of microwave-
		methacrylated wood flour
9	100	(Zhang et al., 2021) – 10 wt.% of
		wood flour
18	480	(Sutton et al., 2021) – 10 wt.% of
		acylated lignin

307

4. Conclusion

Greener and more mechanically robust 3D-printed structures are obtained when adding tannin concentrations (5 to 25 wt.%) to an acrylate resin. Acrylate-tannin resins were prepared via a simple mixing technique and printed using a desktop stereolithography 3D printer. The formulated photocurable acrylate resins showed attractive acrylate C=C bond conversion above 55%. Although the addition of tannin reduced the polymerization rate, because tannin also acts as a UV photoblocker in the resin, it did not affect the final conversion.

The acrylate-tannin composites evidenced high storage modulus, from 200 to 690 MPa at 25 °C, and enhanced mechanical properties in their glassy state. Indeed, a maximal increase by 110%, 80%, and 32% was observed for strength, ductility, and modulus, respectively, with the addition of 10 wt.% filler. At higher tannin content, the mechanical properties remained superior to those observed for the pristine resin. Overall, with adequate viscosity at 100 s^{-1} shear, moderate curing energy combined with attractive printing performances and mechanical properties, tannin-based resins have the potential to be used as a component in the development of bio-based materials for laser stereolithography.

323 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Pauline Blyweert: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing –
Review & Editing. Vincent Nicolas: Supervision, Writing- Review & Editing. Vanessa
Fierro: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing. Alain Celzard:
Conceptualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing.

- 328 **Declaration of competing interest**
- 329 The authors declare no conflict of interest for this work.
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