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1 Can we predict the microstructure of a non-woven flax/PLA composite through

2 assessment of anisotropy in tensile properties?

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- 12 Abstract
- 13 Flax/Poly-(lactide) non-woven composites are an alternative to conventional
- 14 glass/poly-(propylene), offering a potentially lower environmental impact solution for
- 15 the automotive industry. To understand this complex material, its detailed architecture
- 16 and void distribution are examined through 3D microtomography. Anisotropy in fibre
- 17 orientation is also observed, further verified through off-axis tensile tests. Then micro-
- 18 mechanics and laminate theory are used, taking into account fibre orientation
- 19 distribution, to predict mechanical properties and compare with experimental
- 20 measurements. Even though some deviation is observed at off-axis angles greater than
- 21 45°, we report that off-axis tensile tests (property) can be used to predict fibre
- 22 orientation (structure) in industrial production facilities as a simple means of quality
- 23 control and tailored design of new non-woven preforms.
- 24 Keywords

A. Natural fibre composites ; B. Mechanical properties ; C. Anisotropy ; D. X-ray
tomography ; B. Porosity/void

27 **1. Introduction**

28 Due to their lower environmental impact [1] and competitive specific mechanical 29 properties [2], flax fibres have replaced glass fibres in some automotive parts, such as 30 interior panels [3]. Manufactured from non-woven preforms, these parts are thermo-31 compressed to a near-net shape. Several processes are available to manufacture non-32 woven preforms, among which spunlacing and needle-punching are common [4]. In 33 addition, thermoplastic polyolefins, such as poly-(propylene) (PP), are currently used 34 as a matrix, leading to the recyclability of any scraps. However, with the emergence of 35 biodegradable thermoplastics, the automotive industry has started to look at 36 alternatives, such as poly-(lactide), which offer industrial composting as an alternative 37 end-of-life scenario [5]. 38 Furthermore, PLA appears to have the advantage to be stiffer than PP with a tangent 39 modulus of 3.8 GPa against 1.4 GPa [6] and to have a quasi-linear tensile behaviour. As 40 matrix properties influence the mechanical properties of the composite, non-woven 41 flax/PLA composites are observed to have higher stiffness at all volume fractions than 42 non-woven flax/PP composites (Figure 1).

While matrix properties are relevant, it is mainly the fibres responsible for composite mechanical behaviour, with their content directly affecting composite stiffness. The non-woven preform manufacturing process will induce fibre orientation anisotropy resulting in different properties in the machine- and cross- directions of a needlepunching line [4]. Neckar and Das [7] studied the orientation of the fibres in non-

48 woven preforms and derived analytical laws related to the manufacturing process 49 used. The fibre orientation in the non-woven preforms could be obtained simply by 50 transparency observation or optical microscopy [8]. Such methods are relevant for 51 mono-constituent non-woven preforms. For composites manufacturing, the non-52 woven preforms may comprise two types of fibres, the reinforcement and the matrix. 53 Other methods have to be used as only the reinforcement fibre orientation needs 54 measurement (as the matrix fibres will melt) to investigate the effect of fibre 55 architecture on composite mechanical properties. Graupner et al. [9] used a synchrotron radiation-based micro-computer tomography approach to obtain cellulose 56 57 fibre orientation in PLA composites. Another non-destructive method is to use 58 ultrasound scanning, leading to the measurement of fibre orientation and ply spacing, 59 fibre volume fraction and porosity distribution [10]. In both cases, computation is 60 required to extract fibre orientation from the raw data, leading orientation 61 information on the composite volume and not only on the surface. 62 The orientation of the flax in the composite (or the non-woven preform) is of great 63 industrial interest. It can be used as a quality controller for industrial production or for 64 pilot tests to validate machinery set-up to obtain specific fibre orientations and tailored architectures. The latter is of interest as highly aligned non-wovens offer a 65 66 viable route, technically and economically speaking, to obtain anisotropic preforms 67 with mechanical properties intermediate to quasi-isotropic non-wovens and 68 unidirectional mats. 69 Once orientation frequency distribution is known, several theories exist to predict non-

70 woven mechanical properties. The first approach is to modify the rule-of-mixtures (1)

by including a corrective factor η_o (2) [11], where *E* and *V* denote stiffness and volume fraction respectively, and subscripts NW, *f* and *m* denote non-woven composite, fibre constituent and matrix constituent, respectively. The parameter p_n is the appearance frequency of the angle represented by θ_n .

$$E_{NW} = \eta_o. E_f. V_f + E_m. V_m \tag{1}$$

$$\eta_o = \sum_n p_n \cos^4(\theta_n) \tag{2}$$

In the above approach, even though the fibre orientation is taken into account, the
shear contribution is not taken into account, nor are the anisotropic properties of the
reinforcement. Halpin and Pagano [12] developed a more precise method by
assimilating randomly oriented fibrous composites to a laminate. By considering
symmetric laminate with a thickness weighted with the fibre orientation frequency,
they showed a good mechanical prediction.

81 A third constituent important to tackle is the porosity value. The compaction of the 82 non-woven could be controlled, leading to low or higher porosity content, to tailor 83 mechanical or acoustic properties [13]. Focussing on fully-compressed composites, 84 porosity is still present due to manufacturing and should not be neglected as it 85 influences mechanical properties. Their distribution and shape are also reported to be 86 important [14]. Looking specifically at natural fibres, Madsen et al. discussed the 87 porosity distribution inside hemp thermoplastic composites [15] and its influence on 88 composite stiffness [16]. Thus, fibre orientation, fibre anisotropy and porosity appear 89 to be key structural parameters required in precisely describing a non-woven 90 composite, all of them impacting non-woven composite mechanical properties.

91 In this paper, the microstructure (porosity/reinforcement content) and the 92 architecture (fibre orientation) of a flax/PLA non-woven are characterised thanks to X-93 ray computed microtomographic (X-ray micro-CT) analysis. Off-axis tensile tests are 94 used to characterise the observed anisotropy. Micro-mechanics and laminate theory 95 are used to approximate experimental data. Matching calculated and measured values 96 allows proposing the off-axis mechanical properties as an efficient and simple 97 validation tool to address the fibre orientation in a non-woven composite. 98 2. Materials and Methods 99 **2.1.** Reinforcements 100 Flax/PLA non-woven preform was provided by Ecotechnilin (Yvetot, France). It was 101 made from 50%/50% weight of scutched flax tows and INGEO[™] PLA fibres. Due to the 102 utilisation of flax tow, shives were still present in the non-woven preform. Our non-103 woven presents a larger proportion of preferential fibres orientations than needle-104 punched non-wovens due to their manufacturing process: carding and calendaring. 105 The preferential fibres direction is observed on the machine direction (direction of the 106 non-woven preform production). Cross direction refers to the direction perpendicular 107 to the machine direction. Non-wovens with 10% and 30% fibre weight content were 108 also manufactured for comparison. Following, if nothing is indicated, non-woven 109 composite refers to the 50%/50% flax/PLA non-woven. 110 Unidirectional (UD) and bi-axial (BX) composites were made of 50 g/m² Flax-tape® 111 (Ecotechnilin) and PLA films. This film was made in our laboratory with a process 112 developed in a previous study [6].

113

6

2.2. Composite manufacturing

114 Non-woven composites were made of several preform plies, UD and BX lay-ups were prepared via the film stacking method. Pure PLA plates of both references were also 115 116 prepared to obtain matrix properties. These lay-ups were dried in an oven at 40°C for 117 24h under vacuum as flax and PLA are moisture-containing. They were then hot 118 compressed at 200°C with a hydraulic press LabTech Scientific 50T (Labtech, 119 Samutprakarn, Thailand), yielding laminate plates of 20 cm x 20 cm x 2mm. The 120 optimised pressure cycle used is presented in a previous study [6]. A milling machine 121 was used to cut samples for tensile property characterisation. 122 2.3. Tensile tests 123 An Instron universal testing machine was used to achieve static tensile tests based on 124 ISO 527-4. A displacement rate of 1mm/min was applied, and the elongation was 125 recorded with a unidirectional extensometer, gauge length taken equal to 25mm. For 126 the pure PLA samples as well as for the UD, a bi-axial extensometer was preferred. For each formulation, at least five samples were tested to obtain mean values and 127 128 standard deviation. The ultimate strength and strain are recorded as well as tangent 129 modulus. The latter was calculated over a strain of 0.02% to 0.1% as recommended for 130 flax composites [17]. The Poisson's ratio is obtained using the NF EN 2561 standard 131 when the bi-axial extensometer is used. 132 The same set-up is used, using a bi-axial extensometer and speed of 2mm/min, to do 133 some in-plane shear testing on BX according to ISO 14129. As reported previously [18],

the shear modulus is measured between a shear strain of 0.1% and 0.5%.

Pure PLA, UD and BX characterisation is only performed for back-calculation to obtainflax fibres properties.

137 **2.4. Density**

138 The density of our non-woven composite was obtained through a hydrostatic scale 139 using ethanol as the immersion liquid. This method was chosen as suggested by 140 Kergariou et al. [19] for flax/PLA composite. It was used to obtain the density of the 141 composites. Knowing the apparent density of the composite (ρ_c), the volume fraction 142 of porosity (V_p) of each formulation is obtained using equation (3), where W_f is the 143 weight fraction of fibres and ρ_{PLA} , ρ_{flax} , are the density of PLA and flax taken 144 respectively as 1.24 [6] and 1.5 [20]. Porosity results are given as mean values of five 145 samples.

$$V_p = 1 - \left(\frac{1 - W_f}{\rho_{PLA}} + \frac{W_f}{\rho_{flax}}\right) \cdot \rho_c \tag{3}$$

146 **2.1. X-ray microtomography (X-ray micro-CT)**

147 The microstructure of the non-woven composites was investigated with a Brucker[©] 148 SkyScan 1272 high-resolution scanner. The samples were scanned at a nominal 149 resolution of 4,5 μ m. The current (50 eV), the intensity (200 μ A) of the X-ray beam, and 150 the nature and thickness of filters were selected to obtain a constant signal 151 transmission of 30%. The X-Ray power source (P=U.I) is kept constant at 10W. A 152 camera pixel binning of 4032×2688 was applied. The scanned orbit was 180 degrees 153 with a rotation step of 0.2° adapted to the magnification. Bruker's NRecon® software 154 was used to reconstruct the scan projections into 2D images using the Feldkamp 155 algorithm. Gaussian smoothing, ring artefact reduction and beam hardening correction 156 were applied. Volume rendered 3D images were generated using an RGBA transfer 157 function in SkyScan CTVox[®] software. Image analysis was performed using SkyScan 158 CTAn[®] software. A specific task list analysis was developed to characterise the porosity 159 and the pore size distribution within composites. In that way, two image 160 segmentations were successively carried out on the original image: the first one to 161 define the sample volume of interest (VOI) and the second one, using an automated 162 Otsu algorithm, to define the object volume within this VOI. After image binarisation, 163 structure separation (=pore size) is preceded by skeletonisation in which the two 164 medial pore axes are identified. Then the "sphere-fitting" local thickness measurement 165 is made for all the voxels lying along this axis. In order to determine fibre orientation, a 166 sequence of 12 in-plane cuts on face direction on the 3D render is used to generate 2D 167 images. This method is based on granulometry analysis and was the subject of a 168 previous study [21]. Due to the low contrast – a result of the comparable material 169 densities– between flax and PLA, the 2D images had to be pre-treated with Fiji to 170 obtain binary images before orientation analysis. The pre-treatment process is 171 illustrated in S.I. Figure 1 and validated by comparing the analysis of the orientation of 172 the fibre, with and without pre-treatment, of an optical micrograph, S.I Figure 2. 173 2.2. SEM 174 Complementary microstructure observations were performed using a JEOL SEM (JSM-

175 IT500HRSEM) at an acceleration voltage of 3 kV. Before the observation step, gold

176 sputter coating was applied to the samples using an Edward sputter coater

177 (Scancoat6).

178 **3. Results and discussion**

179

9

3.1. Fine-scale composite volumetric analysis

180 The behaviour of a composite is predominantly influenced by the matrix, the 181 reinforcement properties and their content. In the case of flax reinforcements, things 182 are more complex as the matrix is not reinforced by one single type of constituent but 183 by at least two: elementary fibres and fibre bundles. Figure 2 presents SEM 184 observations of our non-woven composite. The presence of elementary flax fibres and 185 bundles is confirmed, as well as any preferential orientation. Indeed, non-woven 186 composites are anisotropic as they present higher properties in one direction than 187 another, depending on the preferential orientation of the fibres [4]. However, the 188 microstructure of this non-woven composite is more complex as it also includes 189 porosity and shives. In addition, quantification of fibre orientation is required to 190 describe the non-woven composite architecture, the aim being to understand better 191 and estimate the composite properties. 192 3.1.1. Porosity analysis 193 Porosity content of 5.6 ± 3.2 % was measured for the non-woven composite thanks to 194 a hydrostatic balance using ethanol as the immersion liquid. To investigate pore 195 localisation and size, a fine-scale analysis was done by micro-CT. A porosity of 4.5 % 196 was obtained, which is comparable to the immersion method value. It could be 197 observed in Figure 3.c) thanks to the microtomographic 3D view of porosity. Via a 198 quantitative analysis presented in Figure 3.b) a few meso-porosity are highlighted 199 inside the matrix. 200 On the other hand, there is an important amount of micro-porosity. The latter appears

201 to be mainly located inside bundles and/or in shives. Indeed, shives come mainly from

the xylem tissue, where its main function is to conduct sap [22]. Thus, inside the stem,
these cells exhibit a large lumen of several micrometres, potentially visible through
micro-CT investigations.

205 3.1

3.1.2. Shives quantification

206 Regarding the porosity analysis, it appears that shives are a predominant host of 207 micro-porosity. It is observed in Figure 2 and confirmed in Figure 4 that shives inside 208 the non-woven composite had collapsed cells, probably due to the compaction 209 pressure applied during the manufacturing process. Indeed, shives contain less 210 cellulose than elementary flax fibres, 45% of dry matter against 80% respectively [23]. 211 As cellulose is responsible for plant fibres' mechanical properties, it is necessary to 212 quantify this third reinforcement type as it should have mechanical behaviour lower 213 than that of the bundles and elementary fibres. Following manual extraction, 5wt% of 214 shives were extracted for the total non-woven reinforcement weight. Considering a 215 density of 1,430 kg.m⁻³ [24], the volume fraction of shives inside the composite is 216 assessed to be 2.2%, against 43.1% for flax fibres (elementary fibres and fibre bundles). 217 In the following analysis, shives are taken into account by assimilating them into the 218 total flax fibre content at 45.3% by volume.

219

3.1.3. In-plane orientation of fibres

220 Finally, a fine-scale description of the non-woven composite architecture should

include fibre orientation. Thanks to micro-CT, the orientation was obtained from 12

images, and the mean orientation was calculated. The analysis methods for one image

is detailed in Figure 5 b), c), and d). All results are summarised in Figure 5 e). A

224 preferential orientation appears with a maximum relative frequency (calculated

degree by degree) of 0.82% and a minimum of 0.38%. It illustrates the expected
anisotropy of non-woven materials at the composite scale. This orientation anisotropy
appears to be lower than the pure flax fibres non-woven preform analysed with the
same technique by Gager et al. [21]. This can be explained by the presence of fine PLA
fibres in our non-woven preform, modifying the flax fibre alignment during the
calendaring process. The mean experimental curve, equation (4) developed by Neckar
and Das [7], is used to fit experimental data (fig. 5.e).

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{C}{C^2 - (C^2 - 1)\cos^2(\theta)} + q$$
(4)

where $f(\theta)$ is the fibre frequency at an angle θ taken between -90° and +90°, *C* is the fitting parameter corresponding to the anisotropy of the non-woven, and the offset is corrected via the parameter *q*. The fit was done by lowering the sum of the difference between experimental and model at each orientation, leading to *C* = 1.84 and *q* = 0.235%. As the trend curve is symmetric, it is preferred over the experimental curve for the micro-mechanical development in section 3.2.3.

3.2. Mechanical characterisation and prediction of non-woven composite

239 Fibre orientation is a key parameter affecting mechanical properties; its direct analysis

is possible through expensive and time-consuming 3D investigations such as micro-CT.

241 In contrast, using mechanical property measurements as an indirect method to

- ascertain fibre orientation may be faster, easier, and lower-cost. To check the
- 243 relevancy of this alternative method, off-axis tensile experiments are compared to a
- theoretical prediction using laminate theory as described by Halpin and Pagano [12].
- 245 The orientation data for the non-woven composites analysed in the preceding sections

246 are matched with a theoretical model, which is used to implement a laminate with 181 247 distinct laminas (from -90 to +90) with a thickness weighted by the relative orientation 248 frequency. As symmetric lay-up is required, each ply is made of an angle and its 249 symmetric counterpart. The laminate creation is summarised in S.I. Figure 3. 250 *3.2.1.* Angle influence on the tensile response of non-woven composite 251 To study anisotropy in tensile properties arising from fibre orientation, experimental 252 measurements are presented in Table I and Figure 6. As expected, the loading angle 253 influences the material's response. A decrease in stiffness and strength of 40.5% and 254 47.3%, respectively, are observed between the orientations 0° and 90°, see Figure 7 255 and Table I. This confirms the anisotropy of this material. Furthermore, the mechanical 256 properties of the non-woven composite stay unchanged after a critical angle of 67.5°, 257 being equal to the transverse properties.

258 *3.2.2.* Flax fibres properties for laminate theory

259 Input values greatly impact micro-mechanical models, especially for plant fibre whose

values have a larger scatter. Indeed, regarding the longitudinal Young's modulus of

261 elementary flax fibres, it is possible to find literature values ranging from 36 GPa to 75

262 GPa [25,26]. Noting this scatter in data, two sets of values are considered here. The

263 first one is directly extracted from literature, presented in

Table II. The second one is obtained experimentally through back-calculation of UDflax/PLA composite.

266 Table II presents the mechanical properties of these UD composites and the back-

267 calculated flax fibre properties for each UD composite. Comparing this data with the

268 literature, flax fibres longitudinal modulus is similar, whereas its transverse and shear

269 modulus obtained are lower. Thus, the thermal history of the fibres and the 270 compaction during the process may have impacted the structure of the flax fibres as 271 well as their mechanical properties. 272 Furthermore, both bundles and shives have been considered as 'fibres' during the 273 back-calculation. They generally have lower transverse and shear properties than 274 elementary flax fibres. 275 The reinforcement distribution inside the composite is also irregular, leading to some 276 regions of higher stress distribution than the theoretical approach. Additionally, as a 277 high volume fraction is achieved, some contact between fibres are present. These 278 contact points will be damaged during processing, damaging the fibres. 279 *3.2.3. Influence of non-woven structure on its mechanical properties* 280 Comparing the laminate theory models with the experimental data will inform us 281 whether off-axis tensile tests can be used to predict the fibre orientation of non-woven 282 flax composite. For each set of values, the mechanical properties of a ply are obtained 283 using the rule of mixture for the longitudinal direction and the Poisson's ratio and 284 using Halpin-Tsaï [27] for the transverse and shear moduli. Furthermore, as discussed 285 in section 3.1.1, porosity is present and has to be taken into account. We use the 286 hydrostatic balance-obtained single porosity value and assume that it is concentrated 287 in the matrix. This induces that the porosity inside shives is assimilated to be matrix 288 porosity. Equation (5), developed by Madsen et al. [16], is used to account for the 289 effect of matrix porosity on mechanical properties,

$$P_{m,real} = P_{m,bulk} \cdot \left(1 - V_p\right)^2 \tag{5}$$

290 with P representing any mechanical property, V_p the volume fraction of porosity and 291 subscripts m, bulk and m, real denoting the bulk matrix and the matrix with porosity. Once 292 the ply properties are obtained, the laminate is built as explained previously, and the 293 mechanical properties of the equivalent composite are found. For each set of values, 294 the model generated a non-woven composite's tangent modulus versus orientation 295 curve. The range between both is represented in Figure 7 (grey area). The modulus in 296 the machine direction (0°) is well-predicted, falling between both models. A small 297 deviation appears for 22.5° and 45°, but the models stay close to the experimental 298 value. 299 However, increasing the orientation further to 45° leads to an overestimation. This 300 deviation at high orientations is principally due to the assumptions and simplifications 301 used for the model compared to reality. First of all, the model considers an in-plane 302 orientation. It is relevant for machine direction due to a stretching induced by the 303 manufacturing process. However, this stretching is less or not present in other 304 directions. That is why a slight out-of-plane orientation exists, needed for handling the 305 non-woven preform. 306 Additionally, the model does not consider the reinforcement effect of bundles. A 307 bundle present a higher diameter than elementary flax fibres and an irregular

308 geometry (fluctuating circularity, section and length), increasing the heterogeneity of

309 the composite structure. Bundles behaviour depends on its cohesion, meaning the

310 middle lamella properties. The latter impacts predominantly the composite properties

311 reliant on matrix and interface (such as transverse tensile properties). Furthermore, a

312 small number of shives were detected, adding heterogeneity in the structure too.

313	What is more, the manufacturing process smashes the shives. This transversal
314	smashing creates damages in this porous structure, decreasing the transverse
315	properties of shives. Furthermore, the model used here is based on an assumption of
316	linear behaviour. However, it is known that elementary flax fibres do not have a linear
317	longitudinal behaviour [28]. The transverse tensile behaviour of elementary flax fibres
318	is still obscure as it is harsh to make some relevant tests at this micro-scale. In the non-
319	woven composite, fibres are oriented but are also curved. This curvature is not
320	considered in our orientation analysis, but it is known to have a non-negligible impact
321	on the composite behaviour.
322	Finally, it appears that the anisotropy increases with fibre volume fraction, as observed
323	in Figure 8. This new manufacturing process of non-woven preform allows overtaking
324	in machine direction literature value without decreasing the stiffness significantly in
325	cross-direction.
326	4. Conclusion
327	The complex microarchitecture of a non-woven flax/PLA composite with 50%wt of flax
328	fibres was described thanks to micro-CT analysis. The microstructural observations
329	show porosity and reveal the preferential orientation of the fibres inside the
330	composite in the machine direction. This anisotropy was also measured through off-
331	axis tensile tests. The mechanical properties highlight a clear anisotropy where
331 332	axis tensile tests. The mechanical properties highlight a clear anisotropy where transversal properties are 60% of the longitudinal properties. Both anisotropy
331 332 333	axis tensile tests. The mechanical properties highlight a clear anisotropy where transversal properties are 60% of the longitudinal properties. Both anisotropy characterisations are compared using micro-mechanics and laminate theory to predict

335 It is found that off-axis tensile tests could be used to predict the fibre orientation

distribution in a non-woven composite indirectly. This is interesting as tensile tests are

337 much cheaper, faster and convenient to perform than micro-CT analysis. Industrially, it

338 could be used for quality control of a production line or as a tool to develop new non-

339 woven preforms with specific flax fibres orientation. The comparison of several set-up

340 machinery or even manufacturing processes could also be handled.

341 However, some deviation is apparent between experimental data and micro-

342 mechanical prediction because of the complexity of describing a flax composite due to

- 343 the presence of flax bundles, shives, curved fibres, potential out-of-plane orientation
- of fibres, and also compounding effects from processing/thermal history. It may be of

345 interest to further develop the models and ascertain their consistency with

346 experimental data by examining the specific influence of shives and degree of flax fibre

347 individualisation on the mechanical properties of non-woven flax composites.

348 However, this may be experimentally challenging as flax preform and fibre quality,

349 degree of fibre individualisation and quantity of shives are inherently interlinked.

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488

489 Figure 1: Graphical presentation of literature review of the mechanical properties of

490 non-woven flax composites reinforcing PLA [29-33]; PP [13,16,34-36]; MAPP [4,29]



491

492 Figure 2: SEM observation of the flax/PLA non-woven investigated, a) a schematic

493 representation of the analysed sample, b) upper observation, showing preferential

- 494 fibre orientation (red arrows), c) transverse observation, cracks might be due to water
- 495 polishing, d) zoom on elementary flax fibres, e) zoom on flax bundles.





497 Figure 3: Porosity analysis by micro-CT a) schema of the analysed sample, b) analysis of

498 porosity size, c) the micro-CT 3D view of porosity.





500 Figure 4: SEM observation of a shive a) before the composite manufacturing step with

501 open cells, b) after composite manufacturing, showing collapsed cells.



Figure 5: Orientation analysis. a) sample schema with slices (marked by dotted line)
investigated, b) micro-CT image analysed for local fibre orientation, c) orientation
analysis representation of micro-CT image (each colour represents an orientation), d)
Orientation frequency histogram of one micro-CT slice, e) global orientation analysis of
the composite, based on the mean orientation (black) of twelve micro-CT slices (dotted
coloured lines). An interpolation [7], based on the mean value, is shown in red dotted
lines.



511 Figure 6: Tensile behaviour of non-woven flax/PLA with 50 wt% of fibres at several





514 Figure 7: Evolution of the tangent modulus with loading orientation for non-woven





516

517 Figure 8: Evolution of tangent modulus with fibre volume fraction, with measurements

518 in the orthogonal machine and cross directions presenting anisotropy. A comparison

519 with literature data is also presented.

520 **<u>Tables:</u>**

521 Table I: Experimental values of longitudinal, transversal and off-axis tensile tests on

Angle [°]	Tangent modulus [GPa]	Strength [MPa]	Strain at rupture [%]	
0	12.95 ± 2.09	90.0 ± 6.1	1.44 ± 0.27	
22.5	11.21 ± 0.87	84.9 ± 4.3	1.48 ± 0.27	
45	9.64 ± 0.67	69.6 ± 6.5	1.30 ± 0.31	
67.5	7.82 ± 0.44	53.2 ± 4.1	1.38 ± 0.25	
90	7.70 ± 0.85	47.4 ± 4.4	1.25 ± 0.26	

522 non-woven flax/PLA with 50 wt% of fibres.

523

524 Table II: Flax/PLA UD composite mechanical properties used to obtain mechanical

525 properties of flax via a back-calculation method : rule of mixture for longitudinal

526 modulus (E_l) and Poisson's ratio (v_{lt}), Halpin Tsaï for shear modulus (G_{lt}) and transverse

527 modulus (*E*_{*t*}).

	V _f [%]	E _l [GPa]	E _t [GPa]	<i>G_{lt}</i> [GPa]	V _{lt} [-]
Eve evine entel	0	3.73	3.73	1.31	0.41
values for	30	20.09	4.17	1.76	-
Unidirectional	40	25.98	4.29	1.88	0.39
composites	50	27.47	4.13	2.04	0.37
Flax fibres	30	58.26	5.35	3.76	-
properties by back-	40	59.34	5.24	3.42	0.35
calculation	50	51.21	4.56	3.33	0.33
Mean back calculated flax fibres value		56.2 ± 3.6	5.05 ± 0.35	3.50 ± 0.18	0.34 ± 0.01
Literature value for flax fibres		52.5 ± 8.6 [26]	8 ± 3 [37]	2.5 ± 0.2 [38]	0.48 [39]

