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Additional Information

1 STUDY OF THE MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF POLYLACTIDE COMPOSITES WITH JUTE

2 **REINFORCEMENTS**

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- 11

12 Abstract

13 The concern that has arisen in recent years over the excessive use of oil-based materials 14 has made the development of new materials with low environmental impact imminent, in this 15 context. In this study, environmentally friendly composites were obtained with a thermoplastic 16 polylactide matrix (PLA), and jute fibers (fabrics and non-woven mats) as reinforcement. PLA/jute 17 bio-composites were manufactured by thermocompression. The effect of the amount of jute fibers 18 reinforcement (in the 30-50 wt.% range) on the tensile and flexural properties of these composites 19 was analyzed, and the fiber-matrix interaction was assessed by scanning electron microscopy 20 (SEM). The results show that thermocompression moulding is a simple technique to obtain high 21 environmental efficiency bio-composites with high reinforcement loading (up to 50 wt.%). As 22 expected, the tensile properties are directly related to the amount of fiber loading, as well as the 23 directionality these fibers have in the composite. Mechanical performance is also highly 24 dependent on fiber-matrix interactions. These bio-composites could be attractive as lightweight 25 interior panels in automotive industry, case/covers in electric-electronics applications, shovels' 26 components in the wind energy industry, among others, due to their balanced mechanical 27 properties, and the rather complex shapes that could be obtained by thermocompression.

28 Keywords

- Biopolymers; mechanical properties; biofibers
- 30

31 1 INTRODUCTION

32 New high mechanical performance materials to replace metallic materials and their alloys 33 have emerged in the recent years. In this sense, composite materials have been extensively 34 studied due to the wide range of final properties that can be obtained, making them invaluable in 35 industrial applications such as the automotive industry or the transport industry [1, 2]. Fiber-36 reinforced polymeric materials are among the most common, as materials with unique properties 37 can be tailored by correctly defining the type of matrix and reinforcing fibers. These materials 38 generally provide high strength, good stiffness, and low weight [3]. Thermoset matrices such as 39 epoxy resins, polyurethanes, unsaturated polyesters, among others [4-7], and thermoplastic 40 matrices such as polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), and polyvinylchloride (PVC), among 41 others [8-10], have been some of the most widely used materials in composites. This has resulted 42 in a huge production of polymers reaching 368 million tonnes worldwide by 2019 [11] leading to 43 an increase in the CO₂ emissions to the environment during their production. This phenomenon, 44 together with the extremely low biodegradation (actually, disintegration in controlled compost soil) 45 rate petroleum-derived polymers show, has promoted the accumulation of these materials over 46 long periods, thus leading to a growing environmental impact [12].

47 Polymer composites combine the excellent reinforcing properties of fibers, with the 48 exceptional processability of polymers, thus leading to materials with unique properties. The use 49 of thermosetting matrices such as epoxies (EP), and unsaturated polyester (UP) has been 50 generalized sue to the exceptional properties with glass fibers (GF) and carbon fiber (CF) [13-51 15]. Those fibers offer an unique mechanical properties (strength and stiffness) that, together with 52 a remarkably low density, allow their use in high-performance applications such as aerospace, 53 aeronautics, automotive parts, and so on [16-19]. Nevertheless, manufacturing of CF requires 54 complex processes at high temperatures which contribute to increase the overall carbon footprint. 55 This has led to an increased in the environment awareness due to the negative effects associated 56 with the indiscriminate consumption of petroleum-derived materials, and high energy 57 consumption of many manufacturing processes. For this reason, the research and development 58 of new materials with a lower environmental impact has emerged in the last decade [20].

59 The choice of natural plant fibers is a solution to conventional fibers. The most used natural fibers 60 are flax, sisal, hemp, jute, and many others, which have different physical, chemical, and

61 mechanical properties depending on their composition [21-24]. Jute fiber offers interesting 62 balanced properties in terms of insulating capacity, hygroscopicity, biodegradability, and rather 63 good mechanical properties. Nevertheless, as with other natural fibers, the final properties are 64 influenced by various parameters such as the fiber length, composition, manufacturing process, 65 crop conditions, plant part, and so on. Biswas, Ahsan [25], reported and in-depth study of the 66 properties of jute, bamboo and coir natural fibers. They reported tensile strength values between 67 200 and 600 MPa with an elongation at break from 1.25% up to 1.9% for a fiber span length of 68 25 mm. With regard to the Young's modulus, values ranging from 10 to 27 GPa, depending on 69 the fiber span length, were reported. In addition natural fibers are cost-effective (\$0.5 per kilo) 70 compared to synthetic fibers such as glass fiber (GF) [26].

71 Environmentally friendly materials can be related to two stages in their life-cycle. The first 72 concern is directly related to the origin, which can be petroleum or a renewable resource. The 73 second topic considers the end life, thus sorting materials in two main groups, namely 74 biodegradable (actually, disintegrable or compostable under certain conditions), or non-75 biodegradable [27, 28]. Despite some remarkable advances have been done in the field of bio-76 based thermosetting materials such as epoxies (EP) from epoxidized vegetable oils [7, 29-31], 77 unsaturated polyesters (UP) with fully or partial bio-based content [32, 33], phenolics (PF) [34, 78 35], and so on, the most important advances in the field of biopolymers has been observed in the 79 thermoplastic industry. Additionally the use of thermoplastic materials allows recycling the 80 composite by the remelting of the polymer matrix [36].

81 Thermoplastic biopolymers include both bio-based and biodegradable polymers. Some 82 aliphatic/aromatic petroleum-derived polyesters such as $poly(\epsilon$ -caprolactone) (PCL) have gained 83 interest as can disintegrate under controlled composting conditions. Despite these polymers are 84 interesting, biobased and biodegradable polymers offer the best environmental efficiency. Among 85 these, polylactide PLA and polyhydroxyalkanoates and PHAs are being intensively studied [37-86 40]. Polylactide (PLA) is, with difference, one of the most widely used biobased and biodegradable 87 thermoplastic polymer. PLA is an aliphatic polyester obtained by the fermentation of natural 88 resources such as starch-rich materials [41]. Outstanding properties such as rapid degradability 89 under composting conditions, biocompatibility with the human body, high tensile strength, 90 transparency, have positioned PLA as a suitable material for sectors as biomedicine or food packaging [42-44]. In addition, PLA has driven the development of new composite materials using
renewable raw materials in the form of reinforcing fibers or fillers [27, 45, 46]. The final properties
of these new materials will depend on both the nature of the reinforcement and the amount of
filler [47-49].

95 The use of thermoplastic matrix allows to manufacture composites in a different way than 96 with thermosetting matrices. In particular, composites with interesting technical properties can be 97 manufactured by conventional thermoplastic processing techniques such as injection moulding, 98 extrusion, roto-moulding and thermocompression. It is worthy to note the interesting 99 characteristics of thermocompression moulding since it offers several advances due to a lower 100 cost, minimal waste, simplicity and better mechanical properties [50].

101 This has led several authors to focus their efforts on the study of PLA/natural fiber 102 composite materials. An important parameter to consider during the manufacture is the 103 processing temperature since most lignocellulosic fibers (including flax, hemp, jute and so on) 104 can undergo degradation above 195 °C and as a result the composite performance could be 105 reduced [51]. Du, Peng [52] manufactured bio-composites based on jute fabrics pre-treated with 106 an alkaline solution in a PLA matrix by hot compression molding. The pretreatment resulted in 107 better bonding between the fibers and the matrix, as well as improved thermal stability. 108 Silanization and alkali treatments have also been successfully used to improve fiber-polymer 109 interactions in PLA-flax fiber composites [53]. Khan, Terano [54] investigated the influence of fiber 110 orientation on the mechanical properties of bio-composites made from non-woven jute fabrics and 111 woven jute fabrics in PLA matrices. Woven materials offer superior mechanical properties 112 compared to non-woven materials, giving better warp than weft directions. Jute has been proposed as reinforcement in environmentally friendly composite laminates with different 113 114 thermosetting matrices such as unsaturated polyester (UP) and epoxy (EP) resins, with balanced 115 mechanical properties and a clear advantage from an environmental standpoint, compared with 116 their counterparts with conventional glass fibers [55-57]. Despite jute fiber has been widely used 117 as reinforcement into thermosetting resins, an interesting challenge is manufacturing of jute-118 based composites with thermoplastic polymers matrices by using conventional manufacturing 119 techniques of polymers.

120 The main objective of this study is the development and characterization of high 121 environmentally friendly green composites based on polylactide (PLA) matrix and different jute 122 reinforcement contents in both woven and nonwoven structures. The novelty of this work relies 123 on the use of a cost-effective thermocompression moulding process to obtain high jute loading 124 PLA composites up to 50 wt.%. The influence of the weight content of the jute fiber on the 125 mechanical properties of the biocomposites in terms of flexural and tensile properties is shown. 126 Furthermore, the quality of the interface between the jute fiber and the PLA matrix is assessed by 127 scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

128

129 2 EXPERIMENTAL

130 2.1 Materials

PLA grade IngeoTM 6201D supplied by NatureWorks LLC (Minnetonka, MN, USA) was used as the thermoplastic matrix. It has a glass transition temperature (T_g), around 60 °C and a melting peak temperature close to 170 °C; this grade possesses a melt flow index (MFI) between 15-30 g/10 min measured at 210 °C. It also has a relative density of 1.24 g/cm³. Two types of jute textiles were used as reinforcement fibers. The first one was a biaxial plain wave fabric with a surface density of 380 g/cm². The second one, consisted of a non-woven fabric with a surface density of 270 g/cm², both of them were kindly supplied by Hilaturas Ferre S.A. (Alicante, Spain).

138

139 2.2 MANUFACTURING OF THE PLA/JUTE BIOCOMPOSITES.

140 Manufacturing of PLA/jute biocomposites was carried out by thermocompression 141 moulding in a Hoytom M.N 1417 hot-press from Robima S.A. (Bilbao, Spain) equipped with a 142 temperature control from Dupra S.A. (Castalla, Spain). Prior to the processing of the 143 biocomposites, PLA pellets were dried at 60 °C for 24 hours to remove moisture and prevent PLA 144 from degradation by hydrolysis [58]. A schematic plot of the thermocompression process can be 145 seen in Figure 1. Despite there have been developed many processes which combine different 146 stacking sequences of polymer film/sheet and fabrics, this work focuses on the potential of a still 147 more easy processing technology. This consists of depositing interleaved layers of PLA pellets 148 and jute fiber in an aluminum mold (Figure 1a & Figure 1b) designed to produce squared plates

- 149 of 200x200 mm and different thickness. Different weight proportions of jute fibers/PLA were
- selected for this work, ranging from 30 to 50 wt.% as proposed in **Table 1**.
- 151

Jute Fiber (wt%)	Type fiber								
	Woven			Non-woven					
	Code	Jute layers	PLA layers	Code	Jute layers	PLA layers			
0	PLA ₀	-	1	PLA ₀	-	1			
30	PLA_WJF ₃₀	3	4	PLA_NWJF ₃₀	5	6			
40	PLA_WJF ₄₀	4	5	PLA_NWJF ₄₀	6	7			
50	PLA_WJF ₅₀	5	6	PLA_NWJF ₅₀	8	9			

152 **TABLE 1** Composition and code designation of the different PLA/jute bio-composites.

153

154 The corresponding amounts of PLA pellets were weighed and distributed homogeneously 155 between the jute fabric layers to give the above-mentioned wt.% jute as seen in Table 1. To 156 enhance full embedment of jute fabrics with PLA, both the top and the bottom layers consisted of 157 PLA pellets (Figure 1c). Since the melt peak temperature of PLA is around 165-170 °C, the mould was closed and subjected to a temperature of 190 °C with a constant load of 2 Tn for a total time 158 159 of 20 min. These conditions allow PLA to flow and embed the jute reinforcements. After the 160 heating program, the aluminium mould was cooled down to 70 °C in a water circulating bath. 161 Finally, the obtained green composite plates were released from the mould for further 162 characterization.

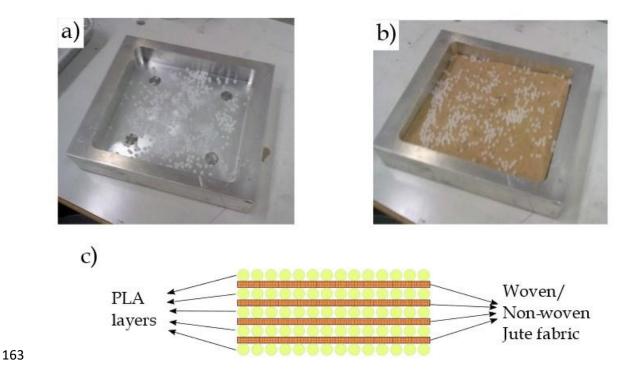


FIGURE 1 Manufacturing process of PLA/jute biocomposites by thermocompression moulding.
a) placing the first PLA layer on the aluminum mould; b) placing the last PLA layer on top of the
jute fiber layer; c) schematic representation of the stacking sequence of PLA pellets and jute
fibers.

168

Figure 2 shows the appearance of woven (Figure 2a) and non-woven (Figure 2b) jute fiber fabrics supplied by the manufacturer, where the distribution and orientation of the fibers in the different fabrics can be seen. Figure 2c and Figure 2d, show the surface appearance obtained after thermocompression moulding, where it was possible to observe the good compaction that jute fabrics have with the PLA matrix since the matrix was able to completely embed the jute fabrics. This resulted in highly homogeneous composites.

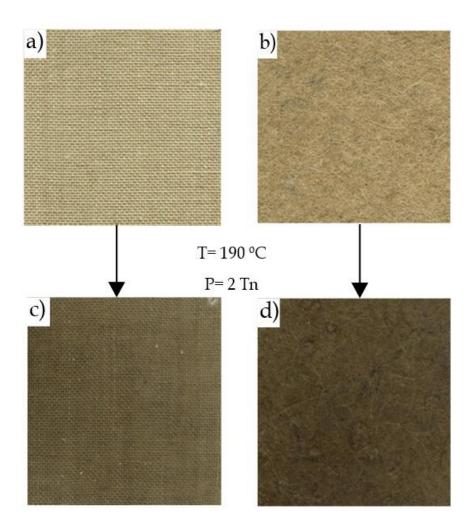




FIGURE 2 Images of the woven jute fabric (left column) and the non-woven jute fabric (right
column). a)- b) before thermocompression moulding and c)-d) after thermocompression
moulding.

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180

2.3 MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF THE PLA/JUTE BIOCOMPOSITES

181 The mechanical properties of the PLA/jute biocomposites were evaluated in tensile and 182 flexural conditions. Both tests were performed in a universal testing machine Instron 3340 183 (Norwood, MA, USA) at room temperature (~25 °C). The machine was equipped with a load cell 184 of 5 kN. Tensile tests were carried out following ASTM D3039/D3039M. Tensile test specimens 185 had these dimensions: 250 mm length, 25 mm width, and 2.5-3.5 mm thick. Tests were carried 186 out at a crosshead rate of 10 mm/min. By means of this test it was possible to obtain the tensile 187 strength at break (σ_b), the Young's modulus (Et), and the elongation at break ($\%\epsilon_b$). Flexural test 188 was performed according to ASTM D790 standard. The specimens for flexural tests had the 189 following dimensions: 100 mm length, 10 mm width, and 2.5-3.5 mm thick. The crosshead rate

- for flexural tests was set to 5 mm/min and the corresponding flexural strength (σ_f), and the flexural modulus (E_f) were obtained. To obtain reliable data, at least five different specimens were tested
- 192 for each composite and the corresponding mechanical parameters were averaged.
- 193

194 2.4 MORPHOLOGY ANALYSIS OF THE PLA/JUTE INTERFACE

195 The interaction between the jute fibers (woven and non-woven fibers) and the PLA matrix 196 was studied by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) in the fractured cross-sections of the 197 specimens after tensile tests. A Phenom scanning electron microscope from FEI Company 198 (Eindhoven, The Netherlands) operated at 10 kV was used. Prior to the surface characterization, 199 all samples were sputtered with a thin layer of gold/palladium alloy in an EMITECH Sputter Coater 200 model SC7620 from Quorum Technologies (East Sussex, UK). Furthermore, a stereomicroscope 201 system model SZX7 supplied by Olympus (Tokyo, Japan) was used to study the morphology of 202 the cross-section of the different biocomposites based on woven and non-woven jute fibers.

203

204 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

205 3.1 MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF THE PLA/JUTE BIOCOMPOSITES

206 The mechanical characterization of neat PLA and the PLA/jute biocomposites with jute 207 fibers are gathered in **Table 2**. It is possible to see that neat PLA has a high Young's modulus 208 (E_t), and a high tensile strength (σ_b) with values of 3430.3 MPa and 56.7 MPa, respectively. These 209 values are in accordance with the literature since PLA is a stiff material that also presents a brittle 210 behaviour, which is evidenced by its extremely low elongation at break of about 1.7 % [58, 59]. 211 PLA/jute biocomposites containing 30 wt.% of woven jute fiber show a slight decrease in the 212 stiffness, which can be seen by a decrease of 7.61% and 12% of its Young's modulus and tensile 213 strength, respectively, as well as a noticeable increase of around 53% in its elongation at break (2.6%). These results suggest that this amount of fiber is not sufficient to reinforce the PLA matrix 214 215 and hence, in this case would be acting as a filler. Similar situation was reported by Burrola-216 Núñez, Herrera-Franco [60]. They observed that the incorporation of low amounts of short jute 217 fibers (5 wt.%) was not enough to reinforce the PLA matrix. Furthermore, this effect of decreasing 218 Young's modulus and tensile strength was also attributed to the low adhesion of the fibers to the 219 matrix.

Code	Tens	ile Propertie	Flexural Properties		
	Et (MPa)	σ _b (MPa)	ε _b (%)	E _f (MPa)	σ _f (MPa)
PLA ₀	3430.3±60.3	56.7±2.8	1.7±0.06	3338.8±102.5	39.8±2.1
PLA_WJF ₃₀	3169.2±128.4	49.8±1.9	2.6±0.09	3740.4±152.2	86.0±3.4
PLA_WJF ₄₀	3325.7±166.3	53.2±3.1	2.6±0.1	3621.8±144.2	94.0±3.8
PLA_WJF ₅₀	3779.0±151.1	44.9±2.8	1.5±0.1	3993.6±115.7	71.7±2.9
PLA_NWJF ₃₀	1111.7±65.1	14.7±0.6	2.5±0.02	3489.3±137.2	39.4±2.5
PLA_NWJF ₄₀	1078.0±58.7	29.1±1.3	2.6±0.03	3597.1±146.7	42.8±2.6
PLA_NWJF50	1345.3±69.2	34.5±2.1	2.6±0.06	3679.8±128.4	62.2±3.1

221 **TABLE 2** Tensile and flexural properties of the PLA/Jute bio-composites.

222

223

224 In addition, these results also suggest stresses are not transmitted properly between the 225 matrix and the reinforcing fiber [61]. This is due to the different structure of the polymer matrix 226 and the reinforcing fibers. Jute fibers are highly hydrophylic, as other lignocellulosic fibers, while 227 PLA matrix is hydrophobic due to very low polarity, compared to the fibers [62, 63]. It is worth 228 bearing in mind that the 40 wt.% PLA/jute biocomposite with woven jute fibers presents a slight 229 increase in the Young's modulus and tensile strength with values of 3325.7 MPa and 53.2 MPa, 230 respectively, these values being very close to those of neat PLA. The PLA/jute biocomposite 231 containing 40 wt.% of jute fiber has a higher elongation at break, which makes the properties in 232 general very attractive, since the integration of natural fibers allows to reduce the amount of PLA 233 resulting in a material with balanced mechanical properties and reduced costs. These results are 234 in agreement with those presented by Singh, Singh [64]. They reported a noticeable improvement 235 in tensile strength (64 MPa by increasing the jute fiber loading in the composites. The best results 236 were obtained in composites with 30 wt.% jute fibers. By increasing the percentage of jute fibers 237 up to 50 wt.%, a clear increase in the material's stiffness is observed with a Young's modulus of 238 3779 MPa. Consequently, the brittleness also increases. Hence, the composite with 50 wt.% 239 shows a clear decrease in the elongation at break and the tensile strength. This phenomenon is 240 probably related with a deficient embedding of the fiber into the PLA matrix due to the reduction

of the polymer proportion in this composition. This effect was also reported by Gunti et al. in PLA
composites reinforced with short jute fibers previously subjected to alkali treatment [65].

243 The tensile properties of PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with woven jute fibers are 244 directly related to the direction of fibers (weft and warp). Therefore, if the applied load is aligned 245 with one of these directions the material will have the best mechanical properties. Furthermore, 246 the mechanical performance of PLA/jute biocomposites depends to a large extent on the quality 247 of the interface between the reinforcing fiber and the surrounding matrix [66]. As expected, due 248 to the random arrangement of the fibers in the nonwoven jute bio-composites, the resulting tensile 249 properties are lower compared to biocomposites with woven jute fiber. Taking this into account, 250 it is remarkable that both Young's modulus and tensile strength show a considerable reduction, 251 reaching values of 1111.7 MPa and 14.7 MPa, respectively, when the composite is reinforced 252 with 30 wt.% non-woven jute fiber. Despite increasing the percentage of jute fiber up to 40 or 50 253 wt.%, the reinforcing effect is not noticeable to any great extent as the modulus remains almost 254 invariable with values around 1300 MPa. This may be because both the fibers and the matrix act 255 as separate phases, *i.e.* poor load transfer between the matrix and the fiber. This effect can be 256 attributed to several phenomena. On one hand, to the low affinity between the jute fibers and the 257 PLA matrix due to their hydrophilic and hydrophobic nature [67], respectively. On the other hand, 258 Khan, Shaikh [68] claims that composites with high reinforcement loading, do not allow full fiber 259 embedding into the polymer matrix, resulting in a lack of bonding between the fibers and the 260 matrix, which causes a decrease in the stiffness of the material due to poor stress distribution. 261 Despite this, it may be observed that the tensile strength is positively influenced by the increase 262 in fiber loading.

263 Regarding PLA/jute biocomposites with a fiber content of 50 wt.%, the σ_b value is 34.5 264 MPa, 134% higher than the PLA/jute biocomposite with a 30 wt.% non-woven jute fiber. It should 265 be noted that the amount of non-woven fiber loading does not affect elongation at break, 266 remaining at about 2.6%. As observed in the morphology analysis, the PLA/jute biocomposites 267 manufactured with non-woven jute presented higher gap between the fiber and the surrounding 268 PLA matrix, thus providing a reduction in the mechanical properties. As a result, an increase in 269 fiber content does not provide an improvement in the elongation at break. Despite having 270 relatively low tensile properties, PLA/jute biocomposites with non-woven jute mats exhibit mechanical properties similar to those of some commodity thermoplastics such as polypropylene
(PP) [69], or high-density polyethylene (HDPE) [70], with the advantage that having natural fibers
makes the resulting materials more attractive from an environmental point of view and production
costs.

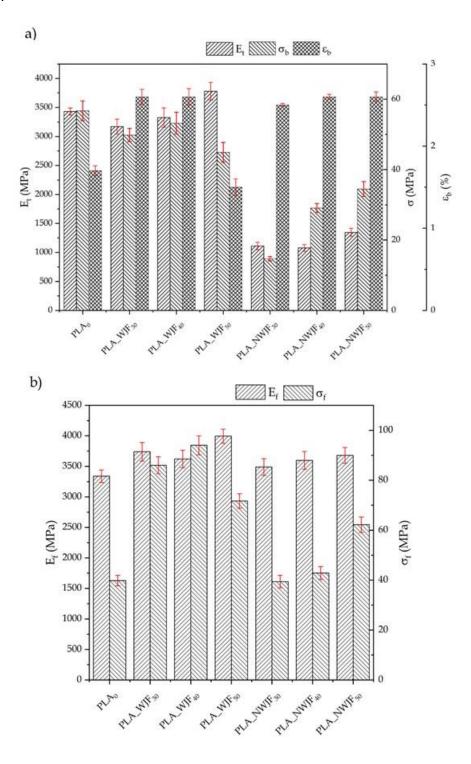


FIGURE 3. Mechanical properties of the PLA/Jute bio-composites a) tensile test properties: Young modulus (E_t), tensile strength (σ_b), elongation at break (ϵ_b) and b) flexural properties: flexural modulus (E_f), flexural strength (σ_f).

279

280 Regarding the flexural properties of the PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with jute 281 fabrics, it is possible to see that neat PLA has a flexural modulus and flexural strength of 3338.8 282 and 39.8 MPa, respectively, which are close to those reported by Dong, Ghataura [71] in PLA 283 composites reinforced with coir fibers. They reported a flexural strength and flexural modulus 284 values of 57 MPa and 2.80 GPa, respectively, in PLA composites with 20 wt.% short coir fibers. 285 It can be clearly seen that both the flexural modulus and the flexural strength of PLA/jute biocomposites increase with the increase in the wt.% of jute fiber [72]. With regard to PLA/jute 286 287 biocomposites with jute fabrics, the flexural strength and stiffness are generally provided by the 288 external layers. In flexural conditions, the upper face is subjected to compressive stress, while 289 the bottom face is mainly subjected to stretching (tension). Therefore, the flexural behaviour of 290 the PLA/jute biocomposites depends on the strength of their external layers [73]. Biocomposites 291 containing 30 wt.% of woven jute fiber, show an increase of 12% and 116% of the flexural modulus 292 and flexural strength, respectively. These results show flexural conditions are less aggressive in 293 terms of stress concentration phenomena as tensile conditions. By increasing the woven jute fiber 294 load up to 50 wt.%, the flexural modulus rises to 3993.6 MPa, which corresponds to an 295 improvement of about 20% compared to neat PLA, thus showing a clear improvement in flexural 296 stiffness. Similarly, there is an increase in flexural strength, reaching values of 71.7 MPa. The 297 configuration of the jute fibers on biocomposites, i.e. the fiber orientation, makes them capable of 298 withstanding greater loads [74]. A maximum flexural strength of 94.0 MPa was obtained for 299 PLA/jute biocomposite with 40 wt.% woven jute fiber, as reported previously with regard to tensile 300 properties. Higher fiber content as that for PLA/jute biocomposites with 50 wt.% woven jute fiber, 301 show a decrease in flexural properties due to poor fiber embedding.

As with woven fiber-reinforced composites, the flexural properties of PLA/jute biocomposites with non-woven jute mats are related to the amount of fiber loading [75], resulting in increased flexural properties by increasing the wt.% of fiber in PLA/jute biocomposites. It can be seen that biocomposites containing 50 wt.% non-woven jute mats, show flexural modulus and

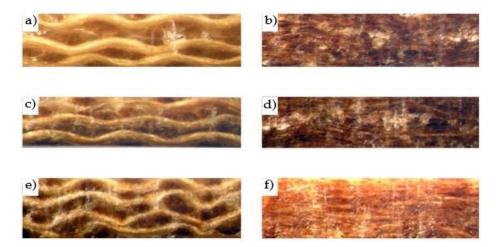
306 flexural strength values of 3679.8 and 62.2 MPa, respectively. The increase in flexural properties 307 achieved by non-woven jute fibers is slightly lower than that observed for the woven jute fibers. 308 This may be due to several factors, including the low interaction between the jute fibers and the 309 PLA matrix [76], and the distribution of the fibers in the matrix [68]. Jawaid, Khalil [77] suggested 310 that the random distribution of non-woven fibers in a polymer matrix causes a counterproductive 311 effect on the flexural properties since having a smaller continuous surface makes the composite 312 to have a lower load capacity. This effect that can be clearly seen in composites containing woven 313 jute fibers, which are composed of long, perfectly aligned and continuous fibers, and this, results 314 in better load capacity. Singh, Singh [64], have recently reported interesting results in jute/PLA 315 bio-composites by using different processing temperatures ranging from 160 °C to 180 °C. The 316 most relevant results that they provide indicate an increasing trend in mechanical properties up 317 to 30 v/v.% jute fiber and above this, mechanical properties decrease. They attribute this to the 318 weak fiber-matrix interface interactions as the PLA matrix content is reduced.

319

320 3.2 FIBER-MATRIX INTERACTION AND MORPHOLOGY ANALYSIS OF THE PLA/JUTE BIO 321 COMPOSITES

322 There are several factors with a direct influence of mechanical performance of composite 323 materials. Among these, it is worthy to note the fiber distribution, fiber-matrix interaction, and 324 directionality of the reinforcement fibers in the matrix. In general, the reinforcement fiber is stiffer 325 than the polymer matrix and if there is good fiber-matrix interaction (the so-called isodeformation 326 conditions), the stress transfer from the low stiffness component (the polymer matrix) to the high 327 stiffness component (the reinforcing fiber) is allowed. In contrast, if the polymer-fiber interactions 328 are weak, the applied stresses could not be appropriately transmitted from the matrix to the fiber, 329 causing the premature failure of the material due to the lack of cohesion between the polymer 330 matrix and the reinforcing fiber [78].

The fiber distribution and directionality also play a critical role in the mechanical performance of composite materials. If the load is applied in the fiber direction, an improvement in the strength and stiffness is generally obtained [74, 79]. **Figure 4** shows stereomicroscopy optical images of the cross-section of PLA/jute biocomposites with woven jute fibers (**Figure 4a**, **Figure 4c, and Figure 4e**), and PLA/jute biocomposites with non-woven jute fibers (**Figure 4b**, **Figure 4d, and Figure 4f**). The alignment of the jute fibers in PLA/jute biocomposites with woven jute bio-composites is clearly observed with the typical wave shape. Unlike PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with woven jute fibers, PLA/jute biocomposites with non-woven fibers show a non-uniform distribution of the fibers, which is characteristic of this type of material (random). Despite this, a rather good and homogeneous embedding can be observed in both cases between the different jute fibers and the PLA matrix.

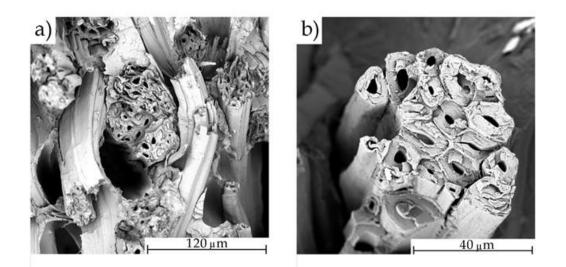


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FIGURE 4 Stereomicroscopy optical images at magnification of 12.5× corresponding to the
cross-section of PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with woven jute fibers (left column) and
PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with non-woven jute fiber s (right column) of a)-b) 30 wt.%,
c)-d) 40 wt.%, and e)-f) 50 wt.%.

347

Jute fiber is composed of aligned tubular cells which are responsible for its moderate mechanical properties and excellent insulation properties according to Fidelis, Pereira [80]. **Figure 5** shows typical scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the jute fiber morphology.



351

FIGURE 5 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the jute fiber at different magnifications, a) $1000\times$, (scale bar of 120μ m), and b) $3000\times$ (scale bar of 40μ m).

354 To better understand the phenomenon of the interaction between the jute reinforcement 355 fibers and the matrix, the fractured surfaces subjected to tensile tests were studied by scanning 356 electron microscopy. As already mentioned, the good synergy between the polymer matrix and 357 the reinforcing fiber, has a direct effect on mechanical performance. Strong polymer-fiber 358 interactions positively contribute to a good load transfer, resulting in the desired reinforcing effect 359 by fully embedding the fibers into the structure of biocomposites [65]. Figures 6a and 6c refer to 360 the PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with woven jute fibers (40 wt.% and 50 wt.%). In these 361 images, the directionality of the fibers can be clearly seen, as well as the presence of small gaps 362 between the jute fibers and the surrounding PLA matrix. This is because the wettability of the 363 matrix with the fibers is not good enough, resulting in weak polymer-fiber interactions. This is 364 evidenced by some pulled-out fibers from the matrix [81]. No tear marks are visible on the fiber 365 breakage surface, but a clean break of the fibers. This may be due to the low extensibility of the 366 jute fibers to tensile stress, as suggested by Jawaid, Khalil [77]. The presence of a small gap 367 between the fiber and the surrounding PLA matrix might be responsible for poor load transfer 368 and, subsequently, non-optimum mechanical properties of PLA/jute biocomposites. The pull-out 369 phenomenon can be clearly observed in Figure 6a and Figure 6c since the matrix shows a 370 homogeneous surface that copies the shape of the pulled-out fiber. Under these conditions with 371 a poor interaction, the failure mechanism for the composites is the debonding of the fibers from 372 the matrix providing the morphology mentioned above as proposed by [23].

373 Figure 6b and Figure 6d show the fractured surface of PLA/jute biocomposites 374 reinforced with non-woven jute fibers. In this type of biocomposites, the random fiber distribution 375 is remarkable. The random alignment of the fibers can act as stress concentrators, causing 376 premature separation of the fibers from the matrix and causing propagation of matrix microcracks, 377 which leads to a decrease in the tensile properties. This may be one of the reasons why the gap 378 between the fibers and the matrix is larger compared to woven jute fiber-reinforced biocomposites 379 as suggested by Khan, Terano [54]. This morphology is in accordance with the low values 380 obtained in tensile tests on PLA/jute biocomposites reinforced with non-woven jute fibers. Similar 381 results were reported by Alavudeen, Rajini [81], in polyester composites reinforced with 382 banana/kenaf fibers. They concluded that the tensile performance of the plain-woven composites 383 was superior to that of the randomly oriented bio-composites for the same fiber content because 384 of the discontinuity of the matrix caused inadequate stress transmission.

385 The low affinity of the reinforcement fibers and the PLA matrix is largely due to the nature 386 of the PLA matrix and the natural fibers, as jute fibers that are mostly composed of cellulose and 387 lignin. As a result, fibers have a marked hydrophilic character due to the hydroxyl group, and 388 polyesters such as PLA have a strong hydrophobic nature. This difference is responsible for the 389 low PLA-jute interactions. [52, 82]. Figure 7 shows an example of the fracture surface of the 390 samples. PLA matrix shows a smooth and homogeneous fracture surface, typical of a brittle 391 fracture [44]. In addition, it was possible to observe the effects of pulled-out fibers due to the little 392 affinity that these two components have.

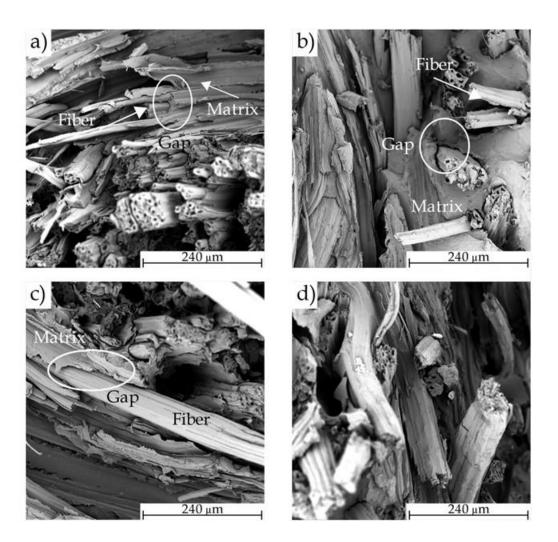
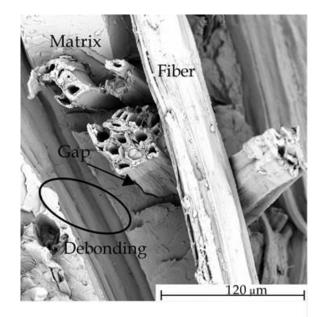




FIGURE 6 Scanning emission microscopy (SEM) images of the fracture surface of PLA/jute
biocomposites with different percentages of woven jute fiber (left column) and non-woven jute
fiber (right column): a-b) 40 wt.%; c-d) 50 wt.%. The images were taken at 500× (scale bar of 240
µm).



399

FIGURE 7 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the fracture surface of PLA/jute
biocomposite containing 50 wt.% woven jute fiber. The image was taken at 1000× (scale bar of
120 μm).

403

404 4 CONCLUSIONS

405 1. The present work has confirmed the feasibility of manufacturing high environmentally friendly406 biocomposites of polylactide (PLA) and jute fiber reinforcements.

2. These bio-composites can be easily manufactured by thermocompression molding by directly
stacking fabrics and PLA pellets. This stacking system provided enough wettability of the fibers
with the matrix during the thermocompression process at 190 °C, resulting in biocomposites with
a high percentage of reinforcing fiber (up to 50 wt.%).

3. The morphology analysis by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) showed that the interaction
between the jute fibers and the PLA matrix was relatively low. In spite of this, the interaction of
the PLA matrix with the woven fibers was better, since the PLA-jute fiber gap was smaller than

the one obtained in PLA/jute biocomposites with non-woven jute fibers.

415 4. With respect to the mechanical tensile properties under tensile conditions, better properties are

obtained in PLA/jute composites with woven jute fibers, mainly due to the directionality of their

fibers, this effect is more noticeable in the high Young's modulus obtained.

418 5. With regard to the flexural properties of PLA/jute biocomposites, these are not critically affected

419 by the directionality of the reinforcement fibers, tending to increase with increasing fiber content.

6. These biocomposites fully obtained from renewable sources, offer balanced mechanical performance comparable to many conventional petroleum-based polymeric materials. Therefore, the partial or total use of these PLA/jute biocomposites in the different areas such as construction, automotive, wind energy, and furniture, among others would help to a sustainable development. In addition, the use of natural fibers allows a cost reduction, due to the lower percentage of polymer used.

426 427

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683	FIGURE CAPTIONS
684	
685	FIGURE 1 Manufacturing process of PLA/jute bio- composites by hot compression moulding. a)
686	placing the first PLA layer on the aluminum mould; b) placing the last PLA layer on top of the jute
687	fiber layer; c) schematic representation of the stacking sequence of PLA pellets and jute fibers.
688	
689	FIGURE 2 Images of the woven jute fabric (left column) and the non-woven jute fabric (right
690	column). a)- b) before hot compression moulding and c)-d) after hot compression moulding.
691	
692	FIGURE 3 Mechanical properties of the PLA/Jute bio-composites a) tensile test properties:
693	Young modulus (E _t), tensile strength (σ_b), elongation at break (ϵ_b) and b) flexural properties:
694	flexural modulus (E _f), flexural strength (σ_f).
695	
696	FIGURE 4 Stereomicroscopy images at magnification of $12.5 \times$ corresponding to the cross
697	section of the woven jute fiber green composite (left column) and non-woven jute fiber green
698	composite (right column) of a)-b) 30 wt.%, c)-d) 40 wt.%, and e)-f) 50 wt.%.
699	
700	
701	FIGURE 5 SEM images of the jute fiber used: (a) 1000×, with a marked scale of 120 $\mu m.$ (b)
702	3000×, with a marked scale of 40 μ m.
703	
704	FIGURE 6 Scanning emission microscopy (SEM) images of the fracture surface of PLA-based
705	bio-composites with different percentages of woven jute fiber (left column) and non-woven jute
706	fiber (right column): (a) and (b) 40 wt%; (c) and (d) 50 wt%. The images were taken at $500 \times$ with
707	a marked scale of 240 µm.
708	
709	FIGURE 7 Scanning emission microscopy (SEM) image of the fracture surface of PLA-based bio-
710	composites (i.e. 50 wt% woven jute fiber). The image was taken at $1000 \times$ with a marked scale of
711	120 μm.
712	

713 TABLE CAPTIONS

- **TABLE 1** Composition and code designation of the different PLA/jute bio- composites.
- **TABLE 2** Tensile and flexural properties of the PLA/Jute bio-composites.