

Biobased PLA/sugarcane bagasse fiber -composites Part A

by Juliana Anggono

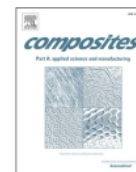
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Biobased PLA/sugarcane bagasse fiber composites: Effect of fiber characteristics and interfacial adhesion on properties

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ABSTRACT

PLA/sugarcane bagasse fiber composites were prepared by injection molding from two fractions of fibers with different fiber characteristics, which were determined before and after processing. Interfacial adhesion was modified by a maleated PLA coupling agent. The mechanical properties of the composites were characterized by tensile and impact testing, while local deformation processes by acoustic emission testing and microscopy. The results showed that considerable attrition takes place during melt processing in both the length and diameter of the fibers. The originally different batches of short and long fibers have similar dimensions after processing. Interfacial adhesion between PLA and bagasse is inherently good, thus coupling does not improve properties. Shear yielding and fiber fracture consume sufficiently energy to increase the impact resistance. Sugarcane bagasse fibers considerably increase the stiffness of PLA, result in almost constant tensile strength and increase impact resistance yielding a material with reasonable combination of properties for structural applications.

1. Introduction

Depleting fossil fuel resources and increasing environmental awareness of both the public and the industry increased the interest in raw materials derived from renewable resources. Polymers are versatile materials, which are used in a large number of applications in all areas of life. Their property profile can be extended even further by modification, stiffness, and strength can be increased by fiber reinforcement [1–3], fracture resistance by impact modification [4,5], flexibility and deformability by plasticization [6,7], etc. Fiber-reinforced composites are usually applied in structural applications mainly in the construction and automotive industry [8,9], but also in many other areas [1]. Completely biobased composites can be prepared from biopolymers and wood flour or other natural fibers [10–12]. Such composites compete successfully with traditional glass or carbon fiber reinforced commodity polymers and they are used more and more extensively for the production of automotive interior parts as door panels, trimming, sidings,

hat racks, etc. [13,14].

However, wood and natural fiber reinforced biocomposites have several drawbacks as well [15]. The most frequently used matrix for such composites is poly(lactic acid) (PLA) produced in relatively large quantities and at a reasonable price. The properties of PLA are quite advantageous, certain types have relatively large stiffness (3 GPa) and strength (55 MPa), which compete with the similar properties of engineering thermoplastics. However, PLA is sensitive to water during processing [16], its physical ageing is fast leading to brittleness [17,18], and its deformability, as well as impact resistance, is small [19]. Similarly, natural fibers also have their disadvantages. Their properties depend on the source of the fiber, but also on climate changes and the period of the harvest. They absorb water leading to dimensional changes, they are sensitive to heat during processing, and the adhesion of the fibers to polymers is often quite poor [20,21].

In order to compensate for these disadvantages, numerous attempts are made to find the right combination of fiber and matrix polymer, and/

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or to modify the components in various ways, or improve interfacial adhesion by coupling. Wood and other natural fibers were added to PLA as reinforcement earlier and the form of the reinforcement (particle [11,22–24], fiber [25–27] or mat [28]), as well as particle characteristics, changed in a wide range in published studies. Similarly, the characteristics of the fibers were modified by alkali treatment [26,29–31] and numerous surface modification techniques were used to improve interfacial adhesion between the fiber and the PLA from surfactants [32,33] to various small [11,26,29,30] and large molecular weight coupling agents [34,35]. The property combinations achieved cover a wide range, but the ever-increasing drive of the industry towards materials with better properties always allows room for further improvement.

One possible reinforcement for plastics is sugarcane bagasse fiber. It is a cheap, natural raw material obtained from local sources. Bagasse fibers are burned in the technology to produce sugar, but their value-added application would be beneficial for the countries producing it. The fiber can be homogenized directly with polymer matrices using an efficient processing technique like extrusion or injection molding. Several papers were published on polypropylene/sugarcane bagasse composites [36–39] and more recently on materials prepared with PLA matrix [40–44] as well. Some of the publications investigate interfacial interactions between the components. Khoo and Chow [42] observed voids between the matrix and the bagasse at the interface indicating weak adhesion. Hong et al. [40] studied the effect of different treatments (alkaline, silane and the combination of the two) on the structure and properties of PLA/bagasse fiber composites. They found that untreated and alkali-treated fibers were pulled-out from the matrix but the silane and the combined treatment improved interfacial adhesion, thus the number of fiber breakage increased considerably. Suryanegara et al. [44] observed that the tensile strength of PLA based composites decreases with increasing bagasse content and explained the phenomenon with poor adhesion as well as the formation of voids which result in inefficient stress transfer. In the papers cited above most of the conclusions about interfacial adhesion were drawn from the observation of SEM micrographs and they contradict our previous results indicating strong adhesion between PLA and natural fibers [12].

In accordance with the general tendency of going green and using local resources, the goal of our study was to prepare fully biodegradable biobased composites from PLA and sugarcane bagasse fibers and explore the property profile of the materials produced. The fibers were obtained from a local sugar mill in Indonesia and they were separated into two fractions with different sizes in order to study the effect of fiber characteristics on composite properties. The injection molded specimens prepared from the composites contained the fibers in various amounts and a functionalized, maleic anhydride modified PLA was used as coupling agent to improve interfacial adhesion. The material was characterized by standard tensile and impact measurements and local deformation processes were followed by acoustic emission testing in order to facilitate the interpretation of the effect of the studied variables (composition, fiber characteristics, adhesion) on composite properties. The practical relevance of the results is also discussed briefly at the end of the paper.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

The bagasse fibers were obtained directly from the sugar mill (Candi Baru Sugar Factory, Sidoarjo, Indonesia). They were washed with ethanol, dried, cut and sieved. The fibers were separated into two, a long and a short, fractions in order to study the effect of fiber characteristics on composite properties. The long fraction was obtained by combining fibers collected from the 0.8 mm (20 mesh) and 0.35 mm (45 mesh) sieves, and the short fraction consisted of the fibers passing through all sieves. The dimensions of the fibers were determined by digital optical

microscopy before and after processing; the characteristics are compiled in Table 1. The density of the fibers was determined by using a pycnometer; the value obtained was 1.2 g/cm³.

The PLA used as matrix was obtained from NatureWorks (Minnetonka, MN, USA). The selected grade (Ingeo 4032D, $M_n = 88500$ g/mol and $M_w/M_n = 1.8$) is recommended for extrusion. The polymer (<2% D isomer) has a density of 1.24 g/cm³, while its melt flow rate (MFR) is 3.9 g/10 min at 190 °C and 2.16 kg load. The functionalized PLA coupling agent (MAPLA) was produced in our laboratory according to the method developed earlier [34]. The PLA used in the grafting reaction was the Ingeo 3251D grade obtained from NatureWorks (Minnetonka, MN, USA). Its MFR was 35 g/10 min at 190 °C and 2.16 kg load. PLA was dried for 4 h at 100 °C and 150 mbar pressure. 4 g maleic anhydride (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) was dissolved in 20 ml acetone (Molar Chemicals Kft, Halásztelek, Hungary) and then 4 g Luperox 101 (Arkema, Colombes, France) peroxide was added to the solution. The latter was poured onto 200 g PLA and homogenized in a plastic bag. The granules were placed into an air circulating oven (Memmert UF450, Memmert GmbH, Schwabach, Germany) for 5 min at 80 °C to evaporate the solvent. Reactive processing was carried out using a Brabender Lab-Station (Brabender GmbH, Duisburg, Germany) single screw extruder with the temperature profile of 175–180–185–190 °C at 12 rpm. The grafted polymer was characterized by NMR spectroscopy (Varian NMR System, Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA), but was not purified; it was used as obtained in the reaction.

2.2. Sample preparation

Before processing, the fibers were dried for 4 h at 105 °C (Memmert UF450, Memmert GmbH, Schwabach, Germany), in order to eliminate the moisture absorbed during standing in the laboratory. The PLA and the coupling agent were also dried in a vacuum oven (Memmert VO101, Memmert GmbH, Schwabach, Germany) at 100 °C and 150 mbar pressure for 4 h. The fibers and the polymer were thoroughly mixed in a plastic bag and then homogenized in a twin-screw compounder (Brabender DSK 42/7, Brabender GmbH, Duisburg, Germany) at the set temperatures of 170–180–185–190 °C and 40 rpm. The fiber content of the composites changed from 0 to 30 wt% in 5 wt% steps. The amount of the coupling agent was always 10% calculated for the reinforcement and it was added at the expense of the matrix polymer. Weight percentages were used for sample preparation, but mechanical properties depend on the volume fraction of the reinforcement. This latter was calculated by using the density of the components (see above). The granulated composites were injection molded into standard (ISO 527 1A) tensile bars of 4 mm thickness using a Demag IntElect 50/330-100 (Demag Ergotech GmbH, Schwaig, Germany) machine. Processing parameters were 40–170–180–185–190 °C set temperature, 800–1200 bar injection pressure depending on fiber content, 50 mm/s injection speed, 650–800 holding pressure, 15 s holding time, and 45 s cooling time. The temperature of the mold was set to 20 °C. The specimens were stored at ambient temperature (23 °C, 50% RH) for a week before further testing.

Table 1
Dimensions of the bagasse fibers used before and after processing.

Fiber	Coupling	Processing	Length (μm)	Diameter (μm)	Aspect ratio
Short	–	before	815 ± 626	221 ± 120	3.96
		after	468 ± 253	201 ± 100	2.73
	+	after	592 ± 330	234 ± 109	2.65
Long	–	before	2845 ± 1260	716 ± 385	5.09
		after	729 ± 320	271 ± 128	2.98
	+	after	746 ± 410	278 ± 155	2.96

2.3. Characterization

Fiber characteristics were determined by digital optical microscopy (Keyence VHX 500, Keyence Co., Osaka, Japan). The fibers were evenly distributed on a glass plate for the determination. The dimensions of 6–700 fibers were measured both before and after processing. In order to determine fiber dimensions after processing, composite samples were put into boiling tetrahydrofuran (Molar Chemicals Kft., Halásztelek, Hungary) for 4 h to dissolve the polymer, and then the fibers were sieved and dried. Fiber dimensions were determined using the ImagePro 10 (Media Cybernetics, Inc., Rockville, MD, USA) software. The mechanical properties of the composites were characterized by tensile and impact testing. Tensile tests were carried out using an Instron 5566 (Instron, Norwood, MA, USA) universal testing machine according to the ISO 527 1A standard with a gauge length of 115 mm and 5 mm/min crosshead speed using a 10 kN load cell. Elongation was measured by a strain gauge and the results were used for the calculation of modulus. Five parallel measurements were done at each composition. Modulus, tensile strength and elongation-at-break were derived from recorded stress vs. strain traces. Local deformation processes were followed by acoustic emission testing (AE) using a Sensophone AED 404 (Geréb és Társa Ltd., Budapest, Hungary) apparatus. A single a11 resonance detector with the resonance frequency of 150 kHz was attached to the center of the specimen. The threshold level of detection was set to 25 dB. Impact resistance was characterized by the notched Charpy impact strength (Zwick Pendulum Impact Tester HIT5.5P, Zwick Roell Group, Ulm, Germany), which was determined according to the ISO 179 standard with 2 mm notch depth at 23 °C, using a 0.5 J hammer. Seven parallel measurements were carried out on each material. Instrumented impact testing was done by using the same equipment with a 4 J hammer. Dynamic effects were suppressed with mechanical damping achieved with the application of a silicon rubber strip of 1 mm thickness. The appearance of broken surfaces was studied by scanning electron microscopy (Jeol JSM 6380 LA, Jeol Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Micrographs were recorded on fracture surfaces created during tensile and fracture testing, respectively, at the accelerating voltage of 15 kV. Before recording the micrographs, the surfaces were sputtered with gold for 35 s using a Jeol Fine Coater (Jeol Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) apparatus.

3. Results and discussion

The results are discussed in several sections. First, the dimensions of the two batches of fibers used as reinforcement are shown together with the effect of processing on them. Subsequently, mechanical properties are presented followed by the analysis of local deformation processes and their possible impact on properties. The results are discussed in the last section of the paper together with comments on relevance for practice.

3.1. Fiber characteristics, the effect of processing

The dimensions of the reinforcing fibers are very important for composite properties since the orientation of the fibers, as well as their aspect ratio, determine the extent of reinforcement. As mentioned in the experimental part, two fractions of the bagasse fibers were separated, which had different dimensions. However, stiff fibers often break up during the melt processing of composite materials and the extent of attrition determines fiber length and aspect ratio in them. Accordingly, the length, diameter and aspect ratio of the fibers were determined before and after processing and the results are listed in Table 1. Both the length and the diameter of the fibers differed significantly before processing; both dimensions of the long fibers were about three-four times larger than those of their shorter counterparts.

Processing led to considerable attrition in both cases, but the change was larger for the long fibers than for the short ones that is not very surprising. It is interesting to note, though, that not only the length, but

also the diameter of the fibers decreased considerably for the long fibers; the diameter of the short fibers remained practically the same as before processing. The decrease of diameter indicates that the transverse strength of the fibers is not very large and they split easily along their axis. Although fiber dimensions still differ somewhat for the long and short fibers, but the differences are much smaller than before processing. The relatively small differences in fiber dimensions forecast similar reinforcing effect for the two fractions of the fibers.

3.2. Mechanical properties

Although PLA is used in large quantities in the packaging industry, it is often applied also as structural material. The stiffness, strength and often the impact resistance are the most important properties for such materials. The stiffness of the PLA/bagasse fiber composites is plotted in Fig. 1 against composition. Increasing fiber content results in significant reinforcement, the stiffness of the material almost doubles in the composition range used in this study. Long fibers have slightly larger reinforcing effect than the shorter ones, but the difference is not very large in accordance with the small deviation in size and especially in aspect ratio, as shown by Table 1 and discussed above. Coupling, i.e. the use of maleated PLA does not have practically any effect, but this is in accordance with our previous experience showing that interfacial adhesion has only a slight effect on stiffness [34].

The strength of the composites is plotted against composition in Fig. 2. Strength does not change much with composition that is beneficial for the application of these composites as structural material. Short fibers reinforce the polymer somewhat less than the longer ones, but in view of the fiber characteristics of the two fractions this difference agrees well with the expectations. It is somewhat more surprising that coupling does not have any effect on strength either. The strength of PP composites, for example, decreases drastically with increasing fiber content in the absence of coupling [45,46]. The very small influence of coupling on strength can be explained with our earlier results obtained on PLA/wood composites showing that, contrary to numerous literature references [22,23,25,27,40,42,44], interfacial adhesion between PLA and lignocellulosic reinforcements is quite strong [12]. Accordingly, improved interfacial adhesion due to the presence of MAPLA may prevent the debonding of a few fibers with large size and especially with large diameter, but otherwise it has a small effect, and other processes

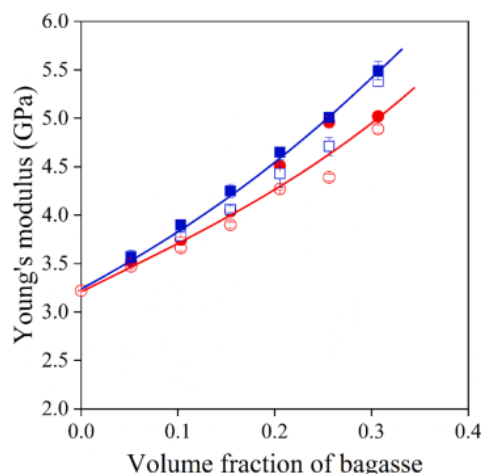


Fig. 1. Effect of composition, fiber characteristics and interfacial adhesion on the stiffness of PLA/bagasse fiber composites. Symbols: (○) short, no MAPLA, (●) short with MAPLA, (□) long, no MAPLA, (■) long, MAPLA. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

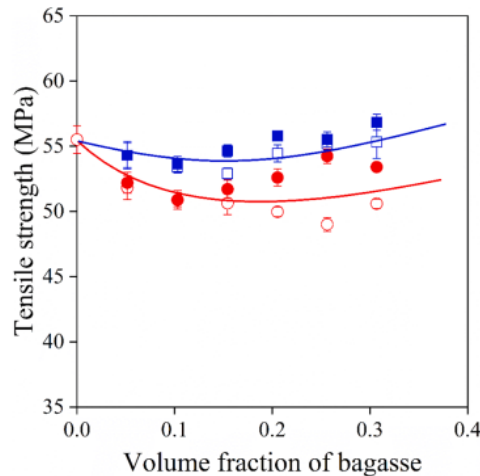


Fig. 2. Tensile strength of PLA/bagasse fiber composites plotted against fiber content. The influence of fiber dimensions and coupling. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 1. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

than debonding may also play a role in the determination of composite properties.

As expected, the deformability of the composites is small, elongation-at-break changes from 6% of the neat polymer to about 1.5% for the composite containing 30 wt% bagasse fibers (not shown). None of the variables studied, i.e. fiber dimensions or interfacial adhesion, influences deformability practically at all, at the same fiber content the composites have very similar elongations. Small deformability forecasts brittle fracture and poor impact resistance.

The fracture resistance of the PLA/bagasse fiber composites studied is presented in Fig. 3 as a function of composition. Contrary to the prediction mentioned above, impact strength increases with fiber content. The impact resistance of composites containing the short fibers is somewhat smaller and goes through a maximum, while it approaches a plateau for the composites prepared with the long fibers. Since the stiffness of the composites increased considerably with increasing fiber content, and usually an inverse correlation exists between stiffness and

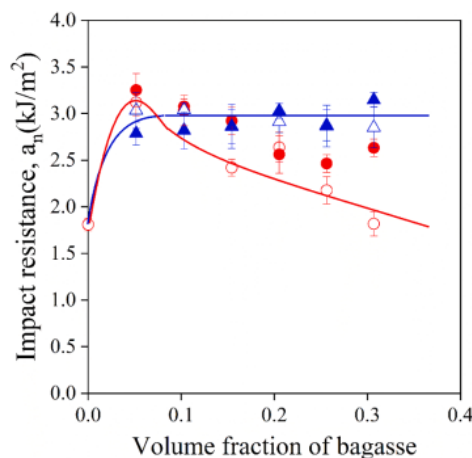


Fig. 3. Increase of the notched impact resistance of PLA/bagasse fiber composites with increasing fiber content. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 1. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

impact resistance for most structural materials, the observed phenomenon is rather surprising and needs further consideration and explanation. One reason for the increase might be the fact that bagasse fibers initiate local deformation processes, which consume energy and improve impact resistance.

3.3. Deformation and failure processes

PLA/bagasse fiber composites are heterogeneous materials with components having considerably different elastic properties. Different mechanical characteristics lead to the development of stress concentrations, which during deformation initiate local deformation processes around the heterogeneities, i.e. around the fibers, in this case. In composites containing fibers with large diameter several local deformation processes may take place including the debonding of the fibers from the matrix polymer, fiber pullout or fracture and occasionally also the shear yielding of the matrix. Some of these processes (debonding, fracture) can be followed by acoustic emission testing. The piezoelectric sensor placed on the specimens can detect local processes during tensile testing. The result of such a test is presented in Fig. 4. The small circles in the figure indicate individual acoustic events the height of which is proportional to the amplitude of the signal. Since the evaluation of individual signals is difficult, we plotted their cumulative number, i.e. the sum of signals detected up to a certain elongation (right axis) as well. The stress vs. elongation correlation (left axis) is also presented in the figure for reference. The result shown for the composite containing 5 wt% of the long fibers with MAPLA is typical, acoustic emission measurements yielded very similar results for all composites.

We can see that signals start to appear above a certain elongation, i.e. there is an initiation deformation or stress of the process, and signals are detected up to the end of the test. A closer scrutiny of the cumulative number of signal vs. elongation correlation indicates that it can be divided into two sections, i.e. two processes take place during deformation. Characteristic deformations and stresses can be assigned to these processes in the way indicated in Fig. 4. The composition dependence of the characteristic stresses determined from the acoustic emission test is presented in Fig. 5. We can see that the two processes have very different initiation stresses, that of the first step is below 20 MPa, while the second is at around 40 MPa. Based on the acoustic emission

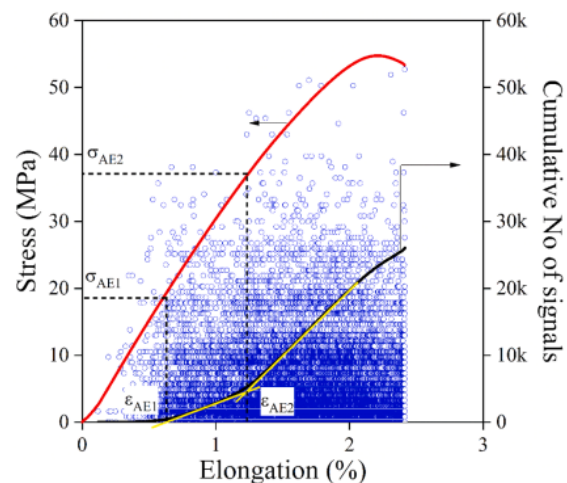


Fig. 4. The results of the acoustic emission testing of a PLA/bagasse fiber composite. Composition: 5 wt% of long bagasse fiber with MAPLA coupling agent. Symbols: (•) individual acoustic signals, full lines are the stress vs. elongation (left axis) and the cumulative number of signal vs. elongation (right axis) correlations. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

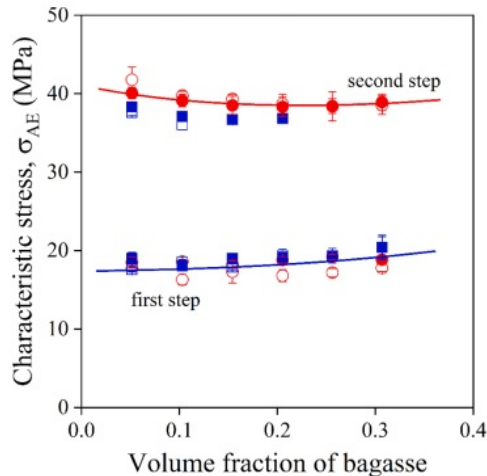


Fig. 5. Composition dependence of the characteristic stress of the local deformation processes detected by acoustic emission testing. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 1. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

measurements we can only speculate about these two processes, but earlier experience showed that debonding is initiated at smaller stresses, while the second process characterized by larger initiation stress is usually fiber pullout or fiber fracture. Since the analysis of fiber characteristics before and after processing showed the relatively facile fracture of the fibers also in the transverse direction, we may safely assume that fiber fracture occurs also during mechanical deformation.

SEM micrographs recorded on the fracture surfaces of the specimens

may offer further information about the local processes taking place during deformation. A few representative micrographs are presented in Fig. 6. The fracture of a large fiber can be observed in Fig. 6a recorded on a composite containing the short fibers without coupling. Besides the fracture of the long fiber, a closer inspection reveals the presence of fibers with smaller aspect ratio, and shows that they tend to debond from the matrix during deformation. Coupling, i.e. the presence of the MAPLA coupling agent, does not modify the processes taking place during deformation; Fig. 6b shows basically the same picture as the previous one, i.e. debonding and fiber fracture are the dominating local deformation processes. This observation confirms our previous conclusion about the small effect of coupling on composite properties. The study of a large number of micrographs indicated that besides these two processes, some shear yielding of the matrix also occurs at certain places. As Fig. 6c shows, yielding takes place mainly around fibers with small aspect ratio. All the above micrographs were recorded on composites prepared with the short fibers. For demonstration, we present a micrograph in Fig. 6d taken from the fracture surface of a composite containing the longer fiber. The micrograph delivers practically the same message as the previous ones (Fig. 6a and b), the small difference in fiber length does not change the local processes taking place during deformation.

Acoustic emission testing and the SEM study shows that three processes take place during the deformation of the PLA/bagasse fiber composites. Debonding does not consume much energy thus might not explain the increase in impact resistance, but yielding and fiber fracture might. The fact that considerable fiber fracture takes place is confirmed by the SEM micrographs, but it is further supported by Fig. 7. The characteristic stress of the second process detected by acoustic emission is plotted against fiber content and it is extrapolated to the volume fraction of 1. This approach which can be used only if adhesion is strong and fiber fracture is the dominating local deformation process was used earlier to determine the inherent strength of the fibers [47]. The similar

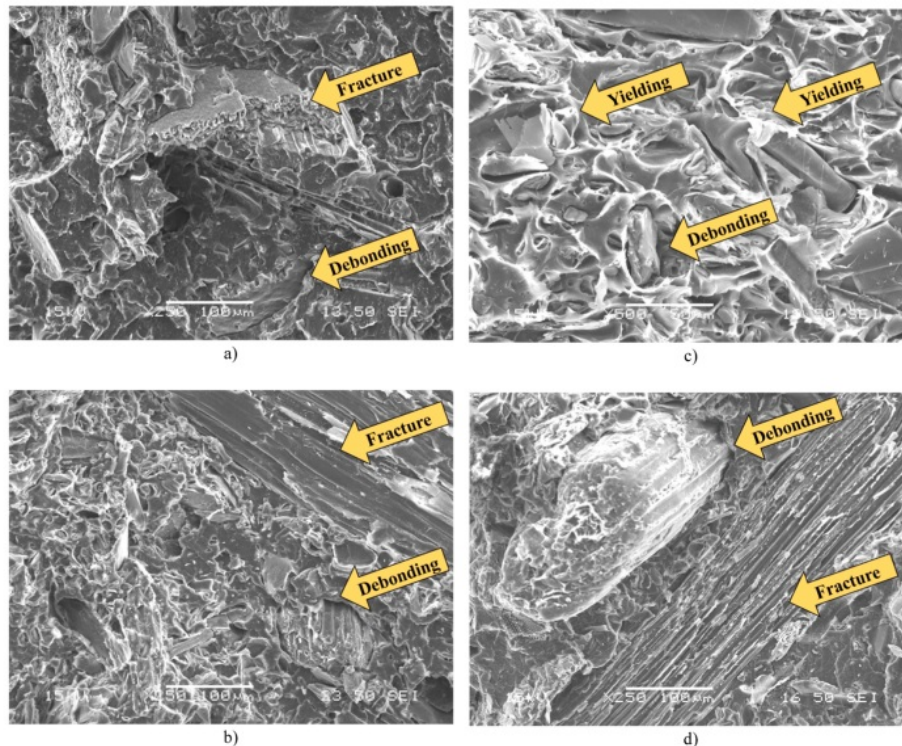


Fig. 6. SEM micrographs recorded on the fracture surface of PLA/bagasse fiber composites. The surfaces were created in tensile testing. Fiber content is always 20 wt%. Local processes are indicated by arrows in the micrographs. a) short fiber without MAPLA (fracture, debonding), b) short fiber with MAPLA (fracture, debonding), c) short fiber without MAPLA (debonding, shear yielding) d) long fiber without MAPLA (fracture debonding). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

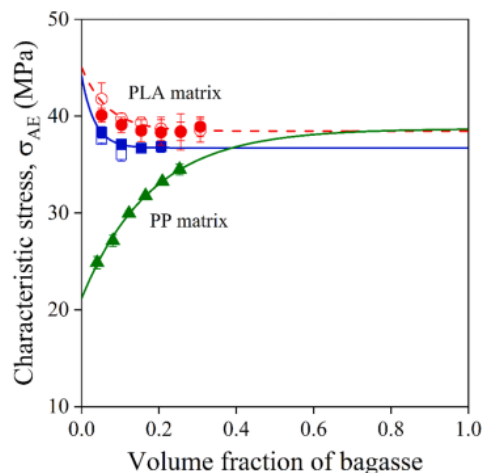


Fig. 7. Composition dependence of the characteristic stress determined during the acoustic emission testing of bagasse fiber composites. Determination of the inherent strength of the fibers [47]. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 1. Additional symbol: (▲) PP/bagasse fiber composite at good adhesion achieved with a maleated PP (MAPP) coupling agent. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

correlation obtained for PP/bagasse fiber composites in the same way is also plotted as a reference. We can see that the correlations extrapolate to very similar values irrespectively of the matrix polymer. Larger fibers extrapolated to a smaller value, because the probability of flaws is larger in them thus their inherent strength is smaller as it was shown earlier for wood particles [47]. From these results we can draw the conclusion that fibers fracture during deformation, mainly parallel to their axis, and the process may contribute to energy absorption.

3.4. Discussion

The production of PLA composites suitable as structural material is rather challenging for several reasons. The stiffness of PLA is reasonable and it can be increased further by the addition of fibers. On the other hand, the physical ageing of this polymer is fast resulting in further increase in stiffness, but a drastic decrease of deformability [17]. The original elongation-at-break value of around 200% for freshly prepared samples decreases to a few percent in less than a week. Accordingly, the material fails in brittle fracture and impact resistance is usually not very large. The addition of stiff fibers to the already brittle polymer is expected to decrease fracture resistance even further.

In our case, however, impact resistance increased upon the addition of bagasse fibers and with increasing fiber content. The effect must result from local deformation processes, of which several takes place during the deformation of the specimen. Earlier experience showed that debonding does not consume much energy, but shear yielding initiated by it or fiber fracture do. Local deformation processes usually determine the macroscopic properties of composites. Close relationship has been shown earlier between one of the local processes and the strength of the composites [12,48]. Tensile strength is plotted against the characteristic stresses of the processes detected by acoustic emission testing in Fig. 8. Shear yielding does not give a signal, thus it cannot be detected in this way. The straight line drawn in the right side of the figure indicates identical characteristic stress and tensile strength, i.e. immediate failure upon the occurrence of the local process. Quite surprisingly, neither process leads to immediate failure. The initiation stress of the first, probably debonding, is much smaller than tensile strength. Failure follows not much after the second process, but not immediately.

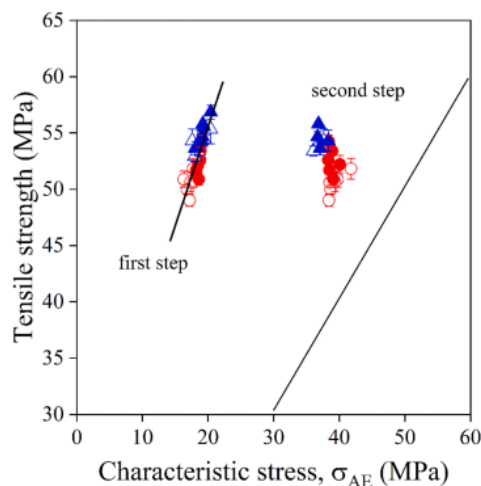


Fig. 8. Correlation between the characteristic stresses of local processes determined by acoustic emission testing and the tensile strength of PLA/bagasse fiber composites. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 1. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Accordingly, the second process may consume energy before failure thus increasing impact resistance. Obviously, the combination of parameters selected in this study leads to the preparation of composites with acceptable properties. Stiffness increases as expected, but local processes initiated by the fibers result in energy absorption and some increase in impact resistance. Good adhesion between the fibers and PLA leads to large strength even without coupling. The combination of these properties makes these composites good candidates for structural applications.

4. Conclusions

The determination of particle characteristics before and after processing showed that considerable attrition takes place during melt processing in both the length and diameter of the fibers. The reinforcement is fiber-like with small aspect ratio and the originally different batches of short and long fibers have similar particle characteristics after processing. The results also confirmed that the interfacial adhesion between PLA and lignocellulosic fibers is good, thus coupling is superfluous and does not improve properties. The analysis of local deformation processes by acoustic emission testing and microscopy showed that three local processes take place in the material during deformation: debonding, shear yielding and the fracture of the fibers. At least two of these processes, shear yielding and fracture, consume sufficiently energy to increase the impact resistance of the material. The modification of PLA with sugarcane bagasse fibers results in considerably increased stiffness, almost constant tensile strength and slightly increased impact resistance yielding a material with reasonable combination of properties for structural applications. Properties might be improved even further with the optimization of the dimensions of the bagasse fibers.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

András Bartos: Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualization. **Kristóf Nagy:** Investigation. **Juliana Anggono:** Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing. **Antoni:** Investigation, Resources. **Hariyati Purwaningsih:** Investigation, Resources. **János Móczó:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Béla Pukánszky:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - original

draft, Supervision.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesa.2021.106273>.

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