Resin infusion analysis of nanoclay filled glass fiber laminates

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This paper focuses on the resin flow characteristics of nanoclay filled glass fiber laminates processed by Vacuum Assisted Resin Infusion Molding (VARIM). Laminates with varying quantities of nanoclays (0–5 wt.%) were prepared and the effect of these nanoclays on the epoxy resin flow characteristics was studied. It was found that the flow rate of resin continuously decreased as nanoclay content continuously increased. The reduction in the flow rate was attributed to the rate of change of curing and the subsequent change in viscosity of the nanoclay filled resin. Analysis of infusion process by Darcy’s law show that the permeability of the fiber decreased in the nanoclay filled resin system. Nanoclay filled laminates show improved static and dynamic mechanical properties than that of unfilled resin composites.

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1. Introduction

Glass fiber reinforced composites are an important class of material due to their high strength to weight ratio when compared to steel, and their high corrosion and chemical resistance [1–3]. These composite laminates also consist of a range of fibers such as carbon, Kevlar and glass. They are widely used in aircraft, transport, civil and other engineering applications [4–6].

Over the past two decades, a considerable amount of research work has been done on polymer–clay nanocomposites (PCN). Chemically treated nanolayered montmorillonite (MMT) based clays are widely used as nanofillers in these PCN based structures [7–11]. The addition of small amount of treated MMT clay (≤5 wt.%) in epoxy and other polymer matrices has caused dramatic improvement in mechanical, thermal, physical and chemical properties [12–16].

The nanoparticle filled polymer reinforced with glass fibers has also been an area of research interest in past 5–7 years. In this type of composite structure, the glass fibers serve as a primary reinforcement and nanoparticles as secondary reinforcement. In such structures, the nanoparticles such as clays, carbon nanotubes, and nanosilica/TiO2 are filled in the laminate and are processed either by hand lay up, vacuum assisted infusion, hot-press or other forming techniques [17–21]. The nanoparticle infused laminates have shown improved thermal and mechanical properties [22–24] and improved fiber–matrix interface strength [25]. The study of nanoclay filled epoxy based laminate composite is a complex subject. The dispersion of clay particles in a polymer is governed by the mixing process, catalytic curing of organo-ions, the curing agent and the processing method [26–29]. From literature it is observed that the effect of clays on laminate processing is not yet fully understood. Therefore in this work we have studied the effect of clay on the processing parameters and the subsequent mechanical properties of nanoclay filled epoxy polymer reinforced with woven glass fiber. The laminates were processed using Vacuum Assisted Resin Infusion Molding (VARIM). The authors’ view is that the results of this study will help the designers to control the processing properties of the laminates, namely thickness, fiber volume fraction (Vf), degree of cure (α), permeation, structure and morphology of nanoclay reinforced laminates.

2. Experimental details

2.1. Raw materials

In this study, diglycidyl ether of bisphenol-A (DGEBA) based commercial epoxy resin supplied under the trade name of LR-20 was used as the matrix. The curing agent was unmodified cyclic aliphatic amine based epoxy hardener supplied under the trade name of LH-281. Silane treated E type plain weave glass woven roving (450 GSM) was used as the primary reinforcement. All these materials were purchased from AMT Composites, Durban – South Africa. The secondary nanoclay reinforcement filler, supplied under the trade name Cloisite-30B, was purchased from Southern Clay Products, Inc., USA. Cloisite 30B is an organically modified MMT clay with MT2EtOH based Tallow compound, where MT2EtOH is
2.2. Laminate preparation

Glass fiber reinforced and nanoclay filled epoxy hybrid laminates were prepared by Vacuum Assisted Resin Infusion Molding (VARIM) process. The processing of laminates involved two steps: the first step was mixing of nanoclays in the epoxy resin and the second step was the infusion of the modified resin into the glass fiber rovings.

Six (6) layers of plain weave glass fiber (WGF) rovings were cut to size 35 cm × 35 cm, and subsequently weighed. An equivalent weight of epoxy resin to that of the 6 layers of WGF was used. Nanoclays of various weight percentages (0–5 wt.%) to that of epoxy/hardener mixture was taken and mixed with epoxy resin at room temperature. The mixing was carried out for 1 h at 500 rpm with mechanical stirrer. After mixing the resin with the clay 30 wt.% of hardener (equivalent to epoxy resin weight) was added to the epoxy-clay mixture and then processed to form a laminate. The laminates were processed by using a vacuum pressure of 0.5–2 bars. During the resin infusion process, the time taken for the resin to flow to predetermined points was taken and the corresponding viscosity and degree of cure (\(\alpha\)) was measured.

2.3. Characterization

The viscosity of the unfilled and nanoclay filled resin system was measured using a Brookfield viscometer according to the ASTM D2393-86 method. FTIR spectra of the epoxy, the clay, the glass fiber, the unfilled and the clay filled epoxy glass fiber hybrid composite was evaluated in the Attenuated Total Reflectance (ATR) mode, in the 800–4000 cm\(^{-1}\) range. FTIR spectroscopy was performed at the different stages of processing of composite laminate to evaluate degree of cure. The laminate was water quenched periodically during processing so as to ascertain the degree of cure (\(\alpha\)) at a given time. The degree of cure was measured using FTIR, in which the ratio of peak value of epoxide oxirane group of cured to uncured samples was measured as discussed elsewhere [30]. Three samples were used to measure viscosity and obtain FTIR spectra, and the average values were considered for discussion.

The structure of the composites was examined using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and Transmission electron microscopy (TEM). A Philips PW1050 diffractometer was used to obtain the X-ray diffraction patterns using Cu K\(_\alpha\) lines (\(\lambda = 1.5406\) Å). The diffractograms were scanned from 3° to 16° (2\(\theta\)) in steps of 0.02° with a scanning rate of 0.5°/min. Microscopic investigation of selected specimens at the various weight compositions were conducted using a Philips CM120 transmission electron microscope with an operating voltage of 120 kV.

The fiber volume fraction was determined by polymer matrix burning method. In this method, a composite laminate of size 5 cm × 5 cm was cut, weighed and then burnt in a furnace at 800 °C. The unburnt fibers were weighed and the volume fraction of fibers was calculated.

Dynamic mechanical analysis was carried out at a frequency of 10 Hz in a 3-point bending mode using the TA instruments model Q800 from 25 °C to 130 °C at atmospheric conditions. Specimen of size 5.5 cm × 1 cm × 0.3 cm was used for this test.

Tensile test of composites was carried out at room temperature according to ASTM D 3039-08 method using MTS-UTM machine. For tensile test, a constant load of 1 kN and strain rate of 1 mm/min was kept and the tensile parameters (elongation to break, failure strength and stiffness) were measured. Five samples were cut from each composite panel and then tested. The mean values were considered for graphical representation and discussion.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Flow characteristics

The flow characteristic of the resin and the resin-clay mixture was studied by measuring the time taken for the resin to flow across the laminate during processing. Fig. 1 shows the time vs distance curve of unfilled and nanoclay filled epoxy resin. The results indicate that unfilled resin flows faster than filled resin and the flow speed decreases with increase in nanoclay content. Flow speed of unfilled resin was 1.48 mm/s and this reduced to 0.9 mm/s for 5 wt.% nanoclay filled resin. In order to better understand this finding the viscosity and degree of cure (\(\alpha\)) of filled and unfilled resin was studied further. Fig. 2 represents the viscosity of filled and unfilled resin at various points across the length of the laminate. A uniform viscosity of 4525 cP was observed in unfilled epoxy resin across the entire laminate length. The nanoclay filled resin system on the other hand displayed a distinct initial resin mixture viscosity (\(\eta_0\)) and a time dependent gel viscosity (\(\eta_g\)) and the viscosity of resin increased as the clay content increased. The viscosity of 5 wt.% filled nanoclay increased to 5153 cP (and 5322 \(\eta_g\)) from 4525 cP for unfilled laminate.

The viscosity was further examined by studying the curing characteristics of filled and unfilled resin. Fig. 3 shows the degree of cure of filled and unfilled resin at various stages of laminate processing. The results indicated that \(\alpha\) remained unchanged in the unfilled laminate, but it continuously increased across the infusion length of the nanoclay filled laminate. The degree of cure for unfilled laminate was 6% and this increased to 21% in 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate. One possible reason for this increase may be due to the presence of organoions in the clay. Alkyl ammonium ions (organions) of nanoclay may have catalyzed the curing of epoxy and hence increased the degree of cure. This is consistent with the finding reported elsewhere [31,32]. To gain an understanding of this phenomenon, a series of FTIR tests was performed. Fig. 4 shows the FTIR spectrum of unfilled and clay filled epoxies during processing. The characteristic peaks of unfilled epoxy resin were observed at 3467 cm\(^{-1}\) and 1630 cm\(^{-1}\) (peaks due to primary amines), 3000–2700 (CH stretching), 1514 cm\(^{-1}\) (aromatic ring), 1293 cm\(^{-1}\) (hydroxyl ether group) and 912 cm\(^{-1}\) (epoxide group) [33]. The characteristic peaks for the glass fiber was at 1120 cm\(^{-1}\) and 930 cm\(^{-1}\) due to Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) and SiO\(_2\) stretching vibrations respectively [34]. Cloisite 30B showed the characteristic peaks at 1030 cm\(^{-1}\) Si–O plane stretching, 3440 cm\(^{-1}\) and

![Fig. 1. Flow behavior of resin and resin-clay mixture during laminate processing.](image-url)
1630 cm⁻¹ hydroxyl groups due to water molecules, 2929 cm⁻¹, 2846 cm⁻¹, 1437 cm⁻¹ (organic C–H bands) [35]. FTIR spectrum of clay filled laminate showed the presence of all the constituents i.e., clay, epoxy and glass fiber and with reduced epoxide peak values at 912 cm⁻¹ (this peak is indicated by an arrow, see Fig. 4). The reduction of epoxide peak was greater with corresponding increase in nanoclay content. The reduction of the epoxy peak suggests that the amine group acted as a catalyst during the epoxy curing and hence induce more favorable epoxy ring opening polymerization which resulted in increased degree of cure. This increased degree of cure possibly creates time dependent gel viscosity ($\eta_g$) [36,37]. Fig. 1 shows delayed resin infusion across the laminate due to increase in the degree of cure.

### 3.2. Compressibility

Fig. 5 shows the effect of vacuum on the laminate thickness as a function of clay content. The results suggested a reduction in laminate thickness (unfilled laminate) as the vacuum pressure increased. A 3.1 mm thick laminate reduced to 2.15 mm when vacuum pressure was changed from 0.5 bar to 2 bar. A similar effect was observed for nanoclay filled laminates; however, thickness reduction was much lower than the unfilled resin laminate. The rate of reduction of laminate thickness decreased as the nanoclay content increased. The thickness of 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate at 2 bar vacuum pressure was 3 mm. Due to the change in thickness of unfilled and clay filled laminates, the corresponding volume fraction ($V_f$) was also changed. Fig. 6 shows the effect of vacuum pressure on the fiber volume fraction. At 0.5 bar vacuum pressure the $V_f$ of all the laminate series was approximately 0.46. The $V_f$ of unfilled laminate increased as vacuum pressure increased, however, the rate of increase of $V_f$ for filled resins reduced. At 2 bar vacuum pressure, the $V_f$ was 0.62 and 0.47 for unfilled and 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate respectively. Amongst all the test samples, the lowest $V_f$ change due to increased vacuum pressure was observed in 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate. This result suggests that the compressibility property of the nanoclay filled laminates was superior to unfilled laminates. These phenomena may be attributed to the increased viscosity of filled resin and the increased degree of cure.

The rheological property of resin flow front was studied by measuring the permeability of the glass fibers during resin infusion. Using Darcy’s law as per Eq. (1), the permeability ($k$) was be calculated as,

$$Q = -\frac{kA}{\mu} \frac{(P_i - P_f)}{L}$$  \(1\)

where $Q$ is the quantity of resin (g) that flows across the length $L$ (mm) and with cross sectional area $A$ (mm²). $\mu$ is the viscosity of the resin (cP) at length $L$, $P_i$ and $P_f$ are the initial pressure and pressure at length $L$. 

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**Fig. 2.** Viscosity of epoxy and epoxy-clay mixture during laminate processing.

**Fig. 3.** Effect of clay content on the degree of cure ($\alpha$) during laminate processing.

**Fig. 4.** FT-IR spectrum of partially cured epoxy, clay, glass fiber and epoxy-clay-glass fiber laminate mixture.

**Fig. 5.** Effect of vacuum on laminate thickness of composites.
Fig. 6. Compressibility characteristics of laminates.

Fig. 7 shows the permeability (k) of the woven glass fiber using both filled and unfilled epoxy. The results show that the permeability of fibers set in unfilled resin remained constant at 1400 mm² during entire infusion period, whereas k decreased as nanoclay content increased. Conversely, the k value of filled resin reduced as resin infusion length increased. This reduction of k value in clay filled resin may be due to the increased viscosity, degree of cure or reduced flow rate, or a combination of these events. The permeability of 5 wt.% nanoclay filled resin was 919 mm² and 707 mm² at 0 mm and 300 mm respectively. Clearly, the selection of infusion points in nanoclay filled hybrid composites is a critical parameter and must be considered during laminate processing, to maintain desired permeability, thickness and Vf.

3.3. Structure

Both the unfilled and nanoclay filled composite laminates were examined by using XRD and TEM in order to verify rheological properties. Fig. 8 shows the XRD patterns of Cloisite 30B clay, glass fiber, unfilled and clay filled laminates. Cloisite 30B has a sharp diffraction peak at 2θ of 5.63° corresponding to interlayer spacing (d) of 18.1 Å. Both glass fiber and unfilled epoxy resin do not have any XRD peaks and this suggests the materials are amorphous. On the other hand, XRD of nanoclay filled resin composites show a range of peak patterns corresponding to the different wt.% of clays. Epoxy with up to 3 wt.% nanoclay shows no distinct XRD peak corresponding to the diffraction peak of Cloisite 30B. The absence of diffraction peak suggests that the nanoclays are randomly dispersed in the matrix. Such type of structure is generally referred as an exfoliated nanocomposite structure [36]. Epoxies with 4 wt.% and 5 wt.% nanoclay show a sharp diffraction pattern at 2θ of 4.7° and 5.1° respectively, which corresponds to d-spacing of 23 Å and 21 Å respectively. The increased interlayer spacing suggests that the epoxy has intercalated into the gallery spacing of the clays. Such type of structures is referred to as an intercalated structure [36]. In the intercalated structure, the clay nanolayers are arranged in an orderly fashion in the matrix polymer and with increased interlayer distance compared to the clay itself. Here intercalated structure was observed only when the clay content was >3 wt.%. In order to better understand the morphology and distribution of nanoclay TEM studies were conducted. Fig. 9 shows the TEM of 1 wt.%, 3 wt.% and 5 wt.% nanoclay filled epoxy laminates where the bright phase is the matrix phase and the dark phase is the clay phase. TEM micrographs representing up to 3 wt.% clay filled laminate show the random arrangement of nanolayers in the polymer matrix confirming the exfoliated structure. TEM micrograph representing a 5 wt.% nanoclay filled epoxy laminate show the ordered arrangement of the nanolayers in the polymer matrix confirming the intercalated structure. TEM result supports the XRD result. Structural change occurred from exfoliation to intercalation as the function of clay content in epoxy polymer. As the clay content increased, the structure becomes intercalated structure, which could be related to rheological properties. Higher clay content had shown increased viscosity and catalyzed induced curing. The catalyzed curing might had resulted uneven curing at intergallery region of clay and matrix region. Possibly the curing was faster in intergallery region than that of matrix region due to curing of organoions of clay with epoxy polymer. This effect could have restricted the clay nanolayer separation and also affected the random dispersion of nanolayers (exfoliated structure) in the epoxy polymer matrix, and resulted in intercalated structure for higher clay content.

3.4. Mechanical properties

Fig. 10 shows the tensile stress–strain curves for unfilled and the nanoclay filled laminate series, and the corresponding values are shown in Table 1. The results indicate that the addition of nanoclay has an effect on the tensile property of the laminate. Tensile strength, modulus and strain values increased with an increase in clay content. Similar findings are reported elsewhere [37–40].
Reasons for improved tensile properties may be attributed to the high modulus of the clay and the improved deformation mechanisms once the nanoclay particles are infused in the polymer matrix. Fig. 10 shows the tensile stress–strain curves for all laminates, and an exploded view of the elastic portion of stress–strain curves is shown as an insert. Tensile properties (Table 1) shows continuous increase in properties up to 3 wt.% of nanoclay content. 3 wt.% nanoclay filled laminates show about 9% increase in strength, 21% increase in modulus and 15% increase in elongation at break values when compared with unfilled laminate. However, above 3 wt.% a reduction in tensile properties was observed. This reduction of properties could be possibly due to the structural changes in the laminates due to nanoclay addition. Both XRD and TEM confirm the formation of exfoliated and intercalated structures. Literature results [41–45] suggest that the exfoliated structures have superior properties, perhaps because the aspect ratio of the clay nanolayer provide with increased surface contact area. Conversely, the morphology of an intercalated structure leads to the reduction in net aspect ratio of clay layer and surface contact area which results in inferior properties to that of an exfoliated structure. From the TEM micrograph (Fig. 9) we observe few of these factors, namely, segregation of nanolayers agglomerations or improper distribution of clay nanolayers in matrix material. These factors have reduced the tensile properties of laminates with greater than >3 wt.% clays.

Fig. 11 shows the dynamic mechanical analysis of nanoclay filled and unfilled laminate series and the corresponding values are shown in Table 2. The parameters of interest are storage modulus and glass transition temperature ($T_g$). The results indicate that the storage modulus is temperature dependent and reduced with a corresponding temperature increase. The temperature at which the maximum value of $\tan \delta$ observed in DMA test is the glass transition temperature of the polymer. The addition of clay affected the storage modulus and $T_g$ of the laminates. Storage modulus and $T_g$ continuously increased with an increase in nanoclay content up to 3 wt.%, after which a reduction of modulus and $T_g$ occurred. Despite a reduction in storage modulus and $T_g$ above 3 wt.%, the values were higher than that of unfilled laminates. Structural changes occurring in the material due to nanoclay content may be primary reasons for these changes. Nanoclays are hard phase material and has predominantly higher modulus (~167 GPa) [46] than that of epoxy polymer and glass fiber which have modulii of ~3.5 GPa and ~70 GPa respectively [47]. Similar improved storage modulus due to nanoclay addition was observed elsewhere [48]. The reduction of storage modulus above 3 wt.% could be linked to the formation of an intercalated nanocomposite structure. Table 2 shows that the $T_g$ of the laminates increased in nanoclays. This is due to the thermal stability of nanoclays [48,49]. As the nanoclay content increased up to 3 wt.%, $T_g$ of the polymer also increased. However, above 3 wt.% $T_g$ reduced, possibly due to the formation of an intercalated structure. In the intercalated structure, there is a lesser amount of polymeric surface exposed to the clay surface and this allows the polymer to deform due to heating, resulting in decreasing trend of $T_g$ in laminates with above 3 wt.% nanoclays.

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**Fig. 9.** TEM image of epoxy laminate with (a) 1 wt.% clay, (b) 3 wt.% clay and (b) 5 wt.% clay.

**Fig. 10.** Tensile stress–strain curves of laminate series.
4. Conclusions

A hybrid laminate composite comprising nanoclays, glass fiber and epoxy polymer was prepared using VARIM. The effect of nanoclay on rheology, compressibility, structure and mechanical properties of laminates was examined. The nanoclay content was varied from 0 wt.% to 5 wt.% in laminates. The result showed that the resin flow speed continuously decreased with corresponding increase of clay content. The flow speed for 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate was dropped to 0.9 m/s from 1.48 m/s which is for unfilled laminate. This change of resin flow speed in clay filled epoxy was due to the change in viscosity and degree of cure. Unfilled epoxy resin shows uniform viscosity across the entire laminate processing length. However, nanoclay filled resin shows two types of viscosities, namely, initial resin mixture viscosity ($\eta_i$) and time dependent gel viscosity ($\eta_g$). Both $\eta_i$ and $\eta_g$ values were continuously increased as nanoclay content continuously increased in resin. The $\eta_i$ and $\eta_g$ for 5 wt.% nanoclay filled resin was 5153 cP and 5322 cP respectively, while it was constant at 4525 cP in unfilled resin.

FTIR results indicated that the organoions of the clay act as catalyst during epoxy resin curing, and increased the degree of cure ($\alpha$) and resulted in increased viscosity. The result also indicated that $\alpha$ remains unchanged across entire infusion period of unfilled resin, whereas it continuously increased across the infusion length as the nanoclay content increased in the laminate. Maximum improvement in $\alpha$ was observed in 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate. The $\alpha$ values are 6% and 21% for 0 wt.% and 5 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate.

The structural analysis (TEM and XRD) indicated that the nanocomposite formed exfoliated structure up to 3 wt.% nanoclay and above 3 wt.% formed intercalated structure. Due to the intercalated structure above 3 wt.% nanoclay, the material resulted in decreasing trend of tensile and DMA properties. Maximum improvement in these properties were observed at 3 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate due to exfoliated structure. At 3 wt.% nanoclay filled laminate, about 9%, 21% and 15% increase of strength, modulus and elongation respectively was observed when compared with unfilled laminates.

The outcome of this work provides basic flow characteristics of the nanoclay filled epoxy resin and suggests that designers to select infusion points carefully to produce optimally designed structures during nanoclay filled laminate processing. This result will also be helpful to control the processing parameters during infusion, namely, permeability, $V_f$, thickness, degree of cure, structure and morphology.

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