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Thin-ply polymer composite materials: a review

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Abstract

The introduction of the *spread-tow thin-ply technology* enabled the development of composite plies as thin as 0.020 mm. The availability of composite plies with a broader thickness range makes the understanding of the effects of ply thickness more pertinent than ever, therefore, a comprehensive literature review is presented in this paper. The micro-structural effects of ply thickness and ply uniformity on the mechanical response of unidirectional laminae is described. Then, the effect of ply thickness scaling on several aspects of the mechanical response of composite laminates is reviewed. Finally, the current state-of-art and recent developments in manufacturing, design and application of thin plies on novel engineered composite laminates are presented. This review demonstrates that thin plies not only bring improvements to the plain strengths and design flexibility of composite laminates, but can also enhance the performance of primary structural applications, namely those driven by residual strength and damage tolerance requirements. This can be achieved by either combining thin plies with existing material technologies, or through novel design principles. Moreover, it is shown that thin plies provide increased flexibility for multifunctional optimisation and for adoption of more efficient manufacturing technologies, with great potential gains in terms of weight savings and cost

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reduction during conceptual and detailed design and operation.

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1. Introduction

Advanced *tow spreading* techniques are currently used to continuously and stably open thick fibre tows and obtain uniform plies significantly thinner than conventional plies [1–3]. A careful control of the tension in the tows (or yarns) allows to cost-effectively produce flat and straight plies with a dry ply thickness as low as 0.020 mm without damaging the filament fibres. The availability of such *thin plies*, with a ply thickness equal to or below 0.100 mm, opens a broad range of new possibilities in composites design, but also new challenges in understanding how ply thickness will affect the mechanical response of composite laminates.

With the aim of understanding the main effects of ply thickness in advanced laminate design, a comprehensive literature review is presented in this paper. Firstly, the micro-structural effects arising from ply thickness on the mechanical response of unidirectional (UD) laminae are discussed. Then, the effect of ply thickness scaling on the mechanical response of multi-directional composite laminates is thoroughly described. Finally, the current state-of-art and recent developments on manufacturing and design of laminates with thin plies and on the application of thin plies in novel engineered composite laminates are presented.

2. Ply thinness and ply uniformity: effect on UD composites

2.1. Intra-laminar material properties

The increased uniformity of spread tows when compared with standard grade materials (Fig. 1) has motivated the study of the effect of ply thickness on the mechanical response of UD composites. The experimental characterisation

25 at the lamina level performed by Amacher et al. [4] show that ply thickness
26 has no significant effect on the elastic and strength properties of the UD lam-
27 inae, except for longitudinal compression. In this case, thin-ply UD specimens
28 show substantially higher strength (up to 20% higher on average [4]). This en-
29 hanced compressive strength is attributed to the more uniform micro-structure
30 of spread-tow thin plies. Optical micrographs (Fig. 1) show that the micro-
31 structure of laminates made of thicker plies are fairly inhomogeneous, with large
32 variations of the local fibre volume fraction and resin rich regions throughout
33 the composite. This heterogeneous micro-structure causes early fibre micro-
34 instabilities that conduct to premature compressive failure of UD laminae [4].
35 As the ply thickness decreases, a better uniformity of the micro-structure is
36 observed, consequently delaying fibre micro-instabilities.

37 When used in the weaving process of woven fabrics, spread tows not only
38 contribute to an improved uniformity of the micro-structure [4], but also to
39 a better uniformity of the woven architecture [5]. Due to the reduced fibre
40 waviness and crimp angles, micro- and meso-instabilities in the fibre direction
41 can be effectively delayed. Longitudinal compressive strength improvements of
42 up to 18% have been reported for UD and multi-directional plain weave [spread-](#)
43 [tow fabric](#) laminates just by reducing the tow areal weight [6].

44 *2.2. Inter-laminar material properties*

45 *2.2.1. Inter-laminar shear strength*

46 Micro-structural uniformity has also potential effects on the inter-laminar
47 properties of composites. Not only the inter-laminar shear strength (ILSS)
48 of UD laminates increases (in the range of 30%), but also the coefficients of
49 variation of the ILSS data decrease with decreasing ply thickness [7]. Both
50 effects were attributed to the more uniform micro-structure and smaller inter-
51 laminar resin-rich regions of thin-ply laminates (Fig. 1) [4, 7].

52 *2.2.2. Inter-laminar fracture toughness*

53 The inter-laminar fracture of UD composites is often characterised by an ap-
54 parent increase of the fracture toughness with crack extension, leading to a crack
55 resistance curve (or \mathcal{R} -curve) type of response [8–11]. This can be attributed,
56 among other phenomena, to fibre bridging [10, 11]. The extremely uniform
57 micro-structure of very thin plies means that the potential for large-scale fibre
58 bridging in UD composites is reduced when compared with more heterogeneous
59 grades — see Fig. 2. Consequently, a flatter \mathcal{R} -curve, characterised by a lower
60 steady-state value of the fracture toughness, can be expected for crack prop-
61 agation parallel to the fibres. These observations have been corroborated by
62 experiments carried out by Frossard et al. [12] for mode I inter-laminar frac-
63 ture. Conversely, the mode II fracture toughness is practically insensitive to ply
64 thickness [13], attributed to the minor role of dissipative mechanisms such as
65 fibre bridging in the mode II component of the fracture toughness.

66 *2.3. Discussion*

67 It is apparent that the ply uniformity resulting from ply thinness has a
68 strong beneficial effect on the longitudinal compressive strength and ILSS of
69 UD composites. The enhanced longitudinal compressive strength can be con-
70 sidered one of the main contributors to the improved compressive plain strength
71 of multi-directional laminates with thin plies [6, 14, 15]. However, the enhanced
72 ILSS measured from UD coupons is not expected to have a major role on the
73 ILSS of multi-directional laminates, since the effect of ply thickness on the
74 inter-laminar stress distribution [7] is considered the dominant effect on the im-
75 proved inter-laminar shear performance of multi-directional thin-ply laminates,
76 overwhelming the micro-structural effects observed on UD laminates. For exam-
77 ple, Kalfon-Cohen et al. [16] tested blocked (*thick baseline*) and dispersed (*thin*
78 *baseline*) laminates manufactured from the same thin-ply composite system,
79 obtaining higher ILSS on the *thin baseline*. Since the same thin-ply composite
80 system was used in both laminates, no micro-structural effects should be ex-
81 pected, and the higher ILSS solely attributed to the effect of ply thickness on

82 the inter-laminar stress distribution. Similar trends were obtained by Huang
83 et al. [7] on multi-directional laminates manufactured from plies with different
84 grades.

85 The same applies to the inter-laminar fracture toughness. Although bridging
86 effects play a minor role on the inter-laminar fracture behaviour of UD thin-
87 ply composites, leading to lower steady-state values of the fracture toughness
88 when compared with conventional composites, in multi-directional laminates
89 bridging phenomena is expected to be governed not by the uniformity of the
90 micro-structure, but by the relative ply orientations and local stress state at the
91 crack tip [17, 18] due to the fact that delaminations tend to propagate between
92 plies with dissimilar orientation.

93 **3. Ply thickness scaling and its effect on composite laminates**

94 *3.1. Motivation*

95 In the past, several studies have addressed the effect of stacking sequence
96 and ply thickness scaling on several aspects of the mechanical response of com-
97 posite laminates [19–65]. These studies, which involved detailed experimental
98 campaigns and/or analysis methods, have contributed to the understanding of
99 the effect of ply thickness scaling on the nature of the damage mechanisms that
100 cause laminate failure. However, the introduction of spread-tow thin plies makes
101 this analysis more pertinent than ever, since the majority of the studies carried
102 out in the past addressed ply thickness effects by means of ply scaling restricted
103 to a minimum nominal ply thickness of 0.125 mm, considerably above what can
104 be obtained nowadays using tow spreading.

105 *3.2. Matrix cracking and in-situ effect*

106 *3.2.1. Constraining effects and in-situ strengths*

107 When embedded in a multi-directional laminate, the laminae whose fibre
108 orientation is perpendicular to the loading direction generally develop matrix
109 cracks at strains lower than the ultimate failure strain of the laminate (Fig. 3)

110 [66, 67]. These matrix cracks are responsible for the deterioration of the me-
111 chanical performance of the laminate, originating other damage modes (e.g.
112 delamination), and creating pathways for chemicals and other substances [68].

113 Nevertheless, it is observed that the development of these matrix cracks
114 (which define the actual strength of the transverse plies) occurs at applied
115 stresses greater than the transverse strength measured in UD coupons; in fact,
116 the actual strengths of transverse plies are not only higher than those mea-
117 sured in UD coupons, but they reportedly increase with decreasing ply thickness
118 [22, 23, 67, 69]. This is a deterministic size effect that occurs at the meso-scale,
119 known as the *in-situ* effect. The neighbouring plies cause a constraining effect
120 on the embedded ply, reducing the available elastic energy and delaying dam-
121 age propagation in the matrix [4, 70–73]. Therefore, the ply strengths cannot
122 be treated as intrinsic lamina properties [22, 74], but as *in-situ* properties that
123 depend on the material and geometry of the laminate [23, 69, 75].

124 Several experimental studies in the literature show that the transverse tensile
125 strength (Y_T^{is}) and the in-plane shear strength (S_L^{is}) of an embedded ply depend
126 on the ply thickness [19–22, 24, 67, 74], on the orientation (or stiffness) of the
127 adjacent plies [22, 74] (see Fig. 4), and on the ply location in the laminate [40, 76]
128 (see Fig. 5). Indirect observations also show that the transverse shear strength
129 (S_T^{is}) [16, 77–80] and the transverse compressive strength (Y_C^{is}) [77, 78, 81] are
130 *in-situ* properties too.

131 3.2.2. *In-situ transverse tensile strength*

132 From the late 1970s [19–21] to the late 1990s [22–24], experimental studies
133 demonstrated that, when subjected to tensile loads, the transverse stress at the
134 onset of matrix cracking in the 90° laminae of glass and carbon fibre-reinforced
135 polymer laminates changes with the thickness of the 90° laminae and orientation
136 of the adjacent plies. Experimental observations (e.g. Fig. 4) show that the
137 transverse stress at the onset of matrix cracking increases with decreasing ply
138 thickness and increasing stiffness of the adjacent laminae.

139 In the early 1980s, Herakovich [76] showed that the ultimate stress, the

140 strain-to-failure and the toughness (measured as the area under the experimen-
141 tally obtained stress-strain curves) of angle-ply laminates is higher when plies
142 of the same orientation are dispersed through the laminate instead of blocked
143 together due to a delay in matrix cracking that caused a strong change in the
144 nature and sequence of the failure mechanisms (Fig. 6). More recently, Fuller
145 and Wisnom [82] showed that matrix cracking parallel to the fibre direction
146 in angle-ply laminates can be completely suppressed using a spread-tow thin-
147 ply composite material, leading to a **brittle type of net-section** fibre-dominated
148 failure mode (Fig. 6 – right).

149 Similar experimental observations reported severe degradation of the elastic
150 properties with increasing transverse ply thickness in cross-ply laminates [70].
151 Thinner transverse plies are less susceptible to transverse crack initiation or
152 propagation in the width direction, with edge cracks occurring at higher strain
153 levels than in thicker 90° plies of quasi-isotropic and cross-ply laminates [83].
154 In addition, the stress concentrations on the 0° plies arising from transverse
155 cracking in thick 90° ply blocks can have a measurable effect on the strength of
156 the 0° ligaments and induce premature laminate failure too [44].

157 To predict these effects, progressive damage modelling formulated taking
158 into account the *in-situ* effect revealed high efficiency, accurately capturing the
159 reduction in the maximum failure load due to ply clustering in open-hole angle-
160 ply and cross-ply laminates under tensile loading [84].

161 More recently, an increasing number of studies have demonstrated that the
162 applied stress corresponding to the occurrence of the first transverse crack in-
163 creases with decreasing ply thickness [34, 40, 68, 85–89], and that a reduction
164 of the stiffness of the adjacent plies promotes transverse cracking [68, 85]. The
165 first studies addressing transverse cracking in spread-tow thin plies appeared in
166 the early 2000s. Uniaxial tensile quasi-static tests on un-notched and open-hole
167 multi-directional laminates [4, 6, 28, 30, 66, 80, 90–94] showed that first-ply fail-
168 ure (FPF) is delayed nearly up to ultimate failure, as observed by free-edge ob-
169 servations, scanning electron microscope (SEM) visualisation, acoustic emission
170 and/or digital image correlation (e.g. Fig. 7), and often supported by analysis

171 [73, 91, 92]. In addition, much lower crack-opening displacements have been
172 reported for transverse cracks in thin plies, which eventually never penetrate
173 completely through the thickness [66]. In the case of quasi-isotropic laminates,
174 this provides a safe space that is independent of the loading direction [95], since
175 laminate failure will be fibre-dominated.

176 To clarify the nature of this size effect, Amacher et al. [4] tested thick-ply
177 laminates produced from blocks of ten 30 g/m² thin plies and from individual
178 300 g/m² plies, and no substantial difference was found between these two lam-
179 inates, demonstrating that the observed size effect was not related to changes
180 in the material properties or micro-structure, but to the deterministic *in-situ*
181 effect.

182 3.2.3. *In-situ in-plane shear strength*

183 Even though most of the studies addressing ply *in-situ* effects have been
184 focused on matrix cracking in tension, this deterministic size effect was also
185 observed under other loading scenarios. For example, experiments suggest a
186 significant ply thickness effect on the in-plane shear strength of embedded plies
187 [74, 96, 97].

188 The relation between the *in-situ* in-plane shear strength and the ply thick-
189 ness can be taken into account using fracture mechanics models and the intra-
190 laminar mode II fracture toughness [23, 69]. It is noted, though, that linear
191 elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) alone is not able to accurately predict the
192 *in-situ* in-plane shear strength [69]; in this case, the nonlinear shear response
193 typically observed in fibre-reinforced polymers (FRPs) must be included in the
194 fracture mechanics model (Fig. 8).

195 3.2.4. *In-situ transverse shear and transverse compressive strengths*

196 Experimental studies have also shown that a substantial reduction in longi-
197 tudinal compressive and transverse shear strengths can result from transverse
198 cracking (see Ref. [22] for earlier references). Therefore, an *in-situ* effect on other
199 matrix-dominated failure mechanisms is expected to exist, namely on transverse

200 shear cracking, wedge transverse compressive fracture, and fibre kinking.

201 The application of three-dimensional (3D) phenomenological failure criteria
202 has been proposed to estimate and take into account the *in-situ* effect on the
203 transverse shear and transverse compressive strengths of embedded plies [77, 78].
204 According to these models, not only Y_T^{is} and S_L^{is} are assumed *in-situ* properties
205 (calculated using e.g. the models proposed by Camanho et al. [69]), but also
206 Y_C^{is} and S_T^{is} (Fig. 9).

207 In multi-directional laminates, transverse shear cracks typically appear as
208 inclined mode I transverse shear cusps (Fig. 10), which deflect into delaminations
209 [79]. Similarly to constrained transverse plies loaded in tension, the constraining
210 effect of the stiffer adjacent plies reduces the available elastic energy within the
211 ply, delaying transverse shear crack growth in the matrix [4, 70–72]. Although
212 there is no direct experimental evidence of an *in-situ* effect in transverse shear,
213 analysis models can predict this deterministic size effect [77–79].

214 Similarly, there is no direct experimental evidence of an *in-situ* effect in com-
215 pression. However, recent studies, which addressed directly or indirectly the
216 effect of ply thickness on the compressive properties of multi-directional lami-
217 nates, indicate that ply thickness affects the compressive response of polymer
218 composites [40, 41, 98]. These observations were later supported by a detailed
219 representation of the mechanics of transverse compressive failure and associ-
220 ated *in-situ* effect using a 3D computational micro-mechanics framework [81].
221 A clear *in-situ* effect in transverse compression was identified (see Figs. 11–12).

222 Finally, it is noted that analysis models [77, 78, 99] also predict a positive
223 contribution of the *in-situ* effect to the resistance to fibre-dominated compres-
224 sive failure mechanisms (Fig. 13). Assuming that fibre kinking is triggered by
225 localised matrix failure in the vicinity of misaligned fibres, higher matrix *in-situ*
226 strengths will lead to an enhanced failure behaviour under combined longitudi-
227 nal compressive and transverse stress states, which can also be related to the
228 improved compressive response of laminates with thin plies [40, 41, 98].

229 *3.3. Delamination*

230 Delamination between plies is a common damage mechanism in composite
231 laminates due to their relatively weak inter-laminar properties [25, 49]. The
232 structural integrity of composite structures is particularly sensitive to this failure
233 mechanism because, typically, no visual defect is visible from the surface of the
234 laminates, making delamination difficult to detect during visual inspection.

235 Delaminations can have several sources, including manufacturing defects
236 (due to incomplete curing, introduction of foreign particles, or from transverse
237 cracks caused by residual stresses) [25], impact damage [51, 54, 100–102], early
238 matrix cracking [26, 30, 103], or geometric discontinuities such as free edges,
239 curved sections, sudden changes of cross section, ply drops, stiffener termina-
240 tions and flanges, or open holes, which cause high inter-laminar stress concen-
241 trations [25, 29, 30, 104].

242 The study of the effect of ply thickness on delamination onset and growth
243 dates back to the early 1980's [25, 26], when relevant analysis programmes
244 showed that delaminations form at a lower nominal applied strain in laminates
245 scaled by increasing the ply thickness (or the number of plies blocked together).
246 Similar results were reported more recently [27]. Similarly, matrix cracking-
247 induced delamination (MCID) initiates at lower applied strains when the ply
248 thickness increases, findings supported by other authors [85, 105] and by anal-
249 ysis methods [106]. Due to lower *in-situ* strengths, early ply cracking occurs in
250 the transverse plies (see Fig. 14), causing local stress concentrations at the inter-
251 faces with the surrounding plies that induce premature delamination onset. In
252 addition, higher energy release rates (ERRs) at the interfaces between thick plies
253 lead to early delamination onset and growth at those interfaces. The combina-
254 tion of these two effects contribute to the marked reduction of the delamination
255 onset strain shown in Fig. 14 as the number of ply repetitions increases. Fig. 14
256 also shows that this early delamination onset leads to premature laminate fail-
257 ure, caused by the local stress concentrations at the load carrying plies induced
258 by the early matrix cracks and delaminations. As the transverse plies become
259 thinner, matrix cracking is delayed, forcing delamination to start from the free

260 edges. The predominant type of inter-laminar damage changes from MCID to
261 FED (free-edge delamination), delaying laminate failure (see Fig. 14).

262 More recently, other studies have demonstrated, through direct or indirect
263 experimental observations and analysis methods, the benefits of ply thinness in
264 suppressing the onset and propagation of delamination in coupons [4, 7, 16, 28–
265 30, 80, 95, 107, 108] and structural details [109]. It is interesting to note that,
266 based on numerical studies, independently of the ultimate failure mode, neglect-
267 ing delamination in the analysis of conventional laminates leads to inaccurate
268 predictions of the ultimate strengths [39]. However, given the ability of thin-
269 ply laminates to suppress delamination, complex nonlinear analysis models that
270 simulate inter-laminar damage onset and growth are no longer necessary for
271 accurate prediction of the failure behaviour of this class of composite materials
272 [110, 111].

273 Finally, it should be noted that, due to the low out-of-plane strength of com-
274 posite laminates, their use in applications with important through-thickness
275 stresses, such as those observed in stiffened panels (in particular when sub-
276 jected to bending loads), ply drops (e.g. from laminate tapering) or L-shaped
277 structures (typical of box structures, such as wings or wind turbine blades), is
278 generally restricted. In fact, delamination failure caused by through-thickness,
279 out-of-plane reactions is one of the main obstacles to the replacement of current
280 metallic curved sections by composite ones in advanced lightweight construc-
281 tion. The ability of thin plies to delay, or even suppress [delamination caused
282 by free edge effects](#) without the need of special resins, interleaving solutions or
283 through-thickness reinforcements makes laminates with thin plies [also](#) attractive
284 for this type of applications.

285 *3.4. Fibre failure modes*

286 *3.4.1. Intra-laminar longitudinal strengths*

287 *Intra-laminar fibre failure* is typically characterised by fibre fracture, fibre-
288 matrix debonding and subsequent pull-out in tension, or by shear-driven fibre
289 failure and fibre kinking in compression, often leading to ultimate, catastrophic

290 laminate failure. It is therefore important to understand how ply thickness can
291 affect intra-laminar failure involving fibre fracture. This has special significance
292 since the strength and the energy released by fibre-dominated failure modes
293 are much larger than those involving matrix-dominated failure modes, either
294 intra-laminar matrix cracking (Sect. 3.2) or delamination (Sect. 3.3).

295 In tension, a ply thickness effect on the longitudinal ply strengths is not
296 expected [42, 43]. However, the laminate strength is strongly influenced by
297 the thickness of the transverse and off-axis plies due to early matrix cracking
298 (Sect. 3.2) and delamination (Sect. 3.3), as shown in Fig. 14. In fact, the sub-
299 critical damage suppression capability of thin plies allows obtaining strains-to-
300 failure approaching the maximum elongation of the reinforcing fibres [112, 113],
301 thus exploiting the full load carrying capacity of the composite system. In
302 compression, an effect of the matrix *in-situ* strengths is also believed to improve
303 the overall response under combined longitudinal compressive and transverse
304 stress states (see Fig. 13).

305 3.4.2. Intra-laminar longitudinal fracture toughness

306 The determination of the intra-laminar fracture toughness associated with
307 fibre failure modes is currently extremely important in the assessment of the
308 damage tolerance of composite structures and their behaviour during damage
309 propagation [114–117], as well as in the definition of the softening laws used in
310 recent computational analysis models [118–121] and in establishing the energy
311 equilibrium equations used in closed-form solutions [122] that predict the ulti-
312 mate strength of composite laminates. Because lay-up, geometry and size can
313 affect the measured ERR, care must be taken when determining the fracture
314 toughness associated with this failure mode.

315 It is also worth noting that, even though the fracture toughness can be char-
316 acterised by a single parameter, it may be represented more accurately in the
317 form of an \mathcal{R} -curve, relating the change in the critical ERR with crack growth
318 [115–117, 123–125], or in the form of a cohesive law, relating the cohesive stresses
319 inside the fracture process zone with the cohesive crack opening [126, 127]. This

320 is because intra-laminar damage propagation involving fibre fracture is char-
321 acterised by growing resistance before the damage process zone is completely
322 developed, namely due to (i) load redistribution resulting from micro-cracking,
323 splitting and/or delamination, which relieve the stress concentration and delays
324 fracture to higher applied loads [122, 128–131], and (ii) bridging by the intact
325 fibres of the plies that are adjacent to the principal load-carrying plies with
326 broken fibres [129, 130].

327 The studies focused on compressive failure are considerably less comprehen-
328 sive than those on tension [125], even though the intra-laminar fracture tough-
329 ness, \mathcal{R} -curve, or cohesive law associated with the propagation of a kink band
330 are very important in the analysis of the damage tolerance of FRP structures.

331 *Compact Tension (CT) and Compact Compression (CC)*. The CT configura-
332 tion (Fig. 15a) is perhaps the most widely used specimen configuration for intra-
333 laminar fracture toughness measurement of composites [125]. For characterisa-
334 tion of the compressive fracture toughness, a configuration similar to the CT
335 test specimen has also been used by reversal of the loading configuration, known
336 as the CC test specimen (Fig. 15b) [123, 125].

337 CT-type tests are usually devised such that extraneous damage modes are
338 minimised and a brittle type of crack progression occurs from the pre-machined
339 notch to measure the laminate or the ply intra-laminar fracture toughness. How-
340 ever, whereas dispersed-ply laminates exhibit stable crack growth through the
341 whole thickness, blocked-ply laminates are characterised by a large amount of
342 splitting and delamination [33].

343 In laminates with dispersed plies, the local stress at the notch tip is suffi-
344 ciently high to allow through-thickness crack progression across the width of the
345 specimen due to the absence of blunting effects as a result of reduced sub-critical
346 damage. The constraining effect imposed by the off-axis plies on dispersed 0°
347 plies prevents the occurrence of split cracking (in-plane shear matrix cracks,
348 Sect. 3.2.3), resulting in the desired brittle type of failure mode. This split
349 cracking suppression is specially strong in thin-ply laminates (Fig. 16).

350 Laminates with blocked plies, however, are characterised by a larger damage
351 process zone due to the development of splitting and delamination (Fig. 17a)
352 [34–36], which can be attributed to the lower constraint [44] and higher ERR
353 at the interfaces adjacent to the 0° ply blocks. Damage often spreads from
354 the pre-notch without clear through-thickness fracture propagation [132]. This
355 leads to a significant reduction of the stress concentration at the notch tip that
356 ultimately conducts to an apparent tougher laminate. This apparent increase
357 of the intra-laminar fracture toughness for fibre tensile failure modes has been
358 also attributed to an increase in fibre pull-out in the thicker 0° layers (Fig. 17b)
359 [37].

360 Based on these results, a ply thickness effect on the energy released during
361 intra-laminar fibre tensile failure has been documented [13, 37, 133], suggesting
362 that the intra-laminar fracture toughness associated with mode I crack propaga-
363 tion perpendicularly to the fibre direction is not simply a material property, but
364 rather an *in situ* property [37, 114], in spite of contradictory results showing no
365 notable difference in the intra-laminar fracture toughness of quasi-isotropic lam-
366 inates with dispersed or blocked plies [33, 38]. In fact, the occurrence or extent
367 of other failure mechanisms and their effect on the measured intra-laminar fibre
368 fracture toughness are often not discussed in sufficient detail [13, 37, 38, 133].

369 Based on the assumption of an *in situ* intra-laminar fibre fracture toughness,
370 Chen et al. [39] employed a cohesive zone model accounting for a thickness-
371 dependent mode I intra-laminar fracture toughness perpendicular to the fibre
372 direction in the prediction of the tensile strength of open-hole laminates. A sim-
373 ple linear scaling of the fracture toughness with the thickness of the 0° ply block
374 was applied. Chen et al. [39] concluded that accounting for this dependency is
375 necessary to predict ply thickness effects in multi-directional laminates. How-
376 ever, the effect of other damage mechanisms such as splitting or delamination
377 was not detailed.

378 Because split cracking and local delamination in the vicinity of the crack
379 tip blunts the stress concentration, crack restraining in thick 0° plies cannot be
380 attributed solely to an intrinsically higher fracture resistance, as the apparent

381 increase of fracture toughness is due to the development of a large damage
382 process zone containing split cracking and localised delaminations that modifies
383 the stress field in the vicinity of the notch tip, as detailed earlier by Li et al.
384 [33]. Intra-laminar fracture toughness scaling [39] allows accounting for the
385 additional stress relaxation that results from the development of a larger damage
386 process zone. However, it is not clear whether such virtual scaling of the fracture
387 toughness is applicable to more complex loading scenarios, where the sequence
388 and extent of the blunting mechanisms can be different.

389 By suppressing split cracking (e.g. Fig. 16a), stress redistribution ahead
390 of the crack tip is precluded in laminates with thin plies, leading to a lower
391 apparent fracture toughness. This effect was confirmed by Bullegas et al. [134],
392 by showing that the intra-laminar fibre fracture toughness of thin-ply laminates
393 can be increased several fold when split cracking is favoured through properly
394 placed micro-cut patterns ahead of the crack front, promoting bundle pull-out
395 during crack propagation (Fig. 17b).

396 *Size effect law.* As an alternative to CT- and CC-type test specimens, a method-
397 ology based on the *size effect law* [135] can be used to measure the intra-laminar
398 fracture toughness and the \mathcal{R} -curve of composite laminates in mode I tension
399 [116, 136] and compression [115], as well as in mode II [117]. According to this
400 methodology, the \mathcal{R} -curve can be measured taking into account that, for differ-
401 ent characteristic sizes (w_n), assuming that the size effect law $\bar{\sigma}^\infty = \bar{\sigma}^\infty(w)$ is
402 known, the driving force curves \mathcal{G}_I at the ultimate remote stresses ($\bar{\sigma}^\infty(w_n)$) are
403 tangent to the \mathcal{R} -curve (Fig. 18). In other words, the \mathcal{R} -curve can be determined
404 as the envelope of the crack driving force curves at the ultimate remote stresses
405 (e.g. Ref. [137]). The size effect law can be easily obtained from *geometrically*

406 *similar specimens*¹ of different sizes with a *positive geometry*² [115–117].

407 Using the size effect method, Catalanotti et al. [116] obtained the \mathcal{R} -curve
408 associated with intra-laminar fracture of different carbon/epoxy systems and
409 reinforcements (including non-crimp and woven fabrics). Scaled double edge-
410 notched specimens (Fig. 18) were used. One of the laminates tested by Cata-
411 lanotti et al. [116] was an NCF thin-ply laminate, with a minimum nominal ply
412 thickness of 0.080 mm. When compared with conventional laminates (nominal
413 ply thickness of 0.125 mm), the value of the intra-laminar fracture toughness of
414 the 0° ply, estimated using the model presented by Camanho and Catalanotti
415 [140], [and the length of the fracture process zone indicates](#) that laminates with
416 thin plies are [not inherently brittle](#)³. Although sub-critical failure mechanisms
417 such as delamination and splitting were apparently absent, a crack resistance
418 behaviour was still observed, which could be linked to a crack bridging phe-
419 nomenon ahead of the crack tip [122].

420 *Notched strength.* Notched specimen configurations are often used in the design
421 process of composite structures to account for the effects of the presence of high
422 stress concentrations, originated, for instance, by discrete sources of damage
423 [141]. The Centre-Notched Tension (CNT) configuration is perhaps the most
424 widely used.

425 CNT specimens can also be used to measure the mode I tensile fracture
426 toughness of composite laminates [40, 41, 125, 140], while a similar configu-

¹*Geometrically similar specimens* have constant ratio between the characteristic dimension, e.g. the width of the specimen, and the remaining dimensions, namely the crack length and the gauge length of the specimen. Although not mandatory, the use of geometrically similar specimens in the measurement of the \mathcal{R} -curve of polymer composites provides simpler and more accurate solutions [138].

²In structures with a *positive geometry*, the ERR at constant load must increase with crack extension [139]. In other words, the geometry correction factor must be an increasing function of the crack length. Nearly all classical notched fracture specimens have a positive geometry [139].

³[An inherently brittle material would exhibit a negligible fracture process zone and a low fracture toughness, which is not the case of laminates with thin plies.](#)

427 ration, the *Centre-Notched Compression* (CNC), can be used to measure the
428 compressive fracture toughness by reversal of the loading direction [40, 41, 125].
429 However, a centre-notched specimen alone only provides a single value of the
430 intra-laminar fracture toughness, which is below the steady-state value unless
431 a sufficiently large centre-notched specimen, able to develop the full fracture
432 process zone (FPZ), is tested; the characterisation of the \mathcal{R} -curve is therefore
433 not possible.

434 Previous studies [40, 41, 122] indicate that the ply thickness effect on the
435 intra-laminar fracture of composite laminates is not related with an intrinsically
436 higher fracture toughness of thicker 0° plies. Instead, it is related with a higher
437 propensity to develop sub-critical damage mechanisms such as delamination
438 due to higher inter-laminar stresses at the interfaces between thicker plies, and
439 longitudinal split cracking due to lower *in situ* shear strengths that allow the
440 development of matrix cracks parallel to the fibre direction (Fig. 17a). These
441 damage mechanisms cause a stress redistribution around the notch tip that de-
442 lays intra-laminar fracture perpendicularly to the fibres, leading to an important
443 notch blunting effect [40, 142], and apparently increasing the laminate fracture
444 toughness, as explained earlier.

445 *Discussion.* Based on these observations, it seems that the development of sub-
446 critical damage mechanisms, specially longitudinal split cracking, is the main
447 reason for the differences in the measured intra-laminar fracture toughness for
448 laminates with different ply thickness. This observation motivated Furtado et al.
449 [42] and Arteiro et al. [43] to combine 0° ply blocks with dispersed transverse
450 and off-axis thin plies to successfully increase the notched strength of thin-ply
451 laminates without compromising their intrinsically high un-notched strength.

452 Finally, it is noted that the existence of different techniques to measure
453 the intra-laminar fracture toughness associated with mode I crack propagation
454 perpendicularly to the fibre direction hinders a definitive conclusion about the
455 effect of ply thickness on this property, and, therefore, further studies are still
456 required to improve the knowledge about this topic.

457 *3.5. Size effects*

458 The mechanical response of a composite laminate is usually dependent on
459 the coupon size (or volume), even when all other characteristics are preserved.
460 The understanding of this *size effect* is of great importance when using strength
461 data from small coupons in the design of large load-bearing structures [35, 138,
462 139, 143, 144].

463 *3.5.1. Size effects in smooth coupons*

464 Detailed studies show that the un-notched strengths of multi-directional
465 composite laminates with sub-laminate scaling, where the basic sub-laminate
466 is repeated as often as required to increase the laminate thickness (and the
467 thickness of each UD layer is therefore constant and equal to the thickness of
468 a single ply) is higher than laminates with ply scaling, where plies of the same
469 orientation are stacked together to increase the effective ply thickness (Fig. 19)
470 [44–47]. These studies also show that laminates scaled at the sub-laminate level
471 exhibit no load drops or visual indications of damage prior to ultimate failure,
472 which is characterised by a fairly clean break across the width in the gauge
473 section. Laminates scaled at the ply level, on the other hand, exhibit trans-
474 verse and split cracking and delamination from the off-axis plies, leading to a
475 detrimental size effect (Fig. 19).

476 *3.5.2. Hole size effects in tension*

477 When a notched multi-directional laminate is loaded in tension, fibre-matrix
478 splitting in the 0° plies and localised delaminations can occur at the hole edge,
479 acting as important notch blunting mechanisms that affect the stress concentra-
480 tion at the hole edge, and consequently the notched strength. But as the hole
481 size increases, it becomes more difficult for the delaminations to grow and link
482 through-the-thickness, and for splitting to occur, leading to a *hole size effect*
483 characterised by a change in strength of laminates with a centrally located open
484 hole of different sizes, but constant stress concentration across the width (i.e.

485 constant width-to-hole diameter ratio⁴) [48–50].

486 The hole size effect is generally dependent on many factors, and therefore not
487 always result in the same trends for all laminates. In particular, ply thickness
488 plays an important role on these trends, which can be explained by the role of
489 sub-critical damage in the laminate failure mode [49].

490 Laminates with sufficiently thin plies fail by fibre fracture, because the fibre
491 failure stress is reached before extensive delamination growth and fibre-matrix
492 splitting [48, 49]. Intra-laminar fracture initiates at the hole edge and prop-
493 agates across the width, sometimes restricted to the outermost sub-laminate
494 [48, 145]. This leads to a fibre failure mode, with either pull-out or brittle
495 appearance, depending on the extent of matrix damage mechanisms. As the
496 hole size increases, delamination propagation becomes more localised, reducing
497 further the blunting effect of delamination and splitting, and decreasing the
498 notched strength, giving rise to the *conventional hole size effect* (Fig. 20).

499 With sufficiently thick plies (or thick ply blocks), delamination becomes the
500 predominant failure mechanism, which easily propagates across the width un-
501 til reaching the straight free edges of the specimen. Delamination then steps
502 through the adjacent interfaces via transverse and off-axis matrix cracks, reach-
503 ing the interface with the 0° plies, and isolating them [48, 145]. This leads to
504 complete gauge section delamination of the interfaces adjacent to the 0° plies,
505 resulting in early delamination failure [48, 49]. Even though the specimens
506 may be able to sustain additional loading due to the load carrying capacity
507 of the remaining 0° ligaments, delamination propagation can be considered an
508 appropriate definition of failure because these specimens lose their structural
509 integrity upon delamination propagation [50]. By increasing the hole size, and
510 keeping constant the width-to-hole diameter ratio, it becomes harder for the
511 delaminations to propagate and join up across the wider ligaments before fi-
512 bre fracture. In these conditions, complete loss of structural integrity is de-

⁴It is important to note that when the width is kept constant for varying hole sizes, the varying stress distribution across the width may obscure the underlying size effects [50].

513 layed and the notched strength increases, resulting in an *inverse hole size effect*
514 [48, 49, 145] (Fig. 20).

515 For laminates with intermediate ply thickness, a transition of failure mecha-
516 nisms, from delamination to fibre failure, may occur as the coupon size increases.
517 Specimens with small holes may fail by delamination, and specimens with large
518 holes may fail by fibre fracture. In these cases, the competing failure mecha-
519 nisms can lead to a flat response, with an almost constant notched strength over
520 a range of hole sizes [48, 49].

521 Based on these observations, Wisnom and co-workers [48, 49] concluded that
522 the hole diameter-to-ply block thickness ratio is the critical parameter affect-
523 ing how easily delaminations propagate, and consequently how the laminate
524 strengths change with changing hole diameters. For high hole diameter-to-ply
525 block thickness ratios — the case of laminates with thin plies — delamination
526 is not likely to occur. These observations have been confirmed not only on
527 conventional laminates [40], but also on NCF thin-ply laminates [15, 41].

528 3.5.3. Hole size effects in compression

529 For the hole size effect in compression, three distinct failure mechanisms, all
530 possibly leading to catastrophic failure, have been observed depending on size
531 and lay-up, namely longitudinal compressive failure induced by shear-driven fi-
532 bre fracture or by fibre kinking, push-out between plies and delamination [50].
533 Laminates with sufficiently thin plies exhibit a more brittle failure mode, char-
534 acterised by a straight fracture across the laminate. Since sub-critical damage
535 mechanisms, such as delamination and fibre splitting, are inhibited by the con-
536 straining effect of the thinner sub-laminates, the stress in the 0° plies increases
537 to a level high enough to trigger longitudinal compressive failure. Laminates
538 with thick plies (or thick ply blocks) show fracture of the angle plies, fibre-
539 matrix splitting and local delamination or push-out between plies before 0° ply
540 failure (Fig. 21). This local damage leads to a stress redistribution around the
541 hole, reducing the stress concentration and delaying ultimate laminate failure
542 to a higher applied stress. For this reason, the compressive notched strengths

543 of laminates with blocked plies tend to be higher than the notched strengths of
544 laminates with thin plies [15, 40, 41, 46, 47].

545 It is noted, however, that results presented elsewhere [4, 6, 14, 146] show
546 that laminates with thinner plies have equal or higher compressive notched
547 strengths. On one hand, the type and extent of the damage that develops
548 around the hole can be affected by the boundary conditions used to support and
549 load the specimen in compression (e.g. out-of-plane constraining), contributing
550 to the observed differences. On the other hand, the intrinsically higher com-
551 pressive strength of spread-tow UD plies [4] and fabrics [6] promoted by their
552 superior micro- and meso-structural uniformity (Sect. 2.1) also contributes to
553 an improved compressive notched response; despite the lack of stress relaxation
554 due to the absence of sub-critical damage mechanisms, the higher compressive
555 strengths of the 0° thin plies delay laminate failure, even in the presence of
556 a notch. It is therefore clear that, to account for the effect of ply thickness
557 on the compressive strength of notched laminates, it is not only important to
558 understand meso-scale effects such as the type and extent of damage prior to ul-
559 timate failure, but also the role of extrinsic and intrinsic factors such boundary
560 conditions and micro-structural characteristics.

561 *3.5.4. Effect of laminate thickness*

562 Wisnom et al. [50], after gathering extensive work on scaling of un-notched
563 and open-hole specimens, discussed the effect of laminate thickness on the
564 strength of laminates, and how ply thickness scaling affects the observed trends.
565 Increasing the laminate thickness by ply scaling leads to a severe tensile strength
566 reduction in the un-notched and open-hole laminates, which show very similar
567 trends (Figs. 19 and 22). This is attributed to easier delamination propagation
568 as the laminate thickness increases with ply thickness.

569 Thickness scaling of un-notched laminates using sub-laminate repetitions
570 leads to a slight strength increase (Fig. 19). Matrix cracking starts in the
571 outer plies [69], which represent a smaller portion of the thicker laminates with
572 dispersed plies, leading to higher laminate un-notched strengths as the laminate

573 thickness increases. However, notched laminates with dispersed plies show a
574 slight reduction in tensile strength with increasing laminate thickness, remaining
575 constant for increasingly thicker laminates (Fig. 22). In this case, as opposed
576 to the un-notched laminates, damage development in the outer plies (which
577 represent a smaller portion of the thicker laminates) leads to a reduced notch
578 blunting effect around the hole, increasing the stress concentration, leading to
579 premature laminate failure.

580 In compression, un-notched laminates with sub-laminate scaling do not show
581 significant thickness scaling effects, with a fairly constant compressive strength
582 regardless of the specimen thickness (Fig. 19) [50, 146]. Un-notched laminates
583 with ply scaling, on the other hand, exhibit a strength reduction with increasing
584 laminate thickness (Fig. 19). Fibre waviness and void content [146] and a change
585 in failure mode to delamination [50] are reportedly the main contributors to the
586 thickness effect on the compressive failure strength of laminates with ply scaling.

587 Conversely, the compressive notched strength of dispersed-ply and blocked-
588 ply laminates is fairly insensitive to laminate thickness (Fig. 23), despite a
589 change of failure mode to delamination (with no fibre breakage) in thicker lam-
590 inates [50].

591 3.5.5. Discussion

592 Currently, it is well understood that structures subjected to uniform, smooth
593 stress distributions in uniaxial tension or uniaxial compression can benefit from
594 constructions based on laminates with thin, dispersed plies. However, in the
595 presence of stress concentrations, the lack of notch blunting mechanisms may
596 lead to higher notch sensitivity, specially in tension (Sect. 3.5.2).

597 To ensure a damage tolerant design with thin plies, sub-critical damage
598 should be allowed to grow near the stress concentrations, preferably without
599 compromising the un-notched strengths of the laminate. This has been achieved
600 by combining thin transverse and off-axis plies with thick (or intermediate)
601 0° plies to promote longitudinal split cracking tangent to the notch boundary,
602 relieving the stress concentration, and thus promoting the desired notch blunting

603 effect [42, 43]; more interestingly, the presence of thick (or intermediate) 0°
604 plies do not compromise the intrinsically high un-notched strengths of thin-ply
605 laminates [42, 43].

606 In compression, the effect of sub-critical damage preceding ultimate fail-
607 ure on the laminate compressive notched strength may depend substantially on
608 the local boundary and loading conditions; nevertheless, more recent results on
609 spread-tow thin-ply laminates suggest that the ply uniformity and damage sup-
610 pression capability of thin plies lead to a superior compressive notched strength
611 by delaying fibre compressive failure to higher loads in spite of the local stress
612 concentration promoted by the absence of notch blunting mechanisms [4, 6, 14].

613 Finally, it is important to stress that in laminates with thin plies, since de-
614 lamination and matrix cracking are precluded, failure analysis becomes simpler
615 since closed-form solutions or simple modelling strategies can be used to predict
616 with reasonable accuracy the notched strengths and notch size effects on such
617 laminates [15, 79, 110, 111, 122]. Conversely, in laminates with standard or
618 thick plies, delamination and split cracking are likely to occur. Consequently,
619 their mechanical response can only be predicted using nonlinear finite element
620 (FE) codes [39, 147], which are usually unsuitable for preliminary design or op-
621 timisation. This is a relevant advantage of thin plies, specially in applications
622 that require complex material scrutiny and certification procedures, for fast and
623 optimal laminate selection, or when the time and resources to run advanced FE
624 codes are limited.

625 *3.6. Impact resistance and damage tolerance*

626 Load bearing structures made of composite laminates, particularly those
627 used in aerospace applications, must have their design driven by *damage toler-*
628 *ance* considerations, i.e. some level of damage must be assumed to exist in the
629 composite structure [101, 148]. The reason for this is the susceptibility of com-
630 posite laminates to the introduction of visually undetectable damage caused by
631 external sources such as out-of-plane *low-velocity impact* (LVI) events by foreign
632 objects.

633 LVI events usually lead to the formation of local delaminations below and
634 around the impact location that are particularly critical for the compressive
635 strength of the impacted composite laminate [149]. Impact damage has, there-
636 fore, a significant effect on the residual compressive and shear strengths of com-
637 posite laminates due to the appearance of instabilities and overloading of the
638 undamaged areas, reducing the load-carrying capacity and structural integrity
639 of composite structures [51, 53, 54, 100, 101, 149, 150].

640 In laminates with thick plies (or thick ply blocks), the number of interfaces
641 available for delamination is reduced, leading to fewer, but larger delaminations
642 when subjected to impact loading [51–56], and consequently lower delamination
643 threshold loads and lower peak forces (Fig. 24). This is typically prejudicial for
644 the impact response of the laminate [55].

645 However, when assessing the effect of ply thickness on the residual compres-
646 sive strength measured in *compression after impact* (CAI) tests, the trends are
647 not so clear [52–55, 100]. On one hand, the residual compressive strength of
648 laminated composites with thick plies (or thick ply blocks) is expected to de-
649 crease due to larger delaminations, which reduce the laminate bending stiffness
650 and, therefore, increase the susceptibility to local buckling. On the other hand,
651 if the number of delamination planes increases, which is expected to happen
652 when the number of plies in a laminate is higher [54, 55], as in laminates with
653 thin plies, the residual compressive strength is also expected to decrease due
654 to the formation of thinner sub-laminates that are more susceptible to local
655 buckling. The lack of a clear trend for the effect of ply thickness on the residual
656 compressive strength of conventional laminates is confirmed by the number of
657 experimental studies with contradictory conclusions [51–54].

658 In the case of very thin plies, the overall size of delamination damage is
659 reportedly similar to that of blocked-ply laminates [14, 28], confirmed by quasi-
660 static indentation studies [31, 32]. However, these results contradict the typical
661 observations on laminates with conventional dispersed and blocked plies [51–
662 56]. Although matrix cracking and delamination onset are delayed in laminates
663 with thin plies [57], earlier fibre breakage on the impacted and non-impacted

664 faces [4, 31, 58, 59] (due to very high compressive and tensile stresses) and
665 large delaminations at the mid-surface [4, 32, 57, 59, 60, 151, 152] (where the
666 highest shear stresses occur) appear in these laminates, an observation that
667 was also confirmed numerically [153]. Deeper indentation footprints can also
668 be expected due to the high local compressive stresses beneath the impactor,
669 which can reduce the threshold for *barely visible impact damage* and lead to
670 higher residual strengths at the threshold of detectability.

671 In spite of this characteristic impact damage morphology, some authors re-
672 ported a superior CAI response in laminates with thin plies [28, 57]. Although
673 large projected delamination areas [59], typically due to the propagation of a sin-
674 gle or few large delaminations [57, 60], are observed, the resulting sub-laminates
675 are substantially thicker than those originated in thick-ply laminates, leading to
676 an improved CAI response. This superior CAI strength is also attributed to an
677 intrinsically higher compressive strength due to an improved micro-structural
678 uniformity (Sect. 2.1), and to a fine dispersion between plies of different fibre
679 orientation that restrains fibre kinking [57].

680 However, more recent studies report decreasing damage tolerance with ply
681 thinness in compression [59, 152], as well as in tension [151], attributed to ex-
682 tensive fibre failure during the impact stage [59]; this is specially critical in thin
683 laminates [58–60]. Moreover, since fibre breakage is one of the predominant
684 damage mechanisms in thin laminates with thin plies, its extent also dictates
685 the reduction of residual compressive strength with increasing impact energy
686 [154], not just the projected damage area as in conventional laminates.

687 Based on the previous observations, it is recognised that the effect of ply
688 thickness scaling on the impact resistance and damage tolerance of composite
689 laminates is more complex than the effect of ply thickness scaling on the intra-
690 and inter-laminar failure modes alone. While an improved impact resistance
691 is usually reported for laminates with dispersed plies of intermediate thickness
692 [4, 51–54, 59], laminates with thin plies exhibit early fibre breakage due to the
693 delay of delamination and matrix cracking, compromising their impact response.

694 These observations also suggest that, from a damage resistance and damage

695 tolerance point of view, laminates with thin plies have to be addressed differently
696 from conventional composites [79]. The characteristic mechanical behaviour
697 under impact of laminates with thin plies must be taken into account in the
698 design process to fully exploit their special features. Since fibre fracture and
699 deeper indentation footprints appear earlier in the laminate [59, 60], which then
700 cause the delaminations inside, undetectable damage due to impact may not
701 be of concern; in other words, once damage occurs, it may be immediately
702 detectable. Therefore, instead of designing thin-ply composite structures for
703 damage tolerance, it may be necessary to design them specifically for impact
704 (fibre fracture) resistance.

705 Alternatively, thin plies can be combined with other material technologies
706 for an optimum structural response. This has been achieved through com-
707 bination of thin plies with more advanced, tougher matrix formulations and
708 interface interleaving [113, 155, 156]. Such *toughened* thin-ply composites can
709 have damage tolerances within the standard requirements of damage-tolerant
710 design, without compromising the composite strengths. This is possible due
711 to strong delamination suppression; interleaving thermoplastic veils can arrest
712 delamination onset and consequently improve the residual strength of laminates
713 with thin plies [113, 155, 156].

714 Improvements of the damage tolerance of laminates with thin plies can also
715 be achieved through hybrid solutions [58] combining thick or standard plies with
716 thin plies [42, 43], and through proper, more flexible laminate design [60]. On
717 one hand, ply thickness hybridisation can alleviate the amount of fibre failure
718 with increased delamination damage, improving damage tolerance [58]. In ad-
719 dition, the introduction of 0° -ply blocking, namely at the outer layers of the
720 laminate, can improve the post-impact response, attributed to an increase of
721 the bending stiffness of the surface sub-laminates [55]. On the other hand,
722 motivated by the unsymmetrical nature of the damage modes induced by LVI
723 in the laminate thickness direction, unsymmetrical designs have been proposed
724 [60], enlarging the design space for optimal hybrid solutions combining thick or
725 standard plies with thin plies. Appropriate unsymmetrical designs allow con-

726 trolling the position of the dominant delaminations caused by LVI, moving them
727 away of the interfaces close to the mid-surface (as typically observed in lami-
728 nates with thin plies [57, 60, 151]), while reducing the projected damage area
729 and the extent of fibre breakage. This leads to the formation of a thick intact
730 sub-laminate, improving damage tolerance.

731 *3.7. Fatigue*

732 Due to the ability of high performance reinforcements such as carbon fibres
733 to transmit and disperse the high-frequency vibration loads, polymer matrix
734 composite materials with continuous fibres are very effective when subjected to
735 mechanical fatigue [61]. Nevertheless, cyclic loading is still a very important
736 precursor of sub-critical damage mechanisms in composite laminates that result
737 in the degradation of composite structures.

738 When subjected to cyclic loading, standard composite laminates experience
739 damage initiation by transverse cracking in the matrix, which occurs in the
740 very early stages of the fatigue life of the material. While not affecting the
741 structural response and the resistance to longitudinal damage propagation, these
742 transverse cracks induce local delaminations, which propagate under fatigue
743 loading [61, 157, 158], causing stress redistributions that affect the residual
744 stiffness, the residual strength and the fatigue life of the laminate [26, 49, 61,
745 157].

746 In the case of notched coupons under fatigue loading, the development of
747 sub-critical damage is enhanced, since the relative damage growth rates will not
748 be the same and matrix-dominated failure modes such as matrix cracking and
749 delamination are likely to become more dominant before fibre failure (Fig. 25).
750 In addition, damage development is more progressive and more dispersed in the
751 90° plies than in quasi-static loading [61].

752 Since decreasing ply thickness leads to the suppression of matrix-dominated
753 damage mechanisms such as matrix cracking and delamination, which are the
754 cause of material degradation under cyclic loading, laminates with thin plies
755 expectedly show enhanced fatigue life behaviour. The constraining effect on

756 thinner transverse plies leads to limited growth of micro-cracking [4, 5, 14, 27,
757 28, 62, 112] and delamination [4, 28, 112] (Fig. 26), regardless of the stress
758 level [27, 112] and sign of the stress ratio [112], up to a point where no stiffness
759 degradation nor damage accumulation is observed [4]. Consequently, the fatigue
760 lifetime of spread-tow woven [5, 62] and tape laminates [4, 14] is markedly
761 superior to that of conventional laminates.

762 It is worth noting that the certification of primary composite structures, for
763 example in aerospace applications, is typically based on “no growth” criteria for
764 delaminations emanating from stress raisers such as ply drops or free edges [158].
765 Therefore, the intrinsic damage suppression capability and improved fatigue
766 life of laminates with thin plies may result in benefits when it comes to the
767 certification of airborne composite structures based on this kind of criteria.

768 *3.8. Bearing strength*

769 Virtually every large-scale composite structure contains joints. The reasons
770 behind their use include manufacturing constraints and requirements related to
771 accessibility to the structure, quality control, structural integrity assessment,
772 and part replacement. Among the types of joints used in large-scale composite
773 structures, mechanically fastened joints are particularly common, and often the
774 only feasible solution. However, due to the stress concentrations created, me-
775 chanically fastened joints are generally the critical part of a composite structure,
776 as they are a source of weakness and compliance [159–163]; consequently, the
777 soundness of the joint design procedure used is reflected on the overall weight
778 and cost of the composite structure.

779 The behaviour of composites in bolted joints differs considerably from that of
780 metals. The quasi-brittle nature of composite materials requires more detailed
781 analysis to address the different damage mechanisms occurring in the vicinity
782 of the loaded fasteners. Therefore, when designing composite joints, several
783 factors need to be taken into account, including the orthotropy of the laminates
784 (which may promote higher stress concentrations) and geometrical parameters
785 such as edge distances and hole spacings [141, 162]. These lead to different fail-

786 ure modes, namely bearing, net-tension, shear-out, cleavage and tear-out when
787 subjected to in-plane loading (Fig. 27) [164], or pull-through when subjected to
788 out-of-plane loading [165].

789 Bearing failure is one of the most common failure modes, which occurs pre-
790 dominantly when the fastener diameter is a small fraction of the plate width.
791 This is a progressive, non-catastrophic failure mode and occurs when the lami-
792 nate is no longer capable of sustaining the accumulated local damage [160, 166].
793 Before ultimate failure, damage starts as localised delaminations, followed by
794 matrix cracks through the thickness of the plies, which lead to further delam-
795 inations [167]. Bearing failure is also related to fibre kinking and fibre-matrix
796 crushing [168]. This progressive failure mode typically leads to a permanent
797 deformation of the hole [160] that can affect the integrity and functionality of
798 the structure.

799 Given the ability of laminates with thin plies to delay, or even suppress,
800 sub-critical, progressive damage mechanisms such as delamination and matrix
801 cracking, an improved performance of these materials when subjected to bear-
802 ing loads is expected. Thinner plies lead to lower intra-laminar shear stresses
803 [169], delaying the onset and propagation of damage mechanisms such as matrix
804 cracking, fibre kinking and through-thickness shear cracking [4, 41], and lead to
805 higher delamination onset loads and, consequently, smaller initial delaminated
806 areas [4, 170]. The result is a superior bearing performance of laminates with
807 thinner plies [41] at room and hot-wet conditions [4].

808 *3.9. Environmental exposure*

809 In a multi-directional laminate, the different ply orientations lead to a mis-
810 match of the coefficients of thermal and moisture expansion. Moreover, tem-
811 perature and moisture are known to aggressively affect the polymer matrix,
812 degrading the mechanical properties of composite laminates [4]. Hence, the
813 temperature variation during the curing process and the in-service environment
814 can lead to early matrix cracking and inter-laminar damage growth. However,
815 with thin plies, matrix cracking constraining (Sect. 3.2) and lower inter-laminar

816 stresses (Sect. 3.3) can be expected, also under thermal- and moisture-induced
817 loadings. Therefore, the sensitivity of laminates with thinner plies to tempera-
818 ture and environmental effects is likely to be lower.

819 This feature of thin-ply laminates can be exploited [to improve the resis-](#)
820 [tance also under extreme](#) environmental conditions, such as applications on low
821 earth orbit (LEO) environments [63] and hot-wet conditions [4]. For example,
822 thin-ply laminates show improved tensile strength either with or without LEO
823 environment exposure, exhibiting a stable mechanical response independently
824 of the environmental conditions [63].

825 *3.10. Lightning strike resistance and other multifunctional properties*

826 Low-conductive FRPs are more vulnerable to lightning-induced damage than
827 metals. During a lightning strike to a composite structure, several direct effects
828 can be distinguished, such as thermal effects caused by the electric arc, thermal
829 and electrodynamic effects induced by circulation of the lightning current, and
830 mechanical effects from air and surface shock waves. To prevent hazardous
831 events such as catastrophic structural damage, composite structures need to be
832 designed against these lightning direct effects [171].

833 When subjected to simulated lightning strikes, thin plies reportedly con-
834 tribute to the reduction of lightning-induced damage, specially bulk damage,
835 including delamination (Fig. 28) [64]. This lightning damage suppression ca-
836 pability results from the lower in-plane and out-of-plane electrical resistivity of
837 laminates with thin plies [64, 172]. The applied lightning current seems to flow
838 not only in the first, top ply, but also in the underlying plies when these are
839 sufficiently thin, restricting more efficiently the resin vaporisation area due to
840 lower electrical anisotropy as compared with laminates with thicker UD tapes
841 [64]. Moreover, after being subjected to a lightning strike, laminates with thin-
842 ner plies exhibit higher residual strength [65]. This favours the application of
843 these laminates on advanced, safety-critical composite structures that may be
844 subjected to lightning strikes [64].

845 The adoption of thin plies in laminate design also allows further improve-
846 ments of the electrical conductivity with recourse to other material technolo-
847 gies, such as carbon nano-tubes directly grown on the carbon fibres, motivated
848 by the more uniform fibre distribution and ply thinness [173]. These charac-
849 teristics can bring improvements to physical properties such as electrical and
850 thermal conductivity and facilitate the introduction of multi-functionality into
851 FRPs without compromising their intrinsically high specific elastic and strength
852 properties [173].

853 4. Opportunities in manufacturing and design

854 4.1. Ply uniformity

855 At first, it might appear that part production using laminates with thin plies
856 will result in a clear disadvantage: per laminate thickness, more plies will have
857 to be accommodated, which may result in an increased processing effort that
858 increases with the number of plies (or ply thinness) to reach a target laminate
859 thickness. Therefore, the effective use of thin plies in laminate design must rely
860 on a substantially different approach, using novel reinforcement architectures
861 enabled by the unique uniformity of thin plies. For example, thin plies reduce
862 the degree of waviness caused by the insertion of the weft threads in non-crimp
863 fabrics or the crimp angle and tow flexure in woven fabrics, improving the
864 mechanical properties of this kind of reinforcements [6, 41, 174], which become
865 sound alternatives to UD tapes. [In spite of the additional spreading step prior to](#)
866 [the stabilisation and laying or weaving steps, which contributes to an increase](#)
867 [of the relative cost of spread tows, heavier tow yarns — with up to 100k or](#)
868 [200k fibre counts — can be used to reduce the cost of the source fibre tows, as](#)
869 [opposed to the very expensive 6k or 1k yarns of conventional tows required to](#)
870 [obtain sufficiently thin tapes and woven fabrics.](#)

871 In addition, this unique uniformity leads to excellent surface appearance
872 that may help reducing part production costs in terms of surface finishing and
873 painting (Fig. 29). The improved fibre distribution also favours wider inter-

874 fibre spacing, which allows easier flow of the matrix material, either in liquid
875 moulding techniques employing thermosetting resins, or during impregnation by
876 thermoplastic matrices [174], leading to fewer weak zones, i.e., thin plies lead to
877 lower void content and smaller resin-rich areas [89, 174]. However, this wider
878 inter-fibre spacing leads to lower fibre volume fractions in spread-tow yarns [62].
879 In addition, the number of resin-rich interfaces between layers is higher in thin-
880 ply laminates (since they have more layers for the same thickness), increasing
881 the relative amount of resin in the laminate. Consequently, the fibre volume
882 fraction of thin-ply laminates is usually lower than the fibre volume fraction
883 of conventional composite laminates [4]. However, this difference is typically
884 small, with no implications reported so far [4].

885 Interestingly, the overall fibre volume fraction of spread-tow and conventional
886 woven laminates is identical, in spite of the lower fibre volume fraction of spread-
887 tow yarns [62]. This is attributed to the resin-rich areas between the tows in
888 conventional fabrics that reduce the overall fibre volume fraction of the laminate
889 [62]. In spread-tow fabric laminates, the amount of resin between the tows is
890 very small, and, therefore, the fibre volume fraction of the fabric is similar to the
891 fibre volume fraction in the yarns [62]; conversely, in conventional fabrics, due
892 to the amount of resin between the tows, the fibre volume fraction is typically
893 lower than the fibre volume fraction of the corresponding yarns.

894 Ply thickness has also a noticeable effect on the occurrence of damage dur-
895 ing manufacturing. In spite of the mismatch of coefficients of thermal expansion
896 between plies with different fibre orientation, thinner plies suppress thermally-
897 induced damage [105, 175] as a result of the *in-situ* effect previously discussed.
898 For example, Fernberg and Joffe [94], through free-edge inspection, observed
899 very few to no transverse cracks in spread-tow fabric laminates after manufac-
900 turing, as opposed to conventional woven fabrics.

901 Another advantage of ply thinness is the design of ply drops, which become
902 much smoother (Fig. 30). Not only the appearance is improved, but also the
903 structural performance of the laminates due to lower ERR at the interfaces
904 between ply drops.

905 *4.2. Laminate design, homogenisation and hybridisation*

906 With thinner plies, for the same laminate thickness, more plies can be ac-
907 commodated. On one hand, the design space widens, due to higher flexibility
908 in accommodating plies of different orientation. On the other hand, laminate
909 homogenisation by sub-laminate repetition is easier to achieve for the typical
910 laminate thickness currently used in advanced structural design. In this case,
911 mid-plane symmetry becomes irrelevant⁵ due to negligible thermal warpage
912 [176, 177]. This can be beneficial, for example, in the design of stringers
913 for aero-structures, where criteria to avoid warpage are required. With ho-
914 mogenised laminates, optimisation may rely only on topological optimisation,
915 since warpage is negligible. This also enables simpler lay-up processes, since
916 reversing the stacking sequence at the mid-plane is no longer needed. Continu-
917 ous stacking becomes possible, and ply drops no longer need to be symmetric,
918 reducing processing time, cost, waste and stacking errors. Besides, by avoiding
919 the symmetry rule, the laminate design space widens further and optimisation
920 for out-of-plane loading and damage tolerance, where non-symmetric laminates
921 may perform better [60], becomes easier [178].

922 By allowing a higher number of repeated sub-laminates, the potential for
923 overall laminate thickness reduction on buckling- and damage tolerance-driven
924 laminate design also increases [179]. In addition, [minimum gauge structures](#)
925 [are expected to benefit from the introduction of thin plies due to lower discrete](#)
926 [steps in ply thickness; when the theoretical minimum gauge corresponds to](#)
927 [a non-integer number of plies, adding one thin ply will lead to thinner, and](#)
928 [therefore lighter structures than adding one conventional ply.](#)

929 [Having more plies per laminate thickness also](#) leads to the possibility of
930 using smaller relative ply orientations between adjacent plies, which further
931 improves delamination [180] and impact resistance [181]. It is also noted that

⁵A laminate is homogenised when the normalised flexural stiffness matrix $[D^*]$ approaches that of the in-plane stiffness matrix $[A^*]$, and the bending-extension coupling terms $[B^*]$ tend to zero.

932 sub-laminates with smaller relative ply orientations reduce the gap between FPF
933 and LPF (last-ply failure) in such a way that matrix cracking can be completely
934 suppressed before ultimate failure. Together with lower ERRs at the interfaces
935 between plies due to ply thinness, shallow-angle thin-ply sub-laminates allow,
936 for example, the exploitation of the nonlinear deformation of angle-ply laminates
937 to generate more progressive and ductile failure modes in advanced composites
938 [82, 182].

939 Thin carbon plies also allow the production, through hybridisation, of com-
940 posite systems exhibiting progressive fragmentation or multiple cracking instead
941 of sudden, catastrophic ultimate failure [183–189]. With these approaches,
942 higher energy dissipation can be successfully obtained [184, 186–189], but usu-
943 ally at the compromise of ultimate plain and notched strengths [184, 186–188].
944 It is also worth noting the increase in fibre tensile strain-to-failure due to the
945 hybrid effect in very thin plies [190], showing that the resistance of the carbon-
946 fibre reinforced polymer system can be fully exploited within hybrid composites
947 with thin plies.

948 4.3. Analysis

949 Homogenisation and the absence of sub-critical damage mechanisms such
950 as matrix cracking (Sect. 3.2) and delamination (Sect. 3.3) before final failure
951 makes analysis much faster and simpler. The simplest methods are based on
952 FPF analysis, designing against the occurrence of transverse cracking. But for
953 most conventional laminates, the FPF strain is much lower than the ultimate
954 failure strain of the laminate, and the high specific strength of composites is
955 therefore compromised [191]. In laminates with thin plies, the gap between FPF
956 and LPF is reduced, and the high performance usually associated to composite
957 laminates can be fully utilised by employing closed-form and fast solutions [15,
958 99, 110, 111]. This brings clear advantages to the design process, specially
959 when involving optimisation and the generation of A- or B-basis allowables by
960 simulation [192].

961 The suitability of simpler analysis models combined with the intrinsic supe-

962 rior strength and increased design space of laminates with thin plies can lead
963 to better optimised laminates and higher consistency in defining safety factors,
964 with great potential for weight savings and, consequently, cost reduction during
965 the conceptual and detailed design stages and during operation.

966 **5. Concluding remarks**

967 Ply thickness can have a drastic effect on the structural performance of
968 composite laminates. Based on experimental and numerical observations on
969 composites with thick, intermediate, and thin plies, this review has demon-
970 strated that the latter bring substantial improvements to the plain strengths
971 and design flexibility of composite laminates. In addition, the use of thin plies
972 in primary structural applications, namely those driven by residual strength
973 and damage tolerance requirements, can enhance their mechanical and weight
974 performance. To achieve this, thin plies can be combined with existing material
975 technologies, for instance through ply-level hybridisation, to design laminates
976 with lower notch sensitivity and higher damage tolerance without compromis-
977 ing the intrinsically high un-notched strengths [42, 43, 58]. Alternatively, novel
978 design principles, including lower relative fibre angles and laminate asymmetry,
979 become feasible, providing enhanced structural and damage tolerant responses
980 [60]. Moreover, it is shown that thin plies provide increased opportunities for
981 multifunctional optimisation due to higher design flexibility [173], and for adop-
982 tion of more efficient manufacturing technologies thanks to improved multi-axial
983 fabrics that do not compromise structural behaviour. Finally, the suitability of
984 simpler analysis models combined with the intrinsic superior strength and in-
985 creased design space of laminates with thin plies can lead to weight savings and,
986 consequently, cost reduction during conceptual and detailed design and oper-
987 ation thanks to better optimised laminates and higher consistency in defining
988 safety factors. It is concluded that thin-ply composite materials provide new
989 perspectives for innovative structural applications.

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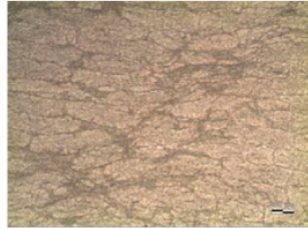
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High-grade UD laminate (300 g/m²)



Low-grade UD laminate (100 g/m²)



Spread-tow UD laminate (30 g/m²)



Figure 1: Optical micrographs of carbon fibre/epoxy composites of different grades (after Amacher et al. [193]).

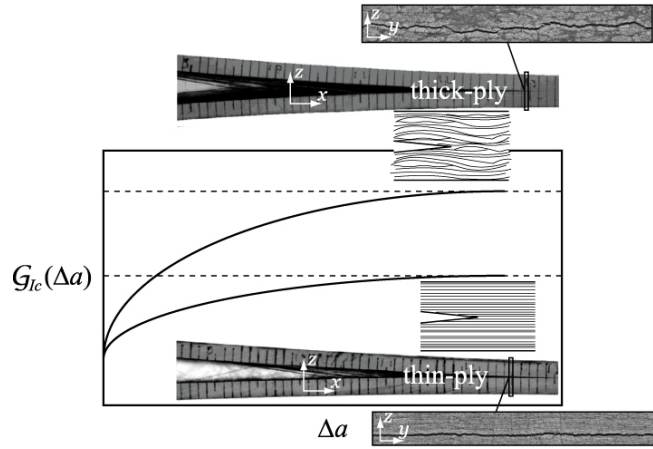


Figure 2: Effect of the uniformity of spread-tow laminae on the crack resistance curve associated with mode I inter-laminar fracture of UD polymer composites (after Frossard et al. [12]).



Figure 3: Transverse matrix cracks in a cross-ply laminate (after Sebaey et al. [67]).

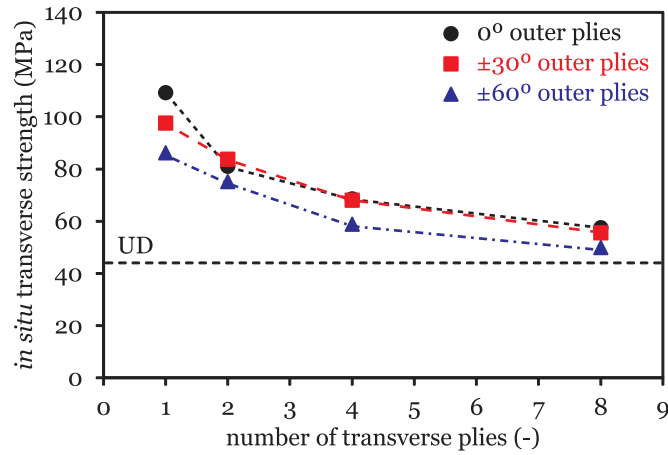


Figure 4: *In-situ* effect on the transverse tensile strength of an embedded 90° ply (after Flaggs and Kural [22]).

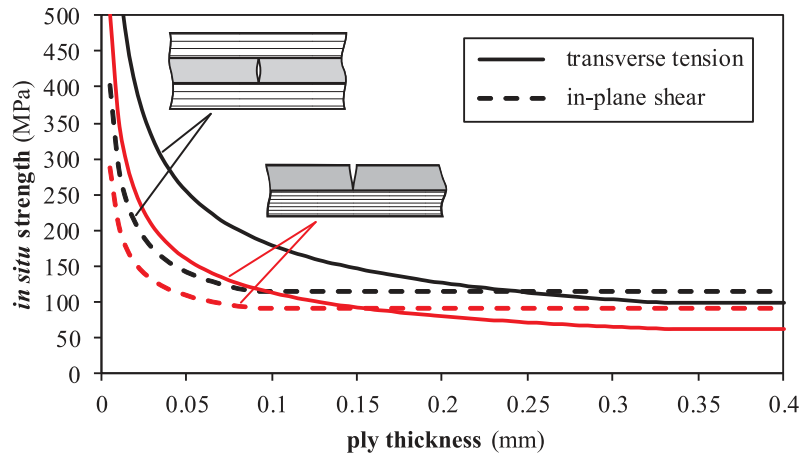


Figure 5: *In-situ* transverse tensile and in-plane shear strengths of an embedded inner or outer ply (after Camanho et al. [69]).

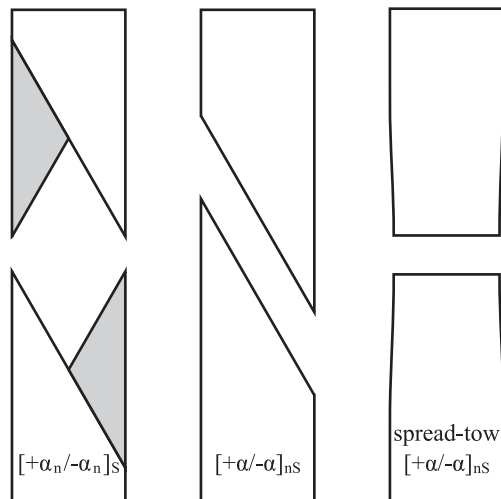


Figure 6: Failure of blocked-ply, dispersed-ply and spread-tow angle-ply laminates (after Herakovich [76] and Fuller and Wisnom [82]).

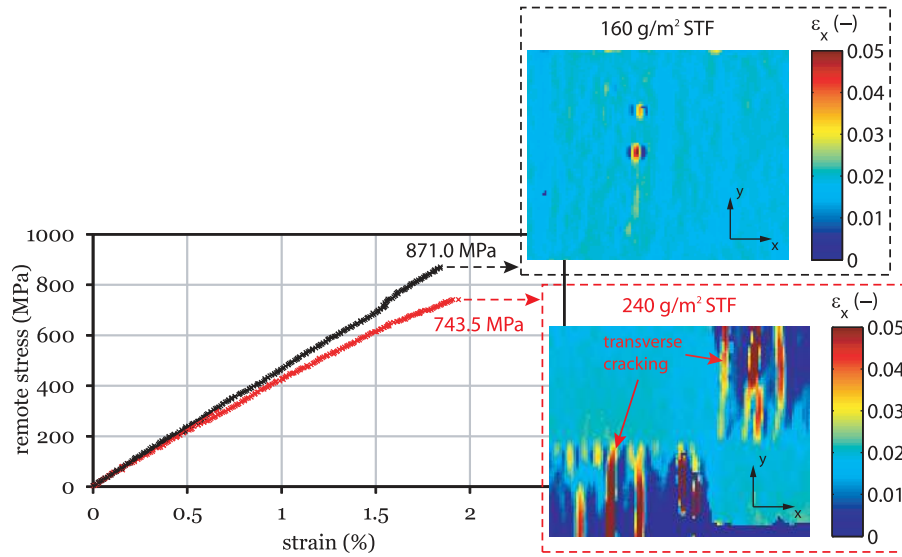


Figure 7: Remote stress-strain relations and longitudinal strain fields (ε_x) obtained by digital image correlation at the stage prior to ultimate failure in plain weave **spread-tow fabrics** (after Arreiro et al. [6]). **STF** stands for **spread-tow fabric**. Before ultimate failure, no transverse cracks could be observed in the 160 g/m² **spread-tow fabrics** (×). However, the outer transverse yarns of the 240 g/m² **spread-tow fabrics** developed several matrix cracks that contributed to the nonlinear tensile response of this laminate (×).

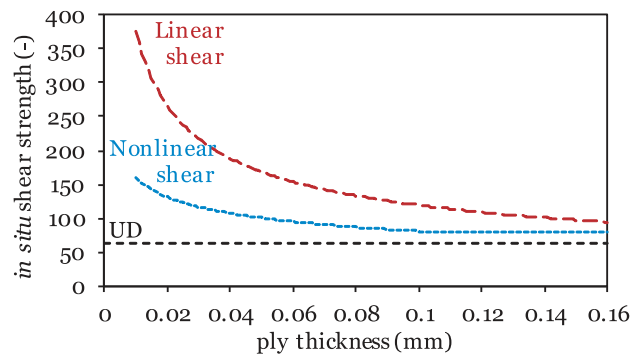


Figure 8: Linear and nonlinear predictions for the *in-situ* in-plane shear strength of a thin embedded ply (after Camanho et al. [69]).

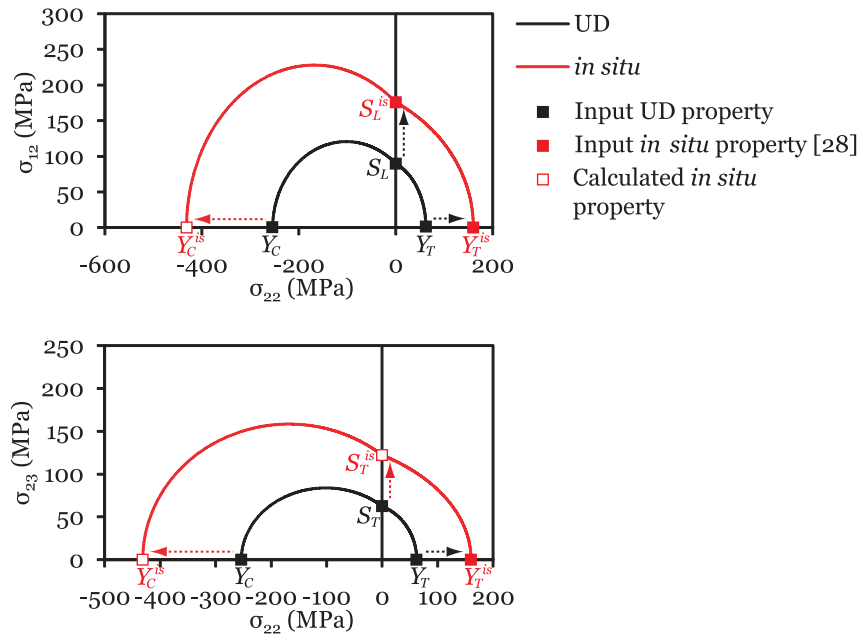


Figure 9: *In-situ* effect on the failure envelopes for matrix-dominated damage mechanisms (after Camanho et al. [78]).

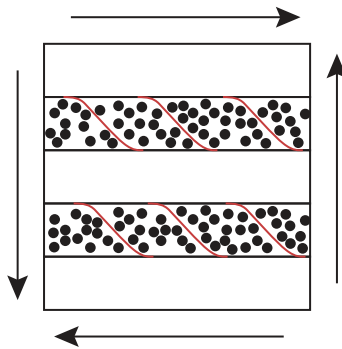


Figure 10: Transverse shear cracking in multi-directional laminates (after Olsson [79]).

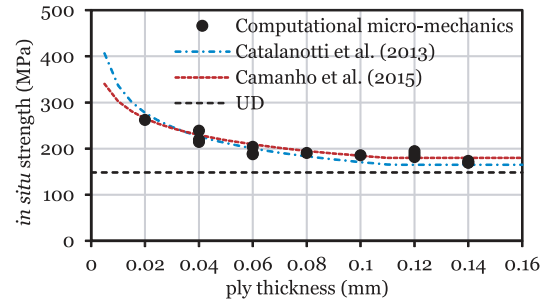


Figure 11: *In-situ* transverse compressive strength predicted by computational micro-mechanics and phenomenological failure criteria (after Arteiro et al. [81]).

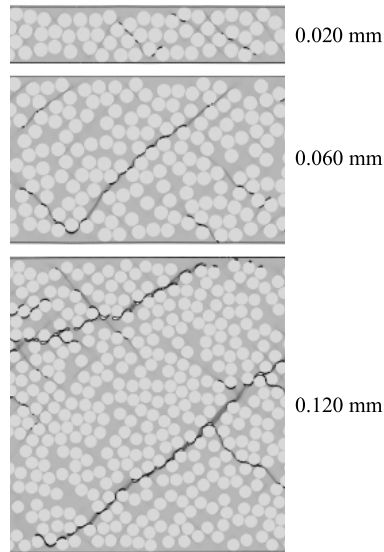


Figure 12: *In-situ* effect on wedge transverse cracking (after Arteiro et al. [81]). Representative volume elements loaded in compression by a uniaxial remote strain of 2.5% along the horizontal direction show that failure of conventional 90° plies is dominated by fibre-matrix interface cracking and large localised plastic deformation in a plane not aligned with the loading direction. Thin plies, on the other hand, show a dispersed damage mechanism, with reduced transverse cracking at the same applied remote strain.

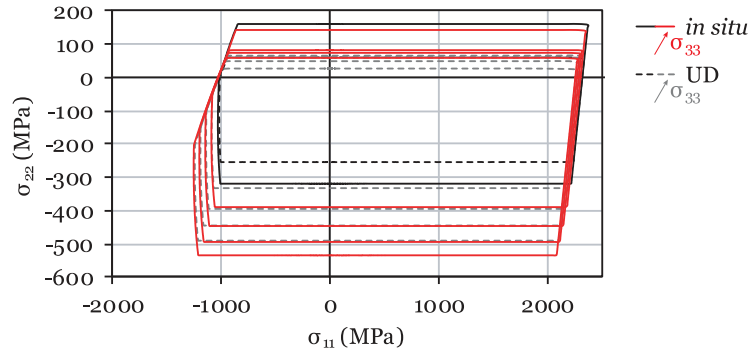


Figure 13: Longitudinal-transverse failure envelopes for different values of applied through-thickness transverse compressive stress (σ_{33}) for an embedded and a UD ply (after Arteiro et al. [99]). Black lines correspond to $\sigma_{33} = 0$, and coloured lines to non-zero σ_{33} . The same value of σ_{33} is applied for envelopes in the same position with respect to the reference black lines ($\sigma_{33} = 0$).

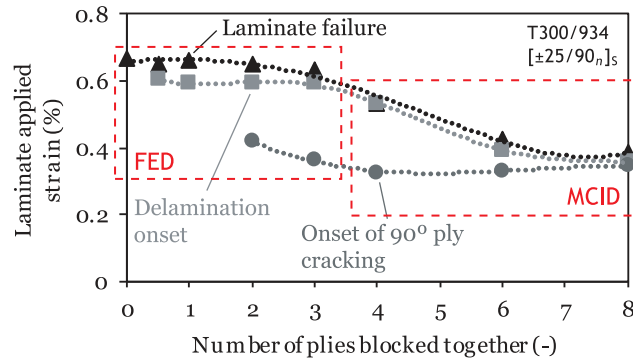


Figure 14: Laminate applied strain at the onset of 90° ply cracking, at the onset of delamination, and at laminate failure (after O'Brien [26]). In the laminates with 4 or more plies blocked together, delamination is induced by matrix cracking (MCID), whereas in the laminates with less than 3 plies blocked together, delamination starts from the free edges (FED).

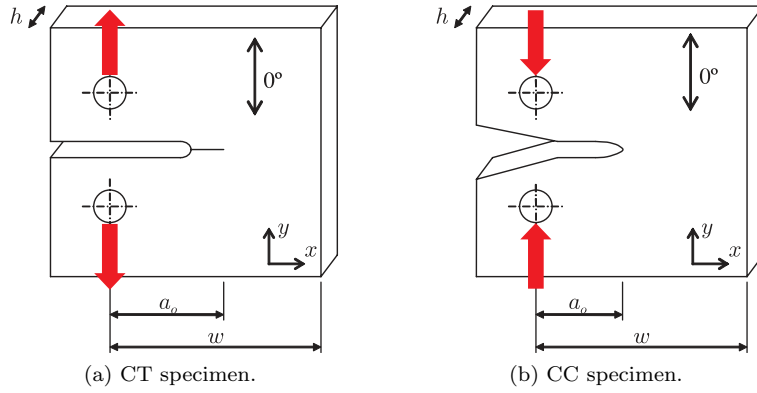


Figure 15: CT and CC coupon configurations (after Pinho et al. [123]).

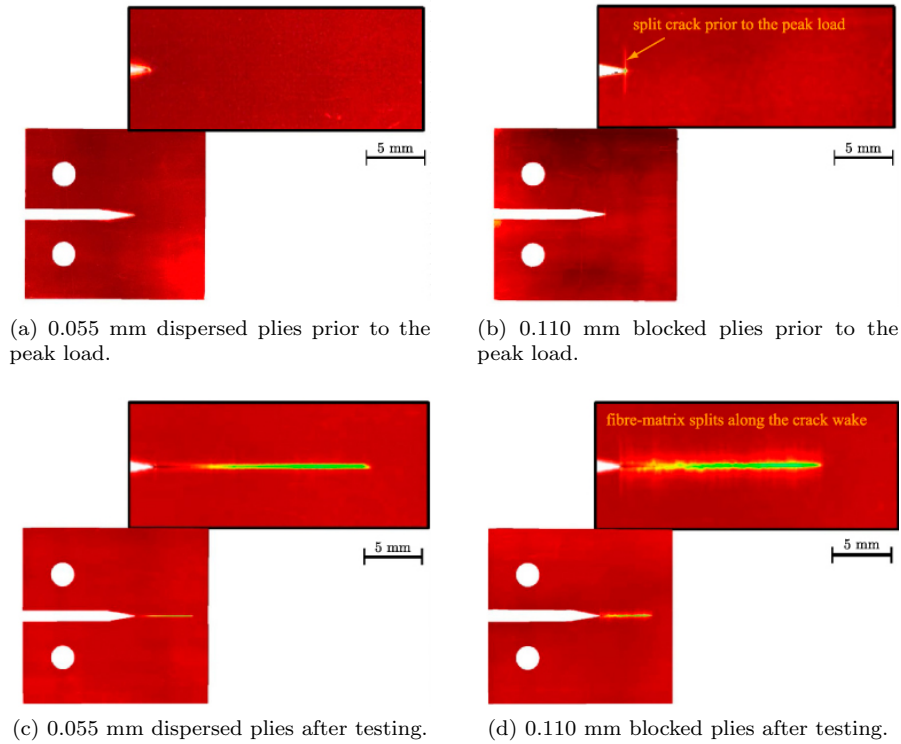
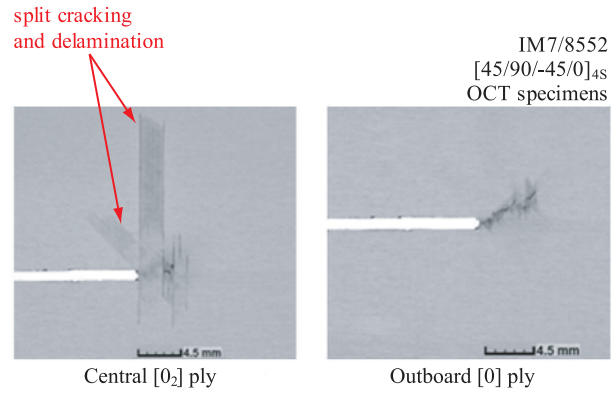
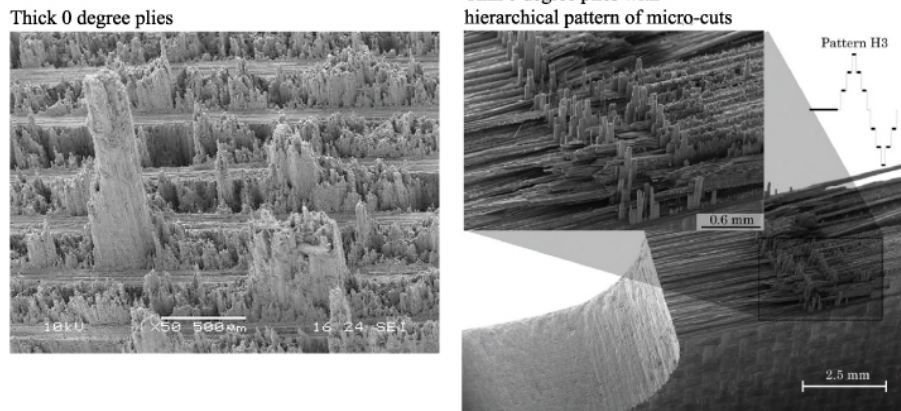


Figure 16: X-ray imaging of $[90_2/(90/0)_{16}/90]_s$ (a and c) and $[90_2/(90_2/0_2)_8/90]_s$ (b and d) thin-ply CT specimens (after Teixeira et al. [194]). Split cracking is observed in laminates with intermediate ply thickness (b and d), but it is completely suppressed in laminates with thin plies (a and c).



(a) Split cracking and delamination at the notch tip on the central block of two 0° plies and on a single 0° ply of an over-height CT test specimen (after Xu et al. [36]).



(b) SEM micrograph of fracture surfaces of a thick 0° ply (after Laffan et al. [37]) and a thin 0° ply with an hierarchical pattern of micro-cuts (after Bullegas et al. [134]).

Figure 17: Post-mortem observations of intra-laminar fibre fracture.

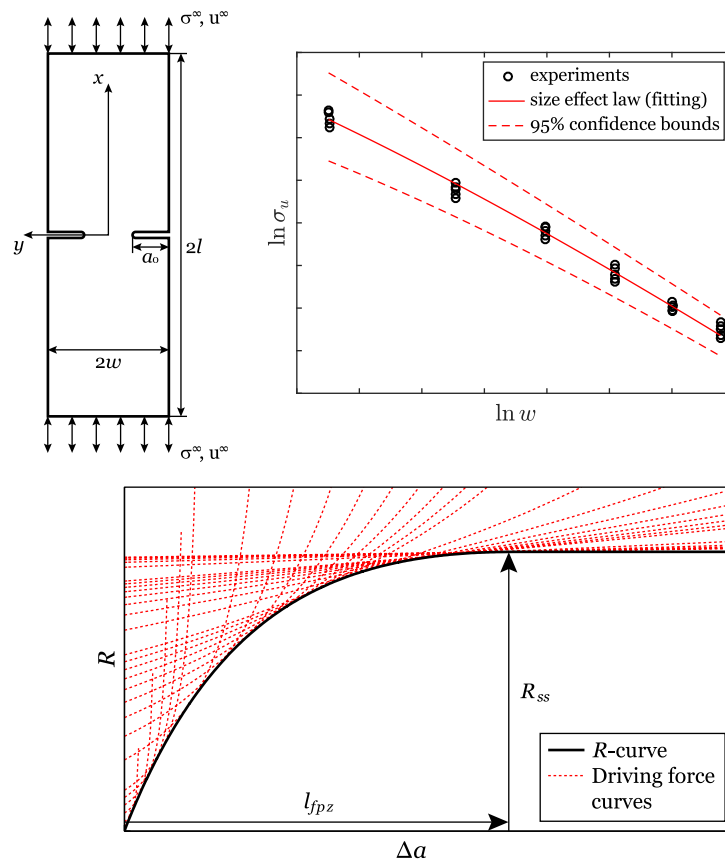


Figure 18: Size effect law fitting and \mathcal{R} -curve determined as the envelope of driving force curves (after Catalanotti et al. [116]).

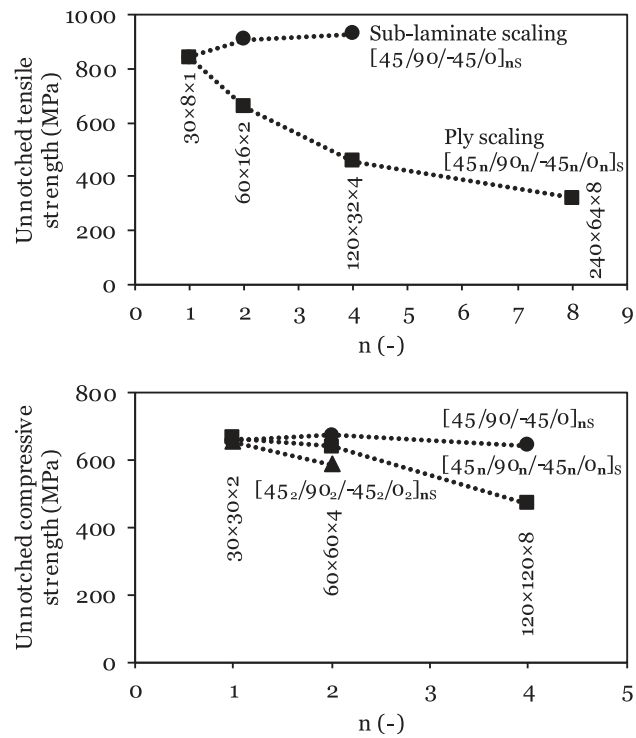


Figure 19: Size effects in un-notched IM7/8552 carbon/epoxy coupons loaded in tension (after Wisnom et al. [45, 50]) and in compression (after Lee and Soutis [46]). Specimen dimensions are given as: gauge length (mm) × width (mm) × thickness (mm).

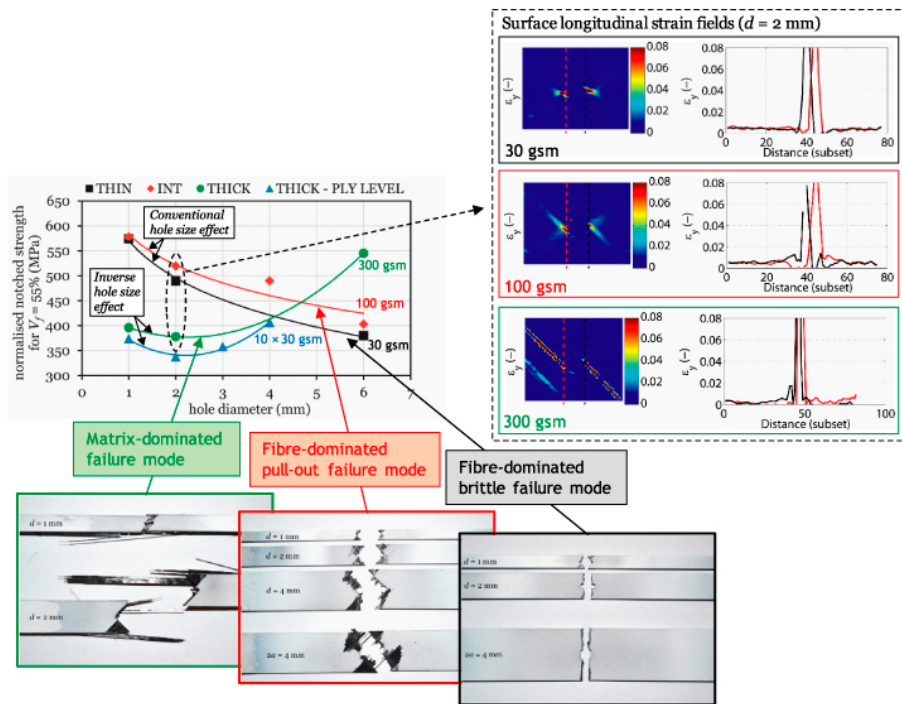


Figure 20: Size effects in notched M40JB/ThinPreg™ 80EP carbon/epoxy coupons loaded in tension, representative failed specimens, and surface longitudinal strain fields obtained with digital image correlation from specimens with a hole diameter of 2 mm (after Furtado et al. [42]).

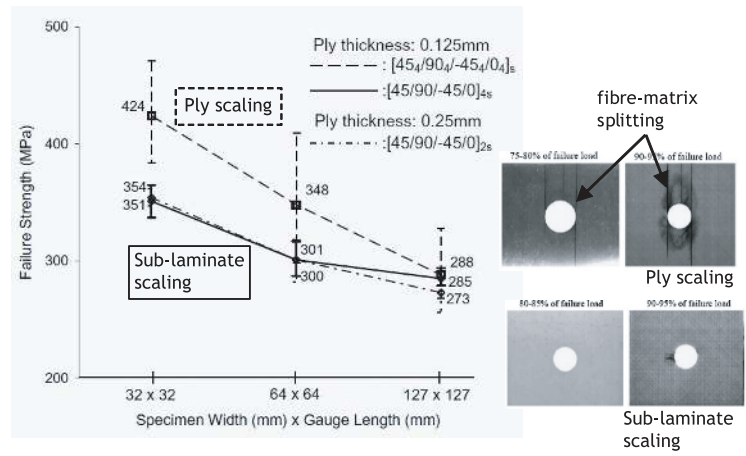


Figure 21: Size effects in notched IM7/8552 carbon/epoxy coupons loaded in compression and damage development in representative open-hole compression specimens (after Lee and Soutis [46]).

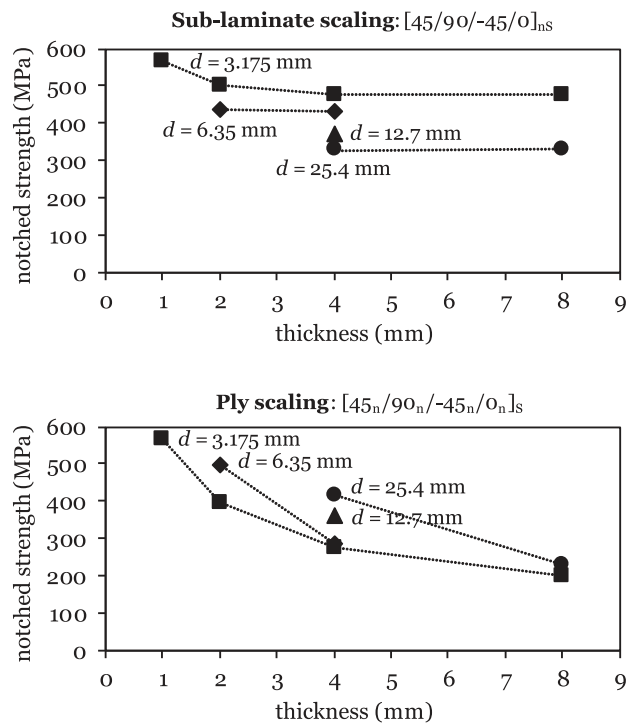


Figure 22: Effect of laminate thickness on the notched tensile strengths of IM7/8552 carbon/epoxy coupons with different hole diameters d (after Wisnom et al. [50]).

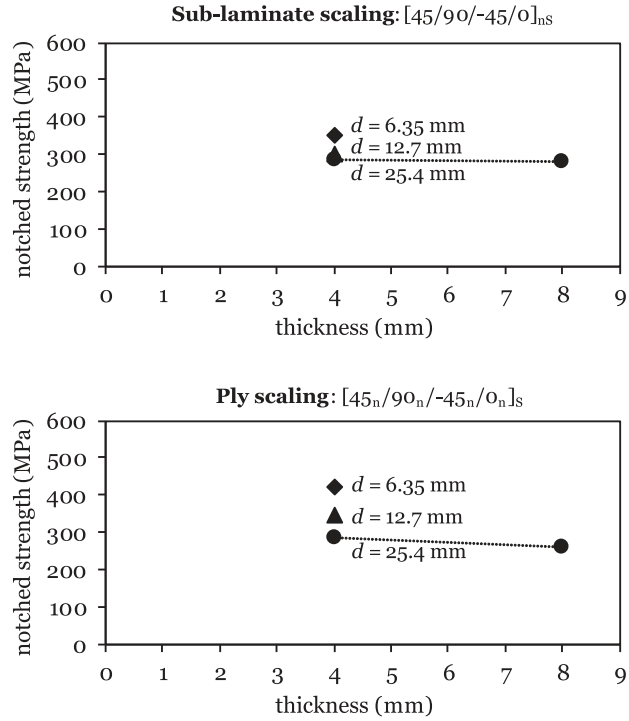


Figure 23: Effect of laminate thickness on the notched compressive strengths of IM7/8552 carbon/epoxy coupons with different hole diameters d exhibiting valid failure mode (after Wisnom et al. [50]).

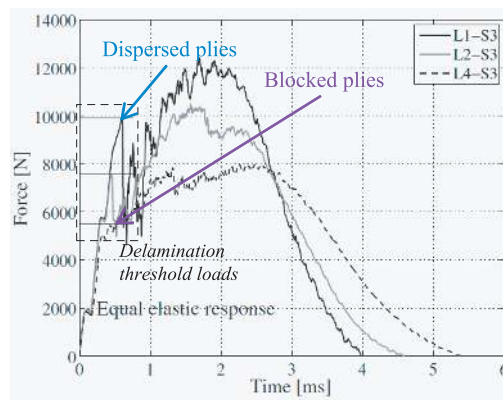


Figure 24: Impact response of laminates with different degrees of ply blocking (after González et al. [54]).

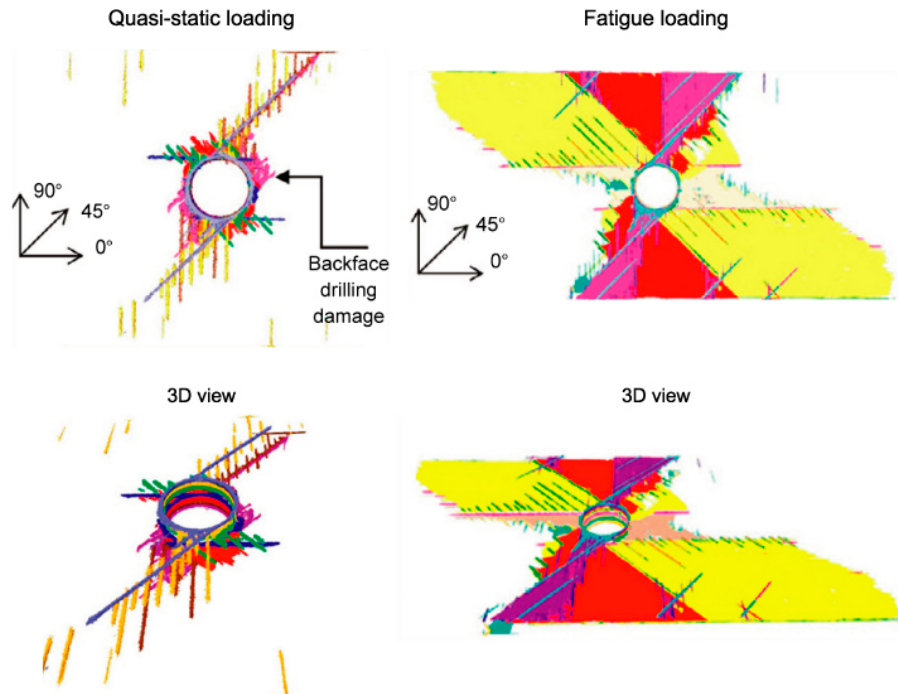


Figure 25: X-ray computed tomography images of interrupted quasi-static and fatigue open-hole tension tests (after Nixon-Pearson et al. [61]).

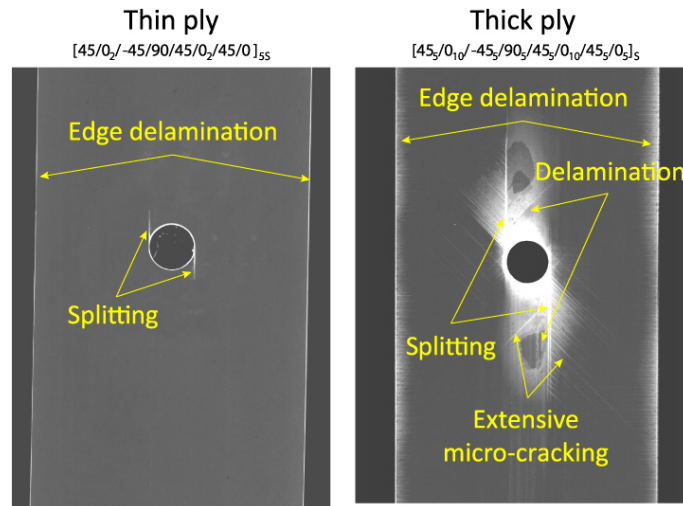


Figure 26: X-ray pictures of specimens subjected to tensile fatigue loading at room temperature, after 73,000 cycles, with a ply thickness of 0.04 mm and a total laminate thickness of 3.2 mm (after Sihm et al. [28]).

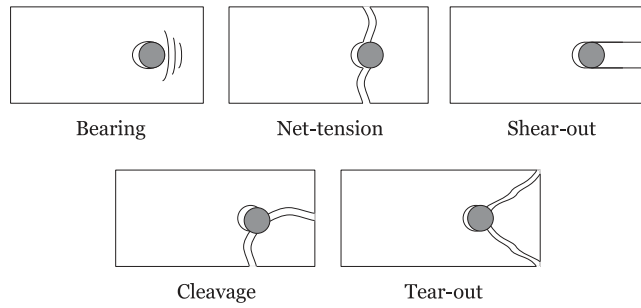


Figure 27: Joint failure modes (after ASTM D5961/D5961M – 13 [164]).

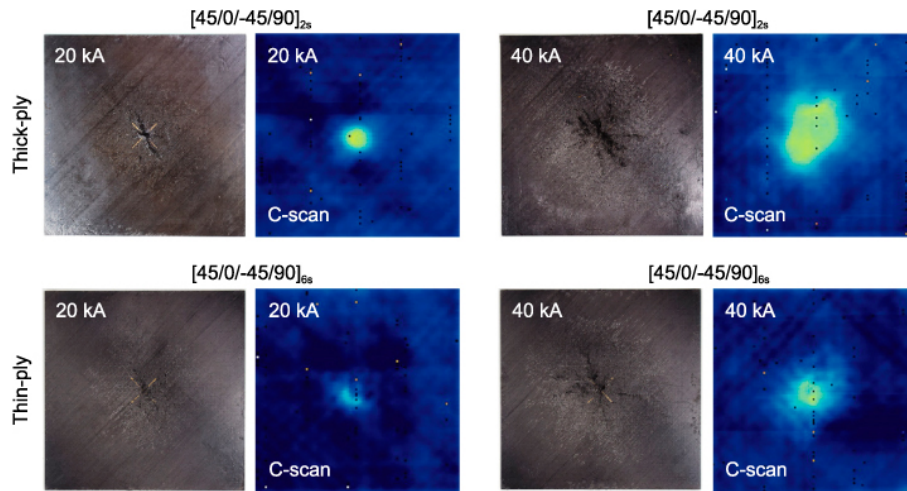


Figure 28: Visual and ultrasonic C-scan images of carbon fibre-reinforced thermoplastic laminates subjected to lightning strikes (after Yamashita et al. [64]).



Figure 29: Excellent surface appearance of thin-ply non-crimp fabrics. Courtesy of Chomarats ©Laurent Becot Ruiz.

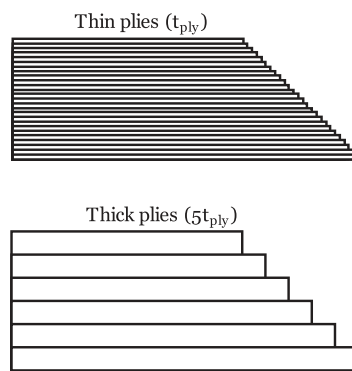


Figure 30: Illustration of ply drops with thin and thick plies.